Listen to the World: Developing Korean High School EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension of Various Accents through Learning Transfer

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Approved October 2022 by the
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ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

December 2022

ABSTRACT

In the current globalized world, English is an international language that makes it possible for people from different language backgrounds to communicate with each other. In this situation, English users in EIL (English as an international language) should be able to comprehend various accents spoken by English speakers from all over the world. Therefore, in order to investigate how to help Korean high school EFL (English as a foreign language) learners to develop their listening comprehension of various accents of English, this study conducted an experiment by having them listen to various accents of English. Participants were divided into an experimental group and a control group. The experimental group received a treatment of listening to various accents and solving listening comprehension questions. They did reading while listening activity with the same accents when checking their answers. On the other hand, the control group received the same treatment and did the reading while listening activity when checking their answers. The only difference between the groups was that the experimental group listened to various accents of English and the control group listened to American accents. After the treatment, both groups took two pretests. It was found through test score analyses that listening to various accents helped participants to develop their listening comprehension of the accents better than listening to American accents. Furthermore, participants in the experimental group could transfer their listening comprehension developed through the treatment to new contexts such as listening to English accents that they did not practice and listening to real-life listening materials. Along with test score analyses, it was found through a questionnaire that participants who received the treatment of listening to various accents of English perceive that they could transfer their

developed listening comprehension. In addition, their responses showed that they recognize the importance of dealing with various accents for international communication and they think English classes in school should deal with various accents of English. With the results, this study insisted that CSAT (College Scholastic Ability Test) listening comprehension section should include various accents of English in order to help Korean high school EFL learners to prepare for international communication situations. With washback effects of CSAT, it will lead Korean EFL stakeholders to be able to prepare for English communications in EIL situations.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation could not be completed without many people's help and support. First, I am particularly grateful to Dr. Mark James, my committee chair. His knowledge of TESOL led me to think about how to cultivate me in the field. He is the one who led me to be interested in 'learning transfer' which I will keep investigating. Also, he always supported me and provided valuable feedback on my work without which I could not achieve what I have achieved. Also, I would like to thank other committee members, Dr. Aya Matsuda and Dr. Matthew Prior. Dr. Aya Matsuda is the one who led me to this research topic. By taking her class, I became interested in World Englishes which I had curiosities about. She also provided insightful feedback when I was working on a research paper even though it was the holiday season in December. Finally, Dr. Matthew Prior also has been an example of a good scholar to me. Since the first semester, he has helped me to grow as a scholar who focuses even on small parts that should not be ignored. In this dissertation, he helped me not to miss the important aspects of understanding different accents, which helped me to make my dissertation more concrete.

I also genuinely appreciate my family who has loved and supported me without any reason. Without them, I could not have achieved what I have achieved today. Finally, I would like to thank the people I met in Arizona, Gamrosa family, Mr. Tae Chong, and my friends. With them, I could survive in the desert and finish my Ph.D. journey.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, we are living in a globalized world where people cannot survive without interacting with each other across countries. We can easily find examples in our daily life which show the globalization of the world. For example, Apple's iPhone, the world's best-selling phone in 2021 (Sharma, 2022), is designed in the U.S., however, it is assembled in a factory, which is located in China but is owned by Taiwanese company, with numerous parts from factories located in around the world such as Australia, Canada, Hong Kong, the Philippines, etc. The factories that provide parts to be assembled in the factory in China are owned by companies which are based in different countries such as Korea, Japan, England, Germany, etc. (Costello, 2021). In other words, without interactions among countries, our lives will probably not be the same as the one that we are currently living in. That is, people from all over the world increasingly need to communicate with each other in order to live an ordinary life in this current globalized world, which leads us to have a question about how people using different languages can communicate with each other.

In the current world that requires international communication, English is a language that is being used as a common means of communication with a large number of people using English for different purposes. As a result, English communication happens in various situations. Some of these situations involve English being used between English L1 (first language) speakers, some involve English being used between English L1 speakers and English L2 (second language) speakers, and some involve English being used between English L2 speakers. In other words, English is a language

that can help people from all over the world to communicate with each other. For example, a friend of mine who works at the Korean branch of a global brand, Nike, often has online meetings with American co-workers at the headquarter of the company using English, which is an example of English communication between an English L1 speaker and an English L2 speaker done for an occupational purpose. For another example, when participating in an international conference held in Korea, I asked a question to Japanese scholar about his presentation using English and the Japanese scholar answered my question in English as well, which shows English communication occurring between English L2 speakers. All in all, it is an undeniable fact that, in the globalized world, English is used as a common language for international communication, which is essential for living in the current world. In addition, users of English are becoming diverse (e.g., L1 speakers, L2 speakers).

Among the four language skills required for communication (reading, writing listening, and speaking), listening is known as the most frequently used language skill (Field, 2009). For example, Morely (2001) mentioned that listening is used two times more than speaking, four times more than reading and five times more than writing in life. Therefore, it can be said that listening accounts for a bigger portion even in international communication done with English.

In addition, listening has been considered as the most challenging language skill to develop. For example, Graham (2005) pointed out that listening can be particularly difficult because it involves changing speech rates and the need to use top-down and bottom-up strategies simultaneously.

Along with the fact that listening is the most frequently used but the most challenging skill to develop, English listening situations are also getting diverse because English communication situations are becoming diverse. When English was considered as a means of communication with L1 speakers, it was okay to think that having the ability to understand L1 speakers is enough. However, as English communication situations are becoming diverse, English speakers should be able to understand English spoken not only by L1 speakers but also by other L2 speakers in order to communicate. In other words, English learners of the current era should develop the most frequently used but the most challenging language skill, listening, for situations that are getting diverse in order not to fall behind in inevitable international communications done in English.

In this situation, English listening is difficult for various reasons, in particular because of accent. In fact, there are factors that are considered to affect listening comprehension such as speech rate (J. Lee, 2021), background noises (Fujita, 2017; 2021), the complexity of words used in the speech, length of speech (Ryoo & Kim, 2020), conversational linguistic features (M. Kim, 2019), etc. However, among the factors, accent has been a topic of research in relation to listening comprehension (Major et al., 2002; Kang et al., 2019) because accent is a factor that affects listening comprehension both actually and perceptually (Bloomfield et al., 2010; Harding, 2008). Also, accent is an important aspect of listening comprehension, especially in the current globalized world. Considering that English is a language that makes communication among people from all over the world possible, it is inevitable that English communication happens with English speakers with various accents.

With this background, English users involved in international communication should be prepared to understand various accents of English that they will face. More specifically, English users in EIL should develop their comprehensibility of various accents, which can be defined as understanding the meaning of words and utterances (Smith & Nelson, 2019), in order to communicate with other English speakers. Therefore, in order to investigate how to help Korean EFL learners to be prepared for English listening comprehension for international communication done in English focusing on various accents of English, the research question has been made as below.

Research question: 'Does having Korean EFL learners exposed to different accents in listening materials influence on developing listening comprehension of those accents and other accents? If so, does the development in listening comprehension transfer to listening to real-life listening materials?'

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND OF THIS STUDY

Before investigating the research question, background explanations about English as an international language, listening comprehension and learning transfer will be provided in this chapter. And then, previous studies on dealing with various accents in Korean high schools will be introduced and their limitations will be discussed.

English as an International Language

World Englishes and English as an International Language

As mentioned in the introduction, it is English that is used as an international language (EIL) which makes communication "between speakers coming from different cultural and national backgrounds" (Sharifian, 2009, p. 3) possible. As a result, it is easy to find English communication situations which involve English speakers whose L1 is not English. For example, the number of English L2 speakers is bigger than that of English L1 speakers (Jenkins, 2006) and Chinese people learning English outnumbered the combined population of the U.S., Canada, the U.K. and Australia (Kirkpatrick, 2007). Furthermore, in some European countries, speaking English fluently is considered as natural as getting a driver's license (Seidhofer, 2010). Therefore, it is not hard to find English communication happening without English L1 speakers involved. In other words, English is no longer a language used only by English L1 speakers who use so-called standard English. Rather, English speakers whose L1 is not English use the language for different purposes and English that they use cannot but be different from the languages that English L1 users use.

For this situation regarding different English varieties used, Kachru (1985) introduced the three concentric circle model of World Englishes that describes the spread of English through globalization. In his model, he grouped the varieties of English in the world into three categories: the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle. The inner circle includes countries, such as the U.S., the U.K., Canada, Australia and New Zealand, which are the countries where English is a primary language dominated by the mother-tongue varieties. The outer circle includes countries where English plays an official or institutional role widely because of their colonial history (e.g., India, the Philippines and Singapore). Finally, the expanding circle countries are the ones where English is used as a foreign language, however, does not have an official or institutional role (Kirkpatrick, 2014) such as Korea, Japan, etc. With the three concentric circle model, it is important to perceive that English speakers from the outer and the expanding circle countries have their own legitimate varieties of English with processes of nativization (e.g., systematic changes in formal features of language such as pronunciation and grammar) (Kachru, 1985). Therefore, it could be considered that English is "a heterogeneous language with multiple norms and grammars" (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 232) while being deterritorialized (Canagarajah, 2007). As a result, speakers of English as a second or foreign language should not be overlooked in English communication.

With the status of English as an international language (EIL), the focus in the EIL situations is on whether English users can communicate with each other regardless of which English varieties are used. In other words, in EIL situations, if an English speaker is proficient in English enough to negotiate his/her meaning, which English variety he/she uses is not important. For example, it is easy to find international students in

universities in America and they use different varieties of English. However, if they are proficient in English enough to communicate with each other, it is inappropriate to evaluate the English varieties that they use because the focus of EIL is the communication function of English. Therefore, in EIL situations, English users accommodate other English users regardless of their English variety.

English as an International Language in English Education Programs

Since English communication situations are getting diverse, English education needs to be changed accordingly. In the past, emphasizing 'intercomprehensibility' among English speakers, Quirk (1985, 1990) asserted that English education should be done with standard English. Considering that standard varieties of English have been established for a long time (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2012), they seem to be appropriate options as target varieties of English education. However, since English interactions between English L2 speakers represent the majority of English use (Mckay, 2012), 'intercomprehensiblitiy' that Quirk emphasized is required not only for comprehending English L1 speakers. English users are expected to communicate with English L2 speakers often. In addition, with emphasis on the function of English as a means of communication, which varieties that English speakers use is less important in the EIL perspective. In other words, EIL users exploit the language in various ways to achieve their needs regardless of which English varieties they use. Therefore, English users should be equipped with abilities to deal with different varieties of English in order to communicate with other EIL users (Matsuda, 2012b).

In other words, English education should accommodate teaching English as an international language (TEIL) by not focusing on dealing with standard English only. In

EIL situations, proficient English users should have the "ability to interact with others in a broad range of contexts and situations, which often requires switching across varieties and dialects, lexicons, styles, and discourse strategies" (Lowenberg, 2012, p. 97). It cannot be accomplished easily by English learners themselves. That is, English education should be a process of "preparing English learners to become competent users of English in international contexts" (Matsuda, 2012a, p. 7). With this background, three different ways to accommodate teaching English as an international language are provided; including TEIL perspectives in teaching materials, reflecting TEIL in teacher training programs and including TEIL perspectives in assessment.

TEIL in Teaching Materials. Among various ways to accommodate TEIL perspectives in English education, including various English varieties in teaching materials, such as textbooks, can be an effective way to teach English as an international language. It is because it could provide learners with chances to be exposed to various English varieties (Matsuda, 2003). Previous studies showed that English learners recognize the need to develop their ability to understand various varieties of English through materials (Chen, 2011; Hu, 2017; H. Kim, 2018) and that EFL teachers tend to agree with including various English varieties in teaching materials (Y. Shim, 2015). As teaching materials contribute to foreign language learning as a source of input (Matsuda, 2012b), teaching materials for EIL should include diverse varieties of English which reflect how English is used as a means of communication in real-world situations (Mackay, 2012). However, it is not difficult to find that English teaching materials use only a small range of inner circle varieties such as American and British English (H. Ahn, 2014; J. Song, 2007).

In addition, using supplemental materials that reflect authentic English communication situations with recordings and corpus data of different varieties of English would also be an effective way to accommodate EIL in English learning. In fact, it is often found that teachers use supplemental materials to compensate for some gaps found in textbooks. With this background, J. Lee (2020) suggested that using websites that provide recordings of English speakers with different accents (e.g., Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE), International Dialect of English Archive (IDEA), and International Corpus of English (ICE)) will provide English learners to have chances to face various English varieties and it will help them to enhance their receptive skills on various accents of English.

TEIL in Teacher Training. Along with including different varieties of English in teaching materials, previous studies suggested that teacher training with EIL perspectives should also be provided (J. Lee, 2020). In order for teachers to teach English as an international language appropriately, they should "be aware of the current landscape of the English language" (Matsuda, 2003, p. 725) and they should be prepared to reflect the current landscape of English in their teaching.

However, it seems that many teachers are not ready to deal with different varieties of English in their teaching (Park, 2017). For example, English teachers in Korea are not familiar with outer circle and expanding circle English varieties enough to deal with them in their teaching. Rather, they still tend to consider only English varieties of inner circle as target varieties (Ahn, 2014). It might be because they have been educated in Korea where English education has been influenced a lot by American English from its beginning (S. Chang, 2005). As a result, teacher respondents in Y. Shim

(2015) expressed that appropriate teacher training programs are needed in order for them to prepare to teach English as an international language. In teacher training programs for TEIL, teachers should be aware that English varieties from the inner circle are no longer a norm of teaching. Rather, they should recognize that an important aspect of teaching English is to develop students' "proficiency in use" (Dogancay-Aktuna & Hardman, 2012, p. 106) regardless of which accents they deal with.

In addition, teachers should be provided with chances to experience the global spread of English and the multiplicities of recent English (Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2017). For example, J. Lee (2020) suggested some possible ways to accommodate EIL in teacher training programs based on the Korean context. He suggested that it might be helpful for teachers to recognize the current status of English if teacher training programs would include World Englishes or EIL-related classes instructed by experts or invite English education experts from different countries as guest speakers.

He also suggested dispatching teachers abroad, which is already included as a part of teacher training programs in Korea, can be another chance. Teacher training programs in Korea tend to include a training abroad session and teachers participating in the program are sent to countries where English is used as L1 in order to have class observations and to do teaching practicum. Therefore, if teachers can go to countries where English is used as a second or foreign language, they will experience different varieties of English in authentic situations and will realize how other countries deal with EIL perspectives in their English education.

Finally, since universities in some countries provide EIL-focused programs (e.g., Monash University, Australia and Chukyo University, Japan), having teachers participate

in those programs during the training abroad session will be helpful for teachers to develop their ability to teach English as an international language appropriately (J. Lee, 2020).

TEIL in Assessment. Finally, washback effects could be used as an effective way to promote TEIL in English education. Washback effects can be defined as the impact of testing on learning and teaching. Although washback effects are not always influential in positive ways, previous studies showed some cases of exams that led to positive changes in education (J. Brown 2000, Hatipoğlu 2016, Usaha & Wang 2002). For example, in Taiwan, once a national standardized English listening comprehension exam for university entrance was introduced, English teachers started dealing with listening comprehension in their classes (Chou, 2017), which can be an example of a positive washback effect that expands the scope of learning. Therefore, if tests include EIL perspectives in their assessment measures, it is expected that washback effects will lead stakeholders of tests to recognize the need for EIL and to accommodate EIL in their learning and teaching. As a matter of fact, some standardized tests that are implemented worldwide, such as TOEIC, TOEFL and IELTS, already include different English varieties although the scope of varieties is limited. On the other hand, local standardized tests, such as the Center Test of Japan and the Test of English Listening Comprehension of Taiwan, tend to include American English only (J. Lee, 2021b). Those tests which include the American English variety only can be considered as an example of tests "rest(ing) on a monolithic view of English, based on the norms of "Standard English" derived from inner-circle L1 speakers" (McKinley & Thompson, 2018, p. 2), which is not appropriate to assess English users' ability required in EIL situations.

Therefore, both local and international English tests should be changed in the direction of accommodating English as an international language perspective and it is expected that the change in tests will bring about washback effects on education. The need for accommodating EIL perspectives even in international tests stems from the changed situations in which English communication happens. As mentioned, in the EIL situations, English communication with English L2 speakers is easily found. Therefore, it is clear that English L2 speakers should be prepared to understand English varieties from all three concentric circles. In addition, the current landscape of English communication leads to the situation that English L1 speakers are not always proficient English users in English communication situations (McNamara, 2014) because of various legitimate varieties of English from different countries (Kachru, 1985). For example, English L1 speakers might not understand the meaning of the English word 'wet market' used in some Asian countries, such as Hong Kong and Malaysia, which refers to a store selling fresh meat, fish, vegetable, etc. In other words, regardless of whether English is their L1 or L2, all English speakers should develop their English communication ability for EIL situations. Therefore, not only local tests but also international tests should expand the range of English varieties to be included from the inner-circle varieties to the expanding-circle varieties.

When deciding how to accommodate EIL in tests, careful considerations have to be made because washback effects are expected to impact stakeholders' learning and teaching. As for how to accommodate different varieties of English in tests, Hu (2012) suggested two different approaches: the strong approach and the weak approach. Based on the core assumption that each English variety is legitimate and valid, the strong

approach to accommodate EIL perspectives could be done by "focusing on performance tasks that are evaluated in terms of functional effectiveness or task fulfillment" (p. 132). Therefore, in case a test assesses test-takers' English ability with a focus on the function of communication and performance, it requires the construct of the test to be changed, which is not easy to be implemented. In addition, the construct of a test focusing on communication and performance might ignore some important aspects of language such as forms and grammar, which can be a limitation of a strong approach to accommodating EIL in tests.

On the other hand, the weak approach does not require tests to change their construct while accommodating different varieties of English. In fact, the weak approach to accommodating TEIL is already done in some international tests such as TOEIC and TOEFL. One of the characteristics of the weak approach is to avoid lexical items or structures which could be unfamiliar to some English L2 speakers (Elder & Davies, 2006) while including different accents of English. This kind of weak approach might lead to fewer difficulties in its implementation than the strong approach. However, simultaneously, it could be seen as maintaining English L1 speakers' varieties as norms of testing and could ignore forms of English varieties other than L1 varieties (Hu, 2012). Therefore, when accommodating EIL perspectives in tests, prudent considerations on what is expected to be accomplished by accommodating the perspectives have to be preceded and what types of approaches to be used to accommodate should be decided accordingly.

All in all, in the globalized world, English is used as an international language that makes it possible for people from different language backgrounds to communicate

with each other. Therefore, it should be accepted that English varieties used by each English speaker should be considered legitimate. In addition, in order for English speakers in EIL situations to be prepared to communicate with other English speakers from various backgrounds, English education should accommodate TEIL perspectives. It could be done by including them in teaching materials, providing appropriate teacher training programs for TEIL and including the TEIL aspects in tests with expectations for washback effects.

Listening Comprehension in Language Learning

Attention on Listening Comprehension in Language Learning

As Morley (2001) mentioned that listening takes place twice more than speaking, four times more than reading and five times more than writing in people's real-life language use, listening is the most frequently used language skill. However, despite the frequent use of listening, listening tended to be considered less important to teach and learn and even neglected in the field of L2 learning (G. Brown, 1987) because it was perceived that listening can be developed by itself. As a result, listening had not been handled appropriately in teaching approaches and methods.

J. Lee (2016) explained in his study how listening was handled in second language teaching. In the past, listening was not taught in class when the Grammar Translation Method was used to teach L2 because the exact translation was the main goal of L2 learning at that time. Later, listening was dealt with in English class, however, it was taught only for limited purposes. For example, when the Direct Method of teaching L2 was used, listening was done in class because teachers used only a target language in class with a focus on teaching grammar rules and vocabulary (Richards & Rodgers,

2001). In other words, developing students' listening ability for communication was not the objective and listening was just a tool for students to listen to teachers' explanations of grammar and vocabulary. On the other hand, Audio-Lingual Method of teaching L2 seemed to be different from the previous methods in that listening was emphasized. However, the purpose of dealing with listening in this approach was to have students habitualize and memorize patterns in order to develop their fluency. Therefore, listening was done as a way to provide learners with chances to do drills and pattern practice, which means listening was a means of teaching different language skills. However, this kind of indifference to listening comprehension started to change. In the Communicative Language Teaching approach focusing on communicative proficiency, language teaching was done with communicative activities of which goals are authentic and meaningful communication (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Therefore, activities used in the Communicative Language Teaching approach tend to require learners to interact with each other. In this process, language learners need to be able to process oral input and make output, therefore, listening ability for communication was considered important. As shown, listening had received less attention in the field of L2 teaching (Graham, 2017) although listening has an important role in interactive communication and critical thinking in language learning (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005).

However, it seems that the need for teaching listening starts being recognized. For example, Emerick (2019) found that L2 instructors tend to think that explicit and direct L2 listening instruction with authentic materials is needed in order for L2 learners to be proficient listeners in communication. Therefore, teaching L2 listening should not

be underrepresented and should be done in language classes in order to help L2 learners to develop their listening ability for communication.

Input of Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension cannot be discussed without discussing input. Listening and reading can be categorized in the same category because they both are receptive skills that require language users to comprehend input (McDonough et al., 2013). However, the two receptive skills are different from each other because of the differences in input. First, reading comprehension is done with written input that is static. Therefore, it is possible for readers to read the input again and pause to think about what they read when they face difficulties in comprehending. However, listening comprehension is a process of communication which is done with a medium of spoken language (Buck, 2001). In other words, listening process starts when a listener is exposed to listening input such as utterances by other people or recorded listening input played. Therefore, listening comprehension is a transient and ephemeral phenomenon that happens in real-time, which makes listening comprehension different from reading comprehension. In addition, it also makes listening comprehension more difficult than reading comprehension because listeners cannot but be affected a lot by features of input.

Listeners usually do not have control over what they listen to (Osada, 2004; Underwood, 1989). For example, in real-life listening situations such as watching TV or listening to the radio, it is impossible for listeners to repeat what they just listened to. On the other hand, when communicating with people, listeners may ask for repeating to speakers. However, it is not appropriate to keep asking for repetition because it could interrupt the flow of communication. Therefore, in order not to interfere with the flow of

communication, listeners are required to comprehend what they listened to in a short time without having a long pause to process input, which makes listening comprehension more difficult than reading comprehension in that readers can have a longer pause to comprehend the input while they are reading.

Speech Rate and Background Noises Affecting Listening Comprehension. Because of the volatile nature of listening input, listening comprehension can be more difficult for L2 learners in real-life situations when the transient input is combined with other features such as speech rate and background noises.

First, speech rate of listening input is a well-known factor that affects listening comprehension (Bloomfield et al., 2010; Fujita, 2017; Shohamy & Inbar, 1991). Previous studies have shown that listeners consider slower listening materials easier (Choi, 2010) and they could comprehend better when listening to slower listening input (Griffiths, 1992; Rader, 1990, Zhao, 1997). For example, J. Lee (2016) investigated the effects of speech rate on listening comprehension by changing the speech rate of listening materials. With a listening comprehension test, one group took the test with listening materials that were made 40% faster than the original listening materials and the other group took the test with listening materials made 20% faster than the original materials. The result showed that speech rate is a factor that affects listening comprehension. The group which took the test with 40% faster materials performed worse than the other group. In addition, the test done with 40% faster materials showed a lower proportion correct in more than 80% of the entire items. In conclusion, he insisted that the test with faster materials was more difficult than the other. As the result showed, a faster speech rate is a factor that makes listeners hard to comprehend the input and “listeners must

process the text at a speed determined by speakers, which is generally quite fast" (Osada 2004, p. 58) in order to communicate without difficulties.

In addition to speech rate, noise is also known as a factor that affects listening comprehension. In many cases, language learners are exposed to clear listening input recorded in a studio without any background noises. However, in real-life situations, communication happens not only in quiet circumstances but also in places where listeners have to comprehend input mixed with different noises. So, there are some previous studies that show how background noise affects listening comprehension. Klatte et al. (2010) found that background noise is a factor that affects speech perception. In addition, Peng & Wang (2019) found a tendency that English L2 listeners experienced increased listening efforts than English L1 listeners in listening situations with noises. Considering that listening comprehension is a complex process starting from perceiving input and requires a lot of effort from listeners, listening comprehension cannot but be affected by background noises. For example, Yang et al. (2017) showed that Chinese college students performed worse when they were exposed to listening input with babbling from other people than when exposed to listening input in a quiet situation or in a situation with white noise. For another example, Fujita (2021) found that Japanese English learners' listening comprehension decreased when the level of the background noise in a crowd talking increased. In addition, participants' confidence level in listening comprehension was also negatively impacted by the level of the background noise. Along with background noises of utterances by others, different types of background noises also affect listening comprehension. For example, Chen and Ou (2021) found that traffic noises negatively impacted L2 learners' listening comprehension. In fact, it is nearly

impossible to live without background noises such as utterances by others and traffic noises. In other words, L2 listeners are expected to face listening situations with background noises and they should develop their listening ability to comprehend input even with noises.

Accents Affecting Listening Comprehension. Accent is also a well-known factor that affects listening comprehension (Goh, 1999). Although the factors mentioned above are important as well, they could be controlled depending on the situation (e.g., asking for slowing down and moving to a quiet place). However, it is impossible for interlocutors to change their accents easily. Especially, in the current world where English is used as an international language and the number of speakers of English as a second or foreign language is bigger than the number of speakers of English as L1, English communication cannot but be done with various accents and listeners have to be prepared to understand various accents. Therefore, the influence of accents on listening comprehension should not be underestimated.

Previous studies have shown that accent affects listening comprehension both perceptually and actually (Bloomfield et al., 2010; H. Brown, 2007; Chang et al., 2013). For example, Harding (2008) found that L2 listeners tend to perceive different accents of English as a factor that makes their listening comprehension difficult even though the actual listening performance with different accents of English was not influenced a lot. In addition to the influence on listeners' perception, the influence of accents on actual listening performance has also been investigated. Flowerdew (1994) found that unfamiliar accents cause non-native speakers of English to have difficulties in comprehending listening input, which was similar to what Ur (1984) found previously.

Therefore, the influence of accents on listening comprehension has been investigated in the fields related to L2 learning. Among them, L2 assessment is one of the fields that investigated how accents affect listening comprehension.

Considering that accents can affect listeners' comprehension, the influence of accents can vary depending on the listeners. For example, depending on the listeners' language background, the influence of accents included in listening input can be different. Therefore, some accents used in listening input might lead a listening test to be biased, which is related to the shared-L1 advantage. Shared-L1 advantage means that a test taker who shares L1 with speakers of listening input might be advantaged in the test, which might lead the test to be biased (Major et al., 2002). With the importance of test-fairness, Shin et al. (2021) tried to investigate whether shared-L1 advantage makes a test biased. They found through a different item functioning (DIF) analysis that, even though shared-L1 advantage exists, it is not influential enough to make the test biased. Also, other researchers showed that shared-L1 is not always an advantage. In addition, Harding (2008) showed that Japanese listeners of English reported that Japanese-accented English made them rather distracted.

Although it was found that shared-L1 advantage does not always make listening assessments biased, there still are cases that L2 English listeners get advantaged when listening to speakers who share L1 with them. For example, in the study by Major et al. (2002), English L2 listeners whose L1 is Spanish were found to be benefited when listening to English speakers whose L1 is the same as theirs. Kang et al. (2019) also found that Indian listeners and non-Anglophone South African listeners of English as L2 tend to be advantaged when listening to English speakers who share L1 with them.

As the previous studies show, listening to their own L1-accented English can make listeners either advantaged or disadvantaged. In other words, it is obvious that accent of English is a factor that influences listeners' comprehension of input regardless of whether the influence is positive or negative. Therefore, accents of speakers should be considered as an important factor when teaching L2 listening comprehension.

In conclusion, listening comprehension which is inherently transient can be more difficult to be accomplished when combined with factors related to input such as speech rates, noises and accents. Although speech rates and noises are well-known factors that affect listening comprehension, accents can be considered to affect listening comprehension more because they cannot be changed easily compared to those other features. Because of these features, listening is not easy to develop although it is the most frequently used language skill for communication.

Accents in Listening Comprehension in Korean English Education

Strong Preferences for Inner Circle Accents of English. Korea is a country in which the only official language is Korean and where English has a status as a foreign language. However, Korean people seem to have a strong passion for having proficient English ability. For example, there was an opinion that Korea has to renounce the Korean language and accept English as the only official language, and it will be the only 'authentic' solution for making Korean people fluent English users (Bok, 2001). Furthermore, with an inappropriate perception that the tongue is a factor that hinders Korean people to have the pronunciation of English L1 speakers, parents made their children have tongue surgery (Y. Kim, 2007). This kind of strong obsession with having proficient English abilities was termed 'English fever' (J. Park, 2009) and, because of the

‘English fever’, Korean people spend a lot of money on private English education (H. Lee, 2019).

In spite of ‘English fever’, Korean English education does not seem to consider accents as an important factor in that only English accents from inner circle countries are considered as target accents of learning (J. Lee, 2020). It might be because of how English education in Korea started. In fact, *Yugyeonggongwon*, the first modern public school established in the late 19th century hired American teachers and they taught all the subjects including English through English (S. Chang, 2005). Along with this school, other modern schools of that period were mostly established by American and British missionaries. In addition, later, Korean EFL learners used to use authentic materials such as American Forces Korea Network (AFKN, now AFN Korea) programs made for American militaries serving overseas (Choi, 1988; R. Shim, 1999). In other words, since the beginning of English education in Korea, Korean EFL learners have been exposed to those accents of English being influenced by teachers from inner circle countries. Furthermore, as Tanghe (2014) pointed out, until now, the E-2 visa that is required to work as a so-called ‘native speaker English teacher’ in Korea is allowed only to English speakers from the U.S., the U.K., Ireland, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. It shows the way the Korean educational system considers inner circle varieties of English as a target in English education.

As a result, English education in Korea has put inner circle varieties at the center and strong preferences for inner circle English varieties as a target of English learning have been pervasive in Korea (H. Ahn, 2014; Breaux &; Green, 2015; Kim & Kim, 2018; H. Kim, 2018). In addition, both EFL learners and teachers, the main stakeholders of L2

learning, show some negative opinions on different varieties of English other than inner circle ones. For example, in Green (2015)'s study, Korean EFL university students responded that they do not find any reasons to learn English varieties other than inner circle ones. Also, Korean EFL teachers tend to have negative opinions on dealing with different accents of English in class (K. Choi, 2007; H. Kim, 2018; Y. Shim, 2015; Yoon, 2007). For example, with the thought that there might occur side effects that will affect learning inner circle accents if they teach different English accents, English teachers tended to evaluate different English varieties negatively and consider inner circle varieties of English as the only target varieties (H. Ahn, 2014). Related to this, in Y. Shim (2015)'s study, the opinion that English varieties from inner circle countries should be the target varieties in English class was found among more than 60% of teacher participants. Furthermore, there seems to be a stratification among the inner circle accents of English and American accents of English are the most preferred for Korean English education among the inner circle ones (S. Chang, 2005; W. Jung, 2005; O. Kang, 2015). For example, M. Kim (2014) found in her study that Korean high school EFL learners expressed negative opinions on British accents included in a nationwide listening test for secondary students. Also, S. Chang (2005) found that no parents want English teachers from Australia and New Zealand for their children. Additionally, J. Lee (2016) pointed out that the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT, henceforth), which is a national standardized university entrance exam and is considered as one of the most important exams in the Korean education system, includes American accents only in the listening comprehension part.

Because of the strong preferences for inner circle accents of English, it is not hard to find that Korean EFL learners have difficulties in comprehending different accents of English. For example, Oh (2011) showed that Korean high school learners could not comprehend Malaysian English accents well compared to American and Korean English accents. In addition, J. Kim (2007) found Korean EFL university students performed comparatively poorly when they were listening to Filipino and Indian accents and M. Ahn (2015) found Korean EFL learners' better listening performance on American and British accents than Singaporean and Indian accents. Also, Y. Kim (2008) conducted a study with participants of employees of an airline company and college students from aviation-related majors. Considering participants' employment status and majors, they had chances to face English speakers from different L1 backgrounds, which led them to be an appropriate subject. It was found in the study that participants have difficulties in comprehending input when communicating with English speakers whose accent is ones other than American. In addition to worse listening comprehension performance on non-inner circle English accents, M. Kim (2014) found through a questionnaire survey that Korean high school EFL learners expressed their negative attitudes, such as anxiety, nervousness and helplessness, towards British accents included in a national standardized listening test for secondary students. Along with the negative attitudes, nearly half of the student respondents and nearly 80% of the teacher respondents answered that British accents make the test difficult. All in all, Korean EFL learners are being affected by different accents of English as other L2 learners are, and it might be because of the strong preferences for inner circle English accents.

Awareness of the Need for Dealing with Various Accents of English. Even though there have been strong preferences for inner circle accents of English in Korean English education in general, Korean EFL stakeholders do recognize the need for learning various varieties of English. Previous studies show that Korean EFL learners recognize that English is now used in diverse situations and that they also recognize the importance of the ability to comprehend different varieties of English in international communication (Byun, 2016; H. Choi, 2007; H. Lee, 2009; K. Song, 2011; Yoon, 2007). For example, M. Ahn (2015) showed that Korean EFL high school students who participated in her study tended to have positive images of English L2 speakers. In addition, many participants responded that there is no such 'standard English' in the world where English is used as an international language.

Along with EFL learners, English teachers in Korea were also found to recognize the need for dealing with various accents. Although some teachers may view accents other than inner circle accents as wrong and avoid exposing students to them (H. Ahn, 2014), other teachers are willing to teach different varieties of English in their future classes to prepare their students to be proficient English users (M. Ahn, 2015). For example, Korean EFL teachers insisted that Korean EFL students should be exposed not only to American accents but also to British accents and should develop the ability to comprehend the accents with the purpose of developing communicative ability in the globalized world (M. Kim, 2014; Park, 2017). Furthermore, some teachers suggested that students should have chances to experience even more broad scopes of English varieties such as Indian, Chinese and Japanese English accents (H. Ahn, 2014; Park, 2017).

In this situation, one of the obstacles that hinder teachers to deal with different accents of English is CSAT. As a matter of fact, teachers tend to refrain from dealing with different accents of English in their class because of the strong washback effects of CSAT which does not include English accents other than American accents. In other words, it is not easy for teachers to deal with content that is not directly related to CSAT in their classes (Park & Chang, 2016). Therefore, J. Lee (2021b) insisted that CSAT should include different accents of English in the listening comprehension section and its washback effects will provide chances for both teachers and students to recognize the need for studying different accents of English and chances for Korean learners to be prepared for international communication done in English.

Learning Transfer

One of the main purposes of learning is to provide learners with chances to create foundations of knowledge and skills with which learners can solve issues in novel situations. Although learning is meaningful when learning outcomes help learners to solve problems at the time of learning, learning is more meaningful when it could be transferred to different situations. When prior learning influences learning or performance in a new situation, it could be considered as a learning transfer (James, 2018b) and learning transfer is a crucial assumption that motivates learning and teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 2013). Therefore, the importance of learning transfer should not be underrepresented and that is why learning transfer has been investigated widely in the related fields of L2 learning (James, 2018a). In the following sections, how learning transfer can be categorized and how learning transfer happens in relation to listening will be introduced.

Near and Far Transfer

With the basic concept of applying previous knowledge gained through learning to solve problems in new situations, there have been different opinions and taxonomies to describe learning transfer such as what is transferred and when and how transfer happens. Among the different taxonomies of learning transfer, a taxonomy of near and far transfer has been widely accepted (Larsen-Freeman, 2013). According to this taxonomy, if a learning transfer happens between two similar situations, it could be considered as a near transfer. For example, if a student could apply his/her previous knowledge that he/she gained from CSAT preparation materials while taking CSAT, it could be considered as a near transfer because the preparation materials and CSAT questions are similar. On the other hand, if a learning transfer happens between two situations which are different from each other, it could be considered as a far transfer. For example, if a student applies 'divide and conquer' strategy learned from a computer science class when taking care of his/her garden, it could be considered as a far transfer because transfer happened across contexts. This near/far transfer taxonomy can be applied to developing listening comprehension situations as well. English learners try to develop their listening comprehension ability with the expectation that they will be able to understand utterances spoken in various accents of English in diverse situations and with diverse purposes. In other words, far transfer of EFL learners' listening ability is required, which made the taxonomy of near and far transfer important for this study.

In this situation, a transfer taxonomy created by Barnett and Ceci (2002) can be used to show clearly whether a transfer is near or far. The taxonomy has six dimensions of transfer distance: knowledge domain, physical context, temporal context, functional

context, social context and modality. The knowledge domain refers to the subject matter of the transfer tasks and learning tasks. It is related to the similarity of content. Physical context and temporal context each refer to physical places and elapsed time between training and test. Barnett and Ceci (2002) also provided a functional context dimension that means for what purpose the transferred skill is used (e.g., academic or for real word life). Then, the social context, which is related to whether the task is done alone or with others, is provided as a dimension. Finally, modality, in what mode transfer task is provided (e.g., visual vs. auditory), is suggested.

With this taxonomy by Barnett and Ceci (2002), EFL learners can expect far transfer of their listening comprehension skills. If EFL learners can apply their listening comprehension skills on various accents developed in school with textbook materials to real-life listening situations such as a social meeting, this could be considered as a far transfer in terms of temporal and functional context. It is because their listening skills developed with the purpose of studying in the past helped them in the listening situation which is not for studying and happened later from their learning.

Learning Transfer in Listening Comprehension

As mentioned previously, learning transfer has been an important concept in the field of language learning (James, 2018a) and there are previous studies that investigated learning transfer in relation to listening comprehension. More specifically, learning transfer related to L2 listening comprehension has been found in both within L2 listening and from other L2 abilities to L2 listening (e.g., pronunciation to listening). The cases of learning transfer found showed that both near and far transfer can happen in relation to L2 listening.

Learning Transfer Within L2 Listening. Previous studies have shown that learning transfer can happen within L2 listening comprehension. Inherently, listening comprehension begins when listeners are exposed to input, therefore, input is an important aspect of listening comprehension. As a result, learning transfer in L2 listening has been found in relation to listening input. For example, Herron and Seay (1991) investigated the effects of using authentic listening materials on French as L2 listening comprehension. In their study, students in the experimental group listened to authentic audio materials (e.g., audio magazines made by and for French L1 speakers) during their class and students in the control group did not listen to the authentic materials. After the treatment, the researchers compared the groups' performances in the post-tests that are done with unedited materials including native French speakers' utterances. They found that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group. More specifically, the experimental group's performances were significantly better than the control group in both a test with audio materials and a test with video materials. The fact that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in the test with audio materials could be seen as a near transfer in that students in the experimental group could apply what they learned from the treatment to similar situations in which they were receiving the treatment (listening test with audio materials in both the treatment and the post-test). However, considering that the experimental group performed even in the post-test with video materials, what Herron and Seay found can be considered as an example showing that students could transfer their ability developed by using authentic audio materials to different situations, a listening test with video materials, which can be considered as a far transfer in terms of modality (Barnett & Ceci, 2002).

Onoda (2012) also showed a case of learning transfer in L2 listening comprehension by investigating the effects of *Quicklistens*, a kind of extensive listening activity. In her study, the experimental group did *Quicklistens* activity by listening to easy and interesting stories. And then she found that students who did the activity performed better in a post-test than students who did not do the activity. Considering that *Quicklistens* activity was intended to make students do listening for their fun, the better performance of students who did *Quicklistens* in a test can be considered as a far transfer in a functional context. Finally, Rose and Oh (2020) found that students who are often exposed to English-based media, such as dramas, movies, etc., performed better in a listening test than students who are exposed to English-based media less often. The students exposed to English-based media more often performed better even with various accents of English. Therefore, it could be considered that students' listening ability improved through English-based media was transferred to different listening situations. As the examples above show, learning transfer in L2 listening can happen in relation to listening input.

Learning transfer in L2 listening can also happen in relation to listening strategies. For example, Thompson and Rubin (1996) showed that students who received instruction for both cognitive and metacognitive listening strategies showed bigger improvements in listening comprehension than students who did not receive the instruction, which shows a near transfer happened. For another example, Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2009) investigated the effects of teaching metacognitive listening strategies. In their study, they found that students who learned metacognitive listening strategies, such as planning, monitoring, and evaluation, performed better than the students who did not learn the

strategies. In the following questionnaire (Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) and interview, they found that students who received the metacognitive listening strategy instruction could recognize when and how to use metacognitive strategies depending on their situations. Considering that metacognitive strategies are general principles that can be applied to various listening situations and metacognitive listening strategies are about how to approach future listening situations, the fact that the students could recognize when and how to use metacognitive strategies can be considered as a far transfer.

One of the aspects of learning transfer found within L2 listening is bottom-up skills. For example, Hamada (2011) showed that students who did shadowing, repeating aural input like a parrot, performed better in listening comprehension tests than the students who did not do shadowing. Interviewing students who did shadowing, Hamada found that students could develop their bottom-up skills such as word recognition and decoding while doing shadowing and they responded that the developed skills helped them to comprehend input better in tests. Therefore, it could be also considered as a learning transfer of developed bottom-up skills. Similarly, Matthews and Cheng (2009) found that students' ability to recognize high-frequency words from speech can predict their listening comprehension. Although recognizing input is an important aspect of listening, it does not guarantee the listener's comprehension. Therefore, the fact that recognition of input can predict listeners' listening comprehension also shows a possible learning transfer.

In addition, arguing that listening strategy instruction might not work with low proficiency L2 listeners, Renandya (2012) insisted that low proficiency L2 listeners

should reach a certain threshold level before they can get benefited from listening strategy instruction. Based on teachers' opinions, Renandya insisted that students should develop their bottom-up skills with extensive listening. Considering that listening comprehension cannot be done without the ability to process input, it seems reasonable that low proficiency L2 listeners who cannot process the input cannot be benefited from listening strategies. Therefore, it is bottom-up skills that low proficiency L2 listeners should develop first because bottom-up skills are an important aspect of L2 listening. Bottom-up skills are specific and routinized skills and developing bottom-up skills is related to fast and accurate processing of input. Therefore, what Renandya insisted on could be seen as emphasizing the importance of learning transfer in L2 listening as well. As the previous studies mentioned above show, learning transfer occurs often within L2 listening comprehension.

Learning Transfer from Other L2 Abilities to L2 Listening. Considering that L2 listening comprehension is a complex process that requires listeners' various language skills and abilities, learning transfer in relation to L2 listening could happen from other L2 abilities to L2 listening. For instance, Han (1996) found that L2 learners who received pronunciation instruction showed significant improvement in their listening comprehension. While receiving pronunciation instruction focused on phonetics and phonology, they learned about segmental and suprasegmental features of English. It was found in the study that their knowledge gained on those features helped them to comprehend listening input better. Therefore, what she found can also be considered as a far transfer in terms of context, especially in modality, because knowledge of phonology and phonetics was transferred to listening comprehension.

In addition, there are some studies that could show possible learning transfer in L2 listening. Also, Oh and Lee (2014) found that students' abilities for vocabulary, grammar, and sentence processing are in positive correlation with their listening comprehension. In other words, students' linguistic ability could affect their listening ability because they can apply their linguistic knowledge of vocabulary or grammar that they previously gained to listening situations in order to comprehend listening input. Finally, there was a study that showed a possibility of learning transfer from reading comprehension to listening comprehension. Investigating the relationship between the two comprehension skills, Wolf et al. (2019) found that word reading fluency is a shared contributor to both reading and listening comprehension although they assumed that word reading fluency can contribute to listening comprehension when questions and answers are provided in written form. Therefore, it might be possible, if learners develop their word reading fluency, their listening comprehension will be developed as well, which can be considered as a far transfer in modality. As the examples above show, learning transfer can happen from other L2 abilities, such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and reading, to listening comprehension, which shows improving listening comprehension can be done not only by dealing with listening comprehension but also by dealing with other aspects of language.

Previous Studies on Dealing with Various Accents in Korea

With the importance of listening comprehension of various accents in EIL situations, there are a few previous studies that investigated how various accents of English affect Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension and how teaching various

accents of English in school affects students' listening comprehension. In this section, the previous studies on this topic will be introduced and their limitations will be discussed.

Findings from Previous Studies

First, M. Ahn (2015) investigated how different accents of English affect Korean high school EFL learners' listening comprehension by having participants exposed to different accents of English. Participants who had similar listening comprehension abilities were divided into four groups and each group was assigned to listen to American, British, Singaporean and Indian accents of English. All the questions they listened were the same but different only in terms of accents. They listened to 10 listening comprehension items from an EBS (Korea Educational Broadcasting System) textbook[1]. Comparing the four groups' listening performances, the researcher found that the group that listened to American accents and the group that listened to British accents performed significantly better than the groups that listened to Singaporean and Indian accents. With the results, she concluded that familiarity with the accents affected the students' listening comprehension because Korean EFL learners had had rare chances to listen to Singaporean and Indian accents.

In addition to how various accents of English affect Korean high school EFL learners' listening comprehension, there are previous studies that dealt with the effects of listening to different accents of English in high school. First, Hong (2012) investigated

[1] EBS is a Korean public broadcasting station which was established with the purpose of supplementing school education. Along with the purpose of the EBS's establishment, Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE, henceforth), the organization in charge of developing and administering CSAT, has made CSAT questions in conjunction with EBS textbooks in order to prevent stakeholders of CSAT from spending a lot on private education. As a result, many English teachers in high school use EBS textbooks in their classes (H. Jung, 2006)

the effects of using different varieties of English pronunciation in English classes on students' listening comprehension and language attitudes. In the study, she recorded listening materials with 14 English speakers from 12 countries which consist of 10 expanding circle countries (Japan, China, Vietnam, Thailand, South Korea, Spain, Austria, Rumania, Ghana, and Congo) and 2 outer circle countries (Hong Kong and Singapore). The English speakers recruited for the study recorded listening materials for a pretest and a post-test which included 10 questions each and recorded listening materials for treatment sessions that the experimental group would listen to. The listening materials for the pretest and the post-test were based on listening comprehension materials published by EBS as in M. Ahn (2015). For the treatment sessions which lasted for 5 weeks, participants in the experimental group were exposed to different accents of English with listening materials from their own textbooks. While being exposed to various accents of English, participants were asked to solve listening comprehension questions and did dictation. On the other hand, participants in the control group received the same treatment with American accents only. Through the experiment, Hong found that the performance difference between the two groups in the post-test was not significant. Therefore, she concluded that the treatment sessions were not effective enough to improve Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension ability for different accents of English.

A few years later, You (2015) also investigated a similar topic. In the study, she divided participants into three groups, two experimental groups and one control group. The experimental groups were exposed to various accents of English and the control group was exposed to American accents of English. More specifically, during the training

sessions, the first experimental group was exposed to British, South African and Hong Kong accents of English. The other experimental group was exposed to Australian, Irish and Filipino accents of English. Therefore, different from the previous study by Hong (2012), this study did not include English accents from expanding circle countries during the training sessions although English accents from inner circle countries were included. In the pretest and the post-test, American, British, Australian, South African, Irish, Hong Kong, Filipino, Japanese and Chinese accents were used to record listening materials. Each accent was assigned to one monologue and one dialogue. Therefore, the pretest and the post-test included 18 questions each. Listening materials for the pretest, the post-test and treatment were based on EBS materials as in M. Ahn (2015) and Hong (2012). The treatment was provided during 6 class times and participants were asked to solve 6 listening comprehension questions in each class. In the result section, she reported that all the groups including the control group showed improvement between the pretest and the post-test. In addition, the two experimental groups showed bigger improvements after the treatment than the control group in terms of descriptive statistics, however, the difference between groups was not significant in terms of inferential statistics.

According to the previous studies, it could be found that various accents of English are a factor that affects Korean EFL high school learners' listening comprehension. More specifically, M. Ahn (2015) insisted that familiarity with accents made Korean EFL learners hard to understand Singaporean and Indian English accents. Considering the importance of familiarity with accents, it seems important for Korean EFL high school learners to be familiar to various accents of English, which could be done by being exposed to them in school class. In addition, researchers have investigated

how exposing Korean high school students to various accents of English in school classes affects their listening comprehension development. Although the results were not consistent, it was worth trying in that having Korean EFL high school learners exposed to various accents of English helped participants to improve their listening comprehension of those accents as You (2015) showed.

Limitations of Previous Studies

Although previous studies investigated the important topic of listening to various accents of English in reasonable ways, they also showed some limitations that should be handled.

First, M. Ahn (2015) investigated the participants' comprehension of different accents of English. In the study, participants were exposed to American, British, Singaporean and Indian accents of English and participants performed better with in the order of American, British, Singaporean and Indian accents. With the results, she insisted that the familiarity of accents might affect listeners' comprehension. Although the researcher tried to investigate the difference in students' listening comprehension with different accents, the way participants were exposed to the accents seems problematic. More specifically, participants in the study listened to different accents of English spoken in monologue only. Listening to monologue, a transactional listening with the main purpose of getting information (Brown & Yule, 1983), is an important aspect of listening. However, listening ability for dialogue, which can be called interactional listening with two-way information flow, is also important. In fact, the listening ability for dialogue seems more important in that Korean EFL learners are expected to participate in English communication to interact with English speakers from different language backgrounds.

Therefore, the results gathered by having students listen to monologues only are not enough to show participants' overall listening comprehension.

In addition, there is a limitation found in common among all three studies and it is limited scopes of English accents used in studies. In M. Ahn (2015), participants were exposed to American, British, Singaporean and Indian accents of English that are accents from inner circle and outer circle countries. In other words, she did not include accents from expanding circle countries. In You (2015), although English accents from expanding circle countries were included when participants were taking the pretest and the post-test, they were not included during the treatment sessions. In other words, it could be seen that the two studies did not consider English accents from expanding circle countries important. However, as mentioned previously, Chinese people learning English outnumber the sum populations of some inner circle countries such as the US, the UK, Australia and Canada (Kirkpatrick, 2007) and it shows that English speakers from expanding circle countries should not be underestimated and should be considered as a target in TEIL. In fact, as it will be shown later in this study, the number of English speakers from expanding circle countries who visited Korea is much bigger than that from inner circle and outer circle countries. On the other hand, participants in Hong (2012) did not have chances to be exposed to English accents from inner circle accents of English, which also seems problematic. Even though Korean EFL learners expressed some negative opinions on English accents from inner circle countries other than American accents (R. Green, 2015; M. Kim, 2014) because of the strong preferences for American accents (Lee, 2020), inner circle accents other than American accents should not be ignored. In conclusion, all three previous studies have shown some limitations in

the scope of English accents included in that they did not include English accents from all three concentric circles.

Next, along with providing students with chances to be exposed to various accents in school is important, how participants were exposed to various accents is also an important aspect. Therefore, what participants were doing when they were listening to various accents of English in the previous studies can be seen as limitations as well. Previous studies asked participants to do dictation (Hong, 2012) and filling in blanks activities (You, 2015) while participants were listening to different accents. Dictation and filling in blanks activities can be used as a way to check students' listening comprehension. However, dictation is not widely used among teachers and students these days because of 'unnecessary pressure to understand every word' (Nam & Seong, 2009, p. 179). In addition, although filling in the blanks can be done in order to check students' comprehension, it is not the case that students always fill blanks based on their comprehension. Students often fill blanks based on their top-down processing such as guessing. Therefore, it can be said that listening instructions that previous studies implemented with different accents of English are not practical or not directly related to listening comprehension of different accents of English. It might be a reason for the results found in both studies that having students exposed to various accents is not effective in improving students' listening comprehension of those accents.

Finally, Hong (2012) and You (2015), which investigated the effects of exposing Korean high school students to various accents of English, tried to pursue a practical aspect in that they conducted their experiments with EBS materials which are geared toward preparing for CSAT and which are widely used for the classes (H. Jung, 2006). In

more detail, both studies used EBS materials for their pretest and post-test. Considering that CSAT questions are made in conjunction with EBS materials, using EBS materials for the experiments seems reasonable and helpful for participants to prepare their listening ability for the exam. However, previous researchers implemented their post-test with EBS materials that are used for the treatment session. In other words, previous studies were designed to investigate how exposing Korean high school EFL learners to various accents affects their listening comprehension on listening materials that are recorded to prepare for CSAT.

As a matter of fact, participants' performance on a listening comprehension test can be interpreted as their listening ability if the test they took is a valid test (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). However, in case the scope of assessment in a test does not match the target language use (TLU) domain, the test performance cannot represent participants' listening comprehension for their TLU. In this situation, the purposes of English education in Korea should be considered. According to the national curricula, one of the goals of English education is 'to be able to communicate in English on a familiar depending on the purpose and situations' (Ministry of Education, 2020). In other words, through school education, Korean EFL learners are expected to develop their English abilities for English communication situations outside schools which includes listening ability to understand communication between English speakers. In this situation, although listening materials from EBS materials are following formats of communication, in fact, they are modified ones with the purpose of preparing students for CSAT and listening materials in CSAT are also different from real-life listening materials as other listening tests are. Previous studies pointed out that CSAT listening comprehension section has

limitations in authenticity. For example, J. Lee (2016, 2021a) pointed out that CSAT listening materials have slow speech rates that mostly belong to moderately slow in terms of the criteria by Pimsleur et al. (1977) and he also pointed out that CSAT listening materials do not include conversational linguistic features, such as linking and simplification, which are often found in real-life communication (J. Lee, 2016).

Therefore, it could be said that the previous studies mentioned above could not show how exposing students to various accents in school English class affects their improvement in listening comprehension required for real-life listening situations. Of course, helping Korean EFL learners to develop their listening abilities on various accents of English in a testing situation is meaningful. However, with the importance of learning transfer and accomplishing the goal of English education, it is an important issue in this kind of study whether Korean EFL learners could transfer what they gained through treatment to different situations (especially not in testing situations). Therefore, previous studies that assessed the effects of treatment using the same type of materials only could be seen as a limitation.

In conclusion, researchers have investigated this important topic of having exposed Korean EFL learners to various accents required to improve their English ability for EIL situations, however, there are some gaps to be filled.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided backgrounds of this study. First, the current status of English as an international language, its importance in English education and how to accommodate teaching English as an international language have been provided. In the next section, the importance of listening comprehension in language learning and why

accents should be focused on in teaching listening comprehension have been explained. Furthermore, the sections about learning transfer have shown why learning transfer is important, how learning transfer can be categorized and how learning transfer can happen in relation to L2 listening. Finally, the previous studies on dealing with various accents in Korea and their limitations have been explained.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHOD

In this chapter, the purpose of this study will be introduced first. After that, how the research was designed, how research was conducted (e.g., participants of the study, materials used in the study, how the treatment was provided, etc.) and how data analysis was conducted will be introduced.

Purpose of this Study

Putting all the aspects introduced in the previous chapter together in the Korean context, it could be concluded that English learners in Korea should develop their listening comprehension abilities required for EIL communication situations with English speakers from different language backgrounds with an expectation of learning transfer. That is why previous studies investigated the effects of exposing Korean EFL learners to different accents of English although there were some limitations to be filled.

In order to help Korean EFL learners prepared for EIL communication, school English classes should provide them with chances to develop their English listening ability that they can transfer to future situations since Korea is an EFL country where students do not have many chances to use English outside school. In other words, English classes in Korean schools should be a process of "preparing English learners to become competent users of English in international contexts" (Matsuda, 2012a, p. 7) by accommodating TEIL perspectives, which should be a process of creating a foundation for Korean EFL learners to be able to transfer to novel listening situations. With this background, this study investigated how to develop Korean EFL learners' listening

ability required in EIL situations and transfer their improved ability to different situations focusing on various accents.

Understanding different accents of English can be divided into three categories: intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability. According to Smith and Nelson (2006), intelligibility is the degree to which one is able to recognize a word or utterance spoken by another. Comprehensibility is the degree to which one is able to ascertain a meaning from another's word or utterance. Finally, interpretability is the degree to which one is able to perceive the intention behind another's word or utterance. All three categories of understanding are important in listening. However, considering the purpose of developing Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension is to help them to be able to communicate in EIL situations with understanding meaning of words and utterances, either comprehensibility or interpretability seems to be an appropriate type of understanding for this study. In addition, since CSAT is assessing whether students can understand locutionary meanings of listening input, this study focuses on comprehension instead of interpretability.

Considering the importance of the topic, this study investigated the effects of including various accents of English on developing students' listening comprehension ability for international communication by filling the gaps found in the previous studies. First, students listened to both monologues and dialogues in order to be exposed both to transactional and interactional listening situations. For future English communication situations, Korean EFL learners should be prepared for both transactional and interactional listening situations. Second, the scope of the accents was not limited to the accents from inner circle and outer circle. In other words, accents from expanding circle

countries would also be included, which reflects the current situation of English communication in EIL. Third, participants were asked to do an activity which would help them to develop their listening ability for various accents following the opinion that explicit and appropriate L2 listening instruction should be provided to develop L2 learners' listening comprehension (Emerick, 2019). Finally, in order to check whether exposing students to various accents in class would help them to develop their listening ability for different contexts, one of the post-tests was done with materials which reflects real-life listening situations. In other words, this study investigated whether the treatment provided with various accents can be transferred to novel listening situations.

Research Design

In order to investigate the research question made, this study was conducted as an experimental study by implementing a pretest, treatment sessions and two different post-tests. Additionally, a questionnaire was used to investigate whether the treatment was felt helpful to participants or not.

According to Vandergrift (2007), this kind of experimental study design can be used to check effects of specific treatments (e.g., Herron & Seay, 1991; Thompson & Rubin, 1996). Therefore, the experimental design with quantitative data (test score) analysis is an appropriate method for this study (Yeldham, 2017).

Figure 1 below illustrates the general design of the study. Participants were divided into experimental and control groups. Then, both groups took the pretest before they received the treatment. After the pretest, each group received treatments which were different in terms of English accents included. When the treatment sessions were over, they took the first post-test which was designed to check the effects of the treatment in

listening for testing situations. Next, they took the second post-test which was designed to check the effects of the treatment in listening to real-life listening materials. Finally, participants in the experimental group were asked to complete a questionnaire which consists of 6 questions. Including all the processes, the research was designed to be conducted in 10 class times within three weeks.

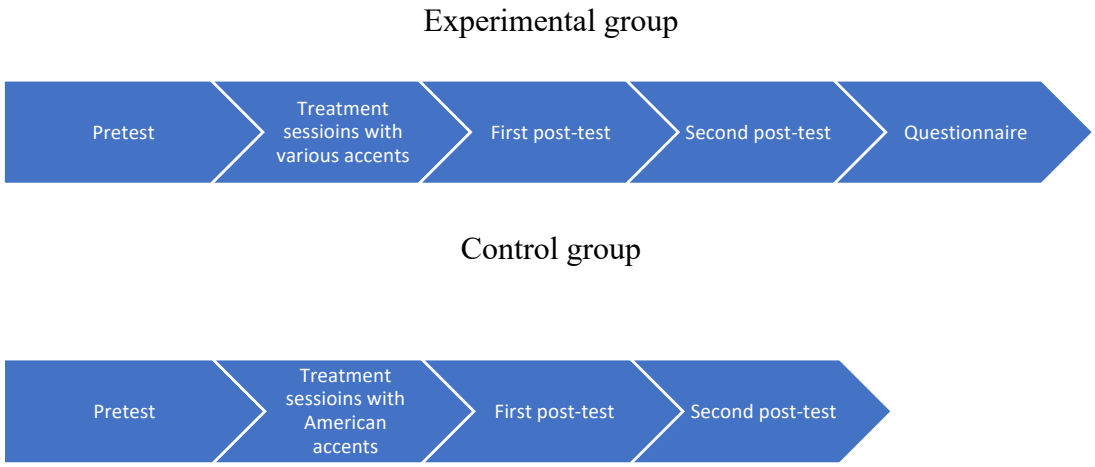

Figure 1. Research Design of this Study

Participants

In order to investigate the research question, this study was designed with consideration of Korean high school students as participants. As CSAT materials were supposed to be used as materials for this study, it was considered appropriate to recruit high school students who are familiar with CSAT materials in terms both of format and content. In fact, the researcher had spent months contacting high school teachers to ask for their help with this study. However, because of the COVID-19 pandemic, it was hard to get approval to conduct research in school. Finally, with a help of teacher teaching in M high school (a pseudonym) which is located in the northeast part of Seoul, Korea, high

school 3rd grade students (seniors) in the school were recruited as participants in this study. In fact, when designing this study, high school 1st or 2nd grade students were considered as target participants instead of 3rd grade students. It was because, considering the strong impacts of CSAT on students' future success, having 3rd grade students, who will take the important exam in a few months, exposed to unfamiliar accents might impact them in preparing for the exam and they might have negative attitudes towards the experiment. However, with her opinion that participating in this study might help them to prepare for the CSAT listening comprehension part, the teacher asked 3rd grade students for their opinion on this topic. Fortunately, students showed interests in this study and positive opinions on this topic. As a result, with the teacher's suggestion, high school 3rd grade students were decided as participants. All the participants are male because the school is a public boys' high school with a comparatively small number of students.

After making the decision, a parental permission form written in Korean was distributed to students and they were asked to show the form to their parents because the target participants are minors (see Appendix A). In addition, students were asked to get a signature from their parents only when their parents agree with their child's participation in the study. Then, a participant assent form, which is also written in Korean, was distributed to the students who turned in a parental permission form signed by their parent (see Appendix B). In conclusion, total of 71 students from four different classes turned in a parental permission form signed by their parent and an assent form with their signature. As a result, 71 students were selected as participants of this study. And then, the four classes, which had been already assigned by school administration at the beginning of the semester without considering their English ability, were randomly

divided into the experimental group and the control group (two classes each) by the researcher. As a result, 36 students were assigned to the experimental group and 35 students were assigned to the control group. However, unfortunately, there were participants who had to be excluded from the analyses. For example, there were students who were absent in one or more treatment sessions or who did not take one of the post-tests. As a result, the number of participants whose performances were analyzed is 66, 34 from the experimental group and 32 from the control group in detail.

Importantly, all the participants answered that they do not spend their time preparing for listening comprehension except for regular classes because they think the reading comprehension part of the CSAT is more important. As a result, they spend most of their English study time on studying reading comprehension and they also think they do not need to invest a lot of time for developing their listening comprehension. It is an important point in this study because if a participant spent their time practicing listening comprehension other than during the treatment sessions, the results on effects of the treatment could be distorted.

Materials

Since this study was designed as an experimental study, materials to check participants' listening performances were prepared with the purpose of comparing their performances before and after the treatment. In addition, a questionnaire was also prepared in order to investigate participants' opinions on the treatment.

CSAT as Listening Materials for the Pretest, Treatment and the First Post-test

For this study, actual tests of CSAT that were previously administered were selected as materials. CSAT includes a listening comprehension section that consists of

17 questions in the format of multiple-choice with five options. There are reasons why it was decided to use CSAT for the pretest, treatment and the first post-test in this study.

First, CSAT is one of the main targets of English class in school. The national curriculum for English provides goals for English education in Korea and one of them is for students to be able to communicate in English on a familiar topic depending on the purpose and situation (Ministry of Education, 2020). As mentioned previously, Korea is in an EFL situation in which students do not have many chances to be exposed to English communication outside school. Therefore, students should be able to make foundations with which they can transfer their developed language ability and skills to novel situations through school English class. By doing so, the goal of English education can be accomplished. In this situation, it was considered that for what objectives stakeholders of English education put their efforts a lot during their English class. As a result, it was CSAT that is considered as the main target of learning and teaching in English class in school. It was based on the facts that Korean people spend an astronomical amount of money on private education to prepare for the exam and that they are also sensitive to measures made by authorities, such as creating CSAT questions in accordance with EBS materials and implementing CSAT English in a criterion-referenced way (Lee, 2021a). In addition, as H. Jung (2006) showed, the fact that high school English teachers use EBS materials a lot in their classes also supports that CSAT is one of the main targets of English classes in school.

Second, CSAT's washback effects were considered. As suggested previously, accommodating TEIL in exams can be a way to have English learning stakeholders recognize the need to deal with English as an international language in their learning and

teaching because of washback effects. Therefore, in the case of Korea, CSAT seems to be an appropriate exam in that most high school 3rd grade students take the test each year in order to enter university. CSAT is known to have strong washback effects for both teachers and students. For example, Park & Chang (2016) showed that teachers tend not to teach English writing because CSAT English assesses students' writing ability not with questions that require test-takers to write their own answers but with questions so-called indirect writing questions that require students to choose an appropriate answer after reading a passage. For another example, related to the listening comprehension part of CSAT English, Park (2017) showed that teachers refrain from dealing with British accents of English when teaching English listening because CSAT listening comprehension does not include English accents other than American accents.

Third, CSAT is a reliable test. CSAT has maintained a similar format of listening comprehension section since the CSAT for 1997 except for CSAT for 2014 (Lee, 2016). Even for CSAT for 2014, the only difference is the number of questions. Therefore, most of the Korean EFL learners who graduated high school in Korea are familiar with the format of the listening comprehension section of CSAT. It was important not to make participants in this study distracted by using a listening comprehension test that is not familiar to them since participants were preparing for the university entrance process. In addition, maintaining the format of the very important exam in the country for more than 20 years can be considered that the listening comprehension section has appropriately assessed students' listening ability required by the national curriculum. In fact, M. Song (2013) mentioned that CSAT English has been found to be highly reliable in terms of test features thanks to a lot of investments made for the test in terms of human resources and

material. In other words, the result of CSAT English listening comprehension section can show test-takers' consistent listening comprehension ability (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Additionally, as Vandergrift (2007) pointed out, one of the limitations that quantitative research method has is that results cannot be generalized in case the data were drawn from an in-house test with a small number of samples. However, CSAT is a test that most Korean EFL high school 3rd grade students take each year and it was reported that more than 445,000 students took CSAT English for 2022 which is the latest exam (KICE, 2021). Therefore, using CSAT, which is considered highly reliable with a vast number of test-takers accumulated, is expected to provide a way to generalize the effects of the treatment.

In conclusion, it was decided that CSAT English listening comprehension sections previously administered would be used as materials in this study. Therefore, listening materials of CSAT were recorded with various accents of English without changing other test construct, which could be considered as the weak approach of accommodating TEIL in tests (Hu, 2012).

Selection of CSATs to be Used

With this background, using CSAT which has been proved to be highly reliable with hundreds of thousands of test-takers accumulated for this study seems appropriate given that the purpose of this study is to investigate Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension of different accents of English and expected learning transfer. As a result, among more than 20 CSATs previously administered, it was decided that listening materials for the experiment would be based on the CSATs for 2007, 2009, and 2014. It might be thought that the listening materials are chosen from the CSATs that were

administered so long time ago. However, because of the strong washback effects of CSAT, English classes in Korean schools tend to use the recent CSAT materials or EBS materials. Therefore, it was intended to have students listen to materials that they have not studied yet by choosing the CSAT listening sections from the past. As a result, listening materials based on CSAT for 2007 were used for the pre-test, listening materials based on CSAT for 2009 were used for the first post-test and, finally, listening materials based on CSAT for 2014 were used for the treatment.

First, when deciding which tests would be used for the pretest and the post-test, the difficulties of the tests were considered in selecting tests in order to investigate students' improvement with the treatment appropriately. It is because difficulty of a test is a factor that affects students' performance in the test, which would probably influence on showing the effects of the treatment. In calculating the difficulties, it was impossible to find accurate data for the difficulty of each test because KICE does not provide any detailed analytic data about CSAT results to public such as proportion correct of each item and the separate data for listening comprehension section and reading comprehension section. Therefore, an inferential way to estimate the difficulty based on the test-type of the CSATs chosen was used (J. Lee, 2021a). CSAT English had been administered in a norm-referenced way which yields an estimate of the position of the tested individual in a predefined population until CSAT for 2018. For example, test-takers, who received a score which is included in the top 4% of the entire population, were supposed to receive the first grade (i.e., the highest grade) in each subject of CSAT including English. Therefore, although there are some factors that are reported to affect difficulty of listening comprehension section of CSAT such as speech rate (J. Lee, 2016),

linguistic aspects including type-token ratio, linguistic complexity, etc. (Ryoo & Kim, 2020), the percentage of the test-takers who received full scores in the entire CSAT English among the entire population of the test-takers could be used as an index that shows a comparative difficulty of CSAT English. According to the press releases by KICE (2012), it was found that the percentage of students who received full scores in CSAT English for 2007 was 1.01% and for 2009 was 0.97%, which can be considered that those two tests had similar difficulties with each other.

Second, CSAT for 2014 was decided to be used for treatment sessions because of a distinctive feature of the test. Implementing CSAT for 2014, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and KICE gave test-takers a choice to choose one type of test between type A and B in the subjects of Korean, Mathematics and English. The decision was made with the purpose of reducing stakeholders' spending on private education. With this change, compared to the CSATs administered with 17 listening comprehension questions before and after the CSAT for 2014, the listening comprehension section of CSAT English for 2014 included an increased number of items, 22 items. With the increased number of listening comprehension items, CSAT for 2014 could be an appropriate set of materials to be used to provide the treatment longer than using other CSATs include 17 questions. In addition, according to the initial plan for CSAT for 2014 by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2012), type A tests would be easier than the previous CSATs and type B tests would follow the difficulty levels of previous CSATs. Therefore, type B of CSAT English for 2014 was selected as a material for the treatment.

Selection of English Accents to be Included in the Listening Materials for the Pretest, Treatment and the First Post-test

Although exposing students to every single accent of English will help them to be fluent English listeners in EIL situations, it is theoretically unrealistic and impractical. Furthermore, as Matsuda and Friderich (2012) mentioned, instructional varieties should be selected with consideration of the local context. Therefore, the decision on which English accents to be included in the listening materials is made with consideration of the Korean situation. Considering that Korea is a country where English is used as a foreign language, it is not an often case for Korean EFL learners to be exposed to English communication outside school. However, Korea has a great number of visitors from other countries with the help of Hallyu, the Korean wave which means the influences of Korean culture on the world (Bae et al., 2017). With this background, it would be probable that Korean EFL learners can have chances to communicate in English with visitors to Korea in that English is an international language used for communication between speakers from different language backgrounds. Therefore, it seems reasonable to select English accents to be included in this study based on the data that shows the number of visitors to Korea from different countries (J. Lee, 2020).

Since the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, traveling around the world has been impacted by reasons such as travel restrictions, mandatory quarantine process, etc. Korea was not an exception and it was reported that foreign visitors to Korea in March 2020 dropped by 93.9% compared to March 2019 (Kim & Jin, 2021). As a result, it seems that the recent data on the number of visitors to Korea might not reflect the trend in the number of visitors to Korea as it had been before the COVID-19 pandemic.

Therefore, in order to select which English accents to be used in the experiment, the statistical data of foreign visitors to Korea for 3 years before the pandemic was calculated instead. The official data that shows the number of visitors to Korea was found on the website of the Korea Tourism Knowledge & Information System (https://know.tour.go.kr). The website is operated by the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism and Korea Culture & Tourism Institute and it provides statistical data on the number of foreigners who visited Korea each year. From the website, the statistical data of the number of foreigners who visited Korea from different countries between the years 2017 to 2019 were downloaded.[2] Then, the data was arranged by nationality in the order of a large number of people and then analyzed in terms of three concentric circles of English (Kachru, 1985). Following the purpose of this study, English accents from all three concentric circles had to be included, therefore, two countries from each circle were selected according to the number of visitors.

Analyzing the nationalities of the visitors during the period, Australia and Canada were found to have the largest numbers of visitors to Korea among inner circle countries except for America. As the purpose of this study is to investigate the learning transfer of improvement in listening comprehension to various accents of English, it was decided to exclude American accents of English which have been used as the only accent in CSAT. For English accents from outer circle countries, Hong Kong and Filipino accents of English were chosen because they were the countries which had the largest

[2] Data for the number of visitors to Korea were divided depending on the purpose of visit (e.g., studying, business, traveling, etc.). In calculating the number of visitors, the number of visitors who came to Korea with unclear purpose was excluded because it was not sure whether they kept staying in Korea.

numbers of visitors to Korea during the period. Finally, for accents from expanding circle countries, China and Japan were found to have the largest numbers of visitors to Korea in those years among expanding circle countries, therefore, Chinese and Japanese accents of English were selected to be included. Along with calculating the number of visitors depending on nationality, the nationalities of the visitors were categorized in terms of concentric circles. According to the analysis, it was found that visitors from expanding circle countries took the biggest part, and then in the order of the outer circle and the inner circle.

In addition to the six English accents from three concentric circles for the pretest and treatment sections, three additional accents of English, one from each circle, have been selected for the first post-test. The first post-test was designed to check whether the improved listening comprehension can be transferred to a listening situation that includes untrained accents in case there is an improvement in participants' listening comprehension of the six accents selected. The same process for selecting the accents for the pretest and treatment section has been done except for the accent from the expanding circle. In fact, Taiwan was found to have the third largest number of visitors to Korea during the period of 2017 to 2019 among expanding circle countries. However, as Taiwanese visitors have their L1 of Mandarin Chinese as visitors from China do, Taiwanese English accents did not seem to appropriate to be included as an additional accent. Therefore, Thailand, which was ranked 4th among expanding circle countries, was selected as a country of which English accents will be included in the post-test as an additional accent. For English accents from inner circle and outer circle, the U.K. and Singapore were placed in 3rd place in their own categories, therefore, British accents and

Singaporean accents of English were selected as additional accents for the first post-test. (See Table 1)

Table 1

The Number of Visitors to Korea from the 9 Countries during 2017 to 2019 by Nationality and Belonging Concentric Circle Category.

Nationality	Number of visitors to Korea	Concentric circle	Included
China	12,506,784	Expanding circle	Pretest, treatment, post-tests
Japan	8,377,953	Expanding circle	Pretest, treatment, post-tests
Hong Kong	2,003,099	Outer circle	Pretest, treatment, post-tests
Philippines	784,407	Outer circle	Pretest, treatment, post-tests
Australia	429,578	Inner circle	Pretest, treatment, post-tests
Canada	426,215	Inner circle	Pretest, treatment, post-tests
Thailand	140,9374	Expanding circle	First post-test
Singapore	640,381	Outer circle	First post-test
U.K.	340,235	Inner circle	First post-test

Process of Making Listening Materials

Preparing listening materials for the experiment was done with prudent considerations of the numbers of visitors to Korea from each country and each concentric circle category in order to reflect the nationalities of foreigners who visited Korea. In terms of nationality among the six countries whose accents of English would be included in the pretest and the treatment, China had the largest number of visitors to Korea, and then in the order of Japan, Hong Kong, Philippines, Australia and Canada. Therefore, when recoding listening materials for the pretest, treatment and the first post-test, the proportion that the English accent of each country among the six countries takes in the entire number of visitors was considered. For example, Chinese accent of English was assigned to the largest number of words and Canadian accent was assigned to the least number of words in listening materials, which reflects the number of visitors to Korea

during the period. In terms of the concentric circles, expanding circle countries took the largest proportion among the entire population of visitors and the inner circle countries the least proportion. Therefore, in each set of listening materials, English speakers from expanding circle countries read the biggest numbers of words and speakers from inner circle countries read the smallest numbers of words. Keeping these as foundations, assigning accents of English for each listening material was done with some modifications because each set of listening materials has different conditions to be fulfilled (e.g., number of items in the set of listening materials for the treatment and the number of accents to be included in the post-test).

The set of listening materials for the pretest can be considered as a default set in that it includes the six different accents (i.e., two from the expanding circle [China, Japan], two from the outer circle [Hong Kong, Philippines], two from the inner circle [Australia, Canada]) in 17 different items. The listening materials for the pretest were based on the listening materials which were used for CSAT for 2007. CSAT for 2007 included 17 questions (13 dialogues and 4 monologues) which should be solved while listening to materials recorded with American accents of English. However, with the purpose of investigating students' improvement in their listening comprehension of the six experimental treatment accents and learning transfer after the treatment of being exposed to different accents of English, the listening materials for the pretest were made by recording listening materials of CSAT for 2007 with various accents of English. A few additional modifications were made to all sets of listening materials. For example, the names of the characters that appeared in the scripts have been changed to gender-neutral names. It is because the original listening materials always have male-female

pairs for dialogues, however, it might be possible that dialogues in this study would be read by speakers of the same sex. In addition, callings such as 'honey' and 'dear' were also changed because Korean EFL learners might feel weird listening to calling each other honey when speakers are of the same sex. With different conditions to be fulfilled, preparing the sets of listening materials was a complicated process and how they were made is provided below.

Pretest. In order for the pretest to reflect the situations of the number of visitors to Korea, the number of total words from all the questions included in the CSAT for 2007 was calculated and it was found that the test includes 1646 words in total. Since CSAT for 2007 was re-recorded with various accents for the pretest, the pretest includes 1646 words as CSAT for 2007 did. And then, each question for the pretest was sorted by the number of words. Then, among the total of 17 questions, 4 monologue questions were assigned to be read in Chinese, Japanese, Hong Kong and Filipino accents of English, which was to reflect the proportion of visitors to Korea during the period. As a result, the Chinese speaker recruited was assigned to the longest monologue including 100 words. The Japanese speaker was assigned to the second longest monologue that includes 99 words and the Hong Kong and Filipino speakers were assigned to questions that include 70 words each.

For the dialogue questions, all 13 questions sorted by the number of words were assigned one of the possible combinations (i.e., expanding circle/expanding circle, expanding circle/outer circle, expanding circle/inner circle, outer circle/outer circle, outer circle/inner circle, and inner circle/inner circle, in the order which reflects the number of visitors to Korea). Among the possible combinations, the combination of expanding

circle/expanding circle was assigned to three questions in order to have English accents from expanding circle countries read the biggest numbers of words and the rest of the possible combinations were assigned to two questions each.

In addition to assigning the combination of expanding circle/expanding circle to three questions, the effort to maintain the proportion that each concentric circle takes in the entire number of visitors was made. For example, English speakers from the expanding circle would read a larger number of words than those from the outer circle in combinations of expanding circle/outer circle. And English speakers from the outer circle would read a larger number of words than those from the inner circle in combinations of outer circle/inner circle.

And then, the possible combinations were assigned to the questions which were sorted by word count. For example, question #10, which includes the largest number of words with 129 words, was assigned to the combination of expanding circle/expanding circle and question #13, which includes the smallest number of words with 82 words, was read by the combination of inner circle/inner circle.

After that, each dialogue question was analyzed in terms of the number of words for each speaker and the part with a larger number of words was read by accents of speakers whose nationality (in case both speakers are from the same concentric circle) or concentric circle (in case speakers are from different concentric circles) takes a bigger portion in the entire population of the visitors. For example, question #8 which includes 105 words was assigned to a combination of expanding circle/inner circle. In more detail, one speaker read 53 words and the other speaker read 52 words. Therefore, a speaker from the expanding circle read 53 words and the other speaker from inner circle read the

rest of the dialogue. This procedure of assigning speakers was used as a foundation, however, some parts were modified at the final stage to make to match the order for the number of words read by accents with the order for the number of visitors from each country. Table 2 shows how the possible combinations were assigned to the questions.

Table 2

Assignment of Speakers on the Listening Materials for the Pretest

Question	Number of speakers	Number of words	Number of words by part	Combinations	Country
1	2	87	48	OC/IC	Hong Kong
			39		Canada
2	2	107	32	EC/OC	Philippines
			75		China
3	1	70	70	IC	Philippines
4	2	102	56	OC/OC	Hong Kong
			46		Philippines
5	2	95	58	OC/OC	Hong Kong
			37		Philippines
6	2	107	53	EC/IC	Japan
			54		Australia
7	1	100	100	EC	China
8	2	105	52	EC/OC	Australia
			53		Japan
9	2	110	55	EC/EC	Japan
			55		China
10	2	129	69	EC/EC	China
			60		Japan
11	2	109	52	EC/OC	Hong Kong
			57		China
12	1	70	70	OC	Hong Kong
13	2	81	45	IC/IC	Australia
			36		Canada
14	2	82	47	IC/IC	Australia
			35		Canada
15	2	83	39	OC/IC	Canada
			44		Philippines
16	2	110	60	EC/EC	China
			50		Japan
17	1	99	99	EC	Japan

Note. EC = Expanding circle, OC = Outer circle, IC = Inner circle

With the assignment of the combinations above, the numbers of words that each accent read are provided in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Number of Words Each Accent Read and Their Concentric Circle in the Listening Materials for the Pretest

Accents	Number of words read	Concentric circle
Chinese	416	Expanding circle
Japanese	370	Expanding circle
Hong Kong	284	Outer circle
Filipino	229	Outer circle
Australian	198	Inner circle
Canadian	149	Inner circle
Total	1646	

Treatment. Listening materials for the treatment were based on the listening materials for CSAT for 2014. As mentioned previously, CSAT for 2014 is different from the listening materials for CSAT for 2007 and 2009 used for the pretest and a post-test in terms of the number of questions. Compared to the CSAT for 2007 and 2009 which include 17 listening comprehension questions each, CSAT for 2014 includes 22 listening comprehension items and it is the reason for choosing the listening materials for CSAT for 2014 as materials for the treatment. With more questions included in CSAT for 2014, it could be possible to provide the treatment for a longer time than when using another CSAT that includes 17 questions.

The basic consideration of having English accents from a country with a larger number of visitors read a larger number of words was maintained in making combinations for listening materials for the treatment. However, as the listening materials of CSAT for 2014 consist of 22 questions with 2641 words in total, there are some

differences in the number of each combination assigned to dialogue questions and the number of monologue questions that each accent was assigned. There were 7 monologue questions out of 22 questions in total, therefore, each accent was assigned to one monologue question except for the Chinese accents assigned to 2 monologue questions. It was because Chinese accents had to be assigned to the largest number of words. As for 15 dialogue questions, among the 6 possible combinations, expanding circle/expanding circle, expanding circle/outer circle and expanding circle/inner circle combinations were assigned to three questions each and the combinations of outer circle/outer circle, outer circle/inner circle and inner circle/inner circle were assigned to two questions each. By having the combinations including expanding circle assigned to three questions each, it was possible to make English accents from expanding circle assigned to larger numbers of words than accents from outer circle and inner circle. Table 4 below shows how various accents of English have been assigned to listening materials.

Table 4

Assignment of Speakers on the Listening Materials for the Treatment

Question	Number of speakers	Number of words	Number of words by part	Combinations	Country
1	2	35	23	IC/IC	Canada
			12		Australia
2	2	48	26	IC/IC	Australia
			22		Canada
3	2	55	39	OC/IC	Philippines
			16		Canada
4	1	113	113	IC	Canada
5	1	139	139	OC	Hong Kong
6	2	117	44	OC/OC	Philippines
			73		Hong Kong
7	2	109	55	OC/IC	Philippines
			54		Australia
8	2	121	71	EC/IC	China
			50		Australia
9	2	128	87	EC/IC	China
			41		Australia
10	2	122	63	EC/IC	Japan
			59		Canada
11	2	132	66	EC/OC	Japan
			66		Hong Kong
12	2	134	66	EC/OC	Hong Kong
			68		China
13	2	129	68	EC/OC	Japan
			61		Hong Kong
14	2	147	73	EC/EC	Japan
			74		China
15	1	124	124	OC	Philippines
16	1	115	115	IC	Australia
17	2	137	60	EC/EC	Japan
			77		China
18	2	112	58	OC/OC	Hong Kong
			54		Philippines
19	2	136	64	EC/EC	Japan
			72		China
20	1	112	112	EC	China
21	1	188	188	EC	Japan
22	1	188	188	EC	China

Note. EC = Expanding circle, OC = Outer circle, IC = Inner circle

With the assignment of the combinations, the numbers of words that each accent read are provided in Table 5 below.

Table 5

Number of Words Each Accent Read and Their Concentric Circle in Listening Materials for the Treatment

Accents	Number of words read	Concentric circle
Chinese	749	Expanding circle
Japanese	582	Expanding circle
Hong Kong	463	Outer circle
Filipino	316	Outer circle
Australian	298	Inner circle
Canadian	233	Inner circle
Total	2641	

The First Post-test. Listening materials for the first post-test are based on CAST for 2009 which includes 1891 words. The set of listening materials for the post-test is slightly different from the one used for the pretest. Although the set of listening materials for the post-test consists of 17 questions (13 dialogues and 4 monologues) as the set for the pretest does, the difference between the two materials exists in terms of the accents included. As mentioned, the listening materials for the pretest include the six different accents of English selected based on the number of visitors to Korea. However, it was decided to include three additional accents in the first post-test in order to investigate learning transfer, more specifically, whether students who were exposed to six different accents of English during the treatment could develop their listening comprehension of unfamiliar accents that they did not listen to during the treatment sessions. Therefore, as mentioned previously, one additional accent from each concentric circle is included in this post-test. As a result, the post-test was read by nine different English accents, more

specifically, six English accents (Chinese, Japanese, Hong Kong, Filipino, Australian and Canadian) that were used in the pretest and the treatment and three additional English accents (Thai, Singaporean and British) which were selected by following the same way the six English accents were selected.

As there are additional accents included in this set of materials, the result of assigning accents to the questions was also slightly different from the pretest as well. First of all, the additional accents were assigned to one monologue question each with the purpose of investigating students' listening comprehension of the unfamiliar accents. And the final monologue question was assigned to Chinese accents in order to reflect the situation that Chinese people take the biggest part among the foreigners who visited Korea during the period of 2017 to 2019. For 13 dialogue questions, the number of each possible combination of accents assigned was the same as the pretest. In other words, the combination of expanding circle/expanding circle was assigned to three dialogue questions and the rest of the possible combinations were assigned to two questions each. Then, the six English accents from the pretest and the treatment were assigned to questions following the procedure used in making the pretest. After that, the three additional accents were assigned to two questions each by replacing accents from the same concentric circle already assigned. For example, Thai accents of English from expanding circle were assigned to the questions which either Chinese or Japanese accents of English, which are from the expanding circle, were already assigned to. Furthermore, the three additional accents were assigned to the questions with a combination that includes accents from different concentric circles. In other words, Thai accents of English (i.e., expanding circle) were assigned to expanding circle/outer circle and expanding

circle/inner circle, Singaporean accents (i.e., outer circle) were assigned to outer circle/expanding circle and outer circle/inner circle and British accents (i.e., inner circle) was assigned to inner circle/expanding circle and inner circle/outer circle. Finally, there was no question that includes two additional accents at the same time. It was because it might be hard to decide whether students could comprehend which additional accents well in case two different additional accents are included in one question. Table 6 below shows how the six accents of English used during the treatment and the three additional accents have been assigned to the first post-test listening materials.

Table 6

Assignment of Speakers on the Listening Materials for the First Post-test

Question	Number of speakers	Number of words	Number of words by part	Combinations	Country
1	2	108	58	OC/IC	Hong Kong
			51		UK
2	2	117	64	EC/IC	Thailand
			53		Australia
3	1	92	92	EC	Thailand
4	2	99	50	OC/IC	Singapore
			49		Canada
5	2	122	66	EC/IC	Japan
			56		UK
6	1	112	112	EC	China
7	2	131	53	EC/EC	Japan
			78		China
8	2	126	57	EC/OC	Philippines
			69		Thailand
9	2	132	69	EC/EC	Japan
			63		China
10	2	114	49	OC/OC	Philippines
			65		Hong Kong
11	2	136	65	EC/EC	Japan
			70		China
12	1	91	91	IC	UK
13	2	79	39	IC/IC	Australia
			40		Canada
14	2	130	55	EC/OC	Singapore
			75		China
15	2	117	67	OC/OC	Hong Kong
			50		Philippines
16	2	91	53	IC/IC	Australia
			38		Canada
17	1	98	98	OC	Singapore

Note. EC = Expanding circle, OC = Outer circle, IC = Inner circle

Table 7

Number of Words Each Accent Read and Their Concentric Circle in Listening Materials for the First Post-test

Accents	Number of words read	Concentric circle
Chinese	396	Expanding circle
Japanese	253	Expanding circle
Thai (additional)	225	Expanding circle
Hong Kong	190	Outer circle
Filipino	156	Outer circle
Singaporean (additional)	203	Outer circle
Australian	145	Inner circle
Canadian	126	Inner circle
British (additional)	197	Inner circle
Total	1891	

By assigning accents as table 7 above shows, Chinese accent was assigned to the largest number of words and Canadian accent was assigned the smallest number of words among the six accents used in the previous listening materials as in the other sets of listening materials. Additionally, this assigning procedure made it possible for speakers from expanding circle to be assigned to the biggest part in the listening materials and then in the order of outer circle and inner circle as in the pretest and the treatment. In addition, the assignment of the additional accents was also done in the same way. The number of visitors from Thailand was the biggest among the numbers of visitors from countries for the additional accents, therefore, the Thai speaker of English read the biggest number of words among the additional accents. The British speaker read the smallest number of words because the number of visitors from the UK was found to be the smallest among those three countries.

Recruitment of English Speakers and Recording. In order to record the listening materials for pretest, treatment and the first post-test with 9 different accents,

English speakers who have accents from the 9 countries were recruited. Right after their recording, they were asked to fill in a questionnaire, which was supposed to check their language background and language use, from Writing Across the Curriculum of University of Wisconsin-Madison (see Appendix C).

In the process of recruiting, English speakers from the two countries with the largest numbers of visitors to Korea, China and Japan, were recruited in Arizona, the U.S. and the rest of the English speakers were recruited in Korea. They ranged from 25 years old to 59 years old. Among 9 speakers, four speakers (from China, Japan, Australia, and the UK) were male and five (from Philippines, Hong Kong, Canada, Thai, and Singapore) were female. Considering that dialogues in CSAT listening materials have always been a dialogue between a man and a woman, it was attempted not to include dialogues between the same sex by balancing the sexes while recruiting English speakers. However, there were some dialogues recorded with speakers of the same sex because of the limited number of speakers recruited. All the speakers recruited reported to have at least a bachelor's degree (6 bachelor's degree, 1 master's degree, 1 Ph.D student and 1 Professional Doctorate degree). Including the three English speakers who are from inner circle countries, all the English speakers recruited responded that English is used at least 50% of their daily communication except for the Hong Kong speaker who responded her English use for daily communication is about 25%.

As mentioned, Chinese and Japanese speakers of English were recruited in the U.S. Chinese and Japanese speakers of English were living in the Tempe area in the state of Arizona and they both were working at Arizona State University (hereafter ASU) at the time of recruitment. The Chinese speaker, who was pursuing his Ph.D. and working

as a teaching assistant at ASU, reported that about half of his daily communication is done in English and the rest is done in his L1, Mandarin Chinese. Similarly, the Japanese speaker, who was a visiting scholar at ASU and working at an institution for international students, reported that he uses English for about 75% of his daily communication. Considering that Chinese and Japanese speakers were living in the U.S. and working at an American university, it seems natural that English is the most frequently used language for their daily communication.

On the other hand, the 7 rest speakers of English were recruited in Korea because it was hard in the Arizona area to find English speakers who have those accents and who are eligible for this study. The English speakers recruited in Korea were staying in Korea for different reasons such as jobs, marriage, studying Korean language, etc. According to their responses, English was still the main language of their daily communication even though they were living in Korea. More specifically, Canadian speaker of English responded that English takes 95% of her daily communication and Australian speaker of English responded 90%. British and Filipino speakers of English responded that about 75% of their daily communication is done in English. Thai and Singaporean speakers responded that English takes 50% of their daily communication. Hong Kong English speaker was the only English speaker who responded to using English less than 50% for her daily communication. It was because she was attending a language school at a Korean university in order to learn the Korean language, which is her main purpose of staying in Korea. Therefore, she mentioned that she intentionally tries to use Korean as much as possible in her daily life. Thai English speaker who was recruited for the post-test with additional untrained accents was an interesting case in that she does not use Korean at all

but communicates in English even with her husband who is Korean. With the language use situations of recruited speakers living in Korea provided, the fact that English is the main language which English speakers residing in Korea use for their daily communication also shows a reason why Korean EFL learners should develop their English listening abilities for different accents. Information about the speakers recruited is provided in Table 8 below.

Table 8

Information of Speakers Recruited

Nationality	Age	Sex	Education level	Languages used for daily communication	Residing country	Concentric Circle
China	28	M	Ph.D student	English (50%) Mandarin Chinese (50%)	U.S.	Expanding circle
Japan	32	M	Bachelor's degree	English (75%) Japanese (20%) Mandarin Chinese (5%)	U.S.	Expanding circle
Hong Kong	25	F	Bachelor's degree	English (25%) Cantonese (25%) Korean (50%)	Korea	Outer circle
Philippines	45	F	Bachelor's degree	English (75%) Korean (15%) Tagalog (10%)	Korea	Outer circle
Australia	59	M	Professional Doctorate	English (90%) Korean (10%)	Korea	Inner circle
Canada	59	F	Bachelor's degree	English (95%) Korean (5%)	Korea	Inner circle
Thai	31	F	Bachelor's degree	English (50%) Thai (50%)	Korea	Expanding circle
Singapore	33	F	Bachelor's degree	English (50%) Korean (40%) Mandarin Chinese (10%)	Korea	Outer circle
U.K.	37	M	Master's degree	English (75%) Korean (25%)	Korea	Inner circle

Each speaker was asked to read the parts for their accents in person by using devices provided by the researcher. For the recording, speakers read their scripts at an approximate distance of 30 cm away from Blue Yeti USB Microphone connected to the researcher's MacBook. The scripts were provided as pdf files saved on an iPad, so the speakers could enlarge font size at their comfort. Recording was done in quiet places where there were rare outside noises and the microphone was set in a cardioid mode in the direction of the speaker in order to prevent noises from being recorded. They were asked to read the scripts part by part in case of dialogue questions and were asked to read two or three sentences at a time in case of monologue questions. Once recording had been done, the researcher cut and combined the recording files to make dialogues or monologues by using an audio editing application, Ocenaudio for Mac.

Listening Materials for the Second Post-test

Along with the pretest and the first post-test, an additional post-test was administered with the purpose of checking whether the treatment done with various accents of English using CSAT listening materials can help students to develop their listening comprehension of those accents in authentic listening situations. For example, slow speech rate and the lack of conversational linguistic features were pointed as limitations of EBS and CSAT listening materials. They can lead Korean EFL learners to have difficulties in authentic listening situations even when Korean EFL learners listen to American accents that they are familiar with, which will probably affect their listening comprehension of various accents of English. In fact, the ultimate purpose of exposing students to various accents of English in this study is to improve Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension ability required for international communication in which the

factors mentioned above are often found. Therefore, the additional post-test was administered to check whether the treatment of exposing students to various accents of English using CSAT listening material can help Korean EFL learners to understand those accents in real-life listening materials, which can be considered as a far transfer. Following the purpose of this post-test, all the listening materials were selected from listening materials that were not made for a test.

The additional post-test consists of 8 questions with 6 listening materials. Among 6 materials, two listening materials were made to have two listening comprehension questions and the rest of the four listening materials were made to have one question each. Two materials which two questions were assigned to are dialogues and they included the biggest numbers of words (listening material for Filipino accents and Japanese accents). Both materials are an interview, so, two speakers appearing have interactions with each other. In more detail, the listening material used for questions #3 & #4 was an interview between Filipino speakers of English which includes 277 words in total. The other dialogue which was used for questions #7 & #8 was also an interview between an American speaker of English and a Japanese speaker of English which consists of 213 words in total. More specifically, the American speaker asked three short questions and the Japanese speaker answered most of the time. Considering that Korean EFL learners are familiar with American accents and the correct answers could be found even without the American speaker's utterances, American accents included did not seem problematic.

On the other hand, the rest of the listening materials can be considered as a monologue. In three monologue listening materials, only one speaker is speaking, to ask

for support for a candidate for a position, to express his/her opinion and to report news. In more detail, the listening material used for question #2 was a supporting speech for a Chinese candidate in an election for an international organization by a Chinese ambassador to the United Nations. In the listening material used for question #5, Carrie Lam, the former Chief Executive of Hong Kong, was expressing her opinions about the difficulties that the Hong Kong leader has. The listening material used for question #6 was a news reporting about the 2018 Pyeong Chang Olympic games by a Canadian news reporter. Therefore, it makes listeners consider these materials as a monologue because it includes only one speaker without any interaction with other speakers.

However, one of the listening materials that can be considered as a monologue is slightly different from the other monologue materials. The listening material used for question #1 was also a news reporting as the listening material for question 6 was. However, there appear two different speakers in this news reporting, which makes it different from the other monologues. In more detail, the news reporting is about coral bleaching happened and it includes explanation of the event by an Australian news anchor and a marine expert who is also Australian. Considering that this listening material includes two different speakers, it could be regarded as a dialogue at the first glance. However, the way this news reporting includes speeches from two different speakers makes this reporting able to be considered as a monologue based on the definitions of dialogue. According to the definitions of dialogue from English dictionaries, ‘conversation between two or more people’ and ‘exchange of opinion or ideas’ are the essential concepts of dialogue (Merriam-Webster dictionary, Cambridge English Dictionary & Collins dictionary). However, in this news reporting, the news

anchor's reporting about the coral bleaching takes about 60% of the entire reporting and comments on the bleaching event by the government marine park authority included in between the anchor's reporting takes about 40%. Aside from the proportions of utterances from the two speakers involved, it is notable that the news anchor and the park authority do not interact with each other at all. In other words, this listening material does not include conversation or exchange of opinions or ideas between two speakers. Therefore, this listening material cannot be categorized as a dialogue because of the lack of features of dialogue, rather, it can be considered as a combination of two monologues in a mixed order.

Listening materials for this second post-test show linguistic features that are easily found in real-life listening situations because these materials are not the ones that were created with a testing purpose. As mentioned above, CSAT listening materials tend not to include features that are easily found in real-life listening situations such as fast speech rate and conversational linguistic features. In addition, since listening materials for CSAT are made for an official test, all the sentences included are complete and grammatical. However, the listening materials for this additional post-test reflect the features that could not be found in CSAT. For example, some of the listening materials have a speech rate over 160 WPM which has not been found in the previous CSAT listening materials (Lee, 2021a). Also, conversational linguistic features such as linking, simplification and colloquial forms (e.g., 'wanna' instead of 'want to') are also found. Finally, some of the listening materials were from real-time conversations or speeches. Therefore, they include some incomplete or reduced and ungrammatical sentences, which is a feature of spoken communication (Leech, 1998).

With these listening materials from real-life situations, the questions were made following CSAT listening comprehension part in terms both of question types and the number of choices. Questions for this second post-test were multiple-choice items with five choices that ask students to find the topic, to find what the speaker is arguing about, to decide which is true or false based on what they listened to, to find what is not mentioned, and to find the most appropriate emotional status of the speaker. It was because those types of questions are always included in CSAT listening comprehension section, therefore, students are familiar with the question types.

With these features found, the listening materials for the second post-test could be told to expose students to the different accents of English in a situation that is closer to real-life communication.

Questionnaire

Since listening is a covert process that happens inside the listeners' brain, it is impossible for researchers to see what is happening inside listeners while they are listening. Therefore, in this study, it is hard to investigate whether the participants thought the treatment was helpful with the participants' performance change (Vandergrift, 2007). Therefore, how participants thought about the treatment, whether the treatment was felt helpful to participants in improving their listening comprehension ability to comprehend various accents of English in this study, should be checked using introspective or retrospective techniques such as questionnaire, thinkaloud, interview, etc. (Yeldham, 2016).

As a matter of fact, how participants thought about whether the treatment was helpful or not could be different even in case their performances showed that the

treatment was effective. In a previous study regarding the influence of accents on listening comprehension, Harding (2008) found that participants perceived that different accents of English are a factor that makes their listening comprehension difficult. However, it was also found that their actual comprehension was not affected as much as their perception. In other words, there could be a discrepancy between participants' perception and their actual performances.

Aside from a possible discrepancy between the actual performance and perception, it was found by previous studies that students' perception of their learning is an important aspect of language learning. For example, students' perceived usefulness is a factor that led the continuance of learning by using English learning applications (Wang et al., 2022) and students' perception affects their study motivation (Boström & Bostedt, 2020). In addition, students' perception is important in evaluating the effectiveness of teaching (Chen & Hoshower, 2003). In other words, how students perceived the treatment should not be overlooked.

Therefore, the researcher made a questionnaire about whether participants thought the treatment was helpful. In more detail, the questionnaire consists of 6 questions; 4 questions about whether the treatment helped them to develop their listening comprehension required for the post-tests and in general, 1 question about whether they think it is important to listen to various accents of English to develop their general listening comprehension and 1 question about whether they think listening to various accents in school class is needed to develop their international communication ability (Appendix D). The questionnaire was in the format of a 5-Likert-scale. 34 participants

from the experimental group provided their responses for the questionnaire because only the experimental group received the treatment of listening to various accents of English. By asking questions about the need for listening to various accents of English, the questionnaire tried to find support of dealing with various accents in class.

Treatment

In order to investigate the research question made, an appropriate treatment had to be provided which can help participants to improve their listening comprehension of various accents. Therefore, how to provide appropriate treatment was made with consideration of the current classroom situation in Korean high schools. In fact, English teachers tend not to spend much time dealing with listening comprehension in their class because the listening comprehension part takes only about 38% (17 out of 45, the rest of the questions are reading comprehension) of CSAT English (Lee, 2016) and the part is considered easy by Korean EFL learners (Choi, 2010). Therefore, it might be inappropriate in case participants need to spend a long time for the treatment session during their regular class. Also, considering that the participants were high school 3rd graders who are preparing for university entrance, it was attempted not to have them exposed to activities that require them to put much of their energy. As a result, dictation and filling in blanks used in the previous studies could not be used considering that those activities require quite a long time to be completed and the activities could make students feel pressured (Nam & Seong, 2009).

With this background, a way of treatment that does not take a long time and that requires a small amount of effort to finish should be devised. As a result, reading while listening activity was decided to be used for this study. Considering that the longest

listening input from the previous CSAT listening comprehension parts is less than 80 seconds each (Lee, 2021b), the process of listening to materials for three listening questions, checking the answers and reading the scripts silently while listening to materials again would not require much time, presumably about 7-8 minutes in each class. Therefore, it was expected not to interfere with the flow of their class. However, as the teacher allowed the researcher to use the class time comparatively freely, it took about 15 minutes for each treatment session.

In each treatment session, participants solved three questions with three listening materials, except for the first treatment session in which participants solved four questions. In the first time of listening, participants in both groups listened to the materials and choose answers. After checking their answers, they were provided one more chance to listen to the same material again. In their second listening, participants in both groups were provided the scripts of the listening materials they just listened to and they were asked to read the scripts silently while they were listening to the same listening materials again. This procedure reflects a reading while listening approach in that students read the script of what they are listening to with the purpose of helping their listening comprehension (A. Chang, 2011). Reading while listening is known to improve students' listening comprehension in terms of auditory discrimination skills and word recognition (A. Chang, 2011; Vandergrift, 2007) which is required to develop listening comprehension of various accents of English. Therefore, having students read the scripts of the materials when they listen to the materials for the second time was considered as a way to provide appropriate listening training for both the control group and the experimental group. In addition, it is not hard to find Korean EFL learners who read the

script of listening materials that they listened to already with the purpose of checking their comprehension.

All the treatment procedure was exactly the same for the experimental group and the control group except for whether they listened to the treatment materials recorded with various accents or not. In other words, the control group listened to the unmodified CSAT listening materials which were used for the previous CSAT recorded with American accents. On the other hand, the experimental group listened to the listening materials with the same contents but recorded with various accents.

Therefore, by having students listen to different accents of English and having them do reading while listening when listening to the materials again, this study was expected to investigate the effects of including different accents of English in listening materials on preparing English listening comprehension ability required in the EIL situation.

Procedures

The experiment for this study was conducted in June 2022 in M high school located in Seoul, Korea. Participants recruited were divided into the experimental group and the control group according to the class they were participating in. Except for the accents in the listening materials for the treatment, the experimental group and the control group participated in the experiment with the exact same procedure. The experiment was conducted across 10 class times within three weeks. Each class had 4 days to participate in the experiment in a week (The total had to be 12, however, there were some days missing because of events such as a school picnic and CSAT mock test). Day 1, Day 9 and Day 10 were used for participants to take pretest, post-tests and to complete a

questionnaire. From Day 2 to Day 8, participants received the treatment which includes solving comprehension questions, checking their answers and reading the scripts of the materials that they solved while they were listening to the materials again.

On Day 1 of the experiment, each class took the pretest. It took approximately 20 minutes for participants to take the test. After participants finished taking the test, test papers were gathered by the researcher, and he graded their test scores. In the next class time (Day 2/ Treatment session #1), participants were asked to solve four listening comprehension questions first. After that, the researcher let them know the correct answers to the questions that they solved and participants check whether their answers are correct or not by themselves. Finally, the researcher distributed the scripts of the questions of the day and had participants read the scripts silently while they were listening to the materials again. In the rest of the treatment sessions (#2 to #7), participants solved three questions each day and did reading while listening activities for the three questions that they solved as well.

During the treatment session, participants were asked to check their answers by themselves, therefore, the researcher did not have access to their scores, which means no specific data was gathered during the treatment session. After the treatment session during 7 class times finished, participants were asked to take two post-tests and to complete a questionnaire. Therefore, on Day 9 of the experiment, participants took the first post-test which includes 17 listening comprehension questions recorded with accents that they listened to during the treatment and three additional accents, which took about 20 minutes. Once they finished writing down their answers, they turned in their test papers and the researcher graded their scores. On Day 10 of the experiment, participants

took the second post-test that is designed to check whether their improved listening comprehension of the experimental treatment accents developed through listening to various accents with CSAT listening materials could be transferred to different situations by using real-life listening materials. This test includes 8 questions and it took participants to take approximately 15 minutes. Right after the test, participants were asked to complete a questionnaire that includes 6 questions related to the treatment, which took approximately 5 minutes. Table 9 below shows the procedure which the experiment for this study was conducted.

Table 9

Procedure of the Experiment

Day	Description	Time
Day 1	Pretest - Participants took a pretest which includes 17 questions	Approximately 20 min.
Day 2	Treatment #1 - Participants solved 4 questions and read the scripts of them while listening to the materials again (Questions #1, #2, #3 & #4)	Approximately 15 min.
Day 3	Treatment #2 - Participants solved 3 questions and read the scripts of them while listening to the materials again (Questions #5, #6 & #7)	Approximately 15 min
Day 4	Treatment #3 - Participants solved 3 questions and read the scripts of them while listening to the materials again (Questions #8, #9 & #10)	Approximately 15 min
Day 5	Treatment #4 - Participants solved 3 questions and read the scripts of them while listening to the materials again (Questions #11, #12 & #13)	Approximately 15 min
Day 6	Treatment #5 - Participants solved 3 questions and read the scripts of them while listening to the materials again (Questions #14, #15 & #16)	Approximately 15 min
Day 7	Treatment #6 - Participants solved 3 questions and read the scripts of them while listening to the materials again (Questions #17, #18 & #19)	Approximately 15 min
Day 8	Treatment #7 - Participants solved 3 questions and read the scripts of them while listening to the materials again (Questions #20, #21 & #22)	Approximately 15 min
Day 9	Post-test 1- Participants took the first post-test which includes 17 questions	Approximately 20 min.
Day 10	Post-test 2 & Questionnaire – Participants took the second post-test which includes 8 questions and completed a questionnaire which includes 6 questions.	Approximately 20 min.

Data Analysis

With the research question ‘does having Korean EFL learners exposed to different accents in listening materials influence on developing listening comprehension of those accents and other accents? If so, does the development in listening comprehension transfer to listening to real-life listening materials?’, quantitative data

(both objective and subjective) were gathered. Therefore, in order to answer the research question made, this study implemented analyses of objective quantitative data gathered from the pretest and post-tests. For the efficiency of analysis, all the questions included in each test were regarded as a 1-point-question. For the analysis, *t*-test was used as a main statistical analysis used to compare their performances. Although ANOVA can be used to compare groups' performances, it can be used when comparing more than three groups. Therefore, different kinds of *t*-tests (e.g., paired samples *t*-test and independent samples *t*-test) were used depending on the type of data analyzed.

Simultaneously, an analysis of subjective quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire was conducted because the analyses for participants' test performances are not able to show how participants perceived the effects of treatment. Therefore, participants' responses to the questionnaire were analyzed and it was tried to show whether the treatment was felt helpful for them to improve their listening comprehension ability on various accents of English. Analyzing the data gathered from the questionnaire, Cronbach's α was calculated and then the frequencies of answers were calculated. All the data analyses were done by using IBS SPSS 27 through the MyApps page on the website of ASU.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

In this chapter, findings from the analyses of comparing listening performances between the experimental group and the control group will be provided. First, both groups' performance on the pretest will be analyzed. And then, their performances on the first post-test and the second post-test will be analyzed. In addition, how the participants in the experimental group answered the questionnaire will be provided as well.

Test Score Data Analysis

In order to answer the research question made, the test performances between the experimental group and the control group were compared by using *t*-tests. More specifically, analyses were done by comparing the performances of both groups in the pretest and by comparing the performances in the post-tests in order to check whether the treatment influences their development of listening comprehension of those accents and other accents, which can be considered as an objective and reliable way to check the effectiveness of the treatment (Dörnyei, 2007; Vandergrift, 2007).

Results of Pretest Performances between the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Before the experiment began, participants had been placed by their school administration into four classes; this placement was random and did not take into account English. In addition, the researcher assigned participants to the experimental group or the control group randomly class by class. Therefore, it was not clear whether the listening comprehension abilities of participants in two different groups are similar or not. That is why the analysis of the pretest performances of the experimental group and the control

group had to be conducted because it might not be appropriate to compare their performances in the post-tests in case their listening comprehension ability differs. Each question in all tests was considered as a 1-point-question. As a result, the full scores that participants could receive are 17 and the mean scores of the two groups were analyzed. Table 10 below shows the descriptive statistics of the pretest performances of the experimental group and the control group.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics of the Pretest

Group	N	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation
Experimental group	34	6.88 (40.5%)	3.16
Control group	32	6.50 (38.2%)	2.48

Note 1. The mean score and Std. Deviation was rounded to the third decimal place.
Note 2. 'percentage' of mean is calculated with the full scores of 17.

As Table 10 above shows, the mean of the experimental group was 6.88 which is approximately 40.5% of the full scores and the mean of the control group was 6.50, approximately 38.2% of the full scores. Considering that CSAT listening comprehension part is considered easy among Korean EFL learners (Choi, 2010), the descriptive statistics of the pretest results show that participants in this study are not high-proficient English listeners. According to the result, the mean difference of the two groups was 0.38, which means that participants in the experimental group got 0.38 questions correct more than the participants in the control group. Although the difference is less than half of one question and it could seem trivial, it was not sure whether the difference found is statistically significant or not. Therefore, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted since the experimental group and the control group are two separate groups, however, they took the same pretest.

Table 11

Independent Samples t-test Results of Comparing Means in the Pretest

	Experimental group (n = 34)		Control group (n = 32)		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Pretest	6.88	3.16	6.50	2.48	-.545	.588

Table 11 above shows the result of the independent *t*-test for comparing the means of the experimental group and the control group. It was found that the difference between the pretest scores for the experimental group (M = 6.88, SD = 3.16) and the scores for the control group (M = 6.50 SD = 2.48) is not statistically significant with $t = -.545$, $p = .588$. With the result that *p* value is over .05, it was concluded that listening comprehension ability on various accents of English of participants in the experimental group and the control group were not statistically different.

Since the listening comprehension ability of participants in the two groups were not significantly different, it would be possible to show whether the treatment was helpful to improve their listening comprehension of the various accents included in the treatment in case there is a difference in performances of the two groups. In other words, it would be probably because of the treatment if there is a difference in post-test results between the experimental group and the control group.

Total Scores on First Post-test for the Experimental and Control Groups

Comparison of Results in the Pretest and the First Post-test within Groups. While analyzing the first post-test results, analyses on comparing means scores within groups were conducted first in order to check whether the treatment helped participants to improve their listening comprehension ability.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics of the Pretest and the First Post-test Results of the Experimental Group

	Test	N	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation
Experimental group	Pretest	34	6.88 (40.5%)	3.16
	1st post-test	34	9.32 (54.8%)	2.38

Note. The mean score and Std. Deviation were rounded to the third decimal place

First, the experimental group's performances in the pretest and the first post-test were compared. As table 12 above shows, participants in the experimental group performed better in the post-test than in the pretest. The mean score of the group in the pretest was 6.88, however, the mean score in the first post-test was 9.32. The difference between the pretest and the first post-test is found to be 2.44. In terms of percentage in the full scores, participants in the experimental group got approximately 40.5% of the full scores in the pretest and got approximately 54.8% in the post-test. Although the results of the descriptive statistics show that participants in the experimental group performed better in the post-test, it could not be sure whether the improvement found is statistically meaningful or not with the descriptive statistical data. Therefore, an inferential statistical analysis, *t*-test was conducted to check whether the improvement is statistically meaningful or not and the result is provided in Table 13 below.

Table 13

Paired Samples t-test Result of the Experimental Group's Performances

	Pretest		1st post-test		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Experimental group (n = 34)	6.88	3.16	9.32	2.38	-5.318	.000

Since this analysis is to compare test scores from the same group gathered at different times, a paired samples *t*-test was conducted. According to Table 13, there is a significant difference between the mean scores in the post-test (M = 9.32, SD = 2.38) and the mean scores in the pretest (M = 6.88, SD = 3.16) with $t = -5.314$, $p = .000$. The result shows that the experimental group's improvement found between the pretest and the post-test is significant, which means the treatment implemented with the experimental treatment accents of English led participants in the experimental group to meaningful development of their listening comprehension of the experimental treatment accents of English.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics of the Pretest and the First Post-test Results of the Control Group

	Test	N	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation
Control group	Pretest	32	6.50 (38.2%)	2.48
	1st post-test	32	7.41 (43.6%)	3.63

Note. The mean score and Std. Deviation were rounded to the third decimal place

Table 14 above shows the descriptive statistics of the performances of the control group participants in the pretest and the first post-test. Participants in the control group received 6.50 in the pretest on average. On the other hand, they received 7.41 on average in the post-test, which means they performed better in the post-test. In terms of percentage in the full scores, it was approximately 38.2% in the pretest and 43.6% in the post-test. In sum, the difference in the mean scores between the two tests is 0.91 (5.4%) and more detailed analysis for the difference found had to be conducted.

Table 15

Paired Samples t-test Result of the Control Group's Performances

	Pretest		1st post-test		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Control group (n = 32)	6.50	2.48	7.41	3.63	-1.478	.149

Since the data was gathered from the same group at different times, a paired samples *t*-test was conducted as did for the data gathered from the experimental group. As Table 15 shows, it was found that there is no significant difference in the mean scores in the post-test (M = 7.41, SD = 3.63) and the mean scores in the pretest (M = 6.50, SD = 2.47) with $t = -1.478$, $p = .149$. As the difference between the pretest and the post-test was not statistically significant, it appears that the treatment with American accents of English did not help participants in the control group to develop their listening comprehension ability for the experimental treatment accents.

In conclusion, it was found that both the experimental group and the control group performed better in the first post-test than in the pretest. In terms of descriptive statistics, the improvement of the experimental group was 2.44 and the control group was 0.91. However, in terms of inferential statistics, the result was different. The improvement found in the experimental group was proved to be statistically significant. On the other hand, the improvement found in the control group was not statistically significant.

Comparison of Results of the First Post-test Performances between the Experimental Group and the Control Group. Considering that the experimental group and the control group showed listening comprehension performances which were not

significantly different in the pretest, the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group in the post-test should be compared in order to check the effects of treatment. In case there is a statistically significant difference between the groups, it could be considered that the treatment provided was effective.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics of the First Post-test Result

Group	N	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation
Experimental group	34	9.32 (54.8%)	2.38
Control group	32	7.41 (43.6%)	3.63

Note 1. The mean score and Std. Deviation was rounded to the third decimal place.
Note 2. 'percentage' of mean is calculated with the full scores of 17.

According to Table 16, the mean score of the experimental group in the first post-test was 9.32 (54.8%, SD = 2.38) and the mean score of the control group was 7.41 (43.6%, SD = 3.63). As shown already, both the experimental group and the control group performed better in the post-test than in the pretest although the results of whether the improvement is statistically significant or not were different. Compared to the fact that the mean of the experimental group which was 6.88 (40.4%, SD = 3.16) and that of the control group which was 6.50 (38.2%, SD = 2.48) in the pretest, the mean scores of both groups in the post-test were found to be improved and the difference in the mean scores between the experimental group and the control group was found to become 1.91 (11.2%).

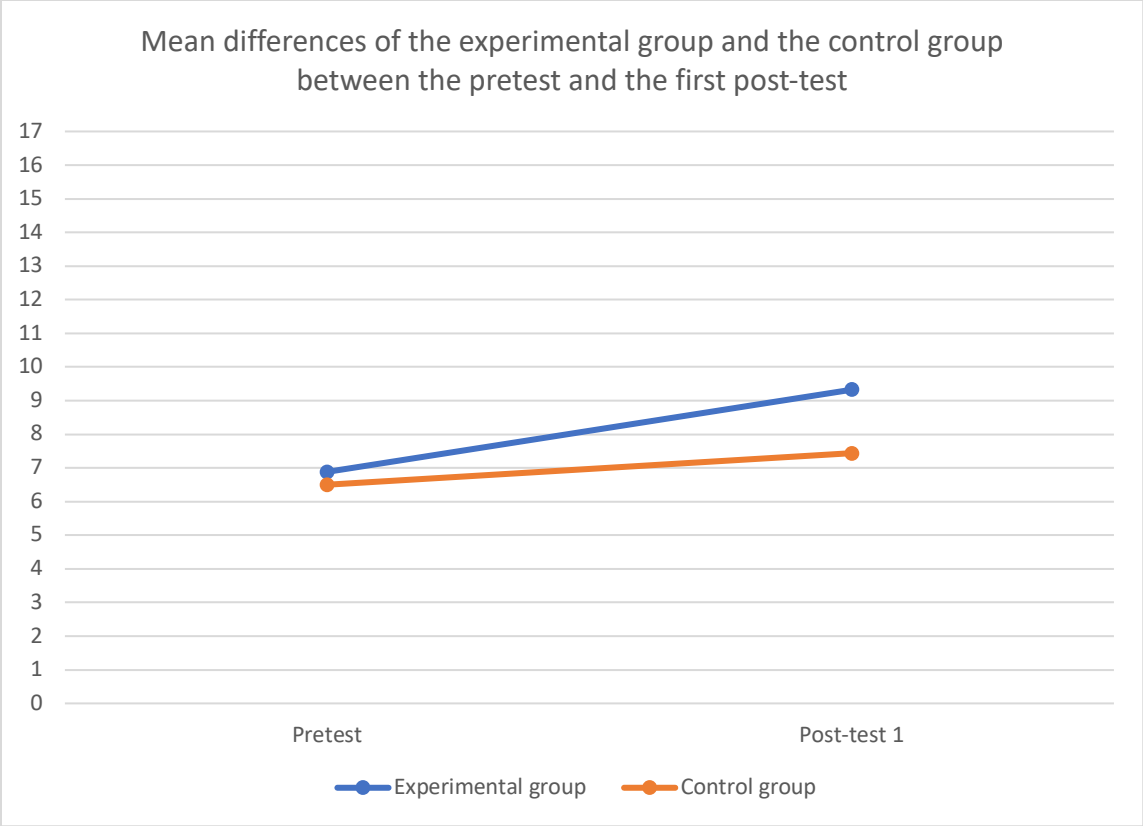

Figure 2. Mean Differences between the Pretest and the First Post-test.

Figure 2 above shows how the performances of participants in both groups changed after the treatment. As shown in the figure, the performances of the experimental group and the control group did not show a big difference in the pretest and the difference found was not statistically significant, which was confirmed by the *t*-test results. On the other hand, the figure shows that the difference between the experimental group and the control group in the first post-test became bigger than in the pretest although both groups showed a better performance in the first post-test than in the pretest. It is because the increase in the score of the experimental group, which was confirmed to be significant, was bigger than that of the control group which was not statistically significant. In detail,

the difference in mean scores between the two groups was 0.38 in the pretest, however, the difference became 1.91 in the first post-test. In percentage of their mean scores in the full scores, the difference between the two groups in the pretest was 2.3%, however, the difference became 11.2% which is nearly five times bigger than the difference in the pretest.

Since the difference between the two groups became bigger in the first post-test than the difference found in the pretest, a more detailed analysis of the difference found between the two groups in the first post-test was needed and *t*-test was conducted in order to check whether the difference was statistically significant or not.

Table 17

Independent Samples t-test Results of Comparing Means in the First Post-test

	Experimental group (n = 34)		Control group (n =32)		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
1st post-test	9.32	2.38	7.41	3.63	-2.480	.016

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted because the difference was found between two separate groups which took the same test. According to Table 17, the difference between the first post-test scores of the experimental group (M = 9.32, SD = 2.38) and the scores of the control group (M = 7.41 SD = 3.63) is statistically significant with $t = -2.480$ $p = .016$. In other words, the result shows that participants in the experimental group performed significantly better in the first post-test than participants in the control group.

Category Scores on the First Post-test for the Experimental and Control Groups. In fact, the purpose of implementing the first post-test was not only to see

whether participants in this study would improve their listening comprehension ability on the accents that they listened to while receiving treatment. Whether the treatment provided could influence on developing listening comprehension of other accents that were not included in the treatment is also an aspect that the research question is asking. With the purpose of investigating this aspect, the first post-test includes the additional accents of English which are one from each concentric circle. As a result, questions included in the post-test could be categorized into two types; questions including only the experimental treatment accents which were used in the treatment and questions including the additional accents.

Therefore, in order to check the effectiveness of the treatment, comparing participants' listening comprehension performance on questions that include the experimental treatment accents only and questions that includes additional accents of English should be done separately. It was because it is hard to show from which question types participants' improvement comes by analyzing the first post-test as a whole. As a result, an analysis depending on question type was required. As described previously, Thai, Singaporean and British accents of English were selected as additional accents to be included in the post-test. As a result, 8 out of 17 questions are the questions that only include the accents used in the treatment of the experimental group and 9 out of 17 questions include one of the additional accents of English. With this background, performances of the experimental group and the control group depending on question type were analyzed.

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics of Scores for the Questions with the Experimental Treatment Accents Only

Group	N	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation
Experimental group	34	4.32 (54%)	1.36
Control group	32	3.40 (42.6%)	2.00

Note 1. The mean score and Std. Deviation was rounded to the third decimal place.
Note 2. 'percentage' of mean is calculated with the full scores of 8.

As mentioned, 8 out of 17 questions in the post-test were questions that are recorded only with the accents of English that were used in the treatment for the experimental group. According to Table 18, it was found that the participants in the experimental group got approximately 4.32 questions correct out of 8 questions on average, which is 54% of the entire number of questions with the experimental treatment accents. On the other hand, participants in the control group got approximately 3.40 questions correct on average, approximately 42.6% of the full scores that they could get. With this data, the difference between the pretest performances and the performances on questions with the experimental treatment accents of each group was investigated to check if their listening comprehension of the experimental treatment accents of each group was significantly improved or not.

Table 19

Descriptive Statistics of the Experimental Group's Performances on the Pretest and the Questions in the First Post-test that are Recorded with the Experimental Treatment Accents only

	Test	N	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation
Experimental group	Pretest	34	6.88 (40.5%)	3.16 (18.59)
	Questions recorded with the experimental accents only	34	4.32 (54%)	1.36 (17.06)

Note. The full scores for the pretest were 17 and for the questions recorded with the experimental treatment accents only was 8.

Since the full scores of the pretest and the questions recorded with the experimental treatment accents only are different, it was impossible to compare them with the raw scores. Instead, percentages of their scores in the full scores each had to be compared. According to Table 19, it was found that the experimental group got approximately 40.5% of the entire questions correct, which were all recorded with the experimental treatment accents only, included in the pretest and got 54% correct in the first post-test so the difference found is approximately 13.6%. In order to check whether the difference found in the descriptive statistics was significant or not, a paired samples *t*-test was conducted (see Table 20).

Table 20

Paired Samples t-test Results of the Experimental Group's Performance on Questions Recorded with the Experimental Treatment Accents Only

	Pretest		Questions recorded with the experimental accents only		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Experimental group (n = 34)	40.5	18.59	54	17.06	-4.225	.000

According to Table 20, the result of the paired samples *t*-test showed that difference in the experimental group's performances found between the pretest (M = 40.5, SD = 18.59) and the questions recorded with the experimental treatment accents only (M = 54, SD = 17.06) is significantly different with $t = -4.225$ $p = .000$. It can be considered to show the significant positive effects of treatment provided to the experimental group on developing their listening comprehension of the experimental treatment accents.

Table 21

Descriptive Statistics of the Control Group's Performances on the Pretest and the Questions in the First Post-test that are Recorded with the Experimental Treatment Accents Only

	Test	N	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation
Control group	Pretest	32	6.50 (38.2%)	2.48 / 14.57
	Questions recorded with the experimental treatment accents only	32	3.40 (42.6%)	2.00 / 24.97

Note. The full scores for the pretest were 17 and for the questions recorded with the experimental accents only was 8.

The same process was done with the data gathered from the control group in order to check the effects of the treatment provided to the control group. According to Table 21, it was found that the control group got approximately 38.2% of the questions recorded with the experimental treatment accents only correct included in the pretest and got approximately 42.6% correct in the first post-test. Therefore, the difference found is approximately 4.4% that is smaller than the difference found in the experimental group.

Table 22

Paired Samples t-test Results of the Control Group's Performance on Questions Recorded with the Experimental Treatment Accents Only

	Pretest		Questions recorded with the experimental accents only		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Control group (n = 32)	38.2	14.57	42.6	24.97	-1.121	.271

Table 22 shows the paired samples *t*-test result that difference on the experimental groups performances found between the pretest (M = 38.2, SD = 14.57) and the questions recorded with the experimental treatment accents only (M = 42.6, SD = 24.97) is not significantly different with $t = -1.121$ $p = .271$. It means that the treatment provided to the control group did not significantly influence on developing their listening comprehension of the experimental treatment accents.

Aside from analyses of whether the improvement in listening comprehension of the experimental treatment accents of each group is significant or not, there was a difference in performances of the experimental group and the control group in the questions recorded with the experimental treatment accents only. The difference between the groups was 0.92 (11.4%) and independent samples *t*-test was conducted to see whether the difference found is statistically significant or not.

Table 23

Independent Samples t-test Results of Comparing Scores for the Questions with the Experimental Treatment Accents Only

	Experimental group (n = 34)		Control group (n =32)		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Questions recorded with the experimental accents only	54	17.06	42.6	24.97	-2.165	.035

Table 23 shows the inferential statistical results of the comparison. According to the result, it was found that $t = -2.165$, $p = .035$, which shows that the difference found between the groups is statistically significant. In other words, participants in the experimental group performed significantly better than the participants in the control group in listening comprehension of questions that only include the accents of English used in the treatment for the experimental group. Therefore, it could seem that the treatment provided with various accents is effective in developing listening comprehension of those accents.

Next, the same process of analysis was done with questions that includes the additional accents of English. As mentioned, the research question is asking whether the treatment done with various accents of English can help participants to improve their listening comprehension of English accents that they did not listen to during the treatment. Therefore, the analysis of the 9 questions that include the experimental treatment accents should be conducted.

Table 24

Descriptive Statistics of Scores for the Questions with Additional Accents

Group	N	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation
Experimental group	34	5.00 (55.5%)	1.60
Control group	32	4.00 (44.4%)	2.31

Note 1. The mean score and Std. Deviation was rounded to the third decimal place.
Note 2. 'percentage' of mean is calculated with the full scores of 9.

Table 24 above shows the scores that participants in both groups received from questions that include additional accents of English. The mean score for the questions with additional accents of the experimental group was 5.00, which is approximately 55.5% of the full scores of questions with additional accents. On the other hand, the mean score for the questions with additional accents of the control group was 4.00 which is approximately 44.4% of the full scores. As a result, the difference in the mean scores for the questions with additional accents between the two groups is 1.00. Since it could not be sure whether the difference is statistically significant or not, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted as the data was gathered from two different groups.

Table 25

Independent Samples t-test Results of Comparing Scores for the Questions Including Additional Accents

	Experimental group (n = 34)		Control group (n =32)		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Questions including additional accents	5.00	1.60	4.00	2.31	-2.032	.047

Table 25 above shows the results of the independent sample *t*-test for comparing scores for the questions including different accents. As a result, it was found that $t = -$

2.032 $p = .047$, which means that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group.

However, comparing the scores of the questions including the additional accents might not be enough to check whether the treatment done with various accents of English led participants in the experimental group to improve their listening comprehension of the additional accents significantly. It was because of the types of questions including the additional accents. There are two different types of questions that include the additional accents of English. The first is monologue questions that are recorded only with additional accents. And the other is dialogue questions in which a part is recorded with one of the additional accents of English and the other part is recorded with one of the experimental treatment English accents. Among 9 questions from which the scores compared were calculated, 6 questions are dialogue questions which also include English accents that the participants in the experimental group listened to during the treatment session. In other words, it might be possible for participants in the experimental group to get higher scores than participants in the control group because of the accents that they already listened to. Therefore, an analysis of monologue questions that are recorded with one of the additional accents of English was required.

Table 26

Descriptive Statistics of Scores for the Questions with Additional Accents Only

Group	N	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation
Experimental group	34	1.29 (43%)	0.84
Control group	32	0.75(25%)	0.84

Note 1. The mean score and Std. Deviation was rounded to the third decimal place.
Note 2. ‘percentage’ of mean is calculated with the full scores of 3.

Table 26 above shows the descriptive statistics of the scores that both groups received from the monologue questions that are recorded only with one of the additional accents. The additional accents, Thai, Singaporean and British accents, were assigned to one question each, therefore, 3 points are the full scores in this analysis. According to the table, participants in the experimental group got 1.29 questions correct out of 3 questions on average, which is approximately 43% of the full scores. On the other hand, participants in the control group got 0.75 questions correct out of 3 questions on average and it is 25% of the full scores. The score difference between the experimental group and the control group is 0.54. Based on the descriptive statistics, independent samples *t*-test was conducted in order to check whether the difference of 0.54 is statistically significant or not.

Table 27

Independent Samples t-test Results of Comparing Scores for the Questions Including Additional Accents Only

	Experimental group (n = 34)		Control group (n =32)		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Questions including additional accents only	1.29	0.84	0.75	0.84	-2.633	.011

Table 27 shows the result of the independent *t*-test conducted to check whether the difference found between the scores for the monologue questions recorded only with one of the additional accents of English is significant or not. According to the table, it was found that $t = -2.633$ and $p = .011$, which means there is a statistically significant difference between the scores of the experimental group and the control group. In other words, participants in the experimental group performed significantly better than the

control group in comprehending English accents that were not included in the listening materials used for their treatment.

Until now, it has been shown that the participants in the experimental group performed significantly better than participants in the control group in the first post-test after the treatment. In more detail, although both groups showed a better performance in the first post-test, it was found that the improvement of participants in the experimental was significant, on the other hand, the improvement of participants in the control group was not statistically significant. It means that treatment of having participants in the experimental group listen to different accents of English with CSAT listening materials positively influenced developing their listening comprehension of various accents.

In addition, analyses on the first post-test questions that include the accents used in the treatment only, on the questions that include the additional accents, and on the questions that include the additional accents only were conducted. Results showed that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in all the question types analyzed. Considering that the experimental group participants performed significantly better in all three question types (questions including the experimental treatment accents only, questions including the experimental treatment accents and the additional accents and questions including the additional accents only), it seems natural for the experimental group to perform significantly better than the control group in the entire first post-test.

Second Post-test

Through the analyses previously conducted, the first part of the research question has been answered. It was shown that the treatment of having Korean EFL learners

exposed to different accents of English helped them to develop their listening comprehension of the experimental treatment accents and the additional accents. Since the first part of the research question was a precondition of the second part of the question and the precondition of the second part of the research question has been fulfilled, data gathered from the second post-test were analyzed in order to investigate the second part of the research question. The second part of the research question is about whether the developed listening comprehension ability through the treatment can be transferred to comprehension of real-life listening materials or not. As mentioned, the second post-test was made with 8 questions with 6 real-life listening materials that are spoken in the 6 experimental treatment accents (Chinese, Japanese, Hong Kong, Filipino, Australian and Canadian).

Table 28

Descriptive Statistics of the Second Post-test Result

Group	N	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation
Experimental group	34	3.76 (47%)	1.50
Control group	32	2.78 (34.8%)	1.54

Note 1. The mean score and Std. Deviation was rounded to the third decimal place.
Note 2. 'percentage' of mean is calculated with the full scores of 8.

Table 28 above shows the descriptive statistic data of the experimental group and the control group. Since the second post-test consists of 8 questions, the full scores of the test were 8 with 1 point for each question. According to the table, participants in the experimental group got 3.76 questions correct out of 8 questions on average, which is 47% of the full scores. On the other hand, participants in the control group got 2.78 questions correct out of 8 questions on average, which is approximately 34.8% of the full scores. The difference found between the two groups is 0.98 in terms of score and it is

approximately 12.2% in terms of percentage. In order to check whether the difference found is statistically significant or not, a more detailed analysis of the result was required, therefore, *t*-test was conducted.

Table 29

Independent Samples t-test Results of Comparing the Second Post-test Scores

	Experimental group (n = 34)		Control group (n =32)		*t*	*p*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
2nd post-test	3.76	1.50	2.78	1.54	-2.629	.011

Since the two different groups took the same test, an independent sample *t*-test was conducted to check whether the difference found between them is statistically significant or not. According to Table 29, it was found that $t = -2.629$, $p = .011$, which means that the difference found between the two groups is statistically significant and the experimental group (M = 3.76, SD = 1.50) performed significantly better than the control group (M = 2.78 SD = 1.54) in the second post-test. Along with the significantly better performance of the experimental group in the second post-test, the fact that the difference found between the groups in the pretest was not statistically significant should not be forgotten. It is because it means that their listening comprehension ability on the experimental treatment accents are not significantly different before the treatment. Additionally, participants in both the experimental group and the control group spent their time on English listening comprehension only during the class times and the only difference in the treatment is whether various accents chosen were used or American accents were used.

Through the independent samples *t*-tests for the first post-test and the second post-test, it could be found that the treatment provided to the experimental group was helpful for participants in the group to develop their listening comprehension of the accents that they practiced, to develop their listening comprehension of the accents that they did not listen during the treatment sessions, and to develop their listening comprehension of the accents that they practiced but spoken in real-life settings. In other words, participants in the experimental group could transfer their developed listening comprehension to the first post-test and even to the second post-test.

Questionnaire Data Analysis

Questionnaire Results

Through the test data analyses, it was shown that having Korean EFL learners exposed to various accents of English with CSAT listening materials helped them to develop their listening comprehension of the accents that are used in the treatment and the other accents. It was also shown that the developed listening comprehension ability was transferred to a different listening circumstance that is done with real-life listening materials.

In addition to the test data analysis, analysis of the questionnaire was conducted to check subjective quantitative data, how participants perceived the effectiveness of the treatment and other questions about listening to various accents in general.

Table 30

Cronbach's α for the Questionnaire

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.725	.723	6

Before analyzing responses provided in the questionnaire, the reliability of the questionnaire had to be calculated (See Table 30). It is because, if the reliability of the questionnaire is low, which means participants' responses are not consistent, the questionnaire might not be able to show participants' perceptions appropriately (Phakiti, 2015). Therefore, the reliability of the questionnaire was investigated by using Cronbach's Alpha. According to the analysis, it was found that Cronbach's α for the questionnaire is .725, which means the participants' responses to the questionnaire are consistent and reliable to be analyzed.

Since the questionnaire was found to be reliable, analyses on each question were conducted and the results are provided in Table 31 below.

Table 31

Responses to the Questionnaire

Question	Definitely yes (%)	Maybe yes (%)	Not sure (%)	Maybe no (%)	Definitely no (%)	Total (%)
1	10 (29.4%)	19 (55.9%)	3 (8.8%)	2 (5.9%)	0 (0%)	34 (100%)
2	5 (14.7%)	20 (58.8%)	7 (20.6%)	2 (5.9%)	0 (0%)	34 (100%)
3	8 (23.5%)	16 (47.1%)	10 (29.4%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	34 (100%)
4	10 (29.4%)	15 (44.1%)	8 (23.5%)	1 (2.9%)	0 (0%)	34 (100%)
5	16 (47.1%)	15 (44.1%)	2 (5.9%)	1 (2.9%)	0 (0%)	34 (100%)
6	12 (35.3%)	14 (41.2%)	7 (20.6%)	1 (2.9%)	0 (0%)	34 (100%)

Note. In the question column, 1 = "To prepare for the post-test 1 (CSAT-type), do you think listening to various accents of English during training was more helpful than listening to American accents only (as you usually do in school)?"; 2 = "In the post-test 1, there were some English accents included that you did not listen to while practicing. Did the listening training with the various accents help you to understand the new accents in the post-test 1?"; 3 = "To prepare for the post-test 2 (with real-life listening materials), do you think listening to various accents of English during training was more helpful than listening to American accents only (as you usually do in school)?"; 4 = "Do you think listening to various accents of English during training was more helpful to improve your overall listening comprehension than listening to American accents only (as you usually do in school)?"; 5 = "Do you think being exposed to various accents of English is important to improve your English listening ability (not for a test)?"; 6 = "Do you think that school English class should have students listen to various accents of English to improve your English listening ability (required in international communication)?"

According to the table, 29 participants which take approximately 85.3% of the entire respondents answered positively to question #1. 3 participants responded that they are uncertain about whether the treatment was helpful. On the other hand, 2 participants responded 'maybe no' and no respondent answered 'definitely no'. Through the analysis, it was found that a vast number of participants thought that the treatment helped them to prepare for the post-test, which corresponds with the results that participants in the

experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in the first post-test.

Next, it was shown in the table above that approximately 73.5% of the respondents (25) answered positively to question #2. 7 participants responded that they are not sure whether the treatment helped them to understand the new accents or not. There were only 2 participants who responded that the treatment might not be helpful and no participants responded that the treatment was definitely not helpful. It shows that the participants' positive perception on the treatment corresponds with their actual performance in the questions recorded with additional accents.

Question #3 was to ask how participants perceived the effectiveness of the treatment in a novel listening comprehension situation that is done with real-life listening materials. It was found that participants tend to think the treatment was more helpful than listening only to American accents in preparing for the test which was done with real-life listening materials (70.6%). On the other hand,10 participants responded they are not sure whether the treatment was more helpful or not. Interestingly, there were no participants who responded that the treatment was not more helpful than listening to American accents only. Therefore, it could be said that participants' actual performance after the treatment and their perception on whether the treatment was helpful corresponds with each other.

Question #4 was to ask how participants think about whether the treatment provided was helpful for them to improve their overall listening comprehension. 25 participants answered that listening to various accents of English was more helpful than

listening to American accents only. 8 participants answered that they are not sure whether listening to various accents of English was more helpful than listening to American accents only and only 1 respondent answered negatively to this question. Therefore, the result of question #4 shows that participants tend to think that the treatment provided in this study was helpful for them to develop their overall listening comprehension.

The next two questions #5 and #6 were not directly related to this study. The questions were asked to check how participants think about listening to various accents of English in improving their listening comprehension ability and whether they think listening to various accents of English should be done in school. In question #5, 31 participants responded that they think listening to various accents of English is important to improve their listening comprehension ability. 2 participants responded that they are not sure and only 1 participant responded that listening to various accents of English might not be important. The tendency of considering listening to various accents of English important to improve their listening comprehension is following previous studies that showed Korean EFL learners perceive the significance of understanding different varieties (Y. Kim, 2007; R. Green, 2015).

Finally, the intention of question #6 was asked to check how participants think about dealing with listening to various accents of English in school. According to the result, 26 participants answered that school English classes should have students listening to various accents English in school English class. 7 participants responded that they are not sure and only 1 participant responded ‘maybe no’ to this question.

Chapter Summary

This study investigated the effects of the treatment of having Korean EFL learners listen to various accents of English with CSAT listening materials with the purpose of improving Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension of various accents of English. In order to do so, both objective and subjective quantitative data were analyzed. Through the analyses, it was found that listening to various accents of English with CSAT listening materials helped participants to improve their listening comprehension in both post-tests. In addition, it was found through the questionnaire that participants who received the treatment of listening to various accents of English tend to think the treatment was helpful and they also tend to think listening to various accents of English is important and it should be done in school.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter will provide discussions on the findings from the experiment. First, it will be shown how this study could fill the gaps found in the previous studies. Then, it will be provided that reading while listening activity done could be an appropriate way to develop students' listening comprehension of various accents. Finally, how the learning transfer happened (both near and far transfer) will be explained with both participants' performances and their answers to the questionnaire.

Filling the Gaps of the Previous Studies

In fact, there were some previous studies that investigated the similar topic of having Korean EFL high school students listen to different accents of English (M. Ahn, 2015; Hong, 2012; You, 2015). Although it is meaningful that the previous studies tried to investigate the important topic of English learning in the current EIL situations, they had limitations in selecting accents to be included in that the accents did not represent the English accents that Korean EFL learners are expected to communicate with in Korea. For example, Hong (2012) included English speakers from African countries Ghana and Congo in her study. Of course, their English accents should be respected as their own legitimate accents (Kachru, 1985). However, the number of visitors from those countries during the period of 2017 to 2019 is so small that the Korea Tourism Knowledge & Information system does not provide an exact number of visitors, which means there is a very low probability for Korean EFL learners to meet and to have a chance to communicate with English speakers from those countries in Korea. In addition, M. Ahn

(2015) recruited an Indian speaker for her study, however, the number of visitors to Korea from India is also smaller than any other countries included in this study. Furthermore, previous studies failed to include English accents from all three concentric circles. For example, although Hong (2012) included 12 different accents, none of the inner circle accents were included. Additionally, M. Ahn (2015) included American, British, Singaporean and Indian accents, however, she did not include English accents from expanding circle countries at all.

On the other hand, this study selected accents to be included based on the objective data of the number of foreign visitors to Korea that reflects the probabilities of English accents that Korean EFL learners are expected to face. Also, this study included English accents from all three concentric circles in balance. Therefore, this study can be considered more meaningful in that it investigated a similar topic in a more practical way for Korean EFL users.

Finally, compared to the previous studies that used EBS CSAT preparation materials, this study used the actual CSAT which has been proved to be highly reliable with a vast number of test-takers accumulated (M. Song, 2013). In other words, the result of this study is more reliable to be generalized than the previous studies whose results came from EBS materials because EBS materials could be considered as an in-house placement test whose results might not be reliable and might be hard to be generalized (Vandergrift, 2007).

Reading While Listening Activity as an Appropriate Activity

This study is different from the previous studies not only in terms of the accents and materials but also in terms of the results of the treatment provided. Hong (2012) and You (2015) investigated the effects of exposing Korean EFL high school students to various accents of English on developing their listening comprehension of the accents. They found that students who were exposed to various accents of English did not show significant differences in listening comprehension compared to students who listened to American accents only. Therefore, they concluded that having students listen to various accents is not much effective in developing their listening comprehension of various accents of English.

On the other hand, this study found that the treatment of having Korean EFL learners listen to various accents of English with CSAT listening materials was more helpful for them to improve their listening comprehension abilities than listening only to American accents, which is a contrasting result to the previous studies. Considering that this study provided the treatment in a shorter period than Hong (2012) in which the treatment was provided during 15 class times, there might be a reason that caused the difference in the effects of the treatment. As pointed out previously, Hong (2012) had participants do dictation and You (2015) had participants do filling in blanks activities while listening to materials recorded with various accents. Although the activities implemented in previous studies are widely used in listening comprehension, they are known to have some limitations such as student pressure (Nam & Seong, 2009) and the influence of guessing. They also require quite a long time to be completed. Therefore, as Blomgren (2016) states that "students' ability is enhanced by support aimed at getting

students to use effective learning strategies and effort" (p. 243) (as cited in Boström & Bostedt, 2020), an appropriate listening activity that could lead participants to use their efforts and time effectively is needed.

In this sense, this study implemented 'reading while listening' activity, which is widely used among EFL learners, instead of dictation and filling in blanks. Since all that the participants had to do was to read the scripts silently while they are listening to the materials, this activity might have imposed less pressure on students than dictation and filling in blanks. It also required less time to be done than those activities. In fact, previous studies have shown the effectiveness of reading while listening activity on listening comprehension. Reading while listening activity can be used as a listening support or a listening strategy in that students can be exposed to additional written input which can help them to understand the oral input (Rozak et al., 2019; Wang & Tragant, 2020). Vandergrift (2007) insisted that the aural-written verification through reading while listening could help learners in terms of auditory discrimination skills and word recognition when they read scripts in which the listeners know most of the words included (i.e., *i*-1 level of difficulty). Similarly, A. Chang (2011) stated that reading while listening can help students to discriminate auditory input by matching audio input and written input, which will help students' listening comprehension to be enhanced. It was shown in this study in that the experimental group who did reading while listening with the experimental treatment accents showed statistically significant improvement in the first post-test including the experimental treatment accents and the additional accents and the control group, who also did reading while listening activity with American accents only, did not

In conclusion, reading while listening activity can be considered as an appropriate and effective activity for developing listening comprehension of various accents of English, which led this study to show participants' improvement in listening comprehension, unlike previous studies.

Learning Transfer in the Test Score Analyses

It was shown in this study that the experimental group participants in this study showed significantly better listening comprehension even in listening situations that are different from the situation in which they practiced listening comprehension. In other words, this study showed that learning transfer happened after the treatment.

Along with the fact that learning transfer happened with the treatment, how big a difference the learning transfer led to seems also important. Considering the importance of the CSAT in Korea, the score difference of 1.91 between the two groups in the first post-test seems important. Since the analyses in this study were done with an assumption that all the questions are 1-point-question, the difference of 1.91 in the first post-test whose full scores are 17 can be considered as 11.2 points in actual CSAT whose full scores are 100. And the difference of 11.2 points can make a difference between two grade categories in actual CSAT. Under the current criterion-referenced CSAT English, students who receive a score of 90 or over 90 get 1st grade and those who receive a score between 80 to 89 get 2nd grade and so on. That is, a score of 10 is the criterion which decides grade categories. In this situation, 11.2 is a score that is over the criterion so that the score can lead to a difference of two grades (e.g., 1st grade to 3rd grade). Therefore, the finding that learning transfer happened to the degree that could affect grades in CSAT

seems important in Korea where CSAT is considered as one of the most important exams.

Since the influence of learning transfer happened in this study can be considerable, how learning transfer happened in this study should be investigated thoroughly. As mentioned, learning is meaningful when what is gained through learning can be applied to solve questions not only at the moment of learning but also in novel situations, which motivates learning and teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 2013). Therefore, learners should develop "the ability to extend what has been learned in one context to new contexts" (Bransford et al., 1999, p.39). However, previous studies by Hong (2012) and You (2015) were not appropriate to investigate whether far learning transfer happened or not. It is because they checked the effectiveness of treatment by assessing students' listening comprehension in a situation with the only difference in the contents of listening materials. They used the EBS materials which are made with the purpose of preparing for CSAT in both pretests and post-tests. By implementing the pretest and the post-test with the same accents and the same types of listening materials as other previous researchers did (e.g., Herron & Seay, 1991; Thompson & Rubin, 1996), the previous studies focused on whether a near transfer between similar situations happened or not in terms of modality in Barnett & Ceci's transfer taxonomy (2002). However, their results showed that listening to various accents of English was not effective in improving students' listening comprehension of those accents, which can be considered that participants in their studies could not transfer what they learned through the treatment provided.

On the other hand, by implementing two different post-tests, this study could

show that not only near transfer (i.e., understanding the same accents from the treatment) but also far transfer (i.e., understanding accents that were not included in the treatment and improved listening comprehension of the same accents in the real-life listening materials happened after the treatment. More specifically, this study could show far transfer in terms of modality (Barnett & Ceci, 2002), which makes this study particularly meaningful.

Near Transfer

This study could investigate if a near transfer of participants' improved listening comprehension happened or not. Therefore, considering that learning transfer between similar situations is considered as a near transfer, this study could show that a near transfer of learning happened in terms of task type and accent by comparing their performances in the pretest and the first post-test. As explained, the treatment and the first post-test were in the same format of the CSAT listening comprehension section and both included listening materials recorded with the 6 English accents selected with consideration of the Korean situation. In this situation, the experimental group's significantly better performances in the first post-test than in the pretest can be a way to show that a near transfer happened among participants in the experimental group.

First, the near transfer found in the first post-test can be regarded as a near transfer in terms of modality in task type. Considering that the exact same task types of materials are used in the treatment and the first post-test, the treatment and the first post-test were implemented in the same mode. Therefore, the statistically improved listening comprehension found in the first post-test that is in the same modality as the treatment

can be considered as a near transfer in terms of modality.

In addition, since the first post-test consists of three different types of questions in terms of accent, the experimental group's performance on the questions recorded with the experimental treatment accents only that were included in the first post-test had to be investigated to see the near transfer more accurately. In more detail, the result of comparing the experimental group's performances on the pretest and the questions recorded only with the experimental treatment accents in the first post-test showed that the improvement is statistically significant, which can definitely be considered as a near transfer. More specifically, the near transfer found can be considered as a near transfer in terms of modality as well (Barnett & Ceci, 2002). Considering that the treatment and the questions were recorded with the same accents, it could be said that participants in the experimental group could apply their improved listening comprehension of the accents to some questions in the first post-test. In fact, the previous studies by Hong (2012) and You (2015) focused on this aspect as well although they did not show that near transfer happened. In other words, it could be said that participants in this study transferred listening comprehension improved through the treatment mode to questions that are spoken in the same mode (accents) with the treatment.

Although there were some negative opinions on near transfer such as Detterman (1993) who considered it trivial, near transfer is not a topic in learning that could be easily ignored. As Larsen-Freeman (2014) mentioned, learning transfer is a crucial assumption that motivates learning and teaching. In other words, a learner cannot find a direction to go and might lose motivation if he or she keeps failing to transfer knowledge

and skills gained previously. In this situation, near transfer can be a source that can keep learners to be motivated to learn because it is easier for near transfer to happen than far transfer (Detterman, 1993). In other words, motivation gained from near transfer can be a foundation with which far transfer would happen. For example, participants in this study showed learning transfer between the treatment and some questions in the first post-tests which were administered with the same accents. In this situation, if they keep practicing listening comprehension of various accents of English in school with motivations from their successful near transfer and if they can successfully understand English accents that they have not listened to (e.g., Turkish English accents), it can be considered as a far transfer in terms of modality (Barnett & Ceci, 2002). Therefore, near transfer and far transfer might be in a continuous line and near transfer can be a motivation that can lead far transfer to happen.

In conclusion, the finding of this study that listening to various accents of English with CSAT listening materials led to a near transfer of improved listening comprehension of the experimental treatment accents in the first post-test should not be underestimated.

Far Transfer

Although the near transfer of listening comprehension found in this study is important, the near transfer is not enough for learners to succeed in novel listening situations. For example, it is not guaranteed that participants who showed near transfer will be able to comprehend English accents that they did not practice such as Indian accents. This is a very important point in English teaching in EIL situations because it is

required for English users to be prepared for various accents of English. With this background, this study tried to investigate whether the treatment could help participants to develop their listening comprehension of the additional accents (Thai, Singaporean and British accents) by including the accents in the first post-test.

In the test score data analysis, it was shown that, in the first post-test, the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in the two rest question types which are recorded with the experimental treatment accents and the additional accents and recorded with the additional accents only. This indicates the experimental group experienced far transfer in that the treatment of having participants listen to various accents helped the experimental group to transfer their improved listening comprehension even to listening situations with accents that they did not practice.

This far transfer found can be considered as a far transfer in terms of modality again (Barnett & Ceci, 2002). In fact, modality can be related to task features and accent is a part of task features. Being exposed to the experimental treatment accents during the treatment sessions, participants in the experimental group could improve their listening comprehension of the input with some features (the experimental treatment accents) and the listening comprehension improved was expanded and helped them to comprehend input in tasks with different features (English accents that they did not practice). Previously, Saito et al. (2019) argued that, after a sufficient amount of exposure, even L2 listeners can develop their understanding of foreign accents through perceptual adaptation because “listeners have capacity to adjust, revise and develop their existing

representations when exposed to systematic and novel deviations from familiar linguistic regularities" (p. 1146). Therefore, it could be said that participants in this study could develop their listening comprehension of the additional accents through perceptual adaptation that helped them to develop their representations of the unfamiliar accents. Considering that it is impossible for language teachers to deal with every single accent existing in the world, the fact that practicing listening comprehension with some accents can help learners to improve their listening comprehension of other accents seems to shed light on how to teach L2 listening with various accents of English in the EIL situations.

Along with the far transfer in terms of accents, this study could show another far transfer in terms of another modality, task type in this case. It was possible because of the second post-test which was implemented with the different task of listening materials (real-life listening materials) from the listening materials for the treatment (CSAT listening materials). Performance on a listening comprehension test can provide an objective criterion for assigning listening proficiency level (Vandergrift, 2007). However, in the case of a standardized listening comprehension test in a multiple-choice format (e.g., CSAT), the listening proficiency level assigned with a test performance in the test might not be enough to decide the test-takers' language ability in real-life situations (Bachmann, 2015). This is related to target language use domain (TLU) which was defined as "a specific setting outside the test itself that requires the test taker to perform language use tasks" (Bachman & Palmer, 2010, p. 60). In fact, it is not easy, even for a valid test, to reflect test-takers' target language use domain fully in a limited space of a test.

From the perspective of this study, participants' performance on the first post-test which was done with CSAT listening materials (listening comprehension in a test mode) is not enough to reflect their listening in different modes such as listening to authentic listening materials. It is because of the characteristics of CSAT listening materials such as slow speech rate, absence of natural language phenomena and background noises, etc. (Choi, 2010; J. Lee, 2016, 2021). Therefore, even though assessing participants' listening comprehension of the target accents spoken in real-life listening materials was done in a test format, their performance on the second post-test can be considered as the result of assessing their listening comprehension in a different mode that will be required in their future target language use domain a little more closely. In fact, this aspect was not checked in the previous studies by Hong (2012) and You (2015).

As mentioned, the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in the second post-test. It could be said that the treatment provided to the experimental group made a significant difference in the second post-test because their listening comprehension performances in the pretest were not significantly different. In addition, it was already shown in the analysis for the first post-test that the experimental group experienced both near transfer and far transfer. In other words, the experimental group's significantly better performance on the second post-test can be considered as a learning transfer as well, specifically a far transfer. Although the second post-test had some similarities to CSAT (e.g., the use of text types like news reports, interviews and speeches), the second post-test was different from CSAT in an important way: The texts for the test were authentic. Listening materials in the second post-test are definitely in a different mode from the actual CSAT listening materials because materials in the second

post-test were the actual listening materials from people's daily life which have different features that testing listening materials do not have. Therefore, this transfer could be considered as a far transfer in terms of modality (Barnett & Ceci, 2002).

In addition, as James (2008) mentioned, students' perceived similarity is an important factor in learning transfer. In this study, some participants expressed that the listening materials included in the second post-test are different from the listening materials for the treatment even though the listening materials in the second post-test and the treatment were in the same text types. It might be because they perceived the difference between the listening materials in the treatment (made for a testing mode) and the listening materials in the second post-test (made in a real-life mode).

As a result, the finding that listening practice with CSAT materials led learners to improve their listening ability for communication in real-life situations seems meaningful in language teaching, especially in Korea where English is used as a foreign language and where EFL learners are exposed to English listening situations mostly in English class with listening materials that are made to be used in English class and tests.

To sum up, this study showed that participants in this study transfer their improved listening comprehension ability to novel listening situations that require them to comprehend English accents that they did not practice. Furthermore, they transferred the improved listening comprehension ability to comprehend the English accents that they practiced but spoken by different speakers in real-life situations.

Learning Transfer in the Questionnaire Analysis

Along with test performance data gathered, this study included a questionnaire in

order to investigate participants' opinions on whether the treatment helped them to develop listening comprehension of various accents (both the trained accents and untrained accents) and helped them to develop listening comprehension of the trained accents in a listening situation with listening materials made with different task features. As mentioned, there could be a discrepancy between what students perceived and their actual performance (Harding, 2008). As Wang et al. (2022) showed, learners' continuance of learning is affected by their perceived usefulness of the treatment. Therefore, participants' responses to the questions asking about the effectiveness of treatment in developing their listening comprehension of various accents and real-life listening materials might show a possibility of whether they will continue to listen to various accents of English to prepare themselves with listening comprehension for EIL situations. With this background, only the participants in the experimental group who received the treatment of listening to various accents were asked to complete the questionnaire.

First, in questions #1, #2 and #3, bigger portions of the respondents (85.3% in question #1, 73.5% in question #2 and 70.6% in question #3) answered that the treatment provided was helpful for them to prepare for the first post-test, to understand new accents that were not included in the treatment and to prepare for the second post-test with real-life listening materials. In other words, they perceived that the treatment provided led them to experience learning transfer. Considering that the test score analyses showed that the experimental group showed learning transfers in the post-tests (either near or far), it could be said that their perceived effectiveness of the treatment and the actual effectiveness match.

Next, in question #4 that asked about the effectiveness of the treatment on improving their overall listening comprehension, more than 70% of the entire respondents answered that the treatment provided was helpful in developing their overall listening comprehension. Considering that the treatment was provided not only with the purpose of improving their listening comprehension for testing situations but also with the purpose of improving their listening comprehension for more various situations through learning transfer, the result of question #4 showed that the treatment was appropriate not only for this study but also for the goal of helping Korean EFL learners to be competent L2 listeners. In fact, while the experiment was being implemented, some participants expressed their positive opinions on listening to various accents of English to the researcher. For example, after the treatment sessions, some participants said that they found themselves understanding what they could not understand such as movies or dramas, and other participants said that they got confident in English listening comprehension after the treatment. Therefore, the examples above also show participants' perceived learning transfer.

Additionally, participants' responses to questions #5 and #6 seem meaningful in that they showed contrasting results to previous studies. Questions #5 and #6 in the questionnaire were 'do you think being exposed to various accents of English is important to improve your English listening ability (not for a test)?' and 'do you think that school English class should have students listen to various accents of English to improve your English listening ability (required in international communication)?'. For question #5, more than 90% of the respondent answered that listening to various accents of English is important to improve their listening comprehension. For question #6, more

than 70% of respondents answered that students should have chances to listen to various accents of English in their school English class. The results can be interpreted that participants in this study recognize the need for improving their listening comprehension of various accents of English and it should be done in school in order to prepare for international communication.

In fact, even though there were some studies that showed Korean EFL stakeholders' recognition of the importance of listening to various accents of English for international communication (Byun, 2016; K. Song, 2009; Y. Kim, 2007), more studies showed that Korean EFL stakeholders tend to express negative opinions on various accents of English in school (K. Choi, 2007; H.-O. Kim, 2018; Y. Shim, 2015; Yoon, 2007). For example, from the students' perspective, M. Kim (2014) showed that nearly 80% of the participants showed strong negative opinions on British accents included in the standardized English listening comprehension test implemented across the country. Also, Green (2015) showed that Korean EFL learners recognize the importance of comprehending various accents of English, however, they did not find any reason to learn various accents simultaneously. Students were not the only ones who expressed negative opinions on dealing with various accents of English in school. From the teachers' perspective, Park (2017) showed that English teachers tend not to have their students listening to various accents in their class even though they recognize the need for dealing with various accents in listening. Therefore, the fact that this study showed students' positive opinions on listening to various accents of English to improve their listening ability and dealing with various accents of English in school, which is contrasting to previous studies, is meaningful.

CHAPTER 6

IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSION

In chapter 6, based on findings and discussion, practical implications on how to develop Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension of various accents of English will be provided first. And then, the limitations of this study will be suggested. Finally, this study will provide its conclusion in this chapter.

Practical Implications

Including Various Accents of English in CSAT as a Way to Develop Korean EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension in EIL

As the results of this study show, listening to various accents of English with CSAT listening materials is found to be effective in developing Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension required in EIL situations. In addition, participants expressed opinions that listening to various accents of English with CSAT listening materials was helpful. These are meaningful findings that might lead teaching L2 listening in Korean schools to change to deal with various accents of English in school.

In this situation, considering the strong washback effects of CSAT, including various accents of English in the test can be a way to incorporate various accents of English in school. In fact, some international standardized English tests such as TOEIC and TOEFL already include English accents other than American accents, although they include English accents from inner circle countries only (J. Lee, 2020). Because of those tests, it is easy to find people who are practicing listening comprehension with the accents included in the tests, which shows how washback effects influence learners

positively. However, CSAT has been done only with American accents of English (J. Lee, 2021b) and teachers tend not to deal with English accents other than American accents in their class because of the strong washback effects of the test. It can be considered as a negative washback effect of CSAT in that it narrows down the scope of learning (Pan, 2009; Whitehead 2014) and might lead participants to be demotivated to learn what they will not face in the test (Hughes, 2003). In other words, combined with stakeholders' negative opinions on listening to various accents of English (H.-O. Kim, 2018; Y. Shim, 2015), washback effects of CSAT influenced school education negatively.

However, positive responses on listening to various accents of English for improving listening comprehension ability and dealing with various accents in school English class found in this study can be a starting point of changing the washback effects of CSAT positively. In fact, washback effects of important exams in some countries were found to influence positively on school education and bring some changes (J. Brown 2000, Hatipoğlu 2016, Usaha & Wang 2002). For example, Chou (2017) showed that once the Test of English Listening Comprehension (TELC), a listening comprehension test required in the university entrance process, was introduced in Taiwan, English teachers started teaching listening in school. In addition, in Hong Kong, after there was a change in their assessment system, English teachers changed their focus and way of teaching and they also tried to develop new teaching materials that could help their students to succeed in a new assessment system (Cheng, 1999). In other words, washback effects of tests can work as a chance to expand the scope of learning.

Interestingly, English teachers in Korea, who responded that they do not deal

with British accents in their class even though they recognize the need for dealing with various accents, told that dealing with British accents in their class will be possible in case CSAT includes the accents (Park, 2017). As mentioned, CSAT preparation materials from EBS are widely used in school English class because of the strong washback effects (H. Jung, 2006), which shows that Korean English class is done mainly to prepare for CSAT. Therefore, with positive opinions found in the questionnaire on dealing with various accents of English in school, including various accents of English in CSAT listening comprehension section will be an effective way to cultivate Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension ability with CSAT's washback effects.

Along with the positive opinions on the treatment provided in this study, the fact that learning transfer happened through the treatment also can support including various accents of English in CSAT. It was shown in the study that the treatment helped participants to transfer their improved listening ability to listen to new accents of English and to listening to real-life materials. Considering that one of the goals of English education in Korea is to help students to be able to communicate in English depending on purposes and situations (Ministry of Education, 2018), transfer of listening comprehension improved through the treatment is a way to make the goal accomplished. Therefore, including various accents of English in CSAT listening section will lead school to deal with the accents in their class with washback effects (H. Jung, 2006; Park & Chang, 2016), which will be a way to help Korean EFL learners to be prepared for future EIL listening situations and the goal to be accomplished as well.

Preparations for Including Various Accents in CSAT

Although including various accents of English in CSAT can be a way to promote teaching various accents of English in Korean English education, no one expects that it will be done easily. In other words, there are things that should be considered and prepared.

First, making changes in educational policies (e.g., including new accents in CSAT) will bring about new burdens for stakeholders and might bring about side effects. Therefore, the Ministry of Education and Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation should think about how to implement the listening comprehension of CSAT with various accents of English with fewer impacts. In fact, a national standardized listening comprehension test for high school students already includes British accents (M. Kim, 2014) and test-takers of this exam are future test-takers of CSAT. Therefore, as a demonstration, it might be possible for them to try including a few more new accents in the test or CSAT mock tests before deciding with which approach various accents of English will be included (Hu, 2012).

Next, it is important for teachers to be prepared for various accents of English because they should help their students prepare for the situations outside the classroom (Dogancay-Aktuna & Hardman, 2017). However, Korean EFL stakeholders including English teachers still tend to consider English accents from inner circle countries as a target of English learning (Breaux & Brown, 2011; Kim & Kim, 2018). In other words, it seems that English teachers in Korea are not ready to deal with various accents of English in their classes. If teachers are not prepared, the effects of listening to various accents

might be minimized. Therefore, English teachers should be prepared to deal with various accents in their class and appropriate support for teachers should be prepared as well. Therefore, as J. Lee (2020) suggested, teacher training programs for various accents of English can be a helpful way for teachers to be prepared. Or, having English teachers participate in EIL-related classes or programs (e.g., Total Immersion Courses for Chinese and Korean English Teachers (TICKET) by Bloomfield College) (Kang, 2017) and EIL-focused programs in foreign countries (e.g., Monash University in Australia) could also be helpful.

In addition, including various accents of English in CSAT should be accompanied by changes in teaching materials. Korean English education has been influenced by English education professionals who studied in America (R. Shim, 1999), so teaching materials such as textbooks mostly include American English (J. Song, 2007). However, without including various accents of English in teaching materials, it might not be possible for Korean EFL learners to develop their ability to understand various English varieties (Chen, 2011; Hu, 2017). In other words, teaching materials should be able to provide chances to be exposed to various English accents (Matsuda, 2003). Along with changes in teaching materials, using appropriate supplemental materials could help to maximize the effects of including various accents of English in CSAT. As listening materials used in the second post-test were from YouTube, using YouTube videos recorded with various accents of English can be a good supplemental material. Using supplemental materials will be able to compensate for weaknesses in using textbook materials. As Barriuso and Hayes-Harb (2018) mentioned, high variability phonetic training that uses multiple voices rather than one voice can help L2 learners to develop

their ability to perceive new sounds. However, Korean textbooks usually includes limited voices. Therefore, having learners exposed to voices that are different from the ones in textbooks can be done by using supplemental materials.

In conclusion, in order to help Korean EFL learners to develop the listening comprehension ability required in the EIL situations, all the stakeholder of English education and English education experts should put their efforts to develop and find appropriate materials that include eligible and various accents of English.

Contrasting Cases for Preparation for Future Learning

This study showed meaningful results that can help English teachers in EIL to prepare their students for EIL listening situations practically. However, transferring what is previously gained might not be a panacea for the current complicated situations in which English is used. English users in EIL situations should be able to comprehend various accents of English spoken by various English speakers in various situations. In other words, applying previous knowledge through either near transfer or far transfer might not be enough to help English users in EIL to prepare for various English listening situations. Therefore, English users in EIL should be able to learn new things continuously to be competent English listeners. In other words, a framework of transfer, 'preparation for future learning' (PFL) by Bransford and Schwartz (1999), is the one that English users in EIL should pursue.

PFL is different from transformation, a kind of adaptive transfer suggested by Larsen-Freeman (2013), in that transformation focuses on adapting previous knowledge accordingly depending on situations, however, PFL focuses on adapting learners

themselves. PFL focuses on the possibility for people to adapt themselves in some aspects, such as beliefs on their previous knowledge and recognition of further learning, in order to improve themselves with past experiences and extended learning. For example, in case EIL listeners face a contrasting listening situation that their previous knowledge does not work, they will recognize the need for new learning to prepare for similar future situations, which is a starting point of PFL. As the example shows, Bransford and Schwartz emphasized the importance of being exposed to 'contrasting cases' in order for learners to have chances to prepare for future learning.

Therefore, English classes in Korea should provide learners with chances to be exposed to contrasting listening situations as this study exposed participants to listening situations with additional accents and to listening to real-life materials. In fact, there were some participants expressed their lack of listening comprehension ability after taking the first and second post-tests. Some students also asked the researcher how to practice listening comprehension of English accents that they did not listen to during the treatment and how to practice listening comprehension of real-life listening materials. It seems that the students recognized the need for improving themselves for EIL listening situations by being exposed to contrasting listening situations in the post-tests. As the examples show, learners will recognize the need for further learning when their previous knowledge cannot handle the issue that they are facing, which will help them to be proficient listeners in EIL situations.

Limitations

Although this study investigated the research question made and found that the

treatment provided to participants was effective in developing their listening comprehension ability required in the EIL situations, there are some limitations that should be filled by future research.

As many other studies that deal with quantitative data, this study also has limitations in terms of the quantity of the data gathered. First, there is a limitation related to the sample. Although a sample size over 30 is generally accepted as sufficient (Dörneyi, 2007), the total number of 66 participants analyzed (34 in the experimental group and 32 in the control group) might not be enough to represent Korean high school EFL learners. In addition, this study was conducted in a boy's high school, so only male students participated in this study. Considering that sex is a factor that affects foreign language listening (Bacon, 1992), future research should try to include both sexes to check the effectiveness of having L2 learners listen to various accents of English more clearly.

Next, there are some aspects that could be developed in terms of the post-tests. First, the number of listening comprehension questions included in the post-tests might be a limitation. Although CSAT has been proved to be reliable (M. Song, 2013) and the actual CSAT listening comprehension sections were used for some reasons, such as washback effects, participants' familiarity with the test, etc., 17 listening comprehension questions included in the first post-test might not be enough to check their listening comprehension appropriately. Similarly, 8 questions included in the second post-test also might not be enough to check participants' listening comprehension of real-life materials. Therefore, if more CSAT-type post-tests had been conducted and more questions had

been included in the second post-test, this study could have investigated participants' listening comprehension of various accents and listening comprehension of real-life materials more clearly. Second, question types in the second post-test might be a limitation as well. The second post-test was implemented in the multiple-choice format with five options. Although a multiple-choice format is used widely to assess listening (Green, 2017), the format leads listeners to find answers comparatively easily with the options provided. It means that there is a possibility of guessing or eliminating incorrect options to get the correct answer without full understanding (Lau et al., 2011). That is one of the reasons listening performance in a test cannot fully represent test-takers' listening ability in real-life situations (Bachman, 2015). Although the second post-test tried to reflect the listening comprehension ability required in authentic situations by using real-life materials, it could have shown real-life listening ability more clearly if authentic listening tasks had been used (Hunter & Randhawa, 2001). Therefore, if open-ended tasks were implemented, such as summarizing or retelling which require a broad understanding and which are often used in real-life communication, the second post-test could have shown participants' listening comprehension required in real life situations more clearly.

Finally, as a matter of fact, when designing the study, the researcher considered semi-structured interview as a retrospective technique to gather qualitative data (Yeldahm, 2016). It was expected that semi-structured interviews could show more detailed data about how participants thought about the treatment such as which aspects of treatment helped them to develop their listening comprehension. However, it was hard for the researcher to get permission to conduct the research in the school because of Covid-19-related issues such as preventing the spread of Covid-19 from an outsider. Therefore,

it was impossible to get allowed to have semi-structured interviews with participants as well. As a result, semi-structured interview was replaced with a questionnaire. Although the questionnaire conducted could show how participants perceive the treatment, it was not enough to show a covert process of listening, how participants processed various accents of English while listening. In conclusion, it was hard to see how the treatment helped participants to develop their listening comprehension of the accents in more detail. Therefore, future research on this topic will be more effective in case it is possible to implement a data collection method that can provide more rich data such as interview or thinkaloud.

Conclusion

In the current world, communicating with people from different sides of the world is essential, and English is used as a language that bridges people from different language backgrounds. In this situation, with the purpose of preparing Korean EFL learners for listening comprehension required in English as an international language situation, this study investigated the research question of 'does having Korean EFL learners exposed to different accents in listening materials influence on developing listening comprehension of those accents and other accents? If so, does the development in listening comprehension transfer to listening to real-life listening materials?'.

To answer the question, this study included the English accents of all three concentric circles selected based on practical statistical data that reflects the possibility for participants to face in their future, which was made with considerations of local contexts (Matsuda & Friderich, 2012). As a treatment, participants listened to the selected

accents of English in CSAT listening materials. In addition, when listening the materials again, they read the scripts of the listening materials that they listened, which is known to be effective in developing listening comprehension (Chang & Millet, 2016). As a result, it was found that participants who listened to various accents of English improved their listening comprehension better than the participants who listened to American accents of English only even in listening situations that are different from the one in which they received the treatment. In other words, learning transfer (both near and far transfer) of listening comprehension developed through the treatment is found. Compared to the previous studies on a similar topic conducted in similar situations which could not show the effectiveness of listening to various accents, this study seems particularly meaningful in that it could show a way to prepare Korean EFL learners to be competent English listeners in EIL. Especially, the finding that listening comprehension practice through CSAT listening materials can lead learners to experience far transfer to novel listening situations can be considered meaningful. It is because it showed that a small modification to what is currently done in school can make the current way of teaching English listening more effective in developing listening comprehension needed in EIL. With the growing importance of the ability to understand various accents of English, English education in Korea should look for ways to foster Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension required in international communication and what this study found can be a possible option.

Also, according to the questionnaire result, it was found that participants had positive opinions on the treatment that they received, which confirmed the perceived effectiveness of the treatment provided. Participants showed their recognition of the

importance of listening to various accents of English for improving their listening comprehension and the need for dealing with various accents of English in school. Compared to the previous studies that showed Korean EFL stakeholders' negative opinions on learning various accents of English, this result seems more hopeful in that listening comprehension of various accents is not an ability that can be ignored.

The finding that the treatment done with CSAT listening materials helped participants to transfer their improved listening ability to novel situations and their positive opinions on listening to various accents of English can support including various accents of CSAT listening comprehension section. As mentioned, CSAT's washback effects tend to negatively influence on school education by narrowing down the scope of learning, which is based on stakeholder's negative opinions. However, the results of this study showed that using CSAT listening materials can be effective in developing students' listening ability required in EIL and positive opinions found in this study can be a beginning of converting CSAT's washback effects positively. Once including various accents of English in CSAT is started, school English class will probably be influenced by the test and will start dealing with various accents of English. In addition, in order to include various accents in CSAT, some preparations should be accompanied such as teacher training and changes in teaching materials.

Hopefully, this study can be a cornerstone of developing Korean EFL learners' listening comprehension of various accents. At the same time, more researchers should put their efforts to help Korean EFL learners to be competent English users who can communicate effectively with English users from various language backgrounds.

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APPENDIX A

PARENTAL PERMISSION FORM

한국 학생들의 다양한 영어 억양에 대한 듣기 능력 증진 실험

학부모 동의서

학부모님께,

안녕하십니까, 저는 Dr. Mark James 의 지도하에 애리조나주립대학교의 Department of English 에서 박사과정을 하고 있는 이준원입니다. 저는 현재 국제언어로 영어가 사용되고 있는 시대에 필요한 한국 학생들의 다양한 영어 억양에 대한 듣기 능력을 증진시키는 방법에 대한 연구를 진행하고 있습니다

이 연구에 학부모님 자녀의 참여 여부를 여쭙고자 합니다. 이 연구는 사전 평가, 듣기 훈련, 두 번의 사후 평가와 설문조사를 포함합니다. 모든 연구 절차는 정규 수업 시간에 진행될 것이며, 따라서 수업 시간 외의 시간 약속은 없습니다. 연구 첫 날, 학생들은 다양한 영어 억양으로 녹음된 과거의 수능 듣기 문제로 사전 평가를 치를 것이며 20 분 정도 걸릴 것입니다. 그 이후 학생들은 다양한 영어 억양으로 녹음된 수능 듣기 문제를 가지고 듣기 연습을 합니다. 학생들은 듣기 문제를 풀고 정답을 확인하며 풀었던 문제의 대본을 보면서 다시 한 번 듣는 과정을 거칠 것입니다. 이 과정은 수업 당 15 분 정도 소요될 예정이며 3 주간 7 회동안 진행됩니다. 이후 학생들은 다양한 영어 억양으로 녹음 된 수능문제로 사후 평가를 치루게 되며 약 20 분 걸릴 것입니다. 그리고 마지막 날에는 다양한 억양으로 녹음된 실제 듣기 상황 자료를 가지고 또 한 번의 사후 평가를 치를 것이고 이는 약 15 분 소요됩니다. 마지막으로 학생들은 약 10 분간 한 가지 설문조사를 하게됩니다. 이 연구의 총 예상 소요 기간은 3 주입니다.

자녀분의 연구 참여는 자발적으로 이루어집니다. 만약 학부모님께서 자녀가 참여하기를 원하지 않으시거나 연구 중간에 언제든지 빠지길 원하시더라도, 학생에게 가는 불이익은 전혀 없고 성적에 영향을 미치지도 않습니다. 마찬가지로 학생 본인이 참여를 원하지 않거나 중간에 연구에서 빠지더라도 학생이 받는 불이익은 전혀 없습니다. 본 연구의 결과는 논문으로 출판될 것이지만, 자녀분의 이름은 사용되지 않을 것입니다.

비록 직접적인 혜택은 없지만, 이 연구에 참여함으로써 학생들은 다양한 영어 억양을 듣는 연습을 할 수 있고, 이 연습은 학생들이 미래에 영어로 의사소통을

하는데 도움이 될 것입니다. 학교의 정규 수업시간에 진행이 될 것이기 때문에 학생들이 겪는 불편은 없을 것입니다.

평가 결과와 설문조사 응답이 자료로 사용될 것이며, 자료 분석은 익명처리 된 자료를 가지고 이루어질 것입니다. 또한 이름, 소속 등과 같은 모든 개인 정보는 익명처리 될 것이며 외부에 공개되지 않을 것입니다. 본 연구를 통해 모아진 자료는 제 박사 논문에 학술적 목적으로만 사용될 것입니다. 추후 박사 논문의 일부가 학술지에 개제되거나 학술대회에서 발표될 수 있습니다.

혹시 본 연구에 대한 질문이나 자녀의 연구 참여에 대한 질문이 있으실 경우 Dr. Mark James (+1 (480) 965-2731 / Mark.A.James@asu.edu) 나 저에게 (+1 (480) 330-3734 (미국) or +82 (10) 2278-7743 (한국) / jlee540@asu.edu) 연락주십시오.

감사합니다
이준원 드림

이곳에 서명하심으로써, 학부모님께서는 부모님의 자녀 _____ (자녀 이름)이 위의 연구에 참여하는 것에 대한 동의를 하시게 됩니다.

_____ _____ 2022 년 ____월 ____일

서명 성함 날짜

본 연구에 관한 질문이나 자녀의 연구의 참여자로서의 권리에 관한 질문이 있으시거나, 혹은 학부모님이나 자녀가 위험에 처한 것 같다고 생각이 되시면 the Office of Research Integrity and Assurance 를 통해 Chair of the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board 에 연락주시길 바랍니다. (+1 (480) 965-6788).

APPENDIX B

PARTICIPANT ASSENT FORM

한국 학생들의 다양한 영어 억양에 대한 듣기 능력 증진 실험

안녕하세요 저는 애리조나 주립대학교에서 Dr. Mark James 교수의 지도하에 Department of English에서 박사과정 중인 이준원입니다.

현재 저는 한국 학생들이 다양한 영어 억양을 듣고 이해하는데 도움이 되는 방법을 연구 중이며, 학생 여러분의 참여를 부탁드립니다. 본 연구에서는 학생들이 다양한 영어 억양으로 듣기 연습을 했을 때, 듣기 능력이 향상되는지를 연구하고 있습니다. 학생의 부모님께서 이미 학생의 연구 참여를 허락하셨습니다.

본 연구는 정규 수업시간에 이루어지며 참여는 자발적으로 이루어집니다. 동의하시는 경우, 과거 치루어진 실제 수능과 비슷한 영어 듣기 평가를 풀게 됩니다. 첫 번째 평가 이후, 참여자는 수업 시간에 다양한 억양으로 녹음 된 듣기 문제를 풀고 정답을 확인하면서 그 문제들의 대본을 보게 됩니다. 모든 평가가 끝난 후에는 설문조사를 해 주셔야 합니다. 참여자에 대한 모든 정보는 익명으로 처리됩니다.

본 연구 참여자는 자발적으로 이루어집니다. 혹시 참여를 하지 않는다고 해도 누구도 참여를 강요하지 않습니다. 연구에 참여했더라도, 연구에서 빠지고 싶은 경우 언제든지 빠질 수 있습니다. 또한 언제든지 연구에 대해 질문하실 수 있습니다.

연구에 참여하기로 하시면, 저는 본 연구에서 참여자가 어떻게 응답하거나 행동했는지는 누구에게도 말하지 않을 것입니다. 선생님이나 부모님께서 요청하셔도, 참여자의 응답은 공개되지 않습니다.

혹시 본 연구에 대한 질문이나 연구 참여에 대한 질문이 있으실 경우 Dr. Mark James (+1 (480) 965-2731 / Mark.A.James@asu.edu) 나 저에게 (+1 (480) 330-3734 (미국) or +82 (10) 2278-7743 (한국) / jlee540@asu.edu) 연락주십시오.

아래에 사인 하시면, 이 동의서를 읽으셨고 연구에 참여하길 원하는 것으로 간주됩니다.

참여자 서명:_____

참여자 이름:_____

연구자 서명:_____

날짜: 2022년_____월_____일

APPENDIX C

LANGAUGE BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Language background questionnaire

1. Age (in years):
2. Education (degree obtained or school level attended):
3. Country and city of origin:
4. Country of current residence:
5. If questions 3 and 4 are different, how long have you been in the country of your current residence?
6. What is your native language or languages? At what age did you begin to learn each?
7. How have you learned English up to this point? (check all that apply)

__Through formal classroom instruction

__Through interacting with people

__Online from chatting, messaging, or emailing

__From TV, music, or movies

__Other, specify:

8. In a typical day, which languages do you use at what percent?

Language _____: <25% 25% 50% 75% 100%

Language _____: <25% 25% 50% 75% 100%

Language _____: <25% 25% 50% 75% 100%

9. Which languages do you use in the following activities?

Listening to radio, watching TV or movies:

Reading for work:

Reading on the internet:

Writing emails to or chatting with friends:

Reading news:

Writing papers or assignments:

10. Which languages did you learn or receive instruction in at these levels?

Primary/Elementary School: _____

Secondary/Middle School: _____

High School: _____

College/University: _____

11. If you have lived or traveled in other countries for more than three months, please indicate the name(s) of the country or countries, your length of stay, and the language(s) you learned or tried to learn.

12. Is there anything else that you feel is interesting or important about your language background that you'd like me to know?

<Source: https://dept.writing.wisc.edu/wac/student-questionnaire-on-language-background/>

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

ID:

(ID를 만들 때, 어머니의 성과 본인 휴대폰 번호 마지막 3자리를 합쳐서 만들어 주세요. 예시) 어머니 성함: 김영희, 본인 휴대폰 번호: 010-123-4567 -> 김567)

1. 사후 시험 1을 준비하면서, 수업시간에 한 다양한 영어 억양을 듣는 연습이 미국 억양만 듣는 것보다 더 도움이 되었다고 생각하십니까?
1) 매우 그렇다 2) 조금 그렇다 3) 잘 모르겠다 4) 조금 그렇지 않다 5) 전혀 그렇지 않다

2. 사후 시험 1에는 듣기 연습 때 들어보지 못 한 억양이 포함이 되어있었습니다. 다양한 영어 억양 듣기 연습이 시험에서 처음 듣는 억양을 이해하는데 도움이 되었습니까?
1) 매우 그렇다 2) 조금 그렇다 3) 잘 모르겠다 4) 조금 그렇지 않다 5) 전혀 그렇지 않다

3. 사후 시험 2를 준비하면서 수업시간에 한 다양한 영어 억양을 듣는 연습이 미국 억양만 듣는 것보다 더 도움이 되었다고 생각하십니까?
1) 매우 그렇다 2) 조금 그렇다 3) 잘 모르겠다 4) 조금 그렇지 않다 5) 전혀 그렇지 않다

4. 다양한 영어 억양을 들으며 듣기 연습을 한 것이 미국 억양만 듣는 것보다 전체적인 듣기 실력 향상에 더 도움이 되었다고 생각하십니까?

그렇다 2) 조금 그렇다 3) 잘 모르겠다 4) 조금 그렇지 않다 5) 전혀 그렇지 않다

5. 시험을 위한 듣기 능력이 아닌 일반적인 듣기 능력을 향상시키는데 있어서 다양한 영어 억양을 듣는 것이 중요하다고 생각하십니까?
1) 매우 중요하다 2) 중요하다 3) 보통 4) 중요하지 않다 5) 전혀 중요하지 않다

6. 국제적인 의사소통 능력을 기르기 위해서 학교 수업시간에 다양한 영어 억양을 들어야 한다고 생각하십니까?
1) 매우 그렇다 2) 조금 그렇다 3) 잘 모르겠다 4) 조금 그렇지 않다 5) 전혀 그렇지 않다