LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network
ISSN: 2630-0672 (Print) | ISSN: 2672-9431 (Online)
Volume: 18, No: 1, January – June 2025

Language Institute, Thammasat University
https://so04.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/LEARN/index

The Role of Reverse Linguistic Stereotyping in Thai English Learners' Language Attitudes toward English Speakers

Naratip Jindapitak[a,*], Luke Jobert Earl Vencer Comprendio[b]

[a]naratip.jin@psu.ac.th, Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Thailand
[b]lukejobertearl.c@psu.ac.th, Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Thailand
[*]Corresponding author, naratip.jin@psu.ac.th

APA Citation:
Jindapitak, N., & Comprendio, L.J.E.V. (2025). The role of reverse linguistic stereotypical in Thai English learners' language attitudes toward English speakers. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, *18*(1), 748–778. https://doi.org/10.70730/JTBV4546

Received
30/04/2024

Received in revised form
13/12/2024

Accepted
20/12/2024

ABSTRACT

This study explores how reverse linguistic stereotyping (RLS) affects Thai English learners' evaluations of English speakers and their choices of pronunciation models. Ninety-five first-year Thai English majors were divided into an uninformed group, unaware of speakers' nationalities, and an informed group, knowledgeable of the same. Participants listened to six speakers both native and non-native and rated them using a modified verbal guise technique before choosing the speaker(s) they think exemplify good pronunciation models. Knowledge of the speakers' nationalities was found to influence the participants' social ratings and their selection of speakers as pronunciation models. This study contributes to understanding how listeners' language perception may be shaped by expectations about a speaker's social identity rather than the speaker's actual linguistic abilities. This study advocates the importance of English language teaching (ELT) in addressing the issue of RLS and its impact on language perception, calling

educators to raise students' understanding of stereotypical judgments of language variation and promote unbiased communication.

Keywords: reverse linguistics stereotyping, language attitudes, English speakers, ASEAN Englishes

Introduction

English has been widely adopted as a lingua franca, facilitating communication among speakers from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The language has undergone a process of diversification, resulting in multiple English varieties with distinct linguistic characteristics (Jenkins, 2000). In this context, the ways people speak often differ, as they employ linguistic features that reflect their unique lingua-cultural backgrounds. These differences address English's role as an international lingua franca, with diverse phonological influences (Lippi-Green, 1997; Derwing & Munro, 2005). The issue of English pronunciation differences has been extensively explored within the area of world Englishes or global Englishes, in which scholars have concentrated on three main areas: (a) the linguistic characterization of the distinctive phonological features of these Englishes (e.g., Jenkins, 2000; Deterding et al., 2008), (b) the intelligibility and comprehensibility of these Englishes (e.g., Derwing & Munro, 1997; Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006), and (c) the perception of these Englishes (e.g., Jenkins, 2007; Jindapitak et al., 2022b; Snodin & Young, 2015). In this study, the focus will be on shedding light on aspect (c) but exploring the effect of the speaker's social information in mediating listeners' language perception.

Due to the diversification of English in the world, a number of studies have delved into people's social perceptions towards different varieties of English, examining instances of linguistic stereotyping. This phenomenon occurs when listeners use a speaker's linguistic cues, such as accent, to form stereotypical attitudes and assign social traits to the speaker. According to Jenkins (2007), since language attitudes are more norm-driven than sound-driven, hearing a specific accent can lead listeners to associate the speaker with positive social traits (e.g., educated, gentle, friendly) or negative ones (e.g., unkind, unpleasant, unintelligent). This suggests that listeners tend to rely on rigid stereotypical assumptions triggered by linguistic cues employed by speakers when judging their language, confirming the notion of linguistic stereotyping in language attitudes.

While linguistic stereotyping has been extensively studied, with research highlighting how linguistic cues influence speech ratings, limited attention has been given to the role of social information—such as a speaker's nationality or ethnicity, whether correctly or incorrectly attributed—in shaping perceptions of speech (Ghanem & Kang, 2021; Kang & Yaw, 2021). This reverse linguistic stereotyping (Rubin, 1992) has been empirically shown to significantly affect listeners' perceptions and comprehension of speakers. Rubin's (1992) seminal work demonstrated how knowledge about a speaker's background influenced students' perceptions of native and non-native English speakers. Specifically, the US students believed that they heard an accented speech when shown a picture of an Asian non-native speaker, even when the speech was recorded by a native English speaker. This non-linguistic attribution and the resultant perceptions of a speaker's speech can have significant social consequences. Preconceived stereotypes about a speaker may result in discriminatory practices in the multilingual and multicultural society—speakers from certain groups may be deemed less suitable for specific jobs (Lippi-Green, 1997). Additionally, in educational settings, the native/non-native status has been found to negatively affect students' teacher preference (Yook & Lindemann, 2013) and students' judgments of teachers' teaching competence (Ghanem & Kang, 2021).

The effect that non-linguistic cues such as gender, ethnicity, nationality, and religion may have on listeners' social evaluations of speakers remains under-researched, particularly in contexts where learners essentially use English as a lingua franca in their communication. This study seeks to deepen our understanding of RLS, with a particular emphasis on how speakers' nationalities shape students' language attitudes. The focus of this research is on Thailand, where the English language has significantly expanded due to several sociocultural and socio-economic factors including the regional economic integration facilitated by the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC). In this context, English has assumed an increasingly vital role as a lingua franca within the region, making it an interesting area for examining the relationship between language perception and speaker's ethnic information. As English continues to serve as a global lingua franca in ASEAN, this study addresses the prevailing notion, advocated by Kirkpatrick (2011), that English learning should primarily facilitate communication across diverse domains such as international business, education, and regional integration in ASEAN. Specifically, it sheds light on how students socially view ASEAN Englishes, and how they treat ASEAN Englishes as viable pronunciation models, reflecting the practical use of English in their daily lives. The study's significance lies in its potential to inform educators and policymakers about the impact of RLS on English learners' language attitudes, particularly in Thai educational contexts. For instance, the findings could

guide curriculum design to include activities that raise awareness of language biases and promote acceptance of diverse English varieties and speakers, thereby fostering more inclusive attitudes toward linguistic variation. The study aims to explore how RLS influences evaluations of English speakers and preferences for pronunciation models, addressing two research questions:

1) To what extent, if any, does the knowledge of the speaker's nationality influence Thai English learners' evaluations of English speakers?

2) Do English learners' preferences for a pronunciation model vary based on whether they are informed or uninformed about the speaker's nationality?

Literature Review

Linguistic cues or characteristics in various speech forms enable individuals to assume social information about speakers (Giles & Billings, 2004). Since individuals frequently rely on linguistic cues to socially evaluate others (Lippi-Green, 1997), these language attitudes can significantly affect various aspects of life related to language use. For instance, in legal settings, language attitudes can influence opinions about a defendant's innocence or guilt (Dixon & Mahoney, 2004), while in job interviews, they can affect perceptions of candidates' credibility (Rakic et al., 2011). Language attitudes also affect how local communities or ingroups accept different immigrant groups (Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010) and can impact immigrants' success in securing government housing, especially for those with foreign or regional accents (Zhao et al., 2006). In educational settings, empirical evidence has shown that language attitudes can shape students' academic performance through socio-affective factors like fear of negative evaluation, limitations on using their native language, interaction difficulties, and linguistic marginalization (Rojas et al., 2016). Furthermore, such attitudes also influence teachers' perceptions of students' linguistic abilities (Seligman et al., 1972), affect the access of students who speak non-standard varieties to higher education (Ryan & Giles, 1982), and shape perceptions of the credibility of native and non-native speakers as teachers (Buckingham, 2014).

In recent decades, the prominence of English as a global lingua franca, unrivaled by other languages, and its diversification into world Englishes as outlined in Kachru's (1992) concentric circles model, has sparked interest among social psychologists to query how different English varieties, including both native and non-native, are perceived. The interest in language attitudes in social psychology is driven by the wealth of social information that language can carry. Research in this area illuminates a critical and contemporary social psychological issue hotly discussed in local and

global arenas: linguistic stereotyping. This phenomenon entails individuals making social assumptions or judgments about speakers based on their language, dialect, or accent, regardless of whether these perceptions are accurate (Lippi-Green, 1997). For example, an accent may lead listeners to ascribe stereotypes—positive or negative—to a speaker. Such stereotyping often results in biases, negatively affecting perceptions (prejudice) and treatment (discrimination) within speech communities.

The study of language attitudes toward varieties of English has gained significant attention with the rise of world Englishes, particularly in contexts where English functions as a lingua franca. Examples include Japan (McKenzie, 2008), China (He & Zhang, 2010), and Korea (Jung, 2005). This trend has also emerged in Thailand, where English is primarily a foreign language but plays a crucial role as a lingua franca in domains such as tourism, business, and education (Boonsuk et al., 2023; Jindapitak et al., 2022b; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2017; Prakaianurat & Kangkun, 2018; Snodin & Young, 2015). These studies provide valuable insights into linguistic stereotyping, highlighting how language attitudes are influenced by underlying language ideologies and shaped by perceptions of social identity. For example, speakers with prestigious accents are often attributed higher status, reflecting societal norms that privilege standard or dominant language varieties (McKenzie & Gilmore, 2017). Similarly, individuals may assign positive traits to members of their own linguistic group (ingroup), while devaluing those who speak with different accents or dialects (outgroup) (Lippi-Green, 1997; Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

Empirically, native English varieties are typically perceived more positively than non-native ones across dimensions such as status, competence, social attractiveness, and dynamism. For instance, Jindapitak et al. (2022b) found that Thai students associated mainstream inner-circle varieties, such as American and British English, with positive attributes like competence and solidarity, while non-native varieties were often viewed less favorably or deemed linguistically inferior. The study also highlighted Thai students' strong preference for native-speaker norms in English learning, with many aspiring to speak with a native-like accent, which they associated with advanced skills and career success. In another study, Snodin and Young (2015) found that Thai students preferred American English as a target model due to its perceived simplicity, informality, and modern appeal, while British English was associated with sophistication and formality. Australian and New Zealand English were less familiar to the participants, often perceived as unusual or challenging but occasionally appreciated for their uniqueness. These findings suggest a hierarchy in the social evaluation of English varieties, where mainstream native varieties like standard British and American English are considered more prestigious and authoritative than other inner-circle

varieties and non-native varieties (Jenkins, 2007; McKenzie, 2008). They also address the continued dominance of mainstream native-speaker norms in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts (Boonsuk & Ambele, 2020; Boonsuk et al., 2023; Galloway & Rose, 2018).

Research on language attitudes has also focused on the impact of significant regional economic changes and global events that lead to increased movements or interactions of people with different lingua-cultural backgrounds. For instance, Xu et al. (2010) examined the shifting attitudes of Chinese people towards different English varieties before and after the Olympic Games. Similarly, regional economic integration has played an important role in shaping language attitudes. The establishment of the AEC, which facilitated a freer movement of people across the region, has increased interactions with people from ASEAN countries, making this a particularly interesting context for language attitudes research, but only a few studies have focused on this particular context. Prakaiborisuth and Trakulkasemsuk (2015) examined university students' attitudes toward 10 ASEAN Englishes. The findings revealed that Malaysian English was rated most favorably, while Cambodian English was rated the least favorably. Interestingly, these ASEAN varieties of English received moderate ratings overall. Jindapitak's (2019) qualitative study revealed that the initiation of the AEC unexpectedly led to a stronger preference among school teachers, parents, and students for native-speaker norms of English. This shift is interesting given that the AEC should be translated to increased interaction among non-native English speakers in the region, rather than primarily between non-native speakers and native speakers from inner-circle English-speaking countries.

Language attitudes often arise from individuals using linguistic cues to stereotype others, inferring social characteristics that reflect cultural norms and the perceived status of associated social groups (linguistic stereotyping) (Lippi-Green, 1997). However, these attitudes are not solely shaped by linguistic features. In some cases, the process is reversed: preconceived assumptions about a speaker's social background can influence perceptions of their language style and proficiency (Kang & Rubin, 2009; Lindberg & Trofimovich, 2020; Rubin, 1992). This form of stereotyping (RLS) highlights how non-linguistic biases—such as those based on ethnicity (Kang & Yaw, 2021), gender (Strand, 1999), age (Hay et al., 2006), or native versus non-native status (Hu & Su, 2015)—can distort language perception, revealing the complex relationship between social identity and linguistic evaluation.

Rooted in societal norms and language ideologies, RLS illustrates the powerful influence of social biases on language perception, often leading to inaccurate evaluations of speech (Hay et al., 2006). For example, listeners may attribute nonexistent linguistic traits to speakers based on stereotypes related to where they come from (Hu & Su, 2015). This illustrates how language

ideologies extend beyond linguistic features themselves, shaping expectations about how people "should" speak based on their presumed social group (Lu & Gnevsheva, 2021). In addition, RLS plays a crucial role in the perceptual processes involved in categorizing others into ingroups and outgroups (Hay et al., 2006). Central to social identity, stereotypes and expectations serve as cognitive biases which influence evaluations based on presumed identities, reinforcing the argument that social categorization simplifies complex information processing (Lee & Bailey, 2022).

A growing body of research has been conducted to explore the impact of RLS on listeners' language attitudes. These studies have shown that perceptions of speech can be influenced not only by the acoustic signal but also by the preconceived identity of the speaker. For example, Hu and Lindermann (2009) investigated how Cantonese learners of English perceived speech based on the presumed native or non-native status of the speaker. In their study, participants listened to an American-English speaker. Half were informed that the speaker was American, while the other half were told the speaker was Cantonese. They found that when the participants were led to believe the speaker was an American, they often perceived words as having a fully released stop, including aspiration or an epenthetic vowel, even when these features were absent. On the other hand, when the speaker was thought to be Cantonese, their perceptions aligned more closely with the actual pronunciation, whether the stops were fully released or not.

In a more recent study, Kang and Yaw (2021) investigated how RLS and listener backgrounds influence social judgments of accented speech. The study comprised two key tasks: the RLS task and the main speech evaluation task. In the first task, listeners evaluated identical speech samples of a speaker paired with manipulated visual cues (photos of a Caucasian or Asian individual) to measure their RLS tendencies. The main task focused on assessing listener judgments of actual second language (L2)-accented speech, using samples from 11 international teaching assistants of different linguistic backgrounds, without visual manipulations. Listeners rated speech on three dimensions: superiority, social attractiveness, and dynamism. Findings revealed that RLS tendencies significantly influenced judgments, with negative stereotypes resulting in lower evaluations of L2 speakers. Positive factors such as prior exposure to L2 users and study abroad experience correlated with more favorable ratings. These results highlight the pervasive impact of listener background and RLS factors predicting accented speech ratings.

Interestingly, RLS has also been found to influence listeners' comprehension. Hu and Su (2015) investigated how the perceived origin of a speaker, as a native or non-native English speaker, affected the comprehension abilities of Chinese English learners. In their study,

participants listened to recordings from a fluent American English speaker and completed a series of comprehension tasks. The participants were split into two groups: one was told that the speaker was American, while the other was told that the speaker was Cantonese. Employing the modified matched-guise technique, the study found that the participants who thought the speaker was American generally had better performance in comprehension tasks than those who believed the speaker was Cantonese. In another study, Yook and Lindermann (2013) explored the impact of speaker's ethnicity on Korean students' attitudes toward different English accents. They found that awareness of the speaker's ethnicity significantly influenced the students' perceptions, affecting their views on status, solidarity, and preferences such as choice of friend, teacher, and representative of standard English. Notably, the students who were aware of the speaker's background generally rated American and Korean English more positively, while being less favorable towards British English and African-American Vernacular, compared to those who were unaware of the speaker's background. Additionally, there was a marked preference for the American English speaker in roles such as friend, teacher, and representative of standard English in the group aware of the speaker's background. This contrasted with the preferences indicated by the group unaware of such information.

The impact of RLS has also been observed in the evaluation of English teachers. For example, Ghanem and Kang (2021) examined how English as a second language (ESL) students perceived non-native English teachers and the effect of RLS on listening comprehension, social judgments and teaching competence evaluations. They had students listen to speech samples from a fluent non-native speaker presented as two different teachers: one Caucasian and one East Asian. The findings indicated a clear proclivity for RLS, with students showing a preference for the Caucasian guise, reflected in higher comprehension scores and teaching competence ratings.

Previous research has indicated that prejudice and stereotyping are prevalent issues in different domains of language use, especially against speakers from non-white backgrounds. These studies have revealed that listeners' perceptions, shaped by non-language factors, can profoundly impact their overall impressions and understanding of spoken language. While studies reporting the effects of RLS have been found in both native and non-native contexts, to date, there has been no study in Thailand that investigates the effect of this type of stereotyping on language attitudes toward speakers of different first language backgrounds. Most previous language attitude studies in Thailand have focused on addressing the phenomenon of linguistic stereotyping. This study thus examines whether RLS influences students' language attitudes toward different speakers of

English commonly found in Thailand, with a particular focus on ASEAN English speakers.

Methodology

Participants

This study recruited 95 first-year English majors, aged 18–20, from two randomly selected public universities in southern Thailand. The sampling method was based on geographic location to maintain practicality and manageability. Of the participants, 58% were female and 42% male, with all identifying Thai as their first language. English majors were specifically targeted due to their foundational English proficiency and greater exposure to English compared to other groups of students, which aligns with the study's aims. Only freshmen were included to capture relatively unaltered attitudes before exposure to advanced courses like sociolinguistics or global Englishes that could influence their perceptions. Participants were randomly assigned to either the uninformed group (46 students) or the informed group (49 students) using a random number generator. This approach allowed for efficient data collection and ensured participants were representative of English learners in similar educational settings. However, it also introduced limitations, such as the inability to generalize findings beyond southern Thai universities or to students in different academic disciplines.

Instrument

This study involved participants evaluating English speakers using a modified verbal-guise technique and selecting the speakers to represent good pronunciation models. A six-point bipolar semantic-differential scale questionnaire with 12 adjectival attributes was constructed. These attributes were categorized into three groups: status/competence (confident, educated, intelligent, accomplished), solidarity (friendly, kind, caring, sociable), and dynamism (enthusiastic, persuasive, energetic, exciting), with reference from prior research (Carrie, 2017; Chan, 2016; Ghanem & Kang, 2021; He & Zhang, 2010; Jindapitak et al., 2022b). To create a bipolar semantic differential scale, each adjective was paired with its antonym at opposite ends of the scale, for example, very unconfident __: __: __: __: __: __: very confident. A six-point scale was chosen to discourage participants, particularly observed among Asian students, from defaulting to a neutral option (Dörnyei, 2003).

The study featured different English accents produced by fluent male speakers, representing six varieties across Kachru's (1992) concentric circles

(inner, outer, and expanding): American (AmE), Thai (ThE), Cambodian (CmE), Indonesian (IdE), Malaysian (MyE), and Filipino (FiE). The study primarily focused on ASEAN speakers. However, the inclusion of AmE was crucial, as it is a widely popular variety among non-native English students aiming to emulate native-like pronunciation. Furthermore, prior research indicates that AmE has consistently been the preferred pronunciation model for Thai language learners (Jindapitak, 2022b; Snodin & Young, 2015; Prakaianurat & Kangkun, 2018). The inclusion provides a baseline for comparison, allowing the study to examine how stereotypes favoring a native English variety differ from evaluations of regional English varieties. ESL speakers, including MyE and FiE speakers, were also included to reflect the significant number of Malaysian tourists in the tourist-oriented southern provinces of Thailand and the large presence of Filipino English teachers in the country (Comprendio & Savski, 2020). Additionally, three other speakers represent EFL countries. IdE was included to represent the variety spoken in the country with the largest population in Southeast Asia, while CmE was noted for its substantial migrant worker community in Thailand. ThE was included as it represents the locally developed variety of English with unique phonological features influenced by the mother tongue (Boonsuk et al., 2023). Overall, the chosen accents represent a broad range of linguistic features and cultural associations, offering meaningful insights for examining how social factors, such as a speaker's nationality, influence Thai English learners' evaluations and preferences for pronunciation models.

The audio materials comprised six recordings produced by graduate students from the respective nationalities, all enrolled in English language studies and linguistics programs at three universities in Thailand. Their ages ranged from 25 to 33 years. These speakers had been living in Thailand for 1.5 to 6 years at the time of recording, except for the Thai national who has resided in Thailand his entire life. Although it was not feasible to measure the speakers' English proficiency for the purpose of this study, the speakers were deemed proficient users of English as screened by acceptance into their graduate programs which require them to use English for academic purposes. Each speaker read the same 101-word passage about a grammar lesson on the present simple tense, with reading speeds varying between 36 to 39 seconds. Prepared by the researchers, this passage was chosen because its content was likely familiar to the participants, who were majoring in English. The use of familiar listening material was also to minimize any potential content effects that might influence the listeners' perceptions. The decision to use a reading passage instead of spontaneous speech was made to ensure a consistent speech context across speakers. This approach eliminates potential confounding factors, such as variability in speech content, grammar, or vocabulary, that could arise in natural conversation and inadvertently

influence participants' evaluations. By standardizing the speech sample, the study focuses specifically on pronunciation and accent, isolating these phonological features from other linguistic variables. The speakers demonstrated distinctive phonological features of their respective English varieties. Details of the speech providers are presented in Table 1. In addition to the distinctive phonological features outlined in the table, the five non-native English speakers demonstrated fluency in their speech, with some aspects exhibiting native-like qualities. While their prosody—including rhythm, intonation, and stress patterns—did not fully align with standard native-speaker norms, it reflected the natural characteristics of their respective English varieties. These traits ensured that the speech samples were both intelligible and credible representations of their linguistic backgrounds.

Table 1

The details of the speech providers

Speaker	Age	L1	Speech length	Distinctive phonological features
AmE	31	English	36 sec.	- 'r' sounds pronounced as an approximant [ɹ] - 'the' pronounced as /ði/ and /ðə/ - Vowel reduction: 'every' pronounced as /evri/ - Sentence rhythm stress-timed; variable syllable length
MyE	25	Chinese	39 sec.	- Unaspirated /t/ as in 'talk' - 'the' pronounced as /di/ or /də/ - Final consonants devoiced: 'revolves' sounded like /rɪvɒlfs/ - Syllable-timed; steady rhythm
FiE	33	Tagalog	37 sec.	- Unaspirated /p/ and /t/ as in 'present' and 'talk' - /θ/ replaced with unaspirated /t/ - Monophthongization of diphthongs: 'daily' pronounced as /deli/ - Stress and intonation syllable-timed with a melodic intonation
CmE	29	Khmer	38 sec.	- 'the' pronounced as /di/ or /də/ - /r/ and /l/ interchanged: 'regularly' sounded like /legjələli/ - Sentence rhythm syllable-timed with even pacing

Speaker	Age	L1	Speech length	Distinctive phonological features
IdE	31	Bahasa (Indonesian)	39 sec.	- Unaspirated /p/ and /t/ as in 'present' and 'talk' - /r/ pronounced as flap or trill - Intonation in sentences evenly paced
ThE	27	Thai	38 sec.	- 'the' pronounced as /di/ or /də/ - Monophthongization of diphthongs 'daily' pronounced as /deli/ - Sentence rhythm influenced by tona and syllable-timed Thai

Following the speaker rating task, the participants were asked a direct question: "Which speaker do you think would be a good pronunciation model for you?" They had to select the speaker(s) from the rating task whom they considered to be good pronunciation models, with the flexibility to choose more than one. An additional option, 'Other, please specify speaker(s) of what country would be suitable as a good pronunciation model', was also provided. The participants were further required to justify their choices/preferences by writing brief explanations in the provided space.

Data collection

Data collection was conducted on-site for both uninformed and informed participant groups. To maintain the integrity of their implicit language attitudes, all participants were generally informed that the study aimed to explore the impression of English speakers, consistent with previous social-psychological research. Following informed consent, the participants were given a survey sheet divided into three sections. The first section presented a 12-item bipolar semantic differential scale for the speaker rating task. The participants initially listened to all six speakers and, in the second round, rated each one on a six-point scale against the 12 items. The uninformed group received no information about the speakers' nationalities, while the informed group was provided with this detail. The second section required the participants to select and justify their choice of one or more speakers as good pronunciation models. The final section collected personal data including years of English study and international experience, maintaining anonymity by omitting names or university IDs. The entire data collection procedure took approximately 40 minutes.

Data Analysis

The data derived from the verbal-guise evaluations of speakers were analyzed using a one-way repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA).

This analysis aimed to identify any statistically significant differences among the evaluations of the six speakers for each group. Additionally, the study employed an independent samples *t*-test to compare the means of two groups (uninformed and informed) to assess whether the participants' evaluations of the speakers varied significantly when they were unaware of the speakers' nationalities versus when they were aware.

The preferences participants expressed for speakers perceived as good pronunciation models were quantified using frequencies and percentages. For qualitative analysis, written comments were analyzed through content analysis. The written responses were independently reviewed to identify recurring themes and supporting viewpoints (Saldaña, 2009). The analyses were then compared to ensure consistency, and any discrepancies were resolved through discussion.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

After validating and revising the survey sheet—which included a six-point bipolar semantic differential scale for the speaker rating and pronunciation model preference tasks—through a panel of three applied linguists, the instrument was piloted with a group of 55 students whose background was similar to the participants in the main study. These participants, divided into two groups as in the main study, assessed task difficulty and provided feedback on the clarity of instructions. Table 2 displays the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient from the pilot participants' ratings of the six speakers, revealing high levels of internal consistency ($0.7 \leq \alpha < 1.0$) for the evaluations of all six speakers across both groups.

Table 2

Internal Consistency Rates of the Speaker Rating Task for Both Uninformed and Informed Groups

Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	**Uninformed**	**Informed**
AmE	.848	.901
MyE	.934	.912
FiE	.956	.865
CmE	.941	.860
IdE	.956	.951
ThE	.944	.913

Results

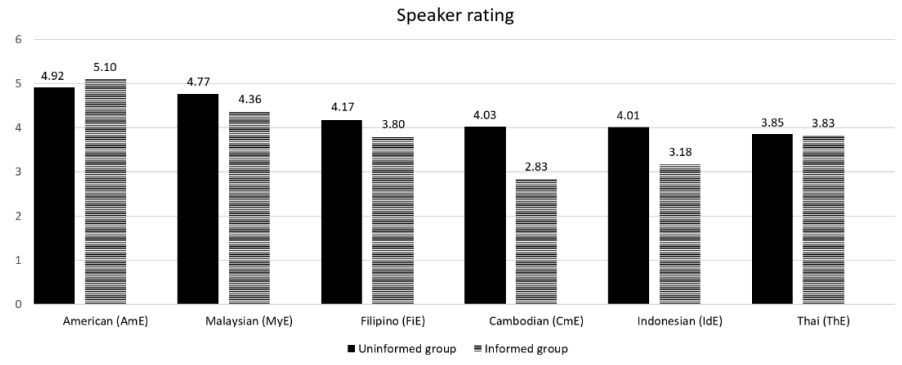
Within group findings

Figure 1 presents the mean scores of the speakers evaluated by both groups. Focusing on the uninformed group, five speakers received mean scores surpassing 4.00 (AmE, MyE, FiE, CmE, and IdE), suggesting positive ratings of these speakers. The highest mean score was awarded to AmE, with a mean score of 4.92, followed by MyE at 4.77, and FiE at 4.17. CmE and IdE received somewhat similar ratings of 4.03 and 4.01, respectively. ThE, however, was the only speaker receiving the mean score below 4.00, which was at 3.85. Based on this initial analysis, the participants seemed to have positive attitudes toward the speakers as the mean scores remained high (exceeding 4.00), with ThE rated somewhat moderately.

When informed about the speakers' nationalities, participants displayed varied attitudes, generally expressing less favorable views than when nationalities were unknown, except for AmE, which received higher ratings in the informed group. Specifically, AmE achieved a score of 5.10, followed by MyE at 4.36—both receiving the highest ratings, consistent with the uninformed group. AmE was the only speaker rated higher than others in the informed group. The remaining speakers received scores below 4.00, with rankings differing from the uninformed group. ThE, previously the least positively rated, rose to third place with a mean score of 3.83. FiE ranked fourth with 3.80, and IdE placed fifth with 3.18. Interestingly, CmE, which held fourth place in the uninformed group, dropped to the lowest rank, with a mean score of 2.83.

Figure 1

Evaluations of Speakers (Speaker Rating Task) by Uninformed and Informed Groups



To determine whether variations existed in participants' evaluations of the six speakers within the same groups, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted using SPSS. A strong significant effect was observed in the evaluations of the six speakers by the participants in the uninformed group, with $F(5, 225) = 42.567$, $p < .001$, and an effect size of $\eta^2 = .486$.

Similarly, in the informed group, a strong significant effect was observed, with $F(5, 240) = 85.679$, $p < .001$, and an effect size of $\eta^2 = .641$. Both results demonstrate large effect sizes (as measured by η^2), indicating that the differences in speaker evaluations accounted for a substantial proportion of the variance within each group. This suggests that the participants evaluated the six speakers differently within each group (uninformed or informed).

After identifying significant differences in the within-subjects tests, additional post-hoc analyses were conducted to check which pairs of speakers' mean scores showed statistically significant differences. In Table 3, which pertains to the uninformed group, AmE and MyE obtained significantly higher mean scores compared to the remaining speakers. However, there was no significant difference between these two speakers themselves. Additionally, FiE which ranked third, received a significantly higher rating than ThE, but its score did not differ significantly from those of CmE and IdE. Lastly, the mean scores of CmE, IdE, and ThE did not exhibit any statistically significant differences among themselves.

Table 3

Mean Difference and Significance Levels for Pairwise Comparisons by the Uninformed Group

	AmE	**FiE**	**IdE**	**CmE**	**MyE**
ThE	1.07 (.000*)	.32 (.010*)	.16 (.128)	.18 (.076)	.92 (.000*)
AmE		.75 (.000*)	.91 (.000*)	.89 (.000*)	.15 (.080)
FiE			.16 (.100)	.14 (.091)	.60 (.000*)
IdE				.02 (.820)	.76 (.000*)
CmE					.74 (.000*)

Based on estimated marginal means

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

In the case of the informed group, Table 4 presents interesting findings, as the participants in this group evaluated the six speakers somewhat

differently compared to the uninformed group. The top two positions were still AmE and MyE. However, it is noteworthy that AmE received a significantly more favorable rating than MyE. These two speakers received significantly higher mean scores compared to the other speakers. The third- and fourth-highest ratings were ThE and FiE, who received significantly more positive evaluations than the remaining two speakers: IdE and CmE. IdE was rated fifth and significantly higher than CmE, which received the least favorable rating among all six speakers.

Table 4

Mean Difference and Significance Levels for Pairwise Comparisons by the Informed Group

	AmE	**FiE**	**IdE**	**CmE**	**MyE**
ThE	1.27 (.000*)	.03 (.814)	.65 (.000*)	1.00 (.000*)	.53 (.000*)
AmE		1.30 (.000*)	1.92 (.000*)	2.27 (.000*)	.74 (.000*)
FiE			.62 (.000*)	.97 (.000*)	.56 (.000*)
IdE				.35 (.000*)	1.18 (.000*)
CmE					1.53 (.000*)

Based on estimated marginal means

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

Between Groups Findings

In assessing the overall evaluations of the six speakers, the participants in the uninformed group generally held positive attitudes toward the speakers. In contrast, when the participants learned where the speakers were from, they tended to give lower ratings to four of the speakers (MyE, FiE, IdE, and CmE) compared to when they did not know their nationalities. To understand whether there were different ratings between the two participant groups, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted. Table 5 shows that there were no significant differences in how the uninformed and informed groups rated two of the speakers, AmE ($t(93) = 1.485$, $p = .140$, Cohen's $d = -0.305$) and ThE ($t(93) = .108$, $p = .913$, Cohen's $d = 0.022$). However, the ratings for the other four speakers differed significantly between the two groups. The informed group rated MyE significantly lower, with a moderate effect size ($t(93) = 3.193$, $p = 002$, Cohen's $d = 0.655$). Similarly, FiE received significantly lower ratings from the informed group, with a moderate effect size ($t(93) = 2.232$, $p = .027$, Cohen's $d = 0.458$).

Likewise, IdE was rated lower by the informed group, with a highly significant difference and a large effect size ($t(93) = 5.464$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 1.122$). Lastly, CmE, which had a positive mean score from the uninformed group, was rated significantly lower by the informed group, with a large effect size ($t(93) = 8.544$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 1.754$).

Table 5

Independent Samples T-Test for the Uninformed Group Vs Informed Group

Speaker	Mean (SD)		Independent-samples *t*-test			
	Uninformed	Informed	*t*-value	*p*-value	Cohen's *d*	df
ThE	3.85 (0.75)	3.83 (0.70)	.108	.913	0.022	93
AmE	4.92 (0.58)	5.10 (0.57)	1.485	.140	-0.305	93
IdE	4.01 (0.75)	3.18 (0.73)	5.464	<.001	1.122	93
FiE	4.17 (0.85)	3.80 (0.76)	2.232	.027	0.458	93
CmE	4.03 (0.66)	2.83 (0.70)	8.544	<.001	1.754	93
MyE	4.77 (0.65)	4.36 (0.60)	3.193	.002	0.655	93

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

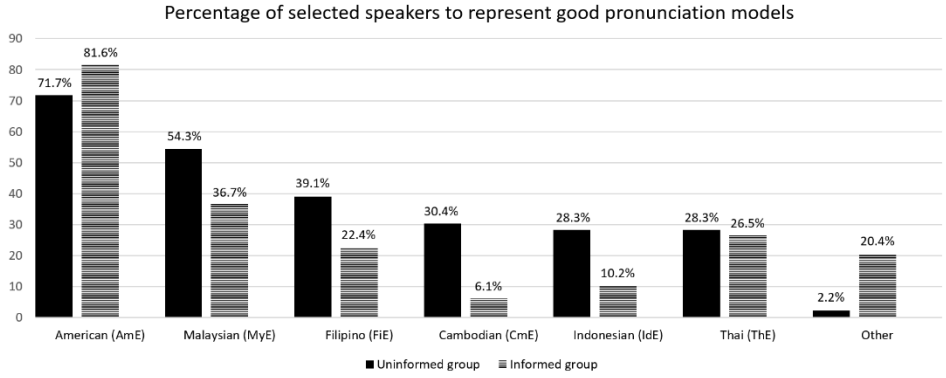
Preferred Pronunciation Models

In addition to the rating task, the study looked into how the preference for pronunciation models was impacted when the participants knew or did not know where the speakers came from. In this task, the participants were asked to choose and explain their choice of a good pronunciation model. As shown in Figure 2, the knowledge of speakers' nationalities seemed to influence preferences for pronunciation models in different ways. AmE was the most preferred pronunciation model across both groups, with an overall higher preference when the participants were aware of the speaker's nationality (71.7% of the uninformed group preferred this speaker, compared to 81.6% in the informed group). This trend, to a certain extent, mirrors the speaker rating task findings, where the informed group participants tended to rate non-native speakers lower in terms of social attributes, and as found in this task, similarly, these speakers were less frequently chosen as pronunciation models once their nationalities were disclosed. MyE was the second most preferred model, with a higher selection rate of 54.3% among the uninformed group, dropping to 36.7% among those informed. FiE followed, preferred by 39.1% of the uninformed group, with a rate of 22.4% among the informed group. The preference for CmE among

the uninformed group was at 30.4%, a substantial decrease to a mere 6.1% preference observed in the informed group, representing a more pronounced difference compared to other pairs. Both ThE and IdE were preferred by 28.3% of uninformed participants; however, the informed group's preference decreased to 26.5% for ThE and 10.2% for IdE. Interestingly, the 'Other' category was chosen by only 2.2% of the uninformed group but increased to 20.4% by the informed group. Those who selected 'Other' mentioned 'British' and other native speakers of English as their preferred pronunciation models.

Figure 2

Preference for Pronunciation Models by the Uninformed Group and Informed Group



The reasons participants provided for choosing their preferred pronunciation models are multifaceted, indicating a range of sociolinguistic and sociocultural assumptions guiding their views toward English varieties or speakers. In the uninformed group, the majority attributed positive linguistic attributes such as 'correctness', 'standardization', 'clarity', 'naturalness', 'fluency', and 'superiority' to their selected speakers. These qualities, predominantly associated with AmE, were also noted in non-native English speakers. For instance, some participants highlighted the appealing accent and fluency of AmE, despite noting the speaker's fast speaking rate. Participant U18 preferred AmE for its perceived representation of a standard accent compared to others. Meanwhile, other participants (U02, U40) found specific speakers (AmE, MyE, ThE, and CmE) to articulate each word with clarity and naturalness.

Additionally, the perceived nativeness of the speaker was a significant factor. While AmE was often linked to native speaking, some participants also considered other speakers or accents as having a native-like quality.

Statements from some participants illustrate this belief, suggesting a range of English accents (e.g., AmE, MyE, FiE, and CmE) could be perceived as native. Interestingly, Participant U41, while correctly identifying AmE as native, mistakenly perceived other speakers as native as well; in reality, they were MyE and IdE. The participant stated, "I want to sound like three speakers that have a native-like accent. I think Speaker X is from the United States, and Speakers Y and Z might come from New Zealand or Australia, given the familiarity of their accents to me."

Moreover, some participants valued inherent qualities such as 'charm', 'pleasantness', 'attractiveness', 'naturalness', and 'modernity' in native and non-native speeches. For instance, Participant U32 articulated that the ability to speak like the AmE speaker will make language users sound more modern and attractive. Likewise, Participant U28 wanted to sound like AmE and ThE, justifying that their accents were pleasing. Interestingly, Participant U29, who selected most speakers except ThE, found these speakers' accents charming, natural, and smooth, which made them good pronunciation models.

Lastly, a few participants were influenced by their exposure to certain accents through media and language learning experiences, aspiring to acquire those specific accents. Participant U10, for instance, expressed a desire to adopt the accent (ThE) heard in the news. Participant U16 indicated a preference for speaking like the AmE and FiE speakers, attributing this to experiences during secondary school, where the participant was taught by teachers who possessed these accents.

As with the uninformed group, most participants in the informed group attributed superior linguistic qualities to their chosen speakers. AmE was particularly associated with positive attributes. For instance, Participant I45 highlighted AmE as the best pronunciation model, stating that it sounds more correct and natural than other accents. Participant I10 expressed that the capacity to mimic this accent is often taken as an indicator of being fluent in English. In addition, some participants noted the ease of pronunciation of non-native speakers. For example, participant I34 found the accents uttered by the AmE and FiE speakers easier to understand, a sentiment echoed by Participant I07 for ThE.

Interestingly, while many participants cited 'nativeness' and 'originality' as reasons for choosing AmE, these traits were rarely associated with other non-native speakers. This disparity was apparent compared to the choices made without knowledge of the speakers' backgrounds. In addition, these reasons were frequently mentioned by those who chose 'Other'. Participants like I22 advocated for native English-speaking teachers, including British and Australian, as pronunciation models, while I42 expanded this preference to include New Zealand and Canadian accents. In

another instance, Participant I13, who preferred AmE and 'Other' (British), believed that as an English major, it is essential to learn pronunciation from native speakers. Additionally, building on the notions of nativeness and originality, stereotypes about AmE speakers were found to significantly shape participants' linguistic goals. Statements such as "most Americans speak good English" and "American people are confident" were frequently cited to justify their preferences. For example, Participants I17 and I35 expressed the belief that AmE speakers generally possess superior English skills and greater confidence in using the language. As a result, they identified acquiring an AmE accent as their primary pronunciation goal, reflecting the perceived authority and prestige associated with American English.

Others were motivated by practical goals; for example, Participant I30 aimed to adopt MyE due to career ambitions in Malaysia. A similar instrumental motivation was evident in Participant I02, who was keen to learn AmE in pursuit of employment opportunities in the United States after graduation. This practical orientation was also observed in Participant I49, who chose AmE and expressed a desire to befriend exchange volunteers from the United States, particularly those who are Christian Americans.

Familiarity significantly influenced the participants' preferences for pronunciation models. Many responses emphasized that the selected accents were perceived as natural and functional forms of communication, particularly in contexts such as education and business. They also highlighted how personal experiences with specific English speakers shaped their preferences. For instance, Participant I11 expressed a preference for AmE, FiE, and ThE due to positive experiences and exposure during primary and secondary education. Similarly, Participant I38 explained the choice of ThE, noting that it posed no issues for communication in educational and business settings. The participant referenced experiences with ThE teachers who used intelligible English and familiarity with ThE in business communication, describing it as the most practical and effective accent for ensuring communication success.

Discussion

In this study, the primary objectives were to investigate the effect the speaker's nationality had on the attitudes of Thai English learners toward different English speakers, including both native and non-native speakers, and whether their preferences for a pronunciation model vary based on whether they are informed or uninformed about the speaker's nationality.

The results from the speaker rating task revealed a clear tendency among participants in the uninformed group to assign more positive ratings to all speakers compared to the informed group. This pattern was consistent

across most speakers, with the notable exception of AmE, which received slightly more favorable evaluations from the informed group. Statistically, the disclosure of speakers' nationalities significantly influenced evaluations of four speakers, specifically those representing ESL and EFL varieties: MyE, FiE, IdE, and CmE. This confirms the effect of RLS, where social information about a speaker influences perceptions of their linguistic performance (Rubin, 1992). However, the evaluations of AmE and ThE were not significantly affected by nationality information, suggesting that other factors, such as familiarity, cultural proximity, or prestige biases, may have shaped these evaluations.

When the participants were unaware of the speakers' origins (uninformed group), they tended to exhibit highly positive attitudes toward AmE and moderately positive attitudes toward other non-native speakers. This suggests that the absence of background knowledge about the speakers led participants to rely solely on linguistic cues, which were provided by fluent speakers with educational backgrounds in linguistics and applied linguistics. Consequently, these speakers were generally rated positively. Interestingly, the preference task revealed that some participants mistakenly identified certain non-native speakers as native speakers, leading them to select the speakers as pronunciation models. This indicates that positive social attributes are, to some extent, influenced by linguistic cues, as suggested by previous research (Jenkins, 2007; Jindapitak et al., 2022b; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2017).

When the participants were aware of the speakers' origins (informed group), their evaluations of the speakers became less positive, revealing some interesting stereotypical patterns in their attitudes. Although AmE was still rated the most positively by the informed group, other non-native speakers (MyE, FiE, IdE, and CmE) received less favorable ratings, differing from the uninformed group's ratings. Specifically, the informed group's results suggest that awareness of the speakers' nationalities significantly affected their perception of speech. Since these non-native speakers were identified as such, the participants tended to rate them less positively than they did in the group unaware of the speakers' nationalities. This demonstrates the impact of RLS on speaker ratings, suggesting that listeners often hear the pronunciation they expect, sometimes disregarding the actual acoustic properties of the speech, confirming previous research on RLS (Ghanem & Kang, 2021; Hu & Su, 2015; Kang & Rubin, 2009; Rubin, 1992; Yook & Lindemann, 2013). In other words, listeners' evaluations of a speaker's speech are less about linguistic ability and more about pre-existing social stereotypes (Rubin, 1992), with the speakers' social information triggering certain biases against non-native speakers (Lindberg & Trofimovich, 2020).

Specifically, RLS was found to strongly influence the participants' ratings of the CmE speaker. The uninformed group positively evaluated this speaker, with an average rating of 4.03. However, when realizing the speaker's origin, the informed group gave a relatively lower average rating of 2.83. This trend was also evident in the pronunciation preference task: while a substantial 30.4% of participants in the uninformed group chose CmE as their preferred pronunciation model, this number dramatically dropped to 6.1% once the speaker's nationality was revealed. This significant difference in ratings may be linked to perceptions of prestige and legitimacy. According to language ideology, language attitudes are often influenced by societal norms surrounding these attributes (Lippi-Green, 1997). In this study, the uninformed group's positive evaluation of CmE suggests that, when relying solely on linguistic cues, participants focused on the speaker's language characteristics, such as fluency and intelligibility. However, when the speaker's origin was disclosed, stereotypes likely devalued the accent, reflecting an ideology that lesser-known or non-standard accents are viewed as less desirable or legitimate (Jenkins, 2007). The findings also reflect broader intergroup dynamics shaped by the historical and sociopolitical relationship between Thailand and Cambodia, including border disputes and cultural rivalries (Rim, 2023). These tensions may perpetuate negative stereotypes and biases against Cambodians in general, even in contexts unrelated to politics, such as language evaluation, thereby reinforcing the impact of RLS.

The impact of RLS on the native English speaker remains ambiguous since AmE did not receive markedly different ratings between the two groups. Interestingly, AmE was the only speaker to receive a higher mean score from the informed group compared to other speakers. This could be due to the participants' likely familiarity with AmE (even when uninformed about the speaker's nationality) and their predominantly positive attitudes towards this standard variety, as reflected in the informed group's evaluations. This preference is likely because AmE is recognized as the preferred English pronunciation model among Thai students, as discussed in previous studies (Jindapitak et al., 2022b; Prakaianurat & Kangkun, 2018; Snodin & Young, 2015). Additionally, the perception of the speaker's nativeness was a primary factor influencing participants' choice of this speaker as a pronunciation model. This suggests a desire to emulate or aspire to this model of pronunciation, corroborating previous studies mentioned above. The overwhelmingly positive ratings of and remarks about AmE indicate its perceived superiority, both implicitly (as seen in the speaker rating task) and explicitly (from the preference task). It can be explained that native speakers from inner-circle countries are often viewed as having authority or prestige, such as being language teachers or public figures (Boonsuk et al., 2023). In Thailand, where English is a compulsory foreign language, native speakers—

often presumed to be from the USA or UK—are accorded high status, with less recognition given to Australian, Canadian, and New Zealand nationals (Snodin & Young, 2015). Following the findings of this study, the participants' association of AmE with social and linguistic superiority, seen as an ideal norm provider (Kirkpatrick, 2007), likely influenced the uninformed group to give a highly favorable rating (average of 4.92). Although the informed group rated this speaker even higher (average of 5.10), the mean scores were already high in both groups, leading to no significant difference in the ratings.

Regarding the case of ThE, the evaluations of the ThE speaker between the two groups did not significantly differ. Both uninformed and informed groups gave the speaker moderately positive evaluations, with nearly identical mean scores (3.85 and 3.83, respectively). This indifference may stem from the participants' familiarity and comfort with ThE, which aligns closely with their own linguistic and cultural environment. ThE is widely associated with a shared ingroup identity, fostering positive perceptions among Thai learners. As Kangkun (2018) argues, Thai learners often perceive ThE positively because it resonates with their linguistic identity, despite concerns about its perceived comprehensibility in international contexts. Moreover, ThE is often perceived as a practical and natural form of communication in Thailand, especially in contexts where English functions as a lingua franca (Boonsuk, 2023). This orientation toward ThE likely contributed to the stable evaluations, as participants recognized the ThE speaker as representative of an acceptable variety of English. Furthermore, ThE's linguistic characteristics may have met participants' expectations for intelligibility, a priority in communication in lingua franca contexts (Jenkins, 2000). Familiarity with its phonological features likely reinforced its acceptability (Derwing & Munro, 1997; Jenkins, 2007).

When considering whether ASEAN Englishes are accepted as pronunciation models, it is worth understanding how the speaker's background influenced listeners' perception of speech and whether it affected their preferences. The findings revealed that when the participants were not aware of the speakers' nationalities, the ASEAN speakers were positively evaluated as indicated by the speaker rating task and were selected by many participants as representing good pronunciation models, suggesting social acceptance and a perceived fluency of these speakers. Interestingly, some participants mistook these non-native speakers for native English speakers, further justifying their preferences. This implies that these speakers were fluent and their accents may carry some positive linguistic and inherent values. However, when the participants were informed about the speakers' nationalities, their perceptions shifted, leading to a less favorable view of specific speakers socially and linguistically. This demonstrates how language

attitudes are influenced by prior social knowledge (Kang & Rubin, 2009). This phenomenon can be partly due to ELT being widely associated with whiteness (Sung, 2011), rooted in its historical spread through settler colonialism (Canagarajah, 1999). As a result, standard forms of English are often perceived as linked to white speakers, reinforcing entrenched language ideologies that equate Standard English with whiteness (Kubota, 2022). This dynamic is further exemplified by RLS, where a speaker's perceived social identity affects judgments of their English proficiency and teaching competence (Ghanem & Kang, 2021; Kang & Rubin, 2009).

Furthermore, the characteristics of the participants in this study might have contributed to the lower preference for non-native or ASEAN speakers and the heightened preference for AmE and 'Other' native English varieties/speakers (e.g., British, Australian, Canadian, and New Zealand), particularly among participants in the informed group. This preference is likely tied to the strong association between ELT and the authority of native speakers, coupled with the participants' status as English majors. Many participants may have assumed that mastering English requires approximating standardized native-speaker norms, perceiving native speakers as inherently better models for pronunciation. They also seemed to view non-native speakers as less suitable for providing effective pronunciation models. This perspective is supported by a written justification from a participant in the informed group who chose AmE and 'Other' (British), stating that, as an English major, learning pronunciation from native speakers is essential. Such attitudes reflect a broader belief system that equates English proficiency with adherence to native-speaker norms (Boonsuk et al., 2023; Rajprasit & Marlina, 2019).

While prevailing beliefs among ELT communities, particularly in EFL contexts, often depict non-native speakers as second-best language teachers or less intelligible and unsuitable for providing linguistic models for ELT (Boonsuk et al., 2023; Jindapitak, 2019; Watson Todd, 2006), these notions deserve a more critical and comprehensive reexamination. This study indicates that such beliefs might be shaped not only by linguistic cues but also significantly by non-linguistic factors, which can influence participants' ability to objectively evaluate speech. Therefore, the debate over accepting non-native or ASEAN Englishes as pronunciation models, as Kirkpatrick (2011) suggests, should account for both their linguistic qualities, such as international intelligibility and comprehensibility (Deterding, 2010; Jenkins, 2007), and the influence of social factors on acceptance.

Conclusion

The current study unveils some influence exerted by the participants' knowledge of the speakers' nationalities on their social evaluations of the speakers and their preferences for pronunciation models. The differences in how the two groups of participants rated the speakers suggest the influence of social information on participants' language attitudes, highlighting how evaluations of language variation can be subjectively shaped by social factors as discussed in RLS work. Concerning preferences for pronunciation models, regardless of their awareness level, participants predominantly favored the native English speaker, AmE, as their pronunciation target. However, the informed group showed a decreased likelihood of choosing non-native speakers once their origins were disclosed, highlighting the potential bias introduced by such information.

These results provide some useful implications for ELT. It is essential for ELT to not only focus on developing students' communicative competence but also address the pervasive impact of RLS on language perception. Students should be made aware of these biases and their potential to foster prejudice and discrimination, which are detrimental to effective social interaction, especially in intercultural and multilingual speech communities like Thailand. Integrating activities that expose students to diverse accents and raise awareness of the role of RLS in evaluating English accents, alongside emphasizing intelligibility over native likeness as a pronunciation goal, can better equip students to recognize and counteract the prejudices inherent in language evaluation, promoting a more unbiased approach to communication (Jindapitak et al., 2022a; Lindemann & Subtirelu, 2013).

Regarding methodological considerations, the participants' evaluations of speakers varied based on whether they were informed about the speakers' nationalities. This approach proves valuable in revealing implicit biases, offering insights into participants' subtle or privately held attitudes toward English speakers, which might not emerge through traditional data collection methods. Nevertheless, the study has its limitations. The findings may lack generalizability due to a small sample size. Additionally, it did not assess the participants' aural proficiency. Variations in this proficiency could affect their ability to understand different speakers, considering the diverse proficiency levels among English majors. Future research should consider implementing an aural proficiency test to ensure participants have comparable skill levels for both uninformed and informed groups. Moreover, this study focused solely on participants' attitudinal responses to the speakers without assessing their comprehension, leaving a gap in understanding whether stereotyping influences understanding. Future studies should explore

whether and how RLS impacts comprehension, integrating it into a broader framework of language perception and understanding (Hu & Su, 2015).

About the Authors

Naratip Jindapitak: A lecturer of English in the Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University. His research interests include sociolinguistics, Global Englishes, and social psychology of language.

Luke Jobert Earl Vencer Comprendio: A lecturer of English in the Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University. His research interests include issues related to native and non-native English teachers, Global Englishes, and English language teacher education.

References

Boonsuk, Y. & Ambele, E. A. (2020). Who 'owns English' in our changing world? Exploring the perception of Thai university students in Thailand. *Asian Englishes*, *22*(3), 297-308. https://doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2019.1669302

Boonsuk, Y. (2023). Which English should we stand for? Voices from lecturers in Thai multicultural universities. *RELC Journal*, *54*(3), 588-602. https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882211054650

Boonsuk, Y., Wasoh, F. E., & Fang, F. (2023). Native and non-native identity preferences in ELT hiring practices amid Global Englishes: The case of online job advertisements. *Asia-Pacific Social Science Review*, *23*(1), 135-143. https://doi.org/10.59588/2350-8329.1491

Buckingham, L. (2014). Attitudes to English teachers' accents in the Gulf. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 24*(1), 50-73. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12058

Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Carrie, E. (2017). 'British is professional, American is urban': 5Attitudes towards English reference accents in Spain. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *27*(2), 427-447. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12139

Chan, J. Y. (2016). A multi-perspective investigation of attitudes towards English accents in Hong Kong: Implications for pronunciation

teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, *50*(2), 285-313. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.218

Comprendio, L. J. E. V., & Savski, K. (2020). 'Asians' and 'Westerners': examining the perception of '(non-)native' migrant teachers of English in Thailand. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *41*(8), 673–685. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2019.1630419

Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (1997). Accent, intelligibility, and comprehensibility: Evidence from four L1s. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *19*(1), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263197001010

Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2005). Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, *39*(3), 379-397. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588486

Deterding, D. (2010). Norms for pronunciation in Southeast Asia. *World Englishes*, *29*(3), 364-377. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971X.2010.01660.x

Deterding, D., & Kirkpatrick, A. (2006). Emerging south-east Asian Englishes and intelligibility. *World Englishes*, *25*(3-4), 391-409. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971X.2006.00478.x

Deterding, D., Wong, J., & Kirkpatrick, A. (2008). The pronunciation of Hong Kong English. *English World-Wide, 29*(2), 148-175.

Dixon, J. A., & Mahoney, B. (2004). The effect of accent evaluation and evidence on a suspect's perceived guilt and criminality. *The Journal of social psychology*, *144*(1), 63–73. https://doi.org/10.3200/SOCP.144.1.63-73

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration and processing*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Galloway, N., & Rose, H. (2018). Incorporating Global Englishes into the ELT Classroom. *ELT Journal*, *72*(1), 3–14. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccx010

Ghanem, R., & Kang, O. (2021). ESL students' reverse linguistic stereotyping of English teachers. *ELT Journal, 75*(3), 330-340. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab011

Giles, H., & Billings, A. C. (2004). Assessing language attitudes: Speaker evaluation studies. In A. Davies, & E. Elder (Eds.), *Handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 187-209, 2004). Oxford: Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470757000.ch7

Gluszek, A., & Dovidio, J. F. (2010). The way they speak: A social psychological perspective on the stigma of nonnative accents in communication. *Personality and social psychology review, 14*(2), 214-237. https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868309359288

Hay, J., Nolan, A. & Drager, K. (2006). From fush to feesh: Exemplar priming in speech perception. *The Linguistic Review*, *23(*3), 351-379. https://doi.org/10.1515/TLR.2006.014

He, D., & Zhang, Q. (2010). Native speaker norms and China English: From the perspective of learners and teachers in China. *TESOL Quarterly*, *44*(4), 769-789. https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2010.235995

Hu, G., & Lindemann, S. (2009). Stereotypes of Cantonese English, apparent native/non-native status, and their effect on non-native English speakers' perception. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 30*(3), 253-269. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434630802651677

Hu, G., & Su, J. (2015). The effect of native/non-native information on non-native listeners' comprehension. *Language Awareness, 24*(3), 273-281. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2015.1077853

Jenkins, J. (2000). *The phonology of English as an international language.* Oxford University Press.

Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a lingua franca: Attitude and identity.* Oxford University Press.

Jindapitak, N. (2019). English as an ASEAN lingua franca and the role of nativeness in English education in Thailand: Moving toward the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC). *English Today*, *35*(2), 36-41. https://doi.org/10.1017/S026607841800024X

Jindapitak, N., Teo, A., & Savski, K. (2022a). Bringing Global Englishes to the ELT classroom: English language learners' reflections. *Asian Englishes, 24(3)*, 279-293. https://doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2022.2033910

Jindapitak, N., Teo, A., & Savski, K. (2022b). The impacts of awareness of Global Englishes on learners' attitudes toward language variation. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, *19*(1), 20–35. https://doi.org/10.56040/jtse1912

Jung, W. H. (2005). Attitudes of Korean EFL learners towards varieties of English. *English Teaching*, *60*(4), 239-260.

Kachru, B. B. (1992). *The other tongue: English across cultures.* University of Illinois Press.

Kang, O., & Rubin, D. L. (2009). Reverse linguistic stereotyping: Measuring the effect of listener expectations on speech evaluation. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *28*(4), 441-456. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X09341950

Kang, O., & Yaw, K. (2021). Social judgement of L2 accented speech stereotyping and its influential factors. *Journal of Multilingual and*

Multicultural Development, *45*(4), 921–936. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2021.1931247

Kangkun, P. (2018). Projecting identities through L2: Pronunciation and attitudes towards varieties of English among Thai learners of English in a public speaking classroom context. *Thoughts*, *2*, 45-70.

Kirkpatrick, A. (2007). *World Englishes handbook: Implications for international communication and English language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Kirkpatrick, A. (2011). English as an Asian lingua franca and the multilingual model of ELT. *Language Teaching*, *44*(2), 212-224. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444810000145

Kubota, R. (2022). Decolonizing second language writing: Possibilities and challenges. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *58*, 100946. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2022.100946

Lee, B. J. & Bailey, J. L. (2022). Effects of perceived race on comprehensibility, intelligibility, and accentedness ratings. In P. Ferguson, & R. Derrah (Eds.), *Reflections and new perspectives. JALT*. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTPCP2021-29

Lindberg, R., & Trofimovich, P. (2020). Second language learners' attitudes toward French varieties: The roles of learning experience and social networks. *The Modern Language Journal*, *104*(4), 822-841. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12674

Lindemann, S., & Subtirelu, N. (2013). Reliably biased: The role of listener expectation in the perception of second language speech. *Language Learning, 63*(3), 567-594. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12014

Lippi-Green, R. (1997). *English with an accent*. Routledge.

Lu, Y., & Gnevsheva, K. (2021). Accentedness and personality evaluation of Asian and Caucasian second language speakers of English by Asian second language English listeners. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *45*(4), 1197–1208. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2021.1959598

McKenzie, R. M. (2008). The role of variety recognition in Japanese university students' attitudes towards English speech varieties. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 29*(2), 139-153. https://doi.org/10.2167/jmmd565.0

McKenzie, R. M., & Gilmore, A. (2017). "The people who are out of 'right' English": Japanese university students' social evaluations of English language diversity and the internationalisation of Japanese higher education. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *27*(1), 152-175. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12110

Prakaianurat, P., & Kangkun, P. (2018). Language attitudes of Thai working adults toward native and non-native English varieties. *Manusya: Journal of Humanities*, *21*(2), 92-111.

Prakaiborisuth, P., & Trakulkasemsuk, W. (2015). Attitudes of Thai university students toward ASEAN Englishes. *In The 7th International Conference on Humanities and Social Sciences "ASEAN 2015: Challenges and Opportunities"* Proceedings. (pp.62-74). http://iw.libarts.psu.ac.th/conference/index.php/26-7thinternational-conference-on-humanities-and-social-sciences.

Rajprasit, K., & Marlina, R. (2019). An attempt to raise Thai students' awareness of World Englishes in a General English Program. *Indonesian JELT: Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching, 14*(1), 19-34. https://doi.org/10.25170/ijelt.v14i1.1416

Rakic, T., Steffens, M. C., & Mummendey, A. (2011). When it matters how you pronounce it: The influence of regional accents on job interview outcome. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *102*(4), 868–883. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8295.2011.02051.x

Rim, S. (2023). *Cambodia and Thailand's cultural rivalry has serious implications*. Retrieved November 15, 2023 from https://thediplomat.com/2023/05/cambodia-and-thailands-cultural-rivalry-has-serious-implications/

Rojas, M. N., Restropo, J. J. S., Zapata, Y. A. G., Rodriguez, G. J., Cardona, L. F. M., & Munoz, C. M. R. (2016). Linguistic discrimination in an English language teaching program: Voices of the invisible others. *Íkala Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura*, *21*(2), 133-151.

Rubin, D. L. (1992). Nonlanguage factors affecting undergraduates' judgments of nonnative English-speaking teaching assistants. *Research in Higher education, 33,* 511-531.

Ryan, E. R., & Giles, H. (1982). *Attitudes towards language variation*. Edward Arnold.

Saldana, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Sage.

Seligman, C., Tucker, G., & Lambert, W. (1972). The effect of speech style and other attributes on teachers' attitudes towards pupils. *Language in Society*, *1*(1), 131–142.

Snodin, N. S., & Young, T. J. (2015). 'Native-speaker' varieties of English: Thai perceptions and attitudes. *Asian Englishes, 17*(3), 248-260. https://doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2015.1083354

Strand, E. A. (1999). Uncovering the Role of Gender Stereotypes in Speech Perception. Journal of *Language and Social Psychology*, *18*(1), 86-100. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X99018001006

Sung, C. C. M. (2011). Race and native speakers in ELT: parents' perspectives in Hong Kong: Chinese parents in Hong Kong err in their perceptions of racial background and the native speaker of English. *English Today*, *27*(3), 25-29. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078411000344

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel, & W. G. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 7-24). Nelson Hall

Watson Todd, R. (2006). The myth of the native speaker as a model of English proficiency. *Reflections*, 8, 1-7.

Xu, W., Wang, Y., & Case, R. E. (2010). Chinese attitudes towards varieties of English: A pre-Olympic examination. *Language Awareness*, *19*(4), 249-260. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2010.508528

Yook, C., & Lindemann, S. (2013). The role of speaker identification in Korean university students' attitudes towards five varieties of English. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *34*(3), 279–296. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2012.734509

Zhao, B., Ondrich, J., & Yinger, J. (2006). Why do real estate brokers continue to discriminate? Evidence from the 2000 Housing Discrimination Study. *Journal of Urban Economics*, *59*(3), 394–419. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jue.2005.12.001