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**An investigation of Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English
language norms in UK universities**

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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy

Moray House School of Education and Sport

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Declaration of authorship

I declare that this thesis has been composed solely by myself and that it has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree. Except where states otherwise by reference or acknowledgment, the work presented is entirely my own.

Yifang Xu:

Date: 6th September 2021

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Psalm 23: 1 The LORD is my shepherd; I shall not want.

Abstract

English is now used as a global lingua franca as a result of the internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in the UK. Given that people's views on a person, such as his/her supposed capabilities, beliefs and attributes, are influenced by the language features this person adopts (Cargile, et. al., 1994), a body of Global Englishes (GE) literature has endeavoured to understand English language learners'/teachers' and language practitioners' language attitudes and experiences to enhance the teaching/learning or working outcomes. However, UK universities are criticised for neglecting the diverse linguistic landscape and multilingual repertoire of their international academics and students (Bonacina-Pugh, Borakos & Chen, 2020; Jenkins, 2014). Likewise, there is a lack of scholarly attention on the voices of international staff in this under-presented context of HEIs in an English-dominant (ED) country, where the 'default' standard English setting is tacitly approved.

Drawing on language attitude theories, this study sets out at the intersection of the internationalisation of HE, GE, and language attitude, with a close-up look at a particular international staff group, namely Chinese academics. The study aims to explore Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms as well as the associative factors and possible impact of these language attitudes in UK universities. To investigate this issue, Chinese academics who work in the UK HEIs were recruited to obtain both quantitative and qualitative data. 134 questionnaires were collected and analysed through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). 14 online interviews were conducted and analysed through content analysis. The result indicates two sets of language attitude of these Chinese academics. First, a strong and dominant native-bound attitude, which was influenced by the interplay between the English education system in China and the language policy in the UK, is identified. These native-bound attitudes negatively influenced their psychological states and participation in academic activities. Second, constant positive attitudinal responses

towards the diverse English use by NNESs were also noted which was influenced by their GE-related experience.

This study contributes to a better understanding of international academics' linguistic experiences through the lens of GE. It also provides useful information for international universities to have a re-think of the taken-for-granted exclusive 'legitimacy' of the standard/native English and how UK HEIs could offer institutional support for both domestic and non-domestic stakeholders in order to raise their awareness towards the changing linguistic landscape as well as equipping them with the knowledge and autonomy to proactively accommodate the linguistic and cultural diversity on the internationalised campuses instead of superficially helping or 'obliging' NNESs to abide by the NS norms.

Key words: Internationalisation of Higher Education, Global Englishes, Language Attitude, Language Policy, Factor Analysis

Lay summary

This thesis explores Chinese academics' attitudes towards the English language in relation to their experiences working in multilingual and international universities in the UK. The increasing number of non-native English speakers has brought a dramatic change to the student and staff make-up of UK universities. However, the standard form of English still seems to be the only acceptable language in the UK academic settings which marginalises those non-native speakers of English. The questions, therefore, appeared that whether and why non-native English speakers still have to follow the 'native' rules of English in academic settings when mutual understanding can be achieved?

I have collected questionnaires from 134 Chinese academics and conducted online interviews with 14 Chinese academics to investigate their thoughts about English and using English in academic settings. Both questionnaire and interview findings showed a deeply rooted positive attitude to Standard English of these academics. This attitude was very likely to be influenced by the Chinese educational system which consistently emphasised a standard of English. This creates a dilemma in that they sacrificed their time to make extra efforts to follow the 'Standard English' rules in vain and in pain. What is worse, universities in the UK overlooked this issue and only provided support for international academics from a surface level. Although Chinese academics sometimes questioned their 'Standard-English Complex' considering their multilingual working environment, these thoughts were not strong enough to overturn their original opinions and make changes to their situations.

This study urges both stakeholders and policymakers to re-think the role of the English language in academic settings from a more inclusive perspective. By challenging their inherent understanding of language standards, this study criticises the unequal nature of UK universities' policy which tacitly approves the 'Standard-English-only' rule.

This study also appeals to the stakeholders including non-native English speakers themselves and the institutions to embrace variants of English used by speakers with different first languages.

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Abbreviations

AmE	American English
AusE	Australian English
CET	College English Test
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
ED	English-dominant
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EGL	English as a Global Language
EIL	English as an International Language
EIL	English as an International Language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ELFA	English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings
ELT	English Language Teaching
EMI	English as a Medium of Instruction
ENL	English as a Native Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
FA	Factor Analysis
FE	Further Education
GA	General American
GAE	General American English
GE	Global Englishes
GELT	Global English Language Teaching
HE	Higher Education
HEbr	Hong Kong English with a Broad Accent
HEed	Hong Kong English with an Educated Accent
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HESA	Higher Education Statistics Agency
IDG	Indigenous Speech Community
IE	Indian English

JE	Japanese English
LFC	Lingua Franca Core
LFE	Localised Form of English
LFE	Lingua Franca English
Mdn	Median
ME	Mandarin-accented English
MGT	Matched Guised Technique
MoE	Ministry of Education
NES	Native English Speaker
NNES	Non-native English Speaker
NNS	Non-native Speaker
NS	Native Speaker
PBC	Perceived Behavioural Control
PD	Perceptual Dialectology
PE	Philippine English
PMI	Prime Minister's Initiative
RP	Received Pronunciation
SE	Standard English
SEI	Standard English Ideology
SLI	Standard Language Ideology
SpanE	Spanish English
SSBE	Standard Southern British English
STL	Settler's Speech Community
TE	Taiwanese English
TEM	Test for English Majors
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
TynE	Tyneside English
VGT	Verbal Guised Technique
VOICE	Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English

Chapter 1 Introduction

The aim of this thesis is to investigate Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms as well as identifying factors associated with their language attitudes and the possible influences of these language attitudes on their language-related behaviours or behavioural intentions against the backdrop of the internationalisation of the UK Higher Education (HE). This chapter firstly introduces the background of the study by problematising the status quo of the UK universities being so-called 'international' while still adopting a 'default' standard-English monolingual view (Section 1.1). Section 1.2 stresses the importance of understanding language attitude in relation to Global Englishes (GE) as well as pointing out the research gaps and significance of the research. Section 1.3 provides an outline of the research purpose and questions, followed by a summary of the thesis structure (Section 1.4).

1.1 'International' or 'intranational' universities?

UK universities have seen a fast-growing number of international students and academic staff. In response to this, the UK Government has issued the Prime Minister's Initiative (PMI, 2009) 1 and 2. The first phase of the PMI was launched by the Government in 1999 and a five-year strategy was applied to increase the number of international students in the UK. Notably, this is regarded as the 'highest political level of importance of the international education industry for the first time to the UK' (Merrick, 2007, p. 1). The initial target was to raise the number of non-EU international students to 75,000 by 2005, of which 50,000 would be in HE and 25,000 in Further Education (FE). According to the statistics, the real number is much higher than the target, as there were an extra 93,000 in HE and 23,300 in FE. The second phase started in 2006 to 'secure the UK's position as a leader in international education and sustain the managed growth of UK international education delivered both in the UK and overseas.' (PMI, 2009). Meanwhile, there is a great increase in the number of

international academics too. According to Universities UK (2020), one in five staff (20.9%) in UK universities were international staff in 2018-2019. In recent years, China has outnumbered the US and become the 4th largest group in term of international academic staff input ranking after EU countries including Italy, Ireland, and Germany. This linguistic diversity might be more easily to be noticed in more prestigious and international Russell Group universities. Overall, all these strategies and statistics indicate the emphasis on the internationalisation of the UK HEIs at the national level and an increasingly diverse student and staff make-up of the UK universities.

Consequently, English as a lingua franca (ELF), which is defined as ‘a contact language between speakers or speaker groups when at least one of them uses it as a second language’ (Mauranen, 2018, p. 8), as a phenomenon, becomes prevalent in the UK academia given the multilingual nature of the UK HEIs. As in an English-dominant (ED) country where the ‘default’ setting of standard English is often tacitly approved and taken for granted by both policymakers and stakeholders, these ‘international’ UK universities, along with their ‘internationalisation at home’ strategies, also seem to neglect the diverse linguistic landscape and the multilingual repertoire of their international academics and students (Bonacina-Pugh, Borakos & Chen, 2020; Jenkins, 2014), thereby failing to (re)consider and reflect on its preconceived ‘hidden’ standard-English (SE) monolingual view.

Similarly, although some researchers in the field of internationalisation of HE (e.g., Hsieh, 2012; Jiang, Di Napoli, Borg, Maunder, Fry & Walsh, 2010; Luxon & Peelo, 2009) shifted their focus from international students to international academic staff, who also play a crucial role in operating and (re)shaping international universities, these researchers failed to question the SE-dominant, monolingual ethos in UK HEIs when viewing the linguistic diversification of the international cohorts of staff. On the

contrary, researchers appear to maintain that all language diversities/differences of international academics as language barriers and deficiencies from their intrinsic monolingual SE view. It is thus imperative to (re)address the gap between the ‘international universities’ and the ‘intranational linguistic ideology’ from a multilingual perspective by (re)considering the taken-for-granted exclusive ‘legitimacy’ of the SE from exploring the actual ecology of international staff’s language experiences in the internationalised universities.

1.2 Global Englishes and language attitude

As Bourdieu (1991) stresses, language is not purely an instrument of communication, but also signals wealth and authority, which carries ideology and symbolic power. People’s views of others, such as ‘their supposed capabilities, beliefs and attributes’, are influenced by the person’s language features to some extent (Cargile, Giles, Ryan & Bradac, 1994, p. 211). In terms of English language, extensive research (e.g., Canagarajah, 2007; Crystal, 1997; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2002; Kachru, 1985, 1986; Lippi-Green, 2012; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Pennycook, 2007) has criticised the dominance of SE and Native Speaker (NS) norms which implies superiority of Native English Speakers (NESs) hence marginalising other Non-native English Speakers (NNEs), let alone the fact that there are more NNEs (987.2 million) than NESs (369.9 million) (Ethnologue, 2021) . Galloway & Rose (2015) adopted ‘Global Englishes’, a term first coined by Pennycook (2007), as an umbrella term to include relevant concepts that emphasise linguistic diversities against SE dominance such as World Englishes (WE), ELF, and English as an International Language (EIL). GE refers to not only the identification and codification of ‘non-native’ national English varieties within the national boundaries but also the use of English as a contact language across or beyond national boundaries (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Likewise, GE researchers remark on the global spread of English, challenge the dominant role of SE norms as well as raising questions about the ownership of English to emphasise the ‘heterogeneous and variable’ (Mauranen, 2018) nature of English language against the

fixation of the so-called SE. They also endeavour to raise awareness of the diverse NNEs also being English language users in their own right as NESs (A debate on native and non-native speakers will be further discussed in 2.3.1).

Having said this, most GE researchers focus mainly on students'/teachers' in the English Language Teaching (ELT) context (e.g., Almegren, 2018; Chien, 2014; Fang, 2016; Kobayashi, 2002; McKenzie, 2010; Wang, 2013, 2014; Yook & Lindemann, 2013; Zhang, 2013) and language practitioners' attitudes in the English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) context (e.g., Flowerdew, Li and Miller, 1998; Jenkins, 2014; Jenkins & Wingate, 2015; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011) towards English language aiming to enhance the learning/teaching or working outcomes in a non-English environment. Few of them investigate non-native academics' opinions who work in a SE-dominant but also multilingual setting where the SE-dominant monolingual ethos and English-as-a-lingua-franca phenomenon seem to be the 'unity of opposites', i.e., the UK academic settings. These non-native academics, as Jenkins (2014) points out according to her experience, regardless of their awareness of the global expansion of English, tend to take a 'When in Rome, do as the Romans do' position, i.e., acknowledge the legitimacy of SE and automatically follow the traditional SE norm. However, this statement is yet to be confirmed by empirical studies since international academics' voices still remain unheard by both authorities and researchers.

Moreover, understanding people's attitudes could provide a useful account of the 'backdrop for explaining linguistic variation and change' as well as interpreting more complicated 'sociolinguistic and social psychological phenomenon' (Garrett, 2010, p. 15). However, although some GE researchers (e.g., Fang, 2016; Flowerdew Li and Miller, 1998; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011; Wang, 2014) claim to investigate English speakers' language attitude, they fail to discuss and employ relevant language attitude theories as the theoretical basis but tend to regard the term

‘attitude’ interchangeably with ‘perceptions’ or ‘opinions’. In this sense, it is difficult for them to explain various contradictory and complicated attitudes they have identified in their research. They can hardly reflect on the complicatedness of issues neither such as how people position themselves socially and how they relate to other individuals or groups as well as how their behaviours and experiences being affected (Garrett, 2010).

Therefore, there is a need to understand how these international academics ‘see [linguistic] situations’ and how they ‘behave toward the [linguistic] situations or [English language]’ (Pickens, 2005, p. 44) through the lens of GE based on fundamental language attitude theories, in order to understand not only how they react to the current linguistic diversity, but also to apprehend the complicatedness of their language attitudes to explain language-related experiences and behaviours (intentions) in the academic setting. This may potentially help the international universities to ponder over the ecology of the UK academic settings from a multilingual and more inclusive perspective.

1.3 The current study

The current study is therefore set out at the intersection of the internationalisation of HE, Global Englishes and language attitude, with a close-up look at one of the four largest international staff group, namely Chinese academics (Universities UK, 2020) in the UK’s prestigious Russell Group universities, which are considered to have a great national and global impact and attract a large number of international students and staff from around the world (Our Universities, n.d.). Chinese academics seems to be the ideal group to shed more light on the current research for two reasons. First, as a result of Chinese internationalisation strategies, over recent decades, many Chinese students and academic staff came to the UK to pursue their further study and career. According to the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) (2020), The number of first-year Chinese students has grown dramatically from 25135 to 86485 from 2006 to

2019. HESA (2020) further highlights the key fact that 32% of first-year non-UK domiciled students come from China. In addition, since 2013, first-year Chinese students have outnumbered first year EU students and became the biggest group among international students. Predictably, some of these students may continue to stay in the UK universities after graduation and become academics. Chinese internationalisation strategies, together with the constant student-academic transitions, have contributed to a great increase in numbers of Chinese staff, which makes China outnumber the USA and become one of the top 4 countries of nationality for the input of international academic staff in the UK (Universities UK, 2020).

Second, China's academic rise has significantly contributed to the worldwide academia including the UK academia. From Nature Index's (2020) rank on high-quality research output, China has always occupied second place which has exceeded all the European countries. Moreover, UK's collaborations with China, of which China's publications featuring a UK co-author (59513), have increased by 70.2% since 2014 (Universities UK, 2020). Therefore, UK universities are likely to witness more Chinese academics who are experts in their professional field to be employed by or exchanged to the UK universities against the backdrop of globalisation and internationalisation of HE. However, despite the large number of Chinese academics and the significant impact they have brought about to the UK academia, the host institutions seem to regard international academics as a homogeneous group rather than noticing the distinctiveness of each ethnic/cultural/speech communities in terms of institutional support, hence fails to hear the voices and linguistic experiences/challenges of Chinese academics as a particular speech community.

Notably, given the function-focused and flexible nature of both spoken language and GE, the current study focuses mainly on spoken language rather than written language, which the rules and forms is a valued part of language, as an exploratory start to

understand Chinese academics' spoken language experiences. Therefore, this study aims to understand Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms as well as the underlying factors that influence their language attitude and the possible influence of their language attitudes on their behaviours/behaviour intentions in relation to spoken English in the UK universities to add both quantitative and qualitative empirical evidence to the internationalisation of HE, language attitude and GE literature. The research aims hence generated the following research questions:

1. What are Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms in UK universities?
2. What factors have influenced the attitudes of these Chinese academics?
3. How do attitudes towards English norms influence Chinese academics' language-related behaviour in academic settings?

By answering these three questions, the current research intends to gain a deeper understanding of Chinese academics' views on their language 'difficulties', or possibly just language diversities, how they develop their attitude and how their attitude may influence their performances participating in academic activities. The current research also hopes to assist the UK HEIs to jump out from their traditional monolingual view to reflect on their international staff's thoughts and to have a deeper understanding of their international staff's language experiences from a multilingual/GE perspective. Accordingly, universities may (re)consider their international strategies and offer the appropriate institutional support for both domestic and non-domestic stakeholders, in order to raise their awareness towards the changing linguistic landscape as well as equipping them with the knowledge and autonomy to proactively accommodate the linguistic and cultural diversity on the internationalised campuses instead of superficially helping or 'obliging' NNEs to abide by the NS norms. Moreover, the current study also hopes to assist stakeholders themselves to

(re)examine UK universities' current linguistic status quo through the lens of GE to (re)position themselves in this 'multicultural melting pot' (Durant and Shepherd, 2009, as cited in Jenkins, 2014).

1.4 Thesis structure

Chapter 2 and 3 review relevant literature according to the research aim and questions. Chapter 2 aims to provide theoretical underpinnings to understand the development and expansion of the English language within and across national boundaries as well as describing the settings of the research. For this purpose, Chapter 2 provides an overview of research literature in the field of GE starting from problematising the Standard English Ideology (SEI) in the current era when English is spreading globally (Section 2.1 & 2.2). Chapter 2 also discusses conceptual issues of WE and ELF to provide the theoretical foundations to understand varieties of English as well as justifying the legitimacy of various NNEs' English (Section 2.3). This chapter also draws on Spolsky's (2012) *three-component language policy* framework to discuss language policy as language management, language ideologies and language practices both in China (2.4.1) and in the UK academia (Section 2.4.2) to provide a comprehensive contextual background for the study by understanding the sociolinguistic contexts.

Chapter 3 firstly discusses relevant *attitude theories* which also lay the theoretical foundation of the current research to understand academics' language attitudes (Section 3.1 & 3.2). This chapter draws on Cargile et al.'s (1994) *social process model of language attitude* to synthesise previous literature regarding associative factors that may influence language attitude (Section 3.3) as well as discussing the influence of language attitude on people's external behaviours (Section 3.4). Chapter 3 also critically reviews relevant language attitude studies previously done mostly in the GE area grouped by three common approaches of language attitude measurement and

identifies the research gap as well as the need for further study (Section 3.5). The theoretical framework of the current research is also summarised in Section 3.6.

Chapter 4 describes the methodology design of the research. It firstly reiterates the research aims and questions (Section 4.1) as well as describing the research settings and participants (Section 4.2). This chapter then critically discussed the chosen Pragmatism as the philosophical foundations of the research (Section 4.3). The rationale for adopting a mixed-methods research design by the direct approach assisted with societal treatment is considered afterwards (Section 4.4). Chapter 4 also illustrates specific research methods and conduct of research including sampling methods (Section 4.5.1), data collection procedures (Section 4.5.2), initial pre-pilot exploratory interviews (Section 4.5.3), development of questionnaire and interviews (Section 4.5.4 & 4.5.5), data analysis (Section 4.5.6). The consideration of reflexivity is also presented (Section 4.5.7), followed by discussions of validity and reliability of the research design (Section 4.5.8), research ethics (Section 4.5.9) and limitations (Section 4.5.10).

Chapter 5 and 6 present the quantitative and qualitative data analysis respectively. Chapter 5 begins with the review of the quantitative data collection procedure and the introduction of respondents' demographic data (Section 5.1). The chapter then presents the descriptive analysis of the questionnaire items regarding respondents' language attitudes (Section 5.2). The results of EFA are illustrated which identifies the factors that influence language attitude (Section 5.3), followed with further statistical analysis including K-mean cluster analysis and multinomial logistic regression analysis to describe the cluster membership regarding respondents' language attitude and demographic information (Section 5.4).

Chapter 6 begins with a general description of the data analysis practices including the illustration of the transcription guidelines and the thematic framework (Section 6.1), followed by the discussion of the qualitative findings organised by the themes developed including language attitudes towards NESs, NNEs, accents, interviewees' own English and the use of English in UK academic settings (Section 6.2). This chapter also summarises qualitative results regarding quantitative findings in the previous section (Section 6.3).

Chapter 7 provides a holistic discussion from both questionnaire and interview results in relation to previous literature, i.e., quantitative and qualitative findings. This chapter answers and is organised by my three research aims and questions: 1) Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms (Section 7.1); 2) factors that influence their language attitudes (Section 7.2); 3) influences of their language attitudes on their language-related behaviours (intentions) (Section 7.3).

Chapter 8 presents the summary and conclusion of the thesis. This chapter firstly reiterates the research rationale, research questions, theoretical framework, research design including research participants, data collection and analysis methods (Section 8.1), followed by the discussion of the research findings (Section 8.2). This chapter then provides discussions of the implications of the research with regard to language policy in China from the perspectives of three components of language attitude in terms of early language attitude formation as well as language policy and GE awareness in the UK in response to the linguistic diversities and challenges facing Chinese academics (Section 8.3). This chapter concludes with the discussion of the limitations (Section 8.4), followed with the suggestions on the contributions (Section 8.5) and future studies (Section 8.6) of the research.

Chapter 2 Global Englishes and English in Higher Education

This chapter addresses English(es) in the world and the role of English in HE in relation to language policy. Section 2.1 explains the models proposed by different scholars to describe the global expansion of English in relation to the targeted UK academic settings as well as the relevant Chinese context to illustrate the historical linguistic movements of English. Section 2.2 discusses issues related to Standard Language Ideology (SLI) and Standard English (SE) ideology and raises concerns over the concept of standard English. Section 2.3 introduces the inclusive paradigm of *Global Englishes* (GE) which includes both *World English* (WE) and *English as a lingua franca* (ELF). Specifically, Section 2.3.1 focuses on WE, which describes language development models in relation to the localised/nativised process of English in China. This section further addresses issues of native and non-native dichotomy from the WE perspective to discuss the pros and cons of WE paradigm considering the current research aims. Section 2.3.2 deals with conceptual issues of ELF and relevant ELF research in relation to the current research settings. The final Section 2.4 illustrates English language policy as language management, language ideology and language practice in both Chinese educational system and the UK HEIs to provide more insights to the understanding of Chinese academics' language experiences in both settings.

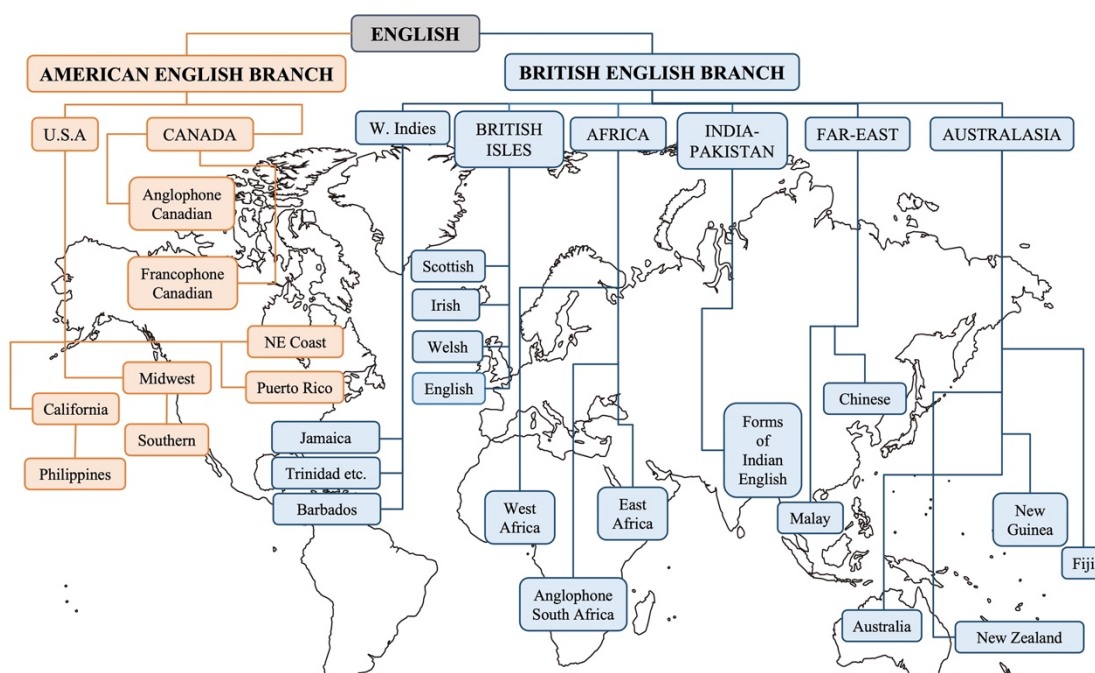
2.1 Global spread of English

There is an inevitable trend that the English language is expanding all over the world and there is a surprisingly increasing number of English users. Crystal (2006) states that nearly 1 billion people speak English irrespective of their status as NESs or NNESs. More recent statistic shows that English is spoken by nearly 1.75 billion people, which consists of a quarter of the world's population (British Council, 2013). Jenkins (2009) lists several theoretical models which have been proposed by academics to explain this tremendous expansion of English around the world and the

diversity of English speakers. This section addresses these frequently mentioned models in relation to the UK academic settings and Chinese educational settings from a historical perspective to make sense of the development of English varieties, which are often deemed as ‘misuses’/ ‘mistakes’ of English around the world.

At the early stage, Stevns (1980, 1992) constructs a world map from a historical viewpoint and concludes two major branches, namely, British English and American English (Figure 2.1). All the other subsequent forms of English are influenced by these two varieties. These subsequent forms are named as ‘localised form of English’ (LFE) by Stevns such as Indian English, Australian English and so forth, which vary in many ways and change in times.

Figure 2.1 World map of English (Adapted from Stevns, 1980, p. 86)



However, Stevns’ model fails to explain the use of English in countries such as China and Japan as he regarded the use of English in these countries as non-recognisable LFE or LFE just about to emerge. This might be the case in the 1980s and 1990s, while this argument is outdated regarding the influence of globalisation and internationalisation

which has dramatically changed the worldwide linguistic landscape. Taking China as an example, Kirkpatrick (2007) addresses three points to note the crucial role of English in China. First, English is used in education and the population of English learners in China exceeds that of the combined population of English-speaking countries. Second, English is used as a lingua franca in business and trade in China. Third, English is used as a virtual language in computer mediated communication in China. All these points indicate that English is no longer a ‘non-recognisable’ or the ‘yet-to-be’ LFE but is used by many people in China in various circumstances. Moreover, this model fails to explain the use of English in a lingua franca context which may be taken place anywhere regardless of certain countries as the world becomes more globalised.

There are two other scholars (McArthur, 1987; Görlach, 2002) who provide wheel models of the global expansion of English. McArthur’s (1987, 1992) *circle of World English* puts World Standard English at its core. The core is surrounded by Eight bands of regional English varieties, which are further surrounded by various subvarieties. However, this model fails to describe the ‘true historic, political and linguistic ties that exist in the varieties of English represented’ (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 17). To be specific, Galloway and Rose (2015) give an example of Hong Kong English and Philippine English which are in the same category and suspect their position in the category of East Asian standardizing English as these Englishes are more influenced by British and American English respectively from a historical, political and linguistical view, and are different to Chinese and Japanese English.

Görlach (1988) proposes a similar model of English which puts the entity ‘International English’ at the hub, surrounded by regional/national standard Englishes. Regional/national standard Englishes are enclosed by semi-standards English, which is further surrounded by dialects and creoles. Unlike Strevens’s model which emphasise

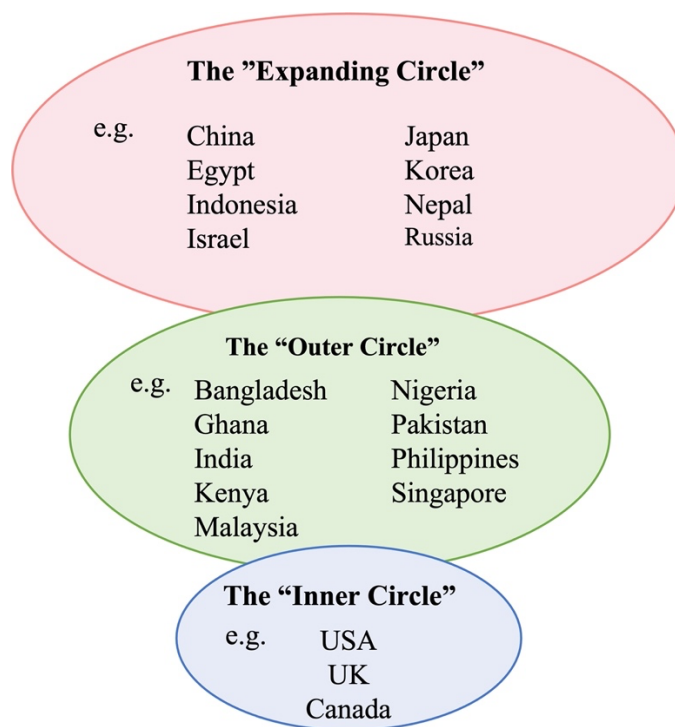
the central position of British and American English as the only norms, the other two models regard some other English varieties as equivalently legitimate as the British/American English such as South Asian Englishes and Canadian English.

However, these two models are not without problems. First, these wheel models seem to suggest a hierarchical status of different English varieties in a way that the closer to the centre, the more standard the variety might be. This is reflected in the terms both researchers suggested in the model. For instance, it seems that McArthur (1987) adopted terms such as World Standard English, British and Irish Standard English, American Standard English as the centre varieties to attach values to these standardised varieties. Similarly, the use of the term standard and semi-standard Englishes by Görlach (1988) also implies a higher position of central varieties. Moreover, as Jenkins's (2009) points out, the centre of these models, namely Standard World English (McArthur, 1987) or International English (Görlach, 1988), do not have an identifiable form. That is, these two fundamental English varieties are not a real variety of English but exist only conceptually or ideologically. Issues related to standard language as an abstract idealisation will be discussed in detail later in 2.2. In addition, just as Strevens's model, these models fail to take into account the possibility of English used as a lingua franca in certain context regardless of geographical boundaries (e.g., the UK academia) as a result of globalisation and internationalisation process around the world.

Besides the above-mentioned models, Kachru's (1985) three-circle model is the most influential one (Figure 2.2). The Kachruvian model develops three circles of English use: inner, outer and expanding circles. The inner circle includes countries where English is used as the native language (ENL) such as the UK, USA, Canada and so forth; the outer circle indicates countries where English is one of their official languages or as an additional or a second language (ESL) such as India, Singapore,

Philippines and so forth; and the expanding circle contains countries where English has no official status and is learned as a foreign language (EFL) including China, Japan, Korea and so forth.

Figure 2.2 The three-circle model of World Englishes (adapted from Kachru, 1990, p. 4)



Bruthiaux (2003, p. 160) stresses that this model 'break[s] new ground in raising awareness of the very existence of dynamic varieties of English with growing populations of speakers and increasingly vibrant media, literatures, and popular cultures'. Kachru's circle model is different from previous ones as it does not imply a hierarchy of language varieties and includes all the existing varieties of English in various countries. As in his own words, the model 'represent(s) the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural contexts' (Kachru, 1992, p. 356).

However, this model also has its problems. First, as Jenkins (2009) addresses, there are grey areas among each circle. English may not be learnt as ESL but ENL in some outer circle countries and many expanding circle countries are transforming from EFL to ESL. She (2009) also points out that the model cannot be used to define speakers' language proficiency given that it is not impossible that a NES's language proficiency can be worse than NNEs's'. Another disadvantage of Kachruvian model which is addressed by many other scholars (cf. Bruthiaux, 2003; Galloway and Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2009; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Schneider, 2014a) is that it fails to take account of speaker mobility among the circles and linguistic diversity within each circle as the world becomes more globalised. That is to say, the model regards countries as monolithic entities and ignores the individual diversity and differences of language speakers and users in a diverse context. Jenkins (2009) illustrates an example that some English speakers are very likely to use English as their first language (L1) although they live in outer circle countries. Bruthiaux (2003) gives a more complex example, namely South Africa, to show the inner diversity within a country. South Africa has three main English varieties which are operated with distinct social and functional distribution. Therefore, it seems that South Africa fits neither the inner nor the outer circle of the model (de Kadt, 2000). Considering the current context of study, although the UK belongs to the inner circle, Kachru's model fails to consider the mobility of particular settings, namely academic settings where academics and students have various linguistic repertoire. This model also cannot explain the diversity of English used among international speakers since English communications can take place across circles (e.g., Pennycook, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2011).

Many scholars (e.g., Galloway & Rose, 2015; Ishikawa, 2015; Jenkins, 2009) have criticised that none of the above models consider the use of English as a lingua franca within one region/circle or a certain context (e.g., the UK academic settings) while English communications are likely to take place across circles involving both NESs

and non-native English speakers NNEs. Nevertheless, this study will still refer to Kachru's three circle model in relation to the expansion of English globally as it seems to regard varieties of English equally and 'does not suggest that one variety is any better, linguistically speaking, than any other' (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 28). Moreover, Kachru's three circle model is well-known in the field and is frequently adopted by scholars as it is highly influential to scholarly understanding of the sociolinguistic realities of the spread of English (Jenkins, 2015). It is therefore more meaningful to refer to either the target context, i.e., the UK in the inner circle, or the relevant context, i.e., China in the expanding circle to explain the linguistic situations drawing on the Kachruvian model. Notably, the development of English in countries from outer and expanding circles will be discussed in more details in Section 2.3.1.1.

2.2 Standard English ideology

A trend can be observed by viewing above-stated models that scholars are devoted to altering the dominant position of standard English, or more specifically, British/American English-centred status. However, despite the global spread of English and the scholarly attention to the English use in outer and expanding circle countries, people still seem to have a 'Standard English Complex', which is to attach their value only to SE by regarding SE as the only norm. Piller (2015) has concluded several 'common-sense assumptions' about English as a global language at the beginning of his work. One of these 'assumptions' is that English spoken by speakers from the UK and the USA is the best kind of English and others should imitate their English. This common-sense assumption suggests that English has its 'norms' or 'standard' forms for speakers to follow. Speakers with this thought may live in a 'standard language cultures' (Milroy, 2001) and people in this culture agree with the ideology of the standard language. In order to have a better understanding of the nature of SE and how SE gains its prestigious status, this section introduces relevant terms

including standardisation and SLI prior to discuss SE to provide a wider picture of this concept.

Before understanding the definition of SLI which is relatively abstract, it is necessary to understand the meaning of standardisation and standard language which is more specific. Milroy (1999) points out three characteristics of standardisation. First, 'the chief linguistic consequence of successful standardisation is a high degree of uniformity of structure'; second, 'standardisation is implemented and promoted primarily through written forms of language'; third, 'standardisation inhibits linguistic change and variability' (p. 26-27). The first and the third characteristics address a strong sense of 'correctness' or 'norms' of certain structures which is invariable and resists any changes. This contradicts Milroy's earlier statement on language which he considers all languages are 'variable' and in 'a continuous state of change' (p.17). He explains this paradox that in fact, he regards the static invariant form of language as a consequence of the standardisation process. He believes that standardisation is a complex process which languages 'have undergone and continue to undergo' (Milroy, 1999, p.17). The question is, where are we now? Are we still in the process of standardisation or we have already achieved standardisation of languages?

Milroy (1999, p. 18) admits that standard languages are 'fixed and uniform-state idealisation – not empirically verifiable realities'. He (2000, p.11) further explains this point in his later work that 'these idealisations are finite-state and internally almost invariant, and they do not conform exactly to the usage of any particular speaker'. These assumptions indicate that the standard language is an idealisation which is rather abstract and does not usually conform to the usage of language speakers. That is to say, standardisation is more like an ideology and consequently, a standard language is rather in mind than in reality (Milroy & Milroy, 2012). Therefore, we can hardly

achieve language standardisation because of the constant change of the environment and society.

However, a paradox could be identified considering Milroy's (1999, 2001) description of the standard language. Milroy (1999) points out that the 'ecological success' of a certain language is not because of their superior grammatical or phonological structure but their speakers' success when considering the prestigious status of languages. That is to say, the prestigious status of the certain language is gained by its language speakers. In this sense, a paradox could be noticed regarding how standard language gains its status, according to Milroy's (2000) statement above, since it is not conformed to the usage of any English speakers. Lippi-Green's (2012) definition of SLI as following may explain this paradox to some extent:

standard language ideology is a bias toward an abstracted, idealized, homogenous [= homogeneous] spoken language which is imposed and maintained by dominant bloc institutions and which names as its model the written language, but which is drawn primarily from the spoken language of the upper middle class. (p.67)

According to this definition, first, SLI is the bias which is, in Woolard's (1992) words, 'conceptual or ideational' (p.237). Second, it is an imposed uniformity which is maintained by institutions. This may remind us of the second characteristics of standardisation proposed by Milroy (1999) that standardisation is implemented and promoted through written forms of language. A spoken/written divide can be noted from this description. If we take English as an example, this definition also echoes Trudgill's assumptions on SE. Trudgill (1999) addresses that SE is closely related to the education system and is a variety of English which is usually used in writing and printing as well as being unconnected with pronunciation. Although Lippi-Green did not explain how exactly the uniformity is imposed and maintained, he did note the

relation between SLI and the social position that the SLI is primarily generated from the spoken language of people with high social status. Therefore, in response to the paradox mentioned above, we can somehow infer from the definition that although standard language may not be conformed to any particular speaker's usage, it is originated from the use of speakers with high social status and imposed as a conceptual bias and maintained by institutions through written language.

As the focus of the current study is on the English language, this section also narrows to standard English ideology. It is essential to look further into Trudgill's (1999) description of SE as his perspectives on SE have great influences on sociolinguistics and educational linguistics (Coupland, 2000). By explaining that *SE is not a language; SE is not an accent and has nothing to do with pronunciation; SE is not a style which can be used in any styles from informal to formal; SE is not a register which has no necessary connection with technical registers; SE is not a set of prescriptive rules*, Trudgill (1999) addresses that SE is a named dialect and a variety of English which is unusual but the most important 'social' dialect (not a geographical dialect) associated with the highest degree of power, wealth and prestige.

However, his definition seems, in Coupland's words, to be over simplified. Coupland (2000) points out Trudgill's libertarian intention to combat the hegemonic perspectives of SE to legitimise 'non-standard' English and gently subvert SE. Coupland (2000) further argues that as a reality in the UK, considering from a wider cultural politic view, SE is still establishing hegemony and is not just another dialect. There is a fallacy that, as Milroy (2001) addresses, when we consider the equality of different English varieties, we argue in terms of SE versus other varieties of English. This comparison itself indicates the hegemonic status of SE whether it is unconsciously done. Therefore, as Davis (1999) and Coupland (2000) both conclude in their article, the definition of

SE is still a ‘confused and confusing’ area (p.86) and there is no unanimous definition of SE.

Nevertheless, by reviewing certain seminal literature on scholars’ definitions of SE (e.g., Crystal, 2003; Hughes and Trudgill, 1979; McArthur, 2002; Modiano, 1999; Trudgill, 1984; Trudgill and Hannah, 2002; & Widdowson, 1994), common themes are identified and concluded despite their different definitions to some extent. First, SE is the language which is used by educated and privileged people, or proficient speakers. Second, SE is greatly related to education and institutional use in written forms, or ‘more appropriately entertained in relation to written English than spoken English’ (Coupland, 2000, p.629). Third, SE has a prestigious status. Just as SLI, these descriptions of SE are more like a conceptual set of beliefs instead of a description of a real variety of English. Therefore, SE is ultimately an idealisation which is ‘enshrined in dictionaries, grammars, and style manuals’ and it is not a ‘real thing’ (Pennycook, 2006, p.97). Moreover, although Trudgill tried to establish an equal status between SE and other varieties of English, SE is inevitably regarded as hegemonic and prestigious. The problem is, as SE is likely to be the conceptual belief which is not a real variety of English but occupies such important status, whether we should still take a normative view on English language when the norm is hard to be defined and when ‘language varies in its usage throughout the world’ (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 45)?

2.3 Global Englishes

As the very notion of SE has been continually questioned and criticised, the idea of GE gradually came to prominence. Pennycook (2007) seems to be the first person who used this term, who borrows the pluralisation strategy of WE to address the spread and use of English in the process of globalisation from a broader view than WE. Afterwards, Jenkins (2011) has introduced it as an inclusive research paradigm to include any research which accept any English speakers and varieties in their own right,

instead of evaluating them against a native-speaker English benchmark. As suggested in her later book (Jenkins, 2015), GE seems to include but not limited to the concept of WE and ELF. Galloway and Rose (2015, p. xii) give a similar and more specific definition that they regard GE as an umbrella term which includes WE and ELF to focus on the ‘global consequences of English’s use as a world language’. They (Rose & Galloway, 2019) further extend the scope of this term to consolidate research in not only WE and ELF but also translanguaging and multilingualism. The current study adopts the first definition proposed by Galloway and Rose (2015) instead of their latest definition of GE, which regards GE as an inclusive and an umbrella term to only involve research related to WE and ELF, for the following two reasons.

First, as the name suggests, the emphasis of GE is on English language. However, the idea of translanguaging and multilingualism seem to focus more on English in relation with other languages (see Aronin & Singleton, 2012; Cenoz, 2019; Li, 2018). Considering the aim of the current study is on language attitudes towards English language, these two concepts seem irrelevant to some extent. Moreover, it seems that Rose and Galloway (2019) extend the scope of this term to take translanguaging, a concept originated in bilingual education (Baker, 2001; Williams, 1996, as cited in Rose & Galloway, 2019) and multilingualism in second language acquisition into consideration mainly due to their ELT-focused purpose. Given the focus of the current research, which is not on ELT, it is not necessarily imperative to include concepts and terms in language education and second language acquisition. Therefore, by adopting the Galloway and Rose’ (2015) first definition of GE, this section discusses WE and ELF respectively to address the theoretical underpinnings of the current study as well as making sense of relevant contexts including English language development in China and English use in the UK academia.

2.3.1 World Englishes

Pennycook (2007, p. 20) suggests WE as a better alternative to understand the global spread of English ‘since it seeks to challenge the notion of a monolithic English emanating from the central Anglo-institutions of global hegemony’. In alignment with the theoretical models discussed in 2.1, the term World Englishes pluralises the word English to show the position and stress the fact that ‘English is no longer has one single base of authority, prestige and normativity’ (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 3). The notion of WE also provides a crucial conceptual framework in terms of establishing the understanding of the role of English language on the world stage (Kachru and Nelson, 2006). The studies of WE initially focused on the Englishes in the outer circle, which is ‘institutionalised second-language varieties’ (Kachru, 1985, 1986) and then investigated the Englishes of inner and expanding circle to study the ‘differences between the local identities of the various regional/national varieties of English’ (Wolf & Polzenhagen, 2009, p. 3). Accordingly, the term ‘WE’ is used to refer to ‘all local English varieties regardless of which of Kachru’s three circles they come from’ (Jenkins, 2009, p. 200).

Broadly similar to WE, the idea of new English is also used to describe the ‘localised’ form of English (cf. Bolton, 2006). After studying Englishes of Asia, Platt, Weber, and Lian (1984, pp. 2-3) described the criteria which identify a new English as the following:

1. Has developed through the school system;
2. Has developed in an area where a native variety of English was not the language spoken by most of the population;
3. Is used for a range of functions among those who speak or write it in the region where it is used;

4. Has become 'localised' or 'nativised' by adopting some language features of its own.

The next section will discuss how 'localised' or 'nativised' English is developed through institutions combining with the above-mentioned criteria to explain how English is developed in China.

2.3.1.1 Development of 'localised'/'nativised' Englishes

With regard to the first criteria, Kachru (1992, 2006) suggests several stages that a non-native variety may pass through to become institutionalised in a historical sense. The initial stage is that people only identify native speakers but can hardly recognise the local variety. He (2006) gives an example of 'brown sahib' attitude of South-Asian people who consider their ruler, namely those 'white sahib' as elitist, prestigious and politically advantageous. He also points out that this phenomenon is related to colonisation. However, Kachru's suggestion seems to be only relevant to outer circle countries such as India. Although the resulting phenomenon may be applicable to expanding circle countries such as China after its educational reform when English plays a significant role in China's educational system, the underlying reasons of English development in China may vary as it has nothing to do with the colonisers and colonisation. That is, the initial stage is partly applicable to expanding circle countries, despite the fact that Kachru mainly focuses on outer circle countries and there are differences in underlying reasons of English development for countries in different circles.

The second stage is related to the prevalence of bilingualism in English. This stage echoes the second and the fourth criteria of new English provided above to some extent. At this stage, varieties are derived and developed within a variety. That is to say, the English language gradually becomes nativised or localised. Although people's attitude

may remain negative on these varieties, these Englishes are used more widely by speakers. Kachru gives an example that in India, the norm (British variety) is seldom followed by people while labelling someone's English as Indian English is an insult. Again, Kachru seems to mainly describe the development of non-native varieties in outer circle countries. However, it is also applicable to expanding circle countries to some extent. Take China as an example, with an increasing emphasis on SE, Chinese English, or Chinglish is usually related to negative responses and comments by Chinese English speakers (cf. He and Li, 2009; Wang, 2015b) although it is widely used in China.

The third stage indicates a reduced division between linguistic norm and behaviour, and non-native varieties are gradually accepted as the norm. This may be related to the functional uses of non-native varieties according to the third criteria of new English mentioned above. Kachru (2006) points out four functions, namely, *instrumental function*, *regulative function*, *interpersonal function* and *imaginative/innovative function*. To be specific, *instrumental function* refers to the use of English as a medium of instruction in educational systems. *Regulative function* means the use of English to manage people's conducts. Examples given by Kachru are the legal system and administration. The *interpersonal function* contains two aspects: first, the use of language between speakers from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds; second, the use of language as a code which indicates modernisation and elitism. The *imaginative/innovative function* means the use of English in different literary genres. Kachru considers some South Asian varieties of English is used in all these four functions. Comparatively, it seems not all the functions are applied to China. Only instrumental, interpersonal and imaginative/innovative function can be identified in the current use of English in the Chinese context as English is not prevalently used in the legal/administrative system. Nevertheless, China is in the process of applying regulative function. According to Feng (2011), the judges and police officers start to

have English training courses and English is gradually used in public service in many cities such as traffic control and security checks.

The fourth stage is about recognition. The recognition may manifest itself in attitudinal terms and contextualised teaching materials (Kachru, 2006). People's attitude may slowly develop to be more positive towards non-native varieties because of their 'linguistic realism and attitudinal identification with the variety' (Kachru, 2006, p. 115). The teaching materials may also become more contextualised which is more relevant to their local sociocultural environment. This stage seems not applicable to China as people still seem to react negatively on their non-native English varieties (cf. Fang, 2016; Wang, 2013, 2014). Topics related to language attitude will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. Moreover, the teaching materials are still ENL-focused in China (see Cheng, 2011; see also Zhang and Wang, 2011; Zou and Zhang, 2011).

As discussed above, it seems that the model Kachru provides is not completely applicable to expanding circle countries since he puts more emphasis on outer circle countries. Moreover, Kachru establishes this model from a historical perspective while for expanding circle countries such as China, it seems to be more appropriate to view the English language development from a contemporary perspective as the development of English in China is not related to historical events or colonists but to the trends of globalisation and internationalisation. Nevertheless, this model touches upon issues relating to how people's attitudes form and change during different stages.

Besides Kachru's proposal of non-native model development, Schneider (2007) suggests a 'dynamic model' which, in his word, is 'more ambitious in claiming that there is a shared underlying process' (p.29). His dynamic model contains five phases: 1) foundation, 2) exonormative stabilisation, 3) nativisation, 4) endonormative stabilisation, and 5) differentiation. He explains four parameters which manifest in

each stage, namely *extralinguistic (sociopolitical) background; identity constructions; sociolinguistic conditions* and *typical linguistic consequences*. He also considers the process from two groups of participants: Settler's speech community (STL) strand from the perspective of the colonisers and Indigenous speech community (IDG) strand from the perspectives of colonised.

At the foundation stage, English is introduced by settlers to local citizens, both STL and IDG groups consider themselves distinct from each other. There are two types of communication. First, communications within the STL group made by people with different English dialects. Second, restricted communications between the STL group and the IDG group. Interpreters are trained voluntarily or un-voluntarily for inter-group communications, and borrowing is uncommon except for some particular terms such as local place names. In the second phase, the settlers' communities became stabilised politically (usually under British rule) and English became more prevalent. The colonial language received higher social status and being proficient in English became an asset. More fundamental changes are made in terms of linguistic effect. For the third phase, the transition is accepted by the 'mother country' because of the increasing independence. Communications between the two groups occur more commonly on a regular daily basis. There were ongoing changes of language and what he called a 'complaint tradition' (Schneider, 2007, p. 43) shows the deviance of local linguistic use of English from the old norms. Similar with Kachru's third stage, phase 4 indicates a 'mutually reinforcing process' that the psychological independence and the acceptance of the new identity boost the codification and the production of a 'new national dictionary' on the newly emerged varieties, which, in turn, strengthens the national and linguistic identity (p. 52). In phase five, the country becomes more secure and stable, and individuals define themselves from a social entity related to the 'former colonial power' to a 'composite of subgroups' (p. 53). Schneider (2007, p. 54) emphasises that it is not the 'end point of linguistic evolution but rather a turning point'

and the ethnic, regional and communal dialects start to show greater differentiation within a national variety.

Although Schneider (2014b) in his later work claims that this model has ‘potential relevance for expanding circle context’ (p. 17), the above phases of the dynamic model can hardly be applied to expanding circle countries. Similar to Kachru, Schneider’s original focus is on inner and outer circle countries. The use of ‘postcolonial English’ in his book title *‘The evolution of Postcolonial Englishes’* clearly indicates that his emphasis is mainly on the outer and some inner circle countries, since the whole phases he describes are based on colonial history and context. He admitted (2014b) that Sergeant’s (2012) criticism that the model fails to examine expanding circle countries is ‘true but not intended’ (p. 16) and tries to examine whether this model is suitable for describing the development of English in expanding circle countries. The result shows that the model can only partly applied to expanding circle countries. Take China as an example, phase 1 and phase 5 is certainly not applicable since China does not have a colonial history. Some features are suitable in phase 2-4 such as ‘cultural borrowing’; ‘heavy lexical borrowing’; ‘phonetic and syntactic transfer’ and ‘literary creativity’. Therefore, as Schneider (2014b, p. 28) concludes, the model ‘needs to be supplemented by a theoretical framework which covers the dynamics of the Expanding Circle and of poststructural hybridity in global interactions’. Nevertheless, Schneider brings to our attention the communications and interplay between different speech communities, especially the influence from ‘native’ speakers to ‘nativised’ speakers.

Generally speaking, although it seems that the WE paradigm is not fully applicable to explain the development of English in expanding circle countries where the English language develops because of the globalisation and internationalisation (i.e., China), as its emphasis is mainly on inner and outer circle countries from a historical view, it is clear that WE stresses the national/regional English varieties as existing in their own

rights (see Kachru 1986; Kachru, 1990; Kachru and Nelson, 2006). Moreover, drawing on both Kachru's non-native model development and Schneider's 'dynamic model', a useful angle is provided to legitimise various localised/nativised English varieties including expanding circle countries. These models also help to understand how people's attitudes towards these non-native English varieties and speakers develop during the communication and localising/nativising process.

2.3.1.2 Native vs. non-native dichotomy

On the one hand, WE research looks into the development of 'localised' or 'nativised' English, on the other hand, WE research also puts efforts in criticising the 'ideological bias' (Gundermann, 2014) of NSs. Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) conclude the traditional view of NSs as those who learnt the language since childhood without formal instruction while Non-Native Speakers (NNSs) are those who learnt the language as a second language after they grasped their native language and show differences in proficiency between their native language and their second language. They (2008) further argue that this definition fails to put multilingual speakers who may have several native languages into consideration. This traditional view of NSs and NNSs implies that NS status can only be achieved in childhood while a NNS cannot be regarded as a NS even if his/her proficiency resembles the NSs. In this sense, NSs are somehow born to have a prestigious status and are, according to Kirkpatrick (2007), always believed to be better than NNSs. Just as Chomsky's (2014) concept of 'ideal speaker-hearer', this belief may result in the superiority and authority of NSs as it 'defines NSs as the only trustworthy authority over language use' (Gundermann, 2014, p. 13).

Chomsky's 'ideal speaker-hearer' concept is echoed by native-speakerism, the neo-racist ideology coined by Holliday (2005). According to Holliday (2005), native-speakerism is an ideology which regards the so-called native teachers as superior since

they represent the western culture and better teaching methodology. Although the term is generated from the field of ELT, the so-called ‘native-speaker’ brand, which labels native speakers as a superior model (cf. Holliday, 2005) is also applicable to the bigger picture of the global expansion of English. More details regarding native-speakerism will be further discussed in 2.4.1 in relation to English language policy in the HEIs.

Gundermann also (2014) stresses the main argument against the traditional view of native and non-native divide that native is not simply remaining a static status but a result of a process. According to the language development model discussed above, non-native English varieties have been through processes of localisation/nativisation. Therefore, the fact that WE scholars start to recognise, in Kachru’s (1982, p.45) words, the ‘new un-English’, may indicate that they jump out from the ‘NS ideology’ and legitimise the use of non-native Englishes. However, WE research ‘has not gone far enough in questioning the divide itself’ (Pennycook, 2003, p.520). As Phillipson (2000, p.98) argues, the terms ‘native/non-native’ themselves are offensive and hierarchical in a way that they automatically ‘regard the native as the norm and define the other negatively in relation to this norm’, thereby subconsciously internalised hierarchies and serve ‘hegemonic purposes’.

After all, WE paradigm suggests a native/non-native divide which regards inner circle as ‘norm-providing’ while outer and expanding circle as ‘norm-developing’ and ‘norm dependent’ (see Kachru, 1992). The above models which indicate the development of a ‘non-native variety of English’ also imply that native varieties are the authorities in English. Although WE research does not put native speakers at a higher hierarchy, the terms such as ENL, ESL, EFL imply that English belongs to native speakers who use it as their L1. Kachru and Nelson (1996, p. 79) also acknowledge that ‘it is almost unavoidable that anyone would take ‘second’ as less worthy’. Nelson (2011, p. 17) also stresses that English varieties in the expanding circle countries are regarded as

either an undeveloped emergent or EFL which ‘dependent upon Inner-circle English norms’. Therefore, it may be argued that although WE paradigm criticises SE ideology, it still implies a native/non-native divide which somehow conveys a hierarchical meaning.

Similar with the hegemonic-SE-versus-other-Englishes situation mentioned by Milroy (2001) in Section 2.2, Kumaravadivelu (2016) appeals to scholarly attention on discontinuing comparative studies between NSs and NNSs as this dichotomous focus may somehow strengthen the hegemony of native-speakerism, or the confrontational relationship between native and non-native speech groups whether it is unconsciously done. The current study, therefore, will not assign NS/NNS label to any individual but applying these terms conceptually in a more exploratory way which allows participants to interpret this concept themselves. In this sense, their understanding and interpretations of NS/NNS may partly reflect their language attitude as well as serving as, in Holliday’s (2014, p. 3) words, a ‘springboard from which [for the author] to launch opposition’.

Generally speaking, according to Pennycook (2003, p. 515), WE approach fail to recognise ‘the big picture’ of the ‘global spread of English’ and does not have a sufficient and complex understanding of the current situation of language use and identity. This critique is argued as simply ‘rhetorically attractive’ by Bolton (2005) as it focuses on fighting against inequality and injustice in order to gain the cultural rights. Correspondingly, Bolton (2005, p. 76) gives an example of the difference between Mr. Chips/Mr. Krishna (teachers) and Che Guevara to appeal for a focus on realities of being ‘educators, scholars, teachers, researchers and graduate students working in areas related to language education’ instead of ‘making self-conscious call from critical applied linguistics to political engagement’. That is, to attach more value to

real-world practices in language education instead of making ideological and impractical claims.

However, Pennycook's 'rhetorically attractive' idea (Bolton, 2005) seems to be still relevant to the current research which exactly focuses on the 'self-conscious call' of researchers, stakeholders, and policymakers. From a realistic perspective, when WE paradigm 'place[s] nationalism at its core'(Pennycook, 2007, p.20), speakers' identities are closely related to, or 'pre-given' by their nationalities. Considering native and non-native divided discussed earlier, whether an English speaker is native or not may completely depend on his/her nationality or the circle his/her country in. It is very likely to be the reality that people may continue to privilege NSs over NNSs, and then ESL speakers over EFL speakers. This may also determine whether s/he has a superior status as NSs. For example, for speakers from expanding circles (such as Chinese people) in an ENL context (the UK) where English is often used as a lingua franca, they might still regard themselves as, or be regarded as users of EFL or users with 'undeveloped English varieties'.

Moreover, from a global perspective, since the idea of WE is greatly depended on, or limited to regional use of English, it can hardly explain the English use beyond national boundaries. For example, in the UK academia where students and academic staff come from various linguistic and cultural background, English is the only language for them to communicate with each other. Nevertheless, as stated in 2.3.1.1, the notion of WE helps to describe the localised/nativised process of English, particularly the English language development in China as well as touching upon people's language attitudes formation/change towards Chinese English and Chinese English speakers for the current study.

2.3.2 English as a lingua franca

2.3.2.1 *Conceptualising ELF*

Considering the above-mentioned situation, WE does not seem to be the most appropriate alternative to describe the global spread of English and the linguistic diversity of UK HE context. The term ‘lingua franca’ was once articulated comprehensively by Samarin (1987, p. 371) as ‘any medium of communication between people of different mother tongues, for whom it is a second language’. Some later scholars (e.g., Firth, 1996; House, 1999) utilised this notion to define English as a lingua franca. For instance, Firth (1996, P. 240) suggests that ELF is ‘a contact language between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication’. In this sense, NESs seem to be excluded from ELF communications. However, there has been an increasing amount of recent literature (cf. Seidlhofer 2004, 2011; Jenkins, 2007; Mauranen, 2018) questioning the exclusion of NESs which cannot fit the global phenomenon of ELF as it only applies to regional lingua franca (Seidlhofer, 2011). The later stand seems to be more tenable and is adopted in the current research given the ED context of UK academia with diversity of English speakers. Specifically, the current study adopts Mauranen’s (2018, p. 8) working definition of ELF as ‘a contact language between speakers or speaker groups when at least one of them uses it as a second language’. Notably, unlike the native/non-native divide as an ‘ideological bias’ implied by WE, an ELF perspective eliminates the hierarchical status of NSs and regards different use of English as different instead of deficit (cf. Jenkins, 2000; see also Seidlhofer, 2004).

There are other terms raised by scholars which are similar to ELF such as EIL (English as an international language) (Jenkins, 2002; McKay, 2003); LFE (Lingua Franca English) (Canagarajah, 2007); and EGL (English as a global language) (Crystal, 1997), etc. These terms seem to suggest that there should be an international unitary variety

of English, while ELF is not a codified variety but a variable way of using it (Seidlhofer, 2011). Nevertheless, early ELF researchers did focus on ELF pronunciation and lexicogrammar trying to identify common linguistic features of ELF. Jenkins (2000) is the first researcher to explore the area of pronunciation and investigates the problems of ELF communication intelligibility and the process of speakers' phonological accommodation. The findings introduce the phonological core of intelligibility – Lingua Franca Core (LFC) – which identifies certain English pronunciation features (such as 'essentially consonant sounds apart from the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/, initial consonant clusters, vowel length distinctions and nuclear stress', Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey, 2011, p. 287) that seem to be important for achieving intelligibility in ELF communications. Soon afterwards, Seidlhofer (2001) and Mauranen (2003) established the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) and the Corpus of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (ELFA) respectively to provide corpus data for lexico-grammar studies.

Much of the early ELF literature, which is greatly influenced by WE and the notion of variety, emphasises the codification of ELF varieties by identifying its typical linguistic features (Jenkins, 2015). Later, a shift of focus of ELF research can be identified from codifying linguistic features to understanding the underlying processes of ELF communication. Seidlhofer (2008) criticises the idea of focusing only on language forms and stressed the importance of the functional perspectives of ELF, since 'English is a dynamic process, and naturally varies and changes as it spreads into different domains of use and communities of users' (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 95).

Mauranen (2018) proposes a more holistic view of the concept of ELF from three intertwined perspectives lately, namely *macro-social*, *meso-social* and *micro-cognitive* perspective. In terms of the *macro* perspective, she considers that ELF embodies contact between speakers of various 'similect'. To be specific, she replaces

the term ‘variety’ by a more neutral term ‘lects’ to describe variance and explains that similects means similar language use by speakers who share a first language and learn a given second language. (e.g., a group of speakers whose L1 is Chinese and L2 is English). Based on the idea of similect, she suggests the current context of ELF as the ‘global ELF-using community’ which is ‘a mesh of networks’ and share features with ‘imagined communities’ (members may not meet in face but share a sense of belonging to the community). In this sense, Mauranen describes the current ELF context by explaining both similarities (similects) and diversities (community) of it. This description of ELF seems appropriate for the current research as it acknowledges the language ‘varieties’ which WE emphasises and delineates the diverse and changing environment at the same time.

The *meso-social* perspective considers language use in social interactions. Mauranen (2018) explains the idea of explicitation and the usage-based models of grammar. Similar to Giles and Smith’s (as cited in Mauranen, 2018) idea of accommodation by ‘elaborating the content’, explicitation means interlocutors’ efforts of achieving mutual understanding such as paraphrasing, rephrasing and repetition or syntactic strategies. Apart from explicitation, the usage-based model is introduced to describe how the changes in English structures has been made and become more common. All these processes may lead to the result of ‘structural simplification’ to adopt most shared features that foster communicative success while avoiding those which are not helpful.

It seems that when Mauranen explains the ongoing language change process, she somewhat implies that this process is influenced by the deficiency of speakers who, in her words, ‘do not have a strong and well-defined notion of the standard form’ and ELF interactions manifest expressions which are ‘non-standard approximate forms’ (Mauranen, 2018, p. 14). However, it is worthy to be noted that the real point she tries

to convey is that during the process of ELF communications, it might be the standard norms that impede the fluency and communicative success as the speakers may refuse to use approximation which is similar to the ‘correct’ expressions. She also stresses later that the so-called ‘imperfect learning’, of which the idea was raised by Thomason and Kaufman (1992), is not applicable for ELF as she quotes McCarthy (1998, p.78) in another work of her (Mauranen, 2002), to explain that it is the ‘Discourse [that] drives grammar, not the reverse’.

Interestingly, this point somehow backs up Pennycook’s ‘self-conscious call’ mentioned above in 2.3.1.2. It is imperative for researchers to raise the ‘self-conscious call’, or the awareness for NNEs to (re)consider their communicative difficulties, or (re)position themselves from an ELF perspective when they suffer from their entrenched native-bound ideology, hence failing to construct meanings because of their refusals of approximation and intentions to rather sacrifice the communicative success.

The *micro-cognitive* perspective involves individual cognitions which is closely related to interactions. Mauranen (2018) points out that the most important phenomenon of cognitive process in ELF is approximation and fixing. To be specific, it is the process that an individual approximates intended expressions to achieve mutual understanding and sticks to certain preferred expressions. Again, it is important to ensure that individuals are aware of the benefit of approximation for a success communication and are willing to accept approximation cognitively.

Mauranen (2018) stressed that these three perspectives are intertwined and admitted the simplicity of the division which might be ‘inattentive to much of the rich detail of reality’ (p. 8). Although it seems that she implies the idea of the superior status of

standard and native norms in her argument, her three-pronged approach is helpful to capture a big picture of conception of ELF and the process of ELF communications.

According to the above discussions, several characteristics of ELF can be concluded that ELF 1) is a linguistic phenomenon which is occurred because of the global spread of English; 2) involves speakers with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (similects) from all three circle countries; 3) happens in network-based multilingual communities; 4) is used as a diverse contact language; 5) is a process of language approximation and fixing triggered by explicitation in interactions. It can be seen that the concept of ELF jumps out from the hegemony of SE norms and native/non-native dichotomy by legitimising all language users. Compared with WE, ELF seems to provide a better understanding of the current phenomenon of global communications in different domains and complement the limitation of WE by focusing on speakers from all three circle countries and diverse communications beyond the boundaries.

2.3.2.2 ELF research

Much of literature on ELF (e.g., Bayyurt & Akcan, 2015; Baker, 2009, 2011; Bjökman, 2011, 2013; Cogo and Dewey, 2012; Mauranen, 2012; Galloway, 2011; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Rose & Galloway, 2019; Jenkins, 2000, 2002, 2006; Metsä-Ketelä, 2006; Jenkins & Leung, 2013; Jenkins et al., 2011; Ranta, 2006; Vettorel, 2010, 2012; Walker, 2010) pays particular attention to address the implication of ELF in both ELT and academic settings and have attached greater importance to the former. There is an evident trend that the ELT industry shows more interest in Global Englishes aspects gradually (Cogo, 2015). Jenkins (2000, 2002) first described a model curriculum which underlines the communication needs of NNESSs. To be specific, she proposed a model of pronunciation teaching based on the LFC and other non-core features as well as accommodation skills. To develop this, Walker (2010) wrote a handbook for teachers to teach pronunciation with integrating an ELF approach. Additionally,

Bayyurt and Akcan (2015) conclude many other works on ELF from various perspectives such as cultural aspects (Baker, 2009, 2011); language testing, (Jenkins, 2006; Jenkins & Leung, 2013); teaching materials (Vettorel, 2010, 2012), etc. Except for Walker's book, no comprehensive model of applying an ELF-approach in classroom has developed in detail yet. However, these early endeavours seem to be influenced by the early focus of ELF researchers who attempted to codify ELF varieties while, as suggested before, the nature of ELF is not a codified language. The aims for developing a comprehensive model for ELF teaching seems problematic when the emphasise of ELF research shift from codification to diversification.

Later on, ELF researchers stressed the importance of raising teachers' awareness and understanding of the 'inherent variability' of English instead of providing an 'alternative model of English' (Jenkins et al., 2011). Jenkins et al. (2011) also suggest that ELF researchers' responsibility is not to decide the teaching content but to help teachers to reconsider their beliefs and practices. It is, however, meaningless if English teachers 'remains untouched' (Seidlhofer, 2001) during the development of ELF research. Similar arguments are also applicable to language learners. Therefore, language teachers and learners become an important object of ELF studies and their attitudes and thoughts are investigated by many researchers (e.g., Chien, 2014; Fang, 2016; Wang, 2013, 2014; Zhang, 2013). These empirical studies will be discussed in detail in 3.5. Based on abundant research conducted by previous researchers on stakeholders' views, Galloway (2011) have coined the term Global English Language Teaching (GELT) and provided a GELT proposals (see Galloway & Rose, 2015; Rose & Galloway, 2019) suggesting several possibilities in a GELT classroom. Notably, initial studies investigating relevant ideological issues of stakeholders seem to be fundamental as a starting point to call for more scholarly attentions and practical proposals in the field of ELT.

However, a lack of such initial studies can be observed in academic settings, although ELF also plays a significant role in Academia. As Mauranen, Hynninen and Ranta (2010, p. 640) describe, academia is ‘one of the domains that has adopted English as its common language and is one where international communication characterises the domain across the board’. That is, ELF as a phenomenon is gradually becoming more common in academic settings. Many ELF researchers have looked into ELFA by focusing on the linguistic and practical level, while the majority of their focus is on the former. On a linguistic level, many researchers look into both the area of pragmatics and lexico-grammar of ELF. Pragmatically, as Mauranen compiled the ELFA corpus which contains a total of over a million words, Cogo (2015) summarises studies using different strategies of explicitness such as metadiscourse, markers of organisation and negotiation strategies (e.g., Bjökman, 2011, 2013; Mauranen, 2003, 2012). Moreover, Cogo (2015) also point out other relevant research focusing on strategies which are identified as typical and important in academic discourse including self-repetition, paraphrasing and mediation (e.g., Kaur, 2011; Mauranen, 2012) as well as perspectives from lexico-grammar (e.g., Bjökman, 2013; Metsä-Ketelä, 2006; Ranta, 2006).

On a practical level, however, only a few researchers consider the practice and attitudes of academics towards English in academic settings. The so-called international universities are questioned by Jenkins (2014) who investigates language policy of universities. Notably, although Jenkins has taken Anglophone countries into consideration, she adopted a holistic view with more emphasis on non-Anglophone countries. She (2014) argues that there is an inequality between native students and international students and a native-bound attitude can be identified among academic staff, who basically take NS norm for granted. Some other researchers (e.g., Flowerdew, Li and Miller, 1998; Jensen and Thøgersen, 2011; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011) have specifically focus on academic staff in their domestic academic settings, namely

English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) context. Again, these studies will be further discussed in detail in 3.3.5. However, the discussions of these studies are centred on, and limited to the use of English against participants' domestic/first languages.

Research in academic settings seems to fall behind research in ELT context. There is a lack of scholarly focus on understanding stakeholders' (e.g., academics) views and awareness of ELF as a concept, research paradigm as well as a phenomenon, specifically in academia in ED countries, let alone the proposed responsive institutional support and policy change which addresses the current linguistic landscape of academia in ED countries. More research is needed in this area on academic staff who are key stakeholders. As suggested before, theoretical and linguistic findings are only effective if practitioners are closely involved. The next section, therefore, will look further into the ecology of Chinese educational context and the UK academic setting in relation to language policy to illustrate the past and current linguistic environment of the target population, i.e., Chinese academics in different linguistic settings.

2.4 English language policy

According to Spolsky (2004, 2009, 2012), language policy has three independent and inter-related components, namely language policy as language management, as language ideologies, and as language practices. Language management (also known as language planning) refers to the efforts made by authorities, or perceived authorities (i.e., government, institutions) to modify and intervene in language practices. Language ideologies includes the values and perceptions of members of the speech community towards languages and varieties of a language. Language practices means the real and actual uses of language by the members of the speech group, such as the varieties of language used, with whom they use the language, and how they use the language.

Spolsky (2003) stresses four features of language policy. The first is the tripartite structure of language policy mentioned above. Notably, language policy can be implicit as it not only contains explicit efforts made by language managers but is also derived from individual's beliefs and practice. That is, language policy in the current study is not solely regarded as the deliberate top-down intervention of HEIs (or national constitution), but also the implicit ideological views and behaviours. Second, language policy involves not only 'named language varieties' but also 'non-autonomous varieties of language' (Spolsky, 2003, p. 40), such as non-native English varieties and dialects in the current study. Third, language policy operates within any size of a speech community (e.g., academics in UK HEIs). Fourth, language policy plays a role in a 'complex ecological relationship among a wide range of linguistic and non-linguistic elements, variables and factors', and the relationship may not necessarily be causal (Spolsky, 2003, p. 41). In this sense, the current research acknowledges the complicatedness of the linguistic ecology of the UK HEIs when considering its language policy (see 2.3.2 & 2.4.2).

Taking these four features into consideration to avoid 'incomplete and biased view' (Spolsky, 2003, p. 40), the term 'language policy' used henceforth in the research refers to both observable language planning made by the authority, and/or values and actual practices of members that could have implicit influences on individuals in relation to various use of English in certain speech communities. Drawing on the three-component language policy framework, this section addresses the English language development in Chinese educational system as well as the linguistic status quo in the UK HEIs from these three perspectives. The dilemma faced by Chinese academics who work in the UK HEIs are thereby discussed. The necessity of the current study is stressed afterwards. Specifically, Section 2.4.1 provides background information of English language education which Chinese academics receive in China and

problematizes the standardisation of English caused by the educational policy (as language management) and language teaching practices and the possible influence of them on learners' language ideologies. Section 2.4.2 questions the so-called 'international university' in ED countries by viewing the three components to highlight the gap between language management, along with its possible influence on language ideologies, and language practices.

2.4.1 'Standardisation' of English language in the Chinese educational system

Since the targeted population in the current study is Chinese academics who received their education in China and work in the UK HEIs, it is necessary to understand their early language learning experiences and language policies in China as these factors may also form their language beliefs and influence their participation in their current workplace (see 2.3.1.1). This section introduces the development and the standardisation process of English language education in China on the language management level, followed by discussions on the influence of the standardisation of English on language ideologies and practices. Notably, given that China is not an English-speaking country, English is used more frequently in the classroom, i.e., ELT context than daily practices. Therefore, the focus of language policy as practices is particularly in the English classroom or other circumstances in the ELT context, since the early English learning experiences of Chinese academics and the possible language teaching practices they have been experienced seem to be more relevant than investigating actual language use experiences.

From the language management perspective, Lam (2002, p. 246) concludes six historical phases of China's foreign language education: 'i) The interlude with Russian; ii) The back-to-English movement; iii) Repudiation of foreign learning; iv) English for renewing ties with the West; v) English for modernisation; vi) English for international stature'. There was a transformation from Russian education to English

education due to political reasons. English began to displace Russian in 1960s and became the main foreign language in China. This was further reinforced by various official policies (e.g., Four Modernisations; Reform and Opening Policy) as China started to embrace the change brought by globalisation. These policies established the important status of English as a foreign language in China. At the beginning of the 20th century, as the *Opening up and Reform policy* continued to be the principal policy, China experienced the economic development and integration into the global economy and a new wave of educational reforms started thereafter (Hu, 2005). For instance, Ministry of Education (MoE) had issued the Guidelines for promoting primary English language teaching in 2001 and required urban and suburban primary schools start English language education in Grade 3 (MoE, 2001). In fact, students start to learn English even earlier in some big cities such as Beijing and Shanghai.

Meanwhile, in terms of language practices (i.e., teaching and learning practices), English became a core subject in Chinese education along with policy (as management) development. Students have to take several important exams to enter schools and universities. For instance, kids may attend a Kindergarten interview before they go to kindergartens (Graddol, 2013), although this might be rare for older generations including the target population of Chinese academics; students in their primary school need to take ‘Zhongkao’ to attend high school and students in high school need to take ‘Gaokao’, which is the national university entrance exam to enter universities. After entering universities, undergraduates still have to pass the College English Test Band 4 (CET4) and CET6 while English major students need to pass the Test for English majors Band 4 (TEM4) and TEM8 (not compulsory). Their scores in these tests directly influence their graduation and future career. These tests created a washback effect of the whole educational system that parents try to arrange early English tuition for their children (Bolton & Graddol, 2012). It also creates an understanding that the earlier a pupil receive the English education, the more advantaged (education) s/he

may be perceived to be. Moreover, corresponding to this rigid exam system, and the lack of opportunity to use English in daily life (Bolton & Graddol, 2012; Hou, 2016), the classroom practices seem to be difficult to be congruent with the current policy (as management) and corresponding curriculum objectives (Wang & Gao, 2008; Tang & Nesi, 2003). Although the ‘National Curriculum’ is designed to develop a student-centred class to cultivate their communicational skills, creativity and language comprehension, teachers tend to be more exam-focused by training students to develop abilities to recite instead of using English (Hou, 2016). Accordingly, these exam-oriented teaching may result in seeking for correctness in order to get a higher score and enter a better school/university.

From an ideological perspective, despite the national zeal for learning English (Wang & Gao, 2008), people seldom reflect on what English they are learning and what English they are actually using and may encounter. The target variety of the current English curriculum still seems to be either British English or American English focused (Adamson & Kwo, 2002; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Wen, 2012). This is a rather emblematic and narrow conception of the English language (Wang & Gao, 2008) and it fails to consider other varieties of English including Chinese English, which is potentially used by the majority of Chinese English learners and even teachers. At higher education level, although the College English Curriculum Requirements aims to improve the English language comprehension, especially listening and speaking comprehension, and prepare students with abilities of effective communication as well as improving their cultural literacy, so that they are able to adapt to the international communications and social development in their future study, work, and social interactions (MoE, 2001), students can hardly be aware of the changing linguistic landscape and various use of English in such system which only upholds ‘standard English’, or native norms of English. Chinese academic staff, who used to be students in this system, are also very likely to form similar ideas that native norms represent

correctness and other uses of English may be regarded as deficient and unacceptable, including Chinese English. In this sense, students are not well prepared both practically and ideologically for their future study and work in the global context in terms of the familiarity and awareness of various use of English.

2.4.2 Language policy in the UK HEIs

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, the world becomes more globalised and correspondingly, universities become more internationalised in terms of the diversity of student and staff cohort. Knight (2003, p.2) defines internationalisation as the ‘process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education’. She further explains that this definition aims to describe both the breadth and the depth of internationalisation. However, in reality, HEIs fail to consider much on the role of language, especially English language during the process of internationalisation. Just as many scholars (e.g., De Vita & Case, 2003; Jenkins & Wingate, 2015; Wingate, 2018) point out, the language policy (i.e., as language management) of HEIs fails to properly react to the multilingual situation especially in ED context.

On the language management level, language policy of UK HEIs seems to be unsatisfactorily simple, which only ‘pay[s] lip service to various aspects of internationalisation’ without ‘engaging in the reassessment of HE purposes, priorities and processes’ compared with the complexity of the current context with regard to the diversity and multilingual reality of UK HE (De Vita & Case, 2003, p. 384; see also Bonacina-Pugh, Borakos & Chen, 2020; Jenkins, 2014). Admittedly, it is particularly difficult for policymakers in universities in ED countries, where English is both academic lingua franca and dominant language for public communication, to be aware of the diverse linguistic consequences (Liddicoat, 2016) as they are likely to take it for granted that the ‘default’ monolithic standard-English context is exactly what the UK

academia looks like or should be like. Be that as it may, there lacks an explicit language policy addressing the real linguistic ecology of UK universities.

In this taken-for-granted monolithic context, it is easily to identify native-bound language ideologies with some fundamental misconceptions of stakeholders, which assigning values and prestige (see Spolsky, 2004) to native students/academics while regarding international students (as well as academics) who are not familiar with the native norms as deficient (cf. Wingate, 2018). These misconceptions somehow uphold the idea of native-speakerism which implies the birthright and exclusive language model of NESs who are superior while NNEs are deficient since their English is different from the native norms. As mentioned in Section 2.3.1.2, although the concept of native-speakerism is originated in the ELT context, it also reflects the current situation of UK academia in that international student, as well as international academic staff, may be considered together as a homogeneous ‘non-native’ group while their multilingual repertoire and various use of English has been neglected by not only universities, researchers, but also themselves (see Jenkins, 2014). The insistence on the ‘linguistic aesthetics’ may bring about the devaluation of NNEs’ other linguistic resources and the failure to accept and approve the total linguistic repertoire of NNEs, hence leading to social exclusion (Harrison, 2007, p. 89)

More specifically, in terms of language practices, international academics’ language experiences seem to be only considered within the native-bound language ideologies by researchers. A number of studies point out challenges and difficulties international staff may face working in the UK HEIs (e.g., Hsieh, 2012; Jiang et al., 2010; Luxon & Peelo, 2009). Luxon and Peelo (2009) further stress that among various challenges and differences international academics may encounter, language is very likely to be the most influential issue. However, neither these researchers nor the participants themselves in these studies take a GE perspective to consider the diversity of English

language use in HEIs. Instead, they still adopt a ‘default’ and taken-for-granted monolithic standard English view. For instance, although Luxon and Peelo (2009) suggest in their conclusion that institutional language support is better to be tailored to the individual need as people tend to be so different in their language proficiency, they do not seem to be aware of the changing linguistic landscape but regarding the diversity of NNEs as deficient in SE.

From aspects of international academics themselves, they are very likely to fight between the native-speakerism ideology and their own non-native-like English. They might consider only native norms of English as acceptable in academic settings according to the ‘conventional rules’ (see Spolsky, 2004) of Anglophone countries and the above-mentioned misconceptions. Meanwhile, they also consider aiming for ‘native-like’ English is impossible and discouraging for students (e.g., Jenkins, 2014). These conflicting thoughts may also bring about their own dilemma that they can hardly achieve an ideal status in terms of their English (being native-like) in their language practices to satisfy their native-bound ideology.

Wingate (2018) questions these misconceptions by quoting Bourdieu and Passeron (1990) that academic language is no one’s mother language (see also Jenkins, 2014). That is, the real challenge for international students and academics should be the development of academic literacy instead of being non-native in English in terms of their academic progress. As argued in Section 2.3.1.2, the native and non-native dichotomy implied by the WE paradigm is problematic. The labels of NS and NNS are supposed to be neutral in English as they are in other languages, while the global politics gives it neo-racist meaning (Holliday, 2015). In other words, as discussed above, the ideology of native-speakerism still resides in UK international universities’ ‘inclusive’ veneer which seems to ‘embrace’ cultural and linguistic differences (see

Kubota & Lin, as cited in Holliday, 2014), while actually ‘assumes the patronising role’ of NESs, or the host institution to ‘look after’ NNEs (Holliday, 2014, p. 2).

To conclude, both British HEIs and Chinese educational systems not only fail to modify the policy as management in order to fit the changing linguistic landscape brought by globalisation and internationalisation, but also somehow negatively influence language policy as language ideology (i.e., stakeholders’ language beliefs) and language policy as language practices (i.e., actual use of language). For Chinese academics who receive their English language education in China and work in the UK HEIs, it is useful to explore and understand their thoughts since they are working exactly in this gap between the native-bound language policy and the diverse and changing environment.

2.5 Ending remarks

This chapter has discussed the global spread of English and relevant models that explains this trend. The Kachruvian three-circle model is adopted in the study to classify various context such as the UK in the inner circle and China in the expanding circle. The model also problematises the standard English ideology, which has been criticised, as the imposed and biased idealisation. This chapter has then employed an alternative umbrella term GE, including WE and ELF paradigm in relation to the current research setting to provide a theoretical framework. Specifically, WE has been discussed to legitimise the nativised English varieties (e.g., Chinese English) and ELF has been discussed as it was found to be the best concept to describe the current linguistic landscape of the UK academia. This chapter has also drawn on Spolsky’s three-component language policy framework (i.e., language policy as language management, language ideologies, language practices) to provide the background of English language development in China and the current linguistic landscape of UK academia as well as addressing relevant issues from these three aspects. The next

chapter deals with language attitude, which forms the other part of the theoretical framework for the current study.

Chapter 3. Attitude and language attitude

Chapter 3 deals with language attitude theories based on attitude studies and reviews relevant studies. Specifically, Section 3.1 defines the concept of *attitude* and *language attitude*. Section 3.2 introduces the *tripartite model of attitude* to explain the construct of language attitude. Section 3.3 draws on Cargile et al.'s (1994) model of language attitude to provide an overview of possible determinants of language attitude in relation to the current research setting. Section 3.4 addresses the relationship between language attitude and people's external behaviours. The final Section 3.5 reviews and evaluates relevant previous studies grouped by the common three approaches in studying language attitude.

3.1 Defining attitude and language attitude

There is long and extensive research tradition in language attitude studies that 'rooted in an array of disciplines including social psychology of language, sociology of language, sociolinguistics, anthropological linguistic' (Cargile et al. 1994, p. 211). Despite the fact that language attitude is heavily researched in various disciplines, there is still a lack of comprehensive understanding of language attitude as a concept. Garrett (2010) admits in his book that the fundamentals of language attitude are not particularly referring to language attitude but attitude in general. Inevitably, the idea of language attitude is deeply grounded in attitude theory and many scholars (e.g., Baker, 1992; Cargile et al., 1994; Garrett, Coupland, & Williams, 2003; Ryan, Giles, & Sabastian, 1982) define language attitude based on the definition of attitude, hence regard language as one of the objects of attitude with or without pointing this issue out. For instance, both Baker (1992) and Garrett et al. (2003) begin their books by introducing 'attitude' instead of 'language attitude' and relate language attitude to the conceptual issues of attitude. Baker (1992, p. 8) explains the importance of doing so by regarding attitude theory as the 'parent discipline' which can valuably guide language attitude scholars although he fails to define attitude in his book. Some other

scholars (e.g., Cargile et al., 1994; Ryan et al., 1982) define language attitude based on attitude theories without explicitly mentioning that they are drawing on attitude theories as basics.

For the current study, the discussion of language attitude is therefore based on seminal attitude theories as attitude studies have a longer history and tradition in social psychology and can provide the well-established theoretical framework for language attitude studies. Moreover, for language attitude studies, ‘attitude’ is undoubtedly regarded as the basis, and studies on language attitude cannot completely ignore attitude theories. This section deals with the conceptual issues of language attitude based on the concept of attitude as the theoretical fundamental.

Despite various terms and understandings, several key points could be identified among scholars’ definitions of attitude (e.g., Ajzen, 1988; Allport, 1935; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Oppenheim, 1982; Sarnoff, 1970; Williams, 1974). First, an attitude is a construct which is abstract and cannot be observed directly. Second, it is evaluative. Third, it is the tendency (state/disposition) to evaluate. Finally, an attitude is directed to certain objects. This section discusses each point respectively to provide a comprehensive understanding of the definition of attitude.

First, attitude is a rather abstract concept which cannot be observed directly. an attitude is a construct which is abstract and cannot be observed directly. The well-cited definition of attitudes is from Allport (1935, p. 810) who defines attitude as ‘a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related’. In this definition, Allport regards attitude as a mental and neural issue which is difficult to be observed. Looking back to the origin of the word ‘attitude’, which is derived from *aptus*, according to Hogg and Vaughan (2008, p. 148); it

actually means 'fit and ready for action' and it seems to indicate something which is observable. However, many scholars in the field of social psychology (e.g., Oppenheim, 1982; Sarnoff, 1970; Williams, 1974) are in agreement with Allport that attitude is a psychological state instead of a physical characteristic which is 'internal to the person' (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993) hence cannot be directly observed. Nevertheless, attitude as a hypothetical construct, could be inferred from behaviour (Ajzen, 1988). Notably, what Ajzen means by behaviour here not only refers to non-verbal behaviour but also verbal behaviour, such as verbal expressions.

Second, attitude is evaluative. That is, as a centrally important feature, attitudes contain a degree of favourableness or disfavourableness to various extent (Ishikawa, 2015). According to Allport's (1935) definition above, attitude is an individual's response. Ajzen (1988) makes it more explicit that attitude is the response of favourableness and unfavourableness which has an evaluative nature (pro-con, pleasant-unpleasant). For this reason, attitude can be measured through scaling techniques. A point should be noted that many scholars stress the various degree of, for example, like or dislike, positivity or negativity (e.g., Baker 1992; Edwards, 1994; Thurstone, 1931). They seem to suggest that attitude is somewhere along the evaluative continuum. However, they fail to consider another fact that people's attitudes are sometimes more complicated and ambivalent. Many researchers (e.g., Jensen and Thøgersen, 2011; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011; Wang, 2013, 2014) reveal that people can simultaneously have both positive and negative evaluative responses and they find it difficult to take a clear evaluative stance. Therefore, being evaluative in this study does not simply mean being purely positive/negative to certain objects but also acknowledge the complicatedness and ambivalence of attitude.

Third, attitude is a tendency (state/disposition) to evaluate. Williams (1974, p.21) regards attitude as 'an internal state' which is abstract and cannot be observed directly.

The use of 'state' may imply the temporariness of attitude. Ajzen (1988) and Sarnoff (1970), on the other hand, consider attitude as the 'disposition' to evaluate. The word 'disposition' seems to suggest a sense of permanence which is formed internally and underlie relevant behaviour including attitudinal responses (Sarnoff, 1970). In order to convey a neutral stance, Eagly and Chaiken (1993, p. 1) provide an umbrella definition of attitude which is a 'psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour'. In this sense, Eagly & Chaiken (2007) explain that they neither imply the endurance of the residue of past experiences nor the temporariness of them. It is, therefore, more appropriate to use 'tendency' rather than 'state' or 'disposition' since attitude can be both short-term and long-term. However, they seem to regard short-term attitudes as attitudinal judgements/expressions/responses instead of the attitude itself. That is to say, the inner tendency that constitutes attitude could be relatively more stable while attitudinal judgements/expressions/responses might be more flexible depending on different contexts. This will be further discussed in detail in 3.2.1

Fourth, an attitude is directed to certain objects. The objects, according to Ajzen (1988), include person, institution, or event. Eagly and Chaiken (2007) give a more inclusive description that attitude objects are anything that is discriminable including both abstract and concrete objects. For the current research, of course, the object is language, but not only language itself. The objects can be understood from a broader view which can include both language speakers and any language-related issues and behaviours. To conclude the four points above, attitude is an abstract construct, which cannot be observed directly but can be inferred from behaviours, and is a tendency to evaluate attitude object.

Language, as one of the attitude objects, contains a broad sense of not only language itself but also all language-related issues including but not limited to, for instance,

‘spelling and punctuation, words, grammar, accent and pronunciation, dialects and languages’ and ‘even the speed at which we speak’ (Garrett, 2010, p. 2). In this sense, language attitude can be further defined, based on the above-mentioned definition of attitude, as an abstract construct, which cannot be observed directly but can be inferred from behaviours, and a tendency to evaluate language and its related issues.

3.2 Construct of attitude and language attitude

Notably, the above-mentioned definition of attitude contains three main components: namely cognitive (think, Allport, 1954; beliefs, Henerson, Morris, & Fitz-Gibbon, 1987; Oppenheim, 1982), affective (feel, Allport, 1954, Henerson et al., 1987) and conative (behaviour, Allport, 1954; Oppenheim, 1982) components. The tripartite model which contains these three components was introduced and refined by many scholars (e.g., Kaz & Stotland, 1959; Ostrom, 1969; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960; Smith, 1947). It is also prevalently used and most cited by social scientists. This section discusses the three dimensions of attitude in detail. Meanwhile, this section also differentiates some similar terms which is often used interchangeably with attitude.

To be specific, an attitude is cognitive because it contains or comprises beliefs in certain attitudinal object (e.g., Speaking Received Pronunciation (RP) can help you gain a good job in the UK academia). Notably, the term ‘belief’, although sometimes used interchangeably with attitude, is usually referring to the cognitive component of attitude as it does not contain any affective reactions (Garrett, 2010). It also has a ‘stronger factual support’ (Dönyei, 2014, p. 214). That is, belief, similar to the cognitive component, is likely to be formed/based on the fact and reality. Similarly, opinions, as another term which is closely related to attitude, is also said to be cognitive given that it is not affectively supported (see Garrett, 2010).

Moreover, the inclusion of 'feelings, moods, emotions, and sympathetic nervous system activity that people experience' (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998, p. 11) about attitude object shows that attitudes are affective. (e.g., I like speaking and listening to RP). Notably, 'perception', as another relevant term, is different from attitude as it seems to only stress the affective dimension of attitude. According to Pickens (2005), perception is rather inner-directed and could be substantially different from the reality. In other words, unlike beliefs, perception tends to be emotionally supported rather than factually supported.

Additionally, it is also systematically linked to behaviour since attitudes may predispose people to act in a certain way, and 'perhaps in ways that are consistent with our cognitive and affective judgements' (Garrett, 2010, p. 23) (e.g., learning RP and intentionally speaking RP). On the other hand, behavioural responses may also be regarded as intentions instead of overt behaviour (e.g., intending to enrol in an English-speaking course). The relationship between attitude and behaviour will be discussed in more details in Section 3.4.

Garrett (2010) argues that the tripartite model appears to split attitude into three aspects and these three aspects are more likely to be causes and triggers of attitudes, therefore it is untenable to equate these components with the attitude itself. However, it seems that Garratt's (2010) statement fails to differentiate attitude components from the learning processes and antecedent conditions of these attitudinal components (see Greenwald, 1968a, Zanna & Rempel, 1988). Eagly and Chaiken (1993) note the assumption that attitude has three types of antecedents, namely, cognitive processes, affective processes and behavioural processes. To be specific, according to Greenwald (1968b), first, the cognitive process involves cognitive learning which is gained by means of persuasive communications. For instance, students may be persuaded by

their teacher that learning SE is beneficial because of various reasons, thereby forming beliefs that StE is beneficial in many ways.

Second, in the affective process, affective responses are obtained by classical conditioning when the neutral and affective stimulus are repeatedly presented. This is similar to the cognitive process to some extent as the beliefs they form may also tend to be favourable or unfavourable. Eagly and Chaiken's (1993) indicate that the repeated association of attitude object and affective response may result in the attitude formation when the attitude object starts to elicit the affective responses. For instance, when the speaker keeps misunderstanding or feeling confused about Chinese English but can totally understand American/British English, s/he may naturally form positive responses on American/British English and negative responses on Chinese English according to classical conditioning.

Third, the behavioural process includes behavioural tendencies which are generated from instrumental learning. That is to say, the behavioural tendencies may vary depending on whether they are awarded or punished. A simple example could be that when a student speaks American English, s/he gets complimentary comments while when s/he speaks Chinese English, s/he is criticised by the teacher. In this sense, s/he may intentionally avoid speaking Chinese English and try to speak American English at all times if possible. Different from the affective process, the behavioural process is voluntary and intended to perform certain behaviour because of instrumental learning while the affective process is to gain certain affective responses nonvoluntarily.

Eagly and Chaiken (1993) highlight the advantageous aspects of the tripartite model and its relevant terminologies, which continue to be used as a convenient language regarding studying language attitude, and the current study. It provides researchers with a conceptual framework and also allows the researcher to practically evaluate

attitudinal responses of three types regardless of whether they are separable or not. That is, the terms used in the model may help researchers understand the ‘conditions under which attitudes truly have varying numbers of components’ (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 14). Moreover, McKenzie (2010) stresses another major advantage of the tripartite model that it demonstrates the complicatedness of attitude, in other words, the inconsistency/conflict ambivalent or contradictory attitudes. Notably, the ambivalent/contradictory attitude may also be identified due to the confusion between attitudinal responses and attitude per se. This issue will be further discussed in 3.3.1.

In addition, the tripartite model not only explores evaluative responses of attitude but also gives thought to the underlying forming process of attitude. This also provides a comprehensive understanding and guidance for answering not only the ‘what’ (language attitude) question but also the ‘why’ (factors that influence language attitude) question for the current research from a theoretical perspective. For the current study, therefore, the tripartite model guides the design of questionnaire items and interview questions to explore language attitude more comprehensively. This model is also adopted to guide the data analysis process as it provides the researcher different perspectives when interpreting language attitude and relevant underlying issues.

The next section further discusses the possible determinants of language attitude from a sociocultural perspective.

3.3 Language attitude and its determinants

3.3.1 Language attitude as a process?

Cargile et al. (1994) propose a heuristic social process model of language attitude (more details of this model will be discussed in Section 3.3.2) to indicate that language attitudes are not a ‘static phenomenon but rather affect, and are affected by numerous different elements in a virtually endless, recursive fashion’ (p. 215). This suggests a

key feature of language attitude that it is changeable according to various factors. Erber and Hodges (1995) also identify that attitudes are fluctuating over time and depending on people's thought at a certain moment. However, some other scholars such as Allport (1935) and Sears (1983) consider that attitudes which are formed in people's early life are likely to persist when considering the stability of attitude. Petty and Cacioppo (1981, p. 7) even regard attitude as 'an enduring positive or negative feeling' at the whole time. Eagly and Chaiken (2007) show their concerns on these dichotomous stands just assuming attitudes are either enduring or temporary and highlight the failure of scholars to differentiate attitudinal judgements and attitude per se. They (2007) therefore propose the term 'tendency' to allow various possibilities of language attitude being either short-term or long-term (see Section 3.1).

It seems that Cargile et al.'s model also fails to distinguish the difference between attitudinal responses and attitudes themselves towards language. Some researchers regard attitude as a response per se. For instance, Kruglanski and Stroebe (2005) regard attitude as evaluative responses, or evaluative judgements. However, Eagly and Chaiken (2007) argue that evaluative responses/judgements are formed every time when people encounter various attitude object, and they are more like expressions or manifestations of the inner tendency which constitute attitude. If the encounter of the object fades away with time, the mental residue will gradually leave as well (Eagly & Chaiken, 2007). That is, although attitudinal responses and attitudes are correlated, attitudinal responses are flexible expressions of attitudes which might be influenced by various situations, and some may disappear without the input of attitude object. More specifically, they (2007, p. 587) describes 'evaluative tendencies' as 'mental residues of past experience with the attitude object' while 'current evaluative responding...reflects a whole range of influences in addition to those that emanate from the inner tendency'.

The attitudinal responses seem similar with the term ‘non-attitude’ labelled by Converse (1964) which is ‘superficial and unstable’ (Garrett, 2010, p. 29) in a way that both are fluctuating at times and can be regarded as ‘response on the spot’ (Ostrom, Bond, Krosnik & Sedikides, 1994, p. 28) but cannot reflect the real attitude an individual holds. These two ideas, however, are different in essence. First, non-attitudes are opinions of those who have little understanding of certain issues but pretend to express their thoughts and feelings randomly (Ostrom et al., 1994). Non-attitudes seem to be regarded negatively as these non-attitudes are substantially generated from a person’s pressure of pretending to be thoughtful and knowledgeable. In this sense, people’s non-attitudes do not really reflect their pre-existing views on certain object hence can hardly be meaningful (cf. Ostrom et al., 1994). However, the term attitudinal response is neutral in nature, and it is better to be interpreted as fluctuating reactions of individuals to certain object, which, may partially reflect individual’s attitude at a certain point in time. Second, and most importantly, non-attitudes are likely to be generated from individual’s established knowledge, or imagination of certain attitude object based on their existing knowledge, while attitudinal responses are constructed from new external inputs, though it can also be influenced by the individual’s internal evaluative tendency (see Eagly & Chaiken, 2007).

Nevertheless, one cannot assert that language attitude is absolutely stable and cannot be changed. As stated in 3.1.2, assumably, the constant newly input in the learning processes and antecedent conditions of language attitude may eventually alter language attitude to some extent. For instance, as the example provided in 3.1.2 with regard to the cognitive process, the student may be persuaded by the teacher and believes that learning SE is beneficial in many ways. Supposing the teacher changed his/her mind and constantly inculcate the student with the information that learning SE is not that important than the intelligibility among speakers for a period of time.

Regardless of other influential factors such as the language policy input, it is difficult to say whether the student may still believe that SE is more important than the intelligibility. This sounds indeed implausible to maintain the new and salient input constantly and consistently (see Eagly & Chaiken, 2007). It is, however, not impossible.

In this sense, although attitude researchers are cautious to distinguish non-attitudes and attitude, many language-attitude research are still likely to only investigate a set of evaluative responses in certain context instead of exploring the language attitude per se. Just as what Eagly and Chaiken (2007) say, judgements and other evaluative responses may well be replying to a certain situation and context, whereas the inner tendency/latent construct is relatively stable. Therefore, the current study consider language attitudes are at least relatively stable while language-attitude responses are flexible and dynamic which could be influenced by various factors both internally and externally.

Despite the failure of distinguishing language attitude and language-attitude responses, Cargile et al.'s (1994) model is highly applicable to the current research for two reasons. First, as discussed before, the model has summarised many of attitude theories which are discussed previously and also provided the lens to interpret the complicatedness of language attitude. Moreover, this model echoes the learning process and antecedent condition of attitude (see 3.1.2) to some extent as it provides insight to the formation process of language attitude and summarises a number of issues pertinent to understand particular factors that is associated with language attitude across disciplines. In this sense, this model is closely related to the research aims of the present study and provides a guidance on its research design by discussing the nature of language attitude, and providing a relatively comprehensive framework of influential factors associated with language attitude.

3.3.2.1 Perceived ethnicity

According to Figure 3.1, there is a speaker- hearer distinction. Speaker dynamics and language variation is considered by Cargile et al. (1994) as one of the important issues to understand language attitude. They (1994) stress that as a powerful social force, language does not exist in a vacuum or for its own good. It is more like a tool which is shaped and used by people and will have consequences both intendedly and unintendedly (Cargile et al., 1994). Preston and Robinson (2005) indicate similar point that attitudes towards languages and their varieties seem to be related to attitude towards groups of people. Moreover, the model shown also situates ‘extra-linguistic phenomena’ within the speaker column which includes ‘non-verbal visual behaviours such as gestures’ (Cargile et al., 1994, p. 215). In this sense, language attitudes are influenced by speakers and other linguistic phenomena of speakers and are closely related to how people perceive the speaker and relevant linguistic phenomenon. For instance, when seeing an academic in a conference who has an Asian face and kept bowing to people to show respect, we are easily assuming that the person is from an Asian country. Therefore, we may not only focus on the exact language the person speaks but the countries and linguistic background the person comes from.

Regarding the hearer column, the model encompasses cognitive, affective and behavioural predisposition. This aligns with the three components of attitude which is discussed previously in Section 3.2. According to Cargile et al. (1994, p. 216), from the cognitive aspect, ‘what the speaker is perceived to be and how they are perceived to sound and communicate often determine hearers’ language attitude’. Specifically, this is also related to perceived ethnicity/regionalty of the speaker from a hearer’s perspective.

3.3.2.2 Gender and age

Cargile et al., (1994) also point out two aspects in terms of gender and age differences. On one hand, they consider gender and age as factors that influence attitude from speaker' perspectives. According to Street, Brady and Lee (1984), male speakers with a moderate or faster speech rates are more attractive than female speakers. Moreover, the perceived age of the speaker may also influence their attitudes. That is, people could have different interpretation of the same language spoken by two speakers with different ages. On the other hand, they consider gender and age differences from the listener's aspects. They refer to Ng (1991) to indicate the relationship between the listener's gender and age on their evaluations on speakers. Similarly, Baker (1992) and Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh (2006) also stress the gender and age difference with regard to listeners' perspectives.

To be specific, in terms of gender, male listener and female listeners may generate various attitudes on certain language. Dörnyei et al. (2006) found in their study that English, Russian and German are endorsed more by boys than girls as they are considered more 'masculine' while Italian and French are more 'feminine' which are preferred by girls. In terms of the age difference, Baker (1992) points out that attitude to language change to some extent with age. He gives an example that people in their teenage age tend to become less favourable to minority languages. However, an increasing of age also means an increasing of experience and knowledge, and it is difficult to claim that age is the only factor that influence language attitude formation. Baker (1992) also notes the lack of research in how age change may relate to language attitude. Nevertheless, the gender differences, age, and age change are regarded as potential factors that may influence academics' language attitude in the academic settings. The current research is not only designed to have the vertical comparison in terms of the age change of individuals, but it is also designed to have the horizontal comparison between different gender and age groups.

3.3.2.3 Hearer's goals

From an affective perspective (Figure 3.1), three elements are listed by Cargile et al. (1994) that can affect language attitudes. First, language attitude may be influenced by hearers' goals. An example is given by Cargile et al. (1994) that in terms of imprisonment, one official of the parole board with the goal of protection may focus on the non-standard accent of a criminal and consider s/he as a member of a social group whose members are cruel and undeserving of assistance. Another official who has a goal of rehabilitation, however, may notice the 'slow speech rate and poor lexical diversity' of the criminal and 'allow attributions to be made about the criminal's impoverished educational upbringing' (p. 218). That is, people with different goals may focus on different features of speakers or certain speeches. Similarly, with regard to the current study, for example, the goal of academics in certain academic activities could be the mutual understanding of the content of their presentation or ideas; others could aim to achieve a more native-like way of expressing themselves. These two different goals may influence their attitudes towards language use by other academics. The former may focus more on the intelligibility of conversation/presentation while the later may pay more attention to the language norms and correctness, or mistakes of the speakers. Second, another factor pointed out by Cargile et al. (1994) in the hearer's column is the hearers' mood. Although it may seem irrelevant for the current study to understand hearers' mood since it is not an experimental study and participants are not asked to respond to language stimuli, participants in the current study are in fact encouraged to recall their mood and feelings when discussing their language experiences. This may add affective perspective to the understanding of these academics' responses on their language experiences. Third, levels of expertise may also influence hearers' language attitudes. This will be discussed in the next section.

3.3.2.4 Language expertise

Galloway and Rose (2015, p. 177) regard the ‘levels of expertise’ and familiarity as two influential factors for language attitude. They cite Gardner (1985) to emphasise the relation between language proficiency and language attitude that the person who has a higher achievement in a certain language will have a more positive attitude towards that language. Notably, the attitude towards certain identity/culture/community may be the factors that influence language expertise conversely. As in Yangguas’(2010) study, language learners who value the Hispanic community are more willing to improve their Spanish. Accordingly, their language proficiency in Spanish is likely to be higher than those who are not integrated into the Hispanic community. Notably, it is the language learners that the above-mentioned scholars focus on. It is easy to assess language learners’ language ability through various tests and examinations. For the current research, however, it is difficult to judge the proficiency of academics working in the HEIs. Since the language ability is indeed an important factor that influences language attitude, it might be more applicable to assess academics’ language proficiency by self-assessment (e.g., Pilkinton-Phiko, 2011). That is to say, perceptions that academics have in terms of their language abilities in participating in the HE context may imply their language proficiency. Therefore, the current research regards academics’ self-assessment as academics’ own perceived language expertise

Moreover, from the perspective of language users, Laruelle, Navarro and Escobedo (2019) emphasise the quantity and quality regarding communication exchange among speakers, namely information exchange and expressive reasons, and language proficiency is proportionate to both the quantity and quality of the communication. That is, the language proficiency of speakers directly influences the communication exchange among speakers. Consequently, speakers’ interaction experiences may influence their preference for the language used in the communication. Admittedly,

the quantity and quality of the communication exchange may not only be influenced by the language proficiency but also the familiarity of speakers to certain language, which may also influence speakers' attitudes towards certain language. This issue will be discussed in the next section.

3.3.2.5 Familiarity

Familiarity, as a potential factor which may influence language attitude, can be interpreted from two aspects. First, from the aspect of familiarity of speakers, as shown in Figure 3.1, language attitude is relevant to the interpersonal history between interlocutors. Cargile et al. (1994, p.223) explain that 'attitudes triggered by various linguistic features are most likely to affect recipients' behaviours towards senders in contexts of low familiarity'. That is to say, if the interpersonal history between interlocutors is developed and they are getting more familiar, the hearers will be very unlikely to purely judge or form an attitude towards the speaker according to their language behaviour. Accordingly, the current research takes interpersonal history of participants into consideration in order to explore their familiarity to language speakers especially in the qualitative part of the research.

Second, in terms of people's familiarity of certain language/language varieties, scholars in the field of language attitude have conducted numerous studies exploring whether there are correlations between language attitude and the familiarity of a language/language variety, of which the results vary. Some scholars prove that familiarity of language has influences on people's language attitudes, either positively (e.g., Chiba, Matsuura, & Yamamoto, 1995; Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenboeck, & Smit, 1997; Matsuura, Chiba, & Fujieda, 1999) or negatively (Adolphs, 2005; Hartikainen, 2000). Others find that there is no correlation between language attitude and familiarity (cf. Huang, Alegre, & Eisenberg, 2016; Ladegaard, 1998; McKenzie, 2003, 2004; Jenkins, 2007). However, most of these researchers are focusing on language learners

in the ELT context. It is still unknown whether familiarity is also an important factor that may influence language user's language attitude in academic settings.

3.3.2.6 Context and the experience of language use

Another issue that is associated with language attitude mentioned by Cargile et al. (1994) is the immediate social situation which stresses the importance of the context of the language use (see Figure 3.1). Just as the example given by Cargile et al. (1994), a slow speech rate might be likely considered odd when you give an introduction at a cocktail party while it could be deemed deliberately designed as a technique to deliver a lecture on nuclear physics to facilitate the transmission of information to audience who lack relevant knowledge. Different language contexts a person in also indicate different experiences the person has on language. Some GE researchers (e.g., Wang, 2016; Wang & Jenkins, 2016) have similar argument that experiences of various use of English may influence people's language attitudes that they may question their preconceived native-bound attitudes. However, as discussed previously, it seems that these researchers fail to distinguish the differences between attitudinal response, which is fluctuating at times in different environment and attitude itself, which is relatively stable. Although the instability can rise if there is a genuine change of a person's inner tendency when the situational contexts remain constant, this high level of consistency seems implausible to some extent (Eagly & Chaiken, 2007). Nevertheless, it is vital to explain the complicatedness of language attitude by understanding both Chinese academics' different attitudinal responses in various situations and their underlying language attitudes.

3.3.2.7 Language policy and educational background

There are also two other factors suggested in the above-mentioned model which may influence language attitude formation, namely 'perceived cultural/sociostructural factors including political, historical, economic, and linguistic realities' (Cargile et al.,

1994, p. 226). Specifically, standardisation and vitality are considered as two dimensions. From the perspective of government, as discussed in Section 2.2, standard language is a conceptual bias which is imposed and maintained by institutions or government. In other words, standardisation is closely related to the language policy set by institutions or the government. This explains why and how English has gradually become the dominant foreign language in China since 1978. The MoE of China (2001) regards English as an important tool in order to improve the quality of science and culture of the nation. It also stresses the importance to strengthen the international communication and cooperation. More importantly, English became an integrated part of all schooling education in the country due to the national policy of reform and opening to the outside. Although little is mentioned in the document related to standardisation, the unified textbook and test specification make people take it for granted that only inner circle countries' English is the standard for English use.

From language learners' perspective, as He and Ng (2013) indicate, inevitably, the official attitude has a significant influence on not only teachers/students but also general public's language attitude. In this sense, Chinese language learners' attitudes, including Chinese academics as former learners, are likely to be influenced by the historical progress of English language education and their learning experiences in this educational system as they have received their early English language education in China. Therefore, for the current study, standardisation can be divided into two factors: language policy from the governmental perspective and educational background from language learners' perspective.

Moreover, Cargile et al. (1994) discuss another key aspect, namely vitality, that influence language attitude. As a more dynamic dimension, vitality refers to the influence of the overall language ecology on an individual language and its speakers (Stanford & Whaley, 2010). As what Ma and Zeng (2015) identified in Tibet, although

Tibetan recruited in their study realised the importance of learning the national language, i.e., Mandarin, which was promoted by authorities, they were desired to learn and maintain their own language since Tibetan was used as the medium of instruction in classroom teaching and daily communications. However, things might be a bit different when it comes to the use of English language for Chinese academics in the current study. For those Tibetan in Ma and Zeng's (2015), they are closely integrated with the Tibetan community, and they use Tibetan more often comparing with Mandarin. For Chinese academics in the current study, on the other hand, they have no choice but speaking English in Anglophone countries. The only choice (if possible) they can make is between native English and nativised Chinese English. Moreover, 'if a hearer recognises another's language variety to be standardised and their social group to exhibit high vitality, such assessments will most certainly influence the hearer's attitudes towards that language' (Cargile et al., 1994, p. 227). That is to say, Chinese academics' attitudes towards the use of English might possibly be influenced by how their colleagues, or people surrounding them use English during the course of their work. In this sense, the idea of vitality is similar to the context of language use which is mentioned previously.

3.4 Global attitude and social behaviour

Apart from discussing factors that influence language attitude, Cargile et al., (1994) also discusses language attitude outcomes (see Figure 3.1), which is not limited to speaker evaluations but also including communication strategies and other relevant behaviours. Garrett (2010) points out that much of controversy lies in the behavioural component of language attitude since people often discuss the attitude-behaviour relationship as they seem to take it for granted that attitudes are the combination of cognitive and affective components which work independently of behaviour much of the time. It is thus confusing to discuss language attitude outcomes as in Figure 3.1

when behaviour is regarded as one of the attitudinal components and an independent act external to attitude at the mean time.

Ajzen and Cote (2008) differentiate two types of attitudes, namely 'global attitude' and 'attitude toward a behaviour' in terms of different attitude objects prior to discussing the influence of attitudes on behaviours. These two types of attitudes somehow echo the speaker evaluations and the other two behavioural outcomes in the outcomes column in Figure 3.1. Specifically, global attitudes are attitudes towards objects that no actions might be taken in relation to (e.g., attitudes towards English speakers and English accents), whereas attitudes towards a behaviour is evaluative dispositions to a specific behaviour/category of behaviours (e.g., enrolling in an English class, speaking the RP). In this sense, speaker evaluations can be regarded as global attitude which only consists of rating the speaker on language traits (Cargile et al., 1994) while attitude towards a behaviour is similar to 'communicative strategies' and 'other behaviour' which includes the behaviour (intentions). Notably, when discussing the relationship between attitude and behaviour in this section, it is referred to the relationship between global attitudes and (social) behaviours as an independent act.

Understanding the relationship between attitude and behaviour is important for the current study as one of the research aims is to understand and explain why Chinese academics may have certain behaviours, or tendencies to behave. Gass and Seiter (1999, p. 41) once claimed that it is meaningless to study attitude if it cannot predict the behaviours. Eagly and Chaiken (2005) raise similar point that they consider the core issue of attitude studies is invariably the prediction of behaviours. These scholars are likely to make this claim based on the assumption of consistency of the tripartite model especially affective-cognitive consistency (cf. Rosenberg, 1968), or evaluative-cognitive consistency (cf. Chaiken, Pomerantz, & Giner-Sorolla, 1995). An individual

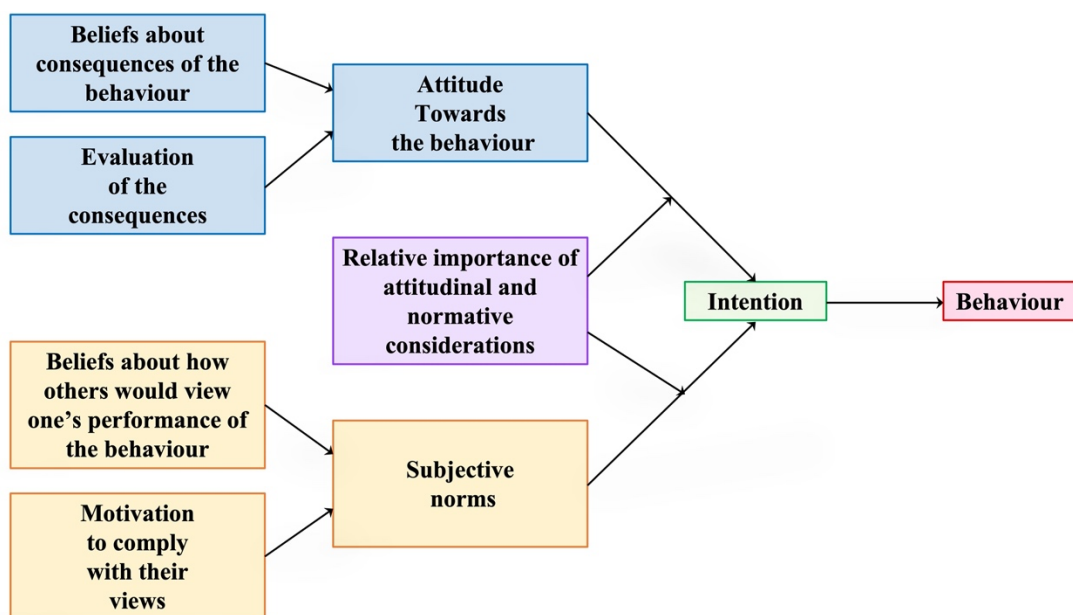
with high affective-cognitive consistency is regarded to have more stable attitude, which could be a better predictor of behaviours and vice versa (see Chaiken, Pomerantz, & Giner-Sorolla, 1995; Cooke & Sheeran, 2004; Visser & Coetzee, 2005). In other words, people often expect that the behaviour of a person is consistent with the attitude that the person holds. Just as Baker (1992, p. 10) states, attitude is a 'hypothetical construct' which is used to 'explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour'.

People tend to explain certain behaviours based on relatively stable and enduring dispositions in others. For instance, someone who likes to imitate RP may be said to have a favourable attitude to British English. In this sense, people may easily assume that the change of attitude can lead to the change of behaviour and attitudes can be inferred from people's behaviours. It is also easy to assume that if people start to behave in certain ways, their attitudes may follow along afterwards to support the new behaviour. However, according to Hewstone, Manstead and Stroebe's (1997) example of going for a dental check-up, attitudes and behaviours may not be aligned with each other. Since people may cognitively realise that the routine of the dental check-up is sensible for health, they may lack the same level of positivity as cognitive orientation affectively. Accordingly, behaviour inclinations may be influenced thus people try to find reasons to cancel the appointment. A similar example in academic settings could be that non-native academics may cognitively recognise the importance of the teaching content in the classroom instead of simply ensuring the correctness of their English language. However, they may be more positive to the correctness of language affectively. Garrett (2010, p. 25) further points out that people often discuss the relationship between attitudes and behaviour as if they seem to take it for granted that attitudes are 'primarily related to cognition and affect combined, with a tendency to work together independently of behaviour'. However, according to the results of some

studies (e.g., La Piere, 1934; Wicker, 1969), it shows that attitude is actually not closely linked with behaviour.

Considering these concerns and in order to accommodate some of the difficulties, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) has proposed the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) which is not directly focusing on behaviour but behavioural intentions. According to them (1980), behavioural intention is the most important determinant and the antecedent of behaviour. As shown in Figure 3.2, there are two basic determinants of behavioural intention. First, an individual's attitude towards the behaviour, which is influenced by his/her beliefs about the consequences of the behaviour and his/her evaluation of the consequences. Second, an individual's subjective norms, which is comprised of his/her beliefs about how other people would look upon his/her behaviours and the extent to which he/er wants to comply with people's views (Garrett, 2010). Notably, these two determinants could have different influence on behaviour intentions if there is disagreement, and one determinant with greater weight (more importance) could have more influence on the intention.

Figure 3 2 Theory of Reasoned Action (adapted from Garrett, 2010, p. 27)



One of the advantages of TRA, as McKenzie (2010) points out, is that it describes precise steps and strategies of assessing attitude and it is potentially falsifiable. Much research shows the evidence of the capacity of TRA to predict intentions and behaviour in a wide range of contexts (e.g., Cooke & French, 2008; Law, 2010; Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992; Roberto, Meyer, Boster & Roberto, 2003; Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988). However, Taherdoost (2018, p. 961) argues that TRA fails to address several issues such as ‘the role of habit, the cognitive deliberation, the misunderstandings of a survey and the moral factors’. Moreover, this model also ‘fails to consider spontaneous acts of behaviour, which refer to emotional outbursts or well-learned and habitual behaviours, such as drug-taking’ (Erwin, 2001, p. 119). That is to say, the model works under the premise of a large degree of what Montano and Kasprzyk (2015) suggest as ‘volitional control’. The model seems to assume that an individual is able to completely control and perform their behaviour, while when ‘volitional control’ reduces, TRA might not be sufficient enough to predict behaviours.

Ajzen (1991) further extended the TRA and proposed the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). The TPB adds a determinant of intention based on TRA, namely Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC). PBC means the perceived ease or difficulty from people of performing certain behaviours (e.g., speaking a native-like English would be easy/difficult). PBC is considered to be able to predict people’s behavioural performances from their intentions to perform the behaviour and their perceptions of control over the behaviour (e.g., people’s perception of whether s/he can avoid speaking English with Chinese English traits). According to Ajzen (1991), the importance of the three components of TPB (attitude, subjective norms and PBC) may vary in terms of predicting behaviour intentions in different situations. As a general rule, the greater favourableness of attitude and subjective norms towards behaviours, and the greater degree of PBC result in the stronger behavioural intentions of an individual.

Although the current study does not aim to predict possible behaviours of Chinese academics when participating in UK academia, this model is adopted to understand and explain issues underlying participants' experiences and behavioural intentions since global attitude is considered to be the cause of certain behaviours, and to help explain the consistency of behaviours (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005). Correspondingly, the HEIs may have detailed information and better understanding of their international academic staff's experiences. Moreover, it also describes the complexity, ambivalence and various possibilities of attitude and behaviour. Combining with the tripartite model mentioned in 3.2, awareness could be raised to recognise the 'complexity of human beings and attempts to explain why individuals may hold ambivalent attitudes towards issues or other individuals' (McKenzie, 2010, p. 24).

3.5 English language attitude studies

Despite the complex nature of language attitude, language attitude researchers endeavoured to understand people's language attitude mainly through three broad approaches, namely societal treatment, indirect approach and direct approach (Garrett, 2010). This section explains these three approaches respectively and reviews relevant previous language attitude studies grouped by the approach the researcher adopts for several reasons. First, these three approaches are largely adopted by researchers in social psychology to investigate language attitudes. However, despite the frequent attention of many GE researchers put on language attitude, they fail to clearly claim and explain their theoretical stances. Although some of them may implicitly adopt one of these approaches irrespective of whether they are aware of this or not. This study thus takes a more direct view on previous GE studies based on these language attitude approaches. Second, there have not been many studies researching language use amongst academics in HEIs. Many of the recent language attitude studies are conducted with ELT students and practitioners. By grouping and reviewing previous

literature from different approaches may help the researcher jump out from the ELT lens to apply a macro perspective to review language attitude studies in terms of the methods adopted by reorganising relevant research to identify helpful information for the current research. Last but not least, reviewing previous literature this way also helps lay the foundation for, and justify the current research design.

3.5.1 Studies using the societal treatment

Societal treatment study contains observations, ethnographic studies, and studies that analyse sources from the public domain (Garret, 2010; Ryan et al., 1982). For instance, studies which adopt societal treatment analyse language policy documents and examine the ‘treatment’ afforded language/language varieties from newspapers or advertisements. Societal treatment is useful and efficient to gain insights into the social meanings and stereotypical associations of language/language varieties (Garrett, 2010), and it is designed to be unobtrusive so that people’s editorial opinions can be interpreted by researchers. Moreover, it is appropriate to adopt the societal treatment approach in the context where there are limitations on time/space, and it is impossible to access to respondents under a completely natural environment (Knops & van Hout, 1988).

Kramarae (1982) adopted societal treatment approach to investigate people’s attitudes towards gender differences. After analysing the publicly available training books, she (1982, p. 88) found out that ‘most of the books and advice about speech are directed to women’ only regardless of the fact that women are actually ‘innately more modest and proper than men’. She criticised these assertive and stereotypical training books which remain the same through the years keeping focusing on suggesting changes for individual woman instead of challenging the institutional standard which restrict women’s actions to a great extent. These women’s situations could arguably be compared to international/Chinese academics’ current circumstances in the UK

academia in terms of language. The institutional supports (if any) for individual international academics remain the same aiming to enhance their English language proficiency, which is thought to be the obstacles that hinder their academic progress. However, HEIs fail to (re)consider and challenge the ‘default’ monolingual standard-English context of UK academia which restrict international/Chinese academics’ professional performance because of their non-native English (see 2.4.2).

Jenkins (2014) has applied societal treatment as part of her research methods to analyse the English language policy (as management) from international universities’ websites. She adopts discourse analysis to obtain the results that universities still require NS norms. However, Jenkins did not infer stakeholders’ attitudes from the results but conducted the follow-up research to investigate staff perspectives on these policies. It seems that the societal treatment is applied by Jenkins as a preliminary study for the whole project to understand the ‘current academic English language policies in relation to the extent of their stated and implicit attachment to NE norms’ (p. 71). This is coinciding with Garrett et al.’s (2013, p. 16) statement that the societal treatment approach ‘may be usefully employed as a preliminary study for more rigorous sociolinguistic analyses which would involve the utilisation of direct or indirect methods of data collection’. In this sense, societal treatment seems to be an appropriate complementary method for researchers to contextualise the current research as it can provide a general background information of the research setting or the targeted population.

For the current study, societal treatment is adopted to ‘gain insights into the relative values and stereotypical association of language varieties’ (Garrett, 2010, p. 142) and to contextualise the research by reviewing relevant language policies (see 2.4.1; 2.4.2; 3.2.2.7).

3.5.2 Studies using the Indirect approach

Apart from societal treatment approach, the indirect approach is another important approach in, especially early language-attitude studies. In this approach, Matched Guised Technique (MGT) and its modified version Verbal Guised Technique (VGT) are the most common methods used by researchers. This approach is regarded as indirect due to the fact that respondents are misled into 'believing that the questioner is investigating aspects other than language and/or observing respondents without their awareness' (McKenzie, 2010, p. 45, see also Garrett et al., 2003). However, MGT/VGT is not without problems. This section explains why this approach is not applicable to the current study given its prominence in language attitude studies by reviewing some seminal and relevant studies.

The seminal work on MGT was conducted by Lambert and his colleagues in Canada who introduced the classic design of MGT. It included first presenting the same audio text by one or more speakers who were proficient in target languages or language varieties and were able to produce plural versions of recordings under 'guise', then followed by a questionnaire with rating scales to ask participants to rate not for the language but other issues such as speakers' personality traits (Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner & Fillenbaum, 1960). MGT is based on the idea that when various guises are created credibly by a single person, all other factors, which may affect the judgement of a speaker excluding the accent, dialect or language itself, are removed (Hakala, 2007). Another very well-known study in language attitude was also conducted by Lambert et al. (1960) who investigated attitudes of 64 English-speaking students and 66 French-speaking students towards French and English. An indirect approach and specifically, MGT was adopted since the authors believed that direct questioning might be inappropriate as respondents may not want to reveal prejudices. The result reveals that both English-speaking and French-speaking Canadians reacted more positively on the English guise rather than French guise. The use of MGT as an indirect

method, is indeed a rigorous design for eliciting people's latent attitudes and has a considerable role in providing the foundation of language attitude research as well as specifically demonstrating the role of language code and style choice in the formation of impression (Garrett et al., 2003; Giles & Coupland, 1991).

However, several problems can be identified in terms of the use of MGT. First, speakers were asked to read a 2½ min. passage of French prose and its English version. As Garrett et al. (2003, p. 58) point out, the activities of 'providing respondents with the repeated content of a reading passage by a series of speech recordings may exaggerate the contrasts of language and make them more salient comparing with what it would normally be outside the experimental environment'. Moreover, people's attitudes towards this decontextualised language may fail to be extended to natural language use (Labov, 1972). Third, three bilinguals were selected in the study who speak faultless English and trained in a French school, thereby being judged as speakers speaking 'perfect' French and English. The authors seem to presume a monolingual standard language variety and fail to consider the variability of English and French considering the real speech community which can hardly be represented by a single language variety (Jenkins, 2007). Last, according to McKenzie (2010), the way of the text reading seems not authentic than spontaneous speech.

Many researchers further develop the MGT method in order to tackle the problems mentioned above. The best-known one, probably, is the VGT. Different from MGT, VGT uses different speakers to generate stimulus recordings which overcome problems such as accent-authenticity and mimicking-authenticity. Moreover, El-Dash and Tucker (1975) state that recording the spontaneous speech of different speakers could also overcome the issue of style-authenticity in MGT.

Zhang (2013) conducted a study to investigate Hong Kong students' attitudes towards various English accents. She adopted the VGT and selected 44 students aged between 19 and 29 from The Chinese University of Hong Kong and The City University of Hong Kong. The English varieties she has chosen is Hong Kong English with a broad accent (HEbr) and educated one (HEed), Mandarin-accented English (ME), RP, American English (AmE), Australian English (AusE), Tyneside English (TynE), and Philippine English (PE). She identified a strongly positive attitude towards RP and AmE in terms of both status and solidarity. However, besides the small sample size, the use of VGT is problematic in several ways. First, according to McKenzie (2010), VGT is conducted based on the assumption that participants are able to recognise the target language varieties in an accurate and consistent manner. It is, however, difficult to tell whether students are able to identify the difference between HKbr and HKed, and even ME, which are similar varieties. Moreover, ME does not represent Chinese English variety since as what Zhang (2013) admits, ME might not be monolithic. In this sense, Zhang's study has similar problems with the study adopting MGT conducted by Lambert et al., (1960) in that the speaker of ME cannot represent the English used by the whole speech community of Chinese speakers since the speakers' accents may be influenced by other Chinese dialects. For instance, a speaker who is fluent in both Mandarin and Cantonese may speak with features of both ME and Hong Kong English. Since Mandarin is none of the Chinese speakers' mother tongue, it is very likely that Chinese speakers speak English with features of Mandarin and their mother tongue. Last, all speakers selected were asked to read a pre-selected factually neutral text which, according to Garrett (2010), can also be problematic to some extent given that it is impossible to generate a text with absolute neutrality due to differences among speakers (e.g., in age, background), so that respondents may have various interpretation on the same text.

A similar study was conducted by Chien (2014) with a larger number of 317 participants including 197 students and 123 professionals comparing with Zhang. Seven English varieties were selected to represent Kachru's three circles including Standard Southern British English (SSBE), General American English (GAE), or General American (GA), AusE, Indian English (IE), Spanish English (SpanE), Japanese English (JE) and Taiwanese variety (TE). Speakers were also asked to read a pre-selected text. The result shows that native varieties receive higher evaluation than non-native varieties. However, it is difficult for a speaker to recognise every English variety such as SpanE, JE and TE and the way of reading text seems not authentic than spontaneous speech (see McKenzie, 2010). Moreover, according to Cargile and Giles (1997), it is rather difficult to justify what exactly these listeners react to. In addition, other variables (e.g., pitch height, loudness, breathiness) may also influence listeners' attitudes (cf. Kerswill, 2002; Buchstaller, 2006). Jenkins (2007) has a similar concern that speech factors such as voice quality and speed may also be the associative factors that influence listeners' responses.

Apart from the above-mentioned defects of the MGT/VGT, there are another two common issues the above studies have. First, inevitably, the use of MGT/VGT can only measure the surface level of language attitude. It fails to explain why and how these attitudes form and the possible influence of these attitudes. Second, as discussed in 3.3.1, these studies do not seem to take into account the difference between attitudinal responses and attitude, or 'non-attitude'. Respondents in these studies may well measure people's attitudinal responses on the spot when they hear a certain audio speech. Therefore, despite the popularity among language attitude studies, the use of MGT/VGT seems not applicable to the current research given that the aims of the research are to understand not only the language attitude - at the very least language-attitude responses, but also its forming process and possible influence it has on academics.

3.5.3 Studies using the direct approach

Many GE researchers in the recent years often employ direct approach to understand language attitudes, although many of them do not clarify their adopted approaches and discuss the theoretical foundation of (language) attitude. With a greater degree of obstructiveness (McKenzie, 2010), researchers who adopt a direct approach usually asked participants directly about their attitudes to a certain variety of language and invite them to articulate their attitudes towards different language phenomena in an explicit way (Garrett, 2010). That is to say, the participants are fully aware of the research aim and topic in the direct approach. As Knop and van Hout (1988, p. 7) state, it is the subjects themselves that urged to convey ‘verbal statements concerning their attitudes and their behavioural reactions in concrete situations’ which is hence ‘interpreted as manifestations of the underlying dispositions’ by the investigators. Although there have been limited research which is particularly relevant to the current research aims, a number of studies which adopt a direct approach in both ELT and academic settings are discussed in this section since these studies either investigate people’s language attitude from a GE perspective or directly/indirectly explore factors that influence language attitude. Notably, as mentioned at the beginning of the section, many of these researchers fail to claim their chosen approaches and theoretical basis, this section critiques these studies from the theoretical perspective of language attitude in order to enlighten the current research design.

3.5.3.1 Language attitudes towards English in the English language teaching settings

Wang (2013) conducted a study using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to investigate Chinese people’s attitudes towards the non-conformity to ENL norms. She selected 502 Chinese students and 267 Chinese professionals as participants. A Further 12 English major students, 12 non-English major students and 11 professionals were selected for the interviews. Questionnaire respondents were asked to rate their

acceptances of ten instances of variant English by a six-point scale. Follow up interviews were designed to understand the underlying reasons for their attitudes. Generally speaking, tensions were found between exonormativity and endonormativity. On the one hand, most of the questionnaire respondents regarded Chinese-influenced English expressions as slightly positive. Wang identifies two perceived functions underlying these positive attitudes, namely the communicative effects of ELF and the Chinese cultural identity. On the other hand, her participants also attached great importance to the ENL norms. However, the limitation of Wang's research is that she has chosen those who have 'sufficient English proficiency and linguistic experience' (Wang, 2013, p. 262). This choice itself naturally exclude 'language expertise' as one possible factor that may influence language attitude. It is thus unrevealed if people who fail to meet the criteria have different attitudes towards non-conformity to the ENL norms. Nevertheless, the current study takes this issue into consideration and invited academics to rate their language proficiency themselves given the lack of evaluating criteria for academics' English (see 3.3.2.4, see also Appendix 4). Moreover, some items Wang selected in the questionnaire are regarded as the negative use of English from Chinese people. This may cause 'social-desirability bias' (Garrett et al., 2003) in that student may react negatively on these items which would be considered as more socially appropriate responses.

Similar results are also found in Wang's (2014) later research. 35 Chinese speakers of English were involved. 12 of them were English major students and 12 were non-English majors while the rest were 11 professionals who use English in their work to various extent. Semi-structured interviews were adopted to be 'informative rather than representative' (p. 8). The result indicates that although many of the participants acknowledge the importance of the communicative function of Chinese English speakers and their achievements, negative word such as 'bad', 'incorrect' are still used to describe these achievers' English. Wang (2014) interpreted this contradictory

attitude as two different evaluation criteria which might coexist in people's mind. This inference seems weak since she fails to apply (language) attitude theories to further interpret how these two criteria formed. Nevertheless, this result seems to provide evidence that although language attitude might be relatively stable, language-attitude responses are flexible and dynamic.

Fang (2016) combined questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to investigate Chinese university students' attitudes towards various English accents including their own. He has recruited 309 non-English major participants and further 9 as interviewees. Similar to Wang (2013, 2014), these students were generally dissatisfied with their own English accent because they do not sound native. Fang (2016) indicated possible reasons lying behind their language attitude, which is related to the language policy in China and students' experiences both in school and outside the classroom. Similar to Wang (2014), Fang (2016) fails to discuss the theoretical foundation of language attitude. It seems that he used the term attitude interchangeably with perceptions or opinions (see 3.2). This makes his interpretation seem untenable without any theoretical basis. Moreover, a problem similar to using multiple questions could be found that a positive answer can refer to 'more than one component of the question' (Garrett, 2010, p. 44) or indicate ambiguous meanings. (This issue will be further discussed in 4.5.4.2). For instance, Fang (2016) indicated that 53 respondents felt satisfied with their own English from the rating scale. He further claimed that the results echoed Jenkins's study that his respondents were also in the 'non-conforming positions' (Jenkins, 2014, p. 151) as they were able to differentiate non-native English varieties from errors. Arguably, it may well be that they were just confident as they considered their accents are similar to RP or AmE.

Ishikawa (2015) utilised the Folk linguistics approach to investigate a group of Japanese students' underlying belief systems towards English. 95 students were

recruited to complete an open-ended questionnaire and 18 students were invited for conversational interviews. The findings show two sets of negative attitudes towards respondents' own English: the poor communication proficiency and deficit view of Japanese English. Nevertheless, he reported a potential positive attitude of his participants towards ELF perspectives as they accepted the notion of ELF quite readily during the interview. Through the application of the Folk linguistics approach from a social psychological perspective, he identified that Japanese students' negative attitudes were mainly generated from the Japanese educational system which emphasises the 'correctness' of ENL norms. However, his application of open-ended questionnaire fails to make comparisons among his respondents such as the 'difference emerged between disciplines or other categories' (Ishikawa, 2015, p.125) due to the qualitative nature of the data (cf. Cohen et al., 2018). Moreover, his study only focuses on students' language beliefs and associative factors instead of further exploring the consequences of these native-bound attitudes. This might be due to the EMI nature of the Japanese context and a lack of ELF experience of his respondents.

Another relevant research was conducted from Bekker (2004) who adopted EFA in order to understand factors underlying language attitudes and form a valid and reliable attitudes scale for future researchers in the field of language attitude. Bekker gave out 107 copies of the questionnaire of which the questions are based on his previous analysis of the societal treatment and individual interviews. 62 belief statements were applied with five categories. The aim of his mini survey, however, was not to explore language attitudes of students from South African tertiary institutions but in his own words, to focus 'on depth rather than breadth; on quality rather than quantity; and on methodological rigour rather than on attempting an impressive large-scale sociolinguistic survey' (p. 44). That is, although adopting a quantitative technique, Bekker's study was not a large-scale survey and the attitude scale he came up with was only applicable to the University of South Africa since the items were all developed

based on his study in the context of South African universities. Specifically, Bekker designed his questionnaire items based on the analysis of the societal treatment of language varieties and interviews with students in South African universities instead of reviewing the literature on how language attitude might be influenced. Therefore, his design of the questionnaire might be limited to only South African HEIs. Greenfield (2010, p. 521) also criticised that Bekker attempts to explore the factors which may influence students' linguistic preferences while the design of the survey is limiting since it fails to explore the 'deep-seated attitudes'. He (2010) gives the reason that the wide range of factor involved and the sensitivity/controversy of the topic may result in students' inclinations to share their true feelings immediately. Nevertheless, Bekker's research provides an insight, as well as a new explication to explore determinants of language attitudes through quantitative methods (i.e., questionnaires) by utilising EFA.

The research conducted by Khatib and Rahimi (2015) is worth mentioning as they have also adopted EFA and a further Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) examining EFL learners' attitude in Iran. Questionnaires containing 40 items were sent to 273 respondents and EFA extracted a five-factor structure. The fitness of the model was further checked and confirmed by the CFA based on the data collected from another group of 554 respondents. Khatib and Rahimi's (2015) study introduces five determinants of Iranian learners' language attitudes, namely 'linguistic instrumentalism, ethnorelativity, communicativity, language prestige and language maintenance' (Khatib & Rahimi, 2015, pp. 60-62). Despite the consideration of attitude and language attitude theories as well as the adopted EFA/CFA, Khatib and Rahimi (2015) seem to neglect the possible diversity within Iranian learners but to regard questionnaire respondents as a homogeneous entity. That is, the five-factor structure seems to be applied universally to all Iranian EFL learners. It is difficult to tell the influence of each factor on different individuals. Nevertheless, Khatib and Rahimi took

the initiative to employ EFA/CFA to understand the complicatedness of language attitude within the attitude/language attitude framework.

3.5.3.2 Academics' language attitudes towards English in the academic settings

Moving to studies with direct relevant to the current study, researchers also investigate language users' attitudes towards English in academic settings. Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) investigated Danish lecturers' attitudes towards the use of English in Danish universities. They adopted a direct approach by using questionnaires to investigate lecturers' attitudes towards various arguments, either positive or negative, in relation to the use of English in HEIs. The questionnaire contains 17 statements which stem from four themes. Theme 1 to 3 suggest negative attitudes towards the use of English in HE while theme 4 suggests a positive attitude. Notably, contrast attitudes were found that these lecturers showed agreement with both positions. On the one hand, lecturers agreed with the concerns about the consequences of increasingly using English in Danish universities while they also agreed with theme 4 about the 'internationalisation' of the university, 'where internationalisation primarily means more teaching in English' (Jensen and Thøgersen, 2011, p. 29). However, Jensen and Thøgersen fail to explain why these lecturers hold these contrasting attitudes from a theoretical perspective. Moreover, it seems that Jensen and Thøgersen also fail to differentiate attitudinal responses from language attitude per se. These lecturers might consider theme 1 to 3 and theme 4 under different circumstances or from different perspectives, therefore their attitudinal responses may fluctuate at times. In addition, the study was conducted in an EMI context, which is different from the UK academic settings by its nature.

Pilkinton-Pihko (2011) also discovered complex attitudes towards using English in an EMI setting of HE in Finnish universities by online questionnaire completed by 196 academics but failed to explain the reasons why people held complex attitudes. This

study suggests that, on the one hand, universities are able to attract more international students and researchers and may develop a long-term plan for students if English is used as the medium of instruction. Moreover, teaching in English may link more closely to the textbook and materials used in Finnish universities which are also in English. On the other hand, a domain loss might be identified, and students might not be able to have a better achievement learning in English instead of their native language. In terms of these academics' teaching experiences, most of these lecturers believed that their English did not interfere much with their teaching performance. The majority of academics assessed themselves as highly proficient and felt confident to discuss their disciplines in English as long as it does not hinder the mutual understanding between them and their students. Notably, the spoken fluency is correlated with 31 out of 33 variables, which indicates the influence of language expertise to some extent. The focus on spoken fluency/ability is not surprising as the participants of the study were lecturers, and one focus of the study was on teaching. Nevertheless, Just as Wang's (2013) research which excludes a group of students with 'insufficient' English language proficiency, this study neglects other academic roles in the academic settings with little/without teaching roles, which cannot reflect the whole picture of academics cohort, hence cannot provide a comprehensive understanding of academics' attitudes. The result may vary if other non-teaching roles are included in terms of self-assessed language proficiency and other relevant issues. Notably, the current study involves academics from various roles including both teaching-focused and research-focused positions (see 4.2; Appendix 5).

Flowerdew, Li and Miller (1998) have different results from their study by interviewing academics in City University of Hong Kong. 20 lecturers at Hong Kong City University were selected to investigate their attitudes towards the English and Cantonese. The qualitative result explains that Lecturers face practical difficulties such as the resistance to English of students and ethnic solidarity which make them want to

use Cantonese. Just as the result of Pilkinton-Pihko's study that students may have better achievement learning in their native language, all these lecturers in the Hong Kong City University felt that making at least some use of students' mother tongue can make their teaching more effective. However, similar to Wang and Pilkinton-Pihko's studies, this study only considers Hong Kong academics with teaching roles. Academics' voices in other positions, i.e., a research-focused position seem to be neglected. Moreover, just as Jensen and Thøgersen's (2011) research, Flowerdew, Li and Miller (1998) also fail to identify the complicatedness of language attitude, i.e., various components and differences between attitudinal responses and language attitude itself. These lecturers' beliefs may be challenged by the difficulties they face practically, thereby changing their attitudinal responses accordingly.

Jenkins (2014) conducted research using questionnaires with open-ended questions to 166 university staff in 25 countries asking for their experiences in HE and their views. The results showed that academics still have a native-bound attitude towards English. They were somewhat aware of the fact that English is the most appropriate common medium of instruction among different L1 speakers and the diversifying use of English. However, they indicated a negative attitude towards the various use of English as they still regarded that only native English is acceptable in academic settings. However, the use of open-ended questionnaire seems to limit the information obtained. For instance, Jenkins identified that a large number of academic staff were aware of ELF as a phenomenon, whereas she failed to explain why these academic still held a native-bound attitude with the awareness of ELF at the meantime. Comparatively, as discussed in 3.5.3.1, Bekker's (2004) use of EFA seems to be more statistically valid to understand not only the language attitude but also different underlying dimensions of language attitude, which explains the complicatedness of language attitude to some extent. In addition, Jenkins assesses academics' attitudes towards the English

requirements for students instead of themselves. It might be argued that they may have different attitudes in terms of themselves.

Based on the studies reviewed above, the ENL norms play a significant role in terms of both students and academics' attitudes towards English and factors such as language policy, educational background, language experience, language expertise and the context of language use may be associated with their attitudes. However, as discussed above, all previous research has focused on people in their domestic educational context. A particular group seems to be left out by researchers, namely academics working in an international academic environment. More specifically, academics who are NNEs working in Anglophone countries. Although Jenkins (2014) has identified the mismatch of the so-called international universities between the reality of the trend of recruiting international students and academic staff and the insistence of the 'homogenisation' of English, she fails to particularly investigate those international academics who work in Anglophone countries. Comparing with academics in their own domestic educational context, international academics are more likely to encounter a diverse use of English and they can hardly make any use of their mother tongue (Flowerdew, Li and Miller's, 1998) as the research subjects from previous studies. Hence their attitudes towards English may have greater influence on their working practices as well as any issues relevant to their academic career.

Moreover, nearly all the studies reviewed above have identified the complicatedness of language attitude while failed to explain the underlying reasons of these complex attitude. This is possibly due to their failure of drawing on relevant language attitude theories which clarify the nature of language attitude. When referring to language attitude, researchers seem to use the word interchangeably with words such as perceptions or opinions. Few of them discuss the theoretical basis of attitude or the fundamentals of language attitude in their studies. As mentioned several times above,

few of them have distinguished the different components of attitude, or discussed the difference between attitudinal responses and language attitude itself. This may consequently result in the ambivalence and confusion concerning ‘complex’ language attitude which is difficult to clarify without a theoretical basis. It is, not surprising but particularly crucial, to ground the research which aims to understand/explain certain language attitudes on relevant (language) attitude theories.

3.6 Theoretical framework

The current research draws on the concepts of GE and language attitude. The former includes the concept of WE and ELF to explain the global expansion of English within and across the national borders to address the current diverse linguistic landscape in the UK academia as well as emphasising the legitimacy of English varieties and NNEs. The latter provides the theoretical foundation in exploring people’s orientations to language norms.

Specifically, WE and ELF stress two distinct phenomena regarding the expansion of English. WE focuses on the development of nativised English such as Chinese English. Although Kachru’s suggested stages of nativisation for a non-native variety is mainly applicable for outer-circle countries, it is partly applicable to expanding circle countries such as China and makes sense of the development of English in China to some extent. Together with the discussion of language policies in China, WE provides the lens to understand Chinese academics’ English educational background. Although the concept of WE more or less suggests a native and non-native divide, this dichotomous view is indeed embedded in the Chinese English language educational system.

On the other hand, ELF, which stresses communications across borders, can best describe the current research setting, i.e., UK’s current language environment in

academic settings. ELF is a linguistic phenomenon which is occurred because of the global spread of English and involves speakers with various linguistic and cultural backgrounds from various countries. It is used as a diverse contact language in imagined multilingual communities where members share a sense of belonging but may not meet in face. Notably, ELF is neither a particular variety of English, nor emphasising the concept of English varieties. It stresses the process of language approximation and fixing triggered by explicitation in interactions and regard any speakers of English in their own rights.

The current research is also based on (language) attitude theories. By adopting the social process model (Cargile et al., 1994) and Ajzen's (1991) model of TPB of language attitude, the current research addresses the complex nature of language attitude by discussing its conceptual issues, associative factors in relation to the targeted HE context as well as its influence on behaviour/behaviour intentions, thereby contributing to the understanding and explanation of Chinese academics' language attitude and relevant issues working in the UK HEIs.

The above-mentioned concepts and theories have laid the foundation for the current research to answer the research questions, design questionnaire items and interview guide, as well as data analysis.

3.7 Ending remarks

This chapter has firstly dealt with the features of attitude and language attitude. The tripartite model of (language) attitude has then been discussed to showcase the complexity of language attitude. The influence of language attitude to a person's external behaviour was also considered afterwards. Drawing on Cargile et al.'s (1994) social process model of language attitudes, this chapter has also discussed the stability of language attitude by differentiating language attitudinal responses and language

attitude per se, followed by the discussion of possible factors which may influence language attitude from a sociocultural perspective.

Moreover, empirical language attitude studies grouped by different approaches to researching language attitudes have been discussed and two main gaps have been found. First, there is a lack of research focusing on language attitudes of international academics who work in the UK rather than their own domestic academic settings. Second, despite various complex and contradictory attitudes identified in previous studies, few GE researchers have applied (language) attitude theories to make sense of the complexity of language attitude.

The next chapter illustrates the design of the study which aims to fill the above-mentioned research gaps and answer the research questions.

Chapter 4. Methodology

This chapter starts with restating the research aims, questions and setting. The philosophical foundations and the choice of Pragmatism are illustrated, followed by the justification of the adopted *direct mixed-methods approach*. Sampling methods and data collection procedures are then discussed. The research methods, which involves sampling methods, data collection, pre-pilot exploratory interviews, questionnaire and interview design, data analysis methods, reflexivity, validity and reliability, research ethics and limitations are addressed respectively in the subsequent section.

4.1 Research aims and questions

The current study aims to investigate Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms in UK HEIs as well as the associative factors and impact of these attitudes. As discussed in Chapter 2, the global expansion of the English language and the internationalisation of the UK HEIs have brought a substantial change and diversity to the make-up of students and academic staff cohort, i.e., an increasing number of international students and academic staff. Accordingly, ELF as a phenomenon is becoming prominent in UK academia. However, universities in the ED countries such as the UK, where English is both academic lingua franca and dominant language, fail to 'take possible linguistic implications' on this diversity but still insist on the 'homogenisation of English' in the UK academia (Jenkins, 2014, p. 5). In other words, they still seem to take it for granted that the UK academia is the 'default' monolingual context regardless of the changing linguistic landscape.

Moreover, researchers in the field of internationalisation of HE also seem to have this monolingual perspective (see 2.4.2). Although they start to also focus on the experience of academics instead of solely emphasising students' experiences, they fail to view international academics' language issues from a GE perspective but mixing

their language diversities/differences with language barriers (e.g., Hsieh, 2012; Jiang et al., 2010; Luxon & Peelo, 2009). Despite that many GE researchers endeavour to understand people's language attitudes and experiences, their focus is either on language learners and teachers (e.g., Almegren, 2018; Chien, 2014; Fang, 2016; Kobayashi, 2002; Wang, 2013, 2014; Yook & Lindemann, 2013) in the ELT context or language practitioners in the EMI context (e.g., Flowerdew, Li and Miller, 1998; Jenkins, 2014; Jenkins & Wingate, 2015; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011). International language practitioners' voices from universities in the ED countries, such as Chinese academics in UK universities, however, still remain unheard. Since these Chinese academics are working in the gap between the native-bound language policy and the ELF environment, it is vital to explore their language attitudes and experiences as well as re-examining their 'language issues' from a GE perspective.

Given that language attitudes are influenced by various factors (see 3.3.2) and may greatly influence behaviours/behaviour intentions (see 3.4), the associative factors and possible influences of these attitudes are also important to be investigated to form a deeper understanding of these language users' language experiences and interpret relevant behaviours in academic settings. The research findings may also help HEIs to jump out from the traditional monolingual view and form a better understanding of international academics' language experiences and difficulties, so that the real support (not just language supports) from a GE perspective may be provided. Therefore, this study aims to obtain a thorough understanding of the international language practitioners' language attitudes as well as the associative factors and the possible influences of the attitudes on relevant behaviours from a GE perspective.

Accordingly, three research questions are generated for the current study:

1. What are Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms in UK universities?

2. What factors have influenced the attitudes of these Chinese academics?
3. How do attitudes towards English norms influence Chinese academics' language-related behaviour in academic settings?

4.2 Research settings

The whole study is undertaken in the UK HEIs, particularly Russell Group universities. UK universities have seen an unexpectedly fast-growing number of international academic staff. According to the HESA (2015), there were 25% international academic staff among academic staff in UK universities. In addition, among these 25% international academic staff, more than half (54%) of them are working in the Russell Group universities. Given that the Russell Group universities have great impact across the UK and attract a large number of international students and staff from around the world (Our Universities, n.d.), the 24 Russell Group universities were chosen as the target universities for this study.

In the progress of internalisation of HE in the UK, as discussed in Chapter 1, China occupies one of the top places for the input of non-UK international academic staff (Universities UK, 2020). Given that these Chinese academic staff's working experiences and language issues are still under-researched in the field of GE (see 2.5.2), the current research targets at Chinese academics who grow up and received their education in the mainland China, and are currently employed by the UK HEIs as academics staff such as tutors, postdocs, lecturers and professors.

Next section discusses the philosophical foundations underpinning the current study in consideration of the nature of language attitude.

4.3 Philosophical foundations

Philosophical foundation is fundamental to all research as it guides the way how research is designed and conducted (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Feilzer (2010)

gives a rather simplistic summary regarding positivism/postpositivism and constructivism/interpretivism as the traditional and dichotomous understanding of worldviews (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) (or paradigms, Kuhn, 1962). Worldviews refers to ‘shared beliefs and values of researchers’ (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 35) regarding the ‘nature of reality (ontology), what can be known about the reality (epistemology), and how to go about producing such knowledge (methodology)’ (Morgan, 2014, p. 37). Specifically, the worldview of positivism/postpositivism emphasises the singularity of reality and truth which allows for ‘object and value-free’ quantitative methods, while constructivism/interpretivism, which is associated with qualitative methods, rejects singular reality and focuses on the differences among individuals on the same ‘objective reality’ (Feilzer, 2010, p. 6).

The positivist view of the ‘reality’ in the current research (i.e., the nature of language attitude), which is regarded as being static and enduring all the time, has been criticised for neglecting evaluative responses and possibilities of language change (see Section 3.1 & 3.3.1, see also Soukup, 2015). The constructivist view, on the other hand, seems to overemphasise the distinctiveness and ‘bricolage-type evaluative process’ (Soukup, 2015, p. 60) of language attitude or attitudinal responses. Both stances cannot provide a comprehensive understanding of language attitude. The nature of language attitude as a ‘tendency’ to evaluate (Eagly & Chaiken, 2007) acknowledges language attitudes to be both short-term and long-term, or in other words, to be both a changing process and a continuous disposition (see Section 3.1).

Pragmatism as ‘an epistemologically coherent solution’ (Soukup, 2015, p. 61), draws on ‘what works’, utilises various approaches, and appreciates both objective and subjective knowledge (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Kaushik & Walsh, 2019; Morgan, 2017). Aligning with the current research which addresses the complexity of language attitude as well as relevant issues, pragmatism was adopted of which the

worldview rejects the dualistic understanding and the ‘forced dichotomies’ (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019, p. 258) of language attitude. On the contrary, it values both the uniqueness of individual’s knowledge (i.e., discursiveness of situational responses), and the socially shared essence of much of the knowledge (i.e., general patterns in the latent construct of language attitude) (Morgan, 2017).

4.4 Research design

This section justifies the adopted ‘*direct mixed-methods approach*’. Specifically, the choice of mixed-methods research design is illustrated in Section 4.4.1, followed by the discussion of three common approaches in language attitude research on account of the current study which explains why the direct approach was adopted.

4.4.1 Mixed-methods design

Guided by assumptions of pragmatism, mixed-methods design was adopted to achieve a ‘rounder and richer view’ of complicated phenomena (e.g., language attitude), which requires illuminations from ‘different but complementary perspectives’ (Soukup, 2015, p. 79). It alleviates the weakness of the quantitative mainstream in language attitude studies such as the ‘confined scope of enquiry’ brought about by closed-response items which is limited to predetermined categories (Ishikawa, 2016, p. 81). In this sense, more ‘complete and corroborate results’ (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 8) could be obtained by employing both quantitative and qualitative element to explore general patterns in a relatively large population without diminishing the distinctiveness of individuals.

Regarding the aims and questions of the current study, mixed-methods design (the triangulation design), was adopted to triangulate the results to ensure the ‘convergent validation’, which means that ‘whether findings from different methods agree (Fielding, 2012, p. 127). Since the current research topic is relatively under-researched, by implementing different methods to investigate the same phenomenon, not only the

validity can be achieved through the convergence and corroboration of the findings (Dörnyei, 2007), but the research problems can also be best understood in different ways to ‘offset the weakness inherent within one method with strengths of the other’ (Creswell, 2009, p.213). For the current research, the quantitative (questionnaire) and the qualitative method (interview) was conducted concurrently in the same time phase, therefore, to obtain enough evidence by collecting different types of data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) and to compare and/or merge results from both techniques to reach to more complete and validated conclusions (Plano Clark & Ivankova, 2016). Specifically, the quantitative instrument addresses my first and second research questions, while and the qualitative instrument addresses all three questions with a particular focus on the second and third research questions. The specific triangulation research procedure will be discussed in detail in Section 4.5.

4.4.2 Approaches in language attitude research

As discussed in Section 3.5, three main approaches have been developed in language attitude studies, namely *societal treatment*, *indirect approach*, and *direct approach* to investigate people’s orientations to language.

4.4.1.1 Societal treatment

As discussed in 3.5.1, societal treatment alone is not sufficient for answering the research questions for the current study. Although international academics, particularly Chinese academics form a large percentage of the whole academic staff population, they are still minorities comparing with the UK and EU staff in the UK HEIs. It is unlikely to infer their language attitude from the certain documents or social media which mainly represent and focus on the mainstreams in Anglophone countries (i.e., the UK academics). Nevertheless, the current research has adopted societal treatment, i.e., reviewing the language policies in the UK and China’s HE systems (e.g., 2.4.1; 2.4.2; 3.3.2.7), as an auxiliary method only for the purpose of contextualising the research.

4.4.1.2 Indirect approach

The indirect approach in language attitudes literature refers to the MGT and its modified variant, VGT (Garrett, 2010). As discussed in 3.5.2, along with various defects, neither the MGT nor the VGT seems to perfectly match the current research. First, the current study aims to understand academics' attitudes towards English language norms in academic settings. It does not simply include academics' attitudes towards different varieties of English but also the diverse use of English among various speakers from different linguistic backgrounds. It is difficult to present the diversity of usage in English in academic settings to academics given the flexible and fluid nature of ELF (Seidlhofer, 2011). Moreover, the use of the rating scale for MGT/VGT which, as a purely quantitative method, is insufficient to obtain enough in-depth data (Galloway, 2011, 2015, 2017). As discussed previously, language attitude is rather complex and sometimes ambivalent (see 3.2; 3.5.2; 3.5.3), simply rating the certain extent of a given description of the speaker can hardly reflect some mixed or complex attitudes. As the current research also investigates the underlying reasons of academics' attitudes and how their attitudes relate to their behaviours, the use of the MGT/VGT is inappropriate for answering the research questions. Notably, although the use of MGT/VGT can hardly obtain in-depth data, it does not necessarily indicate that a quantitative method cannot explore the complex nature of language attitude and the underlying reasons that influence language attitude (see 3.5.3.1). This issue will be further discussed in Section 4.6.1.1. Additionally, as Ishikawa (2015) argues, providing samples of people's 'stereotypical' English might limit participants' potential language-attitude responses. The research question also includes exploring academics' attitudes towards their own English, MGT/VGT is, however, irrelevant to this issue.

4.4.1.3 Direct approach

The direct approach, as its name implies, includes ‘the asking of direct questions about language evaluation, preference etc.,’ explicitly and directly through a wide range of techniques and methods, typically questionnaires and/or interviews (Garrett et al., 2003, p. 16, see also Galloway & Rose, 2015; Garrett, 2010; McKenzie, 2010). A relatively recent technique adopted to directly measure language attitude is Perceptual Dialectology (PD). PD is the study of ‘ordinary people’s beliefs (as opposed to linguists) about the distribution of language varieties in their own and neighbouring speech communities, and of origins and implementation of such belief’ (Garrett, 2010, p. 229). Practically, respondents may be invited by the researcher to draw/label maps in terms of dialects spoken by local people, or to identify/rank speech or regions on the extent of difference or correctness/pleasance the language spoken (McKenzie, 2010, see also Lindemann, 2005). Despite that the expected respondents of PD, i.e., non-linguists are in accordance with the target population of the current study, the biggest constraint of PD is that respondents must respond in a geographical manner. This is, however, not well suited with the current context in the UK academic settings, of which the linguistic phenomenon is ‘not located in one geographical boundary’ (Canagarajah, 2007, p. 91).

Nevertheless, for several reasons the current study adopts a direct approach, namely asking direct questions in questionnaires and interviews for several reasons. First, it seeks to explore people’s overt evaluation of language. As the arguably dominant approach in language attitude studies (Garrett, 2010), it provides clear definition and illustration of research aims, data collection/analysis for participants as opposed to deceiving participants as indirect approach. Second, the researcher may have more choice regarding research instruments design and participants may have more space to reflect on their deeper thoughts. As discussed in Section 3.1, language attitude does not necessarily mean attitude to language per se, it also contains other language-relevant issues such as language speakers and their behaviours. This degree of freedom

allows the researcher to obtain not only surface-level participant evaluation but also in-depth data required for the current research aims. Third, adopting the direct approach also avoids participants from misunderstanding and/or misinterpreting certain terms (e.g., SE, ELF) given that people may have different understanding and experience regarding the English language (varieties).

The following section discusses research procedure including sampling methods, data collection, design of pre-pilot exploratory interview, questionnaire and semi-structured interview, and data analysis. Relevant methodological issues such as reflexivity, validity, reliability and research ethics are also discussed.

4.5 The study

This section discusses in detail the design procedure of the research instruments including the sampling methods, development and the pilot study of the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview design, and the data analysis for both quantitative, namely EFA and qualitative data, namely content analysis/thematic analysis respectively.

4.5.1 Sampling methods

Generally speaking, non-probability sampling, namely purposive sampling, convenience sampling and snowball sampling, were chosen as the sampling methods considering that the current study aims to obtain a depth understanding rather than a generalisable result of Chinese academics' thoughts and experiences. Purposive sampling, particularly homogenous sampling, which focuses on participants who share similar characteristics or traits (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016) was adopted in this study to recruit academics who have the same nationality (Chinese) and working background (academic staff in UK universities). Convenience sampling and snowball sampling were also employed to reach out to more participants. Convenience sampling is a method to choose participants who happen to be available for the study (Mackey

& Gass, 2016). Similar to the homogenous sampling, the sample is not representative to any group and the result cannot be generalised (cf. Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018). Again, the aim of the current research is not to generalise the result but to obtain in-depth information about academics' attitudes and experiences. Vogt (2011, p. 368) defines snowball sampling as a 'technique for finding research subjects that one subject gives the researcher the name of another subject, who in turn provides the name of a third and so on'. It was utilised to avoid the possibility that the researcher might find difficulties to successfully approach enough number of academics. Asking participants to nominate one or two people they think is also appropriate for the researcher to save time and help the researcher to target more participants. Moreover, as Atkinson & Flint (2001) suggest, it might be easier to develop the trust between participants and the researcher as referrals are made by acquaintances instead of identifying them by formal methods.

Specifically, purposive sampling, convenience sampling and snowball sampling were adopted to recruit participants for questionnaire to obtain a good sample size for factor analysis. Field (2013) stresses that for factor analysis, (more details about EFA will be discussed in 4.5.4.1) the reliability depends on the sample size and correlation coefficients fluctuate much more in small samples than in large. However, scholars' opinions varied, and they failed to reach a consensus on a specific number in terms of a sample size to be considered good enough for factor analysis. Many scholars suggest 300 as a good sample size (Comrey and Lee, 1992; Garson, 2008; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Some other scholars (e.g., Goursuch, 1983; Hatcher, 1994) recommend that the number of participants should be at least 5 times the number of variables, which in the current study, should be 180 as the questionnaires contain 36 items. However, Fabrigar and Wegener (2011) strongly criticise these common rules-of-thumb as no strong theoretical or empirical foundations can be found, but scholars' conclusions were based largely on intuitions. They (2011) further suggest that the sample size depends

on a variety of properties of the data and the model being fit. Communalities and the number of measured variables of each factor are also important.

Since it is difficult and complicated to decide the sample size before conducting research, combining Fabrigar and Wegener's (2011) criteria with the most frequent sample size range which is between 1%-10% of the population (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010), a rough number between 100-300 were initially decided given the population of Chinese academics in the UK HEIs were 5115 (Universities UK, 2019) at the time when the research was conducted. A final 134 respondents' responses were used for running EFA. Thompson (2004) suggests that the sample size of 60 is enough if the communalities are .60 or greater and sample sizes of 100-200 is necessary if the communalities are around .50. The current sample size is hence considered to be enough as the communalities of most of the items were greater than .60 with 3 items around .50 (see Section 5.3.1).

Participants for the interviews were recruited mainly through convenience sampling and snowball sampling. 8 participants are either the researcher's friends/colleagues or the friends recommended and invited by one of the participants. The other 6 participants are the questionnaire participants who agreed to get involved in the interviews. This is beneficial for the current mixed-methods research design as recruiting samples of qualitative participants from the larger quantitative sample, according to Creswell and Creswell (2018), may help the researcher make a better comparison between two databases.

4.5.2 The data collection procedure

The convergence model of triangulation design was adopted for the current study to obtain the 'valid and well-substantiated conclusion about a single phenomenon' (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007, p. 65) by questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Generally speaking, the design procedure involved collecting and

analysing quantitative and qualitative data concurrently, but separately as well as comparing/validating/confirming/corroborating the quantitative results with qualitative ones (cf. Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007) to thoroughly understand Chinese academics' language attitudes and the associative factors and possible influences of these attitudes.

Specifically, as shown in Table 4.1, the pre-pilot exploratory interviews were firstly conducted before the main research from February to April in 2016. The pilot study for the questionnaire was conducted between July and August in 2017 and 3 academics (professional in applied linguistics) and 7 PhD students (4 of them studied in language-related/internationalisation-related area) were selected as participants. Because of the limited number of target population, only three academics took part in the pilot study plus 7 PhD students given that they may share similar language experiences during their academic activities (i.e., teaching, supervising, presenting, collaborating with other scholars, etc.) and the aims of the pilot study were mainly on the development of questionnaire items (e.g., checking understandings, survey display, time duration, and other potential practical problems). Each pilot lasted around 30 minutes. Two pilot interviews were conducted with two academics to refine the interview guide which lasted for 50 and 60 minutes respectively. The main study including both quantitative and qualitative data collection was conducted simultaneously from April to October in 2018. Specifically, the questionnaires (see Appendix 4) were created through the Online surveys (formerly Bristol Online Surveys) and emails containing the website link were sent to 630 Chinese academics who work in the Russell Group Universities.

Table 4 1 Data collection procedure

Research stage	Year	Month	Instruments/ methods	Duration	Number of participants	Notes
Exploratory interviews	2016	Feb. – Apr.	Unstructured interviews	Around 60 mins	3 academics	Data analyse

						d by Nvivo 11
Pilot study	2017	Jul. – Aug.	Questionnaires	Around 30 mins	3 academics +7 PhD students	
	2018	Jan.	Semi- structured interviews	30-50 mins	2 academics	
Main study questionnaire	2018	Apr. – Oct.	Online questionnaires	30 mins	630 academics (143 responses received)	Data analyse d by SPSS 24 & 25
	2018	Apr. – Oct.	Face-to- face/virtual interviews	40-90 mins	14 academics	Data analyse d by Nvivo 12

All participants' information was obtained from the universities' websites as it was relatively easy to gather academics' contact details (emails) from the universities' websites and it was also easy to identify Chinese academics' names to generate an mailing list. The quantitative data were then collected and analysed. Simultaneously, 14 interviews were conducted with Chinese academics either face-to-face or online.

4.5.3 Pre-pilot Exploratory interviews

Since the Chinese academics are the under-researched minority in the field of internationalisation of HE and GE, as well as mixed methods being uncommonly used (Galloway, 2011) in language attitude research, three initial exploratory interviews were initially conducted before the main studies to prepare the researcher with a deeper

understanding of Chinese academics experiences and thoughts in the UK academia to ‘test the water’ (Ellis, Janjic-Watrich, Macris, & Marynowski, 2011) as well as providing more information for main questionnaire and interview designs. As Cohen et al. (2018) indicate, a pre-pilot is often a series of open-ended questions, which are designed to generate the topic/constructs/concepts/issues/items/themes to be addressed and data required, to contribute to the subsequent method design. Cohen and Crabtree (2006) also state that semi-structured interviews are usually preceded by unstructured interviews so that researchers can have a keen understanding of the topic and can develop relevant and useful questions for the subsequent interviews. For the current study, three pre-pilot unstructured interviews were conducted initially not aiming to answer the research questions but to generate themes and items/ideas for the main questionnaires and interviews design. The unstructured interview was chosen because it offers participants with greater flexibility and freedom (Cohen et al., 2018), and the researcher can develop a better understanding of their experiences and obtain abundant data for further instrument design.

Although there was no pre-determined theme and question for pre-pilot interviews and Kajornboon (2005) suggests that unstructured interview does not need to follow a detailed interview guide, what Oppenheim (2000) calls the ‘hidden agenda’ was utilised for the current study. The ‘hidden agenda’ includes topics that can be used to direct the research as unobtrusively as possible, and the researcher also used it to re-enliven conversations to avoid silence during interviews. Based on three basic objectives and general research background, three topics were generated: a. internationalisation of HE; b. international academics; and c. English language attitude. ‘a’ was designed to investigate participants’ general understanding and awareness of the trends of internationalisation in HE. ‘b’ was to obtain any information related to international academics including Chinese academics themselves in the UK HE context. ‘c’ was to gain information related to their thoughts and attitudes towards the

use of English in academic settings. Specifically, the interview followed the guide of Oppenheim (2000) that several wide-open and general questions about the personal information of participants were asked at the beginning of the interview to build rapport with participants as well as helping them to get used to the voice and manner of the interviewer. The next stage was to engage in the ‘mental traffic management’ (Oppenheim, 2000) to sort out the directions and arrange the follow-up topics based on the answers of participants in relation to those three main topics. Themes generated from pre-pilot interviews were used for the pilot and main questionnaire and interview design.

Several themes emerged from the pre-pilot interview data (see Appendix 7). Generally speaking, participants were found to have a native-bound attitude with some awareness of the diverse linguistic landscape. Although all three academics were aware of the changing student/staff cohort make-up, and one of the academics considered intelligibility and content were more important than the language per se, they still stressed that, in one participant’s words, “*English belongs to British people, and we have to speak their language because we are in their territory*”. This statement implies that she considered English only belongs to NESs and NNEs are ‘non-legitimate’ (cf. Costa, 2015; Jenkins, 2014; see also 2.2; 2.3.1.2; 2.4.2) users of English. Although they were positive and confident about their professional knowledge, they considered language issues and cultural differences as the main barriers for them participating in academic settings.

The pre-pilot exploratory interviews contribute to the further design of the questionnaire and interview in that relevant hypotheses and statements were generated from academics’ language-related experiences and used in the subsequent questionnaire (see 4.5.4.1). Moreover, some of the themes and topics were selected for the design of questions in follow-up interviews to further explore respondents’

language attitudes (see 4.5.5.1). It also helped the researcher form a bigger picture in mind about Chinese academics' situations in UK academia to develop questions for questionnaires and interviews.

4.5.4 The questionnaire

4.5.4.1 Questionnaire design and exploratory factor analysis

The questionnaire was designed to employ Factor Analysis (FA), particularly EFA to obtain 'depth rather than breadth'; 'quality rather than quantity'; and 'methodological rigour rather than on attempting an impressive large-scale sociolinguistic survey' (Bekker, 2004 p. 44) on issues of Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms as well as possible factors influencing their language attitude. Before considering the design of questionnaires, it is necessary to introduce EFA at the beginning as it guides the way of and is closely related to the questionnaire design.

In psychology and social sciences, especially in attitude measurement and research, the use of FA is well-established for the construction of instruments (Moser & Kalton, 1971) and the use of EFA, as the name suggests, is to explore the field to identify main construct/dimensions on certain topics (Kline, 2014). The researcher can identify the nature of the constructs by examining the measured variables to see which of them are influenced by the same common factors (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2011). Moreover, FA is able to help identify and ensure what Zeller and Carmine (1980, p. 19) called the internal association as 'it highlights and clarifies the pattern of associations among a set of indicants designed to measure a particular theoretical concept'.

In spite of the popularity of FA in psychology, few GE and language attitude researchers apply FA to understand people's language attitudes and to explore the latent factors behind their language attitudes. Methods such as t-test, correlation analysis, (e.g., Galloway, 2011) and regression analysis (e.g., McKenzie, 2010) were

more likely to be adopted to understand factors that influence language learners'/teachers' language attitude. These designs were conducted based on a range of pre-determined hypotheses. Since a substantial body of literature exists on this issue focusing on language learners and teachers (e.g., Baker, 1992; Galloway and Rose, 2015), it is relatively easy to have pre-determined factors and generate hypothetical statements based on previous literature. For the current context of the study (i.e., academic settings in an ED country), however, few research can be found exploring factors that influence language practitioners' attitudes and it is very unlikely that factors in the ELT context remain the same in academic settings. It is thus not appropriate to adopt the previously chosen methods to a different context as the lack of literature requires researchers to identify methods which are able to explore possibilities rather than confirming hypotheses.

Considering the current research aims and context and given that attitude is an abstract construct which has many facets and cannot be observed directly (see 3.1.1), EFA is an appropriate choice to explore language attitudes through 'latent variable[s]' which 'cannot be accessed directly' (Field, 2018, p. 779). Moreover, EFA is particularly suitable for exploring a relatively under-researched topic, of which the researcher has limited expectations and hypothesis, as EFA does not require the researcher to have any expectations on the number of underlying constructs of factors (Thompson, 2004). Even if the research has certain expectations which might be created beforehand, as Thompson (2004) further addresses, the analysis is not affected by such expectations. For instance, in the current study, language proficiency was designed as a potential factor based on previous literature in the ELT context (see 3.3.2.4), it was however eliminated after running EFA. More specifically, item 13 (see Appendix 1) was originally designed under the factor 'language experience', it was however regrouped into factor 'instrumental professional goal' after running EFA. In addition, Fabrigar and Wegener (2011) point out, the use of EFA may assist in the development of

measurement instruments to assess constructs. From the result of EFA, variables which effectively reflect each factor can be identified and can be used for further research. In short, EFA is an appropriate choice for the current research which can provide useful information on both answering research questions and designing research instruments.

As discussed in 4.4.1.3, the current research applied the direct approach to explore Chinese academics' language attitudes. Accordingly, the questionnaire was designed to ask direct questions about their language preferences/evaluations (Garrett et al., 2003) and language-related experience. Based on the research questions and the choice of EFA, the questionnaire item design was essentially guided by the potential factors that influence language attitude. Previous literature (see Section 3.3.2) reveals 9 factors that may influence people's language attitude, namely: '*perceived ethnicity, gender, age, hearer's goals, language expertise, the familiarity of the speakers and language, context and experience of language use, language policy, educational background*'. Based on these 9 factors and the result of the pre-pilot exploratory interviews, a final 7 corresponding themes were generated to guide the questionnaire item design: *native & non-native divide, academic goals, context and experience of language use, perceived language expertise, language learning, higher education policies and linguistic prestige*.

Specifically, *gender* and *age* were removed as these are categorical and numerical variables which can be measured directly, thus no variables were generated under them. Moreover, *familiarity*, which is regarded as an important factor that influences language learners' language attitudes in the ELT context (see 3.3.2.5) was grouped together with *perceived ethnicity* in the questionnaire as the current research aims to understand language attitudes towards English language norms from a holistic perspective instead of comparing attitudes towards particular varieties of English as MGT/VGT does. Since both previous studies (see 3.5.3) and my pre-pilot exploratory

interview have noted a general native and non-native divide concerning ethnicity differences, the theme was further altered into *native & non-native divide* regarding perceived ethnicity. In addition, just as the nature of gender and age, it is difficult to generate items under the *educational background* which can also be considered as a categorical variable. It is therefore transformed into *language learning*. By measuring their choices concerning students' language learning options at school may not only to some extent reflect their own educational background but also showcase their attitudes towards early language learning. Finally, the theme *linguistic prestige* was added as a complementary theme to the theme *context and experience of language use*. Since the later theme focuses more on feelings on certain behaviour/behavioural intentions from an affective perspective which is fluctuating to some extent, the former adds some cognitive perspectives by focusing on their own cognitions on language vitality (see 3.3.2.7).

Moreover, at the early stage of questionnaire item generation, the item pool (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) was created to gather as many items as the researcher can think of. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, p. 40) further suggest that the researcher may draw on various sources for item generation including their 'own verbal creativity', 'the qualitative, exploratory data' and the 'questions borrowed from the established questionnaire'. Hence, the initial pool of 51 items was generated with around 4-12 items under each factor respectively (see Appendix 1) based on various sources including the researcher's own design, previous literature and questionnaires, and the pre-pilot exploratory interviews (see Appendix 3). Notably, three types of questionnaire items were generated guided by tripartite model of attitude (see Section 3.2) from cognitive, affective, and conative perspectives (see Appendix 2).

Other issues related to question design raised in 3.5, which need careful consideration when designing a questionnaire, about measuring language attitude by the direct

approach were also addressed. First, researchers need to be cautious about using multiple questions which include questions where ‘a positive answer could refer to more than one component of the questions’ (Garrett et al., 2003, p. 28) or containing various meanings. Therefore, the original question ‘Students should be taught standard English at school which is good for their future career’ which contains two components (i.e., whether students should be taught StE, and whether teaching StE is good for students’ future career development) was revised into ‘Standard English should be taught at school for the benefit of students’ future career development’ (see question 39 in Appendix 1).

Second, it is important to consider the tendencies in the respondents during the process of data collection as it is closely related to the validity of the data (Issues related to validity and reliability will be discussed in more details later in Section 4.5.8). For instance, ‘social desirability bias’ (Garrett et al., 2003), which means that participants tend to respond the questions in certain ways that they believe is the most socially appropriate and desirable, might influence the validity and reliability of the data. Issues related to the validity and reliability will be discussed in detail in 4.5.8. As discussed in Wang’s (2013) research in Section 3.5.3.1, for instance, students may give a socially appropriate response since they can easily realise the items of the questionnaires are regarded as examples of bad Chinese-English expression. Oppenheim (2000) points out that the degree of ‘social desirability bias’ is more significant in interviews rather than questionnaires. However, it might reduce this risk if the research is conducted confidentially, anonymously and individually.

Third, leading questions which ‘fails to state alternatives’ (Oppenheim, 2000, p. 138) were revised. For instance, the original question ‘To what extent do you think international academics suffer from language obstacles?’ which presumes that all international academics are at some point encounter language obstacles has been

eliminated. Oppenheim (2000, p. 137) also stresses that the ‘loaded’ items which are ‘emotionally coloured and suggest an automatic feeling of approval or disapproval’ may potentially give participants certain pressure to answer the question in a particular way. It is, however, difficult to avoid ‘loaded’ questions as the current research aims to see academics’ approval/disapproval of English language norms. Based on Oppenheim’s (2000) further suggestions on the technique, which helps to overcome this problem by giving participants several choices so that participants may be able to think from a different perspective, the current positive/negative statements which are potentially loaded are designed to describe both NESs’ and NNEs’ (e.g., question 1 and 10 in Appendix 1) to provide participants with positive/negative perspectives on both groups of speakers.

Moreover, asking hypothetical questions about participants’ reactions and possible behaviours to certain issue or event is inappropriate to predict future behaviour unless the event is actually encountered by participants, as the ‘suppose...’ variety of hypothetical questions often ‘found to be poor predictors of people[’s] future reactions or behaviours’ (Oppenheim, 2000, p. 126). However, the purpose of the hypothetical questionnaire item design (e.g., question 10, 12, 13, 20, etc. in Appendix 2) in this study was mainly to ‘reveal [the] intention or state of mind’ (Oppenheim, 2000, p. 126) instead of predicting participants’ future behaviours and reactions. It may also help respondents engage in a deeper reflection on certain issues (cf. Leech, 2002). In this sense, although the questionnaire contained hypothetical questions, it was designed to infer participants language attitudes and possible factors relating to their experiences.

Last, since the language used in the data collection may also affect participant’s responses according to Ryan et al. (1982), clear instructions were provided at the beginning of the questionnaire (Oppenheim, 2000) in both Chinese and English to ensure that participants understand the questions and how to answer questions properly

(see Appendix 4). Pilot studies were also conducted afterwards to check relevant issues before the main study.

4.5.4.2 Pilot study and the questionnaire development

In the pilot study, 7 participants, either academics or PhD students, who are professional in applied linguistics and internationalisation of higher education from the University of Edinburgh, Newcastle University and the University of Lancaster were recruited. Their opinions were consulted in terms of the face validity and clarity of the items. Further ideas were asked in relation to the item content. Moreover, 3 non-experts who work in other fields in the University of Edinburgh were also approached to comment on the items to ensure all the items were intelligible without containing any vague concepts to academics with various background.

Several problems were found including similarity¹, ambiguity², and non-application³. (Questions which are deleted or amended are underlined in Appendix 1). Taking these opinions into consideration, the final 36 items were selected and presented in the following Table 4.2. Notably, definitions of all terms such as native English speakers, non-native English speakers and Standard English were not provided in the questionnaires since each participant may have different interpretations of these terms and it is to some extent leading by providing the researcher's own interpretation which may cause bias issues since the GE researchers' understanding of language is usually

¹ For instance, questions 14 seems similar to question 16. Question 14 was originally designed to examine the affective aspect of academics' language attitude while question 16 was designed to understand the cognitive aspect (Appendix 1).

² The issues of ambiguity were found in uses of terms. For instance, some participants found that it was difficult to define and differentiate certain terms such as 'Nativised English' in question 9 and 10. These terms were then changed into international speakers' English to be clearer to participants (Appendix 1).

³ For instance, for question 23, participants who are doing computer science and engineering noted that it was difficult to tell who takes more time to do the work as people usually have different work to do and work individually (Appendix 1).

different from the traditional view of language in the UK HEIs (see Chapter 2). Participants were thus advised to answer the questions according to their own understanding of these terms. Nevertheless, their understandings of ‘nativeness’ and ‘non-nativeness’ were further explored in detail through the interviews (see 6.2.1.1). Moreover, the order of these 36 items were presented randomly in the distributed questionnaire (see Appendix 4).

Table 4 2 Final 36 questionnaire items

List of Items
1. International speakers’ English sounds more pleasant than native speakers’ English
2. International speakers’ English is more understandable.
3. International speakers experience more difficulties expressing themselves accurately (e.g., grammar, sentence structure) than native speakers unavoidably during communication.
4. Generally speaking, international speakers make more language mistakes than native speakers do.
5. International speakers’ English sounds natural.
6. International speakers’ English is incomplete.
7. Native speakers’ English sounds more familiar than international speakers.
8. Native speakers’ English sounds more correct.
9. I want to improve my English language ability in order to achieve a better academic progress.
10. If I use English as native speakers do, I feel more motivated to work.
11. I don’t need to speak English as native speakers do as I will have equal opportunities of getting a proper job.
12. If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in achieving my academic goal.
13. If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in making good relationship with my colleagues.
14. I feel embarrassed if I pause a lot to search for the right word while talking with others.
15. I consult my native speaker colleagues for right expressions in English.

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16. I feel less confident about my English when I communicate with native speakers than non-native speakers
 17. I do not deliberately make sure that I am grammatically accurate during my work.
 18. Standard English increases the degree of comprehensibility among speakers of English.
 19. It is common that my English proficiency is not good as those Native speakers
 20. If I use English as native speakers do, I can express my ideas more clearly.
 21. It would be good if I can be more native-like in speaking.
 22. It would be good if I can be more native-like in writing
 23. Standard English should be taught in primary school to provide student with a good language foundation
 24. It would be good that student learn standard English rather than other varieties of English
 25. Standard English should be taught at school for the benefit of students' future career development.
 26. Native speakers should learn more about the international cultures to enhance mutual communication.
 27. Universities should encourage and help international academics to improve their English language ability.
 28. It is reasonable to have a language requirement for international academics.
 29. Language standard is not so important to maintain the reputation of the university.
 30. Language standard is not so important to maintain the high standard of the programme.
 31. We cannot change the English language according to our own desire.
 32. International speaker's English is the corrupt form of English.

If I use English as native speakers do.....

33. I am perceived as more intelligent.
 34. I am perceived as more confident.
 35. I am perceived as more sophisticated.
 36. I am perceived as more educated.
-

Likert-scale with 7-point including *strongly agree*, *agree*, *slightly agree*, *not sure*, *slightly disagree*, *disagree*, *strongly disagree* was adopted for the questionnaire to

ensure the scale validity and reliability (Foddy, 1994). Moreover, applying two additional points may prevent respondents from consistently choosing extreme points in the scale (cf. Reynolds, 2000). Notably, their self-assessed language proficiency was assessed through a 5-point Likert-scale as questions exploring their self-assessed language proficiency were only used for providing background information and not included for EFA. Normally for language attitude, a neutral mid-point is contained 'as most researchers prefer the ambiguity associated with a mid-point over the problems attached to forcing informants to fully commit themselves towards agreement or disagreement when no mid-point is included in the scale' (Garrett et al., 2003: 41). While considering the point made by Roberts, Laughlin, and Wedell (1999) to attitudinal scales that the statements which are declarative may normally show a specific stand for either positive or negative but not a neutral one, the mid-point in the current questionnaire was thus stated as not sure instead of neutral.

4.5.5 Interviews

4.5.5.1 Interview design

Semi-structured in-depth interviews were adopted to capture insights of a depth of focus which is rarely achieved through questionnaires (Forsey, 2010) to add qualitative dimensions and to obtain further depth explanations in order to answer the research questions. The semi-structured interview is particularly suitable for the current research as it provides a 'repertoire of possibilities' as well as 'addressing theoretically driven variables of interest' (Galletta, 2013, p. 24) for this relatively under-researched topic. Therefore, the interview process was not completely flexible for interviewees to express and develop their ideas but "combine[ed] structure with flexibility" (Legard, Keegan & Ward, 2003) as it started from some pre-determined themes generated by the researcher while also valuing and allowing interviewees to develop thoughts and express their opinions on their own (Denscombe, 2003) to provide new perspectives and information for the researcher.

Specifically, the interview design followed the seven steps proposed by Kvale and Brinkmann (2009): *thematizing, designing, interviewing, transcribing, analysing, verifying* and *reporting*. At the stage of *thematizing*, clarifying the research purpose is crucial. As stated before, the current study aims to investigate Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English and associative factors and influences of these attitudes. Based on the research purposes, the broad goals were then translated into various specific objectives (cf. Cohen et al., 2018) according to the three research questions, namely attitudes towards native/non-native English language norms in academic settings; factors that influence language attitudes; and language experience. This stage also involves the 'what' part (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009) which is clarifying the themes of the study. Based on the pre-pilot exploratory interview findings and the previous literature (see 2.4; 3.3.2; 3.5), a framework of themes was established (see Table 4.3) to guide the later interview question design.

Table 4 3 Themes and Topics for Interview

		NESs
	Language attitudes	NNESs
		GE perspective
		Perceived ethnicity
		Academic goals
	Factors that influence language attitudes	Language expertise
		Familiarity
		Context
		Language policy
		Previous educational background
		Language difficulties
	Language experience	Cultural differences
		Subject-related issues
		Behaviour intentions

As shown in Table 4.3, the interview was generally divided into three sections considering three research questions. Section 1 was to explore academics' attitudes towards native/non-native English norms and the use of English from a GE perspective in academic settings. Since it might be relatively vague and abstract for academics who are not in the field of applied linguistics and education to react to the concept of English language norms, the questions were designed to investigate their reflections on language speakers, namely NESs, and NNESs as well as the use of English among various speakers (GE perspectives) instead. Section 2 was to understand how their language attitudes are influenced by various factors. Since in-depth semi-structured interviews were adopted, questions related to the above-mentioned 7 factors (see 4.5.4.1) that influence language attitude were asked and academics were also given much freedom to express their ideas. In this sense, more detailed information about their thoughts and behaviours as well as new in-depth issues can be identified (cf. Cohen et al., 2018) and the researcher may infer more factors that influence their language attitude from their experiences. Section 3 was designed to understand how their language attitudes may influence their academic behaviour and experiences. According to the pre-pilot interviews and relative literature (see Hsieh, 2012; Jiang et al., 2010; Luxon & Peelo, 2009), several themes of possible academic behaviours were proposed: *language difficulties*, *cultural differences*, *subject-related issues* and *behaviour intentions*. Similarly, academics were allowed to give more opinions and ideas.

At the *designing* stage, research objectives and themes were translated into questions (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). According to the objectives of the research, question formats were selected as: *background/demographic questions*, *opinion/value questions*, *feeling questions*, *experience/behaviour questions*, and *knowledge questions* (Patton, 2014). Respectively, *background/demographic questions* were designed to mainly obtain and depict information about participants' working

background and environment such as the occupation and subjects and to see how ‘people categorise themselves’ (Patton, 2014, p. 652). Their attitudes may also be inferred from the categories they made. *Opinion/value questions, feeling questions* and *experience/behaviour questions* were designed to some extent as corresponding to the tripartite model of attitude (see 3.2) to elicit the cognitive, affective and conative perspectives of participants’ language attitudes. Additionally, *knowledge questions* were designed to obtain the factual information of respondents. For instance, whether the university has offered enough (language) support for international academics and whether the university has specific language requirements for international academics. Notably, what Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) called ‘follow-up questions, probing questions and specifying questions’ were also applied to the interview. These questions were designed open-endedly relating to the themes and asked during interviews as it is flexible and helps to establish rapport as well as allowing interviewers to go into more depth for better understanding (Cohen et al., 2018).

4.5.5.2 Pilot study and the conduct of interview

Two Chinese academics took part in the pilot interviews and several issues were noted. First, the pilot study highlighted the potential issues in recruiting participants. As my two participants were extremely busy and both of them failed to meet on the proposed interview date. Therefore, in the main study, the data collection phase was extended to provide more flexibility in terms of meeting dates. Second, although academics were allowed to use their L1 or L2 during the interview, both participants preferred to use Chinese. Nevertheless, codeswitching was constantly identified during the interview. In addition, the originally designed time duration was 60 to 90 minutes in order to obtain enough qualitative data. The two pilot interviews lasted 30 and 50 minutes respectively of which an abundant data has already obtained. Therefore, considering the real time duration and data collected as well as the busy schedule for

Chinese academics, the main study aimed to control the interview time between 30-50 minutes.

Considering the specific conduct of interviews at the *interviewing* stage, emails containing particular time and location of the interviews were sent to interviewees in advance. The interview guide (see Appendix 10) was also prepared before interviews to list an outline of topics with suggested questions for the semi-structured interviews (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). Interviews were conducted either in a quiet room or online. Similar to the questionnaire design, since the current study adopted the direct approach, the research purpose was directly introduced, and direct questions were asked. At the beginning of the interviews, interviewees were thanked for participating and invited them to choose the language they preferred to use in the interview. Notably, all of my participants chose Chinese as the interview language, while codeswitching can be identified throughout just as my pilot interviews. They were then invited to talk casually about his/her life in the UK with me. Moreover, the researcher introduced herself as a PhD student in Education and a previous language teacher. Participants may want to share more about their own experiences given that the researcher is also working in the academic settings and is interested in exploring ways to potentially improve their academic working experiences from a new perspective (cf. De Tona, 2006). They were also invited to read the participant information sheet (see Appendix 8) and allow them some time to ask questions. They were then asked to sign the consent forms afterwards. An example of the signed consent form is presented in Appendix 9. In order to avoid what Axinn and Pearce (2006, p. 42) called the 'substantial respondent fatigue' and based on the pilot interviews, the typical interviewing time was controlled between 30-50 minutes while only one participant showed an extreme interest in the research and was actively engaging in the interview which spent 90 minutes.

4.5.6 Data analysis

4.5.6.1 Quantitative data analysis

As discussed in 4.5.4.1, EFA was adopted as the major statistical technique to guide the questionnaire design as well as quantitative data analysis. Specifically, there were three stages of the quantitative data analysis. First, demographic and descriptive data was analysed to identify the general patterns and relationships between language attitude and academics' background. Second, EFA was run to explore the latent variables that influence academics' language attitude. However, EFA alone can hardly reveal the relative strength of each factor on respondents nor can it identify the difference among respondents. Therefore, stage three was to conduct further cluster analysis and multinomial logistic regression analysis to group respondents according to their language attitude and to identify common characteristics of each group.

4.5.6.2 Qualitative data analysis

The qualitative content analysis was adopted to analyse all qualitative data obtained from the pre-pilot exploratory interview and semi-structured interview. The qualitative content analysis deals with detail and depth data, which is collected from open-ended techniques, i.e., open-ended interview questions rather than measurement, i.e., closed-ended questionnaire items (Forman and Damschroder, 2007). Specifically, a seven-step data analysis process proposed by Creswell & Creswell (2018, p. 269) was adopted: 1. organising and preparing data for analysis; 2. Reading through all data; 3. Coding the data; 4. Themes; 5. Integrating themes; 6. Interpreting the meaning of themes. The following paragraphs in this section discuss each step in detail.

The first step involves interview transcriptions and data preparation such as material scanning and data arrangement. The interview data transcribing process can also provide the researcher with opportunities to know the data thoroughly (Dörnyei, 2007). Widodo (2014) suggests two transcription approaches: naturalism and denaturalise, of which the former transcribes all the utterances in detail, i.e., verbatim transcription

while the later eliminates the idiosyncratic elements such as stutter, pauses, fillers, and non-verbal signals, i.e., intelligent verbatim transcription. Although Halcomb and Davidson (2006) consider verbatim transcription is not necessarily required by content/thematic analysis, the current research adopted the naturalism approach to transcribing the interview verbatim as the idiosyncratic elements may also imply certain language attitudes. Notably, since analysing data in a foreign language could cause problems such as the possibility to easily analyse the translated version of data instead of the original one (Smith, 1996), the data analysis was conducted in Chinese to avoid the possibility of compromising the validity of the data and the loss of meanings when data is all collected in a national language (Smith, Chen & Liu, 2008).

The second step requires the researcher to read through the data in order to get more familiar with the data and to reflect on the overall meaning to form a general understanding of the data. Transcriptions were printed out and notes were written in the transcription at this stage to record the researcher's thoughts about the data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The next two steps were to start initial coding of the data (see also topic coding by Richards & Morse, 2012) by highlighting and labelling extracts (Dörnyei, 2007). Similar or closely related codes were pulled together from the initial codes into more meaningful units of analysis, i.e., broader level of themes, or categories which were used as the headings in the findings section (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014, see also Section 6.1). The final two steps involve interrelating and interpreting the themes. Notably, the data interpretation was an interactive process which was not started at these final stages (Dörnyei, 2007) but as early as the initial steps.

4.5.7 Reflexivity

The practice of reflexivity is not a 'singular, static phenomenon' (Clarke & Dervin, 2014, p. 1). It is rather a 'multifaceted, complex, and ongoing dialogical process that is continually evolving' and intricately and multimodally intertwined with every single

step and decision making in the research process (Clarke & Dervin, 2014, p. 2). This section elaborates my efforts to support reflexivity throughout the research process.

First, drawing on the idea of shared identity which problematises the dichotomous understanding of the researcher's role as either an insider or outsider (Srivastava, 2006), I regard my positionality in the current study as both an insider and an outsider. Undoubtedly, I share the same nationality, cultural background, language with participants. Similar studying and working experience can also be identified between the researcher and participants. This makes it easier for me to build rapport with participants as well as probe into participants experience. For instance, with a shared L1, it is easier for me to understand what Participant 3 meant by a Mandarin accent as well as the metaphor he made in terms of unpleasant accent (see 6.2.3.1.3, p. 201). Another example is the pun Participant 4 made (see 6.2.4.2.1, p. 220). It is advantageous as a L1 Chinese speaker for me to recognise two different meanings of the same Chinese phrase.

Although the rigour can be enhanced if the researcher is an insider (Irvine, Roberts, and Bradbury-Jones, 2008), there are also potential problems. The insider bias, for instance, can be problematic when researchers are overconfident and too quickly jump to conclusions without appreciating information beyond their own perspectives (Woodin, 2016). An example of this is when Participant 8 raised the issue of 'inaccurate pronunciation'. I instinctively thought that he meant 'accent' based on my knowledge and my own understanding of GE (6.2.2.2, p. 191). However, I realised that he considered non-standard traits of pronunciation as errors rather than accent when I asked him to elaborate on this issue. This scenario would have been an misinterpretation of participant's thought had I not asked follow-up clarification questions. Taking this into consideration, I also acknowledged my possible preconceived understandings in terms of English language and language attitude, as

well as possible language experiences of Chinese speakers of English which may influence the design of research techniques and analysis of data.

Hence, I have reflected on differences between my participants (i.e., Chinese academics) and myself. First, Kvale (1996) indicates that researchers are usually regarded as the more powerful side as they control all details and rules of the research design (e.g., Holmes, 2014). However, regarding my different positions as a PhD student (i.e., a younger generation who lacks academic experience, and perhaps lacks comprehensive understanding of HE) and my participants (i.e., academic staff with older ages, more academic and working experience), possible influences of imbalanced power relation was constantly considered and actively alleviated by means of building up rapport with academics before interviews and allowing participants the ‘opportunity to object’ in an ‘open communication’ (Karnieli-Miller, Strier, & Pessach, 2009, p. 286) during interviews and other communications.

Second, to lessen the potential negative impact of being an insider, I also recognised the diversity among Chinese academics (e.g., age, position, subject, educational background, language experience etc.) and made efforts to not be overgeneralised although they are all categorised as Chinese academics. This is embodied in not only the qualitative technique but also quantitative data analysis, i.e., the choice of EFA and cluster analysis, which ensures that “what is individual and idiosyncratic is [not] sacrificed for the sake of finding commonalities” (Lakew, 2017, p. 232). During the inductive endeavour of relabelling items of questionnaire (see Section 5.3.2) and grouping academics (see Section 5.4), the sense of reflexivity reminded me not to rely on my preconceptions (e.g., the existing understanding of factors that would influence language attitude) but distinguish my bias from the real meaning the data convey (e.g., the actual items grouped by EFA and characteristics of different groups of participants).

Third, the engagement of reflexivity also drove me to consider the role of language and how to maximise the utilisations of linguistic resources of participants. Language choices in the research, either using participants' L1 (i.e., Mandarin Chinese) or L2 (English) has its own advantages and deficiencies. Although both my participants and I are bilingual speakers who share L1, it cannot be assumed that using indigenous language will enhance the quality of communications, or L1 should be chosen tacitly by researchers (Cortazzi, Pilcher and Jin, 2011). Given the multilingual nature of the research setting, and to maximise the understanding between the researcher and the researched, both Chinese and English were provided in questionnaire, and Chinese academics were asked to choose their preferred language at the beginning of the interview. Notably, all of them chose to speak Mandarin. Nevertheless, by constantly reflecting on the conduct of interview, academics were also encouraged to codeswitch and/or translanguaging considering the difficulty of referring to some specific terms (e.g., NS, NNS, NES, NNES, NE etc.) in Chinese. In terms of data analysis, on the one hand, Chinese was adopted during the analytic process to ensure the validity of the data; on the other hand, periodical review and consultation was adopted to ensure the accuracy of the translated data.

4.5.8 Validity and Reliability

4.5.8.1 *Validity*

According to Heale and Twycross (2015), the validity in quantitative research indicates whether, or to what extent a concept can be accurately measured. Several issues were considered in order to ensure the validity of the research design. First, as discussed in 4.4.1, the triangulation design of the research which concurrently collects data through both quantitative and qualitative methods ensures the 'convergent validation' (Fielding, 2012). Moreover, both questionnaire and interview were carefully piloted and revised several times according to the feedback provided by the experts to ensure the content validity. Second, the strategy of both member checks and peer examinations suggested by Zohrabi (2013) were conducted to ensure the internal

validity, or credibility for qualitative instruments (cf. Lincoln & Guba, 1985) of the research. Specifically, the interview transcripts and interpretations were sent back to the academics to confirm the content and get feedback, 6 out of 14 academics responded and confirmed that the transcripts and interpretations were correctly reflected their thoughts. Given that the data was collected and analysed in Chinese, peer examinations were also conducted to ensure the data was properly translated and intelligible to readers in the report. Third, with regard to the external validity for qualitative method, similar to what Lincoln and Guba (1985) called transferability, sufficient contextual information and thick description (see Chapter 6) were provided to help readers contemplate ‘application in another receiving setting to make the needed comparisons of similarity’ (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 360). In other words, the readers are able to resonate/compare and verify the research findings according to their own experiences. Other researchers may also find similarities in terms of the information provided in the current study.

4.5.8.2 Reliability

In terms of the reliability for quantitative instruments, which is about whether or to what extent a research instrument can obtain the same results in the same situation on repeated occasions constantly (Heale & Twycross, 2015), Henerson et al. (1987) suggest test-retest reliability as the most intuitively obvious way to test the instrument consistency. However, it requires participants to complete the same questionnaires twice at different times. Considering the limited time of the research, the busy schedule of academics, as well as the nature of language-attitude responses which could fluctuate in different contexts (see 3.3.1), it does not seem to be the most applicable way to test the reliability of the current study. Alternatively, a set of Cronbach’s alpha were computed to test the internal consistency (Field, 2013) of the questionnaire and individual factors and a high internal consistency and good reliability were revealed by the results (see 5.3.1).

For qualitative methods, on the other hand, Lincoln and Guba (1985, 2013) suggest establishing dependability (i.e., the consistency or stability of findings) and confirmability (i.e., whether the findings can be confirmed by other researchers). To be specific, the research process was clearly stated to enable future researchers to repeat the process (Shenton, 2004) and an audit trail including maintaining field notes, keeping consistent and clear documentation during the data analysis (Rodgers & Cowles, 1993) were adopted to keep a record of the researcher's decision during the whole process of the research (Babbie, 2016). However, considering the confidentiality issues, the fieldnotes were not attached to this thesis.

4.5.9 Research ethics

According to the ethical guidelines of the University of Edinburgh, the current research is at level 2 as it involves academics and is not about a sensitive topic. Some issues were considered in the current study. First, confidentiality and anonymity were maintained. In order to avoid 'inadvertent disclosure' (Ritchie & Lewis, 2014, p. 85), the researcher paid more attention to the personal information provided by participants to avoid reporting and sharing information which may contain potential risks for participants to be identified. As the number of Chinese academics is usually limited in each department, they might be easily identified by certain information such as gender, department and ages. Second, since there is no consensus on gaining consent for online questionnaires (Ritchie & Lewis, 2014), the essential information (such as research purpose, right to withdraw at any time) was displayed at the beginning of the questionnaire. For individual interviews, information sheet and consent forms were handed over to participants. Participants were also asked to sign the consent form before conducting the interview. Moreover, considering the participants of the current research are 'Elites' (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009) who are experts and leaders in their field, the power relation is necessary to be taken into consideration. As discussed in 4.5.7, it is very likely that interviewees were in a relatively more powerful situation than the interviewer (the researcher). In order to achieve the symmetry in the interview

relationship, the interviewer was well prepared with enough knowledge about the topic and technical language (e.g., WE, ELF, GE, MGT/VGT, EFA) (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009) before starting the interview process while also appreciating criticism from academics during the interview. In addition, a little Chinese gift was given to each participant at the end of interviews to avoid 'leaving participants feeling that they are merely used' (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 65).

4.5.10 Limitations

There are several limitations of the current study. First, academics may not want to share their difficulties and real thoughts with a PhD student due to an imbalanced power relationship. Even in the questionnaires, people may not tell the truth although it is anonymous (Aiken, 1997). However, many efforts were put to enhance the reliability of the result such as stressing the benefit of the research for the participants and develop a rapport with participants in advance. These were done in the short introduction of questionnaires and at the beginning of each interview.

Second, the respondent fatigue may lead to a low response rate of questionnaires. Considering the use of questionnaires with 36 relatively 'wordy' statements, which were on the other hand necessary to be maintained for EFA, academics might not want to sacrifice their time to complete questionnaires and respondent fatigue may occur. In order to ensure an acceptable response rate and reliable result, the research topic and potential benefit were explicitly explained in detail to raise their interests in taking part in the study. Moreover, the layout of the questionnaire such as the density and sequencing marking were carefully considered to give the participants the impression that the questionnaire is seriously and professionally conducted (Dörnyei, 2007), so that they might be more willing to answer questions. The reliability of questionnaires was also tested after data collection.

Third, in terms of interviews as a qualitative method, the researcher as both data collector and analyst (Torrance, 2012), may impose her thoughts and beliefs during the process of collecting and analysing data. With regard to this issue, as discussed in 4.5.8.1, transcripts and interpretations of interviews were sent back to the participants to allow them to confirm the results and add more information to the data to ensure the accuracy of each interview.

Moreover, Chinese was adopted as the language in all research instruments and data analysis. However, the ‘first language differences’ (Van Nes, Abma, Jonsson, & Deeg, 2010) may occur when presenting the findings and extracts in English. To lessen the influence of language differences, as discussed in Section 4.5.7, periodical review and the ‘consultation’ strategy was adopted to discuss the meanings of words/phrases which were identified as problematic with people who are bilingual or have a certain background in the field (Filep, 2009).

Finally, it is difficult to pilot the quantitative data analysis before conducting the main questionnaire analysis due to the lack of participant. Therefore, 7 PhD students in various disciplines including applied linguistic and other language-related subjects were recruited. Although their academic experiences may vary compared with academics ultimately, they were still able to provide insights into the development of questionnaire in terms of item designs.

4.6 Ending remarks

The above chapter discusses the choice of mix-methods design and development of the research instruments in detail within the direct approach. This chapter also provides the discussion of the research settings, participants, pre-pilot exploratory study, and procedure of data collection as well as relating methodological issues such as validity and reliability, research ethics and limitations of the research design.

Chapter 5 Questionnaire data analysis

This chapter discusses the results of the questionnaire data which is designed to mainly answer the following first two research questions and partly answer the third research questions.

1. What are Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms in UK universities?
2. What factors have influenced the attitudes of these Chinese academics?
3. How do attitudes towards English norms influence Chinese academics' language-related behaviour in academic settings?

Specifically, Demographic data are presented in Section 5.1 to provide a general understanding of respondents and the research setting. Section 5.2 deals with the findings with regard to the first research question and presents the descriptive data of Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms including their own English. Section 5.3 reports the results of EFA which is used to identify the outstanding factors underlying respondents' language attitudes. As explained in Chapter 4, the questionnaire items are designed based on the 9 factors concluded in Chapter 3 for running EFA, and the prominent factors generated after EFA would be considered as important factors that influence their language attitudes. Section 5.4 shows the results of the further K-mean cluster analysis and multinomial logistic regression analysis based on the factor scores generated from EFA to identify how factors influence academics with various background and experiences.

5.1 Demographic data about respondents

As stated in Chapter 4, homogeneous purposive sampling, convenience sampling and snowball sampling were used to recruit participants. To be specific, since nearly 21%

of academic staff are of non-UK nationality among UK universities (Universities UK, 2020) and Chinese academics have occupied one of the largest percentages (7495 in total) of non-EU academic population (HESA, 2020), it is assumed that there are more or less Chinese academics in the UK universities' staff lists. The targeted universities of this study are the Russell group universities as these universities have great influence across the UK and attract many international students and academic staff. Since Chinese names are relatively easy to be recognised, Chinese academics were identified and selected from universities' websites. Emails containing links to the questionnaire were then sent to these identified Chinese academics in Russell group universities. Moreover, these academics were also informed to pass this questionnaire to their Chinese colleagues if they found it interesting. The questionnaires were also sent to the researcher's Chinese friends who work in the UK academia.

A total of 630 questionnaires were sent and 143 responses were received from 17 universities (see Appendix 5). The response rate is around 23%. Although it is regarded by some scholars as a low response rate which may cause bias (e.g., Baruch & Holtom, 2008; Fincham, 2008), many studies have proved that research with low response rate can also achieve accurate results (e.g., Holbrook, Kronsnick, & Pfent, 2007; Morton, Bandara, Robinson, & Carr, 2012) since low study rate does not automatically mean a result with low validity and accuracy (Morton et al., 2012). Moreover, according to Van Mol (2017), several meta-analyses show that web surveys usually get a lower response rate (6-15%) comparing with other modes. In this sense, 23% is a typical and acceptable response rate for online surveys. Additionally, as discussed before, the results of follow-up interviews can also triangulate the data and validate the results (see 4.4.1). Notably, the highest response rate is nearly 60% from the University of Edinburgh which is the same university the researcher studies at. This echoes Saleh & Bista's (2017) statement that people prefer responding to their

students, colleagues and authority figures rather than other organisations or people they do not know.

Among these 143 responses, 9 of these questionnaires were eliminated for two reasons. First, EFA cannot be run if there are missing data of items. Therefore, 6 respondents who fail to response to all questionnaire items were eliminated. Second, since the targeted population is Chinese academics, responses from 3 non-academics (e.g., PhD students and administrative staff) were inapplicable to the current research. Therefore, only 134 responses were considered as valid and were used in this study.

Table 5.1 shows the demographic data about the respondents. 42.5% of them are female and 56% are male. 1.5% of respondents do not want to indicate their gender. The numbers of female and male respondents are not widely varying. In terms of the ages of respondents, the majority are between 31-39 (64.9%). 14.2% of respondents are 30 or less. 11.9% of them are between 40-49 years old and 9% of respondents are above 50. Moreover, their working years in academia are clearly presented. 10.4% have been working less than a year and 35.1% have been working between 1-5 years, which is the majority. 29.9% of them have been working between 6-10 years and 17.9% have been working for more than 10 years but less than 20 years. 6.7% have been working for more than 20 years. 0.7% failed to give an answer.

Table 5 1 Demographic data about respondents

Variables	Category	Results	
		Respondents (n)	Percentage
Gender	Female	57	42.5%
	Male	75	56%
	Prefer not to say	2	1.5%

Age	<30	19	14.2%
	31-39	87	64.9%
	40-49	16	11.9%
	>50	12	9%
Working years	<1 year	14	10.4%
	1-5years	47	35.1%
	6-10 years	40	29.9%
	11-20 years	24	17.9%
	More than 20 years	9	6.7%
Position	Research focused	84	62.7%
	Teaching focused	50	37.3%
Subject	Natural science	85	63.4%
	Social science	49	36.6%

Their academic positions are also shown in Appendix 5. There are research assistant/post doc/research associate (46.7%), lecturers (17.8%), teaching fellows (8.9%), professors (7.4%), academic visitors (6.7%), research fellows (5.9%), senior lecturer/associate professors (2.2%), teaching assistants (2.2%), and readers (0.7%). They are further grouped into research-focused (63.4%) and teaching-focused (37.3) roles according to the two pathways in the UK academia (Table 5.1). Notably, *research-focused group* includes those who only have research roles such as research assistant/postdocs/research associate, academic visitors and research fellows. The rest academics who have either teaching roles or both roles are included in *teaching-focused group*. There are more research-focused academics than teaching-focused academics.

Most of these Chinese academics are working in the field of engineering and technology (23.0%), physical sciences (17.8%) and computer sciences (10.4%). 9.6% of them are working in business and administrative studies and 4.4% of them are in social studies. Languages, historical and philosophical studies and education have the

same percentage (5.9 %) of respondents working on these subjects. Medicine and dentistry, biological sciences, and mathematical sciences each accounts for 3.7% respectively. 3.0% of them are in creative arts and design and 1.5% of them are in the department of Law. There are 1.5% of respondents chose the ‘others’ option who didn’t give further statement in terms of their subject (see Appendix 5). These subjects are further grouped into *natural science* including engineering and technology, physical sciences, computer sciences, medicine and dentistry, biological sciences, and mathematical sciences and *social sciences* including business and administrative studies, social studies, languages, historical and philosophical studies, education, creative arts and design and law. As shown in Table 5.1, most of the academics are working in natural science (63.4%) than social science (36.6%).

Most of these academics are from the University of Edinburgh (29.6%). 12.6% are from the University of Manchester and 8.9% are from Imperial College London. The others are from the University of Nottingham (5.9%); Newcastle University (5.2%); University College London (3.7%); University of Southampton (3.7%); University of Sheffield (3.0%); University of Warwick (3.0%); University of York (3.0%); Herriot-Watt University (2.2%); Durham University (1.5%); King’s College London (1.5%); London School of Economics and Political Science (1.5%); University of Aberdeen (1.5%); University of Glasgow (1.5%) and University of Bath (0.7%) respectively. 0.7% didn’t want to state their university and 10.4% are found missing (see Appendix 5).

5.2 Language attitudes

This section deals with findings of descriptive analysis. Section 5.2.1 reports respondents’ language attitudes towards their own English in terms of listening, speaking, pronunciation, reading, writing and subject-specific vocabulary by reviewing the medians of ordinal variables of each item. Afterwards, self-assessed median scores of these 6 items are compared by various groups including gender, age,

working years, academic position, and subjects to find out how their attitudes vary depending on these characteristics. Section 5.2.2 discusses their language attitudes towards English language norms from different aspects.

5.2.1 Descriptive analysis of self-assessed language proficiency

As discussed in Section 3.3.2 about questionnaire development, a 5-point Likert scale (1=very poor, 2=poor, 3=fair, 4=good, 5=excellent) was applied to examine Chinese academics' self-assessments of their language proficiency. As shown in Table 5.2, the medians for listening, speaking, pronunciation, reading, writing and subject-specific vocabulary are 4, 3, 3, 4, 3.5, and 4 respectively. It indicates that on average, Chinese academics feel their speaking, pronunciation, and writing skills are not as good as their listening, reading and vocabulary. In other words, Chinese academics generally consider their receptive language skills are better than their productive skills. It seems worthwhile to find out what standard do they apply to assess their language proficiency and this issue will be further investigated in follow-up interviews.

Table 5 2 Medians of self-assessed language proficiency (N=134)

	Listening	Speaking (fluency)	Pronunciation	Reading	Writing	Subject- specific vocabulary
Median	4	3	3	4	3.5	4

Viewing these six skills together by adding up their self-assessed scores in each skill and slicing up the scale of 30 into 5 categories again (very poor, poor, fair, good, excellent), the new scale that showcases their overall self-assessed language proficiency is shown in Table 5.3. 3.0% of respondents considered their overall language proficiency as very poor and 9.7% of them considered themselves as poor. The majority of these academics rated their overall language proficiency as fair (44.0%)

or good (36.6%). 6.7% of them thought their overall language proficiency was excellent. This indicates that most of these Chinese academics were satisfied with their language proficiency and only a small percentage of them considered themselves lack language proficiency.

Table 5.3 Self-assessed language proficiency on all six skills of Chinese academics

Sum of self-assessed language proficiency					
	Very poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
Respondents	4	13	59	49	9
Percentage	3.0%	9.7%	44.0%	36.6%	6.7%

Although they tended to rate positively on their overall language proficiency, it is also interesting to identify the differences among academics in different gender, age, working years, academic positions and subjects. Table 5.4 indicates the medians of different groups and their associations with their summed self-assessed language proficiency score. In terms of gender, male academics (Mdn=18) tend to rate a little higher than female academics (Mdn=17). However, the further Pearson chi-square test suggests that no significant statistical association (at the conventional 95% level of confidence, $p < 0.05$) was found between gender and self-assessed language proficiency ($\chi^2(4, n = 134) = 3.104, p = .541$). Notably, the statistical significance is less important in the current research as it is influenced by the small sample size ($n=134$) and the nonprobability sampling methods (see 4.5.1). Therefore, the result cannot be generalised beyond the sample of the study.

In terms of the differences in age, according to Table 5.4, it is found that their self-assessed language proficiency scores increase with the increase of their age. Academics whose age is below 30 consider themselves just fair in English language proficiency (Mdn=16). Academics whose age between 31 and 39 rate a bit higher in their English language proficiency although the score is also in a fair level (Mdn=18). Those

who age between 40 and 49 (Mdn=19.5) and above 50 (Mdn=20) have the highest ratings and consider their overall English language proficiency good. The Pearson chi-square test confirms that there is a significant association between age and self-assessed language proficiency ($\chi^2(12, n = 134) = 19.158, p = .039$), with a moderate association (Cramér's $V = .218$) according to Rea & Parker's (2014) scale for interpreting the Cramér's V . This can be explained to some extent that respondents in older age groups might have more experiences living in the English-speaking countries or using English in the UK academia, so that they might be more confident with their language proficiency. Notably, the reason for adopting Rea & Parker's scale is that firstly, they provide an up-to-date scale in the most recent edition of their book, and secondly, the book aims to provide guidance for researchers in the field of social science studies, which is relevant to the current study.

Self-assessed English language proficiency is also related to academics' working years. A general trend can be seen in Table 5.4 that as the working years increase, the median scores of self-assessed language proficiency increase except for the last group (>20 years). Although academics who have been working over 20 years rated a bit lower than those who have been working between 11-20 years, from a general perspective, academic with more working experience are more likely to consider themselves as more proficient in the English language. The Pearson chi-square indicates that there was a significant association (at the 99% confidence level) between working years and self-assessed scores ($\chi^2(16, n = 134) = 35.521, p = .003$), with a moderate association (Cramér's $V = .257$) according to Rea & Parker's (2014). Again, academics with more working experiences may have more experiences using English and correspondingly, they might consider their language proficiency better comparing with academic with relatively less working experience.

Academics who teach in the UK HEIs (Mdn=20.5) rate their language proficiency much higher than those in research roles (Mdn=16.5). Academics who teach in HEIs consider their English language proficiency good while academics in research roles consider their language proficiency just fair. The Pearson chi-square test confirms a statistically highly significant association between positions in teaching and research roles ($\chi^2(4, n = 134) = 24.501, p < .001$) (at the 99.9% level of confidence) on the overall self-assessed language proficiency scores with a relatively strong association (Cramér's $V = .428$) according to Rea & Parker (2014). Their positions also have the strongest association with their self-assessed language proficiency scores among the stated background information factors. This indicates that academics in teaching roles are more confident in terms of their language proficiency comparing with the research group. It might be because that teaching roles engage in more skills than research roles.

In terms of differences in subjects, academics in natural science (Mdn=18) rated just a bit higher than those working in social science (Mdn=17) on their language proficiency. However, the Pearson chi-square test shows a significant moderate association between subject and self-assessed scores ($\chi^2(4, n = 134) = 13.728, p = .008, \text{Cramér's } V = .320$) (Rea & Parker, 2014). This result may be interpreted as that academics in social science are relatively stricter to their English language than their natural science counterparts. Therefore, academics in social science may have a higher standard in assessing their language proficiency than academics in natural science.

Table 5 4 Medians, chi-square and Cramér's V of self-assessed scores on all six skills divided by groups

		Median	χ^2	Df	Sig.	Cramér's V
Gender	Female	17.0	3.104	4	.541	.152
	Male	18.0				
Age	<30	16.0				

	31-40	18.0	19.158	12	.039	.218
	41-50	19.5				
	>50	20.0				
Working years	<1 year	16.0				
	1-5 years	16.0				
	6-10 years	18.0	35.521	16	.003	.257
	11-20 years	20.5				
	>20 years	19.0				
Position	Teaching focused	20.5				
			24.501	4	.000	.428
	Research focused	16.5				
Subject	Natural science	18	13.728	4	.008	.320
	Social science	17				

Note. The sums of the overall self-assessed proficiency score are ordinal variables instead of continuous variables as they were scores added up by previously mentioned six skills (see Table 5.2) and regrouped into a new scale (see Table 5.3).

5.2.2 Descriptive analysis of attitudes

As mentioned previously, questionnaire items with regard to language attitudes towards English language norms are designed from various aspects according to Cargile et al.'s model (1994) and the reviewed literature to explore the outstanding factors underlying their attitudes. Before identifying factors that influence language attitude by EFA, it is also necessary to discuss what their language attitudes are. This section answers the first research question by analysing respondents' language attitudes from different aspects. As discussed in Chapter 3, it is easier to identify the general attitude tendency of respondents by looking at the percentage of agreement and disagreement. Therefore, although 7-point Likert scale (strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, agree, strongly agree) was applied in the questionnaire for EFA, this section will firstly give a general look into Chinese academics' attitudes towards English language norms by dividing

the results of 7-point Likert scale into three groups which are agree, neither agree nor disagree and disagree in order to present a more direct illustration of a general pattern of respondents' language attitudes.

As discussed previously in Chapter 4, positive statements were written in relation to both native and non-native speakers to avoid bias. Among these questions, question 1, 2 and 5 were designed as positive statements to international speakers while the others are positive statements to native speakers. Therefore, answers to these three questions were reversed. Similarly, answers to question 11, 17, 29, 30, 31 were also reversed in later sections. That is, the higher the value is, the more native-bound attitude it represents and vice versa. In addition, as discussed in Chapter 4, the order of the items was presented randomly in the main questionnaire. In order to have a direct view of each factor with its corresponding items, the original order of items is presented in this section.

Question 1-8 examines academics' attitudes according to native and non-native divide. According to Table 5.5, nearly all questions except for question 6 indicate a positive attitude to NE and NESs. It is interesting to notice that these academics' self-assessed proficiency scores of speaking and pronunciation are relatively low, as discussed previously (see Section 5.2.1, Table 5.2). Taking this into consideration, it seems that they use NE as a standard to evaluate language speakers and themselves. The majority of Chinese academics, as international speakers, consider their English as incorrect and easy to make more mistakes than NESs (see question 4 and 8). This could be one of the reasons why they rate relatively low in their speaking and pronunciation proficiency as they consider their speaking and pronunciation are not native-like enough to meet the standard. Notably, question 6 (language acquisition) (Mdn=4) indicates that academics in the current research are not sure about whether international speakers' English is improperly learned. In other words, a complex

attitude can be identified that they somehow admit the rights of NNEs being legitimate English speaker while still consider NESs' English sounds more pleasant, understandable, natural and correct. This issue will be further explored in the next chapter.

Table 5.5 Results of statements relating to native & non-native divide (Rounded row percentages and henceforth)

Questions	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Median
	%	%	%	
1. International speakers' English sound more pleasant than native speakers' English. (Answer reversed)	65.2%	21.5%	13.3%	5
2. International speakers' English is more understandable. (Answer reversed)	54.1%	19.3%	26.7%	5
3. International speakers experience more difficulties in expressing themselves accurately (e.g., grammar, sentence structure) than native speakers unavoidably during communication.	78.5%	9.6%	11.9%	6
4. Generally speaking, international speakers make more language mistakes than native speakers do.	78.5%	11.9%	8.9%	6
5. International speakers' English sounds natural. (Answer reversed)	60.7%	19.3%	20.0%	5
6. International speakers' English is incomplete.	34.1%	31.1%	34.8%	4
7. Native speakers' English sound more familiar than international speakers	64.4%	17.8%	17.8%	5
8. Native speakers' English sounds more correct.	77.8%	15.6%	6.7%	5

Note. 1. N=134, and henceforth. 2. The Median is Based on the 7-point Likert scale and henceforth.

Question 9-12 in Table 5.6 show a strong native-bound attitude relating to academic goals. Their academic careers are perceived to be highly influenced by their ‘nativeness’ and language ability. Considering their self-assessed language proficiency again, it seems that they generally feel their English language is sufficient for academic activities. However, they still want to improve their English to be native-like ideally. This also implies that they apply NE as the standard to rate their language proficiency as they seem to equal native English as good English. This might be due to academics’ native-bound attitude that they perceive being native-like will be beneficial for their academic goal and career. Again, follow-up interviews will discuss more detailed information and depth exploration for this issue.

Table 5 6 Results of statements relating to academic goals

Questions	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Median
	%	%	%	
9. I want to improve my English language ability in order to achieve a better academic progress.	76.3%	15.6%	8.1%	6
10 If I use English as native speakers do, I feel more motivated to work.	59.3%	20.0%	20.7%	5
11 I don’t need to speak English as native speakers do as I will have equal opportunities of getting a proper job. (Answer reversed)	70.4%	12.6%	17.0%	6
12 If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in achieving my academic goal.	74.8%	9.6%	15.6%	6

Question 13-18 are designed to investigate academics’ language attitude in terms of their feelings and working experiences in academic settings. The results in Table 5.7

also indicate a positive attitude to native English norms. It is clear to identify that the majority of the respondents attached great value to the correctness and accuracy of their English and deemed NESs as the authority of English where they can seek for help. Otherwise, they would feel embarrassed and less confident. They seem to marginalise themselves in terms of English language and have a sense of inferiority comparing with NESs when working in the ED country (i.e., UK) because of their native-bound language attitude.

Table 5 7 Results of statements relating to the context and experiences of language use in academic settings

Questions	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Median
	%	%	%	
13 If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in making good relationship with my colleagues.	69.6%	11.1%	19.3%	5
14 I feel embarrassed if I pause a lot to search for the right word while talking with others.	56.3%	18.5%	25.2%	5
15 I consult my native speaker colleagues for right expressions in English.	70.4%	17.0%	12.6%	5
16 I feel less confident about my English when I communicate with native speakers than international speakers	45.9%	20.7%	33.3%	4
17 I do not deliberately make sure that I am grammatically accurate during my work. (Answer reversed)	70.4%	15.6%	14.1%	5
18 Standard English increases the degree of comprehensibility during my work.	77.8%	18.5%	3.7%	5.5

Question 19-22 examines the level of agreement with statements relating to the perceived language expertise. A strongly positive attitude to native English norms can be identified. Considering the previous results of their self-assessed English language

proficiency, an interesting point could be found that although the majority of them are satisfied with their language proficiency, they still want to be native-like. It seems they regard NESs as better English speakers and being native-like means having better English language proficiency.

Table 5 8 Results of statements relating to the perceived language expertise

Questions	Neither			median
	Agree	agree nor disagree	disagree	
	%	%	%	
19. It is common that my English proficiency is not good as those Native speakers.	77.0%	13.3%	9.6%	5
20. If I use English as native speakers do, I can express my ideas more clearly.	83.0%	9.6%	7.4%	6
21. It would be good if I can be more native-like in speaking.	80.7%	14.8%	4.4%	6
22. It would be good if I can be more native-like in writing.	91.9%	5.2%	3.0%	6

Question 23-26 investigate academics attitudes towards statements relating to language learning and a strong native-bound attitude can also be identified. As discussed in 4.5.4.1, their perceived language learning may reflect their own educational background or their ideal language education. SE seems to be their only choice of English language learning. Notably, question 26 (culture) (M=6) shows that 77.8% do not think native speakers should learn more about international cultures to enhance mutual communication. In other words, it seems academics in the current research think it is international speakers' responsibility to learn native culture to enhance mutual communication. Again, self-marginalisation can somehow be identified.

Table 5 9 Results of statements relating to language learning

Questions	Agree %	Neither agree nor disagree %	Disagree %	Median
23. Standard English should be taught in primary school to provide students with a good language foundation.	84.4%	12.6%	3.0%	6
24. It would be good that student learn standard English rather than other varieties of English.	80.0%	12.6%	7.4%	6
25. Standard English should be taught at school for the benefit of students' future career development.	84.4%	9.6%	5.9%	6
26. Native speakers should learn more about the international cultures to enhance mutual communication. (Answer reversed)	77.8%	14.1%	8.1%	6

Question 27-31 deals with academics' attitudes towards statements relating to HE policies. A relatively positive attitude towards Native English language norms can be identified in Table 5.10. It is necessary to notice that many of them do not think or not sure about whether language standard is that important to maintain the reputation of the university and the high standard of the programme. Interestingly, concerning language norms relating to HE educational policies, these respondents did not show a very strong positive attitude to native norms comparing with previous questions. It may be due to their awareness of the internationalisation of HE which brings about the diversity of student and academic cohorts. It may also relate to their own experiences of the various use of English in academic settings. It seems that they are more open to non-native English language norms from a general perspective in terms of institutional policy. Nevertheless, these academics seem to still follow the language regulations and standards themselves from an individual perspective.

Table 5 10 Results of statements relating to Higher Education policies

Questions	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Median
	%	%	%	
27. Universities should encourage and help international academics to improve their English language ability.	83.0%	11.1%	5.9%	6
28. It is reasonable to have a language requirement for international academics.	85.2%	8.9%	5.9%	6
29. Language standard is not so important to maintain the reputation of the university. (Answer reversed)	43.7%	25.2%	31.1%	4
30. Language standard is not so important to maintain the high standard of the programme. (Answer reversed)	53.3%	19.3%	27.4%	5
31. We can change the English language according to our own desire. (Answer reversed)	44.4%	28.9%	26.7%	4

Question 32-26 includes statements relating to language prestige. They show a contradictory attitude towards the English language in terms of language prestige. In Table 5.11, 63.0% disagree that international speakers' English is the corrupt form of English (M=3). This is in accordance with question 6 and question 31. That is to say, although academic consider native English language norm as more correct and better, they think international speakers do not need to follow the rules strictly with NESs (although they may still want to be native-like as to themselves, see question 9-12). This issue will be further addressed in the follow-up interviews findings. Moreover, they are not sure if they would be considered more intelligent if they use English as native speakers do. On the other hand, most of them considered that they would be regarded as more confident, sophisticated and educated if they can be more native-like. This contradictory result shows that they might have a different attitude (more positive)

to international speakers comparing with themselves as they rated positively to international speakers English while reacted relatively negative to their own English.

Table 5 11 Results of statements relating to language prestige

Questions	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Median
	%	%	%	
32. International speakers' English is the corrupt form of English.	15.6%	21.5%	63.0%	3
If I use English as native speakers do...				
33. I am perceived as more intelligent.	37.8%	25.9%	36.3%	4
34. I am perceived as more confident	68.9%	8.9%	22.2%	5
35. I am perceived as more sophisticated.	54.8%	19.3%	25.9%	5
36. I am perceived as more educated.	49.6%	20.0%	30.4%	4.5

To conclude, Chinese academics in the UK HEIs generally have a positive attitude towards native English language norms. However, the data also reveal their contradictory and complex language attitudes at times which needs further explorations.

5.3 Exploratory factor analysis

This section answers the second research question and reports the finding of EFA which reduces the dimensions of previously discussed 36 questions to identify the salient underlying factors. Specifically, Section 5.3.1 reports the reliability and suitability for running EFA and factors which are extracted from the 36 questionnaire

items. As stated before, only 134 responses were valid as the data were screened and 9 unusable data were deleted. The result shows that the data is reliable and suitable for EFA. Six factors were extracted and relabelled in Section 5.3.2.

5.3.1 Reliability and suitability check

In order to check the consistency among items of the questionnaire, the Cronbach's Alpha was run by SPSS initially. The Cronbach's Alpha formula is one of the most common measures used to test the internal consistency of various items. The value of Cronbach's alpha is 0.905 (N=36) which indicates that items of the questionnaire have a very high consistency (Blunch, 2008). The Cronbach's alpha for each factor is .893, .895, .878, .772, .722, and .714 respectively. Table 5.12 shows that the components have the discriminant validity. To be specific, the correlations among these factors in Table 5.13 are all below .7 which indicates that these factors are distinct and not highly related with each other according to Gaskin (2012).

Table 5 12 Factor correlations

Correlation	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1.000					
2	.581**	1.000				
3	.467**	.281**	1.000			
4	.268**	.095*	.184*	1.000		
5	.038*	-.049*	.110*	.318**	1.000	
6	.443**	.214*	.253**	.229**	.056*	1.000

Note. **p<0.01, *p<0.05

Prior to running factor analysis, several tests were run to prove that the data is suitable for factor analysis. Specifically, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were carried out as these tests are considered as the most important means suggested by many scholars (e.g., Pallant,

2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014; Walker & Maddan, 2013; Yong & Pearce, 2013). As shown in Table 5.13, the value of KMO measure of sampling adequacy is .813. This exceeds .60 of which the level is regarded as the minimum required level (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ($p < 0.001$). These tests show that the current data is suitable for factor analytic procedure. In addition, the communalities of all variables are above .5 which further indicates that there are shared common variance among items. Therefore, considering all previous indicators, factor analysis is suitable for the data.

Table 5 13 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of Sphericity

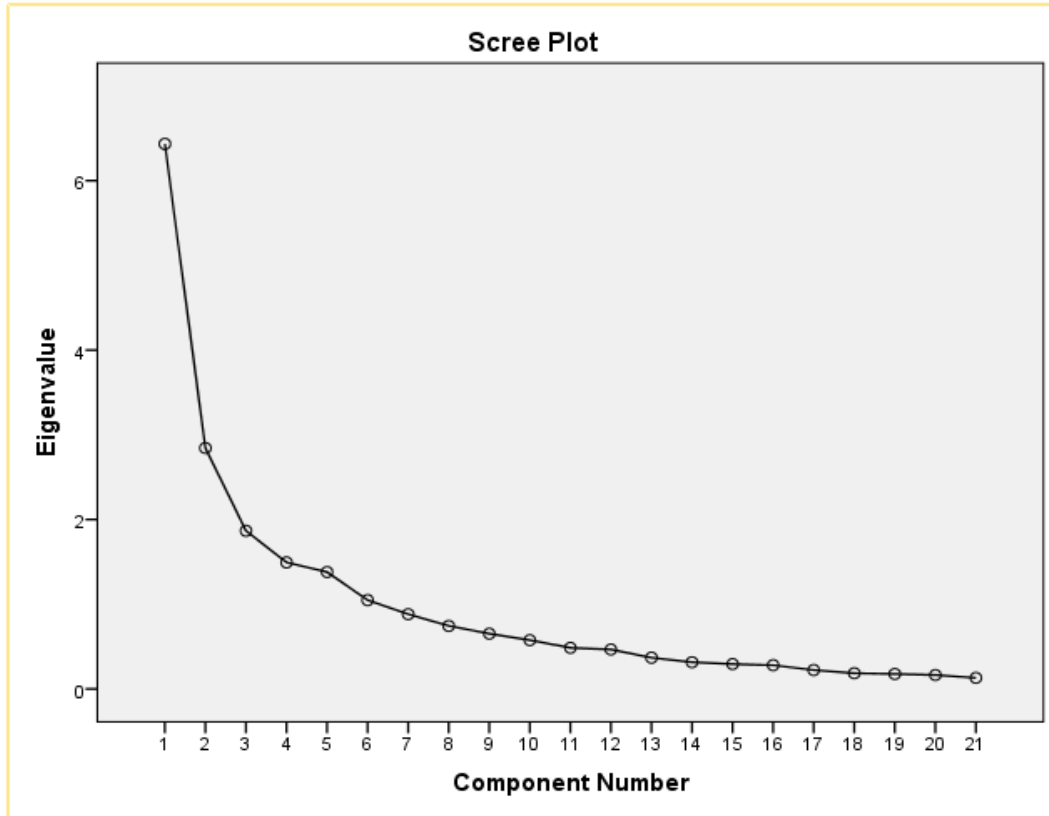
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.813
	Approx. Chi-Square	1479.610
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	190
	Sig.	.000

5.3.2 Factor extraction and item selection

Since the data is suitable for factor analysis, several Principal Component Analysis (PCA) followed by Varimax rotation were run. Two criteria are followed which are commonly chosen to determine the numbers of factors. First, Kaiser's criterion, also called latent root criterion (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 2006) is most commonly used that factors of which the eigenvalues are greater than 1 (latent roots are greater than 1) are considered as significant. The other factors which have eigenvalues less than 1 (latent roots are less than 1) are insignificant and are disregarded (Hair et al., 2006). Second, the scree test can also provide the graph that researchers can observe the 'natural bend or break point in the data where the curve flattens out' (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p. 3). Costello & Osborne (2005) further suggests that the number of items above the 'break' (the point where the break occurs is not included) is the number of factors which are usually retained. Combining these two rules, Figure 5.1

illustrates that the curve starts to become flat at the 7th point (which is excluded) and 6 factors were identified of which the eigenvalues were above 1. Therefore, 6 factors are retained.

Figure 5 1 Scree plot of the factors



According to Table 5.14, these 6 factors account for 71.7% of the total variance with each individual factor occupies 16.7%, 15.0%, 12.0%, 10.2%, 10.1% and 7.8% respectively.

Table 5 14 Eigen values and total variance explained by each component

Component	Initial eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Rotation Sums of Squared		
				Loadings			Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.43	30.64	30.64	6.43	30.63	30.64	3.50	16.68	16.68

2	2.84	13.54	44.18	2.84	13.54	44.18	3.15	15.02	31.70
3	1.87	8.89	53.07	1.87	8.89	53.07	2.52	12.00	43.70
4	1.49	7.11	60.18	1.49	7.11	60.18	2.13	10.17	53.87
5	1.38	6.57	66.75	1.38	6.57	66.75	2.12	10.10	63.97
6	1.05	4.99	71.74	1.05	4.99	71.74	1.63	7.77	71.74

A total of 15 items were deleted due to their low factor loading and cross loading and 21 items were retained. As the current study does not have a large sample size, factor loadings which indicate the relationship of each variable to the underlying factors are thus evaluated strictly. According to the guidelines provided by Hair et al. (2006), the sample size of 120 requires factor loading above .50 which is considered practically significant. Moreover, cross loading may indicate that the item was poorly written, or the priori factor structure could be flawed (Costello & Osborne, 2005), thereby needing to be deleted. In this sense, a final 21 items were kept for rotation. Varimax rotation was then conducted to enhance the interpretability of the retained factors (Kline, 2013). Tabachnick & Fidell (2014) suggest that a factor should at least have three variables to ensure the accuracy of the results. As shown in Table 5.15, 6 factors each containing at least three variables were extracted and the factor loading of each item was presented under each component after rotation. It is clear to see that factor one contains 5 items, factor two has 4 items and the rest four factors (factor 3, 4, 5 & 6) have three items each. Factor loadings for these items were all in the good to excellent range which indicates that these items have a strong or relatively strong association for one of the 6 factors.

Table 5 15 Factor loadings and related items

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Goal 2 (motivation to work)	.808					
Goal 3 (job opportunity)	.757					
Experience 1 (colleague relationship)	.750					
Goal 4 (goal achievement)	.715					
Goal 1 (academic progress)	.713					
Prestige 3 (intelligent)		.881				
Prestige 1 (confident)		.841				
Prestige 2 (sophisticated)		.810				
Prestige 4 (educated)		.745				
Learning 3 (future career)			.886			
Learning 1 (language foundation)			.857			
Learning 2 (standard language learning)			.832			
Policy 4 (maintain standard)				.907		
Policy 3 (maintain reputation)				.877		
Policy 5 (language change)				.577		
Divide 1 (pleasance)					.863	
Divide 2 (understanding)					.775	
Divide 5 (naturalness)					.676	
Experience 3 (right expression)						.738
Experience 5 (grammar accuracy)						.615
Divide 3 (communicational difficulties)						.594

As previously noted, although the researcher had certain hypothesis and expectations based on existing literature when designing questionnaire items (see 4.5.4.1), the statistical analysis was not affected by these expectations. For the current study, the results of EFA shows that questionnaire items were not grouped into the same categories as originally designed. Therefore, these items were relabelled according to the characteristics and commonalities of their corresponding items. Table 5.16 indicates the relabelled 6 factors:

1. Instrumental professional goal: factor 1 contains items relating to the degree of utility of the 'native English', or the instrumental goals of academics for potentially strengthening their academic, or professional performance in HEIs;
2. Subjective perceptions of language ability: items in factor 2 were originally designed to measure the language prestige (see 4.5.4.1, see also Khatib, & Rahimi, 2015). After re-examining the items, these items were identified to be also related to academics' beliefs about their linguistic self-image. Considering the term language prestige is rather general, factor 2 were therefore relabelled into a more specific and informative name, which is subjective perceptions of language ability.
3. Standard language learning in school: factor 3 includes items concerning academics' attitudes towards standard language learning in students' early language education. Notably, these items may also reflect these academics' own educational background to some extent. However, it is difficult to examine how their educational background may influence their rated attitude according to these items. The follow-up interview will further investigate this issue in depth.
4. Standard English and institutional reputation: items in factor 4 were originally designed under language policy (see 4.5.4.1 and Appendix 1). Similar to factor 2, the name language policy seems to be too general to manifest the common features of these items, namely standard English and the fame at the university level. Considering these two characteristics among items, factor 4 was therefore relabelled as Standard English and institutional reputation.
5. Preference for international English(es): factor 5 was relabelled in a similar way since the items reflect more on academics' affective preferences for international speakers' English(es) rather than its original label 'perceived native and non-native divide' which put focuses on differences between NSs and NNSs.

6. Importance of language accuracy: items in factor 6 deals with academics' perceived importance of language accuracy in terms of their behavioural intentions to keep their English language accurately expressed in any circumstances.

Table 5 16 Relabelled factor

Factors	Questionnaire items	Relabelled factor name
Factor 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If I use English as native speakers do, I feel more motivated to work. • I don't need to speak English as native speakers do as I will have equal opportunities of getting a proper job. • If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in making good relationship with my colleagues. • If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in achieving my academic goal. • I want to improve my English language ability in order to achieve a better academic progress. 	Instrumental professional goal
Factor 2	<p>If I use English as native speakers do...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I am perceived as more intelligent. • I am perceived as more confident. • I am perceived as more sophisticated. • I am perceived as more educated. 	Subjective perceptions of language ability
Factor 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Standard English should be taught at school for the benefit of students' future career development. • Standard English should be taught in primary school to provide students with a good language foundation • It would be good that student learn standard English rather than other varieties of English 	Standard language learning in school

Factor 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language standard is not so important to maintain the high standard of the programme. • Language standard is not so important to maintain the reputation of the university. • We can change the English language according to our own desire. 	Standard English and institutional reputation
Factor 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International speakers' English sound more pleasant than native speakers' English. • International speakers' English is more understandable. • International speakers' English sounds natural. 	Preference for international English(es)
Factor 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I consult my native speaker colleagues for right expressions in English. • I deliberately make sure that I am grammatically accurate during my work. • International speakers experience more difficulties in expressing themselves accurately (e.g., grammar, sentence structure) than native speakers unavoidably during communication. 	Importance of language accuracy

Therefore, a 6-factor model underlying Chinese academics language attitude could be generated from the results including *Instrumental professional goal*, *Subjective perceptions of language ability*, *Standard language learning in school*, *Standard English and institutional reputation*, *Preference for international English(es)* and *Importance of language accuracy*.

5.4 Statistical analysis of the factor scores

Further to Section 5.3, although 6 salient factors were found that influenced respondents' language attitudes, it is difficult to tell respondents' stances on each factor. Since factor scores indicates individual's placement, or ranking on factor(s) (DiStefano, Zhu & Mindrila, 2009), this section therefore adopts K-mean cluster to firstly group the 134 respondents according to their factor scores into different clusters, and to identify the difference among groups.

5.4.1 K-means cluster

The regression method estimating factor score coefficients was run during the conduction of EFA. The scores of my 134 respondents on six factors, which are numerical values, were calculated and saved as variables. Cluster analysis was then conducted based on the factor scores in order to see the patterns and correlations of these scores. K-means clustering was conducted to find K non-overlapping clusters. Since K is normally specified by the users which represents the desired number of clusters) (Wu, 2012), K was specified from 2 to 6 to run several analyses in order to achieve best results. The final K=5 clusters and their centroids were determined according to the analysis of variance (ANOVA) results and the significance ($p < 0.01$) (see table 5.17). The original factor scores include both negative and positive results (see table 5.17). As shown in table 5.17, the negative results indicate that the person who rated lower importance than the average and vice versa.

Table 5 17 Final cluster centres (original factor scores)

Factors	Final cluster centres					Sig.
	1	2	3	4	5	
Instrumental professional goal	-.98527	.25949	-.65550	.37211	.83195	.000
Subjective perceptions of language ability	-.63382	.56844	-.32110	-.96180	.09041	.000
Standard language learning in school	-.49585	-.02162	.46753	-1.82746	.37748	.000
Standard English and institutional reputation	-.64309	.52505	-.30019	-.03113	-.35379	.000
Preference for international English(es)	-.72656	-.41405	-.03130	-.07363	1.33674	.000
Importance of language accuracy	-1.71916	-.21605	.49818	.89526	-.22244	.000

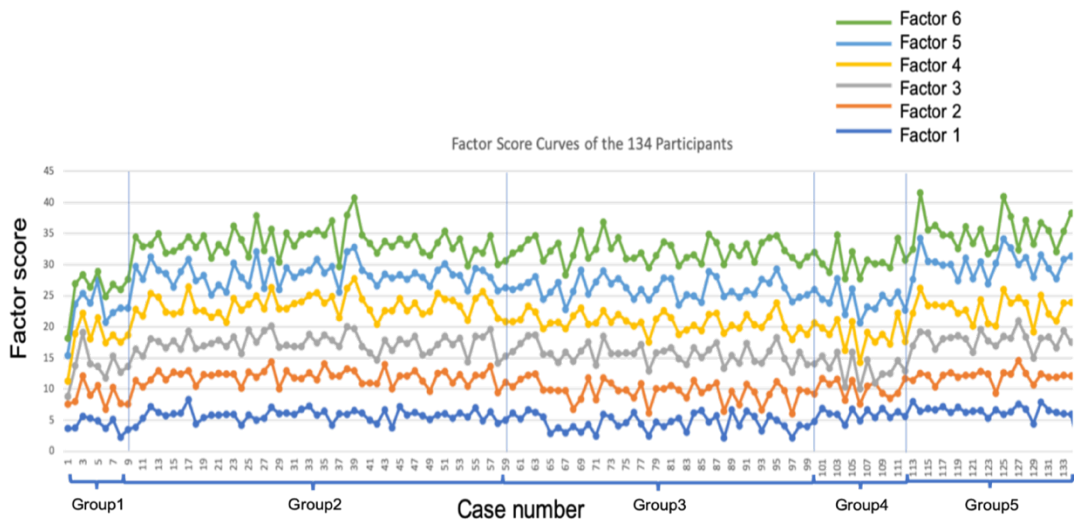
In order to make the factor scores clearer to compare, normalisation of factor scores of each respondent was conducted to transfer all scores into positive numbers. The equation for the normalisation is:

$$F_N = \frac{F - F_{min}}{F_{max} - F_{min}} * 10 \quad (1)$$

As shown in Equation 1, F_N represents the normalised value. F means the original value. F_{min} and F_{max} indicate the maximum and minimum value of the factor scores. Multiplying by 10 makes the final factor scores be normalised in the interval of [0,10]. In this sense, all factor scores were transferred into a value between 0 and 10 which is easier and more direct to observe. The higher the value is, the more important the factor may have to the respondent.

Figure 5.2 was generated which indicates each respondent's factor scores in different groups. As shown in the graph, six lines with different colour illustrate six factor scores of each respondent. According to the cluster generated by K-mean clustering analysis, there are 5 groups of respondents. Since K-mean clustering analysis generates only the Euclid geometric centre of each cluster, it might be more straightforward to use the arithmetic mean value to describe the statistical characteristics of each cluster. Therefore, the arithmetic mean value of each group was also calculated (see Table 5.18).

Figure 5 2 Factor score curves



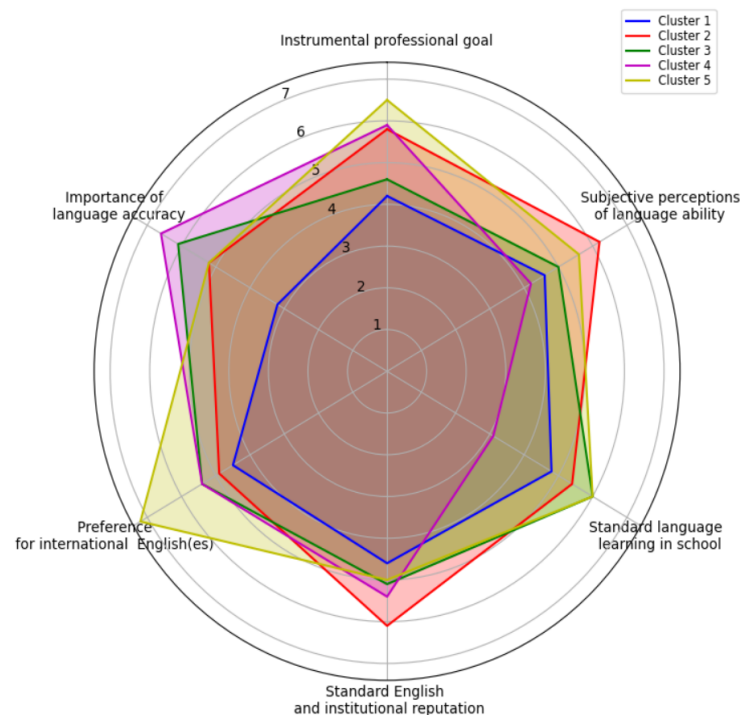
As shown in Table 5.18, by conducting K-mean cluster analysis again, the final normalised weighted average factor scores for each cluster were presented. Table 5.18 shows that there are respectively 6.7%, 37.3%, 30.6%, 9.0% and 16% of respondents in Cluster 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. By combing Figure 5.2 with Table 5.18, the feature of each cluster can be generally identified in terms of their factor scores. Accordingly, Cluster 1 has the lowest Weighted Factor Score (WFS) (WFS=4.35) while Cluster 5 has the highest factor score (WFS=6.07). Cluster 2 has a relatively high factor score (WFS=5.71) while Cluster 3 (WFS=5.08) and Cluster 4 (WFS=5.19) have relatively low factor scores. It can be generally interpreted as that academic in Cluster 5 are influenced most by the above-mentioned six factors. These factors also have a relatively high influence on academics in Cluster 2. On the other hand, academics in Cluster 1 are least influenced by these factors. And these factors have a relatively low influence on academics in Cluster 3 and 4.

Table 5 18 Normalised weighted average factor scores of each cluster

	Final cluster centres				
	1	2	3	4	5
Weighted average score	4.35	5.71	5.08	5.19	6.07
Number of cases	9	50	41	12	22
Percentage	6.7%	37.3%	30.6%	9.0%	16.4%

Specifically, the Mean Factor Score (MFS) for each factor in each cluster is presented in Figure 5.3. According to Figure 5.3, *Instrumental professional goal* has a great influence on Cluster 5 (MFS=6.5) but has the least influence on Cluster 1 (MFS=4.2); *Subjective perceptions of language ability* influences Cluster 2 (MFS=6.2) to a great extent while it has a relatively small influence on Cluster 4 (MFS=4.2); *Standard language learning in school* has a great influence on Cluster 3 and 5 (MFS=6.0) while it has little impact on Cluster 4 (MFS=3.1); *Standard English and institutional reputation* influences Cluster 2 (MFS=6.1) to a great extent while it only has little influence on Cluster 1 (MFS=4.5); Cluster 5 is greatly influenced by the *Preference for international English(es)* (MFS=7.2) while Cluster 1 is the least influenced group (MFS=4.5); and *Importance of language accuracy* influences Cluster 4 (MFS=6.6) a lot while it has only little influence on Cluster 1 (MFS=3.2).

Figure 5.3 Mean factor scores of each cluster



In terms of characteristics of each cluster, Table 5.19 presents the number of respondents, normalised weighted factor scores and means of six factors for each cluster. According to specific factor scores, Cluster 1 could be renamed into the ‘*Balanced attitude*’ group. As shown in Table 5.19, this group’s language attitudes are greatly influenced by the *Standard language learning in school* (MFS=4.7) compared with other factors. On the other hand, academics in this group is not influenced much in terms of the *Importance of language accuracy* (MFS=3.2). That is, academics in the current group seem to have a relatively neutral and balanced attitude in that they care about the language standard in terms of language learning while they are relatively more open and flexible to the diversity of English language use in academic settings practically. Notably, as illustrated previously, according to Figure 5.3, despite the least number of respondents (N=9), this cluster is least influenced by the six factors which indicate a relatively relaxed state of academics in this cluster.

Cluster 2, which is the most populated cluster, can be renamed into the ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ group. Specifically, this group is greatly influenced by *Subjective perceptions of language ability* (MFS=6.2) and *Standard English and institutional reputation* (MFS=6.1) but least influenced by the *Preference for international English(es)*. This result reveals two features of academics in this cluster. First, the highest score in *Subjective perceptions of language ability* and the lowest score in *Preference for international English(es)* indicates a focus on academics themselves instead of other international academics. Second, the relatively high score in *Standard English and institutional reputation* and relatively low score in *Importance of language accuracy* shows their focus on the ideological level instead of practice level of language.

Cluster 3, as the second populated group, can be renamed into the ‘*Conventionally oriented*’ group. As shown in Table 5.19, *Importance of language accuracy* (MFS=6.1)

and *Standard language learning in school* (MFS=6.0) is the most influential factors while *instrumental professional goal* (MFS=4.6) is the least influential factor. That is, academics in the ‘*Conventionally oriented*’ group are in a rather conventional stance who care much about the language standard and accuracy no matter whether complying with strict language rules may possibly influence their academic progress as they seem to care less about the *Instrumental professional goals*.

Cluster 4 seems to be the opposite with the ‘*Balanced attitude*’ group as the highest score whereas the lowest score in Cluster 4 is *Importance of language accuracy* (MFS=6.6) and *Standard language learning in school* (MFS=3.1) respectively. This cluster can be renamed into the ‘*Instrumental and ambition focused*’ group. Different from academics in the ‘*Balanced attitude*’ group who have a relatively balanced attitude, academics in the ‘*Instrumental and ambition focused*’ group seem to have a fluctuating attitude in that they care much about the *Importance of language accuracy* while at the same time care less about *Standard language learning in school*. Considering the relatively high score in *Instrumental professional goal* (MFS=5.9), it could be interpreted that language attitudes of academics in this cluster seem to be instrumental which is closely related to their career development and working environment.

Considering the highest factor score of *Preference for international English(es)* (MFS=7.2) and the relatively high score of *Instrumental professional goal* (MFS=6.5) as well as two lowest factor scores in *Standard English and institutional reputation* (MFS=5.0) and *Importance of language accuracy* (MFS=5.2), Cluster 5 can be renamed into the ‘*Speaker focused and stressed*’ group. On the one hand, academics in this cluster are not influenced much by the language standard/rules as well as the institutional reputations. On the other hand, academics are greatly influenced by their perceptions of other speakers’ English as well as their own goals. They also put

emphasis on their academic goals. Notably, this cluster has the highest overall factor score which indicate a great overall influence of six factors on academics. In other words, different from academics in the '*Balanced attitude*' group who are relatively relaxed, academics in this cluster seem to be rather stressed according to the overall high factor scores.

Table 5 19 Names and mean factor scores of each cluster

Cluster numbers	Cluster names	Number of respondents	Weighted factor score	Instrumental professional goal	Subjective perceptions of language ability	Standard language learning in school	Standard English and institutional reputation	Preference for international English(es)	Importance of Language accuracy
Cluster 1	Balanced attitude	9	4.35	4.2	4.6	4.8	4.6	4.5	3.2
Cluster 2	Status and self-image focused	50	5.71	5.8	6.2	5.4	6.1	4.9	5.2
Cluster 3	Conventionally oriented	41	5.08	4.6	5.0	6.0	5.1	5.4	6.1
Cluster 4	Instrumental and ambition focused	12	5.19	5.9	4.2	3.1	5.4	5.4	6.6
Cluster 5	Speaker focused and stressed	22	6.07	6.5	5.6	6.0	5.0	7.2	5.2

5.4.2 Cluster membership in relation to demographic information

Table 5.20 presents all relative information of academics in each cluster including their language attitude scores, their self-assessed language proficiency scores and their demographic information including age, working years, positions and subjects. According to Table 5.20 below, academics in '*Balanced attitude*' group have the highest average age among the 5 clusters (M=37, SD=11.03) and relatively high average working years (M=9.2, SD=8.26). Accordingly, their self-assessed language proficiency score is relatively high (M=19.4, SD=6.25) which indicates their confidence in their language ability. This may explain these academics' relaxed state since language and academic career development might no longer be a prior issue to consider for them. Moreover, their average sum of attitude score is 144 (SD=31.76), which is the lowest among 5 clusters. As noted in 5.2.2, a higher score indicates a more native-bound attitude towards English and a lower score shows a relatively positive attitude towards various English language use. This is in accordance with the features of this cluster discussed previously since academics in this cluster seem to be more open and flexible to various use of English, and therefore they tend to have a neutral and balanced language attitude.

The '*Status and self-image focused*' group, as discussed above, is the most populated group. Their average sum of language attitude score is one of the highest (M=184, SD=21.76) which indicate a relatively strong native-bound language attitude. Their average self-rated language proficiency score is the lowest (M=16.2, SD=4.50). It seems that they are very likely to use whether their English is native-like as the standard to assess their English language. This might be due to the lack of working experience (M=7.1, SD=7.49). This group has a modest average age (M=35.2 SD=7.66) among five groups. It can be interpreted that academics in this group are not the youngest, but the most unconfident group. this may result in that they put more emphasis on both institutions and their own status as well as their self-images

ideologically. Among those in research positions who have little teaching experience, almost half of them belonged to this group (45.7%). This may indicate that academics in the research-focused role focus less on language practice and communication compared with their teaching-focused counterparts since they may have fewer communication opportunities compared with those who have a teaching-focused role. This may also explain their native-bound attitude and a lack of confidence in their own language ability to some extent. In general, academics in this cluster are in their early stage of academic career. Accordingly, as a matter of course, they are likely to focus on the prestige or reputation of themselves as well as the institutions from an ideological perspective.

The '*Conventionally oriented*' group, as the second populated group, has the highest average self-assessed score ($M=19.8$, $SD=3.20$) which indicates the confidence of academics in this cluster. Similar to the '*Balanced attitude*' group, apart from its highest self-assessed language score, this group is also older than other groups ($M=36.9$, $SD=8.07$) with the longest working years ($M=10.4$, $SD=7.66$). It seems that *Instrumental professional goal* is not that important to consider for academics with older ages and longer working experience as discussed in the previous section. What is different from the '*Balanced attitude*' group is that academics in this cluster are more conventional with more native bound language attitude ($M=171$, $SD=22.63$). Notably, contrast to the '*Status and self-image focused*' group, 43.4% of academics with teaching-focused role are in this cluster. Their conventional native-bound language attitude may result in their focus on the standardness both in language learning and using process.

Academics' attitude in the '*Instrumental and ambition focused*' group, as discussed earlier, seems to be instrumental which is closely related to their career development and working environment. This is in accordance with their relatively low attitude score

towards language norms (M=161, SD=23.90) and a moderate self-assessed score (M=17.4, SD=4.83), which indicates a positive attitude towards various speakers' use of English while not satisfying with their own English. This also explains why academics in this cluster focus much on the *Importance of language accuracy* as discussed previously. Unlike academics in '*Balanced attitude*' group who are the oldest in age and have relatively long working years, academics in this cluster is the youngest group (M=33.1, SD=6) with moderate working experience (M=8.3, SD=8.02). Similar to the '*Status and self-image focused*' group, it is reasonable for academics in younger ages to value more about their own academic performances and experiences which are directly linked to their *Instrumental Professional goals* instead of the language learning standards and process of others (i.e., students). Moreover, Unlike the '*Balanced attitude*' group which has more academics in social science, this cluster has the least percentage of academics in social science (6.1%). It might be interpreted as that academic in social science may focus less on practical language use than researching language itself and language learning. Notably, the current cluster has a bit older average age and longer average working years compared with the '*Status and self-image focused*' group. This might be the reason why academics in the current cluster have a relatively higher self-assessed score.

Similar demographic information can be found between '*Speaker focused and stressed*' group and '*Status and self-image focused*' group as both groups are high in attitude score (M=185, SD=18.71), which indicates a strong native-bound attitude and accordingly, low in the self-assessed score (M=16.5, SD=4.15) which, as noted previously, is likely that academics use whether their English is native-like as the standard to assess their own English. Both groups have a relatively young age, of which the average age in the current group is the second youngest (M=33.2, SD=6.32). Moreover, both groups have academics with relatively short working years, and the average working years of the current cluster is the lowest (M=5.0, SD=3.75). The

demographic information of academic in this cluster may somehow explain why these academics focus on language speakers and are relatively stressed comparing with academics in other clusters. Considering the young age with less working experience, academics in this cluster are likely to be at an early-career stage just as academics in '*Status and self-image focused*' group. The difference is, they tend to focus more on practical and career-related issues. They might have a sense of peer pressure when working and competing in the academic settings with other colleagues, hence they may care about the possible influence their colleagues may have on them. This could be a possible reason why their language attitudes are influenced by speakers' English(es) to a great extent.

Table 5 20 Average language attitude scores, self-assessed proficiency scores and demographic information of respondents in each cluster

Cluster name	Average sum of attitude score	Average Self-assessed score	Average age	Average Working years	Position		Subject	
					Research role	Teaching role	Natural science	Social science
Balanced attitude group	144	19.4	37	9.2	4.9%	9.4%	4.7%	10.2%
Status and self-image focused group	184	16.2	35.2	7.1	45.7%	24.5%	37.6%	36.7%
Conventionally oriented group	171	19.8	36.9	10.4	22.2%	43.4%	30.6%	30.6%
Instrumental and ambition focused group	161	17.4	33.1	8.3	8.6%	9.4%	10.6%	6.1%
Speaker focused and stressed group	185	16.5	33.2	4.9	18.5%	13.2%	10.4%	16.3%

5.4.3 Multinomial logistic regression analysis

Further to the discussion of characteristics of each cluster, a multinomial logistic regression was run to analyse the relationship between clusters and the background information of respondents as well as explaining the chance to be in certain clusters. Table 5.21 reports the results of multinomial logistic regression of age, working years, attitude scores, self-assessed language proficiency, academic positions and subjects on cluster membership. The ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ group was chosen as the reference group as it is the most typical and populated group. Therefore, association of different factors (i.e., independent variables) with each cluster are compared against the reference cluster.

According to Table 5.21, a strong negative association can be identified between subjects and clusters. That is, compared to academics in social sciences group, academics in natural science group are .28 times the chance to be in the ‘*Balanced attitude*’ group relative to the ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ group (strong negative association).⁴ Notably, given the small sample size, the result is not statistically significant ($p = .213$). Nevertheless, it shows the difference in terms of subjects between these two groups.

A negative association can also be noticed between academic positions and clusters. Specifically, compared to teaching-focused academics, academics with research-focused roles have .78 the chance to be in the ‘*Balanced attitude*’ group relative to the ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ group ($p = 0.82$). Again, considering the small sample size, academic positions can be regarded as significantly associated with clusters at the 90% confidence level.

Age and attitude scores were also found to be significantly associated with these clusters. When the age is increasing with one year, the chance of academics belonging

⁴ Odds ratios were reported here. Odds ratios above 1 indicate the positive association and the greater the value is, the stronger association it has with clusters. Conversely, odds ratios below 1 indicate the negative association and the smaller the value is, the stronger association it has with clusters. Odds ratios equal 1 means no association.

to the '*Balanced attitude*' group is 1.04 times the chance of being in the '*Status and self-image focused*' ($p = .020$) (at the 95% confidence level). When language attitude score increases with one unit, the chance of being in the '*Balanced attitude*' group is .91 times the chance of being in the '*Status and self-image focused*', which is less likely ($p < .001$) (at the 99.9% confidence level).

This confirms the previous assumption that older academics in the '*Balanced attitude*' group may care less about their academic career development and seem to be more open and flexible regarding various English language use while younger academics in '*Status and self-image focused*' group may focus more on their own status instead of other language speakers or learners as it may influence their academic progress. It also aligns with previous discussion that older academics with a teaching-focused role in the '*Balanced attitude*' group seem to be more confident regarding their language proficiency⁵, hence more relaxed comparing with younger academics with a research-focused role in '*Status and self-image focused*' group.

The factors which have the strongest association with the '*Conventionally oriented*' group are the academic position and the self-assessed proficiency score. Specifically, compared to the teaching-focused academics, research-focused academics is .55 times the chance (less likely) to be in the '*Conventionally oriented*' group relative to the '*Status and self-image focused*' group ($p = .054$) (strong negative association). Moreover, when the self-assessed language proficiency score increases with one unit, the chance of being in the '*Conventionally oriented*' group is 1.20 times the chance of being in the '*status and self-image focused*' ($p = .008$). The fact that majority of academics in the '*Conventionally oriented*' group have a teaching-focused role may also possibly explain why they seem to be stricter in terms of language learning just as the '*Balanced attitude*' group. The difference is, academics in the '*Conventional oriented*' group are also strict in terms of language practicing.

⁵ Statistically significant difference was found between the '*Speaker focused and stressed*' group and the '*Status and self-image focused*' group self-assessed language proficiency score at the conventional 95% level of confidence ($p = .03$) while not keeping the other factors constant (see Appendix 6)

The subject difference seems to be the most associative factor which show the strongest association with the '*Instrumental and ambition focused*' group. Comparing to academics working in social science, academics in natural science group is 2.16 times the chance to be in the '*instrumental and ambition focused*' group relative to the '*Balanced attitude*' group ($p= .359$). This indicates a huge difference between these two groups in terms of academics' subjects.

A strong association can also be identified between academic positions and clusters. Compared to teaching-focused academics, research-focused academics are less likely (.45 times the chance) to be in the '*Instrumental and ambition focused*' group relative to the '*Status and self-image focused*' ($p= .341$) (strong negative association). Attitude score is another less strongly associated factor in that when the attitude score increases in one unit, the chance of being in the '*Instrumental and ambition focused*' group is .96 times the chance of being in the '*Status and self-image focused*' group (i.e., less likely) ($p= .005$).

It was difficult to tell the relationship between the subjects as well academic positions and this cluster as no obvious difference can be identified from the previous sections. However, the result in Table 5.21 indicates that academics in social science and with teaching-focused role tend to focus more on language practices than language learning from an ideological perspective considering the characteristics of this cluster. Notably, similarity can be found between this cluster and the '*Conventionally oriented*' group to some extent in that comparing with the '*Status and self-image focused*' group, academics with teaching-focused roles are more likely to be in both clusters. However, academics in the '*Instrumental and ambition focused*' group seem to care less about early language learning from an ideologically perspective. This may somehow be related to a younger age of academics in the '*Instrumental and ambition focused*' group. Although their low attitude score indicates their open-minded position in terms of the language diversity, they tend to be under more pressure as they seem to be stricter to themselves as they focus on more self-related issues such as academic career and language practices.

Despite the similarities found between the ‘*Speaker focused and stressed*’ group and the ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ group (see Table 5.21), it is different that academics in teaching-focused group comparing with research-focused group are .43 the chance less likely to be in the ‘*Speaker focused and stressed*’ compared to the ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ group. Moreover, comparing the ‘*Speaker focused and stressed*’ group and the ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ group, when working experience increases with one year, the chance of being in the ‘*Speaker focused and stressed*’ group is .93 times the chance of being in the ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ group (i.e., less likely) ($p = .043$). This result confirms that academics in the ‘*Speaker focused and stressed*’ group are more likely to have less working experience than the ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ group. It makes sense that academics with less working experience may under more peer pressure and be more stressed.

Table 5 21 Multinomial logistic regression predicting cluster membership (reference category: ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ cluster)

Variable	Model		
	B	Sig.	Odds ratios
The ‘Balanced attitude’ group			
Age	.04	.020	1.04
Working years	.05	.572	1.05
Attitude scores	-.09	.000	.91
Self-assessed language proficiency scores	.11	.304	1.12
Research focused (ref. category: Teaching focused)	-.25	.082	.78
Natural science (ref. category: Social science)	-1.28	.213	.28
The ‘Conventionally oriented’ group			
Age	.01	.257	1.01
Working years	.02	.061	1.02
Attitude scores	-.02	.025	.98
Self-assessed language proficiency scores	.18	.008	1.20
Research focused (ref. category: Teaching focused)	-.61	.054	.55
Natural science (ref. category: Social science)	-.21	.574	.81
The ‘Instrumental and ambition focused’ group			
Age	-.01	.210	.91
Working years	.02	.515	1.04

Attitude scores	-.05	.005	.96
Self-assessed language proficiency scores	.04	.694	1.01
Research focused (ref. category: Teaching focused)	-1.29	.341	.45
Natural science (ref. category: Social science)	.77	.341	2.16
The ‘Speaker focused and stressed’ group			
Age	-.05	.368	.95
Working years	-1.87	.043	.93
Attitude scores	.01	.423	1.01
Self-assessed language proficiency scores	.03	.615	1.03
Research focused (ref. category: Teaching focused)	-.85	.192	.43
Natural science (ref. category: Social science)	.34	.750	1.4
Nagelkerke pseudo r^2		47%	
χ^2		67.79, df = 24, $p < .001$	

To conclude, according to the above analysis and discussions, 5 clusters can be identified to group the respondents in the current study according to their factor scores, namely the ‘*Balanced attitude*’, ‘*Status and self-image focused*’, ‘*Conventionally oriented*’, ‘*Instrumental and ambition focused*’, and the ‘*Speaker focused and stressed*’ group. Academics in the ‘*Balanced attitude*’ group are the oldest in average age with relatively long working experience. They are relatively confident in their own language proficiency and are positive to the diversity of English language use in academic settings. They seem to have the most relaxed state comparing with other academics. Nevertheless, this is not a typical cluster as only 9 academics are in this group.

The majority of academics are in the ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ group and ‘*Conventionally oriented*’ group. Academics in the former group are in their early academic career as they are relatively young with relatively less working experience. They seem to have a relatively strong native-bound attitude which also results in their lack of confidence in terms of their self-reflection on their own English language proficiency. Nearly half of academics with research-focused role are in this group.

Comparatively, academics in the latter group are older in age with more working experience. They are confident about their own English language proficiency, and they

are relatively more positive to the diversity of English language use by other NNEs. A large percentage of academics with teaching-focused role (43.4%) are in this group.

Academics in the '*Instrumental and ambition focused*' group, are likely in their career upswing. They are relatively positive to the diversity of English use since they put their emphasis more on themselves and career related issues. They seem to be somewhere between the '*Balanced attitude*' group and '*Status and self-image focused*' group in terms of age and working experience as well as their self-assessed language proficiency.

The '*Speaker focused and stressed*' group contains academic who are the youngest in age with the least working experience. They are relatively unconfident in terms of their language proficiency and have a strong native-bound language attitude. Their status is also closely related to their highest factor score, which indicate that they are the most stressed academics who may under great pressure.

5.5 Ending remarks

In summary, this chapter illustrates a general native-bound attitude of Chinese academics. The exploratory factor analysis revealed a 6-factors model underlying academics' language attitude (including *Instrumental professional goals*, *Subjective perceptions of language ability*, *Standard language learning in school*, *Standard English and institutional reputation*, *Preference for international English(es)* and *Importance of language accuracy*). K-mean clustering analysis was further adopted to conclude 5 clusters including the '*Balanced attitude*' group, '*Status and self-image focused*' group, '*Conventionally oriented*' group, '*Instrumental and ambition focused*' group and '*Speaker focused and stressed*' group based on factor scores, which was generated from EFA. Further, multinomial logistic regression analysis was utilised to identify the probability of belonging to each cluster according to respondents' demographic information. It is finally confirmed that '*Status and self-image focused*' group, which has the majority of academics', is likely to have academics who have stronger native-bound attitude, hence are unconfident about their own English

language proficiency, with a research-focused role and less working experience comparing with the second populated '*Conventionally oriented*' group.

Chapter 6 Interview data analysis

Chapter six discusses the results of the interview data. Specifically, Section 6.1 concentrates on the data analysis procedure including the discussion of transcription guidelines and the thematic framework. The following Section 6.2 deals with the qualitative findings organised according to the thematic framework. The final Section 6.3 gives a summary of the qualitative results.

6.1 Data analysis procedure

As previously discussed in Chapter 4 (see 4.5.6.2), a six-step data analysis process was adopted to analyse interview data. The first step was to organise and prepare the data including transcribing the interview. The audio-recorded data were transcribed. As shown in Table 6.1, the VOICE mark-up convention (VOICE Project, 2007) was adopted as it was designed specifically for ELF interactions including ‘descriptors for pronunciation variations and coinages, for code-switching, for onomatopoeic sounds and for laughter, not only as a prosodic feature of speech’ (VOICE Project, 2007). It is particularly useful for the current study which focuses on the global expansion of English as it covers a wide range of English varieties and ELF interactions. Moreover, since codeswitching happened constantly during interviews, interviewees’ own words of English were italicised.

Table 6 1 Interview transcription conventions

YX	Interviewer (Yifang Xu)
P1:, P2:, etc.	Interviewees’ ID
xxx?	Words spoken with rising intonation
xxx.	Words spoken with falling intonation
(.)	Every brief pause in speech (less than a second)
(2)	Longer pauses in speech (timed to the nearest second)
<1></1>	Utterances happening at the same time (overlaps)
er:m	Lengthened sounds
er::m	Exceptionally long sounds (approximating 2 seconds or more)

@	Laughter (approximating syllable number, e.g., ha ha ha = @@@)
<@></@>	Utterances spoken laughingly
<ipa></ipa>	Salient variations on the level of phonology
<spel></spel>	Words or abbreviations which are spelled out by the speaker
<soft></soft>	Utterances which are spoken in a particular mode
<imitating></imitating>	
<shakes head>	Non-verbal feedback
{consumption}	The corresponding existing word
3	Line number on the left, beginning at one for each extract
<i>native speakers of English</i>	Original English words used by interviewees

The transcriptions were printed out for the researcher to ‘immerse’ in the data (Miles & Huberman, 1984) and take notes so as to record researcher’s thoughts and form a general understanding of the data. Afterwards, 72 initial codes were created in NVivo with short descriptions. Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2019) provide a rather extensive and detailed list of coding methods. Specifically, elemental methods (i.e., descriptive coding & In Vivo coding) and affective methods (i.e., emotion coding, values coding and evaluation coding) were adopted in the current study given the tripartite nature of language attitude (see 3.2). Descriptive coding summarised the data segment in a word or short phrase (e.g., communications, interpersonal relationship, career, etc.); In Vivo coding used interviews’ own language as codes (e.g., unimportant, unhelpful, little influence, etc.); Emotion coding involved interviewees’ previous emotions (e.g., lack of confidence, pressure, avoiding contact, etc.); values coding reflected interviewees’ values or beliefs (e.g., importance of mutual understanding); evaluation coding labels interviewees’ judgements on any objects (e.g., +RP: “pleasant”, - Scottish accent: “strong”, - Irish accent: “difficult to understand”, - Indian accent: “horrible”, etc.) (cf. Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2019, see also Appendix 12). Notably, the coding procedure was not completely data driven as it was inevitably influenced by my research questions and interests.

Similar or interrelated codes were further pulled together into a broader level of 12 themes (see Appendix 12). These themes were further organised into the following thematic framework (Figure 6.1) based on the current research purposes, theoretical framework and researcher's knowledge of relevant literature to present the data more comprehensively and informatively.

Moreover, as mentioned in Section 4.5.6.2, the coding procedure was finished in Chinese and selective translation was done afterwards. The extracts and quotations in this chapter were the researcher's translations in English. As discussed in Section 4.5.10, the potential 'first language difference' (Van Nes et al., 2010) may occur in this chapter when interpreting extracts and presenting the results in English. However, as also discussed in 4.5.7 and 4.5.10, the potentially problematic meanings of words/phrases were verified with bilingual speakers and people with a certain background in the field of language attitude and GE.

Figure 6 1 The interview thematic framework

- | |
|---|
| <p>1. Attitudes towards native English speakers
 <i>1.1 Definition of native English speakers</i>
 <i>1.2 Positive attitudes</i>
 <i>1.3 Negative attitudes</i></p> <p>2. Attitudes towards non-native English speakers
 <i>2.1 Positive attitudes</i>
 <i>2.2 Negative attitudes</i></p> <p>3. Attitudes towards accents
 <i>3.1 Positive attitudes towards 'standard accent'</i>
 <i>3.1.1 Familiarity</i>
 <i>3.1.2 Language (learning) experience</i>
 <i>3.1.3 Academic career</i>
 <i>3.2 Negative attitudes towards non-standard accents</i>
 <i>3.2.1 Educational background</i>
 <i>3.2.2 The GE-related experience</i></p> <p>4. Attitudes towards interviewees' own English
 <i>4.1 Positive attitudes</i>
 <i>4.1.1 Competence</i>
 <i>4.1.2 Accent</i>
 <i>4.2 Negative attitudes</i>
 <i>4.2.1 Competence</i>
 <i>4.2.2 Accent</i>
 <i>4.3 Perceived advantages of being 'native-like'</i>
 <i>4.3.1 Academic work</i>
 <i>4.3.2 Social activities</i></p> <p>5. Using English in UK academic settings</p> |
|---|

- 5.1 Differences in disciplines
- 5.2 Differences in academic activities
- 5.3 Anxiety and the lack of confidence

6.2 Interview findings

The following sections are organised around the 5 central themes as shown in Figure 6.1 above, namely, 1) attitudes towards NESs, 2) attitudes towards NNEs, 3) attitudes towards accents, 4) attitudes towards interviewees' own English and 5) using English in UK academic settings. Having said this, it is worth mentioning that overlaps and relationships across these themes may inevitably exist.

6.2.1 Attitudes towards native English speakers

6.2.1.1 Definition of native English speakers

It is worthwhile to understand how NESs were defined by the interviewees before looking at their attitudes towards them. Generally speaking, the majority of interviewees (11 out of 14) considered NESs as those who speak English as their first language since their childhood or grow up in an English-speaking country. However, there are uncertainties about defining speakers who grow up in English speaking countries with an accent or in outer circle countries. For instance, Participant 13 (Extract 1) talked about his understanding of NESs vacillatingly.

Extract 1

1 P13: My definition, er:r according to my definition err (1) they (1) shou-should be
 2 (1) it should be the (.) percentage of err, the (2) opportunities they have to
 3 use English (1) since their childhood. If (1) er:r like er:r some (2) like (.)
 4 our kids, if they live (.) the countries they live in during their childhood (1)
 5 is an English speaking country or (3) or s/he is in a non-English speaking
 6 country but mainly (1) if the frequency of using English in her/is life and
 7 her/is study is more than other languages, then I will define them as (1)
 8 well (.)the *native speaker of English*. Err I can say that like some kids in
 9 Hong Kong, their English is more (1) more fluent than their Cantonese
 10 @@@. Yes yes.

As shown in Extract 1, Participant 13 paused a lot at the beginning. At first, he considered NESs as those who grow up in an English-speaking country (ll. 4-5). After a relatively long pause (3 seconds), he added that NESs may also include speakers who use English more frequently than other languages regardless of countries and regions they live (ll. 5-7). It was likely that his former definition was his first reaction of NESs while during the long pause when he had more time reflecting on his experience, he added another possibility afterwards. He gave a further example of kids in Hong Kong to give evidence to his later definition. Nevertheless, it shows his uncertainty on the definition of NESs to some degree given the constant pauses and the inconsistency of his two definitions. Moreover, when he was asked about the meaning of ‘being native-like’ for international academics, his answer also showed a sense of uncertainty on the definition of NESs (Extract 2).

Extract 2

1	YX: What do you think being native-like may mean to international academics in
2	their academic work?
3	P13: Er::r because (.) for me (.) personally, if you say (.) being <i>native</i> , it's difficult
4	to tell (.) because (.) to be honest, English has many dialects. Well (1) err
5	(2) it is difficult to define what is native. Because (1) in Scotland (1) their
6	English (1) for me, (2) might just be the (1) local dialect. In Australia, I
7	spoke Australian English. They may consider it as a dialect in Australia.
8	Err, I (2) actually for me, I don't know what kind of English and phrases I
9	should learn. You know, (1) when we watch TV, err, like we watch
10	American series, we learned American English. And British people may
11	feel it quite strange. (2) Then I think this, we don't need to (1) deliberately
12	focus on this issue. Anyway, (1) er::r my feeling is, as long as people can
13	understand my English...

In Extract 2, Participant 13 pointed out that it was difficult to define the notion of ‘nativeness’ and gave his reasons. This statement was contradictory with his previous definition of NESs. It can be inferred from his previous definition (Extract 1) that Scottish people should be considered as NESs while he found difficult to define nativeness because he regarded Scottish people’s English as ‘just a local dialect’ (ll. 5, Extract 2). He seemed to imply that Scottish English was not considered as standard

English, as he paused a lot at the beginning which may indicate his hesitation of expressing negative attitudes towards Scottish people's English since he is working in Scotland (see Appendix 11). That is, on the one hand, he considered Scottish people as NESs; on the other hand, he did not consider their English as correct and standard.

Moreover, he further described Scottish people's accent as incorrect. This issue will be further discussed in 6.2.3.2 when addressing participants' attitudes towards various accents. It is also identified from his opinions here that he felt difficult to choose the 'right' variety of English to learn (ll. 6-8). Notably, the reason why Participant 13 suddenly mentioned about language learning (ll. 7-8) is that we talked about his educational background prior to this topic. He particularly pointed out that his school used British-English focused material and advised all students to learn and use British English. This might explain his uncertainty on the definition of NESs in a way that there is a mismatch between his language learning experience and current working experience in terms of English language. Therefore, he came quickly to the conclusion that it is not necessary to focus on this issue as long as people can be understood, to avoid going deeper into this 'complicated' topic. However, he somehow showed an awareness of the importance of the intelligibility for communications.

Participant 9 was also unsure about her own definition of NESs when she was asked to define NESs (Extract 3).

Extract 3

1	P9: Hm::m this is actually (2) difficult to tell. (1) Because (2) if we (1) consider
2	this from its definition (1) <i>native speakers</i> (2) are those whose mother
3	language is English. However, you cannot exclude countries (1) <i>for</i>
4	<i>instance</i> (.) such as India (1) can you assert that English is not their mother
5	language? Their writing is so good! (.) <1>Generally speaking</1>,
6	YX: <1>Hmm</1>
7	P9: Right? (1) They have accents (.) but good writing ability. However, err (1) er
8	(2) my (.) my own opinion is (.) er::r for me, my own (1) benefit (2) <i>for the</i>
9	<i>benefit of myself, err</i> (2) <i>I always prefer learning things from people</i>
10	<i>especially in terms of the written English. Er::r because I don't (1) I simply</i>

11	<i>don't have time to do readings other than my academic or research related</i>
12	<i>topics. I don't have time for that.</i>

As shown in Extract 3, Participant 9 also paused a lot at the beginning when she defined nativeness (ll. 1-3). It showed her uncertainty about this topic to some extent. She defined NESs as those whose mother language is English at first (ll. 2-3). However, she then pointed out that Indian people cannot be excluded as they have excellent writing skill and jumped to another topic about improving writing skills all of a sudden (ll. 7-8). There could potentially be some interrelations between these two issues. During the process of the interview, she constantly stressed that she had a good speaking ability, but poor writing ability and she emphasised that it was impossible for her to be as good as NESs in terms of writing skills although she has been staying in the UK for 10 years. Therefore, although she knew that normally, people define NESs from whether English is their mother language according to their birthplace, it is very likely that language proficiency, which she had attached great value to, is also considered as the standard to define NESs by her. In this sense, she found it difficult to define Indian people, who are not NESs according to the normal definition, but have excellent writing abilities as NESs. This could be the reason why she then stopped discussing the definition of NESs and suddenly moved to another topic about academic writing.

A gap can be identified that her knowledge about NESs were those whose mother language is English while her experience with Indian speakers made her unsure about this definition since she found difficult to exclude them from NESs because of their high English language proficiency although their mother language may not be English. It seems that the concept of NESs and NNESs is likely to be a dichotomous idea for her which contains no other alternatives. This may be due to her lack of knowledge in how English expanded around the world (e.g., Kachru's three circle model of English, or the concept of GE). Therefore, she may feel difficult to define speakers who are different from her cognitive understanding of NESs.

Participant 7 had similar comments on people from outer circle countries. When we first discussed about the definition of NESs, Participant 7 had the same definition with

Participant 9&13 that he regarded NESs as those whose mother language is English. However, when he was further asked about how he would define people from India and Singapore, he gave an interesting but uncertain answer (Extract 4).

Extract 4

1	YX: Then how do you think about people from countries such as India and
2	Singapore?
3	P7: I think (1) err (2) maybe (1) maybe (2) @@@ between <i>native</i> and <i>non-native</i> .

As seen in Extract 4, Participant 7 paused for several seconds at the beginning. He then laughed and said that people from outer circle countries are between NESs and NNESs. Clearly, he did not expect this question and it was very likely that he never thought about differentiating people from inner and outer circle countries. His laughter may indicate the untenability of his answer. He did not explain what he meant by between native and non-native. Just like Participant 13 and 9, it seems that he had his own definition of NESs at the beginning while he found difficult to apply this definition universally to all speakers, i.e., speakers from outer circle countries. In our later interview when he talked about accent, as the following conversation shows (Extract 5), he also showed an uncertainty on defining Scottish people's accents.

Extract 5

1	P7: ... generally speaking, non-native English speakers more or less have their (1)
2	own (1) accent...
3	YX: Speaking of accent, what do you think is a native accent?
4	P7: Maybe (.) just like (1) even in the UK, there is (1) like the Scottish accent. Even
5	some Scottish people may feel that people from Glasgow have an accent.
6	It's like in different cities, different places (1) maybe (1) maybe (.) actually
7	many people consider Glasgow accent is (1) difficult (.) difficult to
8	understand @@@
9	YX: Scottish accent?
10	P7: @@Yes yes.
11	YX: So actually, you define non-native English speakers and native English
12	speakers from their accent?
13	P7: Yes yes yes.

As shown in Extract 5, Participant 7 was not sure about defining NESs in terms of their accents. At first, he considered NNEs more or less have ‘some accent’ (ll. 1-2) while later on, he realised that Scottish people may also have an accent (ll. 4) since he works in Scotland. According to his definition of NESs in our previous conversation, similar to Participant 13, Scottish people should be considered as NESs. However, he did not explicitly answer the interviewer’s question about defining native accent but simply said that Scottish accent was hard to understand with laughter (ll. 7-8). Although he repeatedly answered yes when I asked him again just to confirm whether he actually used accent as the standard to define English speakers, considering his previous uncertainty about speakers from outer circle countries, his positive answer might just reveal his intention to end this topic instead of really confirming the researcher’s questions. That is, he was still unsure about the issue of definitions of NESs.

In general, most of the interviewees considered NESs as those whose mother language is English or grow up in English-speaking countries since childhood. However, uncertainties still exist in terms of defining speakers from non-inner-circle countries or with non-native accents.

6.2.1.2 Positive attitudes

All interviewees (14 out of 14) had positive descriptions about NESs’ English. They considered NESs have high language competence and showed high acceptance of NESs’ English. They used words such as ‘natural’, ‘sophisticated’, ‘accurate’, ‘correct’, ‘pleasant’, ‘abundant vocabulary’, ‘fluent’ and ‘better writing skills’ to describe NESs’ language competence (see Appendix 12). Among these descriptions, ‘natural’ was the most frequently mentioned word (20 times). However, it seems that the word ‘natural’ is relatively abstract. Participant 8 further explained his description of naturalness when he was asked to describe NESs (Extract 6).

Extract 6

1	P8: Er::r (2) I can try to describe (1) for example, native English speaker, for
2	example, er::r for example (4) @@@@ maybe it's because I have

3 limited vocabulary, I really can't come up with any suitable words and
4 phrases immediately @@@@
5 YX: How about non-native English speakers?
6 P8: Er::r (2) *inaccurate pronunciation* and that kind <1> of </1>
7 YX: <1> You mean accent? </1>
8 P8: Yes (1) you can say that (2) mainly (1) accent (.) er::r (2) can I use Chinese to
9 describe?
10 YX: Yes of course!
11 P8: Err I mean, for *non-native English speakers*, they will often hesitate and pause,
12 like what I did just now @@@ for *native English speakers*, they will pause
13 more naturally, they won't (.) make you feel that (1) well, obviously, like
14 (.) this (.) umm (.) ahh (.) umm (.) ahh, have this kind of feeling.

In Extract 6, Participant 8 somehow mistakenly considered that he must use English to describe NESs' and NNEs' English. He paused a lot at the beginning as he found difficult to find a suitable word (ll. 1-4). He laughed at himself about his limited vocabulary (ll. 2 & 4). His laughter might reveal a sense of embarrassment and self-mockery. After he knew that he could still use Chinese, he took himself as an example to say that the pause of NNEs is not natural while NESs would pause naturally when they speak (ll. 11-14). He imitated NNEs' hesitance in English language speaking, as seen in line 14, to indicate that NNEs are very likely to pause because of their language deficiency such as the lack of vocabulary or processing of the right grammar. He also explained what he meant by '*inaccurate pronunciation*' (ll. 6) of NNEs was '*wrong pronunciation*' which will be discussed in more details in 6.2.2.2 about attitudes towards NNEs. It could be identified that Participant 8 had a positive attitude towards NESs while reacted negatively on NNEs including himself.

Apart from '*natural pauses*' mentioned by Participant 8, Participant 12 stressed the natural use of words by NESs (Extract 7).

Extract 7

1 P12: For example, for me, I think some words, especially, we watch (.) watch the
2 (.) for example, British TV shows, or TV series quite often. And now, well

3	(.) we will never use some of the words, well (.) but (.) but, they will (.)
4	will (.) will use it naturally@@@@

Comparing with NNEs, Participant 12 in Extract 7 showed a positive attitude towards NESs' English as she considered that NESs might use various words naturally (ll. 4). Similar to Participant 8, she considered NESs have more abundant vocabulary than NNEs.

Some of interviewees showed high acceptance of NESs' English without a particular reason. Notably, the word 'native' itself was used as a positive word by Participant 12 when she was asked to describe NESs' English (Extract 8).

Extract 8

1	YX: So how would you describe NESs' and NNEs' English?
2	P12: Hmm (2) ok (3) hmm (3) I think that <i>native speaker</i> , they might (.) I think (.)
3	they are (.) <i>native</i> , (1) just like more <i>natural</i> or something, I think for <i>non-</i>
4	<i>native speakers</i> , they can be (.) I think they can be <i>fluent</i> , but (.) like (1)
5	hmm (3) how to say, I suddenly can't think any words, (2) oh yes yes they
6	can be proficient or something, but may not be (3) hmm (2) <@> be native,
7	<1>they can't be <i>native</i> </1> </@>
8	YX: <1>They can't be <i>native</i> ?</1> @@@@
9	P12: @@@@Yes yes yes yes

Although Participant 12 in Extract 8 found difficult to describe NESs' English, she obviously had positive attitude towards them. She did have a positive attitude towards NNEs too, as they can be '*fluent*' (ll. 4) and '*proficient*' (ll. 6). However, she considered that they simply cannot be '*native*' (ll. 6). When we both said '*they can't be native*' simultaneously, she laughed and kept saying yes to show her agreement (ll. 7-8). She might have a fixed cognitive understanding that 'native' means a level that NNEs can never achieve although they might have good English language proficiency. In other words, 'native' not only means higher language skills but also a higher status. NESs somehow have the birthright according to her. Similar default thought in terms of the hierarchy of speakers was also found from Participant 4. When

he talked about the job requirement of their university, he unconsciously showed a positive attitude to NESs (Extract 9).

Extract 9

1 P4: There's no requirement (.) if it's simply about cooperation. But if it's about
2 recruitment, they definitely have several requirements. However, in terms
3 of language (1) they may have a higher tolerance.
4 YX: What do you mean by higher tolerance?
5 P4: Well (.) they won't (1) because of your particular language (1) well you only
6 need to express yourself clearly, you don't need to be specifically (.) well
7 (.) like to reach the *native speaker level*, yes.

He seemed to indicate that the interviewer won't use whether the interviewee is native in English as the standard to recruit academics (ll. 5), as he stressed the importance of mutual understanding afterwards according to the above Extract (ll. 6). However, it also indicates that he took it for granted that NESs' English is at a higher level than NNESs (ll. 7). Moreover, '*Higher tolerance*' (ll. 3), which implies that NNESs are not as good as NESs, also conveys an intrinsic positive attitude to NESs.

6.2.1.3 Negative attitudes

Only one participant mentioned the negative side of NESs' English as their English is difficult to understand, as can be seen with Participant 5 (Extract 10).

Extract 10

1 P5: Hmm (1) for those in English speaking countries, they give me an impression
2 that their English is not that clear. Yes, it may (.) may because they speak
3 too fast which make it not clear. It may also because of different (.)
4 different places they come from. Like for people from different part of the
5 UK, it may (.) these *native speakers*, hmm (.) they have their own accents.
6 Just like one of my colleagues, I'm not sure where is s/he from, (1) but s/he
7 must be (.) s/he must be from somewhere in England. But his/er accent is
8 (.) very (1) anyhow I can't understand at all. It's just (.) very ambiguous.
9 And very fast (1) yes.

As shown in Extract 10, Participant 5 stressed that NESs speak very fast (ll. 2-3) and have their own accents (ll. 5) which impeded his understanding. It is worth mentioning that at the beginning of the interview, he considered NESs as those whose mother language is English. We can infer from this that NESs he mentioned include those who grow up in the UK with ‘accented’ English, i.e., non-RP/GA accent. Notably, Participant 5 is working with people from various linguistic backgrounds. He further explained in our later conversation that he preferred his NNESs’ English as their English is more understandable compared with his ‘accented’ native colleagues. It seems that he used the intelligibility as the standard when commenting on language speakers. However, the reason why he reacted positively to his non-native colleagues is that, borrowing his own words, ‘*their accent is very light*’. In other words, he considered his non-native colleagues’ accent closer to the standard (i.e., RP/GA) than his native colleagues with ‘*strong accent*’. He somehow still attached great value to the standardness, in terms of accent.

6.2.2 Attitudes towards non-native English speakers

6.2.2.1 Positive attitudes

Three participants showed positive attitudes towards NNESs. They described NNESs’ English as fluent and considered NNESs can clearly express themselves. However, some of their positive descriptions might only indicate their ‘*higher tolerance*’ of NNESs, as mentioned by Participant 4 in 6.2.1.2. That is, some of their positive comments on NNESs may convey a negative attitude. Participant 5 is an example (Extract 11) that he positively commented on NNESs’ English while he further added the negative side of NNESs’ English.

Extract 11

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 | YX: ...so you have many opportunities to communicate with international people? |
| 2 | P5: Hmm (.) many chances. |
| 3 | YX: How do you feel about their English? |
| 4 | P5: Well I think their (2) basically, (.) they can express themselves clearly anyway, |
| 5 | that is to say, some (.) sometimes not very native, but they (.) they can |
| 6 | express themselves clearly (.) and fluently I think. And some of them, for |
| 7 | example, students from the middle-east countries, I still think their English |

8 is fluent, although they may not so (1) like British people, those British
 9 people they (.) they have many (.) their own (.) very abundant vocabulary,
 10 but international people, they may not have such abundant vocabulary but
 11 (1) but (.) actually it's easier to understand during communication @@@.
 12 That is, firstly, they have limited vocabulary, and secondly, hmm (.) their
 13 sentence pattern is not that complicated and err (.) err easier to understand.

As seen above in Extract 11, Participant 5 used speakers from middle-east countries as an example that he considered their English as fluent, clear and easier to understand (ll. 4-7). Although they do not have abundant vocabulary just as British people have, and exactly because of this, their English is more understandable since their sentence pattern and the use of words are simple (ll. 12-13). It seems that he positively described NNEs' English while he actually noted the negative side of NNEs. Participant 5 actually have negative attitudes towards NNEs' English in terms of NNEs' language competence while he is rather tolerant since it does not influence communications.

Comparatively, as mentioned 6.2.1.3, Participant 5 indicated that his NES colleague from '*somewhere in England*' has a strong accent and speaks very fast which is hard to understand. He further added that NNEs' English is clearer, slower and more understandable. Interestingly, he showed a native-bound attitude although he seems to react positively to his non-native colleagues (Extract 12).

Extract 12

1 YX: So, you mentioned that you can't understand the accent of your colleague from
 2 somewhere in England. How about the other non-native colleagues? Can
 3 you understand their English?
 4 P5: Er::r yes, well actually, their (.) their accents are (.) very light. Because (.)
 5 because here, like my (1) like my colleagues, I don't have many Indian
 6 colleagues, (1) I know that Indian people have a very strong accent. But
 7 those from middle-east countries, their accent is very light. I have like more
 8 than ten middle-east colleagues. Like (.) like Iran, Saudi Arabian. But
 9 actually, they don't have a very strong accent. I think (.) people from Indian
 10 have a much stronger accent. This is indeed quite strange.

As shown in Extract 12, when I further asked him about whether he could understand his non-native colleagues' accents, he explained that his non-native colleagues' accents were not that strong (ll. 4). He thought it was '*strange*' that people from middle-east countries were supposed to have a strong accent as Indian speakers while the people's he worked with actually have very '*light*' accent (ll. 9-10) which is closer to the 'standard'. A stereotypical view could be identified that he originally judged speakers' accents from a geographical perspective. In this sense, although Participant 5 stressed the mutual understanding, a native-bound attitude can still be identified that he was only positive to speakers who have native-like accent.

6.2.2.2 Negative attitudes

Participants' negative attitudes towards NNEs can also be identified in terms of competence and their low acceptance. They considered NNEs have less vocabulary compared with NESs, they are not fluent, and their English is incorrect. Notably, many participants (6 out of 14) focused on the 'incorrectness' of NNEs' English. For instance, as mentioned in 6.2.1.2, Participant 8 pointed out the 'inaccurate pronunciation' of NNEs. As Extract 13 shows, he further explained what he meant when I asked again about this issue afterwards.

Extract 13

- | | |
|----|--|
| 1 | YX: What do you mean by 'inaccurate pronunciation' you just said? |
| 2 | P8: For some (.) maybe relatively uncommon words, <1>er:r</1> |
| 3 | YX: <1>So you mean</1> inaccurate pronunciation of some words? |
| 4 | P8: Yes, they may (.) make mistakes, but maybe (.) maybe they won't correct it |
| 5 | deliberately. |
| 6 | YX: So this is not about the accent? |
| 7 | P8: No not about the accent, this should be (2) a mistake during the language |
| 8 | learning process. But I think this (1) this is very common, (1) people from |
| 9 | any country can have this kind of problems. |
| 10 | YX: You mean non-native English speakers are very likely to make mistakes no |
| 11 | matter which country they are from? |
| 12 | P8: Yes, the (.) the (1) mistakes in terms of pronunciation, yes. |

What he meant by ‘*inaccurate pronunciation*’ (ll. 1) is a euphemistic way of saying ‘wrong pronunciation’. He made it clearer by further explaining that he considered it as mistakes of the learning process of NNESs (ll. 7-8). That is, similar to Participant 2 and 13 in 6.2.1.1, he considered that there is a standard pronunciation of English and anything which is different from the standard is incorrect. Moreover, NNESs will more or less make mistakes in their pronunciation (ll. 8-9). The issue he mentioned that NNESs may make mistakes and ‘*won’t correct it deliberately*’ (ll. 4-5) may indicate his awareness of common language habits and traits NNESs have to some extent. However, he did not see these language habit and traits of NNESs’ English in its own right.

Another aspect of incorrectness is related to grammar. Participant 1 is an example when she talked about grammatical mistakes of NNESs (Extract 14).

Extract 14

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 | P1: ...for <i>non-native speakers</i> , well, they are not simply opposite to <i>native</i> |
| 2 | <i>speakers</i> , well I (1) (they) will (.) er::r maybe difficult (.) hm::m and (2) |
| 3 | relatively easy to make mistakes, (1) mistakes in grammar. |
| 4 | YX: Grammar? |
| 5 | P1: Yes, (1) mis-mistakes, yes, (1) or errors. |

Notably, as shown in Extract 14, Participant 1 noted that NNESs was not simply the opposite to NESs (ll. 1). This seems that unlike Participant 9, Participant 1 did not use the dichotomous view, which is mentioned in 6.2.1.1, to comment on English language speakers. It shows her awareness of the diversity of NNESs to some extent. However, she still pointed out the problems of NNESs. Although she used the same word in Mandarin (mistake/error), she tried to say the word in a more formal way and showed her emphasis on it the second time (ll. 5). It is implied that she intended to emphasise a higher level of mistake in the second time to reveal the lack of language competence of NNESs. It is interpreted that she had a standard, very likely the stand English rules in her mind and used this standard to describe other people’s English in terms of grammar. Anything that is inconsistent with the standard would be mistakes and errors.

Participant 8 had similar thoughts and explained more on this issue (Extract 15).

Extract 15

- | | |
|----|---|
| 1 | YX: What do you mean by English level? |
| 2 | P8: Hmm (2) mostly in oral English, and normally in daily communications, the |
| 3 | feeling of the (.) communication (1) hmm (.) I think (.) basically, as long |
| 4 | as your mother language is not English, hm:m the colleagues', their English |
| 5 | is worse than colleagues whose mother language is English, worse. |
| 6 | YX: So they are a little worse <1>than</1> |
| 7 | P8: <1>yes</1>, worse, more than a little@@@@ yes |
| 8 | YX: Can you understand your colleagues then? |
| 9 | P8: Hmm (1) not very hard to understand. Because our subject, how to say, |
| 10 | language is used in a very simple way. We are not using very complicated, |
| 11 | or very uncommon words. Hm::m in terms of expressing ideas, and |
| 12 | understanding, there are no big difficulties. (1) That's why I said (.) err non |
| 13 | [native] (.) colleagues whose English is not their mother language, their (.) |
| 14 | err (.) English (1) sentence, make me feel relatively (1) that it is more (.) |
| 15 | more (.) easily for them to make stupid mistakes. That is to say, there might |
| 16 | not be any barriers in understanding between us, but you can easily notice |
| 17 | that they have made mistakes, but for colleagues whose English is their |
| 18 | mother languages, their English turns to be more (1) native, that is (.) is (.) |
| 19 | more (.) easily to express. |
| 20 | YX: Makes you feel more comfortable? |
| 21 | P8: Yes yes yes |
| 22 | YX: What do you mean by stupid mistakes? |
| 23 | P8: Hmm (.) grammar, yes (.) basically it's not very big issues for example, singular |
| 24 | or plural forms of words. But it's difficult for them to (.) to form an inherent |
| 25 | language sense. Just like native speakers. Basically, they don't make such |
| 26 | mistakes, I think. |

As shown in the above Extract, when the interviewer repeated Participant 8's comments on NNEs as little worse (ll. 6), he interrupted the interviewer and stressed that NNEs' English is much worse than NESs (ll. 7). He obviously made a joke, as indicated from his laughter afterwards. However, his behaviour of interruption and

laughter revealed his negative attitude towards NNESs to a great extent. He considered that NNESs were very likely to make various small grammatical mistakes (ll. 15 & 23-24) while NESs would never make such mistakes (ll. 25-26). Notably, he stressed that his subject does not require a high English competence and it is not difficult for him and his colleagues to achieve mutual understanding. Influence of discipline variations will be further discussed in 6.2.5.1. His attachment to ‘standard’ and ‘nativeness’ can be identified since he constantly stressed the mistakes that NNESs may have although in his words, ‘*there might not be any barriers in understanding between us*’ (ll. 15-16). He still preferred his native colleagues’ English.

Moreover, Participant 13 (Extract 16) stressed the incorrectness of word choices and the use of phrases by NNESs.

Extract 16

1	P13: ...should say that they will speak more (1) fluently, smoothly, and (.) well (1)
2	<i>native speakers</i> will be more fluent, and for <i>non-native speakers</i> , they may
3	(.) in terms of word choice, (1) they might be not so accurate, or (1)
4	normally, they will use some (.) relatively simple words to (.) er:r to (2) err
5	(.) describe an item. Normally they won’t (1) choose any big words to use,
6	and (1) when they use the word, some (.) sometimes they might (.) well (2)
7	they might (1) make up their (.) er:r (.) own words, or their own way of
8	expressing ideas.

Extract 16 not only shows that NNESs have less vocabulary than NESs, but also indicates that Participant 13 considered NNESs’ uses of words and phrases are incorrect as they sometimes may make up their own use of words and phrases (ll. 7-8). He showed an obsession with ENL norms and reacted negatively to any ‘incorrect’ use of words and phrases by NNESs. However, when I further asked him whether he can understand NNESs’ ‘made-up words and expression’, he answered yes and added that he can notice immediately when they use ‘*strange*’ words. That is to say, he was cautious about the ‘correctness’ of words and phrases although mutual understanding can be achieved anyway. In this sense, similar to Participant 8, he did not regard NNESs’ use of English in its own right.

Interestingly, nearly all participants (13 out of 14) expressed a hierarchical understanding of NNEs in terms of their perceived English language proficiency when they were asked to describe NNEs' English. Basically, they use nationalities to classify NNEs' language proficiency. Although contradictory opinions in terms of certain European countries were identified, they simultaneously regarded Europeans' English as the best while Asians' English as the worst among NNEs. Other places such as the Middle East, Africa and South America vary in the middle. For instance, Participant 8 use German people's English as an example to explain his perceived ranking (Extract 17).

Extract 17

1	P8: I'm not sure about (.) er, but I think German people's English, normally is very
2	pure.
3	YX: What do you mean by 'pure'?
4	P8: Like (1) feel like (1) standard English, but for example, the Greek's accent, er:r,
5	and, like (2) accents of other non-native English speakers, are relatively
6	(2) er::r worse...

In Extract 17, Participant 8 was positive to German speakers because their English is 'pure', which is standard or native-like (ll. 2-4). Participant 8 compared other non-native accents such as the Greek accent with German speakers and held standard and native-like accent in high esteem. He became increasingly hesitant when he started to express his negative feelings towards non-standard accents (ll. 4-6). His hesitance could be partly explained by the conflict and uncertainty between his inherent native-bound ideology and the 'overwhelming' phenomenon of ELF communications he has confronted in the UK academia, since he mentioned at the beginning of our interview that he is working with a lot of international academics.

Participant 11 (Extract 18) is another example with similar comments on German people's English.

Extract 18

1	P11: German people's English is the best. That is, when German people speak
2	English, er:r they can almost reach the <i>native</i> level. <1>And</1>
3	YX: <1>You mean their accent?</1>
4	P11: Yes, accent (.) yes, and (.) in (.) ways of expression as well. Their choice of
5	words is very native. And they'll never cause any misunderstandings, or
6	make you feel strange...their choices of words, (1) is actually (1) very
7	native. (1) Like Europeans are (.) although (1) French and Italian people
8	have accent, (1) their word choices are very native too (.) comparing with
9	(2) those (.) tho-those (.) from Asian countries, whose accents and (.) the
10	(.) the (.) the uses of words (1) are (2) problematic (.) yes.

Besides praising German people's English, Participant 11 further pointed out people from France and Italy that their English is also native-like in word choices irrespective of their 'accented' English in Extract 18 (ll. 7-8). On the other hand, speakers from Asian countries are relatively less proficient and native (ll. 9-10). It seems that their attitudes towards different English speakers were influenced by their perceived ethnicity or nationalities that they seem to have a perceived ranking of NNEs in terms of their nationalities. People from European countries are more native-like while Asians are less native-like.

Overall, coincidentally with the questionnaire data which reveal a positive attitude towards NESs (see Section 5.2.2), the interviewees also tend to comment more positively on NESs than NNEs. Although they sometimes showed an awareness of GE usage and a 'positive' attitude to NNEs, it either indirectly reflects their native-bound attitude to some extent, or results in the uncertainties or confusions.

6.2.3 Attitudes towards accents

6.2.3.1 Positive attitudes towards 'standard accent'

6.2.3.1.1 Familiarity

The word 'accent' was mentioned 273 times in total and all interviewees had much to discuss in terms of accent. As noted above, participants' attitudes towards accents are relatively different from their attitudes towards language speakers. Generally speaking, participants might be positive to NESs with an 'accented' English from an ideological

perspective, however, they (13 out of 14) were overwhelmingly skewed to ‘standard accent’, regardless of whether they were aware of the term RP and GA. Their familiarity of these accents seems to be one of the dominant factors that influences their attitude. Notably, the word familiar was mentioned 22 times by interviewees. Participant 5 (Extract 19) is an example of how familiarity influence participants’ attitudes towards language accent.

Extract 19

1	YX: So do you like any particular accent?
2	P5:<soft>Hmm</soft> (3) actually, I think (1) <soft>American English </soft> is
3	more <@>pleasant </@>to hear. @@@@ em (.) I think American
4	English is more pleasant to hear.
5	YX: Why do you think so?
6	P5: Hm::m it may because we usually watch (.) some American TV series, or
7	Hollywood movies, so I think American English is more pleasant, more
8	familiar to me. On the contrary, British English makes me feel rigid, that
9	(.) that (.) that is, their accent feels like (.) no tongue rolling, and it feels
10	like strange, yes feels like strange.

In the above Extract, Participant 5 spoke in a soft and low voice that he preferred listening to American English (ll. 2-3). Notably, ‘American English’ and ‘British English’ he mentioned is related to accent as we were talking about English accent since he might not be aware of the actual name of these accents, i.e., RP/GA. Considering together with his laughter (ll. 3), it seems that he was hesitant to some extent and felt embarrassing to share his real preference on American accent over British accent since he has been staying and working in the UK for many years. Nevertheless, he further explained that the American accent was more familiar to him because he often watches American TV series and Hollywood Movies (ll. 6-8), and the British accent is ‘*strange*’ (ll. 10). Similarly, as shown in the following Extract 20, Participant 10 preferred British English, i.e., RP because he was more familiar with it.

Extract 20

1 P10: Er::r yes, (1) for me I think (.) err, British English, like English from the
2 broadcast we normally listen to. Personally, it is pleasant to listen to. And
3 more (1) err (.) understandable. Yes, maybe it's because I often listen to it
4 @@@.

Participant 10 further explained why he likes RP (Extract 21).

Extract 21

1 P10: Hmm (.) I think it (.) it is (1) very (.) very (.) very (.) <soft> hmm </soft> yeah
2 very pleasant to hear. Just like what we said, cadenced, including its pause,
3 it's, hm::m more understandable. I think this is (.) it has (.) it gives you a
4 pause (.) and the pause, gives you the opportunity to think and comprehend.
5 For example, I (.) I (.) I watch British (.) err movies, an-an-and watch
6 American movies, I feel (.) I prefer accents in British movies. Just in terms
7 of accent, hmm (.) and I think American English has many (.) reduction
8 and abbreviation or (.) or like, the *Black American's* (1) customs, which (.)
9 which we may not be easily to accept. This might be because of cultural
10 stuff.

Here in Extract 21, he compared the RP with the GA and showed his preference on the British accent. He explained that he couldn't accept the habit of reduction, abbreviation and the '*Black American*' culture in American accent and considered it as a cultural difference (ll. 8-10). However, it seems that his attitude may not be entirely related to ethnicity, or culture but more to his unfamiliarity of the American accent, hence the intelligibility of the accent. As he stressed above, the pause and tempo of British accent make him comfortable to hear and process the meaning (ll. 2-4) while the speaking habit of American such as reductions and abbreviations may impede his understanding to some extent.

6.2.3.1.2 Language (learning) experience

Moreover, participants' previous language experiences may also influence their attitudes towards English accents. Participant 11 (Extract 22), for instance, expressed his attitude change because of her language experience.

Extract 22

1 P11: Well indeed, like, (1) I (.) I (.) I (.) I could be counted as the *British accent* in
2 my junior high school. And in senior, (.) and, (1) the English teacher was
3 (.) he was a professional English teacher, and very obviously he (.) he had
4 an *American accent*. And (.) yes at the beginning, I felt very uncomfortable,
5 and thought that he spoke English very (1) softly, and (1) and (.) then (.)
6 then I got used to it. After that, I was led astray by him@@ (2) and I
7 became (.) an (1) err (.) *American accent* speaker. And (.) err and then I
8 listened to many (.) well (.) *VoA* (.) like the *Voice of American* (.) and (.)
9 and (.) I really got used to *American English*. And then (.) I (.) I (.) came
10 to the UK, I can't adapt to their accent, like (.) like, they speak very (.)
11 stiffly (.) and difficult to understand. But now (.) now I'm getting used to
12 it. Now (1) well (.) well (.) I don't have much chance to listen to *American*
13 *English* anymore...

In Extract 22, Participant 11 shared his story and explained his attitude change to accent in a very specific way. At the beginning, he studied British English and considered that he had a British accent (ll. 1-2). However, his high school English teacher changed his preference from the British accent to the American accent (ll. 2-7) after a period of time struggling with the teacher's American accent. He was then more familiar with the American accent during high school as he always listened to the VoA (ll. 8-9) and due to his teacher's influence (ll. 6). When he came to the UK and worked in an environment where people have the British accent, he felt uncomfortable and difficult to understand British accent at first (ll. 10-11). He took some time to get familiar with the British accent again afterwards (ll. 11-12). It seems that his attitude was heavily influenced by his learning and working environment.

Participant 1 (Extract 23) described her mental activities more specifically on how the language environment may change her preference of accents.

Extract 23

1 P1: I (2) because I (1) because the teachers at school spoke American accent, so (1)
2 err actually (.) I (.) I was more used to the American accent. Until I came
3 to the UK, I (1) actually at the beginning, when I came to the UK, well I
4 felt (.) I felt my accent was more like American. I studied American
5 English since I was a child after all. (1) But still, I think I was influenced,
6 (1) I (.) I think (.) I was like, unconsciously influenced by the
7 environment. ... I found that, in recent two or three years, (1) the distance
8 between the American accent and I became farther. because (.) one year (.)
9 in 2015, I went to American that year, I went to Washington for business.
10 And when I came there, I sat in the airport and I felt (.) because I was in
11 American, and when I sat in the airport, I felt (.) I probably went to a (.)
12 foreign country. I went to a foreign country! Although people still spoke
13 English around me, I felt, their English was not the English I was familiar
14 with. At that time, I realised (.) that I was used to listening to British
15 English in the UK. I went to America, actually I was used to American
16 accent to a great extent, but when I went to American and listened to
17 American English at that time, I felt (.) already (.) it had nothing to do with
18 me. Until then I realised that (.) err (.) it seems I was really influenced by
19 British English.

According to Extract 23, Participant 1 learned American accent at school and felt herself different when she first came to the UK (ll. 3-4). Then She sensed her change of attitude when she went to the US in 2015 after living in the UK for 6. She used words and phrases such as ‘*the distance became farther*’ (ll. 8) ‘*foreign country*’ (ll. 12), ‘*not the English I was familiar with*’ (ll. 13-14), and ‘*nothing to do with me*’ (ll. 17-18) to describe her attitude to American English. She even reiterated her statement that she thought she ‘*went to a foreign country*’ to emphasise her sense of belonging. That is to say, the language experience and environment have imperceptible influence on people’s attitudes towards English accents.

6.2.3.1.3 Academic career

Academic career is considered to be another factor that influence interviewees’ language attitude. This can be seen in the case of Participant 3. Apart from those 13 participants who showed positive attitudes towards ‘standard’ accents directly,

Participant 3 (Extract 24) admitted that he did have a favourite accent while he did not want to say which particular accent it was.

Extract 24

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | YX: Do you feel pleasant to hear any particular accent? |
| 2 | P3: No (1) err (.) I really don't. Well of course I do feel that some accents are more |
| 3 | pleasant than the others. But (.) this is (.) <@>you are recording now</@> |
| 4 | @@@@@@ I'm not going to say it @@@. |

As shown in Extract 24, Participant 3 hesitated to share his opinion on this issue at the beginning as he was concerned that his words were to be recorded. However, his negative attitude to non-standard accent even including Chinese dialect could be inferred from our later communication. At the end of the interview, when he talked about being native-like, he expressed an obsession with a 'standard accent' not only in English but also Mandarin Chinese since he was also negative on his own accent in Mandarin (Extract 25).

Extract 25

- | | |
|----|---|
| 1 | YX : So you want to be more native-like then? |
| 2 | P3: Absolutely yes @@@ isn't this @@@ obvious? Well actually, <sigh> English |
| 3 | with an accent is actually unpleasant to listen to. I just watched the new |
| 4 | Apple press conference. And there was one (.) one <i>CEO</i> from a Chinese |
| 5 | start-up company in Silicon Valley (1) well (.) his accent was actually (.) |
| 6 | his oral English was good (1) but just not pleasant to listen to. Just as when |
| 7 | you listen to my Mandarin accent, you may feel that it's not pleasant to |
| 8 | listen to <1>@@@@</1>. |
| 9 | YX: <1>No no! </1> Never! Never! @@ |
| 10 | P3: Well just (.) like when I listen to the <i>Newcastle</i> and Scottish accent, I feel like |
| 11 | (2) ahh <shakes head> (1) @@@@@@@@@@ yes just like this. |
| 12 | YX: So you would like to listen to more standard accent? |
| 13 | P3: Yes of course. That would be more comfortable. |

In Extract 25, when I asked whether he wants to be more native-like, he laughed as if I should have known the answer as a common sense (ll. 2) and gave me the positive

answer. He sighed before pointing out his unpleasant feeling about ‘accented’ English (ll. 2-3). It may indicate his sense of helplessness about speaking English with a non-native accent. He finally expressed his real thoughts on accented English by giving an example of a CEO from a Chinese company, whose English is ‘good’ but ‘*not pleasant to listen to*’ (ll. 6). He also pointed out the Newcastle and Scottish accent, and shook his head pretending to be crazy to show his strong negative attitude to these accents (ll. 10-11). Interestingly, when we initially talked about various speakers and accents at the beginning of the interview, he showed a great acceptance of these accents and mentioned several times that he did not like any particular accent and considered all accents as the same. One possible reason for this contradictory attitude is that he was not ready to talk frankly at the beginning of the interview but was willing to share more about his thoughts after the rapport was established between us. Another possible reason could be that he might feel embarrassing to talk negatively on people’s accents since he considered himself as an ‘accented’ speaker of English, and even Mandarin. Therefore, although he had a positive attitude towards ‘standard’ or ‘native’ accent, he did not want to be negative towards non-native speakers and accents in the first place.

Notably, coincidentally with the quantitative results of EFA presented in 5.3.2, *Instrumental professional goal* was considered as one of the most influential factors underlying Chinese academics’ language attitude, Participant 3’s contradictory attitude is also likely to be related to his goals working in the UK academia. When we further talked about being native-like, he showed a strong willingness to be native-like in English and admitted that he was actually obsessed with the standard accents since being native-like in accent may be beneficial for his academic career (Extract 26).

Extract 26

1	P3: Well English is (1) in English speaking countries, (2) and (1) if you want to
2	achieve (.) a prestigious status, well (1) English (1) is, is, is, is not about
3	you (2) not about simply communicating, I, I mean, you should speak
4	English in a more (2) more comfortable way for British people. It’s actually
5	very important for one’s (.) career.

6 YX: So you think being native-like is helpful for international academics' career
7 development and academic life?
8 P3: Sure, very helpful. But not able to @@@@
9 YX: In what aspects then?
10 P3: Well, you will be much easier to get promoted from a postdoc to a *lecturer*.
11 YX: Simply because you are native-like in English?
12 P3: Yes because (.) first, you need to teach, you (.) you teach, you (.) if you speak
13 more *natively*, it is definitely an advantage. People may understand you
14 more easily, because you teach (.) local students, and they are all British
15 students.

According to his explanation in Extract 26, he considered being native-like as important to ensure that local British students could understand him especially for teaching (ll. 13-15). However, as shown in Appendix 11, Participant 3 is in his early academic career who does not have any teaching experience. That is, his above assumption was based on not so much as the reality as on his own perception, or imagination of the linguistic environment. He seems to lack an awareness of the changing linguistic landscape as he could possibly face a lot of students who are not local British students in reality. Moreover, his assumptions on the advantage of being native-like for promotion (ll. 10) seems untenable without factual support as he seems to make this statement based on his stereotypical ideology.

Resonating with Participant 3, Participant 9 (Extract 27) gave a more vivid example of how accent influence non-native academics' career with the factual support.

Extract 27

1 P9: They have been living in Oxford, Cambridge for more than 10 years. No matter
2 where they're from, (1) their *presentation* (.) their *lecture is so enjoyable*.
3 Let's imagine, a student (.) was listening to a lecturer who graduated from
4 the University of Oxford teaching eloquently in the morning, and then, in
5 the afternoon, listening to a Chinese lecturer with broken English and was
6 tortured for one or two hours. How to deal with this kind of situation, I
7 don't know. But I would say, this definitely influences the (1) err (.) yeah.

In Extract 27, she compared her two colleagues' experiences in the classroom. One was from the University of Oxford who had a standard and pleasant accent while the other was a Chinese teacher whose English was '*broken*' (ll. 3-5). She described the feeling from the students' angle that the lecturer who has a standard accent may make them feel enjoyable (ll. 2) while the lecturer with a non-standard accent may torture them for hours (ll. 6) although she mentioned later that the Chinese teacher's English language skills and teaching content were both excellent. She seemed to stress that the accent itself can make a huge difference on students' attitudes towards lecturers in the classroom. However, it seems that she had a contradictory attitude. On the one hand, at the beginning of the interview, she showed a great awareness and acceptance of different accents. She also stated that she believed that every accent exists for a reason and there is no need to ask everyone to have a '*Cambridge*' or '*Oxford*' accent. Notably, during the interview, Participant 9 mentioned Cambridge and Oxford accent several times which was used interchangeably with a standard accent, i.e., RP. On the other hand, she also had a sense of helplessness just as Participant 3 since she felt that non-native accent might hinder Chinese academics' career development in the UK universities. In this sense, her preference for '*Cambridge*' or '*Oxford*' accent may be at least partly due to her perceived influence of the '*standard*' accent. Considering the cluster membership in Section 5.4.2, Participant 9 is likely to be in the '*Instrumental and ambition focused*' group that she showed a positive attitude towards non-native accents of other academics but still value the '*Importance of language accuracy*' because of their academic career.

Generally speaking, all interviewees had a strong positive attitude towards '*standard*' accent, which is possibly influenced by their familiarity of these accents, their language experiences as well as their academic goals.

6.2.3.2 Negative attitudes towards non-standard accent

6.2.3.2.1 Educational background

All interviewees (14 out of 14) showed a positive attitude to '*standard*' accent, i.e., RP/GA. Besides these two '*standard accents*', they regarded the other accents as non-

standard. Participant 5 is an example who used RP/GA as the standard to evaluate other accents.

Extract 28

1	P5: Like (.) like Standard English. (1) However, (.) for example, the Greek accent,
2	(.) er::r (1) and (1) like (.) middle-east countries, (1) their (.) er::r (.) er::r (1)
3	like (.) <i>non-native English speakers</i> ' accents, (.) relatively, (.) er::r (1) are
4	worse than standard English. (1) And you may feel difficult to understand
5	these accents.

Participant 5 compared other non-native accents such as the Greek and middle-east countries' accents with 'standard' accent (ll. 1-4). It seems that he took it for granted that 'standard' accent is the only legitimate accent. Those which are different from standard accents are 'worse' (ll. 4). One possible reason that he reacted negatively to various accents is that he was not familiar with the accent and found difficult to understand (ll. 4).

Participant 11 (Extract 29) also expressed his attitude change to some extent about the Indian accent.

Extract 29

1	P11: International academics, err (.) well, we have an Indian, and a French here, err
2	yeah, and the accent of that Indian academic is (.) I really get used to it.
3	Previously, I was afraid of talking to him. No matter it is <i>daily</i> , or (.) or
4	technical, I don't even know what he was talking about @@.

In Extract 29, when talking about international colleagues, Participant 11 stressed that he was afraid of talking to his Indian colleague because he was not familiar with the Indian accent and cannot understand his English (ll. 3-4). His laughter at the end may indicate a sense of embarrassment recalling his previous experience with his Indian colleague. As discussed previously in 6.2.3.1.2, because of the influence of high school English teacher, Participant 11 learned standard American English at school and then worked in the UK. He had little chance to talk with people from Indian and form the

knowledge of Indian accent. However, the increase of familiarity to Indian accent made him get used to it gradually (ll. 2). Although it is difficult to tell to what extent his attitude has changed, a change of his psychological state can be observed from fear to adaption. Notably, the avoidance of communication could be identified as he was afraid of talking to his Indian colleague (ll. 3). This issue will be further discussed in 6.2.5.3 in relation to the possible influence of their language attitudes.

Participant 9 (Extract 30) stressed the influence of the language education she received at school which failed to equip her with enough knowledge of various accents, which caused troubles to her work.

Extract 30

1	P9: But what is more unfortunate, (.) at the time when we went to school, we
2	learned (.) err (.) Oxford, <i>Cambridge</i> and this kind of <i>English</i> . But now, (.)
3	especially when I came to the UK, (.)... I found that (1) many people, (.)
4	they actually have an accent. (1) Especially like people from <i>East Europe</i>
5	or (.) or (.) err (1) <i>India</i> , and so on, (.) like (.) their accents are difficult for
6	us to understand. (1) It may take us plenty of time to (.) understand.

As shown in Extract 30, Participant 9 learned ‘Oxford’ and ‘Cambridge’ English, which might equal to RP (as discussed before in 6.2.3.1.3) as she considered it as the standard accent (ll. 2). This infers that only ‘standard’ English is taught at schools in China. This may relate to the Chinese language policy which uphold only standard varieties of English. She further stressed the discrepancy between what she learnt and what she has experienced (ll. 3-4). As discussed previously, participants used ‘*have an accent*’ to describe speakers who do not have a standard accent. Although she was aware of various accents such as Eastern European and Indian accents, she found them difficult and time-consuming to understand (ll. 4-6).

At first glance, these interviewees’ negative attitudes towards non-RP/GA accents mentioned above was closely related to their familiarity and the extent to which they understand the accent. However, in a deep sense, it was their educational background, i.e., the Chinese English language educational system, which upholds the

standardness/nativeness that prevented them from getting familiar with other varieties and use of English.

6.2.3.2.2 The GE-related experience

Nevertheless, 9 out of 14 interviewees showed their awareness of various non-native language habits or traits according to their experiences communicating with NNESs. Many interviewees pointed out that NNESs' mother language had a great influence on their accents and noticed that they have their own pattern of speaking English according to their experiences. They referred to various English accents such as 'Chinese English' 'Indian English' 'European English' with a negative attitude and they did not regard these Englishes as legitimate. For instance, Participant 11 (Extract 31) gave a very interesting example of different pronunciation habits of NNESs.

Extract 31

- | | |
|----|--|
| 1 | P11: Yes, accent (.) yes, and (.) in (.) ways of expressions as well. Their choices of |
| 2 | words are very native. And they'll never cause any misunderstandings, or |
| 3 | make you feel (.) strange...Just like this. |
| 4 | YX: Hmm. |
| 5 | P11: But, well (.) for Italian and French (1) their accent is very obvious (2) like |
| 6 | their English is just like Italian and French. For example, for example (1) |
| 7 | that (.) you don't pronounce 'h' in French, err (2) well (.) they (.) they don't |
| 8 | pronounce 'h' in English as well. For example, 'Shanghai', they will say |
| 9 | 'Shangai' that that @ <@>'h'</@> they won't pronounce the 'h'. And err |
| 10 | (1) for example the (.) err (1) er (.) er (.) 'consumption', they will pronounce |
| 11 | like 'consumption' {consumption} <ipa>kən'sju:m(p)ʃ(ə)n </ipa>. All the |
| 12 | 'u', they pronounce as 'u' instead of 'a'. Like, in their accent (.) this (.) I |
| 13 | am pretty sure about this. French accent is like this... |
| 14 | YX: So you think they have a certain pattern in English pronunciation? |
| 15 | P11: Yeah-yeah-yeah-yeah, yes, very obvious, very very obvious, yes. |

After he praised German people's English which is nearly native-like as discussed in 6.2.2.2, he considered people from Italy and France were native in word choices but non-native in accents. He identified several language traits, or habits of Italian and French speakers and gave examples of their pronunciations of certain words in Extract

31 (ll. 8-9, & 10-12). Although he did not explicitly express that these accents were wrong compared with the ‘standard accent’, the ‘incorrectness’ of these accents can be inferred according to his description that these accented Englishes were not like English but Italian and French (ll. 6). At the end, he added that he was sure about these language traits (ll. 13) and said yes repeatedly to emphasise that he was familiar with these accents. That is, he has identified the language traits of speakers from various linguistic backgrounds while he did not seem to challenge his stereotypes about language.

Participant 2 (Extract 32) used ‘Chinglish’ and ‘South Africa accent’ as her examples to showcase the language patterns she found.

Extract 32

1	P2: Yes we, if you are not a <i>native speaker</i> , you will have some formative stuff,
2	like we talk, for example, ‘ <i>how are you doing</i> ’, or ‘ <i>how are you</i> ’, and you
3	will answer, like naturally, ‘ <i>I’m fine thank you</i> ’ <1>@@@</1>
4	YX: <1>@@@</1>
5	P2: Right? This is a natural reaction, but for <i>native speakers</i> , they will have
6	abundant (.) abundant words, to answer this question. They could say
7	‘ <i>wonderful</i> ’, they can also say ‘ <i>ah not too bad</i> ’, for instance, they (.) they
8	will (.) they will say (.) they will not be so rigid, I mean their words, they
9	have more richness in words.
10	YX: Abundant vocabulary?
11	P2: Yes yes yes.
12	YX: And for non-native speakers, their English is sort of rigid?
13	P2: Yes, (1) I think you can recognise this in many ways. Some people may focus
14	on this kind of way of speaking when they learned English, and they may
15	(.) naturally bring this kind of format when they speak English. Like
16	Chinese people, that’s ‘ <i>I’m fine thank you</i> ’ @@@@ this is the most (.)
17	most common cases. Hm:m like South African, they (.) they like to add a
18	‘ <i>there</i> ’ after the word. That’s-that’s-that’s <spel>t h e r e </spel>,
19	something something there, their ‘ <i>there</i> ’ has strong accent, it’s not like our
20	‘ <i>there</i> ’, ‘ <i>there</i> ’ is pronounced in a soft (.) voice, when they say there is like
21	<imitating> <i>there</i> </imitating>, it’s a strong (.) strong accent. So that we

22	can recognise some formative use of English of non-native English
23	speakers.

When Participant 2 talked about her accent change, she pointed out that people with different linguistic background have different patterns in their accents. More specifically, she used the word ‘*rigid*’ to describe Chinese people’s English. Just as what Participant 11 described, she stressed some formative uses of English for NNEs. As shown in Extract 32, she laughed after giving an example of ‘*Chinglish*’ (ll. 2-3, & 16). She laughed because she gave a classic example of the formative use of English by Chinese people (older generation). Most of the Chinese who learned English in the 1980s and 1990s knows this template sentence since most people started learning English from this sentence. This is also considered as a classic negative example of Chinese English speakers’ rigid uses of template sentences. However, it shows a stereotypical understanding of Chinese people’s English to some extent since she assumed that all Chinese speakers use English according to the template. She also imitated the South African accent and commented it as a very strong accent (ll. 19-21). Again, she noticed the language traits of South African people’s English, but she failed to treat these patterns/traits as legitimate English and challenge her stereotypical views of English and English speakers.

These results discussed above provide important insights into the GE-related experience which indeed raised interviewees’ awareness of various non-native English accents as well as the patterns and traits of these accents. However, they still tend to respond negatively to these accents as they still applied a native-bound view on these variations.

6.2.4 Attitudes towards interviewees’ own English

During the interviews, all interviewees more or less expressed their self-reflections on their own English either directly or indirectly. The following two sections deal with interviewees’ positive and negative attitudes towards their own English in terms of competence and accent as well as the possible underlying reasons of these attitudes.

6.2.4.1 Positive attitudes

6.2.4.1.1 Competence

Notably, self-perceived language expertise is not counted as an important factor that influence Chinese academics' language attitude according to EFA results of quantitative findings (see Section 5.3.2). However, it seems that interviewees had much to discuss in terms of this issue. There were a few participants (4 out of 14) who reacted positively to their English in terms of language competence and accents. Specifically, two participants out of 14 talked positively about their English competence. Extract 33 is an example of the positive self-assessed attitude of interviewees (Participant 14).

Extract 33

1	P14: Well my English is (1) fairly fluent. But I think (.) if I speak too fast, some (.)
2	even local students, might feel that I speak too fast. So for now I (.) I (.) I
3	intentionally try to slow down a bit @@@ yes yes, like, if it's about
4	communication with each other, language is (.) not a problem for me. You
5	simply need to (.) control your speed and actually students can get what
6	you said.

As shown above, Participant 14 thought his English is fluent and understandable if he controls his speed (ll. 3 & 5). He was very confident when talking about his English in terms of competence. However, he still showed the willingness to attain native-like proficiency in English (Extract 34).

Extract 34

1	YX: So you want to be more native-like then?
2	P14: Err (1) I (2) I want (1) of course I want to be successful!

Prior to this topic, he was talking about the challenges of being a NNEs in the UK academia and stressed that NNEs need more practices with their English. He further pointed out that NNEs have '*more or less experienced various failures influenced by their English language*'. Therefore, as Extract 34 shows, when he was asked about whether he wanted to be more native-like, he answered that he yearned to be successful.

Although he did not seem to answer the interviewer's question, considering the challenges of NNEs he mentioned, it can be implied that in his sense, being native-like means success, or a way to be successful. Interestingly, during the interview, Participant 14 kept stressing the importance of mutual understanding and he used intelligibility as the standard to judge native and non-native speakers. He also showed high acceptance of other varieties of English such as Japanese and Indian English since he considered these English '*understandable*' and '*familiar*'. A contradictory attitude can be identified that on the one hand, Participant 14 seemed to match the characteristics of the '*Balanced attitude*' group as he had a good awareness of the fact that English is used by people from various linguistic backgrounds and showed a relatively positive attitude to NNEs including himself. However, he still cognitively considered native English better since it is a sign of success for NNEs in terms of their academic career.

Participant 9 was partially positive about her English competence. As discussed in 6.2.1.1, Participant 9 constantly stressed that she has good speaking skills but bad writing skills. The following Extract 43 reveals more about her thoughts on her language competence.

Extract 35

1	P9: I mentioned this earlier that (1) I admit that (1) err (1) my oral English, err I got
2	8.5 in IELTS.
3	YX: Wow that's so close to the full mark!
4	P9: Yes (1) it's (.) it's been many years. It's in 2011. But my writing was only (.)
5	6.5.

In Extract 35, she used IELTS score as the standard to judge her language competence and she felt confident in speaking and was proud of her oral English as she got 8.5 (ll. 2). However, she was unsatisfied with her writing which was only 6.5 (ll. 4-5). Notably, she pointed out that she got the score in 2011. It has been 8 years which is a relatively long time ago since she got her score, and she still constantly mentioned this score after such a long period of time. It seems that she has attached great importance to the authority of the IELTS exam which is designed according to the native norms.

Different from Participant 14 who emphasised the mutual understanding, she automatically used the native norm as the standard to assess her language proficiency. In this sense, she commented positively on her oral English, not because she regarded Chinese English speakers including herself in their own right, but highly possibly because that she perceived her oral English close to the native norms.

6.2.4.1.2 Accent

4 out of 14 positively talked about their accents. Participant 2 (Extract 36) is an interesting example.

Extract 36

1	P2 : So (1) if you say (.) for talking with British people, they (.) they (.) it's easy
2	for them to figure out that I don't grow up here in this place. This is (.)
3	obvious, you can find the difference. But if I'm in the US I can pretend to
4	be a native speaker @@.

Although she did not directly say that her accent is close to GA, we can still infer from the above extract that she was confident about her GA-like accent (ll. 3-4). This somehow indicates her positive attitude to her own GA-like accent as in our previous discussion on language learning experience, she expressed a strong positive attitude to her English teacher's GA-like accent and her willingness and experience imitating her teacher's accent. In this sense, her laughter at the end may indicate a sense of achievement and proudness since her accent was close to GA. Similar to Participant 9, she directed positive comments to her own English accent, not because she had the awareness to challenge the 'NES ownership', but because she perceived her own English accent to be close to that of GA.

Participant 9 raised another interesting point that the people's self-reflection is rather subjective, which might be different from the reality. When we talked about accent, she said that she started to feel that her accent has changed according to different language environment. She had discussed this issue with her husband who is a NES. She (Extract 37) then shared their conversation with me.

Extract 37

1 P9 : I think I'm the kind of person who (.) is easily influenced by the environment.
2 (1) It's not about being influenced by certain TV series or something. I
3 mean, (1) I may change my accent when I communicate with different
4 people. (1) I (.) I don't like it. However, err (2) speaking of this, I got an
5 interesting answer. (1) I talked to my husband one time that "*It's not so*
6 *nice that I always change my accent.*" And my husband said: "*Don't worry*
7 *you always have a Chinese accent. You never change.*" So <@>this is just
8 (.) there are differences</@> between your own <@>feelings and other
9 people's feelings</@>.

As shown above, she was not happy with her accent change (ll. 3-4) while her husband considered her accent still as the Chinese accent which has never changed (ll. 6-7). She pointed out that there is a difference between people's own feelings and other people's feelings (ll. 8). She laughed a lot after quoting her husband's comments on her accent (ll. 7-9). Her laughter may indicate a sense of astonishment to hear an entirely different voice on her accent change. Nevertheless, this example indicates that people may misjudge their English either positively or negatively since their self-assessed judgement could be rather subjective.

In our later discussion in relation to other international academics' English, she showed great acceptance with different accents and considered every accent "*exists for a reason*" and people need to '*calmly accept them*'. Although she considered the fact that native accent might be beneficial for academics' work, which will be discussed in more detail in 6.2.4.3, she did react positively to various accent and NNEs. Therefore, we may infer that her attitude to her accent might be similar with Participant 14 above. She has realised and possibly accepted ELF as a phenomenon, however, she still cognitively considered that native accent is better for their academic career.

Unlike Participant 9 and 2, Participant 12 (Extract 38) appreciated her 'non-standard' accent because of its uniqueness.

Extract 38

- 1 YX: What do you think being native-like may mean to international academics in
2 their academic work?
- 3 P12: Well, it absolutely helps a lot, and I think the most important aspect is that
4 you may feel more confident and hm::m (.) but actually I (.) I don't want
5 (.) my accent (.) be like (.) like no one can recognise that I'm a foreign
6 people. Because I think, because my field is (.) focuses more on, we don't
7 focus on the UK. Because I think, sometimes as (.) having a foreign accent
8 I think, for me, I'm very proud of it @@@@
- 9 YX: Oh! @@@
- 10 P12: Yeah-yeah-yeah, I really am. I always think so. because I (.) I don't know,
11 because I think, this is my (.) my speciality, and this is, I think, I (.) er::r,
12 this is one of the reasons, that I can have this position. Because I think, this
13 position is very good, and the *fellowship* I used to have was very good as
14 well. And I think, one of the important reasons is that I (.) I am not a native
15 speaker, I'm a foreigner, (1) and, (.) and, for my study area (.) it can (.) can
16 (.) can (2) <1> well @@@ </1>
- 17 YX: <1> Can be of help? </1>
- 18 P12: Yes, maybe to the University of Manchester, I can fill their er::r *gap* or
19 something. <2> And (.)<2>
- 20 YX: <2> Hmm </2>
- 21 P12: And I (.) and I (.) think I have an accent, and I think (.) I think that's cute @@@
22 <3> @@@@ </3>
- 23 YX: <3> Ah! @@ </3>

According to the above extract, Participant 12 directly expressed her feeling about her own accent as 'cute' (ll. 21) and she was 'proud of' her accent (ll. 8). She explained that she felt very proud because she can fill the gap and contribute to her field as a 'foreigner' (ll. 15). That is to say, she considered her 'foreign accent' as a special characteristic of her which shows her identity and speciality in the UK academia. She laughed a lot when she made this point (ll. 8, 16, 21-22). Her laughter may indicate that she considered this point as somehow unusual and strange. However, she showed a contrasting attitude that she also negatively reacted to her accent when she talked

about speaking in the public during a conference or seminar in our later conversation (Extract 39).

Extract 39

1 P12: well, I think (.) I think it may (.) may (.) for me, I think the most important
2 thing is, for example, in a (.) very important *seminar* (.) and people ask
3 questions, especially (.) for example, most of them are Britons. And the
4 one presenting is Briton as well. But you, as a foreign people, when you
5 ask questions or gave your opinions, and at that time I felt (.) felt (.) felt
6 challenging. Because sometimes (.) because (.) like during the whole
7 presentation, and others, I mean (.) those Britons, they ask questions
8 normally, but suddenly there is a foreign guy who wants to ask questions,
9 <1> especially, with some accent </1>.

As shown above, Participant 12 thought it was challenging speaking with an accent in the conference (ll. 8-9). This attitude is different from what she said previously in Extract 38. It could possibly be that she was *affectively* positive to her accent as she believed that her non-native accent was cute and represented her speciality and achievement which is contributing to the field as a NNES. On the other hand, she was *cognitively* and *conatively* negative to her accent as she experienced psychological difficulties speaking in her ‘non-native’ accent in front of NESs and was cautious about speaking with an accent in public which does her no good but simply indicating a different identity with the majority (ll. 3-5, & 8). In this sense, the language environment may have negative influence on academics’ language attitude, and relevant behaviours (intentions). This issue will be further addressed in 6.2.5.2.

To sum up, among limited number of participants who were positive towards their own English, many of them still attached great importance to the ability of ‘being native-like’. In other words, it is difficult to assume a potential positive attitude towards non-native Englishes simply from their positive reactions on their own English since the underlying reason is very likely to be that they consider their English as close to the native varieties of English, or they may have a rather complicated attitude.

6.2.4.2 Negative attitudes

Different from the quantitative findings presented in Section 5.2.1 that academics showed a general positive attitude towards their language proficiency, 8 participants reacted negatively to their English competence and 10 participants negatively commented on their accents. This might relate to relatively short working experience of these interviewees. As illustrated in 5.2.1, Chinese academics with more working experience are more likely to consider themselves as more proficient. However, the majority of interviewees are early-career researchers with limited working experience (less than 5 years) (see Appendix 11).

6.2.4.2.1 Competence

Some participants reacted negatively to their language competence and stressed their ‘bad language habit’ in oral English. An example is Participant 6 (Extract 40), who considered his mother language influenced his English and he wanted to correct his ‘bad habit’ in using English which was influenced by his first language.

Extract 40

1	P6: Well, I definitely want to speak English more (.) <i>natively</i> . (1) Like, I can (.) get
2	rid of the bad habits (.) which (.) were brought about by my mother
3	language, Chinese.

4

As shown above, Participant 6 wanted to be more native to get rid of the influence of his mother language in his oral English. In our previous discussion about his academic experience, he considered his English as ‘*unclear*’ and ‘*not fluent*’. The above Extract 40 somehow reveals the reason why he had these comments on his English. He used ‘*bad habits*’ (ll. 2) to describe the language traits of Chinese English, which is, as discussed in 6.2.3.2.2, the nativised English in China (see also 2.3.1.1). This strong tone indicated that he considered his Chinese-influenced English as non-native/non-standard or not legitimate. 6.2.3.2.2

Participant 8 (Extract 41) had the same thoughts with Participant 6 and gave a more explicit explanation regarding why he reacted negatively on his own English.

Extract 41

1 P8: Yes, I'm not the kind of person that, like (.) have strong self-discipline, or focus
2 on self-improvement. I have developed some bad habits in English
3 unconsciously, and the improvement of my English is (.) the progress is
4 very slow. This is the 9th year since I've been here, but until now (.) I can't
5 say that (.) my English has no problem at all. Well, I seldom use English. I
6 don't need to use English frequently during work. I don't need to talk too
7 much, and in daily life, I lack the (1) err (.) the practice. That is to say, for
8 now, my English proficiency is sufficient (.) for basic communications, but
9 it's far from the native level.

In Extract 41, Participant 8 considered his English as much worse than NESs although he was competent to communicate with others and achieve mutual understandings (ll. 7-9). The '*bad habits*' (ll. 2) he mentioned is possibly the language traits of the nativised Chinese English, as discussed earlier in Extract 40. He felt ashamed that his English has not improved much although he had been in the UK for 9 years (ll. 3-5) due to the lack of self-discipline and self-improvement in terms of practicing his English (ll. 1-2, & 7). His explanations showed that he thought highly of being native-like in English. In this sense, a 'good habit' to him could be rigidly following the native norms of English. However, when he introduced his work at the beginning of the interview, he pointed out that he seldom had a chance to communicate with others. His job made him '*stay at the laboratory and work individually*'. A dilemma could be found that he wanted to practice his English especially in speaking to be more native-like while he did not have much chance because of his job. The question is, why he still wanted to improve his English to achieve a native level (ll. 9) since it is sufficient for daily communication in his work and daily life (ll. 7-8), let alone the fact that he can hardly practice his English with NESs as he mentioned at the beginning of our interview that he worked with a group of international academics including his supervisor. It seems that he did not consider himself as a legitimate English speaker which may indicate a sense of inferiority because of being a NNES.

Participant 11 has similar thoughts with Participant 8, but he pointed out that he had given up fixing up his grammatical errors or pronunciation to focus on the correctness or accuracy of the teaching content. He even used swear words to express how upset he was to accept the fact that he can never reach an errorless level in terms of grammar and tense, which indicates a strong negative attitude towards his own English. However, when I asked whether his student complained about this, he answered with an affirmative tone that no one ever complained about his English. It can also be inferred that he seems to tacitly prove that issues such as pronunciation, grammar and tense can hardly influence students' understanding, so that he put less focus on these issues. Similar to Participant 8, he seemed to hold a standard language ideology and failed to regard himself as a legitimate language user since he was negative on his 'non-nativeness' although it is sufficient for his academic work.

Besides, Participant 9 (Extract 42) stressed her dissatisfaction with her writing skills by comparing her own writing with native speakers' work.

Extract 42

1	P9: I don't think there's a problem in terms of logic. There's no problem in logic. I
2	(.) I (.) I think no matter it's myself (.) or other Chinese academics I know
3	(1) we (.) we don't have any logical issues. It's just (.) just (1) for
4	expressions, we are not that (1) err (.) <i>native and comprehensive</i> .
5	YX: So do you think your articles may cause any misunderstandings for other
6	scholars?
7	P9: No no (.) no. But stiff.
8	YX: You mean they may think the article is stiff, but they can understand the
9	meaning the article conveys?
10	P9: Yes, it's no problem for expressions of course. Because (.) for engineering (.)
11	science and engineering (.) err (.) err (1) <i>precisely describe[ing] something</i>
12	(.) <i>that is essential</i> . But (.) well (.) err (.) if I want to improve from 60 points
13	out of 100 to 85 points, and if I can (1) very (.) err (1) make it <i>well-readed</i> ,
14	<i>it's (.) it's pleasant to read about it, or 90% it (.) it is enjoyable</i> . This is a
15	totally different concept.

Participant 9, as shown in Extract 42, was negative about her writing ability in terms of the language as she considered her article as intelligible but ‘*stiff*’ (ll. 7). She gave a low mark on her writing (ll. 12-13) as it was not native and comprehensive (ll. 4). Notably, the mark of 60 normally means just a pass according to the Chinese educational system. She used her husband, who is a NES, as an example in our later conversation. She showed a strong positive attitude to her husband’s writing, and she considered that she would never reach his level, or in her words, “*Writing is not something you can improve by reading more articles and news. It cannot be improved by practice. It is something you practice from childhood*”. It is not surprising that she came up with this statement considering her native-bound attitude and low IELTS score in writing as discussed in 6.2.4.1. This statement somehow explains her definition of NESs in 6.2.1.1 that she showed a sense of uncertainty since she felt speakers from outer circle countries such as India should also be considered as NESs because of their good writing skill. Nevertheless, we can infer from her words that she considered herself would never reach the level she satisfied, which is being native-like. In this sense, she may always work in UK academia with a negative attitude towards her writing. This negative attitude, in turn, may further influence her academic activities, or psychological state. Influences of language attitude will be further discussed in 6.2.5.

It is necessary to note that Mandarin was used in our interview while she frequently switched into English during the interview. In the above Extract 50, she switched into English from line 11 to 14. Some ‘different’ use of English words such as ‘*well-readed*’ (ll. 13) can be identified. She gave further explanation and description afterwards. It is difficult to tell whether she added more explanations because she has realised this ‘difference’, or ‘*bat habits*’ according to Participant 8 and 6 as discussed previously. Nevertheless, this could be an example of what Participant 8 pointed out in Extract 49 that Chinese academics’ English is sufficient to achieve mutual understanding but not ‘*native*’ (ll. 8) and has some ‘*bad habits*’ (ll. 2).

Apart from indicating their language attitude directly, some participants expressed their negative attitudes towards their own English in an indirect way. For example,

when Participant 4 (Extract 43) was asked to comment on his students' English, he answered as in the following extract.

Extract 43

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 | YX: Do you have any comments on their English? |
| 2 | P4: They (.) I'd be very grateful if they don't have any complaints on my English |
| 3 | <1> @@ </1> |
| 4 | YX: <1> @@@@ </1> |

According to Extract 43, Participant 4 was not confident about and reacted negatively towards his own English as he was concerned that his students might not be satisfied with his English (ll. 2). We both laughed afterwards because he made a pun that phrases 'having comments' and 'making complaints' could be expressed in the same way in Mandarin Chinese. Interestingly, in our later discussion on using language in academic settings, he (Extract 44) also mentioned his 'bad habit' which is to always stick to the correct grammar.

Extract 44

- | | |
|----|--|
| 1 | P4: However, err (.) it seems to be an instinctual response (1) to (.) to care about |
| 2 | grammars. Like to correct the singular and plural form, or the (.) use of 'he' |
| 3 | 'she'. These are normal. But (.) it seems your listeners may not really care |
| 4 | about this. And on the contrary, I (.) I personally think (.) because (.) caring |
| 5 | these grammars may influence your expressions. Like (.) like you may miss |
| 6 | the important point of what you said. You (1) you may mess up your |
| 7 | sentence. If you (.) if you simply speak without considering the grammar, |
| 8 | it might be better. Because you can focus more clearly on the key point you |
| 9 | want to make. But this is a habit for many of us. It's difficult to change, |
| 10 | and I don't want to change. |

Participant 4 gave examples such as the misuse of singular and plural forms of words and the misuse of 'he' and 'she' (ll. 2-3), which echo the '*bad habits*', or Chinese-influenced English pointed out by Participant 6 and 8 previously. He considered it as an '*instinctual response*' to pay extra attention to the correctness of grammar (ll. 1), in

other words, to get rid of the influence of their L1 (i.e., Chinese) to achieve the correctness in English. This echoes the previous EFA findings in 5.3.2 that the importance of language accuracy is one of the influential factors that influences Chinese academics' language attitude. However, he stressed that this habit may hinder his communication and make it difficult to focus on expressing the content (ll. 5-7). That is, he realised that the obsession with 'correctness' during communications was not helpful at all whereas achieving mutual understanding should be the goal of communications. Unlike other participants, he did not use whether his English is close to nativeness as a standard. His standard seems to be the intelligibility of the conversation.

However, a contradictory attitude can still be identified. He also stated that he did not want to change this 'bad habit' (ll. 10). As revealed in 6.2.1.2, Participant 4 still considered that native English is at a higher level. That would be the reason why he did not want to change his habit of focusing on the grammatical correctness although he has already realised the deficiency of solely keeping align with 'correct grammar' in a conversation. This attachment to correctness and nativeness may be related to his English language learning experience since he further pointed out in our later discussion that he only learned '*vocabulary, grammar and many embarrassing expressions*' at school and he did not regard it as a '*real English language learning*' process. Notably, the '*embarrassing expressions*' he mentioned could possibly be related to the example Participant 2 gave previously about Chinese learners' rigid use of template sentences such as "*how are you?*" "*I'm fine thank you*". It could be inferred that his 'bad habit' was very likely to be cultivated at the early language learning stage when the focuses of teachers and textbooks were mainly on language rules instead of language use.

6.2.4.2.2 Accent

Half of interviewees (7 out of 14) showed negative attitudes towards their own English in terms of accent. Opposite to Participant 4 discussed above who paid extra attention to the correctness of grammar, Participant 2 (Extract 45) 'sacrificed' the 'correctness' to achieve mutual understanding during communication in terms of accent.

Extract 45

1 P2: I think, now I feel that (.) this accent doesn't influence our daily communication
2 anyway. Because first, our universities are very international, I believe the
3 University of Edinburgh is the same. And people are (1) no matter they are
4 *native speakers* or not, (2) er(:)r *native speakers* are (.) very used to
5 communicating with international speakers. And I (.) I (.) what I said just
6 now about accent or formatted usage of English, actually people are getting
7 used to those as well. For example, Chinese have certain habits in terms of
8 grammar, (1) and British people start to accept these as well. So sometimes
9 when Chinese speakers use (.) use some (.) well sometimes I (.) including
10 myself, I feel sometimes I use (.) use, for example, during the
11 communication, I have a non-standard pronunciation, or accent. But
12 gradually people can (.) they can understand what I'm talking about. So I
13 think accent (1) err (.) is not (.) is not really a restriction for your (.)
14 communication. It's not a big barrier I think.

As shown from the above extract, Participant 2 emphasised the importance of communication rather than accent itself because of the international nature of the universities and speakers (ll. 1-2). She also mentioned that she '*may not think much about [her] pronunciation as long as people understand*' in our earlier conversation. She gave another reason that '*accent is not a restriction for communication*' because '*British people start to accept*' the different uses of English by Chinese speakers (ll. 7-8). She seemed to stress the importance of intelligibility among speakers. However, the concessions she made to achieve mutual understanding do not necessarily indicate a positive reaction to her accent and other various accents as she still considered these accents as '*non-standard*' (ll. 11). Notably, she revealed an interesting point that NESs started to accept the diverse use of English by NNESs. However, NNESs themselves, such as Participant 4 as mentioned in the previous section, may not accept themselves in terms of the nativised nature of their English.

Some interviewees mentioned that they were aware of their accent and made efforts to change their accent. However, they found difficult to get rid of the influence of their

mother language. For instance, as discussed in 6.2.3.1.3, Participant 3 (Extract 46) was not satisfied with his accent even in Mandarin.

Extract 46

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | YX: So, do you think your accent has changed to some extent? |
| 2 | P3: No there's no (.) change at all. I can't even change my accent in mandarin |
| 3 | @@@@. I had given up already! It's no change at all. So I said (.) that |
| 4 | accent (.) for us is (.) is really (.) something that I wouldn't consider |
| 5 | anymore. (2) you may pay more attention to it because your English is (.) |
| 6 | is better than me. |

Although Participant 3 in Extract 46 did not directly point out that he intentionally tried to change his accent, it can be somehow inferred from what he said such as '*had given up already*' and '*wouldn't consider it anymore*' which indicate that he may have tried to change his accent in the past (ll. 3, & 4-5). He was negative to both his competence and accent as he later mentioned that researchers who major in English related area such as the interviewer herself may focus more on the accent because their English is better than him (ll. 5). This point reveals his negative attitude that he might consider accent as a bonus for those who have higher English language proficiency. Therefore, since he 'lacked' English proficiency according to his own perception, he did not need, or even deserved to think about issues relating to accent, which is considered by him as a higher-level issue.

Moreover, as mentioned before in 6.2.4.1, participants sometimes may change their attitudes because of the environmental change. Participant 10 (Extract 47) explicitly explained how his negative attitude towards his own accent changed.

Extract 47

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | P10 : Err I think, my greatest feeling is that (.) because we cared much about our |
| 2 | accent. Especially when we (.) err (1) because there were lots of <i>English</i> |
| 3 | <i>corners</i> when we were in universities or something. There were actually |
| 4 | full of Chinese people who practiced English with other Chinese people. |
| 5 | But sometimes you got several foreigners (1) in the English corner, and |

6 you may think (.) wow! Like you may feel that (1) oh our accent (.) is so
7 strong! And (.) you may feel (1) feel that your English is very ‘low’, and
8 this kind of feelings. But I think when I came here, I felt that the biggest
9 problem was not your accent but how you express yourself clearly to let
10 others understand you. Many people have an accent here. I think (.) if only
11 you have strong confidence to speak (.) although you may speak slowly,
12 (1) I don't think it's a big issue. If only you can express your ideas clearly
13 and when you speak, you (.) you may not really focus on grammar or
14 something, to make it accurate as in writing. But you (.) even (.) actually I
15 think if you can speak clearly about the *keywords*, I think others (.) others
16 can understand. The most important thing is (.) to communicate with
17 others, I think. (1) hmm, this is my understanding after I came here.

As shown above in Extract 47, at the beginning, Participant 10 pointed out that he felt his English accent quite ‘*strong*’ and ‘*low*’ (ll. 7) compared with NESs. It is worth mentioning that word ‘*low*’ is a Chinese way of English use which means bad and weak. He also mentioned previously that he cared about the correctness of pronunciation and grammar when he was in China. However, he changed his mind and considered mutual understanding as more important when he worked in the UK academic settings. In his words, he “*used to think that (my) English has to be grammatically correct and I should pronounce accurately. For example, ‘he’, ‘she’, ‘is’, ‘I’, ‘am’ and these kinds of things. But I think it’s more important to express yourself clearly although your grammar and pronunciation may not be accurate.*” This attitude is similar with Participant 2 above that she regarded the intelligibility as more important than the correctness of pronunciation.

He (Extract 48) further explained in a more explicit way on how his attitude was influenced by the environment.

Extract 48

1 P10: No, no I’m not afraid of speaking in public. I think the environment is very
2 important. Because everybody is like this (1) right? Because if you are in
3 a Chinese university, and you meet two British guys, and you may think

4 their accents are standard. Then you feel your own accent differs greatly
5 from them (.) right? So you may feel, you may have a strong sense that
6 your accent is @@@ but if you are (.) are in a highly international
7 environment (1) where people's *accent* (1) well their *accents* are like a
8 spectrum (.) which are not that concentrated (1) the:n (2) you know what I
9 mean? <1> @@@ </1>
10 YX: <1> @@@@ </1> Hmm I understand yes.

As shown above, the most important reason why Participant 10 changed his attitude towards his own accent is that he used an example to indicate his possible feelings if he talks with NESs in China (ll. 2-6). It seems that he replaced a potential negative description of his accent by laughter which indicates a sense of embarrassment (ll. 6). He also pointed out that he worked in an international university afterwards with lots of international speakers who have different accents (ll. 6 & 9). His assimilated various non-native accents to a light spectrum in a sense that there are various colours (visible lights) displayed on a light spectrum. That is, accents are not narrowed to a limited number of standard ones but contains a wide range of varieties.

It is worth mentioning that in our earlier discussion, Participant 10 shared the change of his understanding of English language. At his early language learning stage, he learned American English at school and considered it as the only English standard. During his work in Hong Kong (see Appendix 11), he realised that, in his own words, “*there were actually two types of English*”. He was not aware of various English varieties and accents until he went to the UK. His story reveals that, as discussed in 6.2.3.1.2, his native-bound attitude may be influenced by his early language learning experience while his change of attitude may be affected by his ELF experience with NNEs.

6.2.4.3 *Perceived advantages of being ‘native-like’*

Substantial discussion took place in nearly all interviews around interviewees’ perceived advantages if their English is more native-like. 13 out of 14 participants expressed their willingness to be more native-like in terms of their own English. Two main reasons were identified and will be discussed in this section. First, the potential

benefit of being native-like in English in terms of interviewees' academic work; second, the potential benefit of being native-like in English in terms of interviewees' social activities.

6.2.4.3.1 Academic work

8 interviewees shared their options on their perceived advantages of being native-like in English on their academic work. For instance, Participant 5 generally indicated that being native-like would be beneficial for his academic career such as getting promoted. He was not satisfied with his position and further pointed out that his postdoc position is '*kind of between a PhD student and a formal position*'. He considered that being native-like would help him to get promoted and '*obtain a permanent job in the university such as lecturer and professor*'. This is coincided with the quantitative findings that academics with research-focused roles have relatively negative attitude towards non-native norms of English including their own (see 5.4.2). More specifically, Participant 11 (Extract 49), as another example, gave a particular example and stressed the importance of being native-like for funding applications.

Extract 49

1	P11 : Err (.) if you (.) err want to apply for the (.) err (.) <i>funding</i> , you have to be
2	interviewed by the funder. And for interviews (.) well (1) language is very
3	important. Like (.) whether you can be (.) like (.) more ' <i>freestyle</i> ' (.) like
4	native speakers, rather than (.) err (.) be found that you (.) err (.) you
5	prepared your speaking beforehand and recited the content. Yes they may
6	have impressions on you. Yes yes.

As Extract 49 shows, Participant 11 considered that being native-like means a better impression of funders, which is beneficial for funding applications (ll. 5). He regarded '*freestyle*', which is a frequently used word by Chinese people as the word '*low*' mentioned in Extract 47 (see 6.2.4.2.2), as a better way than preparing in advance on how to express the ideas and recite it (ll. 3-5). This echoes the discussion of the 'naturalness' in 6.2.1.2, which is related to language competence. It seems that Participant 11 regarded that being native-like in English language more important than expressing the content. However, it is difficult to see whether such concerns really

exist or were simply influenced by Participant 11's sense of inferiority working as a NNEs in a native English-speaking country since it is difficult to infer the real thoughts from the funders.

Moreover, Participant 11 (Extract 50) further expressed that being native-like also has advantages in teaching.

Extract 50

1	P11: And (.) and (.) and another point is (.) because for teaching (1) yes teaching
2	roles has (.) has (.) really high requirements for (.) language proficiency.
3	Because you face a group of (.) err (.) students with no basic knowledge of
4	it. And you have to (1) explain profound technical concepts in simple
5	languages. And this (.) this is not (.) well (.) for (.) for a <i>non-native speaker</i> ,
6	it is really a big pressure. Because for me, as I have this (.) kind of (.)
7	teaching experience, I have something to say about this. So I (.) I spent
8	much more time (.) preparing for a lesson (.) comparing with those (.) those
9	native academics.

According to Extract 50 above, Participant 11 found it difficult to explain the technical concept to his class (ll. 4-5) and used much more time to prepare for the class compared with native speakers (ll. 7-9) because of the lack of language proficiency (ll. 2). However, the contrast could be found that when he previously talked about his academic challenges, he differentiated the 'technical English' and 'daily English' of which the former one is completely no problem while the later one is absolutely problematic for him. The 'English' mentioned by him in the above Extract 60, was very likely to be the 'technical English' as he talked about the teaching experience in the classroom (issues related to the 'daily English' will be discussed in the next section). He somehow contradicted himself that on the one hand, he considered his 'technical English' as 'no problem at all'. On the other hand, he still found difficult to explain ideas and concepts because of the lack of language proficiency. There are two possible explanations. First, it might be because he felt embarrassed to expose his difficulties with the interviewer at the beginning of the interview but felt more relaxed and comfortable to share his real thoughts afterwards. It may also be because that he

subjectively felt the lack of proficiency and confidence being a NNES in the class although he may actually be able to explain these technical concepts to his students. Nevertheless, a strong positive attitude towards being native-like in academic settings can be identified.

Speaking of academic challenges, Participant 3 (Extract 51) mentioned another interesting point that being native-like is beneficial and important for academics as this may make the native speaker more comfortable to listen to.

Extract 51

- | | |
|----|---|
| 1 | YX: Have you ever encountered any difficulties in terms of language? |
| 2 | P3: Yes of course, definitely. This is (.) err (.) I have problems in listening, |
| 3 | speaking, reading and writing @@@@. This is (.) definitely, after all, I'm |
| 4 | not a, a (2) <1> <i>native</i> </1> |
| 5 | YX: <1> Native speaker? </1> |
| 6 | P3: Yes, yes, and being <i>native</i> is actually important. This is, well, in terms of |
| 7 | language, there are big differences. |
| 8 | YX: What do you mean by being native is important? |
| 9 | P3: Well English is actually, in the UK, if you want to play a key role in the UK |
| 10 | academia, your English should, should, well it's not like you (.) the ability |
| 11 | to communicate is not enough. It's like, like how to speak English more, |
| 12 | more, make British people more comfortable listening to you. |

As shown above, Participant 3 considered being native-like is important. He deemed that only being able to communicate is not enough for international academics. It would be better if international academics can make British people feel more '*comfortable listening to you*' (ll. 11 & 12). He further pointed out that it would be much easier '*to be promoted from postdoc to lecturer*' in our later conversation. This statement echoes Participant 5's opinion discussed previously above, and Participant 3 also considered that being native-like in English is important to work in an English-speaking country. However, an interesting point could be found that at the beginning of our interview, Participant 3 introduced his work and people he worked with that nearly all academics he worked with and students he supervised were non-native

speakers of English. In this sense, he seldom had the chance to talk with native speakers in his work. This makes his previous statement a self-contradiction that although he had more experience communicating with international speakers during work, he still wanted to be native-like to make his potential native listeners more comfortable. This indicates his strong attachment to native norms as he automatically considered being native-like as beneficial without a second thought on his actual working environment and the real need. This may be due to the lack of teaching experience as he assumed that students in the class are all NESs. The case of Participant 3 could be a possible explanation for the previous quantitative findings (5.4.2; 5.4.3) that academics with research-focused roles are relatively more negative to non-native English norms as their attitudes are likely to be based on their preconceived standard English ideology instead of sufficient GE experience (e.g., experience with students with diverse language background). Moreover, Participant 3 is likely to be in the '*Status and self-image focused*' group (5.4.2) that he considered language issues negatively from an ideological perspective because of the lack of confidence, language practice and communication opportunities in a research-focused role.

Generally, interviewees' attitudes on the 'native-like' English seem to be closely related to their academic career development and experiences such as funding application, promotion, and teaching. However, these potential advantages seem subjective to some extent which might possibly be influenced by their preconceived standard language ideology.

6.2.4.3.2 Social activities

Apart from academic work, 8 participants also stressed the advantages of being native-like in terms of social activities such as networking. They indicated that being native-like might more or less help them in building up relationships with others and participating more successfully and confidently in their daily communications. For instance, Participant 12 (Extract 52) considered academic communication was not as problematic as daily talks.

Extract 52

1 P12: ...in terms of academic working, for example, in *seminars* or *conferences*, I
2 need to communicate with others (1) like academic issues (.) I don't have a
3 big problem with it. But for example, err (2) sometimes in social
4 circumstances, like we go (1) to the bar, or to (.) Christmas dinner, or some
5 other occasions that we have dinner together, and at that time, for example,
6 that (1) that *social setting*, it maybe (1) maybe problematic. For example,
7 the jokes my colleagues (.) made (.) or some (1) kind of slangs or something
8 else. I (1) I just can't understand. Yes (3) and (1) yes. I was frustrated at
9 that time.

Participant 12 is working with a lot of British academics and has relatively little chance to contact with other international academics except for another Chinese professor in her department. Therefore, she had a lot of chance to communicate with NESs in her daily life. She pointed out in Extract 52 that she found it problematic to understand NESs in their daily gathering because she can hardly understand their jokes and slangs (ll. 7-8). However, this issue seems to be related more to cultural differences rather than English language per se.

Participant 11 has a similar situation with Participant 12. Participant 11 (Extract 53) considered his 'daily English' problematic which hindered his communication with his colleagues:

Extract 53

1 P11: For example, with my colleagues, British people, they like (1) what's it called?
2 *British liquid dinner* or something. For example, they like (1) well, after
3 work, they like to go out and, err (1) to have some drink and chat er::r and
4 the topics are more about our daily life. For example, the people you met
5 recently, house renting issues, er:r something like this. Then the things you
6 saw, the concert you've been to and this kind of stuff. ...And (2) the singers
7 you like. So I have no idea about all these. Plus er::r the (.) the they er::r
8 well in that kind of situation, well my English (2) is not sufficient enough
9 to (2) so (1) well (.) <1> so </1>
10 YX: <1> About </1> the language issues <2> and </2>

11 P11: <2> Yes yes, </2> language, very insufficient, so (2) I will, I feel it difficult
12 to communicate, er:r a (1) bit strenuous. Yes (1) yes yes.

As shown above, Participant 11 felt difficult to communicate with his colleagues after work (ll. 3-7) and considered that he lacked the language competence (ll. 11). Notably, the interviewer intended to say ‘*the language issue and [the culture differences]*’ (ll. 10) to try to explain this situation. However, Participant 11 interrupted the interviewer when he heard language issues and kept saying yes to show his agreement and reiterated his insufficient English language proficiency afterwards (ll. 11-12). This in some sense indicates that Participant 11 automatically blamed himself for being insufficient in English language that caused the communicative difficulties. A lack of confidence could be identified to some extent.

He (Extract 54) gave a more specific explanation for his language-only focus on this issue.

Extract 54

1 P11: ... for *networking* (.) being more native-like may help you to show your
2 abilities be-be-better, to recommend yourself. Err (.) yes and actually
3 because (.) well (.) well in fact academia is (.) is essentially a circle (1) and
4 (.) er::r in this circle, popularity is very important. And if you (.) you can't
5 speak well (.) actually it's difficult to establish a very (.) very great
6 popularity. Yes and then you can't open up the situation. So (.) indeed...

According to Extract 54, Participant 11 explained that the lack of competence in ‘daily English’ had a bad influence on his networking build-up and relationship establishment with others. Therefore, he might lose the ‘*popularity*’ in the ‘academic circle’ (ll. 3-4) which made his academic life difficult to move on. Similar to Participant 12 above, it seems that Participant 11 also automatically considered their communications with NESs speaking of ‘being native-like’. One possible reason could be that both Participants 11 and 12 are mainly working with British colleagues. However, as mentioned before in 6.2.4.3.1, academics who have abundant working

experiences with NNEs (e.g., Participant 3) also seem to only consider the circumstances of communicating with NESs.

Generally speaking, interviewees' positive attitude towards nativeness in terms of using English can be identified no matter whether they work with NESs or NNEs. They took it for granted that being native-like will be beneficial for their academic work and enhance their abilities in daily communications with colleagues. Just as what Participant 7 said: '*being native will do no harm anyway*'. However, the problem is, as discussed in previous sections, most of them did not consider their English as native-like or close to a native level. This means that the advantages they pointed out above somehow are equivalent to their academic goals which are not yet achieved. What is more, these goals can hardly be achieved as long as their English is not native-like. In this sense, the above-mentioned advantages may be transferred into academic challenges they may face and the pressure they may be under when participating in academic settings with their native-bound attitudes and non-native English. The next section will discuss issues relevant to English language use in the UK academic settings.

6.2.5 Using English in UK academic settings

All interviewees discussed much about their language attitude change/differences in relation to their use of English and language experiences in UK academic settings. These changes/differences in language attitude have some influences on them correspondingly. This section deals with possible associative factors and effects of my interviewees' language attitude (change) in the academic settings of UK.

6.2.5.1 Differences in disciplines

10 out of 14 Interviewees stressed the different language requirements among various disciplines and academics in social science noted a higher language requirement. Coincidentally with the quantitative data that academics in social science seem to be stricter to their English language hence rated lower on their language ability than those in natural science (see 5.2.1), the qualitative data seems to provide further explanation of this issue. Notably, according to my interviewees, there are no specific language

requirement provided by the universities. The language requirements mentioned by interviewees were not the official requirements set by the institutions but their perceived requirements for international academics. Specifically, a big difference can be identified between natural science and social science according to interviewees. For instance, Participant 9 (Extract 55) differentiated her discipline (engineering) with social science.

Extract 55

1	P9: However, for engineering, err, <i>what makes the final call is your academic and</i>
2	<i>research capability and experience.</i> We are not (.) like some subjects after
3	all (.) err for example, err (.) <i>media, news, er:r legal err account you know,</i>
4	<i>you have to present yourself in front of other people. we (.) we can go on</i>
5	<i>behind [the] scene and lock ourselves in the lab to get some data. It's quite</i>
6	<i>different.</i>

Participant 9 indicated in Extract 55 that disciplines such as engineering do not require much communication and frequent use of the English language (ll. 5). She also seemed to suggest that the language requirement of engineering is much lower than the other disciplines such as ‘*media*’ and ‘*news*’ (ll. 3). This can be confirmed by her later statement when she commented on her own English proficiency. As discussed in previous Section 6.2.4.1, she expressed an imbalance among her language skills. She considered that her strength was oral English while she lacked lexical resource and writing skills. She further added the following point in Extract 56.

Extract 56

1	P9: So (2) hm::m (2) this is (.) the <i>imbalance</i> I think. (2) If (.) If I'm good at
2	everything, I might, (1) I might not choose engineering as my major.

It is inferred that the reason she chose to study engineering was at least partly because of her dissatisfaction with her own English language since she considered the language requirement of engineering is lower than other social sciences disciplines.

Participant 7 (Extract 57) shared similar thoughts that he considered the communication between his colleagues and him can be relying on ‘*formulas*’ and ‘*chemical structures*’.

Extract 57

1 P7 : That is to say, the language requirement is more or less (.) err (.) it may (.)
2 may (.) err (.) err (.) because as a (.) well you need certain language skills
3 (.) or to reach a certain level to communicate, or a background (.) but-but
4 actually (.) actually in terms of science, or engineering chain or something,
5 for me I think (.) well (.) *language* is (.) is not really a big barrier. Like
6 many things such as the formulas, or some chemical structures (2) they
7 themselves are languages too. Like those content and professional stuff, (1)
8 err people in our field may understand anyway. Of course, this may be
9 different from social science. It might be another story in social science.
10 (2) err yes, I think like science and engineering (.) I think (.) well (.) the
11 language requirement is not that (.) of course we have a (.) basic
12 requirement. But just not (.) like the requirement of social science (.) or
13 *art[s]*. Yes yes.

Participant 7 did not consider language as a barrier in his work as the ‘*formulas*’ and ‘*chemical structures*’ may speak for themselves. This echoes what Participant 11 named as ‘technical English’ in 6.2.4.3.1. He also stressed the difference between natural science and social science (ll. 8-9) and considered social science may have a higher language requirement for academics than natural science (ll. 11-12). Although Participant 7 considered his English sufficient for his work (ll. 5), it is worthwhile to note that in our later conversation, he showed a strong desire to improve his English that, in his own words, ‘*the more native-like, the better*’ to ‘*have better academic achievement*’. Considering his position (research assistant) and long working experience (19 years) (see Appendix 11), it seems that he was very likely to consider his English language ability in relation to his academic achievement. As discussed in 6.2.4.3, he may have similar belief that being native-like in English would be helpful for him to get better academic achievement although his non-native English is not considered a problem participating in academic settings.

Correspondingly, Participant 10 who works in the field of social science found it more difficult to use English in the field of social science and explained his difficulties by comparing researchers doing qualitative and quantitative studies.

Extract 58

1	P10 : I'm doing <i>qualitative studies</i> . But many of my friends are using (.) using (.)
2	models or <i>quantitative</i> [methods] (.) or work in (.) some discipline which
3	don't (.) don't have (.) er:r quite high (.) demand for language (1) like
4	science, engineering, and something like this. They don't have any
5	language problems at all because their (.) the application of language is
6	more like a (.) <i>Baguwen</i> (stereotyped writing). What materials they have,
7	what methods they use, and they simply write them down... But for me,
8	I'm working on (.) err (.) <i>political economy</i> , and I have to develop
9	<i>arguments</i> which are speculative. Yes yes (.) this requires (.) better
10	language skills.

In Extract 58, Participant 10 pointed out a higher language requirement for qualitative researchers and as a qualitative researcher himself, he had to face more difficult challenges in language use than those who use quantitative or work in an area which do not require high language competence (ll. 2-6). He used '*Baguwen*' (ll. 6) which is an ancient Chinese writing style to describe those who work in quantitative field and natural science. Basically, *Baguwen* (the eight-legged essay) is a stereotyped writing which has a strict format to follow which in his sense, may require lower language competency.

Relatively speaking, according to these interviewees, academics in social science seem to be under more pressure than academics in natural science in terms of their own language ability. Moreover, differences in disciplines may also influence interviewees' language attitudes towards other NNEs since they applied different standards to the English language use as discussed above.

6.2.5.2 Differences in academic activities

Apart from disciplinary differences, their language attitudes vary in different academic activities. More specifically, 12 out of 14 interviewees expressed that they turned to conform to native norms or use English more carefully in public and formal circumstances. Accordingly, these attitudes influence their reactions and behaviour in different academic activities. For instance, Participant 5 pointed out his thoughts in terms of speaking in normal and public circumstances and casual talk with colleagues. The following extract (Extract 59) shows his different attitudes towards using English in public and private settings.

Extract 59

1	P5 : Er:r (.) Every time I present, like (.) half an hour presentation. For me (.) I will
2	prepare it for at least two days. Yes yes, because (.) except for (.) actually
3	you can spend only two or three hours to write down the outline of your
4	presentation, but (.) you really have to (.) be familiar with what you are
5	going to say. Like to be grammatically correct, and not to be nervous on
6	the stage (.) and things like that. Anyway, it's all about (.) the right
7	expressions in English. I have to practice it over and over again. But for
8	daily communications, I don't really care that much. And I found that (.)
9	actually (.) that (.) what is it called (.) oh the language grammar, it's
10	actually not that important. Yes (.) actually English grammar is not very
11	important. Instead, some nouns and adjectives, just those keywords, (.) like
12	if only you speak these keywords out, and to let others know what you are
13	trying to say (.) I think this is enough. I don't really care that much about
14	English grammar in daily communications.

As shown above, Participant 5 made it very clear his two sets of attitudes influenced by different circumstances. On the one hand, he had a strong sense of correctness when he had to speak in public and formal activities such as giving presentations since he stressed the correctness of grammar and '*right expressions in English*' (ll. 6-7). This attitude brings negative impact to him that he had spent a lot more time in preparation by repeatedly practicing his speech (ll. 2-4. & 7). This somehow echoes the '*instinctual response*' mentioned by Participant 4 in 6.2.4.2 that sticking strictly to the correct grammar. One possible impact this attitude may have on him is, according to

Participant 4, that he may focus on the correctness of grammar, which may hinder the communication progress and information delivering. This may explain why, as Participant 5 further pointed out in our later interview, that he had spent extra time comparing with his native colleagues in preparation in terms of correcting his English language. Notably, 11 out of 14 of my interviewees made similar points in terms of spending extra time preparing for their academic work because of their non-nativeness in English.

On the other hand, his attitude was different with regard to speaking in relatively private settings. He considered the English grammar ‘*not that important*’ for ‘*daily communications*’ (ll. 8-10). Instead, he considered intelligibility more important than grammar (ll. 12-13). It is inferred from his statement that he felt more relaxed and comfortable in casual talking not only because it is casual, but also because he did not need to make effort to follow the ‘correct grammar’ but achieving mutual understanding. However, it cannot be assumed that there is an essential change in his language attitude because of different circumstances. As discussed in 6.2.2.1, his positive attitudes towards NNEs actually conveys a negative meaning and he still showed a native-bound attitude. Similarly, his positive attitude to the various use of English in casual settings seems to be merely more tolerant on mistakes because he simply ‘*did not really care*’ that much (ll. 13).

Similar to Participant 5, Participant 11 (Extract 60) gave a rank of the extent of academic activities he cared most in relation to English language.

Extract 60

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | YX: Is there any circumstances that you care more about your English language? |
| 2 | P11: Hmm, yes, hmm, at the most (.) the most important occasion, of course I <i>care</i> |
| 3 | more about it. For example, job interviews, yes I <i>care</i> more about it during |
| 4 | job interviews, and, so I have to do many <i>rehearsals</i> before interviews, and |
| 5 | I will (.) make recordings of the <i>rehearsals</i> , and listen to (.) my |
| 6 | pronunciation, and the intonation, this kind of stuff, I’ll (.) I’ll (.) need to |
| 7 | revise some, to intentionally revise. And the second one is (.) teaching. I |
| 8 | (.) errr, and then daily communications. For daily communications, I don't |

9	pay special attention to it. Of course, I hope (.) hope people would say (.)
10	that my English (.) is good, not (.) very (.) very <i>broken</i> , this kind of, yes.

As shown above, the first circumstance Participant 11 cared most is the job interview. As he pointed out, he had rehearsed many times and kept the records of it to correct his pronunciation and intonation afterwards (ll. 5-6). It is inferred that he did this in order to make himself sound more native-like and be correct in language during the interview. Second, he cared about his English when he gave lessons to students (ll. 7). As a result, as discussed in 6.2.4.3.1, Participant 11 spent a lot of time preparing for his lessons. Although he did not elaborate on his reasons, it can be assumed that he may also spend time correcting his English language to some extent according to his native-bound attitude discussed in 6.2.4.3.1. Third, he cared least in casual and daily communications (ll. 8). In this sense, he did not care much about ‘grammatical correctness’ and felt more relaxed as long as the mutual understanding was achieved.

However, similar to Participant 5, it still cannot be assumed that Participant 11 had a attitude change in casual settings (i.e., changed his positive attitude into negative towards native norms in casual settings). As discussed in 6.2.4.3 about Chinese academics’ perceived advantages of being native-like, it is more likely that they simply considered that there would be no consequence not conforming to native norms in casual settings. In this sense, the attitude change according to different activities and circumstances may only be at a surface level. These interviewees still have a native-bound attitude as they still emphasised the native norms in the formal and public settings, which are deemed as more crucial by them.

6.2.5.3 Anxiety and the lack of confidence

Academics’ language attitudes seem to have an impact on their psychological states in relation to English language use in academic settings. Specifically, their attachment to standardness/nativeness are very likely to bring about a sense of anxiety and lack of confidence which is mentioned by 9 interviewees (out of 14). For instance, Participant 6 (Extract 61) stated his anxious feelings when confronting Scottish accent.

Extract 61

1 P6: ...in our building, there is a (2) like a (.) phone (1) an announcer. And if there's
2 anyone calling, it will say '*telephone call*' blah blah plus the *room number*.
3 And I had no idea what it was talking about in the first three months. I just
4 heard there's a voice somewhere <imitating> 'lulululu' </imitating>
5 YX: <1> @@@ </1>
6 P6: <1> I have no idea </1> what was that about @@@@. And three months later
7 @@@ I finally understood what's that meant @@@@
8 YX: Then how do you feel when you cannot understand a person's English?
9 P6: Well, I am anxious about that. Still being anxious now. Anxious (.) concerned.
10 Like (2) you don't follow the person, you still need to figure out what the
11 person is trying to say but (2) well of course, there are restrictions of the
12 environment, because (2) after all, if you (.) if (.) if you are always like this,
13 you can't understand what they said all the time, they may not be willing
14 to repeat several times for you...and you may (.) you may want to avoid
15 talking and communicating with them. Just don't want to talk to them
16 anymore.

Participant 6 shared an interesting story in Extract 61 to react to my previous question asking about his feelings about the Scottish accent. He imitated the accent as '*lulululu*' (ll. 4) which revealed that he failed to recognise that it was the English spoken by someone with a Scottish accent. His continuous laughter (ll. 6 & 7) may indicate a sense of embarrassment and self-mockery that he spent three months to figure out the most basic information in his work. When I further asked about his feelings when he cannot understand a person's English, he indicated his negative response of being anxious and stressed that he was still anxious till now (ll. 9). He further described a scenario that he might feel worried and avoid talking to people with accents if he failed to understand them for several times (ll. 13-16). This is a typical behaviour (intention) mentioned by half of my interviewees (7 out of 14) as a result of the failure to achieve mutual understanding. Notably, prior to our above conversation, Participant 6 shared his learning experience with the interviewer that when he first came to the UK, more precisely Scotland, he felt an urgent need to improve his English language ability. He started to read and listened to BBC news every day. Participant 6 has been working in

Scotland for 7 years, but the problem still exists. This may imply that his practice of listening to BBC news may not be of help since he failed to cultivate a sensitivity of various accent (e.g., Scottish accent), but simply listening to ‘standard English’ from news. It might result in a chain of effect that the more Participant 6 refused to talk to people with non-standard accents, the fewer experience he may have with various use of English. It would be even more difficult for him to build the awareness and accept the phenomenon that he actually worked with people with various linguistic backgrounds, considering the increase of familiarity may enhance the mutual understanding as discussed in 6.2.3.1.1.

Moreover, Participant 12 (Extract 62) felt anxious when she realised that she made mistakes in pronunciation.

Extract 62

1	P12: For example, I will first think about what I need to say. Maybe in my brain, I
2	will have a (1) a like (.) an impression, a kind of plan, or outline,
3	YX: <1> Oh? </1>
4	P12: <1> Yes yes yes, </1> (2) or I will feel, (2) because (3) because sometimes I
5	may (.) I may say something not that (2) especially some words, I may
6	pronounce it not very (.) well. (1) Well, I mean (2) not very native, or (1)
7	not very fluent, and you will (.) suddenly, you may have a feeling inside of
8	your heart, a feeling of (1) panic (3) and I’m scared of (1) my student may
9	think (.) think that (.) I’m (.) I’m not competent enough as a <i>supervisor</i> or
10	something. Yes, I will have this feeling @@@.

Participant 12 explained her internal struggle during the supervision meeting in Extract 62. Her non-native pronunciation may make her panic (ll. 8). In other words, she was always in the process of being afraid of making mistakes of pronunciation during supervision meetings as she was afraid of being accused as incompetent by her students because of her non-nativeness (ll. 8-9), although she admitted later to me that her students were totally fine with her accent according to their feedback and most of her students have international backgrounds too. The laughter at the end may also indicate her sense of embarrassment that she may still make mistakes as a teacher. It

seems that she regarded the language standard and correctness as more important than intelligibility although she was aware that she would not be blamed because of her non-nativeness. What's worse, her attitude may potentially have some negative influences on the overall fluency of the communication as she took time thinking about correct expressions before speaking. Borrowing Participant 4's words in Extract 52, '*caring grammar may influence the expressions*' and '*mess up the sentence*'. In this sense, the '*important point*' can be easily missed out.

It is not strange that Participant 12 also showed a lack of confidence when talking about her accent, which is a typical example among interviewees. In the following Extract 36, Participant 12 continued to express her concerns.

Extract 63

1	P12: ...suddenly there is a foreign people who wants to ask questions, especially,
2	with an accent.
3	YX: <1> Hmm </1>
4	P12: <1> They may </1> (.) they may not (.) not understand at once. Then I may
5	feel (.) it might because I think too much sometimes, but I may feel that, er
6	(.) suddenly, er (.) as a foreign people like me, asking questions with such
7	(.) such accent which is obviously different from those British scholars,
8	and at that time, I feel very (2).
9	YX: Not confident?
10	P12: Err yes, unconfident. That's it. It's like (.) although you know the <i>knowledge</i> ,
11	sometimes your language (.) you will have some (.) something like <i>self-</i>
12	<i>conscious</i> . This kind of (.) yes.

As shown above, Participant 12 felt unconfident because of her accented English and her self-consciousness of being a NNES (ll. 10-12). She felt different among NESs in terms of her accent and identity (ll. 1-2, 6-8) although she admitted that she might '*think too much*' (ll. 5). Regardless of the possible reactions of NESs to her accent, her native-bound attitude indeed influenced her a lot in terms of her psychological states when participating in academic activities. This is not related to her knowledge of certain topics but simply about the language, or more specifically, the accent (ll. 10-

12). In other words, the challenges she faced are to some extent subjective and related more to her language ideology in a conceptual level. Participant 12 seems to be a good example of academics in the ‘*Speaker focused and stressed*’ group (5.4.2) as she has attached great value to the practical and career-related issues and felt great pressure working in the UK academia being an early-career researcher (see Appendix 11). Moreover, despite that she reacted positively on her ‘non-native’ accent (6.2.4.1.2), her attitude seems to be easily influenced by various factors such as the native environment of a conference and her perceived judgements by her students in the supervision mentioned above. This is also in line with the characteristic of ‘*Speaker focused and stressed*’ group as this group is the most stressed group which is influenced by various factors to a great extent (5.4.1).

Apart from these interviewees, 4 academics shared their concerns about their language implicitly. Participant 9 (Extract 64) is an example that she talked about the language requirement of her university.

Extract 64

1	P9: Er::r there’s no language requirement in the job description. But (2) er::r the
2	process of interview is very strict. (1) We have several rounds of
3	interviews. We need to do presentations, do the model teaching. That is,
4	hm::m in order to avoid the equality issues er::r er::r accuse, so they won’t
5	explicitly provide any stipulation of (2) er::r but (2) there are some hidden
6	rules behind, unwritten rules <i>underneath the table</i> er::r I, this (1), err (2)
7	our university, relatively speaking, is very cautious about the issue of
8	equality. It is not allowed to treat people negatively because of their
9	nationalities. But er::r I’m not going to tell you who the exact person is but
10	I do (.) er::r based on the err the principle of not lying in the interview, I do
11	know that (1) many people (.) professors, have the point of view that (2)
12	er:r <i>academic, being academic is not only about research. It’s about what</i>
13	<i>did you (.) er::r and how you sell it and (.) communication. ...</i> After all,
14	we are (2) as (2) foreign people (3) er::r we are <i>compete</i> (2) err <i>we are</i>
15	<i>competing people from UK from America er::r you know, you (1) your</i>
16	<i>language have to be decent to (2) to get this type of post.</i>

As shown in Extract 64, Participant 9 was cautious about discussing issues relevant to language requirement as it is related to academic equality. She paused a lot (ll. 1; 4-6; & 9) trying to find proper words to explain and stressed the '*hidden and unwritten rules*' (ll. 5-6) for international staff. She was very hesitant at the beginning but finally determined to give an example of some professors she knew treating people negatively because of their non-nativeness (ll. 8-13). It seems that although universities have put some efforts in protecting international academics (ll. 7-9), it was not effective enough to prevent similar incidents. Although she did not directly express that she felt a lot of pressure competing with other native academics from UK and America, she implied this point since she stressed that academics from the UK and America might have more advantages comparing with '*foreign*' academics (ll. 14-16) like her. She had a sense of inferiority in terms of job applications. Notably, she was not the only person who mentioned that NNEs are more difficult to get an academic job comparing with NESs because of their language (cf. Participant 4 and 14). This could be one of the reasons why Participant 9, as many other interviewees (cf. Participant 3 in Extract 46, Participant 4 in Extract 44, Participant 11 in Extract 60, & Participant 12 in Extract 62, etc.), has the '*instinctual response*' (cf. Participant 4, Extract 44) to change the tense of the verb '*compete*' (ll. 14) to comply with the grammatical rules of English.

This sense of inferiority of Participant 9 seems to be a big obstacle for her competing in UK academia. As discussed previously, academics such as Participant 12 felt anxious about their grammar and pronunciation although they may have good knowledge of their subject. Similarly, Participant 9 stressed that the language should be '*decent*' (ll. 16) to get the post regardless of her professional knowledge. This not only shows academics' overemphasises on the nativeness of English language, but more importantly, if their language fails to reach the native level, which is very unlikely for most of the academics (see 6.2.4.2), they may feel stressful and inferior to some extent. This echoes the point made in 6.2.4.3.1 that their perceived advantages of being native-like may potentially become their academic challenges since they use their native-bound attitude to judge their own non-native English.

To conclude, Chinese academics' native-bound attitudes influenced their perceptions on English language use in the academic setting to a great extent. They considered being native-like so important that might bring radical change to their academic career and experiences. Although their attitudes vary to some extent at the surface level because of differences in disciplines and academic activities, their deeply rooted native-bound attitudes can still be identified. This native-bound attitude can hardly bring any benefit for their work but anxiety and the lack of confidence. This may somehow make it a predicament which can barely be solved that their anxiety and lack of confidence of their non-nativeness may negatively influence their academic work, which may make them feel more anxious and unconfident when participating in the UK academic settings.

6.3 Summary

Generally speaking, coincidentally with the quantitative research findings, interviewees showed a strong positive attitude towards native norms. Specifically, their attitudes towards English speakers were relatively different from their attitudes towards English accents. They were more positive to NNEs than non-native accents with an overall negative attitude to non-nativeness. They were particularly obsessed with the 'standard accent', namely, RP and GA, which was influenced by their familiarity, past language learning experiences and their career-related experiences whilst showing an awareness of people's 'non-native' language traits, which was influenced by different other languages because of their GE-related experiences. In terms of their own English, they also skewed to the negative side and expressed the lack of confidence and a sense of dissatisfaction to their language competence and accents. This seems to be related to their native-bound attitudes. These native-bound attitudes were also embodied in their experiences using English in the UK academia and brought about potential challenges for their academic work.

6.4 Ending remarks

This chapter has concentrated on the analysis of the interview data. This chapter has firstly introduced the interview analysis procedure. The detailed description of the analysis was organised by the emergent central themes, namely 1) attitudes towards

NESs, 2) attitudes towards NNESs, 3) attitudes towards accents, 4) attitudes towards their own English and 5) attitudes towards using English in UK academic settings.

The next chapter provides a discussion of both the quantitative and qualitative findings and discussed the findings in the light of the literature.

Chapter 7 Discussion

Previous two chapters identified two sets of language attitudes: the native-bound and the contradictory attitude. This chapter is to provide explanations about Chinese academics' language attitudes as well as the associative factors and influences of these attitudes. Specifically, synthesising both quantitative and qualitative findings of previous two chapters with the review of literature in Chapter 2 and 3, Section 7.1 discusses respondents' two sets of attitudes towards English. Section 7.2 explains how these two sets of attitudes were formed, and further explores factors that are associated with their deeply rooted language attitude. Section 7.3 considers the relationship between language attitudes and academic behaviours or behavioural intentions of these Chinese academics.

7.1 What are Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms in the UK universities?

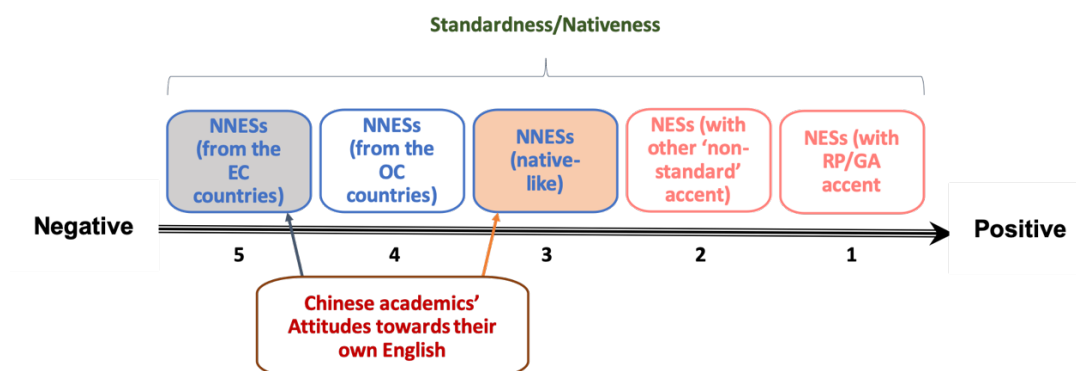
7.1.1 Positive attitudes towards 'nativeness'/'standardness'

Both the quantitative and qualitative findings indicate that respondents have a native-bound attitude towards English. The quantitative findings reveal a strong native-bound attitude towards English of Chinese academics from various perspectives (see Section 5.2.2). On the one hand, the respondents reacted positively on NESs as they considered NESs' English as familiar, correct, competent, and they have a high acceptance of them. On the other hand, they considered NNEs' English as inaccurate, not understandable, unnatural and incomplete (5.2.2). These results corroborate the findings of a great deal of previous literature that both language learners and teachers (cf. Almegren, 2018; Chien, 2014; Fang, 2016; Kobayashi, 2002; Wang, 2013, 2014; Yook & Lindemann, 2013) as well as language practitioners (cf. Jenkins, 2014; Jenkins & Wingate, 2015) tend to react positively towards NESs while negatively towards NNEs.

The qualitative results further support these findings (see 6.2.1.2 & 6.2.2.2) and showcase more nuanced language attitudes of Chinese academics' regarding different speakers. Combining both quantitative and qualitative results, A hierarchical evaluative category can be identified (Figure 7.1). As shown in Figure 7.1, 5 categories

of speaker groups were generated, namely, 1. NESs (with RP/GA accent); 2. NESs (with other ‘non-standard’ accent); 3. NNESs (native-like, regardless of their nationalities); 4. NNESs (from OC countries); and 5. NNESs (from EC countries). Category 1 represents the speaker group which respondents were most positive to, and Category 5 is the group that respondents were least positive to.

Figure 7.1 Hierarchical category of Chinese academics’ attitudes towards English speakers



Unlike previous literature which seem to only emphasise the diversity of NNESs while paying little attention to the diversity within the NESs groups (cf. Almergren, 2018; Jenkins, 2007, 2014; Seidlhofer, 2011; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011; Wang, 2013, 2015a), academics in the current study did not regard NESs as a homogeneous group. This is embodied in their different attitudes towards NESs in terms of various local accents such as Scottish accents (6.2.1.1). As shown in Figure 7.1, they were more positive to NESs with RP/GA accent in Category 1 than other NESs with ‘non-standard’ accents in Category 2. That is, they seem to attach great value to standardness/nativeness regardless of speakers’ nationalities. This result supports some previous studies (e.g., Zhang, 2013, Chien, 2014) which adopt an indirect approach by using MGT/VGT, as discussed in 3.5.2, in that a strongly positive attitude towards standard accents such as RP/GA can be identified. Moreover, the in-depth interview of the current study makes up for the shortage of MGT/VGT (see 3.5.2, 4.4.1.2) to further explore the reasons behind these choices. Academics in the interviews, hence explained that they considered RP/GA more familiar, and their

positive attitudes were related to their language experiences and academic goals (see 6.2.3.1). This issue will be discussed in more detail in the next Section 7.2.

Respondents also showed an awareness of NNESs' various national and linguistic backgrounds although they generally tend to be negative towards these NNESs. As shown in Figure 7.1, they did not regard NNESs as a homogeneous group, as in many previous studies (e.g., Chien, 2018; Jenkins, 2007; McKenzie, 2007) which focus more on the native/non-native divide. They showed a preference of speakers from OC countries in Category 4, such as India (6.2.1.1), than EC countries in Category 5 such as some 'middle-east' (6.2.2.1) or 'Asian countries' (6.2.2.2).

Besides, it was worth mentioning that the respondents tended to be relatively more positive to another group of NNESs (Category 3), who were more native-like in accent and the use of English. Specifically, some NNESs from European countries in EC such as Germany, France and Italy were regarded by the respondents as more native-like than other OC countries such as India and South Africa (6.2.2.2, 6.2.3.2). At first glance, this finding seems to reveal the symbolic power these speakers may carry (see Bourdieu, 1991). As with Galloway's (2011) findings that her respondents, a group of Japanese students, showed positive attitudes towards English varieties in some EC countries than OC countries either because of their unawareness of the development and history of English in OC countries or their stereotypical view of SE.

However, it seems that the respondents in the current study were more likely to comment on speakers from their personal experience with specific colleagues from various countries rather than an ideological perspective. Their positive attitudes towards these speakers may be explained by the fact that their French/Italian colleagues happen to be native-like in their English (see 6.2.3.1; 6.2.3.2). In this sense, these attitudes may not be applied to all French/Italian speakers. Again, issues relevant to the determinants of language attitude will be discussed in Section 7.2 in detail. Nevertheless, it is clearly observed that these Chinese academics still use the standardness/nativeness as the criteria when evaluating people's English language in

a way that the more native-like a NNES's English is, the more positive their attitudes may be towards the speaker no matter where the speaker comes from.

From a holistic perspective, both NESs with and without RP/GA accents are on the right side of the continuum which are close to the positive end comparing with all the NNES groups (Figure 7.1). This indicates that on the one hand, regardless of the diversities among NES and NNES groups, the respondents viewed NESs in a more positive way than NNESs (5.2.2; 6.2.1.2; 6.2.3.1) seeing NESs as legitimate owners of English. On the other hand, they view NNESs as the 'illegitimate offspring of English' (Mufwene, 2001), which is criticised as the 'unhelpful dichotomy' by Higgins (2003). Since a successful linguistic utterance requires the person to be accepted as a legitimate user of it (Ljosland, 2011), it is unhelpful to have this dichotomous view on speakers because NNESs can hardly make successful utterance and be treated equally with NESs in terms of English language. This could be explained by the tradition view of NSs these academics have (cf. Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; see also 2.3.1.2) that most of them still regarded those who learnt English since childhood as NESs (6.2.1.1) which naturally granted NESs the birthright to have the prestigious status.

Moreover, in academic settings, although academic language is no one's mother language (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990, 2.5.1), the respondents' different attitudes towards NES and NNES groups also echo Kirkpatrick's (2007) statement that people believe that NESs are always better than NNESs. Just as Chomsky's (2014) concept of 'ideal speaker-hearer', this belief may result in the superiority and authority of NESs as it considers NESs as 'the only trustworthy authority' over English language use (Gundermann, 2014, p. 13). It is very likely that because of this misconception, the respondents have this hierarchical view on English language speakers. Although they were aware of the diversity among both NESs and NNESs groups, they seem to merely adopt a more specific hierarchical view than a dichotomous one.

This set of attitudes and hierarchical view of language speakers is problematic as it classifies speakers into different hierarchies which conflicts with the trend of globalisation and internationalisation that embraces the diversity of speakers from

different linguistic background in an equal way. It somehow demonstrates that the ideology of ‘native-speakerism’ (Holliday, 2005), which considers NESs as superior (see 2.3.1.2, 2.4.2), not only exists in the field of ELT but also reflects the language reality and people’s thoughts in the UK academia regardless of the fact that this idea was originated in the field of ELT. Phillipson (2000) argues in his work that people always regard ‘native’ as the norm and consider others in a negative way comparing with the norm. Similarly, these academics took it for granted that NESs are the norm provider (cf. Kachru, 1992) and English belongs to NESs. To be specific, besides the fact that respondents in the current study suggested only NESs’ English is correct (5.2.2, 6.2.1.2), they also considered that it is NNESSs’ responsibility to follow the language ‘rules’ and ‘standards’ (5.2.2, 6.2.4.3.1).

Moreover, they did not regard themselves as well as their international colleagues as legitimate English users because of the ‘mistakes’ they constantly made (6.2.2.2) and the non-nativeness of their English (6.2.3.2). These results also reflect one of the ‘common-sense assumptions’ concluded by Piller (2015) that English spoken by speakers from the UK and the USA is the best kind of English. However, this ‘common sense’ is outdated in terms of the linguistic landscape of the UK academia since the globalisation/internationalisation and the spread of English has already changed the global linguistic landscape as well as UK academia into a multilingual context instead of an SE-dominant monolingual setting (see 2.1; 2.3).

Accordingly, this problematic hierarchical evaluative category (Figure 7.1) also influences the respondents’ attitudes towards their own English where they can only put themselves in either Category 3 or Category 5 on the negative side of the continuum. The majority of them (e.g., Status and self-image focused group; Speaker focused and stressed group; & Instrumental and ambition focused group in Section 5.4.2, see also 5.2.1) are likely to put themselves in Category 5, which is the least favourable category, as they are not confident about their own English at all. Notably, one of the respondents even used emphatic swearing (P11, see 6.2.4.2.1) to show his strong negative attitude to his own ‘non-standard’ English.

This result coincides with some previous studies such as Chien (2014), Fang (2016) and McKenzie (2010) that NNEs from the EC countries evaluate negatively on their own English. Fang (2016) once explained that this particular attitude might be caused by the traditional Chinese Confucianism which Chinese people have a modest attitude when talking about their English. However, this explanation seems not applicable to the current research. According to the quantitative findings, respondents rated their self-assessed language proficiency at a fair level which is sufficient for their daily use in academic settings (5.2.1). However, the qualitative findings reveal that most of them were not satisfied with their own English (6.2.4.2) and nearly all (13 out of 14) of my interviewees explained why they wanted to be more ‘native-like’ in English (6.2.4.3). This finding corroborates with previous studies (e.g., Hsieh’s, 2012; Jiang et al., 2010, Luxon & Peelo, 2009) that academics reacted negatively to their own English as they agreed that it is difficult to ‘achieve near native-speaker level’ (Hsieh, 2012, p. 372), although they considered their English was sufficient for their academic use.

In this sense, it is very likely that Chinese academics in the current research applied the above-mentioned hierarchical views subconsciously to judge their own English. As long as their English is not native-like, they are very likely to posit themselves in Category 5, which is their least favourable group. Although they have various interpretations of being ‘native-like’, their standards are closely related to ENL norms (6.2.1.1). That is, despite the diverse linguistic environment, they still seem to live in a ‘standard language culture’ (Milroy, 2001) which only agrees with and upholds the SE ideology.

7.1.2 Contradictory attitudes

Contradictory attitudes were sometimes identified among different groups of respondents, and even from the same individual. First, Despite of subconsciously applying the above-mentioned 5 categories, intelligibility seems to be another standard that academics use when commenting on people’s English. From the group level, it is apparent that academics in different circumstances may have different focus regarding their language attitude. As suggested in 5.4.1, although the majority of academics attach great importance to language accuracy, the ‘*Balanced attitude*’ group regard the

importance of language accuracy as the least important perspective, and they seem to be more open and positive to the diverse use of English by speakers. From the individual level, besides being positive towards ‘standardness’/‘nativeness’, some of the respondents also emphasised the importance of the intelligibility for communication purposes regardless of whether speakers’ English is native or not (see 6.2.2.1; 6.2.3.2; 6.2.4.2). For instance, although they speak highly of NESs (6.2.1.2), they sometimes negatively reacted on NESs when their English is difficult to understand (6.2.1.3). Accordingly, they positively commented on NNEs when their English is more understandable (6.2.2.1). This result is in accord with previous studies which identified ambivalent attitudes among language learners (e.g., Fang, 2016; Galloway, 2011; McKenzie, 2007), language teachers (e.g., Lai, 2008; Jenkins, 2005, 2007; Young & Walsh, 2010) and academics (e.g., Jenkins, 2014). This ambivalent attitude also influences the respondents in many perspectives. This will be further discussed in 7.2.1.1.

Moreover, although academics emphasised the importance of correctness in terms of speaking (see Section 5.2.2), they have also realised that only focusing on the correctness would influence the fluency of a speech and hinder the effectiveness of communications in academic settings (6.2.4.2, see also 2.3.2.1). This finding is consistent with that of Luxon and Peelo (2009) who identified that lecturers expressed their concerns of making mistakes in spoken English. However, processing the spoken English to be correct would take longer time and requires more concentration which is difficult after giving lectures for 20-25 mins (Luxon & Peelo, 2009). That is, although these academics are positive towards the ENL norms and tended to comply with the ‘correct’ English, they did consider the negative impact of forcing themselves to use the ‘correct’ English, which may hinder the effectiveness of the communications.

Third, although none of the respondents showed any understanding of ELF as a concept (6.2.1.1), they were aware of ELF as a phenomenon (i.e., the awareness and acceptance of various English varieties and accents) (5.2.2, 6.2.1.1). This is most apparently shown from the quantitative results that although they commented mostly negative on international speakers’ English, the majority of them did not regard

international speakers' English as the corrupt form of English which is incompletely learnt (see Question 6 & 32 in Section 5.2.2). Further, the qualitative findings show that they were well aware of the diversity among NESs and NNESs as well as different language traits of speakers from various countries (6.2.3.2). This indicates that they did not ignore their GE-related experiences in the UK academic context, where English is used as a common language in international communications (Mauranen, Hynninen & Ranta, 2010).

However, their emphasis on the communicative success, i.e., the intelligibility, as well as their acceptance of other English language varieties/accents does not necessarily indicate their personal preferences or their acceptance of the legitimacy of these English varieties. They were likely to be simply more tolerant to the 'mistakes' that other speakers made or to the 'inferiority in language proficiency' of the speaker in some sense (5.2.2, 6.2.2, 6.2.5.2). They still wanted to have a more native-like English or a more RP/GA like accent themselves (6.2.4.3). They seem to follow an old Chinese proverb that "be strict with oneself and lenient towards others" in terms of following the ENL norms instead of really treating other English varieties equally with ENL norms. This result is in agreement with Jenkins's (2014) findings which showed that her respondents also tend to accept various use of non-native English while they still prefer ENL personally (3.5.3.2). In contrast to earlier findings (e.g., Wang, 2016; Wang & Jenkins, 2016) which suggest that more ELF experience may influence language attitude and help stakeholders to question the ENL norms, my research findings show that the respondents' ELF experiences do not seem to bring much fundamental changes to their language attitudes.

These ambivalent attitudes may be explained by their low 'evaluative-cognitive consistency' (Chaiken, Pomerantz, & Giner-Sorolla, 1995), or 'affective-cognitive consistency' (Chaiken & Baldwin, 1981) which in the current case, refers to the conflict between Chinese academics' overall attitude and some of their language beliefs. Dönyei (2014, p. 214) suggests that beliefs have 'a stronger factual support' while attitudes are more related to the past experiences and deeply rooted in people's mind. The 'factual support' which forms language beliefs of the respondents is

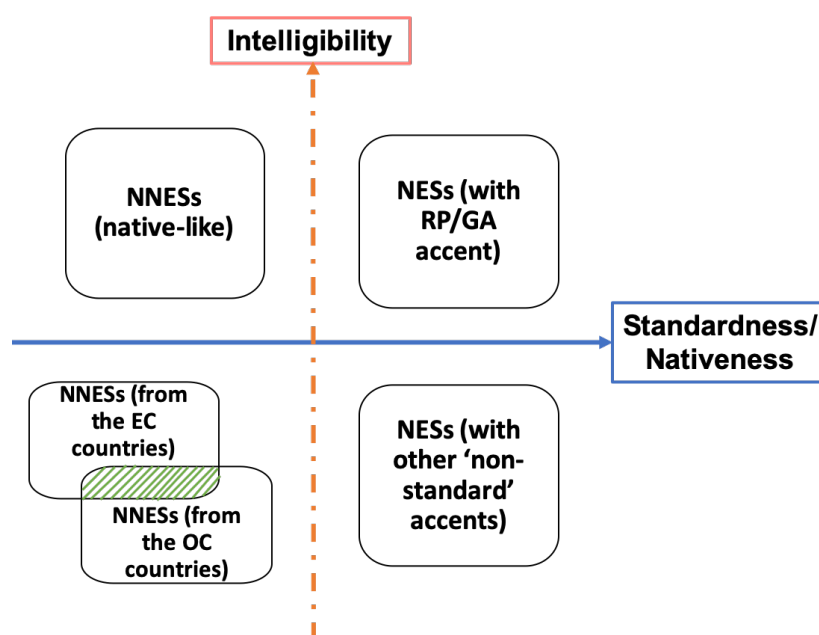
undoubtedly the language environment they were in and the language experiences they had. However, their GE-oriented cognitive base is rather weak since the ‘factual support’ fails to be strong and comprehensive enough to help them understand the big picture of the global spread of English (e.g., 5.2.2; 6.2.1.1; 6.2.1.3; 6.2.2.1; 6.2.3.2).

Therefore, they were only able to generate above-mentioned ‘tolerance’ to the diversity of English language use, or from their perspectives, the ‘deficiency’ of English. According to Chaiken et al., (1995), high ‘evaluative-cognitive consistency’ indicates the stableness and the resistance to social influence of the attitude and vice versa. In this sense, their attitudes towards GE were unstable because of the low evaluative-cognitive consistency. On the other hand, their attitudes towards ENL norms were strong and stable which is resistant to changes and new information since the respondents seem to have another SE-dominant cognitive base apart from GE-oriented cognitive base. This SE-dominant cognitive base is related to their previous SE-dominant experiences and is ‘a well-organised set of supporting cognitions’ (Chaiken et al., 1995, p. 388) established by various factors. This issue will be further discussed in the next section.

In summary, combining both sets of the respondents’ attitudes, it is concluded that there are two evaluative standards which direct Chinese academics’ language attitudes, namely standardness/nativeness and intelligibility simultaneously, of which the former is the dominant criterion (Figure 7.2). As shown in Figure 7.2, NESs (with RP/GA accent) is in the first quadrant with high level of standardness/nativeness and intelligibility considered by the respondents; NESs (with other ‘non-standard’ accents) is in the second quadrant since they were also considered to be high in standardness/nativeness while relatively lower in intelligibility; NNESs (native-like) is in the third quadrant. Although they are not NESs, which is considered low in standardness/nativeness, it can be inferred that they are relatively high in intelligibility. As pointed out previously, the respondents explained their preference for NNESs (native-like) over other groups of NNESs is because of their native-like accents and the use of English (e.g., 5.2.2; 6.2.2.1; 6.2.2.2; 6.2.3.2). It was sometimes easier for them to understand NNESs’ standard/native-like accent than NESs (with other ‘non-

standard' accents) (e.g., 6.2.2.1; 6.2.3.1). The fourth quadrant includes two groups of speakers: NNEs (from the EC countries) and NNEs (from the OC countries). As discussed above, the respondents generally tended to be more positive towards NNEs from the OC countries than EC countries in terms of the standardness/nativeness. However, they sometimes considered speakers from some EC countries more intelligible to them such as China (shared nationalities) and Japan because of the familiarity (e.g., 6.2.4.1). The next section discusses specific factors that influence their language attitudes to explain how these two evaluative standards generated.

Figure 7.2 Chinese academics' attitudes towards groups of speakers



7.2 What factors have influenced the attitudes of these Chinese academics?

My quantitative EFA findings highlighted six factors that is crucial for academics' language attitude, namely *Instrumental professional goal*, *Subjective perceptions of language ability*, *Standard language learning in school*, *Standard English and institutional reputation*, *Preference for international English(es)* and *Importance of language accuracy*. These factors, however, seem to be rather superficial without further explanation and support since it may well explain attitudinal responses only, which could be situational and flexible. For instance, *Instrumental professional goal* was regarded as one of the most important factors that influence Chinese academics'

language attitude. However, according to Participant 3 in the interview study, it is more likely to be a situational response when he stressed the importance of using NE by international academics to please local British student (6.2.4.3.1). He may well lessen the level of importance of this factor when he is not in an Anglophone country and there is no need for him to face a group of NESs anymore. That is, considering factors influencing language attitude, this section combines both quantitative and qualitative findings to produce a deeper analysis lucubrating the real underlying factors that influence language attitude. This section, therefore, discusses how respondents' native-bound and contradictory attitudes are formed and influenced by their language education experiences, understanding of language policy and GE experiences.

7.2.1 English Education System in China

7.2.1.1 Stereotypes

As discussed in Chapter 1, language may give rise to people's beliefs about certain speakers including their group membership and attributes of those group members, which are shaped by the stereotypes people have (Cargile et al., 1994). According to Lippmann (1997), stereotypes of people are generated by culture and can be eliminated by education since people 'do not first see, and then define', but 'define first and then see', and people tend to 'pick out what [their] culture has already defined for [them]' (p. 54) since their preconceptions 'govern deeply the whole process of perception' unless 'education has made them acutely aware (p. 59). However, in the current study, it seems that it is the Chinese educational system that formed the stereotyped perceptions of the respondents. As pointed out in Section 3.2, attitude has three types of antecedents including cognitive, affective and behavioural process (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). In terms of cognitive process, Greenwald (1968b) indicates that it involves cognitive learning which is gained by persuasive communications. In the current study, the Chinese educational system is very likely to persuade language learners that only British English and American English are the standard. Many of the respondents talked about their early language learning experiences in China that only British English/American English was taught at school (e.g., 6.2.1.1; 6.2.3.2, 6.2.4.2). This also explains why many Chinese academics attached great value to language standard considering language learning at school from the quantitative results (see

5.2.2 & 5.4.1). Their experiences confirm what have been discussed in 2.4.1, that the English curriculum in China is either British English or American English targeted (cf. Adamson & Kwo, 2002; Wen, 2012; Xu, 2002). It is also pointed out in 3.3.2.7 that people's language attitudes are influenced by the official attitude (He and Ng, 2015). Therefore, when the Chinese educational system considers ENL norms as the standard, Chinese learners are very likely to be cognitively influenced by this system and tend to conform to the authority without questioning the possible issues of it.

Furthermore, classic conditioning may influence their affective responses in the affective process with regard to the attitude formation when the affective responses are repeatedly related to certain attitude object (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993; Greenwald, 1968b). For the current study, drawing on the idea of classical conditioning, a better grasp on British English/American English in a Chinese classroom usually means a higher score, hence more prestigious and successful in exams since only British/American English are regarded as the standard according to the Chinese educational policy as management. On the other hand, the use of 'Chinese English' means a lower score or even a failure in the exam (see 2.4.1). This explains relative results to some extent in quantitative data such as the feeling of embarrassment, lack of motivation to work and limited achievement (5.2.2).

Moreover, the rigid exam system and the lack of daily practice in English (Bolton & Graddol, 2012; Hou, 2016) make students attach more value to language regulations rather than function, or in other words, correctness rather than intelligibility. When language learners keep getting positive responses when conforming to the British/American English, they naturally form positive affective responses on these 'standard' English. The respondents, who used to be students in this educational system, were also trained to cope with various exams such as 'zhongkao' (high school entrance exam); 'gaokao' (national university entrance exam); CET-4 (College English Test Band 4); CET-6; TEM-4 (Test for English Majors Band 4); TEM-8 (Test for English Majors Band 8) which strictly require the correctness of English (see 2.4.1). They are very likely to have formed a positive affective response when considering British/American English and negative response to other 'non-standard' English

varieties during their early language learning process. This influence is profound in that even the most relaxed group of academics (*'Balanced attitude'* group), which is considered to be the most open and ELF-informed group, is greatly influenced by the factor *'Standard language learning in school'* (see section 5.4.1 & 5.4.2).

This result supports the work of other studies (e.g., Galloway, 2011; Lai, 2008; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005) which criticise that the exam system reinforces the stereotypical views of students and teachers despite of various context. Lai (2008) also pointed out in his study that some teachers including himself, felt struggling that although they were aware of the changing role of English and tried to weaken, or remove students' stereotypes, they still needed to meet students' demands of obtaining better jobs and future prosperity by following the ENL norms. My quantitative result also confirms his statement that only SE should be taught at school as it is beneficial for students' future career (5.2.2).

It seems that the respondents' stereotypical views prevent them from identifying the mismatch between their past experiences of hegemonic SE-dominant education and their current diverse working environment to some extent. Since the MoE in China puts its focus on British English/American English only and adopts British English/American English targeted materials and resources, together with a rigid exam system, it is easy for learners to form a stereotyped understanding that British English or American English means standard and correct while other 'Englishes' are non-standard and incorrect. However, such stereotypes are evidently problematic which brings negative influences on language learners, hence the (future) language users as they are not well-prepared to face the changing linguistic landscape for their (future) work by the Chinese educational system.

7.2.1.2 Native-speakerism

As mentioned in the previous section, in the system which endorses the so-called 'linguistic aesthetics' (i.e., SE) (Harrison, 2007, p. 89), it is very unlikely for language learners to realise the changing linguistic landscape and various use of English. Since all the respondents learned English in such system, their cognitive and affective

agreement with ENL norms established by the educational system are likely to bring about a dichotomous understanding that the only standard Englishes are British English and American English while the other use of English is non-standard. Therefore, they naturally grouped speakers into native and non-native (see 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 6.2.1.2, 6.2.2.2, 6.2.3) although they showed their awareness of the linguistic diversity to some extent. This may explain why they hold a perception of native and non-native divide as well as the idea of language prestige.

As discussed in 7.1.2, the ideology of native-speakerism which consider NESs as superior to NNESs is found throughout my qualitative findings and some quantitative findings. The word 'native' or 'NESs' itself was used by the respondents in a positive tone while non-native or NNESs in a negative tone (e.g., 6.2.1.2, 6.2.2.2). However, as discussed in 2.4.2, the term NS and NNS is supposed to be neutral if they are used in other languages, but it implies the neo-racism in English language (Holliday, 2015). The identity and use of language, similar with other factors such as class and race, according to Lippi-Green (1997), also gives rise to the social marginalisation. As what Lee, Jon and Byun (2017) suggest in their study that neo-racism, which is based on the differences of culture, region/origin of an individual, helps to make sense of the phenomenon that overseas students are judged by their appearances and cultural order. This can also be applied to the respondents as international academics. Both the quantitative and qualitative data showed that they tended to regard NESs as superior just because of their 'nativeness' while marginalising NNESs including themselves because of their 'non-nativeness' from a native-speakerism and a neo-racist perspective.

Therefore, negative attitudes towards their own English were not entirely related to their language proficiency but also to the fact of being a NNES caused by native-speakerism. However, this false understanding may make them fail to realise that they are equal to NESs in the academic settings but accepting the fact that they are subalterns. This thought needs to be reversed by developing a right understanding of NNESs including themselves in order to help them challenge their 'inferior status' in the ED countries. Although native-speakerism is difficult to be removed just as racism

(Holliday, 2015), the attempts should be made and the awareness should be aroused in the UK HEIs that the academic minorities, such as Chinese and other international academics, need more attention and support with regard to not only language difficulties but also the change of stakeholders' underlying neo-racist ideology including themselves. Specific suggestions will be further presented in Section 8.3.

Moreover, there is a disciplinary divide with regard to the self-assessment of their own English. Both my quantitative and qualitative findings show that it is generally agreed that the importance of language in natural science is lower than the social science. Academics in natural science were more able to manage their language at work comparing with academics in social science (see 5.2.1, 5.4.3, 6.2.4.3, 6.2.5.1). This also accords with Sawir's (2011) finding with regard to language requirement for students that faculty of arts requires higher language competence. Just as the term '*technical English*' mentioned by some of the respondents (e.g., Participant 11), academics in natural science seem to have a relatively fixed patterns or conventions while the language use in social science seems to be more flexible (5.2.4.3, 6.2.5.1). This reflects that of Kuteeva and Airey (2014, p. 538) who also found that for academics in natural science, the 'established methods and procedures' in both 'macro-level (the schematic and rhetorical structure of academic genres) and the micro-level (lexicogrammatical features, formulaic language)' indicate 'an agreed set of terminology' while their social science counterparts tend to focus more on the interpretation of the 'texts, artefacts, performances, events' which have a higher requirement on language.

Academics in social science in my study seem to put more emphasis on the language itself and upholding native-speakerism than those in natural science (5.4.2, 6.2.5.1), which means that they are influenced more by their perceived standard language ideology. This may be due to the higher language requirement for academics in social science. For academics in natural science, the relatively fixed and formulaic use of English may dilute the influence of their 'non-nativeness' in English language to focus more on the communication purpose, i.e., the content of communications. On the other hands, because of a higher language requirement, academics in social science are

easily to mix up academic literacy and language proficiency as discussed above (see also 2.4.2), which may cause excessive concerns about their English. Moreover, these misconceptions are very likely to be reinforced by the native-bound language policy in the UK HEIs which stresses the native-speakerism ideology and regards NNEs as deficient in English (see 2.4.2), hence brings about a sense of inferiority in terms of English language. The next section will discuss the influence of language policy in the UK HEIs in more detail.

7.2.2 Language policy in the UK HEIs

Apart from the Chinese educational system, the language policy (as management) in the UK HEIs also influences Chinese academics' language attitudes as it only 'pay lip service to various aspects of internationalisation' (De Vita & Case, 2003) and seems to overlook the reality that the UK HE environment is becoming more diverse. Just as what Jenkins (2014) criticised in her book that the so-called 'international' universities fail to consider the possible linguistic implication of their international student/staff cohort. Given the fact that UK is an ED country, stakeholders in the UK HEIs are easily to tacitly acknowledge that the UK academia should be a 'default' monolingual context and international speakers need to conform to the ENL norm (see 2.4.2, see also Liddicoat, 2016).

The respondents seem to form similar understandings in terms of English language use in the UK academia. Despite the fact mentioned by all of my interviewees that there is no specific written documents on language proficiency and written language requirements for academic staff in their institutions (6.2.5.1), the majority of them considered a language requirement for international academics is reasonable (5.2.2; 6.2.5.1) and being native-like would bring them advantages in terms of their academic work and social activities (see 5.2.2; 6.3.2; 6.2.4.3; 6.2.5.3). This is also reflected in the result of cluster analysis that the most populated group (i.e., Status and self-image focused group) is influenced by the 'Standard English and institutional reputation' (see 5.4.2), which means that they deemed language standard important for the university.

It is the lack of specific guidance from a GE perspective provided by universities for international academics that is problematic and somehow causes the lack of awareness of the ELF as a phenomenon and the self-marginalisation of international academics. The results of my study as well as many other previous studies (e.g., Holliday, 2015; Luxon & Peelo, 2009; Jiang et al., 2010; Seidlhofer, 2012; Jenkins, 2014) show that this linguistic inequality always exists either in academics' experiences or ideologies, while the universities seldom treat this issue properly and fundamentally. The 'nature of international commitment' of the 'international universities' is rather superficial or even neglected by universities (Jenkins, Baker, Doubleday and Wang, 2019). It seems that these 'international' universities still tacitly approve the tendencies of both students and academics including international academics themselves, to conform to the ENL norms without taking further action to adapt their language policy to address the current linguistic phenomenon.

These tendencies may, as some respondents (e.g., Participant 9) further expressed, generate some 'hidden rules' or 'unwritten rules' for international staff with regard to their English language and it is more difficult for NNEs to obtain an academic job than NESs (see 6.2.4.3; 6.2.5.3). Particularly, early-career researchers seem to care more about this 'rule' as it is deemed closely linked to university's reputation and possibly 'non-existing top-down guidance' (see 5.4). This result is somehow consistent with that of Jenkins (2014) who also found that there is no official language policy (as management) but sometimes 'unwritten rule' (p. 129) according to the majority of her respondents (academic staff in universities). Although Jenkins not only focused on Anglophone countries but worldwide universities which apply EMI programmes and her respondents mainly considered issues in relation to students, the common point could be found that the majority of these academic staff also expected a 'standard' in terms of language policy of HEIs. This may exacerbate the inequalities between NES and NNE academics which, ironically, the NNE academics are very likely to accept without any doubts. This result also confirms Jenkins' (2014) assumption that international academics are likely to take a 'When in Rome, do as the Romans do' position and tacitly acknowledge the SE norms in a 'native English speaking' country.

Moreover, these ‘hidden rules’ also exist in respondents’ working experiences. As Participant 9 mentioned in 6.2.3.1, the Chinese lecturer was simply blamed by his students because of his ‘non-native’ English regardless of his professional knowledge. Galloway, Kriukow and Numajiri (2017) raise a similar problem for non-native teachers in the EMI context that teachers/lecturers may lack the English language proficiency when communicating course contents. However, in the current study, this lecturer has excellent professional knowledge and was able to clearly deliver the content regardless of his ‘non-native’ accent (cf. 6.2.3.1). Notably, according to the disciplinary differences discussed in 7.2.1.2, this lecturer subjects in natural science which has a universal language such as Arabic numbers, formulae, etc. (Hsieh, 2012, see also Wang, 2010). The reason for students’ negative feedback is very likely to be that students failed to understand the course content but blaming for this lecturer’s ‘non-native’ language, or simply because of the nationalities and appearance of these academics (cf. Liu, 1999), which is another example of neo-racism. Nevertheless, although the university has touched upon the issue of inequality in academic settings (6.2.5.3), it is not effective enough and international academics might still attach great value to the ‘unwritten rule’ that their English language should be native-like to prevent them from being complained by their students regardless of their confidence in the professional knowledge (see 5.2.1; 6.2.4.1; 6.2.4.2).

This finding supports evidence from previous observations in the EMI context (e.g., Gundermann, 2014; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010) that students were concerned about their teachers’ language proficiency although the fact showed that the comprehension were not impeded by the ‘non-nativeness’ of their teachers. As discussed above, whether it is consciously or unconsciously done, these students were very likely to simply blame the ‘non-nativeness’ of international academics instead of their lack of knowledge of the course content. That is, besides academic staff, the lack of linguistic guidances from a GE perspective may also give rise to the fact that students are not well prepared to develop a good awareness of the current changing linguistic landscape.

At first glance, it seems that the respondents' native-bound attitudes are closely related to their academic goals and experiences as their problems in language may have great influences on their academic career (5.3 & 5.4). However, by reviewing more deeply on this issue, it is the language policy that influences their attitudes, or misleads their attitudes. There is a fundamental misconception that they seem to mix up the idea of academic literacy and being native/non-native. The nativeness hence is likely to be regarded as equivalent to a high competence academic literacy and vice versa. As mentioned in 2.4.2, academic language belongs to nobody (Bourdieu and Passerson, 1990) while the language policy brings a false understanding to international speakers that people who are unfamiliar with or do not conform to the native norms would be considered as deficient (Wingate, 2008), or having a low competence in academic literacy. This idea was brought to not only international students but also international academic staff. This explains why the respondents blamed their academic difficulties and challenges (e.g., the difficulties in promotion, funding application and colleague collaboration) all on their non-nativeness (6.2.4.3). It then creates a chain reaction that the misconceptions brought about by the language policy somehow strengthen their stereotypical ideology they formed during their language learning process in the Chinese educational system and sustains the notion of native-speakerism. Furthermore, their stereotypes on English speakers and the native-speakerism make more sense of the monolingual language policy. It is difficult for them to jump out from this circle to change their inherent understanding both cognitively and affectively if this issue is continued to be ignored by international universities.

The experiences of Chinese academics in the current study could be arguably assimilated with the subsequent stories of Japanese students in Ishikawa's study (2015) if these students were to pursue their study/work in Anglophone countries (e.g., UK) after graduation with a native-bound attitude. However, according to Ishikawa (2015, see also 3.5.3.1), these students were easily to accept ELF as both a phenomenon and a concept as long as they were provided with explicit explanations about ELF. This would help these students to build up their confidence and succeed in the real-world intercultural communications.

In this sense, what UK universities could do is not to mislead academics to have an ENL-norm focused and monolingual view of the current UK academic settings but to raise their awareness of the ELF as a phenomenon and make sense of the ELF environment. Just as the classical conditioning Greenwald (1968b) mentioned, by constantly blurring the boundary of native and non-native and provide them with acceptance and positive experiences when they use a ‘different’ English on the premise of the mutual understanding, they might have a gradual attitude change towards the ‘non-native’ English varieties. Specific suggestions for UK HEIs will be presented in the next chapter (Section 8.3.2)

7.2.3 The GE-related experience

Apart from the set of native-bound attitude, Chinese academics sometimes showed contradictory attitudes as discussed in 7.1.2. This section explains how their contradictory attitudes may be formed.

7.2.3.1 Familiarity

In accordance with previous studies in the ELT context (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Matsuura et al., 1999), my quantitative and qualitative findings demonstrate that the increase of familiarity of speakers and accents result in an increase of academics’ acceptance of the speaker and the accent (5.2.2, 6.2.3.1, 6.2.3.2, 6.2.4.1) in academic settings. On the one hand, they are familiar with the RP/GA and the ENL norms as only British/American English is the target English language variety of their language learning experiences and they seldom had the chance to practice their English with various speakers during their English language learning process (2.4.1); on the other hand, they are working in an international environment with various NNEs, and their familiarity of other varieties of English (e.g., Indian English, Japanese English) gradually increased. As shown in Section 5.4, academics with older age and more working experience seem to be more relaxed and open in terms of the diverse use of English (5.4). As also pointed out in Section 3.3.2.2, the increase of age means the knowledge and experience increase. Considering the qualitative results together, it is most likely that the increase of age and working experience enhances academics’ familiarity of different varieties of Englishes (6.2.2.2,

6.2.3.2.2) given the international nature of the UK HEIs and the consistent international working environment.

This contradiction brings them about confusions on questions such as “what is the native/standard English?”, and “whether language standard is still important for the HEIs to maintain since the linguistic background is changing” (5.2.2, 6.2.1.1). Matsuda (2002) suggests that these confusions can be solved by the increased familiarity of various English varieties. However, as discussed in 7.1.2, more ELF experience and the increase of the familiarity may not necessarily mean the attitude change from the negative to the positive stance, but more tolerance of certain language. In addition, the educational system in China and HEIs in the UK fails to equip students/international academics (such as respondents in the current study) with the knowledge and awareness of the spread of English language.

Moreover, this finding confirms the statement of Cargile et al. (1994) that the interpersonal history between interlocutors may influence the attitudes of the hearer to the speaker. That is, the improvement of the interpersonal history between the speaker and the hearer may bring about familiarity of the hearer to the speaker. Hence, the hearer would not simply judge or form an attitude according to his/her stereotypical understanding of certain language the speaker uses. This explains why all the respondents reacted negatively to non-RP/GA accent but sometimes commented positively on NNEs especially on their NNE colleagues who are working with them (6.2.2, 6.2.3). It is easy to be influenced by their inherent understanding or stereotype to comment on an accent. However, when it comes to the speakers, respondents may be reminded of certain person they had contact with, and their experiences with this person may influence their attitudes towards the community the person represented. Therefore, the familiarity of both the language itself and the speaker seem to influence the respondents' language attitudes.

7.2.3.2 Language practices

Their real language practices also challenged their ‘bias towards the abstracted, idealised, homogenous’ (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 67) standard language ideology built

up by their previous learning experiences. Some of them expressed an attitude change in my qualitative findings before and after they got involved in the UK academic environment (6.2.3.1.2, 6.2.3.2.1, 6.2.5). First, their focus shifted from the English language itself to the real content they are working on (6.2.2.1). This can be reflected by less focus of language accuracy and norms as in ‘Balanced attitude’ group (5.4.2) according to the quantitative results. Moreover, my quantitative findings also identify that academics with more working experiences and older ages (e.g., academics in ‘*Balanced attitude*’ & ‘*Conventionally oriented*’ group) are less influenced by their ideologies formed in their early language learning compared to their younger counterparts (e.g., ‘*Status and self-image focused*’ & ‘*Speaker focused and stressed*’ group)(5.4.2 & 5.4.3). A possible explanation for this might be the ELF environment they are working in which may dilute the influence of native-speakerism and brings them the perceived equality in language to some extent (6.2.4.2). That is, the constant ELF working environment may somehow help them identify that, borrowing Chapple’s (2015) title of her research, ‘*Teaching in English is not necessarily the teaching of English*’. Therefore, they may put more focus on the content instead of the language itself and start to realise that despite the unchangeable fact of being ‘inferior’ NNEs, they are equal to NESs in terms of academic literacy.

Furthermore, the conflict between the standard language ideology and the real language practices is also revealed by their use of English in different academic activities, specifically, in formal and informal, public and private settings. The respondents showed different attitudes towards the use of English in formal/public and informal/private context respectively. Nearly all of my interviewees indicated that they considered various use of English as acceptable and the intelligibility is more important in an informal/private context while on the other hand, in a formal/public setting, they tended to be rigid in grammar and accent and paid special attention to the correctness of their English in order to conform to the ENL norms although this may cause unnecessary pauses during their speaking or brings about more preparation time to them (see 6.2.1.2, 6.2.5.3). This may also explain why academics with research-focused role is more rigid and persistent on language accuracy and correctness comparing with academics with teaching-focused roles (5.4.2 & 5.4.3), as they lack

the real language practice in academic settings, especially in classroom communications.

However, these ‘attitudes’ seem to be ‘evaluative responses/judgements’ which are relatively flexible expressions of attitudes and may be changed according to different situations (cf. Eagly and Chaiken, 2007). Moreover, according to Maio & Haddock (2018), when people do not believe a newly added information, their attitudes are very likely to remain unchanged. In this sense, it could be interpreted that on the one hand, these Chinese academics’ daily language practices (new information) may help them start to realise the change of the linguistic landscape in the UK HEIs and the importance of intelligibility in communications; on the other hand, it seems that the majority of them do not always believe that all varieties of English is acceptable, and the language standard can be replaced by the intelligibility in communications.

Therefore, as pointed out in 7.1.1, although they are aware of the diversity among language speakers (see Figure 7.2), their hierarchical views might remain unchanged. This indicates that their GE-related experience may raise their awareness of ELF as a phenomenon in the UK academia, however, their deep-rooted native-bound attitude influenced by the educational system and language policy remains unchanged and still makes them attach more importance to the standard/native English, which is regarded as the correct and official English used in formal/public settings.

7.3 How do attitudes towards English norms influence Chinese academics’ language-related behaviour in academic settings?

This section relates the respondents’ academic behaviours and behaviour intentions to their language attitudes to explain the possible influences of their language attitudes. As discussed in 3.4, although the model of TRA and TPB have their own issues in predicting behaviours (cf. Maio & Haddock, 2010), they are applied to this study not primarily aiming to predict behaviours but to explain behaviours/behaviour intentions in order to make more sense of academics’ language-related behaviour and to provide useful information for HEIs to better understand the experiences of their international academic staff.

With regard to influences of respondents' language attitudes, there are two major themes appeared in my quantitative and qualitative findings: psychological states and academic challenges/difficulties. To be specific, according to the TRA model, there are two determinant components, namely '*attitude towards the behaviour*' and '*subjective norm*' (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). '*Attitude towards the behaviour*' refers to both beliefs the person have about the possible consequences of the behaviour and the person's evaluation of the consequences. That is, whether the person thinks his/her behaviour would have good/bad influence. For the current study, since the majority of academics had a native-bound attitude and reacted negatively on their own English language, their beliefs about the consequences of their 'non-native' English are likely to be bad. This explains why they have talked a lot about their problems in terms of their psychological states such as the anxiety and the lack of confidence because of their non-nativeness (5.2.2, 6.2.5.3).

These negative psychological states not only echo studies focusing on Chinese academics (e.g., Hsieh, 2012; Jiang et al., 2010) but also other international academics (e.g., Luxon & Peelo, 2009; Walker, 2015). Their intentions of behaviours are accordingly to be acting more native-like (5.2.2; 6.2.4.3; 6.2.5.3). For instance, Participant 9 corrected the grammatical mistakes she made immediately regardless of the smoothness of the conversation (6.2.5.3). This seems to be the '*instinctual response*' of many Chinese academics (see 6.2.4.2; 6.2.5.3). In addition, these Chinese academics' native-bound attitudes may result in the avoidance of communicating with some NNEs as they believe that their non-nativeness in English, especially in accent would have a bad consequence which may impede their mutual understandings (6.2.3.2; 6.2.5.3).

Moreover, another component of the TRA model is the '*subjective norm*' which includes a person's beliefs about how other people may consider certain behaviours as well as his/her motivations to satisfy others by certain actions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). This means that people tend to act according to others' views about certain behaviour. In this study, it is more about Chinese academics' perceived views of others. Due to

their own language education which only preserves the ENL norms, along with an ED-dominant working context (2.4), they assumed that native/standard English could be more acceptable by their students, colleagues, interviewers and conference audience although their English might be sufficient enough for their work (5.2.1; 6.2.5.3).

Jenkins and Mauranen (2019) categorise the UK HE context into EMI settings to emphasise the diverse linguistic practice. It is nevertheless important not to neglect the fact that UK is after all an ED country and the influence of its top-down language policy. Academics are different from stakeholders in the non-Anglophone settings, who seem to have a better awareness and the expectance of the ‘non-native’ use of English in the classroom (cf. Banks, 2018; Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Gundermann, 2014; Hu & Lei, 2014). Academics, especially NNEs in the ED countries, on the other hand, seem to be more difficult to challenge the hegemony of the ENL norms and to accept other English varieties since the native norm of English is supposed to be used by NESs who live in the ED countries.

Accordingly, the respondents tried their best to follow the ENL norms by, for instance, spending more time preparing for their teaching/presentation in order to be correct in grammar and pronunciation; asking their native colleagues or friends for help in order to achieve the correctness in language; deliberately making sure they are always grammatically correct during communications; and continuously learning and practice their English in order to be more native-like (5.2.2, 6.2.4.3, 6.2.5.3). This finding is consistent with data obtained in Luxon & Peelo (2009). Although respondents in Luxon and Peelo’s (2009) study did not explicitly express their focus on the ‘correctness’ of their English, it can be inferred from the fact that the teacher felt pressured to process the spoken English and to concentrate on not making lots of mistakes in his/her English during the class.

However, a dilemma could be identified based on the TPB model. TPB introduces a new component ‘*Perceived Behavioural Control*’ which is further added to the TRA model and indicates the perceived level of easiness for a person to conduct certain behaviours (Ajzen, 1991). For the current study, it is rather obvious that Chinese

academics intended to act more native-like when participating in their academic activities while they found that it was very unlikely to achieve the nativeness in practice (see 6.2.4.2, 6.2.4.3). Moreover, they also mentioned that their habit of always following the correct grammar and pronunciation may hinder the communication smoothness and they felt difficult to focus on the real content and key points they made as they needed time to pause and think about the right expressions (6.2.1.2; 6.2.4.2). This result echoes Mauranen's (2017) statement in her book that it might be the standard norm that influences and interrupts the communication and the fluency of the speaker. This result also indicates that they have little confidence in their ability to conduct the behaviour (cf. Maio & Haddock, 2010), namely being native-like. This dilemma may worsen their psychological states and make them more anxious and unconfident in their work.

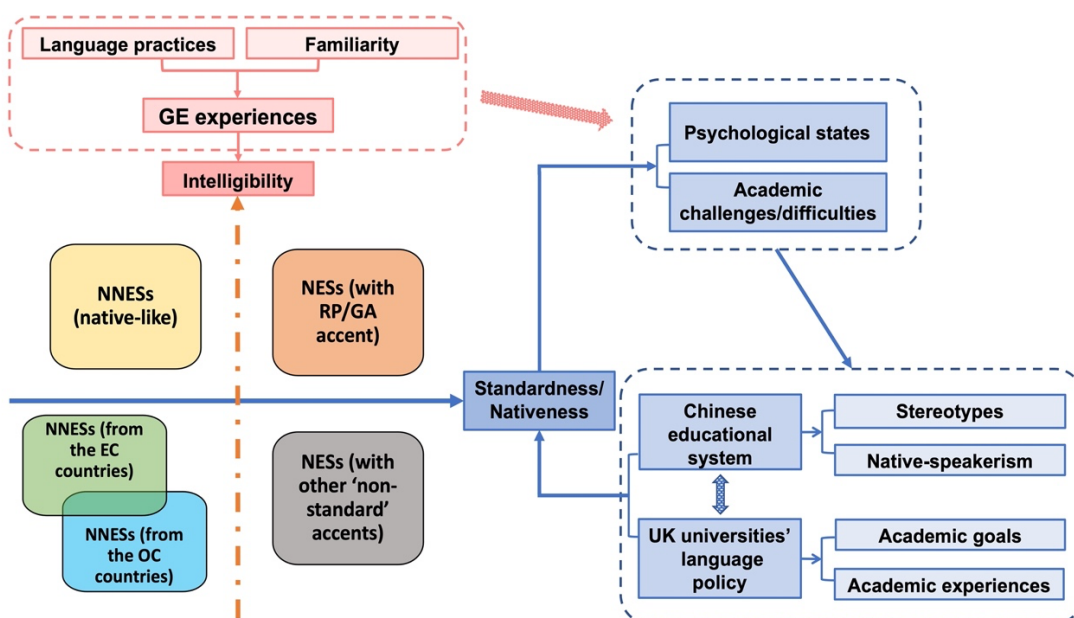
Therefore, it seems that their challenges are not simply about inequality in the UK academia. It is not the problem that the outside environment imposed to them neither (see 6.2.3.1). In this sense, their dilemma cannot be simply regarded as language issues, hence being resolved on a surface level by simply providing them with language supports to help them improve their language proficiency as many previous studies suggested (cf. Turner & Robson 2008; Hsieh, 2010; Luxon & Peelo, 2009). Tracing back to the original cause of their behaviour/behaviour intentions, it is still related to their native-bound language attitudes, or deeper, the above-mentioned factors that form their native-bound attitudes.

7.4 Summary

To conclude, the following Figure 7.3 summarises my three research questions and major points in my discussion chapter. As shown in Figure 7.3, there are two sets of attitudes guided by two evaluative standards: Standardness/nativeness and intelligibility which comes from their SE-dominant cognitive base and GE-oriented cognitive base respectively. The former base is much stronger than the latter which plays a more significant role in directing academics' language attitudes. It is, however, problematic that the SE-dominant cognitive base leads to the hierarchical classification of speakers. This hierarchical view fails to be accord with the diversity of the UK

academia and indicates that the respondents failed to embrace ELF as a concept but were only aware of ELF as a phenomenon.

Figure 7.3 Model of Chinese academics' language attitudes



Specifically, respondents' strong SE-dominant cognitive base was established by both Chinese educational system, which influences their early language study and the language policy in UK universities, which influences their current working experiences (Figure 7.3). Despite the extent to which academics with certain characteristics are influenced by these systems and its associated factors, both systems stress the ENL norms and help to make sense of each other. First, the Chinese educational system which advocates the ENL norms gives rise to the formation of respondents' stereotypical views on English language speakers and the ideology of

native-speakerism which emphasises the superiority and authority of NESs. Moreover, the consequences of the lack of GE perspectives in the UK universities' language policy make respondents take it for granted that NESs are at an advantageous position, hence they failed to consider the fact that no one is native in academic English. This has, therefore, brought the misconception to them that being native-like means advantageous and successful. This misconception may influence their academic goal setting and give rise to their misinterpretations of their language experiences in academic settings.

The SE-dominant cognitive base also has a bad effect on respondents' psychological states and brings about unnecessary language challenges/difficulties. To be specific, they may feel anxious and lack confidence since they regard themselves as subalterns, therefore trying to follow strictly to the ENL norms, although this might be more time-consuming and even influence the smoothness of conversations. Their psychological states and academic difficulties may, further strengthen their stereotypical views and ideology of native-speakerism as well as making more sense of their misconceptions in academic goal setting and experiences. This is thus becoming a vicious circle. As long as they cannot reach the native level of English, which is very unlikely, this circle will continue to influence their attitude and academic experiences in a negative way.

On the other hand, they are aware of the importance of intelligibility because of their language practices and familiarities of various English varieties (Figure 7.3). Their GE-oriented base, however, fails to bring many changes at present because it is relatively weak. Many above-mentioned issues could be gradually addressed if they challenge their preconceived native-bound ideology and regard themselves as legitimate English users equally with NESs. For instance, their anxiety and the lack of confidence was brought about by their self-perceived identity as NNESs, whose English is hardly to be native-like. Many of their language challenges and difficulties existed only because their view through an ENL lens, which strictly follows the ENL norms (e.g., the lack of confidence, anxiety, an increase of workload, etc.). Their anxiety could be reduced, and confidence could be increased once they are able to appreciate their differences through a GE lens. Therefore, they may shift their focus

from the English language per se (e.g., being entangled in the constant correction of grammar and pronunciation) to their work content (e.g., utilising English as a tool for conversations).

7.5 Ending Remarks

As discussed above, this chapter has considered two sets of Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English: the obsessions with the standardness/nativeness and some contradictory attitudes. Factors that influence these attitudes also have been identified and discussed. Specifically, Chinese academics' deeply rooted native-bound attitudes were generated and reinforced by the English language education which upholds the ENL norms and the problematic language policy. Moreover, the mismatch between their standard language ideology and their GE experience in the UK academia made them feel confused and sometimes contradicted themselves when talking about their language attitudes. However, these confusions and contradictory attitudes are more likely to be the attitudinal responses which is relatively flexible comparing with their positive attitudes to the ENL norms. Further influences of their native-bound attitudes have also been discussed by considering their academic challenges and difficulties together. The native-bound attitudes were problematic as it seems to be the cause of many of their narrow understandings of English as well as their academic challenges/difficulties. These challenges/difficulties were not merely a language problem as they thought to be and can hardly be resolved from the external language support from the universities or their peer colleagues. The GE experience and awareness could alter their mind to some extent and may direct them to perform differently from their old ways when participating in their academic work.

The next chapter provides a conclusion of the research which includes the implications of the study for the policy makers, international academics and future researchers. Limitations are also discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 8 Conclusion

This chapter provides answers to my three research questions and discusses implications from the research findings. Specifically, Section 8.1 reiterates the research rationale, followed by restating the research questions and research design in turn. Section 8.2 presents research findings with regard to the research questions. Section 8.3 is followed to discuss implications in terms of GE perspectives in both China and the UK context. Section 8.4 suggests contributions, followed by research limitations addressed in Section 8.5. Future studies are then considered afterwards in Section 8.7.

8.1 Research rationale, questions, and design

This study stemmed from the identification of the mismatch between the ‘default’ monolithic standard of native/standard English and the prevalence of ELF communications in the so-called UK international universities where the monolingual language policy seems to mislead stakeholders’ ideologies of English language as well as researchers in the field of internationalisation of HE. Although GE researchers are aware of and criticise the excessive emphasis on Standard English by both speakers and researchers and ‘focus on the global consequences of English’s use as a world language’ (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. xii), they fail to consider the international academics in universities in an ED country, i.e., the UK universities. This study therefore aimed to add empirical evidence to the internationalisation, GE and language attitude literature by focusing on a particular under-researched international staff group, namely Chinese academics, in the UK universities to explore Chinese academics’ language attitudes towards English language norms as well as the associative factors and influences of these language attitudes.

According to the research rationale and aims, three research questions were generated:

1. What are Chinese academics’ language attitudes towards English language norms in UK universities?
2. What factors have influenced the attitudes of these Chinese academics?

3. How do attitudes towards English norms influence Chinese academics' language-related behaviour in academic settings?

The current study adopted a direct approach, by using a mixed-method design (the triangulation design) to triangulate the results collected by both questionnaire and interviews to ensure the research validity as well as gaining wider and in-depth understanding in not only Chinese academics' language attitudes but also factors associated with these attitudes and possible influences of their language attitudes.

8.2 Research findings

8.2.1 What are Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms in UK universities?

The respondents showed two sets of language attitudes that guided their evaluative standards: standardness/nativeness from their SE-dominant cognitive base and intelligibility from their GE-oriented cognitive base. The former set of native-bound attitude is taking the dominant role. On the one hand, they had a native-bound attitude towards English. They were positive and showed a high acceptance of the NESs by positively describing NESs such as familiar, correct and competent, whereas they negatively commented on NNEs including words and phrases such as inaccurate, not understandable, unnatural and incomplete. More specifically, the respondents had a hierarchical view of speakers which revealed the ideology of native-speakerism. Five hierarchical evaluative categories were concluded according to their attitudes from positive to negative: 1. NESs (with RP/GA accent); 2. NESs (with other 'non-standard' accent); 3. NNEs (native-like, regardless of their nationalities); 4. NNEs (from OC countries); and 5. NNEs (from EC countries). That is, they were generally more positive to NESs regardless of whether their accents were standard or not while negative to NNEs. Moreover, their hierarchical view was also reflected in their attitudes towards their own English. They basically placed themselves in either Category 3 or 5 where the majority chose Category 5, which is the least favourable group.

On the other hand, the importance of intelligibility in communications seems to be another standard they used to evaluate people's English. They tended to be more positive to NNEs than NESs at times when NNEs' English is more understandable or when a conversation is smoother among NNEs regardless of the correctness of English. They were also aware of the ELF as a phenomenon and the diversity among English speakers to some extent. However, their SE-dominant cognitive base was much stronger than the GE-oriented cognitive base in that their personal preferences always tended to be aligned with the native norms. They seem to be merely more tolerant to the non-nativeness of other speakers.

These complex and sometimes contradictory language attitudes were constantly identified and may be explained by the low 'evaluative-cognitive consistency' which indicates the lack of comprehensive 'factual support' of their GE-oriented cognitive base (7.1.2). Therefore, they have generated the above-mentioned attitudinal responses which is fluctuating at times.

8.2.2 What factors have influenced the attitudes of these Chinese academics?

The associative factors that shape the formation of the respondents' language attitudes, with regard to research question 2, were also interpreted from two aspects. First, generally speaking, the respondents' dominant native-bound attitudes were shaped by the interplay between the English education system in China and the language policy in the UK. Specifically, all the respondents have received their early English language education in China, of which the educational system upheld the ENL norm by only employing British English/American English targeted materials and resources as well as a rigid exam system. Accordingly, the respondents' stereotypical understandings of English were easily formed during their language learning process to regard British English/American English as the only standard and correct norms of English.

Subsequently, the UK's misleading language policy strengthened their stereotypical ideology formed in their language learning process in a way that it overlooked the reality of the UK HE environment which is becoming increasingly diverse. As in an ED country, people tend to take it for granted that everyone should conform to the

'default' monolingual context (i.e., the ENL norm). However, the monolingual language policy conveyed a misconception that academic literacy is somehow equivalent to language proficiency. That is, academics who are not familiar with, or fail to conform to the native norms are likely to be considered as deficient in academic literacy.

The interplay between the Chinese educational system and the UK HEIs' language policy has created a vicious circle that the misconception influenced by the misleading language policy echoed the respondents' stereotypical ideology formed by their learning experiences in the Chinese educational system. At the same time, the respondents' stereotypical ideology was justified by the monolingual language policy. Consequently, their SE-dominant cognitive base was strong and unalterable.

Second, despite the limited influences, the respondents' GE experiences also impacted the formation of their GE-oriented cognitive base, hence affected their attitudinal responses. The increased familiarity of respondents with certain English varieties and certain NNEs when participating in the multilingual academic settings resulted in them questioning the so-called 'standard'/'native' English, at least within a short time. Moreover, the constant ELF experience in their language practices also influenced their attitude in that they stressed the importance of content rather than the language itself to ensure mutual understanding in communications especially in informal settings.

8.2.3 How do attitudes towards English norms influence Chinese academics' language-related behaviour in academic settings?

The respondents' language attitudes, particularly native-bound language attitudes may influence their behaviours/behavioural intentions participating in academic settings in terms of psychological states and academic challenges/difficulties. First, psychological issues including anxiety and a lack of confidence were identified as the majority of the respondents regarded themselves as NNEs who lack language proficiency in the ED country like the UK. Consequently, the respondents tended to try their best to be aligned with the native norms by spending more time correcting

their grammar and pronunciation and pretending to be more native-like. However, the respondents also realised that they can hardly achieve nativeness in practice. Therefore, their efforts in conforming strictly to the grammar or pronunciation actually hindered their fluency and the smoothness of conversations. They were then becoming more anxious and unconfident, as well as self-marginalising themselves. Moreover, their native-bound attitudes also prevented them from getting familiar with other non-native English varieties (e.g., avoiding communicating with NNEs who has a ‘strong’ accent).

Second, the respondents’ native-bound attitudes also resulted in them considering being more native-like as a way to resolve their academic challenges and difficulties, so that they might be more successful in academic activities in terms of promotion, funding application, teaching, collaborations and networking. However, as discussed above, since they were very unlikely to achieve the so-called nativeness, they were actually in a dilemma where they were under great pressure and faced great language challenges in hope of becoming more native-like while the chance is scarcely possible. These challenges thus remained unsolved if they do not intend to view their dilemma from a different angle.

8.3 Implications

8.3.1 GE perspectives in the educational system in China

As discussed in 7.2.1, this study has raised important questions about the role Chinese educational system and policies which still upholds only British and American English. This has been one of the major factors that influence Chinese academics’ early language attitude formation. A fundamental mismatch is identified between the national zeal of learning English among Chinese language learners and the real understanding of what English they are learning, using and may encounter in the future (see 2.5.2). The narrow conception of English (Wang & Gao, 2008) has misled Chinese English language learners to consider only British/American English as legitimate. This misconception has brought about confusions when these language learners start to work in the UK HEIs where ELF as a phenomenon is prominent. They might yet to realise that the real working context is different from what they have

learned in their original native-bound language educational system. Although the environment may to some extent raise their awareness of the GE perspectives and change their attitudinal responses towards English varieties, it is still difficult for them to seriously consider and accept Global Englishes as a concept as well as challenging their deeply rooted native-bound attitude, hence their stereotypical views of English language varieties and ideology of native-speakerism remains unchanged.

MoE, as the ‘supreme authority’ that dominates the national syllabus formulation and teaching guidelines (Shi, 2017) in China, should take the responsibility to raise learners’ awareness of the change of the linguistic landscape around the world. For instance, although the respondents sometimes showed their focus on intelligibility, they are negative towards certain English language varieties or accents because of their unfamiliarity. The educational system is responsible to help learners expose to many possible varieties of Englishes and accents to raise their awareness and be more familiar with various use and varieties of Englishes, so that they may adapt to the linguistic diversity proactively in their future use and encounter of Englishes.

Therefore, the MoE in China is suggested to (re)consider the following issues. First, whether the ENL norm is still in line with the global spread of English. When the NNEs has already outnumbered NESs, whether learning only the ENL norm of English can equip language learner with the ability for their future language practices? Second, whether the language test is still valid to be entirely form-focused which strictly focusing on language rules rather than function-focused which places the emphasis on the use of language. Third, whether the current language policy as management and educational system has misled students and imposed their bias towards so-called ‘legitimate English’?

Practically, several suggestions are raised corresponding to the points mentioned above to strengthen people’s GE-oriented base. Admittedly, the respondents’ experiences were irreversible, whereas these suggestions may bring about potential benefit for future language learners, hence future academics who may benefit from a well-established policy as management which addresses the global linguistic

landscape and dilute the influence of native language norms and native-speakerism. First, from the cognitive perspective, the school may offer students more opportunities in terms of ELF communications such as exchange programmes and study tour overseas. In that, they may have more first-hand experiences of how English is used among speakers with various linguistic background and be able to participate in the ELF context themselves. Second, the school may raise students' awareness of ELF as a phenomenon and equip them with knowledge about the global expansion of English by exposing them to GE-related topics, audio, video and other materials. Thus, they may have more chance to reflect on and discuss ELF as both the phenomenon and a concept as well as other GE-related studies. Third, the school and language teachers may reconsider and add more GE-related information to the curriculum design and teaching materials to diminish the stereotypical ideology of NESs and NNESs dichotomy and the influence of native-speakerism.

Moreover, from the affective perspectives, considering the classical conditioning mentioned in Chapter 3, when affective responses are repeatedly related to certain languages, people may form a favourable/unfavourable attitude towards the language. That is, when the above-mentioned suggestions are implemented, the students are assumed to be more familiar with various use of English by different language speakers. In this sense, the increased familiarity of students towards not only the 'legitimate' English but also other Englishes may bring some changes to the current situation where students naturally associate positive affective responses to 'legitimate' English while associate negative affective responses to non-native Englishes.

Finally, from the behavioural perspectives, changes are suggested in terms of instrumental learning. That is, unlike the current educational context which regards students with non-standard English as a failure of English language learning, teachers are suggested to encourage students with positive feedback when students reach the communicative purpose regardless of whether the student conforms to the right language rules. In this sense, students may have the tendency not to excessively concern about language forms only but also switching their focus to the function of language when the bonds between the ENL norm and positive response are challenged.

8.3.2 GE perspectives in language policy in the UK HEIs

As discussed in 7.3, a native-bound language attitude has a negative effect on Chinese academics' psychological states and may result in their academic challenges/difficulties. Considering the global spread of English and the changing linguistic landscape in the UK HEIs, jumping out from the native norms and reconsider their language challenges/difficulties from a GE perspective may well be beneficial and gradually diminish the influence of native norms. However, current universities, as well as academics themselves, have still yet to attempt to do so and still generally asserted the dilemma of international academic staff as language problems under their NNES labels. Given that academic literacy does not equal language proficiency, it would be worthwhile for universities' policymakers to think differently by reconsidering international academics' challenges and difficulties from a GE perspective to formulate appropriate guidance and provide better support for them.

Drawing on Spolsky's framework of language policy again, this section discusses implications of the research findings from GE perspectives for UK HEIs from language policy as management, ideologies and practices perspectives. From the perspective of language policy as management, several issues are suggested for HEIs to take into consideration. First, to treat the 'hidden rules' for international academics seriously. As discussed in Section 7.2.2, many of the respondents mentioned that there is no official language requirement for international academics as it seems unfair to have language requirement only for international academics, although they felt reasonable to have one. This, however, exactly indicates that UK universities still pay 'lip service' (De Vita & Case, 2003) to internationalisation without giving careful consideration to the diversity and multilingual reality of the UK HE context. Not giving specific language requirement to international academics does not necessarily mean an effective solution to the inequity in language. The 'hidden rules' are still existing, not only in the UK academia, but more importantly, in students and staff's standard language and native-speakerism ideologies. Just as Holliday (2015) points out, it is the non-native speakers who sustained the inequality by their self-marginalisation despite the fact that the inequality is originally created by native

speakers through the process of marginalisation. Therefore, the academic minorities, such as Chinese and other international academics, may need more attention and support with regard to not only language difficulties but also the change of stakeholders' underlying neo-racist ideology to NNEs including themselves.

Practically, universities may reconsider the 'default' monolingual context of the UK academia at a policy as a management level to raise awareness of the legitimacy of English speakers of both NESs and NNEs, so that every stakeholder can really ponder deeply over the problem to reduce the influence of neo-racism and native-speakerism instead of 'hiding it beneath an inclusive and nice professional veneer' (Holliday, 2015, p. 19). It is suggested for universities/colleges/schools to take initiatives addressing explicitly how GE is embedded in academic activities and the role of SE/other English varieties.

Second, one of the reasons that many of the respondents had contradictory attitudes towards English is that they were all aware of ELF as a phenomenon but failed to understand ELF as a concept. It therefore resulted in their confusions about their diverse linguistic working environment and their SE language and/or native-speakerism ideology. Many previous researchers (e.g., Hsieh, 2012; Jiang et al., 2010; Luxon & Peelo, 2009) suggest that universities need to provide more language support for international academics to help them settle down to a new academic environment. However, this study shows that simply providing language support to improve international academics' language proficiency is not always appropriate since many issues of the respondents were not caused by the lack of language proficiency but their native-bound language ideology, in other words, the lack of awareness of GE perspectives (see 7.3). Therefore, awareness-raising is an important issue for institutions to consider when providing support for international academics, especially for those who work in social science as it seems that they are more likely to get confused between academic literacy and language proficiency due to the nature of their subjects (see 5.2.1 & 5.4). In this sense, more comprehensive and explicit guidance (e.g., training courses, workshop, and seminars) would be of help to make sense of the current multilingual context. This may also help alleviate the stereotypical views and

native-speakerism ideology of the respondents generated by the traditional Chinese language educational system by providing them opportunities to conceptually reflect on and challenge their long-held native-bound beliefs.

Third, in terms of language policy as practices, UK universities and stakeholders may also (re)consider the issue whether language proficiency represents academic literacy. As discussed in previous chapters (see 2.5; 7.2.2), speakers who are unfamiliar with native norms are regarded as deficient which brings fundamental misconceptions to stakeholders about academic literacy (Wingate, 2018). For instance, a good language proficiency does not necessarily mean good academic literacy and vice versa. When the respondents considered their academic goals in relation to language proficiency instead of academic literacy and professional knowledge, they naturally tended to be negative about themselves. However, academic language is in fact no one's mother language (Wingate, 2018). It is thus worthwhile for academics to be aware of the misleading, or hidden guidance by distinguishing the differences between academic literacy and language proficiency.

Specifically, universities may consider clarifying the role of the English language and the importance of academic literacy as well as professional knowledge in academics' language practices since many of the respondents still thought being native-like in English means more success in their work and career (see 5.2.2 & 5.4). Notably, considering the diversity of academics even in the same ethnic group, it is suggested to tailor the support to meet the specific language needs of academics based on the comprehensive understating of their situation. For instance, given that academics with younger age and less working experience may be more stressed regarding their academic career and the 'correct' use of English (5.4.1), it is suggested that universities may offer more guidance and support in raising early-career academics' awareness of GE perspectives and the importance of content as opposed to the nativeness/correctness of the English language itself in their language practices.

8.4 Research limitations

First, the questionnaire contained a wide collection of attitudinal statements from various resources including the researcher's own design, the data of exploratory interviews, and previous literature to align with the exploratory nature of the current study and answer the research questions. Given the innovative design and uncommonness of employing EFA in GE and language attitude studies, the current study may inevitably require the compromise of not benefiting from the proven reliability from previously established questionnaire designs. Moreover, due to the lack of respondents, PhD students were also invited to take part in the pilot study. After all, PhD students' and academics' language experiences may vary. Even so, given the aim of the pilot study is mainly on the development of questionnaire items to ensure the content validity, these PhD students were only asked to provide insights into the questionnaires item designs. Likewise, the quantitative data analysis is not piloted because of the lack of respondents. Having said this, the high value of Cronbach's alpha revealed a high internal consistency and good reliability of the questionnaire.

Second, due to the nature of non-probability sampling and the limited number of respondents in the current study, the research findings cannot be statistically generalised to the whole population of Chinese academics working in British (Russell Group) universities. For instance, the sample was skewed to some extent as the majority of questionnaire respondents and interviewees are early-career researchers at a relatively young age (see 5.1 & 5.4; see also Appendix 11). Their voices can hardly represent Chinese academics in older ages with more working experiences. Nevertheless, the sample of the current study resembles the population of Chinese academics in terms of gender and subjects. Specifically, the gender structure of the obtained sample (Male 56.3%; Female 42.2%; Prefer not to say 1.5%) almost resembles the gender structure of the Chinese academic population (58% versus 42% male versus female) in the UK universities (Study in UK, n.d.). The two major disciplines of the current sample were engineering and technology as well as physical sciences. This is also similar to the Chinese academic population in Russell Group universities (Links between China and our members, 2018). That is, the obtained sample provided a good indication of Chinese academic group's language attitudes to

some extent. Moreover, it is still necessary to note that the transferability is carefully considered. Accordingly, sufficient contextual information and thick description were provided, so that the readers may resonate or compare the research findings according to their own experiences. The researchers may also find similarities in the rich and detailed information provided and reflect on other similar research settings and respondents. Notably, given the confidentiality issues, the researcher's field notes were not attached to the thesis.

Third, considering the potential respondent fatigue of my 36 'wordy' questionnaire items and imbalanced power relation, on the one hand, academics may not want to sacrifice their time to complete questionnaires and may be hesitant to open their mind and talk frankly in terms of their language difficulties and challenges to a PhD student. As mentioned in 4.5.10, many efforts were put to explicitly stress and explain the potential benefit of the research for the respondents to raise their interests and willingness to participate. On the other hand, given that Chinese academics are likely to be busy in terms of their work and all respondents were invited to take part in the research voluntarily, the respondents recruited in the current research are very likely to be those who are highly interested in the research topic, thereby willing to sacrifice their time to take part in the research. This may result in that the majority of respondents the study recruited are those who may have relatively stronger attitudes in consideration of their intention to contribute to the research.

Besides, although respondents received the transcripts and interpretations of interviews after interviews and were asked to confirm the accuracy of the results and add more information to the data, the researcher as both data collector and analyst, may inevitably impose her subjectivity during the whole process of designing and conducting research. Moreover, Chinese was used as the main language in all research instruments and data analysis, but the findings were presented in English. The language difference may limit the degree of accuracy. Nevertheless, efforts were put to lessen the influence of language difference by consultation strategy that meanings of word/phrase which is potentially problematic were discussed with bilingual speakers who also have certain knowledge in the field.

8.5 Contributions

The contributions of the current study are threefold: theoretically, methodologically, and pedagogically. This section addresses these perspectives respectively.

8.5.1 Theoretical contributions

This study has contributed to specific research areas theoretically. First, to the field of internationalisation of HE, this study provides researchers with a new angle to adopt a GE-oriented view instead of their original monolingual view, thereby not only conforming to the trend of the global expansion of English but also reviewing relevant issues regarding language from a new perspective. Prior to the current research, researchers in internationalisation of HE (e.g., Hsieh, 2012; Jiang, Di Napoli, Borg, Maunder, Fry & Walsh, 2010; Luxon & Peelo, 2009) seem to oversimplify the diversity in English language used by various speakers as language barriers and/or deficiencies. The current study, however, employs GE perspectives distinctively to add breadth to the understanding of the linguistic ecology and the multilingual repertoire of the staff/student cohort of UK universities. Moreover, the use of Spolsky's (2004) three-component language policy framework also enriches the study that gives researchers more insight into language policy comprehensively to regard language policy not only as an explicit top-down management only, but also as implicit language ideologies and practices of speech group members. Together with the notion of GE, it provides new train of thought for researchers exploring academics' experiences participating in the UK academia and/or internationalised universities.

Second, the research has shown that drawing on (language) attitude theories as the theoretical framework is a reasonable way to explain the complicatedness of people's language attitude. As discussed in 3.5.3, many GE researchers (e.g., Fang, 2016; Flowerdew Li and Miller, 1998; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011; Wang, 2014) have reported the complicatedness of language attitude, whereas the underlying issues relevant to the complex nature of attitude was ignored. The current research considers GE-relevant issues within the framework of attitude/language attitude. The combination of social process model (Cargile et al., 1994) and the model

of TPB (Ajzen, 1991) have put forward the solution to investigate not only surface-level language attitude and/or attitudinal responses, but also the formation of language attitude and the possible influence of language attitude. Future GE research may also consider employing relevant attitude theories when exploring and interpreting peoples' thoughts of language.

8.5.2 Methodological contributions

The current research adopted EFA, followed by cluster analysis and multinomial logistic regression analysis to analyse quantitative data in order to explore an innovative method investigating people's language attitudes as well as the underlying associative factors by direct approach. First, despite the choice of employing attitude theories from psychology and sociopsychology, the current research has also adopted EFA, which has long been used by researchers in psychology (Thompson, 2004, see also Fabrigar & Wegener, 2011, Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999, Moser & Kalton, 1971,). Given the exploratory nature of EFA, it was designed to explore language attitudes of other under-researched academics/speech group in various settings. This study substantiated the feasibility of the attitude scales designed for EFA and particular questionnaire items, which were retained after running EFA. Future studies may also draw on these retained questionnaire items (5.3.2) to explore language attitude for a specific and/or under-researched academic group. Furthermore, the study also proves the viability of combining cluster analysis (and multinomial logistic regression analysis) with EFA, as another exploratory technique (Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006), to identify the heterogeneity within the homogenous group. It provides researchers with possibilities to discover both general patterns/characteristics and distinctive features of smaller subgroups of the targeted speech and/or ethnic community.

8.5.3 Pedagogical implications and contributions

The study revealed that GE-related experience and awareness has clearly contributed to academics' understanding of the diverse linguistic landscape and may potentially bring positive impact on academics' language attitude and academic experiences. As much has been discussed in 8.3, the current study provides an opportunity for the MoE

in China, HEIs in the UK, Chinese academic staff, and/or international academic staff, and even indigenous academics to rethink about their position and the role of GE in academic settings. Moreover, the research findings (5.4, 6.2.3, 6.2.4, 6.2.5) showcasing the diversities within Chinese academics call for attention to the differences even among the same ethnic and/or speech communities. This may prevent individuals and/or universities from overgeneralising certain problems as well as oversimplifying coping strategies.

8.6 Future studies

Several further explorations would be worthwhile to be considered. First, since the current study has only recruited Chinese academics in Russell Group Universities, which is a relatively small number of academics, it is beneficial to conduct further research targeting a larger population of Chinese academics participating in UK universities. It would be also useful to consider the whole international academics population and/or recruit international academics from any Anglophone countries. More studies like this may help to form a better understanding of voices of the underrepresented (e.g., Chinese academics and/or international academics) under different circumstances in academic settings.

Second, future research is encouraged to draw on the *direct mixed-methods approach* (see 4.4.1 & 4.4.2) to investigate a complex phenomenon within a relatively under researched group to explore different facets of it (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). *Direct mixed-methods approach* allows researchers more freedom to design the most appropriate techniques distinctively for their particular research purposes to achieve more impressive results.

Third, although it is not common for GE researchers to employ EFA and cluster analysis to understand language attitude in the UK academia settings, the study proves the feasibility to do so (8.5.2). Considering the exploratory nature of the design of quantitative techniques (i.e., EFA and cluster analysis), future studies may also make use of same questionnaire items and run CFA subsequent to EFA to confirm the EFA results as well as ‘drawing substantive conclusions’ (Costello & Osborn, 2005, p. 8).

Moreover, on the basis of the cluster analysis and multinomial logistic regression analysis, the heterogeneity within Chinese academics were identified in terms of different characters associated with belonging to clusters (see 5.4.2 & 5.4.3). The constant reflection on the role of the researcher also illustrates differences between the researcher and the researched (4.5.7). Given the lack of first-hand experience of the researcher in terms of Chinese academics' language learning and working experiences, it would be beneficial to carry out longitudinal research in the future to employ an ethnographic approach to consider the concept of 'participant observation, researching as both an insider and an outsider' (Woodin, 2016, p. 109). A longer period of time may allow the researcher to form a more comprehensive understanding of academics' narratives and capture intra-individual changes over time by academics' career stages including, if any, their student-to-academic transitions.

Furthermore, given the fact that the current research and much previous research focus on NNEs' language attitudes, it is also important to explore how NESs reflect on this changing academic environment. In this sense, future studies could also explore NESs' language attitude towards English to provide insights into stakeholders' language attitudes from the inner-circle countries, in order to showcase a whole picture in terms of academics' language attitude in the UK HEIs. Moreover, future research may also contact key policymakers and administrators either in the MoE in China or British universities to explore their thoughts with regard to the trend of global spread of English and how they react to this trend. In short, considering the gap between globalisation and internationalisation-at-home process with its subsequent linguistic ecology and the lack of appropriate guidance on English language use, more research is encouraged to appeal to both researchers and stakeholders for more attention on creating a linguistically inclusive and encouraging environment for international students and staff.

8.7 Concluding remarks

To conclude, this chapter has presented the research findings which shows a dominant native-bound language attitude of Chinese academics. The research also identified that

their imposed standard English and native-speakerism ideologies were mainly misled by the Chinese educational system which upheld ENL norms and influenced their early language learning experiences as well as the UK universities' monolingual language policy which impact their current working experiences. Although they may have constant GE-related experience, it seems to be no more than confusions for these Chinese academics since they seldom critically question the dominant role of standard/native English. Their native-bound attitude also led to some unnecessary challenges/difficulties in language when participating in academic settings.

Various implications were made in this chapter from the perspectives of both the Chinese educational system and the UK universities considering the respondents' identities as both English language learners in the Chinese educational context and English language users in the UK academia. The need of viewing issues from a GE perspective is suggested to be taken into consideration to stakeholders in the UK academia, as well as researchers and policymakers.

The current study also contributes to various field of research and future studies were suggested in order to explore a comprehensive GE-oriented study with a larger population in a similar context.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Pilot questionnaire items for EFA

Factor 1 Native & non-native divide

- 1 International speakers' English sounds more pleasant than native speakers' English
- 2 Native Speakers' English is more understandable and clearer (multiple questions)⁶.
- 3 Non-native English causes communicative problems. (Similar with 26&27)
- 4 International speakers experience more difficulties expressing themselves accurately (e.g., grammar, sentence structure) than native speakers unavoidably during communication.
- 5 Generally speaking, international speakers make more language mistakes than native speakers do.
- 6 Nativised English sounds natural (vague).
- 7 Nativised English is incomplete (vague).
- 8 I am more familiar with native speakers' English compared with international speakers' English.(similar with 11) C
- 9 Nativised English is incorrect. (similar with 10)
- 10 Native speakers' English sounds more correct.
- 11 Native speakers' English sounds more familiar than international speakers.
- 12 Native speakers English sounds more sociable (vague).

Factor 2 Academic goals

- 13 I can achieve more if I use standard English. (vague)
- 14 I want to improve my English language ability in order to achieve a better academic progress.
- 15 If I use English as native speakers do, I feel more motivated to work.

⁶ The underlined items were deleted after pilot study with reasons in the bracket.

- 16 People with good English abilities have more opportunities in academic settings (e.g., fundings, projects). (vague, not reflecting to native and non-native divide, difficult to define good ability) (similar with 14)
- 17 If I use English as native speakers do, my opportunity of getting a proper job will be maximised.
- 18 If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in achieving my academic goal.

Factor 3 Context and experience of language use

- 19 If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in making good relationship with my colleagues.
- 20 I feel embarrassed if I pause a lot to search for the right word while talking with others.
- 21 I consult my native speaker colleagues for right expressions in English.
- 22 I feel less confident about my English when I communicate with native speakers than non-native speakers
- 23 I think I spend more time finishing my work compared with my native colleagues because English is not my first language (not applicable)
- 24 I do not deliberately make sure that I am grammatically accurate during my work.
- 25 Standard English increases the degree of comprehensibility among speakers of English.
- 26 Nativised English results in mutually incomprehensible varieties of English. (similar with 25)
- 27 Standard English makes it possible to express ideas more clearly. (similar with 25)

Factor 4 Perceived language expertise

- 28 It would be good if I can be more native-like in speaking
- 29 It would be good if I can be more native-like in writing
- 30 It is common that my English proficiency is not good as those Native speakers

- 31 If I use English as native speakers do, I can express my ideas more clearly.
- 32 My English listening skills are excellent. (not applicable)
- 33 My English speaking is excellent.
- 34 My English pronunciation is excellent
- 35 My reading skills are excellent
- 36 My writing skills are excellent.

Factor 5 Language learning

- 37 Standard English should be taught in primary school to provide student with a good language foundation
- 38 It would be good that student learn standard/native English rather than other varieties of English
- 39 Standard English should be taught at school for the benefit of students' future career development.
- 40 Native speakers should learn more about the international cultures to enhance mutual communication.

Factor 6 Higher Education policies

- 41 Universities should encourage and help international academics to improve their English language ability.
- 42 It is reasonable to have a language requirement for international academics.
- 43 Language standard is important to maintain the reputation of the university.
- 44 Language standard is important to maintain the high standard of the programme.
- 45 We cannot change the English language according to our own desire.
- 46 Nativised English is the corrupt form of English.

Factor 7 Linguistic prestige

If I use English as native speakers do.....

- 47 I am perceived as more intelligent.
- 48 I am perceived as more confident.
- 49 I am perceived as superior. (not applicable)

50 I am perceived as more sophisticated.

51 I am perceived as more educated.

Appendix 2 Questionnaire items for EFA

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement?

(1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=neutral, 5=slightly agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree)

Native and non-native divide

1. International speakers' English sounds more pleasant than native speakers' English. B⁷
2. International speakers' English is more understandable. B
3. International speakers experience more difficulties expressing themselves accurately (e.g., grammar, sentence structure) than native speakers unavoidably during communication. B
4. Generally speaking, international speakers make more language mistakes than native speakers do. B
5. International speakers' English sounds natural. A
6. International speakers' English is incomplete. A
7. Native speakers' English sounds more familiar than international speakers. B
8. Native speakers' English sounds more correct. A

Academic goals

9. I want to improve my English language ability in order to achieve a better academic progress. C
10. If I use English as native speakers do, I feel more motivated to work. B
11. I don't need to speak English as native speakers do as I will have equal opportunities of getting a proper job. B
12. If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in achieving my academic goal. B

Context and experiences of language use

⁷ The label indicates the specific attitude component (A. affective perspective; B: belief/cognitive perspective; C: conative perspective) this statement focuses on.

13. If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in making good relationship with my colleagues. B
14. I feel embarrassed if I pause a lot to search for the right word while talking with others. A
15. I consult my native speaker colleagues for right expressions in English. C
16. I feel less confident about my English when I communicate with native speakers than non-native speakers A
17. I do not deliberately make sure that I am grammatically accurate during my work. C
18. Standard English increases the degree of comprehensibility among speakers of English. B

Perceived language expertise

19. It is common that my English proficiency is not good as those Native speakers B
20. If I use English as native speakers do, I can express my ideas more clearly. B
21. It would be good if I can be more native-like in speaking. A
22. It would be good if I can be more native-like in writing A

Language learning

23. Standard English should be taught in primary school to provide student with a good language foundation B
24. It would be good that student learn standard English rather than other varieties of English A
25. Standard English should be taught at school for the benefit of students' future career development. B
26. Native speakers should learn more about the international cultures to enhance mutual communication. B

Higher Education policies

27. Universities should encourage and help international academics to improve their English language ability. B
28. It is reasonable to have a language requirement for international academics. B

29. Language standard is not so important to maintain the reputation of the university. B
30. Language standard is not so important to maintain the high standard of the programme. B
31. We cannot change the English language according to our own desire. B

Linguistic prestige

32. International speaker's English is the corrupt form of English. A

If I use English as native speakers do..... B

33. I am perceived as more intelligent.
34. I am perceived as more confident.
35. I am perceived as more sophisticated.
36. I am perceived as more educated.

Appendix 3 Sources of questionnaire items

- 1 Native English speakers sounds more pleasant than international speakers. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 2 Native Speakers' English is more understandable and clearer. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 3 Non-native English causes communicative problems. **(Seidlhofer & Berns 2009)**
- 4 International speakers experience more difficulties expressing themselves accurately (e.g., grammar, sentence structure) than native speakers unavoidably during communication. **(Exploratory interviews; Jiang et al., 2010; Hsieh, 2012)**
- 5 Generally speaking, international speakers make more language mistakes than native speakers do. **(Exploratory interviews)**
- 6 International speaker's English sounds natural. **(Khatib & Rahimi, 2015)**
- 7 International speaker's English is incomplete. **(Khatib & Rahimi, 2015)**
- 8 I am more familiar with native speakers' English compared with international speakers' English. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 9 International speaker's English is incorrect. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 10 Native speakers' English sounds more correct. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 11 Native speakers' English sounds more familiar than international speakers. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 12 Native speakers English sounds more friendly. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 13 The lack of English ability hinders international academics' career development. **(Equality Challenge Unit, 2013)**
- 14 I can achieve more if I use standard English. **(Equality Challenge Unit, 2013; exploratory interviews; Jiang et al., 2010)**
- 15 I want to improve my English language ability in order to achieve a better academic progress. **(Exploratory interviews)**
- 16 If I use English as native speakers do, I feel more motivated to work. **(The researcher's own design)**

- 17 People with good English abilities have more opportunities in academic settings (e.g., fundings, projects, teachings). **(Exploratory interviews; Jiang et al., 2010)**
- 18 If I use Standard English, it will maximise my opportunity of getting a proper job **(Equality Challenge Unit, 2013)**.
- 19 If I use Standard English, I will be more successful in achieving my academic goal. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 20 If I use standard English, I will be more successful in making good relationship with my colleagues. **(Equality Challenge Unit, 2013; Jiang et al., 2010; Khatib & Rahimi, 2015)**
- 21 I feel embarrassed if I pause a lot to search for the right word while talking with others. **(Jenkins, 2014)**
- 22 I consult my native speaker colleagues for right expressions in English. **(Exploratory interviews)**
- 23 I feel less confident about my English when I communicate with native speakers than non-native speakers. **(Luxon & Peelo, 2009)**
- 24 I think I spend more time finishing my work compared with my native colleagues because English is not my first language. **(Luxon & Peelo, 2009)**
- 25 I try to ensure that I am grammatically accurate during my work. **(Exploratory interviews)**
- 26 Standard English increases the degree of comprehensibility among speakers of English. **(Jiang et al., 2010; Khatib & Rahimi, 2015)**
- 27 Nativised English results in mutually incomprehensible varieties of English. **(Khatib & Rahimi, 2015)**
- 28 Standard English makes it possible to express ideas more clearly. **(Khatib & Rahimi, 2015)**
- 29 It would be good if I can be more native-like in speaking. **(Exploratory interviews)**
- 30 It would be good if I can be more native-like in writing. **(Exploratory interviews)**

- 31 It is common that international academics' English proficiency is not good as those Native speakers **(Equality Challenge Unit, 2013; Exploratory interview; Hsieh, 2012)**
- 32 If I use English as native speakers do, I can express my ideas more clearly. **(Exploratory interviews)**
- 33 My English listening skills are excellent. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 34 My English speaking is excellent. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 35 My reading skills are excellent. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 36 My writing skills are excellent. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 37 standard English should be taught in primary school to provide student with a good language foundation. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 38 It would be good that student learn standard/native English rather than other varieties of English. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 39 Students should be taught standard English at school which is good for their future career. **(Gardner, 2004)**
- 40 Universities should encourage and help international academics to improve their English language ability. **(Equality Challenge Unit, 2013)**
- 41 It is reasonable to have a language requirement for international academics. **(The researcher's own design)**
- 42 Language standard is important to maintain the reputation of the university. **(Jenkins, 2014)**
- 43 Language standard is important to maintain the high standard of the programme. **(Jenkins, 2014)**
- 44 We cannot change the English language according to our own desire.
- 45 Nativised English is the corrupt form of English. **(Khatib & Rahimi, 2015)**
If I use English as native speakers do..... **(Khatib & Rahimi, 2015)**
- 46 I am perceived as more intelligent.
- 47 I am perceived as more confident.
- 48 I am perceived as more superior.
- 49 I am perceived as more sophisticated.
- 50 I am perceived as more educated.

Appendix 4 Main Questionnaire

Hello! Thank you for participating in my research.

老师们好！欢迎你们参与我的研究。

I am Yifang Xu, a doctoral student supervised by Mrs. Jill Northcott (jill.northcott@ed.ac.uk) and Dr. Nicola Galloway (nicola.galloway@ed.ac.uk) in Moray House School of Education and Sports, University of Edinburgh. The research is undertaken as my doctoral project. I am interested in how you orient to the English language norms in the UK academic settings. I would like to ask you to help me by answering the following questions concerning how you orient to the following statements. Your answers will be used as valuable research data for my doctoral studies. I am interested in your personal views. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation.

我叫徐一方，是爱丁堡大学莫雷教育与体育学院 Jill Northcott 女士 (jill.northcott@ed.ac.uk) 和 Nicola Galloway 博士(nicola.galloway@ed.ac.uk) 指导的博士学生。这是我的博士研究。我对你们关于英国学术界对英语语言规范的看法很感兴趣。诚挚邀请你们来帮助我回答下列问题。您的回答将会是我博士研究的重要数据。为了保证研究的成功，请你们根据自己内心的想法真实作答。

Please note that all ‘international speakers’ English’ means English used by speakers whose first languages are not English and their English might be influenced by local languages and cultures. There’s no definition provided for terms such as native English, non-native English and Standard English, please complete the questionnaire based on your own interpretation of these terms.

请留意，所有的‘非英语母语者’指那些英语不是第一语言并且英语被自己的母语和恶文化所影响的英语使用者。本次问卷里没有对英语母语，非英语母语，标准英语等概念进行定义，请根据你的自己的对于这些概念的理解来作答。

If you would like to know the findings of this study, you can leave your contact details and following the completion of the study, you will be sent a brief summary of the findings.

The contents of this questionnaire are absolutely confidential. No information that can identify the respondent will be disclosed under any circumstances. Only the researcher and supervisors will have the access to the data collected. The data will be kept on password protected devices and will be destroyed after two years. If you provide your contact details (eg. email; address), please rest assured that these contact details will only be used for further interview and for sending the summary findings.

如果您有兴趣了解本次研究的结果，请留下您的联系方式。在研究完成后，您会收到一份简短的研究报告。本次问卷的内容是绝对保密的。在任何情况下，研究者都不会泄露任何与参与者相关的信息。只有研究者本人与其导师能察看所收集的数据。数据会用加密的设备保存，并会在两年后彻底删除。如果您提供了您的联系方式（如邮箱，地址），请放心，这些联系方式只会用于后续的采访研究以及研究结果发送。

If you are willing to participate in this study after reading this sheet, please complete this questionnaire. The whole questionnaire may take you 20 mins to complete. Your participation is absolutely voluntary, and you have the right to drop out of this study any time without having to provide reasons.

如果阅读后您愿意参与此次研究，请完成以下问卷。整篇问卷会花费您 20 分钟左右填写。您的参与是绝对自愿的，您有权随时退出本研究，无需提供任何理由。

个人信息 Personal information

年龄 Age: _____

性别 Gender: _____

学科/学院 Subject/department: _____

大学 University: _____

职位 Position: _____

您在英国教书/工作多少年了？ How long have you been teaching/working in English? _____

How do you assess your English for academic and professional purpose?
(1=very poor, 2=poor, 3=fair, 4=good, 5=excellent)

- Listening
- Speaking
- Pronunciation
- Reading
- Writing
- Subject-specific vocabulary

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement?
(1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=neutral, 5=slightly agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree)

1. 总的来说，相对于英语母语者而言，非母语者会犯更多语言方面的错误
Generally speaking, international speakers make more language mistakes than native speakers do.
2. 我会向英语母语的同事询问一些英语的正确表达
I consult my native speaker colleagues for right expressions in English.
3. 我不需要达到英语母语者的英语水平因为我们在求职问题上的机会是均等的
I don't need to speak English as native speakers do as I will have equal opportunities of getting a proper job.
4. 我想要提高我的英语语言能力，从而取得更好的学术成就
I want to improve my English language ability in order to achieve a better academic progress.
5. 如果我能像英语母语者那样使用英语，我会看起来更自信
If I use English as native speakers do, I am perceived as more confident.
6. 在工作中我不会刻意追求语法的准确性

I do not deliberately make sure that I am grammatically accurate during my work.

7. 标准英语会让英语使用者之间能更好互相理解

Standard English increases the degree of comprehensibility among speakers of English.

8. 我的英语能力不如英语母语者是很正常的

It is common that my English proficiency is not good as those Native speakers

9. 如果我能像英语母语者那样使用英语，我会看起来更博学

If I use English as native speakers do, I am perceived as more educated.

10. 小学应该教授学生标准英语，这样才能给他们的语言奠定很好的基础

Standard English should be taught in primary school to provide student with a good language foundation

11. 如果我能像英语母语者那样使用英语，我会看起来更有智慧

If I use English as native speakers do, I am perceived as more intelligent.

12. 非英语母语者的英语是不完善的

International speakers' English is incomplete.

13. 英语母语者的英语听起来更正确

Native speakers' English sounds more correct.

14. 如果我能像英语母语者那样使用英语，我会看起来更老练

If I use English as native speakers do, I am perceived as more sophisticated.

15. 对国际学者有语言上的要求是很合理的

It is reasonable to have a language requirement for international academics.

16. 我们不能根据自己的意愿随意更改英语

We cannot change the English language according to our own desire.

17. 非英语母语者的英语听起来更自然

International speakers' English sounds natural.

18. 如果我的口语能像英语母语者那样就好了

It would be good if I can be more native-like in speaking.

19. 如果我能像英语母语者那样使用英语，我会更有工作的动力

If I use English as native speakers do, I feel more motivated to work.

20. 在和别人聊天的过程中，如果我因为找不到合适的词语而停顿太多，我会觉得尴尬

I feel embarrassed if I pause a lot to search for the right word while talking with others.

21. 如果我能像英语母语者那样使用英语，在达到我的学术目标这一问题上我会更成功
If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in achieving my academic goal.

22. 如果我能像英语母语者那样使用英语，在处理和同事的关系这一问题上我会更成功
If I use English as native speakers do, I will be more successful in making good relationship with my colleagues.

23. 非英语母语者使用的是有缺陷的英语
International speaker's English is the corrupt form of English.

24. 相比于和非英语母语者交流来说，和英语母语者交流会让我对自己的英语感到更不自信

I feel less confident about my English when I communicate with native speakers than non-native speakers

25. 非英语母语者的英语听起来比英语母语者的英语更舒服
International speakers' English sounds more pleasant than native speakers' English

26. 如果我的写作能更像英语母语者就好了
It would be good if I can be more native-like in writing

27. 非英语母语者的英语更易懂
International speakers' English is more understandable.

28. 如果我能像英语母语者那样使用英语，我能更清楚地表达自己的想法
If I use English as native speakers do, I can express my ideas more clearly.

29. 学生应该学习标准英语，而不是其他种类的英语
It would be good that student learn standard English rather than other varieties of English

30. 语言标准对维持专业的高水准而言并没有那么重要
Language standard is not so important to maintain the high standard of the programme.

31. 英语母语者需要学习其他的非英语文化来增进与非英语母语者的交流
Native speakers should learn more about the international cultures to enhance mutual communication.

32. 英语母语者的英语听说上去比非英语母语者的英语更熟悉

Native speakers' English sounds more familiar than international speakers.

33. 语言标准对维持一个学校的名声而言并没有那么重要

Language standard is not so important to maintain the reputation of the university.

34. 学校应该教授学生标准英语，这对学生将来的职业发展有好处

Standard English should be taught at school for the benefit of students' future career development.

35. 大学应该鼓励并帮助国际学者提高他们的英语语言能力

Universities should encourage and help international academics to improve their English language ability.

36. 非英语母语者在精准表达这个问题上，相对于英语母语者而言，不可避免地会遇到更多困难（比如语法，句型结构）

International speakers experience more difficulties expressing themselves accurately (e.g., grammar, sentence structure) than native speakers unavoidably during communication.

您是否有兴趣参与后续的采访？如果有，请留下您的联系方式（邮件）

Would you like to take part in the follow-up interview study? If yes, please leave your contact detail below (email).

您是否有兴趣了解调查结果？如果是，请留下您的联系方式

Would you like to know the findings of the study? If yes, please leave your contact detail below.

Appendix 5 Questionnaire respondents

Variables	Category	Results		
		Respondents (n)	percentage	
Subject	Engineering and technology	31	23.0%	
	Physical sciences	24	17.8%	
	Computer sciences	14	10.4%	
	Business and administrative studies	13	9.6%	
	Languages	8	5.9%	
	Historical and philosophical studies	8	5.9%	
	Education	8	5.9%	
	Social studies	6	4.4%	
	Medicine and dentistry	5	3.7%	
	Biological sciences	5	3.7%	
	Mathematical sciences	5	3.7%	
	Creative arts and design	4	3.0%	
	Law	2	1.5%	
	Others	2	1.5%	
	University	University of Edinburgh	40	29.6%
		University of Manchester	17	12.6%
Imperial College London		12	8.9%	
University of Nottingham		8	5.9%	
Newcastle University		7	5.2%	
University College London		5	3.7%	
University of Southampton		5	3.7%	
University of Sheffield		4	3.0%	
University of Warwick		4	3.0%	
University of York		4	3.0%	
Herriot-Watt University		3	2.2%	
Durham University		2	1.5%	
King's College London		2	1.5%	
London School of Economics and Political Science		2	1.5%	
University of Aberdeen		2	1.5%	
University of Glasgow		2	1.5%	
University of Bath	1	0.7%		
NS	1	0.7%		
Missing	14	10.4%		
Academic Position	Research assistant/associate/post doc	63	46.7%	
	Lecturer	24	17.8%	
	Teaching fellow	12	8.9%	
	Professor	10	7.4%	
	Academic visitor	9	6.7%	
	Research fellow	8	5.9%	
	Senior lecturer/Associate professor	3	2.2%	
	Teaching assistant	3	2.2%	
	Reader	1	0.7%	
Working years	<1 year	14	10.4%	
	1-10 years	87	64.4%	
	11-20 years	24	17.8%	
	More than 20 years	9	6.7%	
	Missing	1	0.7%	

Appendix 6 Different Model specifications of multinomial logistic regression

	MODEL 1	MODEL 2	MODEL 3	MODEL 4	MODEL 5	MODEL 6	MODEL 7
AGE							
CLUTER 1	1.03** (0.05)						1.04** (0.08)
CLUTER 3	1.03* (0.03)						1.01 (0.04)
CLUTER 4	0.95 (0.06)						0.91 (0.07)
CLUTER 5	0.95 (0.05)						0.95 (0.06)
WORKING YEARS							
CLUTER 1		1.04 (0.05)					1.05 (0.07)
CLUTER 3		1.06*** (0.06)					1.02* (0.04)
CLUTER 4		1.02 (0.05)					1.04 (0.06)
CLUTER 5		0.93** (0.05)					0.93** (0.06)
ATTITUDE SCORE							
CLUTER 1			0.92**** (0.02)				0.91**** (0.03)
CLUTER 3			0.97*** (0.01)				0.98** (0.01)
CLUTER 4			0.96**** (0.02)				0.96**** (0.02)
CLUTER 5			1 (0.01)				1.01 (0.01)
SELF-ASSESSED LANGAUGE PROFICIENCY SCORE							
CLUTER 1				1.21** (0.10)			1.12 (0.11)
CLUTER 3				1.24**** (0.06)			1.20*** (0.07)
CLUTER 4				1.07 (0.08)			1.01 (0.09)
CLUTER 5				1.02 (0.06)			1.03 (0.07)
POSITION RESEARCH-FOCUSED (REF. TEACHING-FOCUSED)							
CLUTER 1					0.28** (0.74)		0.78* (1.08)
CLUTER 3					0.28*** (0.45)		0.55* (0.57)
CLUTER 4					0.49 (0.67)		0.45 (0.84)
CLUTER 5					0.75 (0.56)		0.43 (0.65)
SUBJECT NATURAL SCIENCE (REF. SOCIAL SCIENCE)							
CLUTER 1						0.45 (0.73)	0.28 (1.02)
CLUTER 3						0.98 (0.44)	0.81 (0.54)
CLUTER 4						1.69 (0.73)	2.16 (0.84)
CLUTER 5						0.98 (0.53)	1.4 (0.58)

Note. Standard errors in parentheses; *p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01, ****p<0.001

Reference category: Cluster 2

Appendix 7 Themes of pre-pilot interviews

Themes	Subthemes	Initial codes	Examples	
Awareness of internationalisation of the UK HEIs	Awareness of international student mobility	student recruitment	many non-UK students	
		student make-up	various nationalities	
		students' cultural background	various cultural backgrounds	
	Awareness of international academic staff mobility	staff recruitment	many non-UK academics	
		staff make-up	various nationalities	
		staff's cultural background	various cultural background	
	Awareness of international policy	description of international policy	recruiting international students	employing international academics
			positive attitudes towards international policy	comfortable
				considerate
	Awareness of diversification	diversity of classroom		equality
diversity of department			various nationalities in classroom	
Experience	Differences and difficulties	language issues	the majority is international students and staff	
			lack of confidence	
			grammar issues	
			bad pronunciation	
			lack of vocabulary	
			listening difficulties	
			problems in reading	
			nervous	
			afraid of making mistakes	
			lack of native cultural knowledge	
Advantages	cultural differences	difficult explaining cultural background		
		different teaching methods		
	professional knowledge	teaching content		

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

项目名称

关于中国学者在英国大学的英语语言态度的调查

PROJECT TITLE

An investigation of Chinese academics' attitudes towards English language norms in the UK universities

邀请

您被邀请参与一个关于中国学者的英语语言态度的研究。我叫徐一方，是一名博士生。我的导师是爱丁堡大学的 Jill Northcott 女士及 Nicola Galloway 博士。该研究是我的博士项目。我对您如何看待在英国学术环境下使用英语的情况非常感兴趣。我也非常感兴趣您为什么会有这样的语言态度以及这样的态度会如何影响您的学术行为。

INVITATION

You are being asked to take part in a research study on Chinese academics' attitudes towards English language norms. I am Yifang Xu, a doctoral student supervised by Mrs. Jill Northcott and Dr. Nicola Galloway at the University of Edinburgh. The research is undertaken as my doctoral project. I am interested in how you orient to the use of English in the UK academic settings. I would also like to know why you have these attitudes and how your attitudes may influence your academic behaviours.

接下来如何

在此次研究中，您会被邀请与我讨论您在英国学术环境的经历以及您关于在学术圈使用英语的看法。此次采访只有一次。即使您曾参与填写问卷调查，您也可以参加采访研究。

WHAT WILL HAPPEN

In this study, you will be asked to discuss with me your experiences in the UK academic settings and your own views on the use of English in the academic settings.

This is a once-only interview. Even if you have already participated in my questionnaire, you can also be an interviewee.

投入时间

此次研究大概会花费三十至五十分钟。

TIME COMMITMENT

The study typically takes 30-50 minutes.

参与者权利

您有权在任何时间选择退出此次研究，无需提供任何解释。您有权撤回/销毁自己提供的所有数据。您有权略过或拒绝回答或回应任何向您提的问题。您有权要求研究者回答您关于流程的问题（除非回答这些问题会影响研究结果）。如果您在看这篇信息的同时有任何问题，您可以在研究开始前询问研究者。

PARTICIPANTS' RIGHTS

You may decide to stop being a part of the research study at any time without explanation. You have the right to ask that any data you have supplied to that point be withdrawn/destroyed. You have the right to omit or refuse to answer or respond to any question that is asked of you. You have the right to have your questions about the procedures answered (unless answering these questions would interfere with the study's outcome). If you have any questions as a result of reading this information sheet, you should ask the researcher before the study begins.

利益与风险

您的回答对那些刚开始在英国学术圈工作的人以及在语言态度，全球英语，高等教育国际化的研究者而言会是宝贵的数据。当我完成我的博士学习之后，会发送给您一份研究结果的总结。

于您而言，该研究没有已知的利益与风险。

BENEFITS AND RISKS

Your answers will provide very valuable data for those who newly working in the UK academic settings and researchers in the field of language attitude, Global Englishes,

internationalisation of higher education and international universities. When I complete my doctoral studies, a summary of my research findings will be sent to you.

There are no known benefits or risks for you in this study.

花费与补偿

您的参与纯属自愿。

COST, REIMBURSEMENT AND COMPENSATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary.

保密性

我们收集的数据不会包含任何关于您的个人信息。没有人会通过您提供的数据而联系并得到您的信息（如：姓名，地址，电子邮件）。

CONFIDENTIALITY/ANONYMITY

The data we collect do not contain any personal information about you. No one will link the data you provided to the identifying information you supplied (e.g., name, address, email).

更多信息

在任何时间本人都非常愿意回答您关于此次研究的任何问题。非常欢迎您联系我

(yifang.xu@ed.ac.uk)

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

I will be glad to answer your questions about this study at any time. You are very welcome to contact Yifang Xu (yifang.xu@ed.ac.uk).

Appendix 9 Signed Informed consent form example

Informed consent form

PROJECT TITLE

An investigation of Chinese academics' language attitudes towards English language norms in the UK universities

PROJECT SUMMARY

This is a doctoral project about Chinese academics' attitudes towards English. Specifically, Chinese academics' attitudes towards the use of English in the academic settings and the perceived cause and effect of these attitudes.

By signing below, you are agreeing that: (1) you have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet, (2) questions about your participation in this study have been answered satisfactorily, (3) you are aware of the potential risks (if any), and (4) you are taking part in this research study voluntarily (without coercion).

Xiaoyang Wu

Participant's Name (Printed)

12/09/2018

Participant's signature

Date

Yifang Xu

Name of person obtaining consent (Printed)

Signature of person obtaining consent

Appendix 10 Interview guide

介绍：感谢参与，介绍姓名，目的，保密性，时长，采访如何进行，问问题的机会，签同意书，询问是否同意录音。

Introduction: Thank you, name, purpose, confidentiality, duration, how interview will be conducted, opportunity for questions, signature of consent, permission to record.

首先非常感谢您愿意花费您宝贵的时间来接受采访。我叫徐一方，我今天想要和您聊一聊您在英国高校工作的经历，以及您对在学术环境中使用英语的看法。采访时间会控制在 50 分钟以内。由于我不想错过任何您的话，所以我会对此次采访进行录音。虽然我会在采访过程中做笔记，但我并不能将所有信息地快速地写下来。由于会进行录音，请您能尽量提高您的音量，这样我们就不会错过任何您的话。您所有的话都会保密保存。也就是说您的数据我不会分享给任何人，并且我也会保证我们之后报告的数据不会包含任何让别人能辨认出您的信息。您不需要讲任何您不愿意说的话，您也可以随时叫停此次采访。请问您还有任何关于我刚刚解释内容的问题吗？请问您愿意参加此次采访吗？

I want to thank you for taking the time to meet with me today. My name is Yifang Xu and I would like to talk to you about your experience working in the UK HEIs and your opinions about the use of English in the academic settings. The interview should take less than 50 minutes. I will be taping the session because I do not want to miss any of your comments. Although I will be taking some notes during the session, I cannot possibly write fast enough to get it all down. Because we are on tape, please be sure to speak up so that we do not miss your comments. All responses will be kept confidential. This means that your interview responses will not be shared with anyone, and I will ensure that any information we include in our report does not identify you as the respondent. You do not have to talk about anything you do not want to and you may end the interview at any time. Are there any questions about what I have just explained? Are you willing to participate in this interview?

Topic	Interview questions
-------	---------------------

Pre-interview questions	<p>⇒ 您能介绍一下您自己吗？ Can you introduce yourself?</p> <p>⇒ 您在英国的工作/生活如何？您通常和谁一起工作？ How's your work/life in the UK? Who are you normally working with?</p> <p>⇒ 您对您的学校有什么想法？您对一切都满意吗？ How do you think about your university? Are you satisfied with everything?</p>
Language attitude	<p>⇒ 请问您会如何定义母语和非母语使用者？ How would you define native and non-native speakers?</p> <p>⇒ 请问您会如何形容英语母语者？非英语母语者？ How would you describe native speaker's English? non-native speaker's English?</p> <p>⇒ 您有国际同事吗？学生呢？您会如何形容他们的英语？您又会如何形容您自己的英语呢？ Do you have any international colleagues? Students? How would you describe their English? Your own English?</p> <p>⇒ 请问你对在学术环境中使用英语有什么看法？ How do you feel about using English in academic settings?</p>
Factors that may influence language attitudes	<p>⇒ 您能明白您国际同事的英语吗？您能多解释一点吗？ Can you understand your international colleagues' English? Can you explain more?</p> <p>⇒ 您在英国高校工作的目标是什么？您认为英语会影响您实现自己的目标吗？为什么？ What's your goal in the UK HE? Short/long? Do you think English language will influence you achieving the goals? Why?</p> <p>⇒ 您认为自己的英语如何？认为自己的英语够用吗？ How do you think about your English? Do you think it is proficient?</p> <p>⇒ 请问有没有什么特别的场合您会特别在意自己的英语？为什么？如何在意？</p>

Is there any circumstance that you care more about your English? Why and How?

⇒ 您工作的学校对国际学者有语言要求吗？

Do your universities have language requirement for international academics?

⇒ 你工作的学校对国际学者会提供语言上的帮助吗？

Do your university provide any language support for international academics?

⇒ 您在小学和高中学的是什么英语？您认为那时的学习会影响您现在的英语使用吗？

What kind of English did you learn during your primary and high school? Do you think it influence your way of using English now?

⇒ 您在英国高校工作的过程中有没有碰到什么差异或者困难？您认为为什么会有这些差异或困难？您如何解决？

What differences/difficulties do you think influence your participation in academic settings? Why? How?

**Academic
behaviour**

⇒ 您认为英语像母语这件事对国际学者来说意味着什么呢？

What do you think being native-like in language may mean to international academics in their academic work?

⇒ 您认为国际学者在英国高校工作会有什么优势和劣势呢？

What advantages/disadvantages do you think an international academic may have working in the UK academia?

Closing:

请问关于这些话题您还有什么想要补充的吗？

Is there anything more you would like to add or share relating to these topics and the research?

我会对您和其他学者提供给我的数据信息进行分析。如果您感兴趣，我也会发给您一份供您审阅。非常感谢您宝贵的时间！

I'll be analysing the information you and others gave me. I'll be happy to send you a copy to review at that time, if you are interested. Thank you for your time!

Appendix 11 Interviewees' information

Participants	University	Academic status	Experience in the UK HE	Academic working experience in the UK HE	Previous academic working experience outside UK	Teaching	Supervision	Discipline
1	The University of Bath	Postdoc	6 years	Teaching assistant while as a PhD student - 3 years; Freelance researcher - 1 year; Postdoc - 1 year	None	Yes	Yes	Museology
2	The University of Sheffield	Postdoc	1 year	Postdoc - 1 year	None	No	No	Urban studies and planning
3	Newcastle University	Postdoc	6 years	Postdoc - 2 years	None	No	Yes	Computer science
4	The University of St. Andrews	Postdoc	8 years	Postdoc - 5 years	China (software engineer) – 2 years	No	No	Computer science
5	The University of Edinburgh	Postdoc	5 years	Postdoc - Less than a year	None	No	Yes	Engineering
6	British Geological Survey	Research assistant	7 years	Research assistant - 7 years	None	No	Yes	Geophysics
7	Heriot-Watt University	Research assistant	19 years	Research assistant - 19 years	None	No	Yes	Chemistry
8	The University of Edinburgh	Research associate	6 years	Research associate - 2 years	None	Yes	Yes	Engineering
9	The University of Manchester	Research fellow	10 years	Postdoc - 2 years Research fellow - 4 years	None	Yes	Yes	Chemistry
10	The University of Manchester	Research fellow	2 years	Research fellow - 2 years	China (Hong Kong) (postdoc) – 1 year; China (mainland) (postdoc) – 1.5 years	Yes	Yes	Geography
11	Imperial College London	Research fellow	2 years	Research fellow - 2 years	China (mainland) (postdoc) – 1 year	Yes	Yes	Engineering
12	The University of Manchester	Teaching fellow	6 years	Research associate – 1 year Teaching fellow – 1 year	None	Yes	Yes	Sociology
13	Edinburgh Napier University	Lecturer	2 years	Lecturer – 2 years	Netherland (postdoc) – 2 years; Australia (research associate & lecturer) – 4 years	Yes	Yes	Chemistry
14	Northumbria University	Senior lecturer	9 years	Postdoc - 3 years Senior lecturer - 2 years	None	Yes	Yes	Engineering

Appendix 12 List of themes

'+' symbol before a code tags as positive evaluation.

Themes	Description	Number of references	Number of participants	Nodes
Attitudes towards 'being native-like'	References to academics' beliefs about the potential influence of their English 'being native-like'	30	14	Positive: Communications, Interpersonal relationship, Career; Negative: Being native-like: Unimportant, Unhelpful, little influence
Definition of NESs	Academics' understandings of standards of a NES	24	14	Birth place, Way of thinking, First language learned in childhood, Way of speaking, Accent, Uncertainty
Attitudes towards NESs	References to academics' affective reactions on NESs	33	14	Positive: Natural, Fluent, Abundant vocabulary, Pleasant, Accurate, Native, Correct, Better writing skills, Sophisticated; Negative: Unintelligible
Attitudes towards NNEs	References to academics' affective reactions on NNEs	35	14	Positive: Intelligible, Fluent; Negative: Simple, Less vocabulary, Not fluent, Incorrect, Not native
Perceived language ability of NNEs in terms of geographical differences	Academics' beliefs about the language proficiency of international speakers of English	33	13	Beliefs about Outer circle countries: India; Beliefs about Expanding circle countries: Greece, Italy, Germany, Denmark, Poland, Romania, Spain, China, Japan, Iran, Saudi Arabia
Attitudes towards English accents	Any reference to academics' comments on various English accents used in the UK academic settings	72	14	+ RP: "pleasant" "orthodox" "formal" "clear" "advantageous" + GA: "familiar" "pleasant" - RP: "difficult to understand" "rigid" - GA: "unfamiliar" "unpleasant" - Liverpool accent: "difficult to understand" - Welsh accent: "difficult to understand" "strong" - Scottish accent: "strong" "difficult to understand" "incorrect" - Irish accent: "difficult to understand" - Indian accent: "horrible" "strong" + German accent: "light" - German accent: "strong" - Poland accent: "strong" - Romanian accent: "strong" - Spanish accent: "strong"

Language and content	Any reference to academics' accounts of the relationship between language and intelligibility	42	12	- Italian accent: "obvious" - French accent: "obvious" + Denmark accent: "good" - Japanese accent: "strong" - Chinese accent: "strong" language traits Importance of mutual understanding, Accent impede meaning, Familiarity
Self-assessed language proficiency	Academics' reflections on their own English language proficiency	25	10	Positive: Native like; Negative: Poor speaking ability, Strong accent, Not native, Bad habits in using English, Not fluent, Intonation; Accent change
Disciplinary differences in language requirement	Academics' descriptions of the different requirement of language in various disciplines	26	10	Natural science: low requirement, simple language, Technical English, Not a big obstacle; Social Science: high requirement, disadvantageous,
Language experience in different context	Academics' descriptions of their use of, or the intention to use English in different circumstances	19	11	Public: Strict on grammar, More careful in pronunciation, More Cautious in writing; Private: Relaxing, Allow mistakes, Content focused
Academic challenges	References to challenges academics face working in the UK academia	53	14	Career related behaviour (intentions): Teaching, Writing, Communication, More time in preparation, Avoiding contact Psychological states: Anxiety, Lack of confidence, Pressure
Language learning experience	Any reference to academics' previous language learning experience	44	14	Native bound teaching material: British English focused, American English focused, Lack of introduce to other English varieties; Teaching methods: Grammar focused, Teacher centred, Influence of teachers; Learning motivation: Lack of opportunities to use English, Low scores, Special purposes

Appendix 13 Sample Interview transcripts

YX:您好,可不可以麻烦您稍微介绍一下自己?

P11:额(.)我(.)在 IC, 然后(.)department 是(.)额(.)那个(.)electrical and electronic engineering(.)就是电气与电子工程。然后,我(1)工作了(1)额(.)我以前在上海工作了一年,然后,在英国两年.加起来(.)大概三年.现在的职位(1)是 research fellow.

YX:好的,那可以麻烦您稍微描述一下自己的工作状况吗?

P11:对,工作(1)工作分几块吧.一块就(.)是(2) 就是(.)要(1)就是要(1)怎么说呢,就是(.)额(.)主要(1)主要就是发文章嘛.对,提一些新的(.)想法.然后,研究一些新的问题然后,总结一下,发(.)发(.)发文章,对(.)这个是一块.还有一块,就是(.)额(.)可能要做一些实验室的管理工作.额(1)比如说(1)额(.)那个(.)额(.)就是(.)额(1)这个仪器设备的协调呀,还有就是(.)这个 safety training. 就是有些人进实验室,我要给他做一些培训什么的. 额(.) 还有(.) 就是(.) 实验室未来的(2)那个(.)扩张. 就是(.) 在(.) 就是等于来(.) 做一些规划这一系列的工作. 然后,第三块呢,就是(.) 我要带学生.对我去年(.) 带了一个硕士生,今年要带一个博士生. 恩,还(.) 还没开始带,就去年,带了一个硕士,额(.) 带学生的话,就是(.) 额(.) 定期的(.) 去 meeting 然后,看有什么困难,然后(.) 有什么(.) 不太清楚的地方 然后讨论一下,然后,额(.) 调整一下方向什么的.

YX:那学生是哪里人呢?

P11:额(.)两个学生,额(.)都是中国的. 恩,都是(.) 都是中国大陆过来的.

YX:那您们平常交流用什么语言呢?

P11:交流(.)额(.)是用(.) 是用中文.

YX:所以自然而然就讲中文了是吗?

P11:对他们一见我就讲中文的. 然后我(.) 我也不好说(.) 说你(.) 必须讲英文. 就(.) 就你 有点太怪了. 而(.) 而且,说实话,用(.) 用英文交流的话(.) 确实(.) 用(.) 用中文交流的话 确实还是(.) 更(.) 更顺畅一点. 毕竟我们都不是(.)native 嘛,就(.) 说(.) 说英文还是(.)有时候会词不达意什么的.

YX:那您接触的人里面,是本地人多还是 international 的多?

P11:额(.)学生其实是,额(.)如(.)maste 的话,就是中国人是占多数的.然后本科生的话,额(2)可能是(1) 差不多(1) 额英国的(.)和 internaional 的样子,五五开的样子. 然后 internaional 里面,会有(.) 中国也是一大块. 然后(.) 印度的(.) 和新加坡的(.) 就是那个 东南亚的,都是挺大的一块. 韩国的也有,对(.) 亚洲人偏多. international 那边(.) 恩(.) 然后,博士的话(.) 就(.) 博士其实还是(1) 额(1) 欧洲人多一些(.) 就是(.) 额(2) 除了英国之外(.) 意大利(.) 额(.) 德国(.) 法国(.) 都有.

YX:那您觉得这些 international 的学生他们的英语如何？

P11:额其实除了英国 native 的来说,其他多少都是有点口音的.德国人英语最好.就是德国人说英语(.) 额(2)几乎可以做到 native 的水平, <1>然后<1>

YX:<1>您是指口音吗?<1>

P11:对,口音(.)对,然后(.)表达(.)他们用词也非常地道.就不会让你觉得有误解啊,或者觉得(.)很古怪啊,这种.

YX: 嗯

P11: 但是, 那(.)意大利跟法国(1)口音就非常明显(2)就他们说英语,说得就像意大利语跟法语一样.比如说(.)比如说(1)那个(.)那个法语里面‘h’不发音嘛,然后(2) 额(.)他就英语里面也是‘h’不发音.比如说‘shanghai’,他就说‘shangai’那(.)那个 @ <@> ‘h’ </@>他就不发音. 额还有(1)比如说这个(.) 额(1) 额(.) 额(.) ‘consumption’他们就叫 ‘consuption’ {consumption} <ipa> kənˈsju:m(p)ʃ(ə)n </ipa>. 他所有的这个‘u’都发成‘u’的音不发成‘a’的音. 就是,在他的口音(.)就是(.)非常确定知道,法国人发的口音就是这样.然后(1)习惯了(.)确实,因为你就懂了.然后(.)对,对,然后,他们的用词,其实也还是(1)蛮地道的.就是欧洲人(.)虽然(1)法国跟意大利人有口音,(1)但是用词还是蛮地道的(.)然后其他的(.)其他的(.)像亚洲的就是,口音和(.)用(.)用(.)用词(1)是(2)问题很大的(.)对.像印度,口音是非常明显,但用词其实也还是,额(.)比(1)其他的(.)那些(.)额(.)就是因为(1)印度毕竟是用英语作为官方语言的.那(.)那些(.)非英语官方语言的国家的,额(.)就是(.)口音(.)和(.)这个用词,都有点问题.对.

YX:所以您会觉得他们不同的国家会有一种说英语的模式吗？

P11:对对对对,对,非常明显,非常非常明显,恩.

YX:那如果用一个词或一个短语来形容 native 和 non-native 的 speaker 您会怎么形容呢？

P11:是(.)用词的?中文还是英文呢？

YX:都可以的.

P11:都可以(.)我想想啊(.)额(3)那还是精确吧,就是(.)英国人会更精确一点.

YX:那 international speaker 呢？

P11:会不那么精确。

YX:那您觉得在您工作的两年的期间,工作上会有语言带来的困难或者挑战吗？

P11:在(.)工作上基本上没有.我觉得语言(.)反倒主要是(.)生活上,就是,因为对我来说就是 daily English 和 technical English. 他对我的难度是不一样的.因为我以前,所有的听说的,文献啊(.)和(.)我的(.)训练啊,练习,都是以技术为主的.所以,谈起技术来说反而,不是很有压力.但是如果去(.)比如说,额(.)去酒吧喝酒,然后跟他们聊聊天,可能就(.)就完全蒙掉了,就不知道他们在说什么.

YX:所以其实专业上是没有交流的问题的?

P11:对对,专业英语的(.)他的词汇量是非常窄的.而且他的(.)对词汇的含义,是非常明确的.在英语里,还有一词多义的情况很多嘛,但是在专业里面就不太会有这种情况.

YX:那您刚提到日常,比如在酒吧喝酒跟他们交流,通常是跟什么人呢?

P11:比如说,跟同事,英国人,他们喜欢(1)叫什么? British liquid dinner 什么的.比如说,他喜欢(1)就是,下班之后,就是一伙人出去,额(1)喝点小酒然聊聊天 额(2)扯扯淡吹吹牛什么的.然后话题就会更生活化一些.比如说 最近遇到什么人啊,租房遇到什么 额(2)其他的事儿啊.然后看了什么,听了什么演唱会啊之类的这种.这个(.)就(.)就会(.)首先我的背景知识就(.)就不够.就是(.)我也不知道他们(.)英国人喜欢听什么样的歌.然后(2)喜欢什么样的歌手.所以我就没概念.然后再加上额(3)就是他(.)他这个(.)额(2)就是在那种情况下,就是我的英文(2)也不是特别的过关(2)所以(1)就(.)<1>就</1>

YX:<1>有一些</1>语言问题<2>和</2>

P11:<2>对对,</2>语言,很不过关,所以(2)就会,觉得交流起来,额(2)比较吃力.对(1)对对.

YX:同事大部分都是英国人吗?

P11:对 我的同事 是 以 英国人为主的

YX:所以平常生活中接触的 international 的 academics 很少嘛?

P11:international academics, 额(.)就(.)我们这儿有一个印度人,有一个法国人,额对,就是那个印度人的口音(.)我真的是已经适应了.以前,跟他说话就是很发憊的.不管是 daily, 还是那个(.)那个(.)technical 都不知道他在说什么.但是最近,因为印度人的口音,他有一套(.)对他有一套规则,把那个了解了之后,恩(.)就是(.)就(.)就可以(.)就可以(1)至少是技术上沟通是没有特别大障碍的.

YX:那您在跟印度人法国人相处和跟英国人相处的时候有什么差别吗?

P11:恩会有差别.就是(.)跟英国人交流,还是更顺畅一些,<1>就是</1>

YX:<1>跟英国人</1>交流更顺畅?

P11:对,就是我(.)我之前(2)他们讲的(.)英语,比(.)还是比(.)法国人和印度人的(.)更(.)好懂,对,<1>然后</1>

YX:</1>您是说</1>口音吗?

P11:对,对,如果她,除非他(.)他(.)飚起来了@@(3)就是速度上来了,那就没办法.但是如果正常语速,或者稍微(.)稍微照顾你一下的话,其实英国人的英语(.)还是更好懂一些的.

YX:据您所知您们学校有没有对国际学者有语言的要求?

P11:额(4)可能唯一算是语言要求的话就是面试了吧.就是,就是面试的时候,你(.)所有的(.)所有的 academic 和(.)这个(1) staff 他都是,他入职都是要面试的嘛.然后,怎么(.)面试算是对语言有要求,其他的话,额(2)其实(.)没有对语言的硬性要求.但是,额(1)但是(.)额语言

还是非常的(.)重要的. 就是(.)如果想在英国学术界立足的话(.)就是 networking 是非常重要的. 而英国人非常讲究这个. 所以, 如果我没有一个合适的(.)就是语言上有一个短板的话, 其实是(.)非常吃力. 这个我也感受到, 额我自己是能感受到这一点的. 就是, 额(1) 额(.)就是我, 去外面比如说开会啊, 就是开会的时候, 因为就要跟(.)就要跟一些同行去(.)去聊聊天啊 social 一下, 看看有没有什么合作的机会啊, 然后, 就是要给人家留下一个好的印象嘛. 这个时候就(.)就会显得比较吃力, 恩, 对.

YX:那您觉得就工作而言, being native-like 对 international academics 来说意味着什么呢?

P11:那肯定是非常有帮助的.

YX:能具体说一下嘛?

P11:额, 比如说, 我想想(.)对, 开会, 然后就是 networking (.)就是 being more native-like 能帮助你更(.)更(.)更好地展现自己, 去推荐自己. 额(.)对然后因为其实(.)就是(.)就是学术本质上也是(.)也是一个圈子吧(1) 然后(.)额(2) 在这个圈子, 人缘儿是非常重要的. 然后如果你(.)你话讲不好的话(.)其实是很难去建立一个非常(.)非常好的人缘儿.对然后就很难去打开局面. 所以(.)确实是 还有比如说, 额(.)你去(.)额拿很多的这个(.)额(.)funding 的时候, 是要面试的嘛. 然后面试的话(.)就是(1) 语言也是很重要的. 就是(.)能不能(.)就(.)更 freestyle(.)像 native speakers 那样, 而不是说(.)额(.)让人家看出来你(.)额(.)有很强的事先编排好的痕迹在. 对他们可能对你有这种印象, 对对.

YX:那您会觉得学校的面试可能不会有硬性要求, 但是还是会心里衡量这件事吗?

P11:对, 对他会有印象分啊. 对(.)对(.)对(.)还有(.)还有(.)还有一点就是(.)那个因为就是上课(1) 对就是上课还是(.)还是(.)对语言的要求(.)还是蛮高的. 因为你面向的是一群(.)额(.)可能没有什么基础的小朋友. 然后你要(1) 去深入浅出地去给他讲解一个技术上的概念. 这个(.)这个(.)是没有(.)就是(.)对(.)对 non-native 来讲, 就是压力还是蛮大的. 因为我自己, 就是上过课, 就有这方面的感触. 所以我(.)我准备一堂课的(.)时间 要比(.)就是那些(.)那些 native 跟多. 甚至说, 是比那些那个(.)欧洲的(.)额(.)international 学者相比的话, 那个时间要长很多. 对, 我有一点点 teaching, 我去年是上过一门课, 和三个人合作.

YX:那上课的学生组成是什么样的呢?

P11:额, 硕士生的课, 其实是 international 为主的. 额, 对, 这个印度的, 亚洲人特别多. 然后英国人(.)对英国人有一些, 肯定不是 majority. 他们(.)会比较少.

YX:所以您上课的时候会 care 一些自己语言的细节吗?

P11:细节是(.)是管不过来的. 主要还是以(.)内容(.)是不是传达到位的(.)这种(.)对, 所以我他妈到现在, 我(.)就是(.)跟(1)(人)说话的时候, 我的时态和(.)这个三单, 就经常会出错, 所以我现在都管(.)管不了这些了. 就(.)就说下去就好了, 对.

YX:有人 complain 这件事吗? 就是时态语法出错什么的?

P11:没有人 complain, 对.

YX:就其实大家都是能懂的?

P11:对对对对, 而且是, 越是 native 的人, 它越(.) 听你这种 spoken English 的能力越强, 越能去联想, 然后去(.) 修正, 去(.) 自己修正这些问题, 然后(.) 去猜测你的意思.

YX:那能稍微讲一下最开始您学习英文的情况吗? 教材啊老师什么的?

P11:哦我最开始学英文是小学六年级吧, 然后, 那时候学的是那个, 教材叫 new concept English, 新概念英语, 对. 然后, 那个时候, 额(.) 应该算是 British English, 他的那个, 磁带啊, 他的那个朗读, 应该都是(.) 额(.) 都是 British.

YX:您的老师呢?

P11:我的老师他(.) 我的老师说不上他是讲 British 还是 American. 对, 因为我们那个时候的老师, 额(.) 至少是在我初中时候的老师, 不是(.) 额不是(.) 科班出身的. 我初中的英语老师是学计算机的, 然后呢, 他来到我们学校, 然后说, 诶, 你英语居然过了六级, 那我们这儿不需要(.) 计算机的(老师), 那你去教英语吧!<1>@@@</1>

YX: <1>哦?@@@</1>

P11:然后他就去教英语. 所以(.) 所以他的(.) 他的(.) 至少是从(.) 从这个 accent 来讲, 是(.) 是非常强的. 这个 Chinglish, 然后, 对, 但是我更多的是(.) 是(.) 是去(1) 去跟那个磁带啊, 那个时候还没有, 那个(.) 还没有(.) 那个(.) 还没有 mp3 这些, 就录音机(.) 和磁带, 是(.) 修正自己的读音.

YX:所以您基本上就在模仿 British accent 吗?

P11:对, 我至少是我(.) 小学和初中的时候, 基本上都是(.) 模仿 British accent.

YX:那您在英国会觉得 British accent 很亲切吗?

P11:这个确实是. 就是(1) 我(.)我(.)我(.) 初中的时候算是 British accent. 然后(1) 到高中(.) 的英语老师(.) 他是科班出身的, 然后他(.) 他是很明显的那个 American accent. 然后(.) 对我就刚开始的时候, 非常不适应, 就觉得他这说话说的(1) 好软啊, 后(.) 后来(.)就适应了. 适应了之后, 我就被他带跑偏了@@(2) 然后我也变成了(.)一个(1) 额(.) American accent speaker 了. 然后(.) 额后来又是听英语听很多(.)那个就是(.) VoA 啊(.) 就是 Voice of America (.) 就是(.) 就是(.)更适应了那个 American English. 然后(.)后来(.)我(.) 我(.)到了英国之后, 我非常不适应他们的 accent, 就(.) 就, 觉得他们说话(.)硬邦邦的(.)还很难懂. 但现在(.) 现在已经适应了. 现在(1) 就(.) 就(.) 而且也不太接触 American English 了, 就(.) 不知道(.) 不知道是不是听到 American 的又觉得不适应了. 对, 但确实是, 这俩之间是有区别的. 对, 其实我那个时候都不知道什么是 British, American. 只是磁带是 British 所以我就(.) 就是学 British.

YX:所以您现在对其他口音也适应吗?

P11:对(.)印度口音, 法国口音, 我现在是(.)是适应了. 以前是超级不适应, 现在是适应了已经.

YX:那您觉得怎么去界定 native 和 non-native speaker 呢?

P11:就是他爸爸妈妈说什么吧. 然后中小学的教育是(.)是(.)是说什么. 小学老师是说什么, 对, 我觉得就是, 小时候学的语言才是真正的学的, 就大了学的都不算.

YX:那您会觉得小时候学的英语对您现在的英语使用有影响吗?

P11:额, 这个倒说不上. 但是我记得我小时候学英语比现在要容易很多, 就没有觉得(.)就没有觉得(.)大概就是(.)就是(.)记单词啊, 去(.)去(.)就没有觉得有特别大的障碍.

YX:现在就会吃力一些吗?

P11:对, 是这样, 恩.

YX:那在您的工作环境中, 有没有一些特别的场合您会很 care 您的英语使用?

P11:嗯, 有的, 嗯, 最(.)就是最重要的场合肯定是 care 的. 比如说, 面试啊, 面试是 care 的. 然后, 所以面试之前要做很多 rehearsal, 然后 rehearsal 的时候还要(.)就录下来 听自己的哪里的(.)发音不到位啊, 哪里的(.)腔调不对之类的. 都(.)都要去(.)修正一下, 刻意修正一下. 然后其次就是(.)就是讲课了, 我(.)额(.)然后再次就是日常的交流. 这个其实就不是特别 care, 当然我还是(.)挺希望说(.)别人觉得说(.)我英语(.)还算说得可以, 就没有什么(.)说(.)特别 broken 那种, 对.

YX:所以如果别人把您当成 native speaker 其实您会很开心吗?

P11:倒不会有这种情况, 就自己的 accent 还是很明显的@@@

YX:就假设嘛?

P11:对, 理想状况是这样. 对, 就如果别人觉得我英语说得好, 我还是觉得很开心的.

YX:那单从语言来说, 您觉得学校有给 international academics 提供帮助吗?

P11:额老师是没有, 他给学生有一些课. 就是(.)就是(.)写作啊, 就是, 那个(1) 学术英语, 还有(.)额(.)额(.)口语, 都有, 他都有一些特别的课.

YX:都是给学生的?

P11:对都是针对学生的, 但是老师也是可以去听的. 但是我还没听说过有哪个老师去(.)去(.)去(.)去(.)去(.)学英语, 对.

YX:那您觉得学校是否应该给老师一些语言上的支持和帮助呢?

P11: (2)我觉得是必要的其实, 就是(.)就是另一个 level 的, 就是 English training 就不是(.)额(.)像 (2) 对学生那个(.)教一些 basic 的东西, 然后(.)就是(.)让(.)让你怎么更(.)得心应手, 让你就是(.)显得更 professional 这个. 对(.)对, 但是这种方面的 training 可能会比较难. 因为他不是特别的有, 那种(.)额(.)额(.)这种(.)按部就班的套路什么的, 可能就(1)是需要量身定制的这种.

YX:可能根据不同专业也会不同是吗?

P11:对对对对对.

YX:那您觉得学院会给一些吗?

P11:额都没有,对.

YX:好的,这些就是我全部的问题了,请问您就先关话题还有什么要补充或者想说想问的吗?

P11: 嗯(2) 对我觉得(2)这是一个很有意思的 topic, 在英国工作的中国人不多, 也没有什么人会关注到我们. 也希望这个课题可以帮助到在英国工作的中国学者.

YX: @@谢谢, 也非常感谢您的参与!