Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen

Thesis

Arabic-accented English and its impact on Hiring Success

12th of July 2020

Toubasi, Lina
S1007510

Linag.e.toubasi@student.ru.nl

International Business Communication

Radboud University

Supervisor: dr. W.F.J van Meurs (Frank)

Second assessor: Evelyne Fruit

Abstract:

With the rise of globalization, the workplace is becoming very global and international and thus requires managers to consider employing non-native speakers. This study aimed to investigate the influence of Arabic-accented English on the evaluation of job applicants during an interview done by Dutch and German listeners and whether there is a difference between the strength of stereotypes associated to Arabs and Britons. Listeners were randomly assigned with one of the two-accents and were asked to evaluate the speaker as a job applicant on different variables by listening to a recorded speech sample. The results of this study showed that the Arabic-accented English speakers were evaluated more negatively and were seen as less hirable than the British-Accented English speakers. The results of the stereotype content model showed that Britons had higher stereotypes associated to them than Arabs.

Keywords: Accents, Arabic-accented English, British, evaluation, employability, stereotypes, globalization

Acknowledgement

First and foremost, I want to thank my supervisor dr. Frank van Meurs for his consistent support and guidance during the running of this study. You have greatly contributed over the past few months by guiding me, advising me, and supporting the writing of this thesis. I am beyond grateful for your constructive feedback on my work. It has been a pleasure learning from you and having you as a supervisor. Furthermore, I would like to thank the second assessor Professor Evelyne Fruit and Professor Berna Hendricks for taking the time to assess this thesis.

Moreover, I would like to thank the rest of the undergraduate research group for their collaborative effort in collecting the data. I would also like to take this opportunity to thank Radboud University for providing me with tremendous amount of knowledge, the enrichment I have gained from this institution is incomparable to any enrichment other institutions have provided me with.

Last but not least, I would like to express my gratitude towards my family and friends, especially my dear parents. You have always believed in me even when I doubted, your love is priceless to me. It has been tough writing this thesis during these uncertain times, however, those around me have supported me and were there for me through it all.

Introduction

Arabic-accented English and its impact on Hiring Success

With the rise of globalization and migration, people from different cultures and linguistic backgrounds are communicating more frequently and in various contexts. English is being chosen by many multinational companies as a lingua franca. As organizations are becoming more internationally oriented, employees with English skills are preferred. Accented English is a result of many people having English as their second language. Previous studies have shown that strong accents influence the evaluation of a speaker (Deprez-Sims and Morris, 2010) and that non-native speakers of a language are usually downgraded (Silwa and Johansson,2014). Additionally, studies have shown that minorities such as Arabs, are being discriminated against in their daily life as well as in the workplace (Derous, et al, 2009). However, there seems to be little focus on Arabic accents and their effect on employability when evaluated by non-native speakers.

This study will take a closer look at the role non-native accents play in the context of a workplace and if accents may influence the hiring process. More specifically, it will focus on whether non-native employers prefer British-accented English over Arabic-accented English and whether discrimination against Arabs occurs in the workplace based on their accent.

Theoretical Framework

One of the most political challenges the world is facing, especially Europe, is the influx of migrants and refugees. "Globally, one in every 122 human beings is now either a refugee, internally displaced or seeking asylum." (UNHCR, 2015). According to the UN Refugee Agency, there are currently 59.5 million people across the world who have been displaced. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) claims that more than one million refugees arrived by sea and almost 34,900 arrived by land in Europe in 2015 (IOM, 2019). Furthermore, immigrants have an important role in the growth of the economy and population of western societies (OECD, 2014). Some countries like Canada for example, focus on bringing highly skilled workers as they have been proved to benefit the economy of the country (Reitz, 2012)

The ongoing process of globalization is a main factor in international migration. The topics of international migration, refugees, and legal or undocumented immigrants have been a subject for debate in the United States (Portes & Rumbaut, 2006; Simon & Lynch, 1999) and around the world (Deaux, 2006a; Esses, Wagner, Wolf, Preiser, & Wilbur, 2006; Kessler & Freeman, 2005; Quillian, 1995). Migration matters are very complex, and the reasons for migration are multiple and range from climate conditions, to socioeconomic considerations, educational reasons, war and displacements, and to re-unite with family members (Girsberger, E. M. 2015). Despite the fact that migration has been happening for centuries, public attitudes in most countries toward immigrants and international migration are usually negative (Esses, Jackson, & Armstrong, 1998; Kessler & Freeman, 2005; Quillian, 1995; Simon & Lynch, 1999). One study also says that attitudes towards international students are relatively unfavourable (Spencer-Rodgers & McGovern, 2002). These negative attitudes and the downgrading of non-natives has been shown in the workplace too. A study by Reitz (2001) shows how rates of unemployment in Canada are much lower for native English speakers than for immigrants.

With the exponential rise of globalization and international migration, speakers of different languages have been communicating more in all areas of life, including the business world (Gerritsen & Nickerson, 2009). As a response, several multinational corporations (MNCs) may adopt a common corporate language in their workplace to maintain control and efficiency (Angouri, 2013), as well as to facilitate internal and external communication (Feely, 2003; Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999a; Nickerson, 2000). In the 21st century, the dominant language in international business has become English. (Crystal 2003, p. 140) even said: 'that English, in some shape or form, will find itself in the service of the world community for ever¨. In fact, it has become the 'natural choice' for communication in several multinational companies (Piekkari, Vaara, Tienari, & Säntti, 2005). Consequently, the demand for employees with English skills is on the rise (Fabo, Beblavý, & Lenaerts, 2017). Research has shown that non-native English speakers are more than English native speakers with a ratio of one to three (Crystal, 2003). This implies that globally, there is potentially a large number of non-natives who work in organizations were English is used as a working language. Some might have a strong non-native accent, which could result in them facing prejudices and stereotypes that are linked to their accent.

Before the ascent of globalization which led to accents being such an important factor, skin tone was a moderately dependable marker of whether outsiders have a place with the national ingroup or not. However, with many countries becoming increasingly multicultural, accents are being used to distinguish individuals from an outgroup (Sumantry, 2018). Edwards has defined an accent as a unique mode of sound production that is influenced by a speaker's dialect or native language (Edwards, 1997).

Considering the wide scope of global communication and the pervasiveness of accented English, it becomes essential to study the effect of accents on employability. Stereotypes and discrimination may be caused by accents, since they serve as cues for ethnic, cultural, or

linguistic membership (Levi, Winters & Pisoni, 2007). Research shows that there is a bias against foreign-accented applicants (Hosoda, Nguyen, & Stone-Romero, 2012). Additionally, previous research has shown that a positive correlation exists between English proficiency and higher wages (Brian Fabo, Miroslav Beblavý & Karolien Lenaerts, 2017).

A speaker's accent may trigger stereotypical thoughts and may act as a source of discrimination in the workplace and in other settings. It is very important to understand the impact of accents in a workplace and this is because it can be as salient for discrimination as race, gender, and skin colour (Deprez-Sims and Morris, 2010). A study by Silwa and Johansson (2014) on Greek and German speakers showed that an accent might trigger bias thoughts in job interviews. It has been shown that accents are detectable cues and reveal a person's origin quickly (Deprez-Sims & Morris, 2010). Deprez-Sims & Morris in a later study found that foreign accents lead to the perception of a person having lower skills and being less comprehensive in a language that is not their own (Deprez-Sims & Morris, 2013). Even though there are now more non-native speakers than there are native speakers, until this day speakers with accents are perceived to lack language proficiency skills regardless of their competence (Lindemann, 2002). This influences the reactions of the listeners towards the speakers, personality judgments, social decision-making, and compliance gaining (Giles & Billings, 2004).

As we have seen, accents may influence how a speaker is perceived, this is also reflected in the workplace. Deprez-Sims and Morris (2010) studied how accents may influence the evaluation of job applicants during an interview for the position of a human resource manager. For this study, the researchers used participants from the United States and asked them to evaluate applicants by listening to a recording with French, Midwestern US, and Colombian accents. The applicants were evaluated based on three dimensions: similarity, understandability, and accentedness. The findings of this study show that applicants with a

midwestern accent were evaluated more positively than those with a French accent, as the speakers with a French accent were perceived as less similar and less understandable. However, the applicants with the Colombian accent were not evaluated significantly different than French and Midwestern US applicants. Years later, the same authors conducted a very similar study with Mexican accented candidates rather than Colombian. In addition, the researchers introduced a path model to understand the accent condition–hiring recommendation relationship (Deprez-Sims & Morris, 2013). The participants were asked to evaluate the applicants based on perceived similarity, interpersonal attraction, and understandability. The results of this study are similar to the previous one, as they show that applicants with a midwestern US accent were evaluated as more suitable for hiring than French-accented applicants. On the other hand, this study did not show a significant effect of the Spanish accent on the evaluation of the applicant. The previously discussed studies claim that even though non-native accentedness was perceived more negative than native speech, it does not seem to have a huge impact on hiring success.

Although individual studies claim that variations in language use affect compliance-gaining, personality judgments, and interpersonal and intergroup behaviours and attitudes towards speakers (Nejjari, et al., 2012), a meta- analysis of general findings of many studies from across many years, could potentially provide a better and stronger evidence of this effect. The paper by Fuertes, Gottdiener, Martin, Gilbert, & Giles (2012) reports a meta-analysis of empirical literature consisting of 20 studies that were used to research the effects of speakers' accents on interpersonal evaluations. The studies compared the effects of standard accents and non-standard accents on evaluations of the speakers. The term standard accent was used to refer to accents that are accepted or used by the majority of the population, as for the term non-standard accents, it referred to accents that are considered foreign and are used by minorities. An array of characteristics was collected from previous studies and applied and used in this

study. The researchers chose three main levels and then the characteristics were classified as belonging to one of the levels namely: status (e.g., intelligence, social class), solidarity (trustworthiness, in-group–out-group member), and dynamism (level of activity and liveliness). The end results revealed large effect sizes for status (d = 0.99), solidarity (d = 0.52), and dynamism (d = 0.86), indicating that speakers of a standard accent are evaluated more positively than speakers of a non-standard accent. The study found that foreign accents strongly affected the dimensions of status and dynamism. However, researchers have found that there are varying results for the dimension dynamism, but mostly accents moderately affected solidarity. The results also show that American accented speakers were given a higher rating in comparison to British accented English speakers. This accentuates prior research showing that American English is now being more used and popular in media, and thus is being used as a measure for native English (Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 2014).

Effects of accents have been studied in many different areas such as memory and credibility, comprehension, trustworthiness (Fraundorf et al., 2012). This confirms that an accent could affect one's life in different aspects. Many studies show that non-native speakers are downgraded compared to native speakers in terms of comprehension and proficiency. Minority groups in societies of different race, ethnicity and religion are significantly affected by these negative attitudes (Karlsen, S., & Nazroo, J. Y., 2002). For example, Arabs and individuals with an Arab descent have been experiencing prejudice and discrimination for years now (American Civil Liberties, 2001; CNN News, 2001). Following the 9/11 attacks in the United States, the hostile reactions towards Arabs increased radically in the US and Europe. Hate crimes and incidents of work discriminations have been reported against Arab Americans shortly after the attack (Ibish, 2003). Discrimination against Arabs has become a commonly researched topic with studies investigating the psychological effects on the wellbeing of Arabs, and the consequences of such behaviour on different areas of life such as work, social life,

education, etc (Assari & Moghani, 2017). For example, Bushman and Bonacci (2004) conducted a research on the discrimination against Arabs by conducting a "lost e-email" study. Emails were sent to participants addressed to someone else with European or Arabic last names. The results of the study show that emails with a European surname were returned more frequently than emails with an Arabic surname. Another study by Carpusor and Loges (2006) manipulated the names of those who inquired about available apartments and found out that discrimination against Arabs exists in the housing situations. Similarly, one study shows that Americans viewed Arabs as less likely to be good neighbours and claim that they are more difficult to get along with than Americans (Taylor and Agha, 2005).

A study by Derous, Nguyen, and Ryan (2009) used the social identity paradigm to examine whether the identification of Arab applicants could lead to a greater discrimination when hiring and whether the characteristics of a job and the prejudices of evaluators moderated this effect in the Netherlands and the United States. The study consisted of 41 American participants and 153 Dutch participants who evaluated resumes based on job suitability. The results of the study showed that resumes of Arab applicants negatively influenced ratings of job suitability when the characteristics of a job require cognitive demand and external client contact. The findings show that Dutch evaluators rated Arab applicants the lowest when the evaluators' implicit prejudice was high. The study by Derous, et al (2009) shows that the discriminatory effect depends on the characteristics of the job, the country, and the evaluators' implicit prejudice. These results are in line with predictions from social categorization and social identity theories. Social Cognitive theory postulates the tendency of ingroup members discriminating against outgroup members (Bandura, 2001). Categorizing others as part of a certain social group rather than considering them as individuals may occur more often with a higher chance of relating an individual to a category's prototype (Brewer & Harasty Feinstein, 1999). This may be the case with telephone job interviews or resume screening, as little

information is available about the individual, thus making it easier to relate the individual to a group and not create a personalized perception of outgroup members. Additionally, the realistic group conflict theory mentions that economic, political or racial threats that are felt by the ingroups may result in outgroup derogation and certain negative intergroup reactions such as discrimination, racism, etc (Esses et al., 1998). Previous research has found that what might be more impactful than real conflicts is the combination of social group identity and perceived threats (Branscombe, Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje 1999). Social categorization theory says that members of ingroups such as host nationals and majorities in a population may feel threatened by certain outgroups such as Arabs, which may lead them to employ acts of discrimination against such outgroup members to compensate for the threats felt (Crocker, Major, & Steele, 1998).

Discrimination against Arabs in the workplace has also been seen in other studies. Widner and Chicoine (2011) conducted a study in which they random assigned Arabic sounding names and white sounding names among a collection of similar and comparable resumes. The findings of the study show that Arab male applicants received significantly lower call-backs for an interview (0.66%) call-backs than white males who got 5.26% call-backs. The results show that for an Arab applicant to receive a call-back for an interview, he would need to send two resumes to every one resume sent by a white male applicant. The same study was conducted in Sweden with Swedish and Arabic sounding names and the results were very similar. Applicants with Arabic sounding names received 50% fewer call-backs for an interview compared to applicants with a Swedish-sounding name (Carlsson, and Rooth, 2007). Another similar study was done in the Netherlands which examined discrimination against Arabic-named applicants in online recruitment. The experiment had two phases of recruitment: the first is where the recruiter views the applicants' complete résumés after seeing short profiles, and the second is a contact application. The results of this study did not

significantly differ from the previous studies discussed; however, they provide stronger evidence of discrimination. Findings show that Dutch-named applicants received a positive reaction 60% more than Arabic named applicants regardless of their education level, sector or region. Additionally, the results show that employees often do not get to see the resumes of Arabic-named applicants (Blommaert, Coenders, & Van Tubergen, 2014). An additional study shows a different aspect of discrimination against Arabs in the workplace. A study done by Grondelaers and van Gent (2019) conducted a speaker evaluation experiment with speakers from an urbanized area in the Netherlands and speakers with a Moroccan background. Results show that Moroccan-accented speech was downgraded on account of the Arabic-name introduction, and Dutch-accented speech was deemed more superior regardless of accent strength. Employment results show that there was a preference for inferior jobs for the Moroccan accent and superior jobs preferences for Dutch-accented speakers.

Nevertheless, other factors in an interview could potentially influence the decision made. It is important to keep in mind that it has been proven by previous research that comprehensibility such as grammar, pronunciation, and speaking rate (Anderson- Hsieh, et al, 1992) for example, and that other factors such as clothing (e.g., Gorham, Cohen, & Morris, 1999; Roach, 1997), cosmetics (Johnson & Workman, 1991), hair length (Atkins & Kent, 1988; Cohen, 1971), and eye glasses (Atkins & Kent, 1988) have potential influence on employability. Since this study excludes face-to-face interviews, it means that our conclusion will solely focus on the accent as a variable and discard appearance and other potentially influencing factors.

Additionally, research on accents and their linkage to stereotypes and employability has been focused on in the US (Widner & Chicoine, 2011), but in Europe, it seems that it is not getting the same amount of focus. The present study intends to fill these research gaps by

studying the effects of Arabic-accented English by comparing it to a British-accented English in two European countries.

The study intends to investigate the effects of Arabic- and British-accented English on employability using Dutch and German participants as listeners. This setting has been particularly chosen firstly since the Netherlands has shown an increased and consistent use of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) (Gerritsen & Nickerson, 2009, p. 187). Secondly, ethnic minorities represent 32.1% of the current Dutch population and 20% of the German population and are expected to increase more in the next 10 years (IndexMundi, 2019). Thirdly, due to the close geographic proximity of Germany and the Netherlands to the United Kingdom, German and Dutch participants are expected to be more familiar with the English accent compared to the Arabic. Due to the recent refugee crisis, with Germany taking a huge number of refugees in, it is interesting to see whether the Germans will react more negatively to the Arabic accents in comparison to the Dutch participants. A representative survey from 1950 till today has shown that the proportion of Germans who hold a right-wing worldview and those who express xenophobic sentiments has changed little over time (Stöss 2010; Heitmeyer 2011). However, since the refugee crisis (2014) the popularity of right-wing groups has grown rapidly (Rosenberger, et al, 2018). The Netherlands has also been experiencing a rise in far-right populism in the past two decades with a focus on islam. There are regional and national concern about the impact of the recent refugee crisis and of religious extremism, since there has been a rise in the intolerance of Dutch toward incomers, however, it is not yet clear and certain that the right wing will take over the whole population (CBS, 2016). Consequently, this should be considered when interpreting the results of this study.

There is an interest in studying speakers with strong accents, as previous studies have shown that speakers with a stronger accent are more downgraded and are more negatively evaluated by listeners than those with a weak or no accent (Silwa and Johansson,2014). The

workplace is of interest because it is seen to be very important to people's future and their personal life, and therefor for this study the context of a job interview has been chosen. Given the frequent discrimination and prejudicial attitudes towards Arabs, this study uses an experiment design to investigate whether a hiring bias exists against Arabs in Europe. The research question of this present study was formulated as follows:

> *To what extent does Arabic-accented English influence employability decisions for a high communication job when compared to native British-accented English in a job interview evaluated by Dutch and German listeners?*

Several sub-questions have been formulated in order to adequately answer the main research question:

> *RQa: How are Arabic-accented speakers in English evaluated by Dutch and German listeners in terms of status, solidarity, dynamism and hiring success in comparison to British native English speakers?*
>
> *RQb: Are Arabic- and British-accented speakers evaluated differently by Dutch and German listeners?*
>
> *ROc: Is there a difference in the strength of stereotypes associated to Arabic and British ethnicity groups that are evaluated by German and Dutch listeners?*

Method

Materials

The independent variables in this study were 'Type of Accent of the speaker' and 'Country of Origin of the listener''. The variable 'Type of Accent' had two levels: Arabic-accented English and British-accented English. As for the variable 'Country of Origin of the Listener', it also had two levels, namely, The Netherlands and Germany. The verbal-guise technique was used in the experiment, meaning that different speakers read the same piece of

text. The speakers were all selected by the researchers. To prevent gender biases, only male speakers were employed in the experiment. To ensure anonymity of the speakers, and to eliminate the possibility of names affecting the evaluation, their names were replaced with numbers in the questionnaire (2.1, 2.3, 3.2, 3.4) and no references were made to their nationality throughout the whole experiment. The Arabic speakers were from Palestine and Syria, and the English speakers were from the United Kingdom. The speakers were asked to read and record a script which is a job interview (see Appendix 1.2) written by the researchers. The speech samples were recorded using the application 'Whatsapp' with a phone microphone. Four speakers from each language were originally selected, but then a pre-test was carried out to reduce the number to four speakers, two for each language. In the main experiment, each listener listened to one speech sample and evaluated the speaker.

Pre-test

The speakers were selected on the basis of type of accent, English proficiency, accent strength and voice similarity. The pre-test (See appendix 1) tested for similarity in the voice characteristics and the accent strength of the speakers to insure equality and similarity in the speech samples. Professors and students from Radboud University were asked to evaluate the speakers on the variables of pitch, pace, comprehensibility, accent strength and to say where they thought the accent originated from. Table 1 displays the pre-test evaluation of the four speakers in each accent condition regarding the variables accent strength, pitch, and pace. After the means and standard deviations for all the variables were compared, speakers 1 and 4 in the Arabic accent condition were excluded from the experiment as were speakers 2 and 4 in the British accent condition.

Table 1. The means and standard deviations (between brackets) for the evaluation of the speakers for all conditions

	British				Arabic			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
	M	*M*	*M*	*M*	*M*	*M*	*M*	*M*
	(SD)	*(SD)*	*(SD)*	*(SD)*	*(SD)*	*(SD)*	*(SD)*	*(SD)*
Accent strength	2.00 (1.79)	1.43 (1.34)	2.00 (1.96)	1.43 (1.34)	5.50 (1.40)	6.43 (0.64)	5.64 (1.01)	5.50 (1.51)
Pitch	2.50 (1.35)	1.64 (1.39)	2.36 (1.15)	2.86 (1.41)	2.21 (0.80)	2.00 (1.18)	2.29 (0.83)	2.86 (1.29)
Pace	2.79 (1.67)	4.36 (1.34)	2.14 (0.86)	3.07 (1.39)	3.86 (1.46)	5.43 (1.02)	2.43 (1.16)	4.79 (1.19)

Subjects

A total of 127 participants took part in the experiment, 74 of whom were Dutch and 53 Germans. The researchers did not limit the variables age, profession, or gender to portray the general Dutch and German populations. This was done differently in other studies that mainly focused on students (e.g. Deprez-Sims & Morris, 2010).

Out of all the participants, 76 (59.8%) were females and 47(37.0%) were males of which 68 were students and the rest had varying professions. The most frequent educational level of participants was university (55.1%), followed by High School (22%), then university of applied sciences (16.5%), then less than high school (2.4%), and finally other (3.1%).

The mean age of the participants was (*M* = 31.39, *SD* = 14.01) and ranged from 17 to 66. Age was not equally distributed across the conditions (*F* (1,122) = 5.58, *p* = .020). The German listeners (*M* = 27.94, *SD* = 11.27) were significantly younger than the Dutch listeners (*M* = 33.89, *SD* = 15.29). out of all the participants,

Gender (χ^2= (2,127) = 2.51 *p* = .285), education (χ^2 = (4, 126) = 6.59, *p* = .159), and profession(χ 2= (70,127) = 82.94, *p* = .138) were all equally distributed across all conditions. Participants' experience with being job applicants (*F* (1,123) <1), and as job interviewers (*F* (1,123) = 2.46, *p* = .119), English proficiency (LexTale Score) (*F* (1,123) = 2.03, *p* = .157), self-assessment (*F* (1,123) = 3.88, *p* = .052) were all distributed equally across all conditions.

Design

This study had a two-factorial between-subject design, with "type of accent" (Arabic, native English), and "country of origin of the listener" (Dutch or German) as factors. Each participant was exposed to only one level of the independent variable (Arabic- or British-accented English). The British-accented English served as a control group with which the effect of the Arabic accent was compared. Each participant listened to two speech samples recorded by the same speaker in the chosen accent (Arabic or British English) for two different jobs.

Instruments

The dependent variables in this study were five variables that were measured using a questionnaire (see Appendix 1). The variables were measured in the following order: perceived comprehensibility, perceived likeability, identification of origin of the speaker, perceived employability, and the attitude towards the speaker (which was measured on three dimensions: status, solidarity, and dynamism). The questionnaire also included background variables and a manipulation check.

The questionnaire started with questions related to the measurement of the dependent

variables. All the variables were measured using 7-point Likert scales ranging from (1) completely disagree to (7) completely agree. Attitude towards the speaker was measured using the variables used by Fuertes et al, 2012; Giles and Billings, 2004; Śliwa and Johansson, 2014: Status, solidarity, dynamism. Specific items representing each variable were used following the statement "The speaker is.". The variable status was measured using the four items "ambitious, intelligent, confident and competent" ($\alpha = .785$). Solidarity was also measured with four items: "reliable, benevolent, similar to me, and attractive" ($\alpha = .719$). Dynamism was measured using the items: "active, lively, chatty, and enthusiastic" ($\alpha = .893$). The items were selected based on previous research (Giles & Billings, 2004; Mulac, Hanley, & Prigge, 1974, Śliwa & Johansson, 2014 Zahn & Hopper, 1985).

Later in the questionnaire, three 7-point Likert scale items were used to measure the perceived employability of the speaker: "I would hire the speaker for the position", "I think the speaker is suitable for the position" and ending with " I would recommend the speaker for the position" ($\alpha = .945$). The variable perceived comprehensibility was measured with the statement "I found the speaker easy to understand" using a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 'completely agree- completely disagree' (based on Hendriks et al., 2018).

For the manipulation check, the two variables were accent strength and identification of origin of the speaker. Accent strength was measured using a 7-point Likert scale following the statements "The speaker has a strong accent" and "The speaker sounds like a native speaker" ($\alpha = .631$). The second phrase was reverse coded. The identification of origin of the speaker was measured with the question 'What country does this speaker come from', for which listeners could choose a country from a dropdown list containing 193 countries. For the British-accented speakers, only the U.K was regarded as correct. For the Arabic-accented speakers, all Arabic-speaking countries were regarded as correct, in addition to Turkey since many people confuse Turkish with Arabic (Jelavich & Jelavich , 1963).

Following the measurement of the main variables, the background variables were measured. Demographics (i.e. gender, age, profession, highest level of education, mother tongue, country of origin, and whether the participant was a native speaker of English), English proficiency, experience in job interviews, self-assessment and stereotypes about Arabs and British people were measured.

The stereotype-Content Model was used a basis for the selection of the items to examine possible stereotypes connected to certain groups or countries (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008). For the variable competence, the items 'perceived confidence and perceived competence' were used. For the variable warmth, the items 'sincere' and 'warm' were used. For the variable status, the items used were 'well educated' and 'economically successful'. For the variable competition, the items used to measure the stereotypes were "if Arabs/ British get special breaks, this is likely to make things more difficult for people like me" and 'Resources that go to the Arabs/ British are likely to take away the resources from people like me'. The interrater reliability of all six items was high (α= .703).

The variable experience with job interviews was measured using two 7-point Likert scales with the statements: 'I am experienced as a job applicant and 'I am experienced as a job interviewer'. The English proficiency was measured using a LexTALE test (Lemhöfer & Broersma, 2012). The test consisted of 63 words for which the participants had to indicate whether they were actual English words or not. As for self-assessed English proficiency, the listeners were asked to assess themselves on the items 'writing, reading, speaking, and listening' on a 7-point semantic differential scale. The reliability was α = .909.

Procedure

The procedure of the study was based on the studies by Deprez-Sims and Morris (2010, 2013). As a first step, the participants were asked to sign a consent form saying that the

information they provide was confidential and would be used for research purposes only. Additionally, the consent form mentioned was completely anonymous and that the participants could quit at any moment. Next, the participants were shown a description of a communication job. After that, the participants were asked to listen to two speech samples and make a hiring decision as well as evaluate personal characteristics of a male participant for a communication job by answering some questions. Each participant was assigned randomly to one of the two conditions (Arabic-accented English or British-accented English). The script was written by the researchers (see Appendix 1.2). The time needed for the participants to complete the questionnaire ranged from 3 to about 8 minutes. The questions that were asked ended with a manipulation check bearing on the applicant's perceived accent. In view of the anchor contraction effect, the language used throughout the experiment (description of job and questionnaire) was Dutch, apart from the speech samples that were recorded in accented English. Studies have shown that emotional intensity is higher when individuals are asked to rate their opinion on a scale in a non-native language (De Langhe, Puntoni, Fernandes & Van Osselaer, 2012). The participants were approached via German and Dutch social media and personal contact.

Statistical treatment

To answer the research question and test the hypotheses, several tests were conducted using the program SPSS. Firstly, two-way ANOVAs were used with accent and listener nationality as factors for the scale variables evaluation of the speaker and hiring decision. Regression analysis was used to determine whether the background variables (e.g. age, gender, education, English proficiency) influenced the final evaluation and the employability of the speaker. Secondly, another two-way ANOVAs with accent and listener nationality as factors were used to test equal distribution of participant characteristics (age, interview experience,

gender, education, and English proficiency) across all conditions, and to analyse the identification of the accents . Additionally, independent samples t-tests were used for the manipulation check to check for differences between the two speakers per accent condition. Moreover, to find the correlation between variables and to gain more insights into the role background variables play, the Pearson's correlation coefficient was used. Figure 1 shows the Analytical model which shows the independent variables and the dependent variables

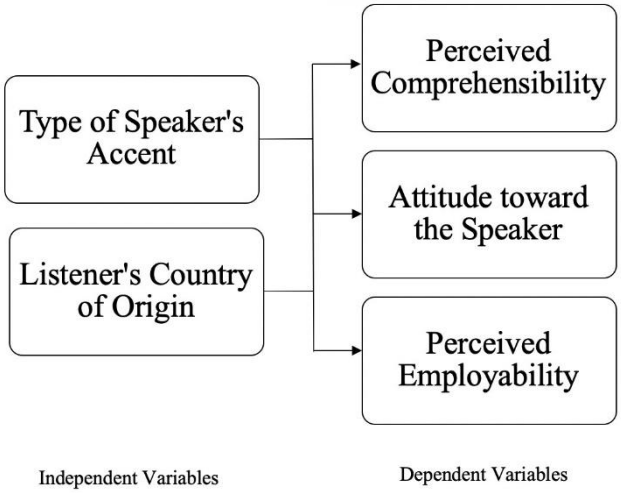


Figure 1: Analytical Model of variables

Results

This study´s main purpose was investigating how British- and Arabic-accented English speakers are evaluated differently by native Dutch and German listeners in a job interview setting and how this evaluation could influence the perception of the candidate and eventually influence their hiring success. Additionally, it studies the effects of a number of other variables that may have an influence the results of the study such as Accent strength, voice characteristics, recognition of country of origin, etc.

Difference between the two speakers per accent condition

This study included two-speakers per accent condition (Arabic, English). A series of independent samples t-tests were conducted for the two accent conditions separately to determine the difference between the speakers regarding the variable accent strength. The independent t-test showed a significant difference in the accent strength between the first Arabic-accented speaker and the second Arabic accented speaker (t (49.963) = 2.24, p = .026). The first Arabic speaker (M = 6.21, SD= 0.61) had a significantly stronger accent than the second speaker (M = 5.83, SD = 0.69). However, there was no significant difference between the two British accented speakers (t (63) = 1.44, p = .154).

There was also a significant difference between the first Arabic and the second Arabic accented speakers regarding voice characteristics (t (45.06) = 3.79, p < .001). The second Arabic accented speaker (M = 3.68, SD = 0.71) was evaluated more positively regarding voice characteristics than the first speaker (M = 2.94, SD = 0.82). However, the second Arabic speaker (M =3.73, SD = 1.51) was evaluated as being faster than the first Arabic accented speaker (M = 5.19, SD = 1.35).

A difference between the two speakers in the Arabic accent condition was also found regarding the variables status and comprehensibility. An independent t-test showed that there

was a significant difference between the first and the second Arabic accented English speakers regarding status (t (54.49) = 3.49, p = .001). The first Arabic speaker (M = 3.78, SD = 1.01), was evaluated lower than the second Arabic accented English speaker (M = 4.67, SD = 0.99). For the variable comprehensibility, a t-test showed a significant difference between the two speakers (t (59.51) = 2.32, p = .024). The second speaker (M = 5.15, SD = 1.35) was evaluated to be more comprehensible than the first speaker (M = 4.25, SD = 1.71).

As for the British accented English speakers, a significant difference was found between the first and the second speaker regarding solidarity (t (62.99) = 3.78, p < .001). The second speaker (M= 4.06, SD = 3.58) was evaluated higher than the first speaker (M = 3.58, SD = 1.01). As for the variable status, a t-test showed a significant difference between the two speakers (t (62.82) = 2.26, p = .027). The second speaker (M = 4.92, SD = 4.19) was evaluated higher than the first speaker (M = 4.19, SD = 1.15).

A significant difference between the speakers was found regarding employability (t (124.59) = 2.46, p = .015). The second speaker (M = 4.01, SD = 1.16) was evaluated higher than the first speaker (M = 3.43, SD = 1.49). The speakers in both accent conditions (Arabic and British) did not differ regarding the variable ‘dynamism’ (t (125) = 1.37, p = .173).

Manipulation check

Recognition of the country of origin of the speakers

A chi-square test showed no significant relation between accent and country of origin. More listeners (59%) were unable to identify the origin of the speaker than were able to do so (40.9%) (χ2(1) = .250, p = .617). As for the incorrect and correct guessing of the country of origin, according to the lenient scale of countries where the language is spoken, the country of origin was correctly identified by 54.5% of the participants. A chi-square test showed that significantly fewer participants (17.2%) got the Arabic accent country of origin correct than

the British accent (82.8%) ($\chi^2(1,55) = 19.69$, $p < .001$). Table 2 shows the percentage of participants correctly and incorrectly guessing the country of origin of the speaker.

Table 2. Percentage of participants' correct guessing of the speakers' country of origin

	Arabic *n* = 26		British *n* = 29		Total *N* = 55	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Correct	6a	23.1 %	24b	82.8 %	30	54.5 %
Incorrect	20a	76.9 %	5b	17.2 %	25	45.5 %
Total	26	100 %	29	100 %	55	100 %

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Accent categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

Accent strength

A two-way analysis of variance with accent and listner nationality as factors showed a significant main effect of accent on accent strength ($F(1,123) = 6.27$, $p = .014$). The two-way ANOVA showed no significant effect of listner nationality ($F(1,123) = 1.86$, $p = .175$). Additionally, there was no interaction effect of listner and accent ($F(1,123) = 1.55$, $p = .216$). The Arabic accent ($M = 6.05$, $SD = 0.67$) was evaluated higher than the British accent ($M = 5.68$, $SD = 0.82$). These results are in line with the intended manipulation of the researchers, as the study includes a non-standard accent and the British accent as a control condition.

Voice characteristics

A two-way analysis of variance with accent and listener nationality as factors, showed a significant main effect of accent on voice characteristics (F (1,123) = 21.98, p <.001). The two-way ANOVA showed no significant effect of listener nationality on voice characteristics (F (1,123) = 3.02, p = .085). The interaction effect between listener nationality and accent was also insignificant (F (1,123) = 1.27, p = .263). The British-accented speakers (M = 3.93, SD = 0.69) were given more positive scores for voice characteristics than the Arabic-accented English speaker (M = 3.25, SD = 0.85). Table 3 shows the means and standard deviation of the accent strength and voice characteristics the speakers by country of origin (British, Arabic) and listener nationality (Dutch, German)

Table 3. The means and standard deviations of the accent strength and voice characteristics of the speakers by country of origin (British, Arabic) and listener nationality (Dutch, German)

	German		Dutch	
	n =53		*n* = 74	
	Arabic	British	Arabic	British
	n = 62	*n* = 65	*n* = 62	*n* = 65
	M (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*
Accent strength	6.06 (0.68)	5.89 (0.80)	6.04 (0.67)	5.54 (0.81)
Voice Characteristics total	3.48 (0.89)	3.98 (0.69)	3.08 (0.79)	3.89(0.71)
Item ‘Slowly’ (Voice characteristics)	4.42(1.68)	3.81(1.96)	4.69(1.53)	3.32(1.77)

Evaluation of the speakers

Table 4 shows the means and the standard deviations for perceived status, perceived solidarity, perceived dynamism, and perceived employability.

Table 4. The means and standard deviations of the perceived status, perceived solidarity, perceived dynamism, and employability in function of accent condition (British, Arabic) and listener nationality (Dutch, German)

	German		Dutch	
	n =53		*n* = 74	
	Arabic	British	Arabic	British
	n = 62	*n* = 65	*n* = 62	*n* = 65
	M (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*
Perceived status	4.21(1.11)	4.74(1.26)	4.11(1.08)	4.88(0.89)
Perceived solidarity	3.72(0.84)	3.72(0.97)	3.63(1.09)	4.01(0.94)
Perceived dynamism	2.97(1.13)	3.53(1.57)	3.01(1.37)	3.56(1.37)
Employability	3.54 (1.32)	4.09(1.37)	3.26(1.38)	3.86(1.36)

Perceived Status

A two-way analysis of variance with accent and listener nationality as factors showed a significant main effect of accent on perceived status of the speaker (F (1,123) = 11.37, p < .001). There was no significant effect of listener nationality on perceived status (F (1, 123) < 1). There was no significant interaction between listener nationality and accent. (F (1,123) < 1). Speakers with an Arabic accent (M = 4.15, SD = 1.09) were evaluated as having a lower status than the British speakers (M = 4.83, SD = 1.06).

Perceived solidarity

A two-way analysis of variance with accent and listener nationality as factors showed no significant main effect of accent on perceived solidarity of the speaker (F (1,123) = 1.18, p = .279). Additionally, the analysis shows no significant effect of listener nationality on perceived solidarity (F (1,123) < 1). There was no significant interaction effect between listener nationality and accent (F (1,123) = 1.17, p = .281).

Dynamism

A two-way analysis of variance with accent and listener nationality as factors showed a significant main effect of accent on perceived dynamism of the speaker (F (1,123) = 4.99, p = .027). The analysis showed no significant effect of listener nationality on perceived dynamism difference (F (1,123) < 1). There was no significant interaction effect between listener nationality and accent. (F (1,123) < 1). The Arabic accented speakers (M =2.99, SD = 1.26) were evaluated lower on dynamism than the British accented speakers (M = 3.55, SD = 1.44).

Employability

Table 4. Shows the means and standard deviations for the above-mentioned variables for all accent conditions (Arabic, British).

A two-way analysis of variance with accent and listener nationality as factors showed a significant main effect of accent on the employability of the speaker (F (1,123) = 5.61, p = .019). The two-way analysis of variance showed no significant effect of listener nationality on employability (F (1,123) = 1.12, p = .292). The interaction effect of listener nationality and accent was insignificant as well (F (1,123) < 1). The speakers with an Arabic Accent (M = 3.38, SD =1.35) were evaluated lower on employability than the speakers with the British English accent (M = 3.96, SD = 1.36).

Perceived comprehensibility

A two-way analysis of variance with accent and listener nationality as factors showed no significant effect of accent on perceived comprehensibility (F (1,123) < 1). Additionally, the two-way ANOVA showed no significant effect of listener nationality (F (1,123) = 1.98, p = .162). The interaction effect was insignificant as well (F (1,123) = 2.42, p = .123)**.**Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations of Perceived comprehensibility for both accent conditions (Arabic and British) with listener nationality (Dutch, German)

Table 5. The means and standard deviations of perceived comprehensibility in function of accent condition (British, Arabic) and listener nationality (Dutch, German) (1 = totally not understood, 7 = totally understood)

	German		Dutch	
	n =53		*n* = 74	
	Arabic	British	Arabic	British
	n = 62	*n* = 65	*n* = 62	*n* = 65
	M (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*
Perceived comprehensibility	4.65(1.83)	4.22(1.60)	4.61(1.48)	5.08(1.57)

Confounding variables

Strength of Stereotype

A two-way analysis of variance with listener nationality and stereotype content model ethnicity as factors showed a significant main effect of ethnicity on strength of stereotype (F (1,84) = 22.22, p < .001). Additionally, the two-way ANOVA showed no significant effect of listener nationality on strength of stereotype (F (1,84) = 2.55, p = .114). There was no significant interaction between listener and accent (F (1,83) < 1). The British (M = 4.72, SD =

0.61) had significantly stronger stereotypes associated to them than the Arabic ethnic group (*M* = 4.02, *SD* = 0.77). Table 6 shows the means and standard deviations of the strength of stereotypes associated with both accent conditions (Arabic and British) and listener nationality (Dutch, German).

Table 6. The means and standard deviations of the combined items of the variable strength of stereotype in function of ethnic group (British, Arabic) and listener nationality (German, Dutch)

	German		Dutch	
	n =36		*n* = 52	
	Arabic	British	Arabic	British
	n = 49	*n* = 39	*n* = 49	*n* = 39
	M (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*	*M* (*SD)*
Strength of stereotype	4.13(0.82)	4.92(0.60)	3.95(0.73)	4.60(0.60)

Conclusion and discussion

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of Arabic-accented English on employability decisions when compared to a native British-accented English speaker. Additionally, the study investigated if Dutch and German listeners evaluate the two accent groups differently regarding status, solidarity, dynamism. Finally, the study compared the strength of stereotypes associated to the two ethnic groups (Arabs and Britons). This study shed light on the European evaluation of Arabic-accented English in a job-based context.

As reported in the theoretical background, foreign accents may trigger bias thoughts in job interviews (Silwa and Johnsson (2014). People with Arabic descent have been facing prejudice and racism due to linked stereotypes and historical events (Ibish, 2003). Thus, it was

expected that the Arabic-accented speakers would have a worse evaluation and stronger stereotypes linked to their ethnic group.

The results of this study showed that there was a difference between the evaluation of the Arabic-accented speakers and the British-accented speakers regarding status. Speakers with a British accent were evaluated to have a higher status than Arabic speakers. The listener nationality had no significant effect on the results. This is in line with a number of previous studies which found that speakers of non-standard accents are usually perceived as having lower confidence and lower competence than speakers of standard accents (Giles & Billings, 2004). Additionally, research by Hosoda, Nguyen and Stone-Romero (2012) as well as by Deprez-Sims and Morris (2010, 2013) found similar results regarding status, namely that non-native speakers and speakers with an accent were evaluated high on warmth and low on competence compared to native English speakers. Furthermore, the results of this study are in line with the meta-analysis done by Fuertes at al. (2012) which found that non-standard accents are evaluated lower in terms of perceived status. status.

The results of the study concerning solidarity show that there was no difference between the speakers in the two accent conditions. However, previous research by Hosoda et al. (2012) and Deprez-Sims and Morris (2012, 2013) and Fuertes et al. (2011) found a significant effect of foreign accent on solidarity. This signifies that other factors may have a potential influence on the results, making this dimension more complex that expected.

This study found a difference in the evaluations of the speakers in the different accent conditions with respect to dynamism. The Arabic speakers were again evaluated significantly lower than the British speakers. Śliwa & Johansson (2014) found that accents in the workplace led to lower dynamism evaluations. This shows that the study found a significant difference between the evaluation of native and non-native speakers. One reason for this different evaluation could potentially be due to previously discussed prejudices towards Arabs, which

might make them uncomfortable in expressing themselves and avoid situation in which their accent would be exposed. Non-native speakers often see their own accent as carrying a 'stigma', and that they are inferior to native speakers (Derwing, 2003), leading to their dynamism to be lower. This could be linked to the fact that voice characteristics between the speakers were significantly different.

Regarding employability, the results show that there was a significant difference in the evaluations of the speakers. The Arabic-accented English speakers were evaluated lower on employability than the speakers with the British-accented English. This could be a result of the listeners evaluating the Arabic speakers with low status and low dynamism, thus assuming that with these low dimensions, they would not be good candidates. Additionally, previous research has shown that standard accents are evaluated higher regarding professional success (Giles, 1970) and that generally, people with standard accents reach higher positions and better professional possibilities than those having a non-standard accent (Gluszek and Dovidio, 2010). Previous research has shown that Arabs are generally discriminated against in job applications. Most research has used Arabic names to do their research, however, this research was solely based on accents and did not confound applicant accent with applicant name. On the other hand, as a manipulation check, the listeners were asked to indicate the country of origin of the speaker and most participants indicated the incorrect country of origin for the Arabic accented speakers and correct country of origin or the British speakers, thus, it is not known whether the obtained results are due to applicant accent, country of origin, or both.

With regard to perceived comprehensibility, there was no significant difference between the speakers of the two accent conditions. The results were not as expected, as existing research shows that speakers of non-standard accents are typically perceived to be more difficult to understand that speakers of a standard accent (Hosoda & Stone-Romero, 2010).

Lower comprehensibility could lead to lower evaluation of speakers on different variables such as status, however in this study this cannot be applied.

As for the stereotypes associated with both accent conditions, the results show a significant difference in the strength of the stereotypes for both ethnic groups, Arabs and Britons. The Britons were given stronger stereotypes than the Arabs. The Arabs were given a stronger association of being 'Economically successful' than the Britons which was expected due to the Arabs having a reputation of being rich. There results could have been yielded in such a way due to the Germans and Dutch being more familiar with the characteristics of the Britons than the Arabs. In addition, the close geographical proximity between Europe and Briton is higher than that between Europe and the Middle East, thus the Europeans might relate more to the attributes of the Britons than to the Arabs. Moreover, the word Arab doesn't only represent and rotate around one geographical area, thus generalising the characteristics may be more difficult.

Considering the previously discussed results, a real and solid answer to the research questions can be formulated. Non-native speakers and particularly Arabic-accented English speakers in this study were downgraded by Dutch and German listeners in comparison to native British-accented English speakers. Various aspects have been studied and controlled in order to come up with this conclusion. These results go in line with results of a study by Giles et al, (1984) which found that standard accents are evaluated higher than non-standard accents, even when evaluated by non-native listeners, in the case of this study; Germans and Dutch. Additionally, the results could be added up to those of Deprez-Sims and Morris (2010), but on the other hand, contradict a range of other studies such as the study of Hosada et al. (2010) which yielded reverse findings.

Limitations and further research suggestion

Several limitations should be discussed when interpreting the results of this study and discussing their implications. Firstly, the sample of the participants was not as representative as planned. A big percentage of the participants were university students, this can be seen as a limitation. The aim of this study was to investigate how non-native accents are perceived and if this might influence the hiring decision in Europe. However, students do not have the capabilities of taking hiring decisions accurately, thus they did not represent the managers and decision makers well. In addition, the study was conducted in an artificial context with a speech sample different from an actual job interview. Since this was not a real employment setting, participants may have not received sufficient information about the candidates resulting in an inaccurate evaluation and decision. An important goal for future studies should be an examination of whether actual employment settings yield different and more accurate results than an artificial one.

Furthermore, this study looked at only one type of job. Literature by The literature (e.g., Ryan, Carranza, & Moffie, 1977; Hopper & Williams, 1973) shows that the type of job influences the evaluation of the participnats.This might have led to the participants understanding the aim of the research and thus answering differently. It would be interesting for future research to look more at the type of job and study the influence of both, low communication jobs and high communication jobs.

Another limitation was that the speakers chosen were only males. This was done on purpose to facilitate the analysis and eliminate the possible effect of gender; however, the perception of listeners and the evaluation might have been affected by the gender and could have also been different for female participants. Additionally, it is important to note that there has been a lot of differences between the two speakers of the same accent and the voice characteristics of all speakers, which might have had an effect on the overall results of the

study. In addition, personal characteristics of the participants taking the employment decision also influence the results. Characteristics such as personality, cultural exposure, childhood, background knowledge, etc. all may influence the results. Research by Pettygrew and Tropp (2008) showed that more contact with different races and group leads to less predguice and stereotyping. Therefore, future research should pay more attention to personal characteristics of the different groups participating in the research and understand how they may influence a person's decision.

Finally, another possible limitation could be that a lot of participants did not finish the questionnaire. This could have been due to different reasons, such as lack of enthusiasm and the questionnaire being too long. Moreover, the incorrect guessing of the country of origin of the speakers might have led to a misinterpretation of the speaker and thus leading to different evaluations and stereotypes of the speaker. A possibility for future research would be to shorten the length of the questionnaire and to make it more interesting by adding pictures or gifs. Additionally, further research could exclude the participants that had an incorrect guessing of the country of origin of the speaker and examining the correct ones to a greater extent.

Implications

An important contribution of this study was displaying that non-native accents can lead to a different evaluation of an applicant in a job setting. A number of previous literatures focused mostly on bias employment decisions that result from visual cues such as ethnicity, sex, colour, name, but in an interview, it has been shown that the way one speaks influences the evaluation. An applicant with a non-native English accent could be evaluated more negatively than a native speaker of English.

Since the business world is getting more and more international, English is being spread as a lingua franca of international business with different accents and organizations are becoming more multilingual. It is thus necessary for managers and decision makers to

recognize this global spread and difference and try to understand the relationship between inequality and power and language use in an organizational context. The difference in the evaluations of speakers based on their accents could yield to deep inequalities among staff and could result in organizational conflict and personal dissatisfaction which influences the performance of the staff and could potentially have long term effects on the organization and its results.

Previous research by Piekkari et al., 2005 has shown than finding a common language does not bring an interactive outcome in managing multilingual diverity in organizations. It would be a good recommendation to create and develop policies that prevent all kinds of discrimination including discrimination against specific ethnic group or accents. These policies could be used in the organizations to address language attitudes and its use in creating a more inclusive and diverse organizations. Additionally, internationalization of an organization should stimulate the promotion of different accented speakers and different ethnicities to enable a great level of participation and equality.

Moreover, the results of this research could be used by managers and HR experts to aware the staff of the fact that people tend to evaluate non-native speakers and speaker of an accent more negatively than native speakers. A study by Roessel, Schoel, Zimmermann and Stahlberg (2019) argues that an awareness of such results could neutralize the discrimination against accented speakers. It is crucial to discuss discrimination matters and prejudice and stereotypes that are linked to specific minorities in societies, and to stress on equal and diverse globalisation in all contexts including an organizational context.

References

ADC Research Institute, & Ibish, H. (2003). Report on hate crimes and discrimination against Arab Americans: The post-September 11 backlash, September 11, 2001-October 11, 2002. *American-Arab Anti-Discrimination Committee.*

Anderson-Hsieh, J., Johnson, R., & Koehler, K. (1992). The relationship between native speaker judgments of non-native pronunciation and deviance in segmental, prosody, and syllable structure. *Language Learning, 42*, 529–555.

Angouri, J. (2013). The multilingual reality of the multinational workplace: Language policy and language use. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 34(6)*, 564-581.

American Civil Liberties Union (2001). ACLU decries reported violence against Muslims and Arab Americans; Joins authorities in urging tolerance and respect. Retrieved April 23, 2020 from: https://www.aclu.org/news/2001/n091401a.html

Assari, S., & Lankarani, M. M. (2017). Discrimination and psychological distress: gender differences among Arab Americans. *Frontiers in Psychiatry, 3*,8,16, 23-25.

Atkins, C. P., & Kent, R. L. (1988). What do recruits consider important during the employment interview? *Journal of Employment Counseling, 25*, 98-103

Bandura, A. (2001b). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. In S. T. Fiske (Ed.), *Annual review of psychology* (Vol. 52, pp. 1–26). Palo Alto: Annual Reviews, Inc.

Blommaert, L., Coenders, M., & Van Tubergen, F. (2014). Discrimination of Arabic-named applicants in the Netherlands: An internet-based field experiment examining different phases in online recruitment procedures. *Social Forces, 92*(3), 957-982.

Bouchard Ryan, E., Carranza, M. A., & Moffie, R. W. (1977). Reactions toward varying degrees of accentedness in the speech of Spanish-English bilinguals. *Language and speech, 20(*3), 267- 273.

Branscombe, N. R., Ellemers, N., Spears, R., & Doosje, B. (1999). In N. Ellemers, R. Spears, & B. Doosje (Eds.), The context and content of social identity threat. *Social identity: Context, commitment, content* (pp. 35-58) Oxford, England: Blackwell.

Brewer, M. B., & Feinstein, A. S. H. (1999). Dual processes in the cognitive representation of persons and social categories. In S. Chaiken & Y. Trope (Eds.), *Dual-process theories* in *social psychology* (p. 255–270).

Bushman, B. J., & Bonacci, A. M. (2004). You've got mail: Using e-mail to examine the effect of prejudiced attitudes on discrimination against Arabs. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 40(6),* 753-759.

Carlsson, M., & Rooth, D. O. (2007). Evidence of ethnic discrimination in the Swedish labour market using experimental data. *Labour Economics, 14(*4), 716-729.

Carpusor, A. G., & Loges, W. E. (2006). Rental discrimination and ethnicity in names. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36(4), 934-952.

Central Statistical Office (CBS). 2016. Population Growth Fueled by Immigration. News release, January 28, 2016.

CNN News. (2001). Arab-Americans concerned about treatment. Retrieved July 23, 2002 from <http://www.cnn.com/2001/US/10/24/rec.arab.americans>

Cohen, S.L. (1971). Hair and jobs: What do recruiters think? *Journal of College Placement 33,*53- 56.

Crocker, J., Major, B., & Steele, C. (1998). Social stigma. In D. T. Gilbert, S. T. Fiske & G. Lindzey (Eds.) *The Handbook of Social Psychology, 4th Edition, Vol*. 2 (pp. 504-553). New York: Academic Press.

Crystal, D. 2003. *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Cuddy, A. J., Fiske, S. T., & Glick, P. (2007). The BIAS map: behaviours from intergroup affect and stereotypes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 92(4),* 631.

De Langhe, B., Puntoni, S., Fernandes, D. H., & van Osselaer, S. (2011). The anchor contraction effect in international marketing research. *Journal of Marketing Research, 48,* 366–380. https://doi.org/10.2307/23033437

Deaux, K. (2006). *To be an immigrant*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Deprez-Sims, A. S., & Morris, S. B. (2010). Accents in the workplace: Their effects during a job interview. *International Journal of Psychology, 45(6),* 417-426.

Deprez-Sims, A. S., & Morris, S. B. (2013). The effect of non-native accents on the evaluation of applicants during an employment interview: The development of a path model. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 21(4),* 355-367.

Derous, E., Nguyen, H. H., & Ryan, A. M. (2009). Hiring discrimination against Arab minorities: Interactions between prejudice and job characteristics. *Human Performance, 22(*4), 297-320.

Derwing, T. M. 2003. What do ESL students say about their accents? *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes, 59*(4): 547-566.

Edwards, D. (1997*). Discourse and cognition*. London: Sage.

Esses, V. M., Jackson, L. M., & Armstrong, T. L. (1998). Intergroup competition and attitudes toward immigrants and immigration: An instrumental model of group conflict. *Journal of Social Issues, 54(4),* 699-724.

Esses, V. M., Wagner, U., Wolf, C., Preiser, M., & Wilbur, C. J. (2006). Perceptions of national identity and attitudes toward immigrants and immigration in Canada and Germany. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 30(6*), 653-669.

Fabo, B., Beblavý, M., & Lenaerts, K. (2017). The importance of foreign language skills in the labour markets of Central and Eastern Europe: Assessment based on data from online job portals. *Empirica, 44(3),* 487-508.

Feely, A. J., & Harzing, A. W. (2003). Language management in multinational companies. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, 10*(2), 37-52.

Fiske, S. T. (2018). Stereotype content: Warmth and competence endure. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 27(2), 67-73

.Fuertes, J. N., Gottdiener, W. H., Martin, H., Gilbert, T. C., & Giles, H. (2012). A meta-analysis of the effects of speakers' accents on interpersonal evaluations. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 42(1), 120-133*.

Fraundorf, S. H., Watson, D. G., & Benjamin, A. S. (2012). The effects of age on the strategic use of pitch accents in memory for discourse: A processing-resource account. *Psychology and Aging, 27*(1), 88-98.

Gerritsen, M. & C. Nickerson. (2009). BELF: Business English as a Lingua Franca. In F. Bargiela-Chiappini (Ed.), *The handbook of business discourse,* (pp.180-192). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press

Giles, H., & Billings, A. C. (2004). Assessing language attitudes: Speaker evaluation studies. In A. Davies & C. Elder (Eds.), *The Handbook of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 187–209). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Giles, H. (1970). Evaluative reactions to accents. *Educational Review, 22(*3), 211-227.

Girsberger, E. M. (2015). *Essays on migration, education and work opportunities* (Doctoral dissertation).

Gluszek, A., & Dovidio, J. F. (2010). The way they speak: A social psychological perspective on the stigma of nonnative accents in communication. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 14*(2), 214-237.

Gorham, J., Cohen, S. H., & Morris, T. L. (1999). Fashion in the classroom III: Effects of instructor attire and immediacy in natural classroom interactions. *Communication Quarterly, 47(3), 281- 299.*

Grondelaers, S., & van Gent, P. (2019). How "deep" is Dynamism? Revisiting the evaluation of Moroccan-flavoured Netherlandic Dutch. *Linguistics Vanguard,* 5(s1).

Hopper, R., & Williams, F. (1973). Speech characteristics and employability. *Communications Monographs, 40*(4), 296-302.

Hosoda, M., Nguyen, L. T., & Stone-Romero, E. F. (2012). The effect of Hispanic accents on employment decisions. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 27*(4), 347-364.

IOM (2019), World Migration Report 2020. Geneva, Switzerland. Retrieved 22 February from https://www.un.org/sites/un2.un.org/files/wmr_2020.pdf

Jelavich, C., & Jelavich, B. (1963). The Balkans in Transition. Univ of California Press.

Johnson, K.K.P., & Workman, J. E. (1991). The role of cosmetics in impression formation. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 10(1), 6*

Karlsen, S., & Nazroo, J. Y. (2002). Relation between racial discrimination, social class, and health among ethnic minority groups. *American journal of public health, 92(4), 624-631.*

Kessler, A. E., & Freeman, G. P. (2005). Public opinion in the EU on immigration from outside the community. *JCMS: Journal of Common Market Studies, 43(4*), 825-850.

Lemhöfer, K., & Broersma, M. (2012). Introducing LexTALE: A quick and valid lexical test for advanced learners of English. *Behaviour Research Methods, 44(*2), 325-343.

Levi, S. V., Winters, S. J., & Pisoni, D. B. (2007). Speaker-independent factors affecting the perception of foreign accent in a second language. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 121(4*), 2327-2338.

Lindemann, S. (2002). Listening with an attitude: A model of native-speaker comprehension of non-native speakers in the United States. *Language in Society, 31(3),* 419-441.

Marschan-Piekkari, R., Welch, D., & Welch, L. (1999). In the shadow: The impact of language on structure, power and communication in the multinational. *International Business Review, 8(4),* 421-440.

Migrant Crisis: Migration to Europe explained in seven charts. (2016). Retrieved March 3, 2020, from http://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-34131911

Mulac, A., Hanley, T. D., & Prigge, D. Y. (1974). Effects of phonological speech foreignness upon three dimensions of attitude of selected American listeners. *Quarterly Journal of Speech, 60(4),* 411-420.

Nejjari, W., Gerritsen, M., Van der Haagen, M., & Korzilius, H. (2012). Responses to Dutch-accented English. *World Englishes, 31(*2), 248-267.

Nickerson, C. (1998). Corporate culture and the use of written English within British subsidiaries in the Netherlands. *English for Specific Purposes, 17(3*), 281-294.

Pettygrew, T. F., & Tropp, L. R. (2008). How does contact reduce prejudice? A meta-analytic test of three mediators. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 38, 922– 934.

Piekkari, R., Welch, D., & Welch, L. S. (2014). *Language in international business: The multilingual reality of global business expansion*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.Edward Elgar Publishing.

Portes, A., & Rumbaut, R. G. (2006). *Immigrant America: A portrait.* California: University of California Press.

Quillian, L. (1995). Prejudice as a response to perceived group threat: Population composition and anti-immigrant and racial prejudice in Europe. *American Sociological Review, 60(4)* 586-611.

Reitz, J. G. (2001). Immigrant success in the knowledge economy: Institutional change and the immigrant experience in Canada, 1970–1995. *Journal of Social Issues, 57(3),*579–613. https://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00230

Roach, K. D. (1997). Effects of graduate teaching assistant attire on student learning, misbehaviors, and ratings of instruction. *Communication Quarterly, 45,* 125-141

Rosenberger, S (2018) Political protest in asylum and deportation. An introduction. In: Rosenberger, S, Stern, V, Merhaut, N (eds) Protest Movements in Asylum and Deportation. New York, NY*: IMISCOE Research Series, Springer,* pp. 3–25.

Roessel, J., Schoel, C., Zimmermann, R., & Stahlberg, D. (2019). Shedding new light on the evaluation of accented speakers: Basic mechanisms behind nonnative listeners' evaluations of nonnative accented job candidates. Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 38(1), 3-32.

Seiter, J. S., & Sandry, A. (2003). Pierced for success? the effects of ear and nose piercing on perceptions of job candidates' credibility, attractiveness, and hirability. *Communication Research Reports, 20*(4), 287-298.

Simon, R. J., & Lynch, J. P. (1999). A comparative assessment of public opinion toward immigrants and immigration policies. *International Migration Review, 33(2*), 455-467.

Śliwa, M., & Johansson, M. (2014). How non-native English-speaking staff are evaluated in linguistically diverse organizations: A sociolinguistic perspective. *Journal of International Business Studies, 45(9*), 1133-1151.

Spencer-Rodgers, J., & McGovern, T. (2002). Attitudes toward the culturally different: The role of intercultural communication barriers, affective responses, consensual

stereotypes, and perceived threat. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 26(6),* 609-631.

Sumantry, D. M. (2018). Predictors of accent-based prejudice. Canada: Ryerson University

Taylor, M., & Agha, S. (2005). Views held about Arab Americans before 9/11. American Sociological Association, Philadelphia, PA, August.

UNHCR, Worldwide displacement hits all-time high as war and persecution increase. (2015, June 18). Retrieved February 23, 2020, from https://www.unhcr.org/558193896.html

Vaara, E., Tienari, J., Piekkari, R., & Säntti, R. (2005). Language and the circuits of power in a merging multinational corporation. *Journal of Management Studies, 42(3*), 595-623.

Widner, D., & Chicoine, S. (2011, December). It's all in the name: Employment discrimination against Arab Americans. *Sociological Forum*, 26(4), 806-823.

Zahn, C. J., & Hopper, R. (1985). Measuring language attitudes: The speech evaluation instrument. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 4(2),* 113-123.

Appendix

1.1 Questionnaire:

Pre-test Questionnaire Thesis 7

Start of Block: Default Question Block

Q1 Dear Participants, We would be grateful if you could help us select the most suitable speech fragments for an experiment. In the experiment, listeners will be asked to evaluate an applicant for a job with a high communication demands based on a speech sample spoken in English In this pretest, we would kindly like to ask you as language professionals to assess the accent strength and other speech characteristics of the speakers in the following speech samples. Thank you for your help!

End of Block: Default Question Block

Start of Block: Consent Form

Q2 INFORMATION AND CONSENT The procedure involves filling out an online survey. The questions concern the reliability and the accent strength of the speakers. Filling out the survey will take approximately 15 minutes.

What will happen to my data? The research data we collect during this study will be used by scientists as part of data sets, articles and presentations. The anonymized research data are

accessible to other scientists for a period of at least 10 years. When we share data with other researchers, these data cannot be traced back to you.

Voluntary participationYour participation in this research study is voluntary. This means that you can withdraw your participation and consent at any time during the research, without giving a reason. All data we have collected from you will be deleted permanently.

More information?Should you want more information on this research study, please contact Mylène van de Wouw (telephone: 0637386076; email: m.vandewouw@student.ru.nl.Should you have any complaints regarding this study, please contact the researcher. CONSENT: Please select your choice below.

Clicking on the "Agree" button below indicates that: • you have read the above information• you voluntarily agree to participate• you are at least 16 years of age

If you do not wish to participate in the research study, please close this window and do not continue. If you wish to participate, continue with the questions on the next page.

End of Block: Consent Form

Start of Block: Audio 1.1

Q3

Audio

Q160

Audio

Q4 The speaker has a strong foreign accent

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Somewhat disagree (3)
- Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- Somewhat agree (5)
- Agree (6)
- Strongly agree (7)

Q5 The speaker sounds like a native speaker of English

- ○ Strongly disagree (1)
- ○ Disagree (2)
- ○ Somewhat disagree (3)
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- ○ Somewhat agree (5)
- ○ Agree (6)
- ○ Strongly agree (7)

Q6 Where do you think the speaker is from?

▼ Afghanistan (1) ... Zimbabwe (1357)

Q7 The speaker has a high pitched voice

- ○ Strongly disagree (1)
- ○ Disagree (2)
- ○ Somewhat disagree (3)
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- ○ Somewhat agree (5)
- ○ Agree (6)
- ○ Strongly agree (7)

Q8 The speaker is speaking fluently

- ○ Strongly disagree (6)
- ○ Disagree (7)
- ○ Somewhat disagree (8)
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree (9)
- ○ Somewhat agree (10)
- ○ Agree (11)
- ○ Strongly agree (12)

Q9 The speaker sounds monotonous

- ○ Strongly disagree (1)
- ○ Disagree (2)
- ○ Somewhat disagree (3)
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- ○ Somewhat agree (5)
- ○ Agree (6)
- ○ Strongly agree (7)

Q10 The speaker has a pleasant voice

- ○ Strongly disagree (1)
- ○ Disagree (2)
- ○ Somewhat disagree (3)
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- ○ Somewhat agree (5)
- ○ Agree (6)
- ○ Strongly agree (7)

Q11 The speaker sounds natural

- ○ Strongly disagree (1)
- ○ Disagree (2)
- ○ Somewhat disagree (3)
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- ○ Somewhat agree (5)
- ○ Agree (6)
- ○ Strongly agree (7)

Q12 The speaker speaks slowly

- ○ Strongly disagree (1)
- ○ Disagree (2)
- ○ Somewhat disagree (3)
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- ○ Somewhat agree (5)
- ○ Agree (6)
- ○ Strongly agree (7)

Q13 The speaker is hesitant

- ○ Strongly disagree (1)
- ○ Disagree (2)
- ○ Somewhat disagree (3)
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- ○ Somewhat agree (5)
- ○ Agree (6)
- ○ Strongly agree (7)

Q14 The speaker is easy to understand

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Somewhat disagree (3)
- Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- Somewhat agree (5)
- Agree (6)
- Strongly agree (7)

End of Block: Audio 1.1

Start of Block: Familiarity with the genre

Q147 I have experience in being a job interviewee

- ○ Strongly disagree (1)
- ○ Disagree (2)
- ○ Somewhat disagree (3)
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- ○ Somewhat agree (5)
- ○ Agree (6)
- ○ Strongly agree (7)

Q148 I have experience in being a job interviewer

- ○ Strongly disagree (1)
- ○ Disagree (2)
- ○ Somewhat disagree (3)
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree (4)
- ○ Somewhat agree (5)
- ○ Agree (6)
- ○ Strongly agree (7)

End of Block: Familiarity with the genre

Start of Block: Background Characteristics

Q149 What is your age?

_____

Q150 What is your gender

- ○ Male (1)
- ○ Female (2)
- ○ I would rather not say (3)

Q151 What is your highest education completed?

- ○ Less than high school (1)
- ○ High school graduate (2)
- ○ Some college (3)
- ○ 2 year degree (4)
- ○ 4 year degree (5)
- ○ Professional degree (6)
- ○ Doctorate (7)
- ○ Other (8)

Q152 How long have you been teaching English?

- ○ Less than 1 year (1)
- ○ 1 to 3 years (2)
- ○ 3 to 5 years (3)
- ○ More than 5 years (4)
- ○ I have not teached English (5)

Q153 What is your current position?

_____

Q154 Are you a native speaker of English?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q155 In which country are you from?

▼ Afghanistan (1) ... Zimbabwe (1357)

Q156 What is your gender

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- I would rather not say (3)

End of Block: Background Characteristics

1.2 Script:

Script Well, I'd like to start by telling you something about my career. After I finished high school, I directly went to university to study Communication and Information Studies. I graduated in three years. The programme included an internship in a large organisation. I learnt a lot about marketing and other aspects of communication. I want to get more experience, so I am looking for a job. A little bit about myself... I can work well in teams and by myself. I have a great sense of responsibility and I always want to learn more. I think I am a team player and I can work with everyone. If I had to describe myself in three words, I would say "responsible, open-minded, happy". I am a quick learner and open for everything. I push myself to the limits and I like to get to know other cultures. I like to make others enthusiastic and I think outside the box. In that sense, you could say I am creative as well. That is why I think I am a good candidate for the position of junior communication analyst in your organisation.

Radboud Universiteit

1.3 Consent form of participants:

CONSENT FORM

Title of the research study: Effects of non-native accents on employability

Researcher responsible: Manou Gomlich

Statement of participant

The aim of the research study has been outlined to me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions regarding the research study. I participate voluntarily in the research study. I understand that I can stop at any point during the research study, should I wish to do so. I understand how the data of the research study will be stored and how they will be used. I consent to participating in the research study as described in the information document.

Permission for audio/video recordings

I give permission to (please check all that apply):

Yes No

x x have audio recordings made of me for this research study and save these recordings, following the applicable regulations of the Radboud University

x ✘ share the audio recordings with participants from Germany and The Netherlands

other remarks: ……..……..……..……..

Name: Viliyan Donchev

Date of birth: 11-03-1996

Signature: Viliyan Donchev

Date: 17-04-2020

Statement of executive researcher

I declare that I have informed the above-mentioned person correctly about the research study and that I abide by the guidelines for research as stated in the protocol of the Ethics Assessment Committee Humanities.

Name: Manou Gomlich

Radboud Universiteit

Signature: Date: 13-04-202

CONSENT FORM

Title of the research study: Effects of non-native accents on employability

Researcher responsible: Manou Gomlich

Statement of participant

The aim of the research study has been outlined to me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions regarding the research study. I participate voluntarily in the research study. I understand that I can stop at any point during the research study, should I wish to do so. I understand how the data of the research study will be stored and how they will be used. I consent to participating in the research study as described in the information document.

Permission for audio/video recordings

I give permission to (please check all that apply):

Yes	No
x☐	☐

have audio recordings made of me for this research study and save these recordings, following the applicable regulations of the Radboud University

□x □ share the audio recordings with participants from Germany and The Netherlands

other remarks: ……..

Ross Yates 18-03-98

Name: ……..... Date of birth:……..

17-04-2020

Signature: ..... Date:……..

Statement of executive researcher

I declare that I have informed the above-mentioned person correctly about the research study and that I abide by the guidelines for research as stated in the protocol of the Ethics Assessment Committee Humanities.

Name: Manou Gomlich

Signature: Date: 13-04-2020

Radboud Universiteit

CONSENT FORM

Title of the research study: Arabic-accented English and its impact on Hiring Success

Researcher responsible: Lina Toubasi

Statement of participant

The aim of the research study has been outlined to me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions regarding the research study. I participate voluntarily in the research study. I understand that I can stop at any point during the research study, should I wish to do so. I understand how the data of the research study will be stored and how they will be used. I consent to participating in the research study as described in the information document.

Permission for audio/video recordings

I give permission to (please check all that apply):

Yes	**No**	
☒	☐	have audio recordings made of me for this research study and save these recordings, following the applicable regulations of the Radboud University

☒ ☐ share the audio recordings with participants from Germany and The Netherlands

other remarks: ……

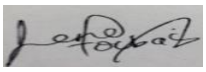
Name:Hussam Date of birth:22/8/96

Signature: HussamBJ Date:14/4/2020

Statement of executive researcher

I declare that I have informed the above-mentioned person correctly about the research study and that I abide by the guidelines for research as stated in the protocol of the Ethics Assessment Committee Humanities.

Name: Lina Toubasi

Signature:  Date: 14-04-2020

Radboud Universiteit

CONSENT FORM

Title of the research study: Arabic-accented English and its impact on Hiring Success

Researcher responsible: Lina Toubasi

Statement of participant

The aim of the research study has been outlined to me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions regarding the research study. I participate voluntarily in the research study. I understand that I can stop at any point during the research study, should I wish to do so. I understand how the data of the research study will be stored and how they will be used. I consent to participating in the research study as described in the information document.

Permission for audio/video recordings

I give permission to (please check all that apply): **Yes No**

x ☐ have audio recordings made of me for this research study and save these recordings, following the applicable regulations of the Radboud University

x☐ ☐ share the audio recordings with participants from Germany and The Netherlands

other remarks: ……

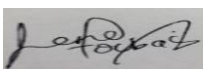
Name: Salman. Date of birth:29/12/94

Signature: Salman Date:14/04/2020

Statement of executive researcher

I declare that I have informed the above-mentioned person correctly about the research study and that I abide by the guidelines for research as stated in the protocol of the Ethics Assessment Committee Humanities.

Name: Lina Toubasi

Signature:  Date: 14-04-2020

1.4 Statement of own Work

Student name: Lina G.E. Toubasi

Student number: s1007510

PLAGIARISM is the presentation by a student of an assignment or piece of work which has in fact been copied in whole or in part from another student's work, or from any other source (e.g. published books or periodicals or material from Internet sites), without due acknowledgement in the text.

DECLARATION:

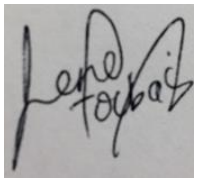
a. I hereby declare that I am familiar with the faculty manual (http://www.ru.nl/stip/english/rules-regulations/fraud-plagiarism/) and with

Article 16 "Fraud and plagiarism" in the Education and Examination Regulations for

the Bachelor's programme of Communication and Information Studies.

b. I also declare that I have only submitted text written in my own words

c. I certify that this thesis is my own work and that I have acknowledged all material and sources used in its preparation, whether they be books, articles, reports, lecture notes, and any other kind of document, electronic or personal communication.

Signature: 

Place and date: Ramallah- Palestine 12/07/2020