

## **Attitudes towards English Language Norms in the Expanding Circle: Development and Validation of a new Model and Questionnaire**

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### **Abstract**

This paper describes the development and validation of a new model and questionnaire to measure Iranian English as a foreign language learners' attitudes towards the use of native versus non-native English language norms. Based on a comprehensive review of the related literature and interviews with domain experts, five factors were identified. A draft version of a questionnaire based on those five factors containing 40 items for assessing learners' attitudes towards norms was designed. The draft version was piloted with a group of 273 Iranian learners and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the obtained data indicated that five factors could be extracted. Then the fitness of the model was checked through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) through the administration of the questionnaire to another group of 554 Iranian English language learners. The result of CFA revealed that the model enjoyed a satisfactory level of fitness indices, meaning that the five-factor structure including *linguistic instrumentalism, communicativity, ethnorelativity, language maintenance, and linguistic prestige* was not due to random variance.

**Keywords:** English language norms, native versus non-native norms, English as a foreign language, attitude measurement, questionnaire development

## 1. Introduction

The expansion of English use worldwide has provoked heated debate over the norms second language (L2) speakers and learners should follow when communicating in English. For many years conforming to native-speaker norms or Standard English has been the common practice in language pedagogy. However, with the advent of concepts and models such as *English as a global language* (Crystal, 2003; Gnutzmann, 1999), *English as an international language* (Jenkins, 2000), *world Englishes* (Jenkins, 2006; Kachru, 1985, 1990), and *English as a lingua franca* (House, 1999; Seidlhofer, 2001) this native speaker model which presumes that non-native speaker norms are inferior to native-speaker norms has come under fire on the grounds that localized norms should be taken up to suit the needs of the local communities (Canagarajah, 2006). But this matter has not been settled yet; therefore, there has been an inconclusive debate on whether the native English norms should be adopted or not.

To contribute to this debate, the present study was conducted to gain EFL learners' perspective on the issue of native versus non-native speaker norms. There were two motives behind this study; first to come up with a tentative model of attitudes towards norms, and second, to construct an instrument to allow for the quantification of the construct and consequently, its empirical investigation. The following sections will provide a background to the concept of norms and details of the development and validation of the questionnaire.

## 2. Review of Literature

English as a world language is now increasingly used for international and intercultural communication and can be considered as the most leading foreign language, enjoying great prestige in many countries around the world. With the global spread of English, the number of English speakers has been increasing, and the continual contact with this language has popularized English as an international language (EIL), as well as a pluralistic view of English, referred to as world Englishes. As

Seidlhofer (2011) points out, “nobody is likely to deny that English has, in one way or another, in some shape or form, become a global lingua franca in the contemporary world” (p. ix).

Recently, with the globalization of English, a considerable literature has grown up around the theme of English language norms which should be adopted while communicating in English, and furthermore, for pedagogical purposes. Traditionally, it has been argued that the standard varieties of British or American English should be the only acceptable model for English language use and pedagogy (see for example Quirk, 1985, 1990). In recent years, however, this view has been called into question by prominent figures in the field of world Englishes, EIL, and English as a lingua franca (ELF) (see for example Jenkins, 2003, 2004, 2006, 2007; Kachru, 1985, 1992, 2005; Kirkpatrick 2002, 2006, 2007a, 2007b; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2004, 2006). The following sections will present some of the existing arguments in the literature for and against native norms.

### **2.1 Arguments in favor of native English norms**

Radolf Quirk (1985, 1990), one of the firm supporters of this view, suggests that non-native varieties of English are inadequately-learned versions of *correct* native English forms and called them *interference varieties*. He believes that these varieties are incomplete or imperfect and are, therefore, distorted forms of Standard English. Quirk (1990) contends that the only legitimate model which should be followed in instructional context is British or American English, otherwise known as Standard English. He brings forward the argument that English learners from different parts of the world have little knowledge of this language, since English is unfamiliar to them and, hence, they’re expected to be taught Standard English. He calls the alternative models to Standard English *half-baked quackery* because learners are not in favor of such models.

Kuo (2006) puts forth several arguments which challenge conforming to English-as-a-Franca-language (ELF) norms in pedagogical

settings. Kuo (2006) believes that in the ELF approach, as far as communication is sustained, errors in grammatical, phonological, and morphological aspects of language are not worth noticing. He clarifies that this viewpoint challenges the nature of the language learning process because noticing the errors in different aspects of language drives the language learning process. The second argument put forward by Kuo (2006) is the reliance of ELF approach on the frequency counts to design pedagogical syllabuses for language teaching. Constructions which conform to native norms but do not occur in non-native speakers' discourse are ignored; therefore, the learners are provided with an imperfect command of the language system as far as frequency of occurrence is the point of departure for presenting language to the learners. The last argument provided by Kuo (2006) is the status of English as a criterion for different professional and educational decisions in both international and intra-national settings. Accordingly, the role of English goes beyond merely the language of international communication, the language in which the learners should achieve a degree of proficiency to reveal their qualities and seize academic and professional opportunities. It follows that, relying solely on an ELF approach which emphasizes international intelligibility as the most important yardstick in English learning and teaching cannot provide the learners with a comprehensive model of language learning in order to satisfy both international intelligibility and intra-national requirements.

According to Scheuer (2008), adopting ELF norms marginalizes non-native speakers from native-speaker community since this view implies that "we should not intervene in the matters of EIL since it is neither our property nor our business" (p.112). He claims that non-native speakers do not consider native norms as irrelevant to their language usage; therefore, "native speakers cannot ever be deemed irrelevant to the fate of 'their' language since it is their phonetic behavior that is likely to set standards" (p.113). Trudgill (2008) criticizes Jenkin's (2000) phonological lingua franca core which is based on intelligibility between non-native speakers from different mother tongues on two grounds. First,

EIL learners do not merely communicate with non-native speakers of English and are not solely exposed to World Englishes and non-native varieties of English, but from time to time they need to understand native English. Second, it is not possible to predict with absolute certainty that particular English learners will be EIL users. In the future, they may need to use English, following Kachru term, in *inner circle countries* (Kachru, 1983). Trudgill (2008) has also criticized Jenkin's (2000) assertion that "L1 speakers of English are only more intelligible than L2 speakers of English to other L1 speakers" (p.159) on the basis of the evidence from the studies in the literature (see for example Bent and Bradlow, 2003; Van Wijngaarden, Steeneken, & Houtgast, 2002).

## 2.2 Arguments against the use of native-speaker norms

Munro (2008) flatly rejects emphasizing native norms, specifically in respect of accent and pronunciation. He argues that foreign accentedness is a part of normal variation in speech. Furthermore, intelligibility rather than native accent should be the goal of language pedagogy; consequently, emphasizing accent reduction is not desirable because it does not automatically lead to communication enhancement. Munro (2008) mentions maturational constraints in second or foreign language learning as another reason for impracticality of seeking native accents. In the same vein, Kachru and Nelson (2006) point out that the importance of international intelligibility makes the task of reaching native proficiency unnecessary and redundant

Widdowson (1994) believes that, due to rise of English as a global language, native speakers are not the sole owners of English and rejects the notion of native-speakerism. Thus, English language "is going to be influenced by those who speak it as a second or foreign language as by those who speak it as a mother tongue" (Crystal, 2006, p.432). Widdowson (1994) criticizes the supporters of native English norms or *custodians of Standard English* because of their concern about diversity of English which divides the language into unintelligible varieties. He acknowledged that English is an international language which is utilized

for a wide array of activities in different institutions and scientific fields around the world. Thus, we cannot confine it to a standard framework, especially in terms of lexis because different specialized words are introduced regularly into English language by different disciplines which may be unintelligible to other disciplines. Naturally, communicative practices among different disciplines are mutually unintelligible; hence, the attempt to establish a Standard English which is intelligible to everyone and everywhere would be in vain.

According to Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (2001), one of the problematic notions is the *socially constructed* concept of native speaker which is based on the assumption that national origin is the main criterion for categorizing speakers as native or non-native. According to this view, English native speakers maintain such inherent and natural qualities and skills that no other speakers of English on the planet, following Kachru's (1983) terms outer circle and expanding circle countries, possess. Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (2001) argue that the socially constructed concept of native speaker is problematic because it is fixed and immutable as a static model of language acquisition with no provision for change in the future. Basing the concept of *nativeness* on national origin and naturalness means that no one can be called native speaker and no one can achieve native proficiency except those who are born in inner-circle countries and, hence, "the non-native speaker is conceived as a permanent language learner" (p.104) who is deprived of any authority in the English language.

Kachru (1985) rejects the notions of standardization or models and proposed that native norms and forms are irrelevant for non-native speakers of English because "the native speakers of this language seem to have lost the exclusive prerogative to control its standardization; in fact, if current statistics are any indication, they have become a minority" (30). Cook (1999) comes up with the notion of *multicompetence* and defines it as the sum of the knowledge of both L1 and L2 for a second language user. L2 users have already mastered their mother tongue and, hence, know one language; from there on they are totally different from native

speakers of English. Based on this argument it is not logical to judge L2 users proficiency based on native-speaker model because multicompetent L2 users differ from monolingual native speakers, thereupon “L2 users should be treated as people in their own right, not as deficient native speakers” (195).

### **2.3 Studies on learners’ attitudes towards norms**

Over the course of past decades, there has been a growing amount of literature on the topic of learners’ attitudes towards native or non-native model of English language. Since the purpose of the current study is to develop a new model and construct a new questionnaire, studies on the topic of learners’ preference for norms and varieties of English with an emphasis on the questionnaires used in these studies are reviewed here.

Tukumoto and Shibita (2011) examined Japanese, Korean, and Malaysian students’ attitudes towards their L1 accented English using a 12-item likert-scale questionnaire. The students differed in their acceptance of their accents. Malaysian students approved their accented English, while Korean and Japanese students preferred native English pronunciation. Moore and Bounchan (2010) utilized a 26-question survey to investigate Cambodian learners’ attitudes towards Cambodian English, as well as learning different varieties of English. The results of the study revealed that the students perceived English as important for the development of Cambodia; moreover, 47 percent of the students believed that *Cambodian English* existed, while 52 percent perceived that it did not. With regard to their perception of different varieties of English, most of the students expressed their preference for Standard American English.

He and Zhang (2010) made use of a 2-item questionnaire adapted from Timmis (2002) to measure learners’ attitudes towards native or non-native pronunciation and grammar models. They collected data from 984 college students in different parts of China. The results revealed that native-speaker model is desirable in Chinese universities.

Scales et al. (2006) employed a survey accent to analyze the learners' and native speakers' perceptions towards American, British, Chinese, and Mexican English. The participants were asked to rate different accents on a four-point scale using 10 descriptors. Based on the data analysis, about half of the learners preferred American accent, and furthermore, the Mexican accent was the least preferred one.

Subtirelu (2013) used a modified version of Timmis (2002) questionnaire to evaluate 8 English learners' attitudes from China and Saudi Arabia towards native-speaker norms. The questionnaire consisted of 4 items on grammar and 4 items on pronunciation. The results of the study revealed that students' preferences changed over time; therefore, learners' preferences were not static and developed and adjust based on the context. At the first data collection point, learners preferred native models; however, this tendency changed as they spent more time in USA. Timmis (2002) used a 2-item questionnaire on grammar and pronunciation to survey learners from 45 countries about their norm preferences. In regard to both grammar and pronunciation, most of the learners wanted to conform to native norms. However, learners from India, Pakistan, and Africa showed more tendencies towards non-native norms especially in terms of pronunciation.

All things considered, it should be mentioned that previous published studies have used questionnaires which have not been validated and have not been based on any developed model of learners' preference towards English language norms. The current study was carried out to probe learners' preference for native versus non-native speaker's norms through using a new methodological technique. A new model of English language norms was developed, based on which a Likert-scale questionnaire was constructed to investigate learners' attitudes towards native versus non-native English language norms.

### **3. Theoretical Framework**

Constructing a valid and reliable questionnaire involves a number of rigorous and iterative steps. However, we can't help noticing that



developing a model which encompasses the relevant components, based on which the items of the questionnaire will be designed, is a prerequisite for constructing such a questionnaire. And the steps taken in the current study are also as follows.

Initially, a comprehensive review of the previous works and theories was conducted in order to establish a theoretical framework. One of the theories informing this study is the theory of attitude, especially language attitude (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Baker, 1992; Fasold, 1984; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Garrett, 2010). Gardner and Lambert (1972) mentioned different motivational and attitudinal factors as the determinants of language learning. Principally, motivation and attitude, based on their model, fall into two different clusters of orientation which Gardner and Lambert (1972) classified as *instrumental* and *integrative* orientation respectively defined as *instrumental*, i.e., learning the language as an instrument to achieve practical goals, and *integrative*, i.e., learning the language out of interest in or desire to identify with the target culture.

Besides the concept of attitude which lies at the heart of this study, globalization and its consequences for language learning and teaching (Block & Cameron, 2002; Crystal, 1997) can be informative to the understanding of attitudes towards English language norms. No one can deny the effect of globalization on status of different languages around the world. Crystal (1997) argues that achieving a global status for a language depends largely on a special role that language develops, which is recognized in every country.

Closely linked to the concept of globalization is the observation that non-native speakers of English in some parts of the world have adopted their local varieties English instead of native norms; hence, the works in the field of *English as an international language* (Jenkins, 2000), *world Englishes* (Jenkins, 2006; Kachru, 1985, 1990), *English as a global language* (Crystal, 2003; Gnutzmann, 1999), *English as a world language* (Mair, 2003), *World English* (Brutt-Griffler, 2002), and *English as a lingua franca* (House, 1999; Seidlhofer, 2001) are helpful in gaining

an insight into the learners' attitudes towards language norms. These concepts and models have been proposed because of the common observation that learning and teaching a foreign language has long been predicted on the distinction between native and non-native speakers and standard and non-standard forms. So three crucial and interconnected concepts and theories which should be taken into consideration for the current study are *native speakerism*, *standard English movement*, and *native-speaker versus non-native speaker dichotomy* (Holliday, 2005; Kachru, 1985, 1990; Llorca, 2004; Medgyes, 1994; Quirk, 1985, 1990).

One of the important issues brought up while discussing the native-speaker versus non-native speaker dichotomy and Standard English is *intelligibility* concern. So Theories and works on intelligibility (Derwing & Munro, 2005; Jenkins, 2000; Smith & Nelson, 1985) are also useful in developing an understanding of native versus non-native norms and attitudes towards them. The most influential model of intelligibility-in-general or understanding is Smith's (1992) tripartite conceptualization which consists of *intelligibility* (the listener's ability to recognize individual words or utterances), *comprehensibility* (the listener's ability to understand the meaning of a word or an utterance in its given context), and *interpretability* (the listener's ability to understand the speaker's intentions behind a word or an utterance).

Finally, Language has always been used as a mark of social characteristics. So one component of the model is related to how people consider the social status in relation to the language variety they use. Relevant theories of this component are accent prestige theory (Fuertes, Potere, & Ramirez, 2002) pronunciation attitudes based on the works in the literature (Garrett, 2010; Jenkins, 2007).

### 3.1 Definition of components

**Linguistic instrumentalism:** This component is concerned with the belief that utilitarian goals such as economic development can be achieved by communicating in particular languages and is linked with the concept of instrumental orientation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Gardner

defines instrumental motivation as “learning a language because of someone or less clearly perceived utility it might have for the learner” (1983, p.203). Some people are of the opinion that they can get to be highly successful in many ways like finding a far better job, achieving academic success and the like provided that they have a great competence in a foreign language particularly in an international one like English.

**Ethnorelativity:** This component is defined as the desire on the part of language learners to look like native-speakers of English and strike up a relationship with them through using English as authentically as possible without giving up their own cultural beliefs, which is closely associated with integrative orientation in language learning (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Integrative orientation refers to a desire to take on attributes of other groups, such as their language (Gardner, 2005), though not necessarily to become a group member. A person may try to sound like speakers of a language because of positive attitudes he/she holds towards the speakers of that language or cultural beliefs of them. This component has also been adapted from the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity. Bennett (1993, 1998). Bennett (1998) has organized the developmental stages of increasing intercultural sensitivity into two general categories: ethnocentric and ethnorelative stages. In ethnorelative stage individuals experience their own culture “in the context of other cultures” (Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003, p.425).

**Communicativity:** This component is related to the degree of communicative effectiveness achieved through using different varieties of a language. Said another way, whether using native or non-native English norms makes a difference in speech comprehensibility or not. It is based on the concept of *intelligibility* (Jenkins, 2000; Smith & Nelson, 1985) and used in its broadest sense to mean both “intelligible production and felicitous interpretation of English” (Nelson 1995, p.274) in terms of linguistic properties including grammatical, phonological, and morphological aspects of language. Nelson notes that “being intelligible

means being understood by an interlocutor at a given time in a given situation” (1982, p.59).

**Language prestige:** It refers to people’s judgement about a speaker’s social statuses such as education and intelligence, made on the basis of a language or a language variety used by those speakers. It is based on the concept of linguistic prestige in sociolinguistic, which is defined as the social value attached by people to different languages, dialects or features of languages. According to accent prestige theory, people use a speaker’s accent or specific dialect or variety of a language as a cue for judging the characteristics of the people (Fuertes, Potere, & Ramirez, 2002).

**Language maintenance:** For the purpose of this article, it is defined as preserving the linguistic properties of English language and protecting them against any change. Conformity to conventions and maintaining the stability of English language lies at the heart of this component which has its root in *linguistic purism* or *protectionism*. According to Thomas (1991), purism “is the manifestation of a desire on the part of a speech community (or some section of it) to preserve a language form, or rid it of, putative foreign elements or other elements held to be undesirable” (12).

#### 4. Method

To construct the questionnaire, standard processes which are usually used in the field of language learning and social sciences were followed (Dörnyei, 2003; Oppenheim, 1998). The first stage was to scrutinize the literature related to attitude, norms, EIL, ELF, World Englishes, and related areas which formed the point of departure for designing the questionnaire to extract the variables and components significant to the concept of attitudes toward the English language norms. After a thorough investigation of the related literature, a number of semi-structure interviews were conducted with professors of applied linguistics and PhD students to confirm the results obtained from the previous stage. The content analysis of the interviews verified the findings gained through

examination of the related literature regarding the relevant components and variables.

#### **4.1 Questionnaire development and preparation**

The first step in the process of developing and validating a questionnaire is to generate a pool of potential items to assess the construct under question (Dörnyei, 2003). To serve this purpose, the existing surveys and questionnaires on topics of EIL, ELF, attitudes towards the English language norms, and other related issues were thoroughly examined to recognize the potential items. It should be mentioned that no validated Likert-scale type instrument and questionnaire were found in the literature to measure the perception of the learners towards the native versus non-native speaker norms. These steps led to the construction of 45 items by the researchers.

The items were subjected to expert judgment by 5 PhD students and professors of applied linguistics. The domain experts were asked to give their opinions about the face validity and clarity of the items. They also commented on the content of the items and were asked to add items deemed appropriate to the questionnaire. Taking experts' judgment and comments into account, the researchers ended up with 40 items. Also, non-experts were asked to give their suggestions about the items to make sure that items are understandable and did not include any vague concept.

To ascertain that the items could be perfectly understood by low proficiency learners, the final product was translated into Persian by a PhD candidate of applied linguistics who was a native speaker of Persian and then back-translated into English to ensure parallelism between the English and the Persian version. Clear explanation on the purpose of the questionnaire was provided and incorporated at the beginning of the questionnaire. A demography eliciting information on the age, gender, proficiency level, educational level, and the length of English study of the respondents was also included in the questionnaire.

After writing the items, the researchers decided to employ a 6-option Likert-scale model including *strongly agree*, *agree*, *slightly agree*,

*slightly disagree, disagree and strongly disagree*. The rating scale was described and explained in detail. Some people tend to choose no idea option frequently in five-option model because of conservativeness. Using a six option model alleviate the problem of avoidance in answering the items. To evade the problem of item bias order, the items in the questionnaire were randomized; furthermore, the redundant phrase *if I use Standard English* was removed from the beginning of each item and used as a prompt on the upper left hand of the related items.

#### **4.2 Participants**

The participants were Iranian EFL learners studying at either private language institutes or universities. The learners to whom the questionnaire was administered were both male and female, of different ages, and proficiency levels. Their English proficiency levels included elementary (18%), pre-intermediate (20%), intermediate (20%), upper-intermediate (25%), and advanced (17%) levels. The draft and the final versions of the questionnaire were administered in two phases to 273 and 554 learners in 5 and 7 cities in Iran, respectively. A cadre of experts including professors of applied linguistics and PhD students of applied linguistics in Iranian state university was consulted in all stages of the study. The researchers interviewed them while extracting the components of the model after literature review and sought their comments on the wording and suitability of the written items.

#### **4.3 Data collection**

The administration procedure was the same for all the participants and in both phases. In each of the administration sessions, one of the researchers was present to explain the purpose of the questionnaire to the participants and clarify any vague points. To have an on-line evaluation of the learners' attitudes towards the native-speaker and non-native speaker English language norms, the participants were asked to fill out the questionnaire while they were in the classroom to prevent from any external factors biasing the results of the study.

#### 4.4 Data analysis

The main statistical procedures utilized in the current study were the ones commonly used in factor analytic framework to validation. The goal of validity process is to determine whether a questionnaire measures what it purports to measure (Bryman & Cramer, 1997). While this can be difficult to prove, demonstrating the validity of an instrument is of utmost importance, especially in questionnaire development. The most important type of validity in designing a questionnaire is construct validity which relates to how well the items in the questionnaire represent the underlying conceptual structure or put another way, in construct validation we try to determine that performance on an assessment instrument “is consistent with predictions that we make on the basis of a theory of abilities, or constructs” (Bachman, 1990, p.255). This study followed a factor analytic framework to construct validation consisting of two levels analysis of data including *exploratory factor analysis* (EFA) and *confirmatory factor analysis* (CFA). EFA is used to detect the factors or latent variables underlying a specific construct. In other words, EFA “explores the field, to discover the main constructs or dimensions” (Kline, 2004, p.7). In EFA, the researchers may not have any idea about the number of factors or dimensions in the instrument. Even if some expectations have been created beforehand regarding factors, the statistical analysis is not affected by such expectations (Thompson, 2004). In summary, EFA is suitable where the nature of data is convoluted and it is indeterminate what the most crucial variables are.

CFA, as the name suggests, is used to confirm whether the recognized factor structure and the hypothesized model are confirmed or not. In CFA “based upon previous studies or on relevant theory, factor loadings for the variables are hypothesized. It then proceeds to fit these loadings in the target matrix, as it is called, as closely as possible” (Kline, 2004, p.10). CFA, unlike exploratory factor analysis, requires that the researchers possess predetermined expectations regarding the number of factors, representation of factors by variables, and the possibility of correlation among factors (Thompson 2004).

## 5. Results

### 5.1 Reliability check

To check the internal consistency of the questionnaire and the individual factors, a set of Cronbach alphas were computed. This computation was based on the first administration of the questionnaire, which is elaborated in the following sections. According to Dörnyei (2003), measures higher than 0.7 are considered suitable. The results of the calculation revealed that Cronbach alpha for whole questionnaire was 0.9 which was well above the acceptable level, showing a high amount of consistency among the items of the questionnaire. The Cronbach alphas for the individual components were 0.81, 0.75, 0.75, 0.74, and 0.69. The correlations among components ranged from 0.039 to 0.352 (Table 1).

Table 1. Factor correlations

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
1	1				
2	.256	1			
3	.352	.249	1		
4	.039	.165	.118	1	
5	.265	.169	.150	.100	1

### 5.2 Determining the factor structure

To determine the factor structure of the questionnaire, EFA of the first set of data gathered through the administration of the draft version of the questionnaire was carried out. To run factor analysis, a set of requirements should be met to prove the suitability of the data for factor analytic procedure. The most important statistical tests which should be carried out before factor analysis are Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of sample adequacy and the Bartlett’s test of Sphericity (Pallant, 2011). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .82 which is above the minimum required level of .60 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) and the Bartlett’s test of Sphericity was significant at  $p < .001$ . Both indices supported the suitability of the data for factor analytic procedure. All variables communalities were greater than 0.3, so they were at acceptable level.



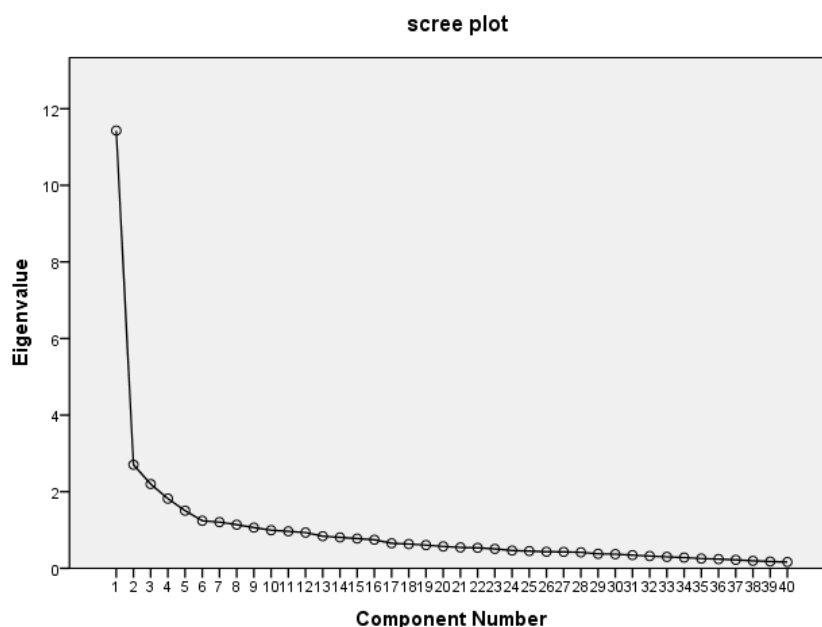


Figure 1. Scree plot indicating 5 factors

After the suitability of data for factor analysis was confirmed, several Principle component analyses (PCA) followed by Varimax rotation were run. To determine the number of factors, the Kaiser's criterion based on which only the Eigen values of 1.0 and more are acceptable were chosen. For the current questionnaire, the Scree plot in Figure 1 indicates 5 factors above Eigen value 1. The Scree plot indicates that 5 factors could be extracted based on the data, accounting for 48.89% of the total variance. The individual factors accounted for 11.30%, 10.79%, 9.53%, 9.19%, and 8.25% of the total variance respectively. The 5-factor solution was examined for the presence of any unacceptable items. Based on the results of PCA, as shown in Table 2, 10 items were discarded because they failed to load significantly on any of the factors. Cross loadings on some items including 5, 8, and 19 were observed. The researchers decided to keep these items on factors with higher loadings after asking for experts' opinion. The experts were professors of applied linguistics at Iranian state universities. The items which survived EFA are represented in Table 3.

Table 3. Factors and related items

Factor	Item	1	2	3	4	5
Linguistic Instrumentalism	(17)	.728				
	(24)	.644				
	(4)	.606				
	(6)	.587				
	(8)	.582				.416
	(25)	.580				
Communicativity	(1)		.651			
	(27)		.551			
	(38)		.532			
	33)		.487			
	(19)	.409	.477			
	(23)		.456			
Ethnovalidity	(11)			.676		
	(31)			.629		
	(37)			.604		
	(22)			.498		
Language Maintenance	(3)				.709	
	(13)				.703	
	(40)				.688	
	(36)				.665	
	(10)				.546	
	(32)				.494	
	(18)				.456	
	(20)				.454	
Linguistic Prestige	(30)					.757
	(28)					.676
	(34)					.614
	(5)	.329				.535
	(21)					.526
	(16)					.455

### 5.3 Testing the fitness of the model

Based on the findings of the EFA phase, a five-factor model of Iranian EFL learners' attitudes towards the English language norms was hypothesized and the five factors were labeled based on the shared

characteristics and commonalities. The factors included *linguistic instrumentalism*, *communicativity*, *ethnorelativity*, *language maintenance*, and *linguistic prestige* (see the appendix). This hypothetical model, then, had to be validated so that it could be used as a valid measurement instrument for measuring attitudes towards native versus non-native norms. At this stage, CFA was carried out on the confirmatory dataset. LISREL 8.7 was used to run the CFA phase on 554 filled-out questionnaires chosen for this phase.

The loadings between the indicators and latent factors as well as the covariance among the factors were all significant at  $\alpha = 0.01$  ( $p \leq 0.01$ ). The domain experts were consulted on the outcomes of CFA which confirmed the results. All T values exceeded 1.96 which reveals that all the factor loadings of the items and the correlations between factors are significant. To assess the fitness of the model, absolute fit indices were calculated. Table 4 represents the results of the indices.

Table 4. Selected Goodness-of-fit statistics for the final models

Fit index	Acceptable level	Observed level
$\chi^2/df$	$\leq 3$	2.21
RMSEA	$\leq 0.8$	0.067
CFI	$> 0.90$	0.928

Figure 2 shows the graphic representation of the model. Path coefficients are also put on the pathways from each latent variable to other latent or observable variables to show the strength of relation among the variables.

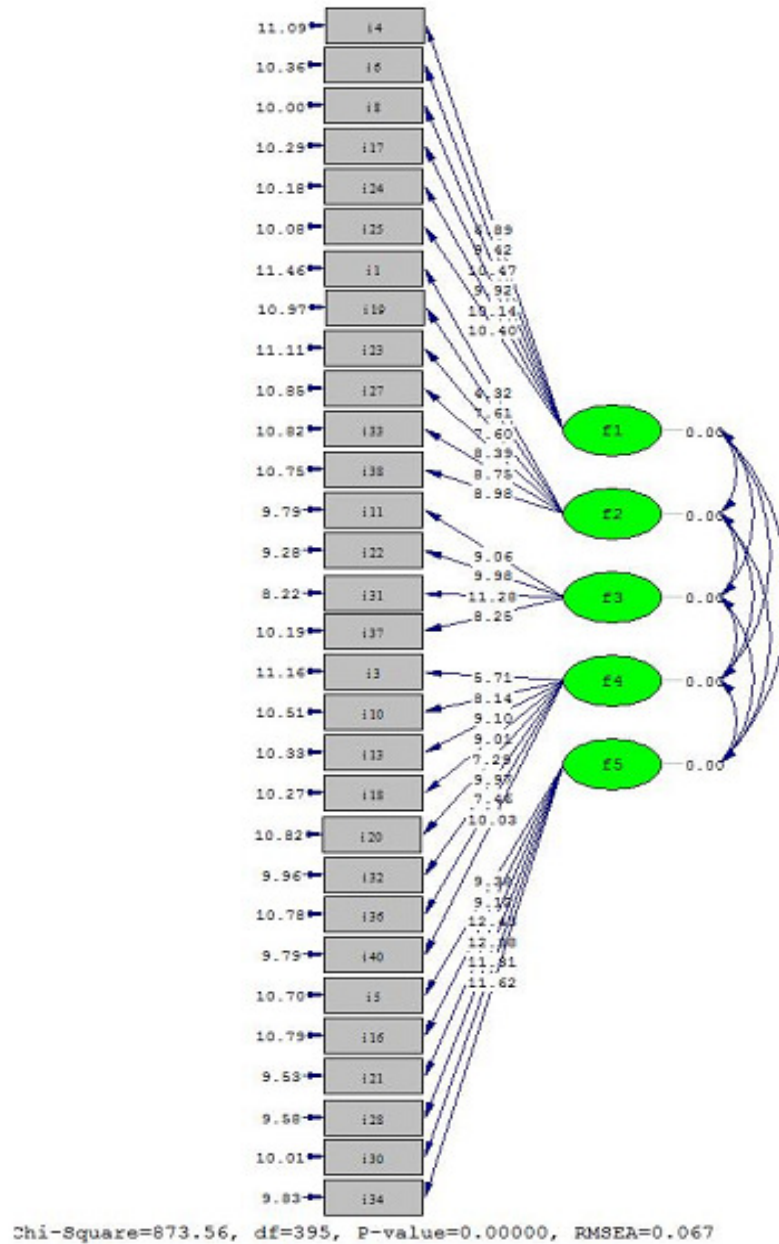


Figure 2. Final model

Note: F1, F2, F3, F4 and F5 are the factors identified in EFA.

## 6. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study discussed the development and validation of a model and questionnaire to tap the perceptions of Iranian EFL learners' attitudes towards the use of native and non-native English language norms. Following a standard procedure which included interview, literature review, item generation, reliability and validation check with two large and different samples of language learners, a model was hypothesized and a questionnaire was designed. The factor analysis procedure revealed a 5-factor model underlying the questionnaire: *linguistic instrumentalism, communicativity, ethnorelativity, language maintenance, and linguistic prestige*. The questionnaire enjoyed a reasonable level of reliability and validity and the fitness of the model was confirmed through the absolute fit indices. So the questionnaire and the model can be utilized for many pedagogical and research purposes.

In the literature on learners' attitudes towards English language norms, some studies (e.g., Moore & Bouchan, 2010; Timmis, 2002; Tokumoto & Shibita, 2011) have reported the use of questionnaires as the instrument for attitude measurement. Timmis (2002) developed and used a questionnaire to probe into the attitudes of language learners towards the use of English native speaker norms. He specifically focused on pronunciation and grammar. To find out how far students wanted to conform to native-speaker pronunciation and grammatical norms, Timmis utilized 2 and 3 quotations respectively. The quotations represented a few models which depicted native and non-native models of linguistic norms in terms of grammar and pronunciation. The learner was asked to choose from the two or three options one model he/she preferred to be like. The problem with Timmis' questionnaire is that it has not undergone rigorous validation; i.e., the reliability and validity of the questionnaire has been presumed without any validation undertaking. Further, Timmis utilized few quotations as the models in his questionnaires, which may not be representative of all the preferences students may have with regard to English norms.

Tokumoto and Shibita (2011) too designed a 12-item Likert-scale questionnaire to measure learners' attitudes towards native and non-native accent. Therefore, this instrument is limited to accent judgments and cannot be used to investigate learners' attitudes towards English linguistic norms in general. Besides this limitation, the questionnaire has not undergone the validation procedure. Finally, Moore and Bouchan (2010) developed a 26-item questionnaire to probe into the learners' perceptions regarding Cambodian English and Standard English. However, their questionnaire is narrowly and geographically focused since the wording of the items emphasizes Cambodian English, and therefore, it is restricted to a specific cultural and geographical context.

Unlike the above-mentioned instruments, the one developed in the current study has undertaken a rigorous and appropriate validation procedure; therefore, it can be considered as a reliable and valid measure of EFL learners' attitudes towards English norms. Another advantage of the current questionnaire over the existing ones is the development of a theoretical model based on which the questionnaire was developed. This is an improvement over the questionnaires previously used to measure learners' attitudes towards L2 norms as they have not usually developed based on coherent, sound theoretical frameworks.

Because the questionnaire developed in this study is the first validated Likert-scale type questionnaire of its own type which probes into EFL learners' attitudes towards norms, it can be of much use for studies of English language globalization around the world. Although the questionnaire has been developed in the Iranian context, the wordings of the items are written in a way that they can be used in new contexts and therefore are not geographically limited. On the other hand, we are aware that Iran is not prototypical of all learning contexts; yet, researchers and practitioners from other contexts can make use of the developed questionnaire through the judicious changes made based on specific contextual factors. The questionnaire could also provide some insights for language teachers to diagnose the learners' total awareness of English language norms. The results obtained from the use of the present

questionnaire might have macro implications in the form of curriculum adaptation and development, instructional design and language policy. It presents additional insights in better recognizing existing challenges and in taking a more realistic perspective about the ELT situation in Iran.

Validation is an ongoing, open-ended process (Bachman, 1990). One limitation of the study was that the researchers had to compromise between research practicality and generalizability and, thus, the number of the Iranian cities from which the required data were collected had to be restricted. To the extent that other Iranian cities were excluded from the process of data collection, the generalizability of the findings in the present study is restricted<sup>1</sup>. So, it is suggested that further validation studies be conducted on the questionnaire developed in this study, with a wider range of EFL learners, to more establish its generalizability. Further, to strengthen the rigor of the questionnaire for further research, the researchers recommend undertaking convergent and discriminant validity to examine the similarity and differences of the current questionnaire with other similar ones.

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## Appendix

### Questionnaire items and factors

1. Linguistic		<b>If I use standard English.....</b>
Instrumentalism	(17)	I will be more successful in international exams (TOEFL, IELTS, etc.).
	(24)	I can gain more updated knowledge.
	(4)	It will maximize my opportunity to immigrate to English-speaking countries.
	(6)	I will be more successful in my academic studies.
	(8)	It will maximize my opportunity to continue my education in international top universities.
	(25)	I feel more motivated to pursue English learning.
2. Communicativity		
	(1)	Nativized English causes communication problems among users of English.
	(27)	Standard English increases the degree of comprehensibility among speakers of English.
	(38)	If I use English as native speakers do, I will understand English texts better.
	(33)	If I use English as native speakers do, I will be able to understand English movies better.
	(19)	Nativized English results in mutually incomprehensible varieties of English.
	(23)	Standard English makes it possible to express ideas more clearly.
		<b>If I use standard English.....</b>
3. Ethnorelativity	(11)	I will be more welcome by native speakers of
	(31)	English.
	(37)	I will be more successful in making relationships
	(22)	with native speakers.
		I will be identified as a native speaker of English.
	(3)	I will become more familiar with cultural customs
	(13)	and norms of native speakers.
	(40)	
4. Language Maintenance	(36)	We cannot change the English language according
	(10)	to our own desire.
	(32)	Nativized English cannot be called English
	(18)	anymore.
	(20)	Nativized English is the corrupt form of Standard

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	English.
	(30) Nativized English sounds unnatural.
	(28) English language should be protected from any type
	(34) of change.
	(5) Standard English is the only right way to use
	(21) English.
	(16) Nativized English is incomplete.
5. Linguistic prestige	Nativized English is completely different from Standard English.
	<b>If I use English as native speakers do.....</b>
	I am perceived as more intelligent.
	I am perceived as more prestigious.
	I am perceived as more sophisticated.
	I am perceived as more educated.
	I am perceived as more superior.
	I am perceived as more modern.

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