BURCU TEKTEN

AN INVESTIGATION OF ADULT EFL LEARNERS' FOREIGN LANGUAGE PRONUNCIATION ANXIETY AND RECONCEPTUALIZED L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM REGARDING ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION IN THE CONTEXT OF A HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION IN TURKEY

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BY

BURCU TEKTEN

TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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To all self-made people

An Investigation of Adult EFL Learners' Foreign Language Pronunciation Anxiety and Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System Regarding English Pronunciation in the Context of a Higher Education Institution in Turkey

The Graduate School of Education

of

İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University

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Burcu Tekten

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May 2020

I certify that I have read this thesis and have found that it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

Asst. Prof. Dr. Hilal Peker (Supervisor)

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ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION OF ADULT EFL LEARNERS' FOREIGN LANGUAGE PRONUNCIATION ANXIETY AND RECONCEPTUALIZED L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM REGARDING ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION IN THE CONTEXT OF A HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION IN TURKEY

Burcu Tekten
M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language
Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Hilal Peker
June 2020

In this study, foreign language pronunciation anxiety of English learners was examined within the scope of Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System. This non-experimental, cross-sectional quantitative study was conducted with 596 participants at the school of foreign languages of a state university in Turkey. A questionnaire was distributed online to collect data. The items of the questionnaire were adopted and adapted from Kralova, Skorvagova, Tirpakova, and Markechova (2017), Peker (2016), and Baran-Lucarz (2016). In order to analyze the data, descriptive and inferential statistics were run. The results indicated that foreign language pronunciation anxiety was a determinant of future L2 pronunciation selves. Moreover, feared L2 pronunciation self negatively correlated with ideal L2 pronunciation self, whereas it correlated positively with ought-to L2 pronunciation self. Finally, foreign language pronunciation anxiety was higher in female learners, less proficient learners, learners who had never been abroad and learners who had been learning English for a shorter period of time.

Keywords: Foreign Language Pronunciation Anxiety, Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System, L2 Pronunciation Self

ÖZET

İngilizce Öğrenen Yetişkinlerin Yabancı Dilde Telaffuz Kaygıları ve İngilizce Telaffuzuna Dair Yeniden Kavramsallaştırılmış İkinci Dil Motivasyonel Benlik Sisteminin Türkiye'de bir Yükseköğretim Kurumu Bağlamında İncelemesi

Burcu Tekten

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi
Tez Yöneticisi: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Hilal Peker

Haziran 2020

Bu çalışmada, yabancı dilde telaffuz kaygısı yeniden kavramsallaştırılmış ikinci dil motivasyonel benlik sistemi çerçevesinde incelenmiştir. Bu deneysel olmayan, kesitsel, nicel çalışma Türkiye'de bir devlet üniversitesinin yabancı diller yüksekokulundaki 596 katılımcıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Veri toplamak için internet yoluyla bir anket dağıtılmıştır. Anketteki maddeler Kralova, Skorvagova, Tirpakova, and Markechova (2017), Peker (2016) ve Baran-Lucarz (2016)'dan alınmış ve uyarlanmıştır. Veriyi analiz etmek için betimleyici ve çıkarımsal istatistik uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlar, yabancı dilde telaffuz kaygısının ikinci dildeki geleceğe dair telaffuz benliklerinde belirleyici olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, korkulan ikinci dil telaffuz benliği ideal ikinci dil telaffuz benliğiyle olumsuz ilişkilenirken, zorunlu ikincil telaffuz benliğiyle olumlu ilişkilenmiştir. Son olarak, yabancı dilde telaffuz kaygısı kadın öğrenciler, daha az yetkin öğrenciler, yurtdışına çıkmamış öğrenciler ve daha az süredir İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerde daha yüksek çıkmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Yabancı Dilde Telaffuz Kaygısı, Yeniden Kavramsallaştırılmış İkinci Dil Motivasyonel Benlik Sistemi, İkinci Dil Telaffuz Benliği

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Today speaking a foreign language enables individuals to connect with each other internationally in a variety of settings ranging from formal to informal, from virtual to face-to-face. In all settings, if the communication is not in the written form or signed, one has to comprehend what others say and likewise all parties need to produce comprehensible utterances (Pennington & Rogerson-Revell, 2019). This closely intertwined binary combination of oral communication is categorized under two skills: listening and speaking (Brown, 2001). One of the significant components of both skills is pronunciation because if one does not articulate a word correctly, change in the meaning is inevitable, or even worse, the linguistic message cannot be conveyed at all (Morley, 1998). Similarly, when one cannot recognize an audible word, communication breaks down. Therefore, the pursuit of better and more efficient pronunciation teaching practices is as old as the history of language teaching.

Another factor that effects production in foreign language is anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Anxiety is, in broad terms, “the feeling of being very worried about something” (Anxiety, n.d.). It prevents individuals from performing what they can actually do. Psychologists have identified specific anxiety reaction to discriminate it from general state of anxiety. Educational researchers, on the other hand, studied specific anxieties related to school tasks and subjects (Tobias, 1978). In language teaching, Horwitz et al. pointed out “foreign language classroom anxiety” (1986). Later studies have narrowed down the research to language-skill-

specific anxieties regarding affective factors (Cheng, 2017). Pronunciation anxiety has been a part of speaking anxiety for years; however, researchers have recently focused on pronunciation anxiety separately. They have associated pronunciation anxiety with "negative self-perceptions, beliefs and fears" (Baran-Lucarz, 2017), which is related to Peker's (2016) Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System Model. However, there are only a few studies relating pronunciation anxiety to future L2 selves. Therefore, there is still room for research in this area.

With respect to this assumption, this study aims to explore the relationship between foreign language pronunciation anxiety and future L2 selves (i.e. ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self, and ought-to L2 pronunciation self) of adult learners of English in Turkey.

Background of the study

In the 19th century, the focus of foreign language teaching shifted towards spoken language with the efforts of reformists such as Wilhelm Vietör and Paul Passy, who believed that Grammar Translation Method could not meet the needs of the time (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). This shift in the focus of language teaching resulted in a scientific approach to spoken language because reformists wanted to give credibility to their ideas (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Since this scientific, hence systematic approach to language emerged, there have been plenty of studies on L2 pronunciation development investigating which sounds are difficult to articulate for speakers of other languages, how to teach and treat them and why individuals differ and have difficulty in pronunciation.

Among factors affecting L2 pronunciation are "transfer and other learning processes, age effects, quantity and quality of input and output, educational factors", and "individual differences" (Pennington & Rogerson-Revell, 2019, p.75). Touching

upon these five factors concisely would provide a clear comprehension of the topic since the literature in the field revolves around the same issues. The first factor worth explaining is transfer, which is L1 transfer while learning another language.

L1 transfer is one of the psycholinguistic aspects of second language acquisition (Ellis, 2003). It is the effect of one's native language on the second language. Differently stated, it is the phenomenon that individuals learn a new language using the paradigms of their first language. For instance, Turkish learners of English have difficulty in pronouncing /θ/ and /ð/ sounds (Bardakçı, 2015; Hişmanoğlu, 2009) perhaps because they are similar to Turkish /d/. Therefore, there are studies focused on the role of the first language in L2 phonology acquisition, as well. Researchers approached the topic from different perspectives. "The contrastive analysis hypothesis, error analysis and avoidance, the interlanguage hypothesis, markedness theory, language universals and information procession theory" are some of them (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, Goodwin, & Griner, 2010, p. 22).

Another factor affecting pronunciation is age. Children's success in acquiring sounds of a new language is easily noticed by anyone. This observation might refer to Critical Period Hypothesis. Birdsong (1999) defines this period as critical because reaching the level of native speakers is not attainable when it ends. It means that "due to the loss of brain plasticity during natural maturation" (VanPatten & Williams, 2015, p. 7), individuals older than a certain age cannot master a new language, especially regarding pronunciation. Some linguists and cognitive scientists argue that critical period ends at the age of 5-6, while others support that it ends in adolescence (Pennington & Rogerson-Revell, 2019). However, there are also adults who achieve high pronunciation proficiency (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). The reason might lie in input and output.

Input is a widely discussed issue in SLA through various aspects. It is also important for pronunciation because amount of input has an impact on pronunciation (Flege, 2009; Piske & MacKay, 1999). In addition, whether input is generated in classroom or natural environment (e.g. English speaking countries) affects pronunciation (Long, 2015). During foreign language classes, teacher is generally the one who provides impromptu input. Other sources are listening tracks in coursebooks or audio-visual aids brought to class. Moreover, if individuals learn a language in a country other than English speaking countries, classrooms serve as the only affordances for productive skills. Therefore, educational factors are another important aspect in pronunciation.

By educational factors, total duration of schooling, the extent to which education is effective, level and type of education and amount of learning are considered (Pennington & Rogerson-Revell, 2019). As for total duration of schooling on an individual basis, for instance, a more educated person would achieve more regarding learning a new language (Spada & Tomita, 2010) or less educated adult EFL learners would experience "significant difficulty completing oral tasks that require the noticing and manipulation of linguistic form" (Tarone, Bigelow, & Hansen, 2009, p. 73). Furthermore, in classes especially the ones covering intermediate and advanced curricula, instructors might encounter more pronunciation mistakes made by their students (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). This distinctiveness in education is observed in other personal factors, which are individual differences.

Individual differences is the last, perhaps most important item regarding factors affecting pronunciation. The five aspects of individual differences are "personality, aptitude, motivation, learning styles and learning strategies" (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Personality involves extraversion, neuroticism and

anxiety, tolerance of ambiguity, empathy and field independence (Pennington & Rogerson-Revell, 2019).

Among the subcategories of personality, anxiety has been recently identified as pronunciation anxiety by Baran-Lucarz (2014, 2016). Pronunciation anxiety is "a multidimensional construct referring to the feeling of apprehension experienced by non-native speakers in oral-communicative situations, due to negative/low pronunciation self-perception and to beliefs and fears related to pronunciation" (Baran-Lucarz, 2014, p. 453). Baran-Lucarz drew conclusions based on her phonetics teaching experience and her studies on phonetics. She also found that pronunciation anxiety depended on target-language proficiency level, group size, type of task and level of familiarity with interlocutors.

Getting back to individual differences, motivation plays an important role in language learning. It is the driving force for people to realize something. Gardner and Lambert (1972) categorized L2 motivation as integrative (being part of L2 community) and instrumental (goals in life). On the other hand, Deci and Ryan (1985) identified it as intrinsic (one's own wants and needs) and extrinsic (motives stimulated by others). New definitions and new models of motivation have been generated since Gardner, Deci and Ryan.

One of them is Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (2005, 2009). Dörnyei coined motivation and self because he believed in the uniqueness of individual. Moreover, according to Dörnyei, every person has a future self reference that guides them while learning a new language. In addition to learning experience, he specified two future self guides; ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self. While ideal L2 self image motivates one to become the person in their dreams regarding speaking an L2, ought-to L2 self represents the features one believes he/she has to bear. L2 Motivational

Self System (L2MSS) has been researched for fifteen years now and new directions emerged in relation to L2MSS.

Peker (2016) reconceptualised L2MSS by adding feared L2 self to the components. To Peker, individuals are motivated to succeed because they want to avoid the negative consequences of becoming the person they are afraid of. Therefore, it is different from ideal and ought-to L2 self. She investigated the concept of bullying with regards to Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System (R-L2MSS) and results supported her hypothesis.

The aforementioned concepts suggest that there is a link between pronunciation anxiety and motivation as well as variables such as gender and age while learning a foreign language. Therefore, it is necessary to examine the relationship between the foreign language pronunciation anxiety and R-L2MSS in addition to the effect of age, gender, language proficiency, experience abroad and nationals.

Statement of the Problem

A good pronunciation is an important component of L2 proficiency. It is one of the criteria in all exams testing speaking such as TOEFL (TOEFL IBT Speaking Rubric, 2019) and IELTS (IELTS Speaking Band Descriptors, 2019). L1 transfer, teaching methods and the amount of input are some of the reasons that affect student progress in L2 pronunciation (Pennington and Rogerson-Revell, 2019). With this respect, many researchers in applied linguistics have dealt with English pronunciation development in the speakers of other languages by conducting empirical studies such as Korean speakers learning English consonants (Gooch, Saito & Lyster, 2016) and Dutch speakers learning English vowels (Simon & D'Hulster, 2012). Such studies have been conducted in Turkish context as well. For example,

Demirezen (2017) worked on vowel fossilization in junior English majors and Hişmanoğlu (2009) coped with problems in the articulation of English interdental sounds of Turkish learners. These studies have contributed to the discipline by offering specific techniques on the teaching and treatment of the mispronounced sounds. However, they excluded individual differences.

While L1 transfer is one of the major reasons in poor pronunciation, researchers have found that individual differences, especially affective factors have a strong influence on pronunciation development and production. Language researchers especially conducted descriptive studies on the perceptions of students and teachers of English in terms of speaking and anxiety (Bozavlı & Gülmez, 2012; Phillips, 1992). Nevertheless, there is a gap in literature regarding the link between pronunciation anxiety and Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System Model. Therefore, it is aimed to investigate the relationship between pronunciation anxiety and future selves in adult learners of English in Turkish context to help them break the glass ceiling of worries.

Research Questions

The main purpose of this non-experimental cross-sectional quantitative study is to explain the relationship between foreign language pronunciation anxiety and future L2 possible selves in the learners of English at a state university in Turkey. To this end, this study addresses the following questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between foreign language pronunciation anxiety and learners' future selves? Specifically,
    a) Ideal L2 pronunciation self
    b) Ought-to L2 pronunciation self
    c) Feared L2 pronunciation self

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between learners' ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self, and ought to L2 pronunciation self?
3. To what extent does learners' FLPA differ by age, gender, English proficiency level, having been abroad, time spent learning English, and country?
4. To what extent do learners' future L2 selves differ by age, gender, proficiency level, having been abroad, time spent learning English, and country?

Significance

Foreign language classroom anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986) has been explored in many ways (Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012; Dewaele & Al-saraj, 2015; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Liu & Chen, 2013; Marcos-Llinás & Juan-Garau, 2009; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Thompson & Lee, 2014). It has been investigated in speaking, as well (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014; Pennington & Rogers-Revell, 2019; Saito & Samimy, 1996). Although pronunciation is one of the main components causing speaking anxiety, foreign language pronunciation anxiety as a separate construct has only been in the literature for six years (Baran-Lucarz, 2014). Therefore, a limited number of studies are found regarding pronunciation anxiety. Moreover, to the best of researcher's knowledge, there are only two studies (Kafes, 2018; Yağız, 2018) regarding participants' foreign language pronunciation anxiety in Turkish context. Another concept that is less frequently investigated in Turkish context is L2 Motivational Self System. Dörnyei (2005, 2009) proposed L2MSS more than a decade ago. Nevertheless, it is possible to find a vast amount of literature regarding L2MSS except for Turkey (Thompson & Erdil-Moody, 2016). Furthermore,

Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System by Peker (2016) is a novel concept, on which there is no empirical studies yet. Since EFL learners' FLPA might be closely related to motivation, in particular future self imagery (i.e. ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self, and ought-to L2 pronunciation self), this particular area was chosen to be explored. The results will help instructors, administrators and curriculum designers implement strategies and interventions lowering FLPA while providing learners with a positive image of the self.

Definition of Key Terms

Anxiety: The feeling of being very worried about something (Anxiety, n.d.)

Foreign language anxiety: A mental block against foreign language learning (Kralova, 2016). It is a concept that is related to the negative emotional reactions of learners towards foreign language acquisition (Horwitz, 2010).

Pronunciation anxiety: "A multidimensional construct referring to the feeling of apprehension and worry experienced by non-native speakers in oral communicative situations, when learning and using a FL in the classroom and/or natural contexts, deriving from their negative/low self-perceptions, beliefs and fears related specifically to pronunciation" (Baran-Lucarz, 2014, p.453)

Possible selves: Future-oriented selves focusing on goals and desires that regulate human behaviour. In other words, it refers to "what we would like to become" and "what we are afraid of becoming" in the future (Henderson, Stevenson, & Bathmaker, 2018; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Yowell, 2000)

Ideal self: An individual view of the self that someone would like to become in the future (Dörnyei, 2009; Markus & Nurius, 1986)

Ought-to self: An image of one's self that is obliged by another individual (Markus & Nurius, 1986). One believes that he/she has to live up to these expectations or obligations by others and become this person (Dörnyei, 2009; Uslu-Ok, 2013)

Feared self: An individual view of the self that someone would not like to or afraid to become in the future (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Markus & Nurius, 1986)

Ideal L2 self: An ideal future self as a proficient speaker of a second or foreign language that someone dreams of becoming (Baran-Lucarz, 2017; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009)

Ought-to L2 self: An ought-to future self as a proficient speaker of a second or foreign language that others impose on someone (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009)

Feared L2 self: A feared future self as a non-proficient speaker of a second or foreign language who has to endure negative outcomes such as humiliation and bullying due to not being an adept speaker (Peker, 2016)

Ideal L2 pronunciation self: An ideal future or imagined self as a proficient speaker of a second or foreign language who has good pronunciation skills; individuals are motivated to become this ideal self because they themselves desire so

Ought-to L2 pronunciation self: An ought-to future or imagined self as a speaker of a second or foreign language who has good pronunciation skills to meet the expectations of others

Feared L2 pronunciation self: A feared future or imagined self as a speaker of a second or foreign language who is discriminated due to poor pronunciation skills

Conclusion

In this chapter, the two tenets of this study, i.e. foreign language pronunciation anxiety and Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System were mentioned. After a brief introduction, the background of the study was presented by

identifying concepts such as factors affecting pronunciation and L2 motivation. Next, statement of the problem and research questions were provided. After that, the significance of this study was explained through the gap in the literature and the local gap. In the second chapter, literature review regarding the current study and the empirical studies upon which the data of this study were discussed will be found. In the third chapter, the methodology of the study is described. In the fourth chapter, analysis of the data is presented. In the final chapter, as well as suggestions for further research, findings, conclusions, pedagogical implications and limitations of the study are discussed thoroughly.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

In this chapter it is aimed to document the literature regarding traditional, theoretical, and empirical perspectives on L2 pronunciation anxiety and contemporary theories of motivation in second language acquisition (SLA), specifically the L2 Motivation Self System and the Reconceptualization of L2 Motivational Self System. The discussions in this chapter establish the theoretical basis for the research questions investigated in this study.

Pronunciation and Anxiety

In production skills (i.e., speaking and writing), affective factors play an important role as much as cognitive factors do. Researchers have become aware of this phenomenon and examined foreign language anxiety (FLA) by measuring it via skill-based instruments (Saito & Samimy, 1996; Sellers, 2000; Young, 1990). These studies revealed that anxiety interferes with the production of speech in the learners of a foreign language the most (Horwitz, 2010). One of the items that causes anxiety is pronunciation (Baran-Lucarz, 2011; Philips, 1992). Pronunciation is strongly related to the language identity and self-confidence because foreign accent might sometimes be linked to negative and unconscious stereotypes (Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010). Tannen (2014) points out that “negative stereotypes can have important social consequences, affecting decisions about educational advancement, job hiring, and even social policies on a national scale” (p. 372). Moreover, when listeners have difficulty in understanding, they might judge the speaker as “less credible” (Lev-Ari

& Keysar, 2010, p. 21). Although learners would like to avoid the negative consequences of poor pronunciation, there are factors that impact L2 pronunciation.

Among the factors that affect L2 pronunciation is L1 transfer (Pennington & Rogerson-Revell, 2019). Because a second language is learned after a mother tongue (i.e., sequentially), L1/L2 comparison regarding the similarities and differences between the two languages (Contrastive Analysis, Lado, 1957) were thought to explain correct and incorrect forms of pronunciation especially in the early studies of pronunciation (Brière, 1966; Johansson, 1973; Nemser, 1971; Stockwell & Bowen, 1965). Wode (1977) noted similarities rather than differences interfering L2 pronunciation acquisition. Studies on the sounds that Turkish learners of English have difficulty in have also been conducted in Turkish context.

Pronunciation Problems of Turkish EFL Learners

As Kelly notes (2000), "a learner who consistently mispronounces a range of phonemes can be extremely difficult for a speaker from another language community to understand" (p. 11). Researchers in Turkey have dealt with the pronunciation problems of Turkish EFL learners. They have diagnosed the sounds that pose a problem for adult learners of English and they have tried to identify the reasons behind them. They have also come up with some suggestions to treat mispronunciation.

Demirezen, who conducted experimental studies on segmental phonetic problems in Turkish context, have several articles on the matter. Among the sounds he conducted research on are /r/ (2013), /æ / and /ʌ / (2008), /o/ and /ow/ (2005a), /v/ and /w/ (2005b), and /æ/ and /ɑ/ (2017). In all these studies, he emphasized the role of the phonetic differences between Turkish and English in the fossilization of pronunciation errors. For example, in his 2007 study on /æ/ and /ɑ/ sounds, he noted

that /æ/ phoneme “does not exist in Turkish vowel inventory at all” (p. 261); hence, it is less familiar to Turkish speakers of English than the phoneme /ɑ/. Another example is from his study regarding a comparison between /æ / and /ʌ / (2008). In this study, he called out the reason as “inevitable mother-tongue pronunciation habits” (p. 1). Demirezen’s studies have other aspects in common. One of them is the participants. In other words, these studies focused on adult learners of EFL such as PhD candidates at the department of ELT, pre-service and in-service English teachers. One can conclude that they are all advanced speakers of English. However, they still struggled with pronunciation problems. Therefore, Demirezen developed a model called *Audio-articulation Method (AAM)* to heal these problems and tested it on several sounds including consonants and vowels in various settings stated above (2010). In brief, AAM consists of five steps:

1. Specifying the pronunciation problem-causing phoneme;
2. Preparing a general corpus of words of problem causing 50-100 phonemes and pairs;
3. Specifying the words into minimal pairs within contrastive analysis;
4. Preparing minimal pair corpus out of the general corpus as a case of contrastive analysis;
5. Developing tongue twisters, cliché articulations, minimal sentences, contextual clues, and problem-sound concentrated sentences for practice in class (Geylanioğlu & Dikilitaş, 2012, p. 39).

The practice in class is a one-time session lasting 50 minutes. To explore the effectiveness of AAM, Demirezen implemented a pretest before the treatment and a posttest after the treatment. In all his studies, Demirezen concluded that AAM

resulted in a significant repair in the related sound. Therefore, other researchers tested AAM as well (Hişmanoğlu 2004, 2009; Kahraman, 2013).

Kahraman (2013) conducted an experimental study on the /l/ phoneme in non-native instructors of English at a Turkish university. He stated that Turkish speakers of English had difficulty in differentiating the two allophones of /l/ phoneme: dark [ɬ] and clear [l]. Dark [ɬ] appeared to be a voiced velar lateral sound. Clear [l] shared the same phonetic features except for one; it is palatal instead of being velar. To cure this confusion, Kahraman adopted *Audio-articulation Method* by Demirezen (2010, 2017, 2008) and found that it benefitted Turkish EFL learners to overcome the difficulty in pronouncing /l/ phoneme.

In another study, Hişmanoğlu (2009) studied the treatment of English inter-dental consonant phonemes /θ/ and /ð/ in a pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design with thirty participants studying at the department of ELT at a private university in Cyprus. After the treatment or intervention via AAM, Hişmaoğlu also concluded that AAM is "effective for solving pronunciation problems of students." (p. 1702). There are also other studies which do not make use of AAM.

Şen (2019) structured his study on the teaching of four General British vowels, namely /i:/, /ɪ/, /ʊ/, and /u:/. The participants were a class of twenty students studying health sciences at a private university in Ankara. The researcher benefitted from "visual, kinaesthetic, and auditory techniques" (p. 152) to raise students' awareness. He first presented a phonemic chart regarding these four vowels. Then he made students produce the sounds in groups, pairs or individually. For further practice, he selected minimal pairs containing these sounds to form listening activities and asked his students to choose between. He also did three activities, namely sound maze, finding the sound in a text and *bilingual minimal pairs* (Marks

& Bowen as cited in Şen, 2019). The author made use of bilingual pairs consisted of English and Turkish words such as “obese (En) vs obez (Tr)” and “shoot (En) vs şut (Tr)”. Although Şen neither stated the duration of the treatment nor mentioned a pretest-posttest design, he concluded that the students in this study “became more aware of the characteristics of the GB vowel system” (p. 156). He noted that his paper aimed to offer some practical solutions to pronunciation problems of Turkish adult speakers of English.

Another researcher targeting at Turkish EFL pre-service teachers’ pronunciation problems is Bardakçı. Bardakçı (2015) conducted a classroom research at a state university in Turkey to specify the problematic sounds for Turkish speakers of English. Bardakçı worked with 22 students in total in the course of an academic term. There was not a pretest specifically designed to measure pronunciation; however, participants took a proficiency test to determine their exact level of English proficiency. The proficiency test showed that students’ were at B2 level (intermediate) on average. In the first three weeks, the researcher lectured on IPA symbols and the articulation of the sounds. Participants were responsible of presenting an appealing topic to them in 20 minutes in the following weeks. All presentations were videotaped and later on evaluated both by the participants themselves and by the researcher. The findings revealed that the most common mispronounced sounds were /ə/, /θ/, /ŋ/ and /æ/. However, Bardakçı found that /θ/ and /ŋ/ were less frequent and listeners might deduce the meaning easily even in the occasions of mispronunciation, whereas the mispronunciation of /æ/ and /ə/ interfered with the meaning more. Therefore, he suggested that practitioners in Turkey should spend more time on the sounds /æ/ and /ə/ and teach these two together.

In another study, Geylanioğlu and Dikilitaş (2012) examined schwa /Ə/, voiced and voiceless th /ð/-/θ/ and ng /ŋ/ sounds due to their observations of pre-intermediate students in the prep school of a then-private university in Turkey throughout an academic year. In their mixed-method study, they investigated how students pronounced these four sounds and the reasons why they had difficulty in articulating these sounds. To answer their research questions, they designed their study in two phases. In the first phase, they collected data from 24 prep students by asking them to read 30 words including the sounds mentioned. They found that the most problematic sounds were /ð/ and /θ/ because the percentage of the correct pronunciation was 13. The second most problematic sound was schwa with 16 % and the sound that students articulated more correctly was /ŋ/ sound correctly with 51 %. In the second phase, they handed in open-ended questionnaires to their students regarding the cause of their mispronunciation. The results of the questionnaires showed that teaching practices were related to mispronunciation because teachers paid little attention to in-class pronunciation training.

As the qualitative data in the last research above indicated, there are more factors affecting pronunciation other than L1 transfer. Among these are “educational factors, age effects, quantity and quality of input and output and individual differences” (Pennington & Rogerson-Revell, 2019, p. 75). Therefore, the current study focuses on individual differences (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009) in L2 pronunciation deriving from motivation and personality, specifically pronunciation anxiety.

Defining Pronunciation Anxiety

Although Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986) has been investigated a lot in relation to fear of speaking (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014; Pennigton & Rogers-Revell, 2019), pronunciation anxiety had not been isolated until

Baran-Lucarz (2014, 2016) sought to develop a separate construct. As noted in Baran-Lucarz (2014), "pronunciation anxiety can be defined as a multidimensional construct referring to the feeling of apprehension experienced by non-native speakers in oral-communicative situations, due to negative/low pronunciation self-perception and to beliefs and fears related to pronunciation" (p. 453). She also suggested a working model for pronunciation anxiety (see Figure 1). The subcomponents of the model are *fear of negative evaluation, pronunciation self-efficacy and self-assessment, pronunciation self-image*, and *a set of beliefs related to pronunciation* (Baran-Lucarz, 2016). Baran-Lucarz (2016) defined the subcomponents in the following:

> (1) fear of negative evaluation—apprehension and worry caused by projecting negative assessment made by listeners and/or interlocutors (the classmates, teacher, native speakers or other non-native speakers) about the speaker, on the basis of his or her pronunciation;
>
> (2) pronunciation self-efficacy and self-assessment—perceptions about one's inborn predispositions to acquire or learn a FL phonological system and about the level of the TL pronunciation one represents (usually formed by comparing oneself to classmates or other speakers of the TL);
>
> (3) pronunciation self-image—beliefs held by FL learners or users about their reception by others, that is about the way they sound and look like when speaking a FL, and their acceptance of the perceived self-image;
>
> (4) a set of beliefs related to pronunciation, such as those about its importance for successful communication, difficulties with learning TL pronunciation by learners representing a particular L1, and attitudes towards the sound of the TL (pp. 43-44).

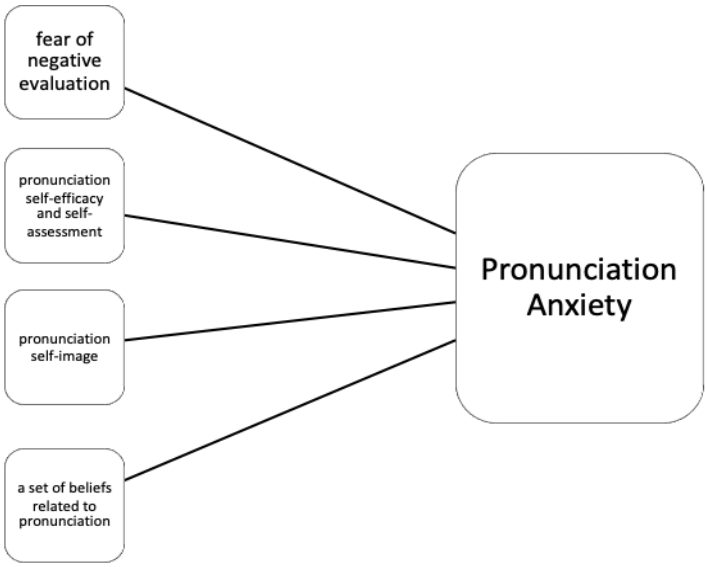

Figure 1. The working model of pronunciation anxiety. Adapted from "The link between pronunciation anxiety and willingness to communicate in the foreign-language classroom: The Polish EFL context," M. Baran-Łucarz, 2014. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *70*(4), p.454.

The subcomponents of pronunciation anxiety indicate that one can experience anxiety related to pronunciation while speaking in both learning environment and real-life situations. Therefore, it must be further explored in different settings. However, since pronunciation anxiety is a new paradigm in SLA research, researchers have recently started to examine pronunciation anxiety particularly.

Kafes (2018) investigated the pronunciation anxiety of university students using the questionnaire developed by Kralova, Skorvagova, Tirpakova, and Markechova (2017). The participants of the quantitative study were 75 first-year students who were majoring English language teaching at a state university in Turkey. The results revealed that all participants possessed a moderate level of anxiety. In addition, although there was not a statistically significant difference between genders, educational background, perceived level of pronunciation skills and perceived level of pronunciation anxiety had an impact on pronunciation anxiety.

For instance, participants who studied English for a year in prep schools had higher pronunciation anxiety. Furthermore, students who had a higher level of English proficiency reported higher level of pronunciation anxiety. Kafes concluded that pronunciation anxiety in participants might be caused by the fear of making mistakes in pronunciation and reminding language learners of the fact that making mistakes is a part of natural process of learning might help students.

In another study, Baran-Lucarz (2014) examined the relationship between willingness to communicate and pronunciation anxiety. Pronunciation anxiety was conceptualized as pronunciation self-perception, fear of negative evaluation, and beliefs concerning the pronunciation of the target language. Participants of this mixed methods study were 151 learners of English at a university in Poland. They had different levels of English proficiency (B2, B1, and A2). The participants responded to a questionnaire covering both Likert-scale questions and open-ended questions. The results of the study indicated that pronunciation anxiety negatively correlated with willingness to communicate ($r = -.60$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, although the relationship between pronunciation anxiety and willingness to communicate was found to be significant in all levels, the strongest correlation was in B1 level ($r = -.82$).

Not addressing pronunciation anxiety directly, Szyszka (2011) tested whether there was a relationship between foreign language anxiety and pronunciation, in particular self-perceived levels of pronunciation competence. In order to answer the research questions of the study, Szyska conducted a quantitative study consisted of two questionnaires. The first questionnaire was adapted from Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al., 1986). The second questionnaire was the Pronunciation Self-evaluation Form, which was created by Szyszka. The participants

were 48 prospective teachers of English. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant negative relationship between foreign language anxiety and self-perceived levels of pronunciation competence. In other words, participants who reported their pronunciation levels as low had a higher level of anxiety. It was also observed in suprasegmental aspects of pronunciation such as stress, rhythm, weak forms and assimilation.

Researchers have tried ways to find solution to pronunciation anxiety of the learners. Kralova, Skorvagova, Tirpakova, and Markechova (2017) conducted a research combining the treatment of pronunciation and pronunciation anxiety. To do so, they first developed a questionnaire to describe the status of foreign language pronunciation anxiety of their participants who were student teachers in their first year. They also tested their pronunciation skills via a pretest. They implemented a twelve-week intervention regarding both psychosocial training where students talked about their anxieties and a pronunciation training to improve students' pronunciation. After the interventions, the participants took the same questionnaire and pronunciation pretest as the posttest. The researchers observed that there was a statistically significant difference, hence a correlation between the interventions and anxiety/pronunciation levels.

Kralova, Tirpakova and Skorvagova (2018) conducted a similar intervention a year later their previous work. This time, they focused on personality factors and foreign language anxiety. The participants of the new study were 63 Slovak learners of English. Unlike the previous intervention, this treatment lasted 24 weeks. It combined psychosocial training (experiment group exclusive) and English pronunciation training (for both experiment group and control group). In order to test the effectiveness of the treatment, researchers preferred a repeated measures test.

Both pretest and posttest consisted of Foreign Language Anxiety Scale developed by the researchers for their previous study and Sixteen Factor Personality Questionnaire (Cattell, Cattell, & Cattell, 1997). The results of both experiment and control groups yielded that there was a statistically significant mean difference between pretest and posttest regarding reasoning, emotional stability, apprehension, tension, anxiety. However, only the tests results of the experiment group differed in social boldness, vigilance and self-control.

In another study, Lee (2016) examined the anxiety reducing effect of oral corrective feedback in pronunciation through a mixed methods study. The participants were 60 international graduate students at a university in the USA. They were training to be teaching assistants and they were advanced speakers of English. Lee collected data by observing classrooms, distributing surveys and interviews with some participants. The results indicated that except for clarification requests, most of the instructors' oral corrective feedback helped students lower their anxiety.

The effects of the corrective feedback on language anxiety regarding pronunciation development were also investigated by Luquin and Roothooft (2019). In their study, Luquin and Roothooft examined the pronunciation of –ed ending using two types of corrective feedback, namely recasts and metalinguistic feedback. The study had a pre-test post-test design (a reading aloud test) along with a treatment (storytelling). The participants were 30 A2+ level learners of English at a secondary school in Spain who had either low-level anxiety or high-level anxiety. They were distributed into three groups, each of which consisted of 10 participants including 5 low-level anxiety learners and 5 high-level anxiety learners. The first group was the recast group, the second group was the metalinguistic feedback group, and the last group was the control group. Recasts were found to be useful for pronunciation

development because there was statistically significant mean difference between control group and recast group. However, there was no difference between the anxiety groups regarding implementing different corrective feedback techniques on the development of pronunciation.

Apart from psychosocial training and corrective feedback, L2 motivation related issues and techniques might be employed to control pronunciation anxiety. As noted in Dörnyei (2005), individual differences including personality, aptitude, motivation, learning styles, and learning strategies are an important factor affecting SLA (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Therefore, another reason why students experience pronunciation anxiety might lie in motivation.

Motivation and Second Language Acquisition

Motivation, briefly stated, is the desire to do something. According to American Psychological Association, it is "the impetus that gives purpose or direction to behavior and operates in humans at a conscious or unconscious level" (Motivation, n.d.). In other words, motivation is responsible for "*why* people decide to do something, *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity, *how hard* they are going to pursue it" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 4, italics are original). Many recognize motivation as an important factor in second or foreign language (L2) learning because, unlike first language acquisition, some individuals are more successful at second language learning than others are (Ushioda, 2013). Therefore, second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have presented different theories and models attempting to explain the role of motivation in language learning (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Dörnyei, MacIntyre & Henry, 2014; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Ushioda, 2009, 2013).

The social psychologists, Gardner and Lambert pioneered comprehensive models of L2 motivation in 1959 (Dörnyei, MacIntyre & Henry, 2014; Ushioda, 2013). They approached L2 motivation from a sociocultural perspective. The bilingual context that communities speak either English or French in Canada led Gardner and Lambert to develop their sociocultural model (Guerrero, 2015). They assumed that the motivation to learn the language of the other depended on the interaction with them and their language, hence the attitudes of the learners towards that language community (Dörnyei, 2005; Guerrero, 2015). Therefore, the two pillars of their theory of motivation are *integrative orientation* (or goal) and *instrumental orientation* (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Integrative orientation, on one hand, is individual's wants about being a part of L2 community culturally and linguistically (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). The more individuals are affiliated with target culture and language, the more they are motivated and successful. On the other hand, instrumental orientation is associated with external and practical reasons such as trade, higher salary or education (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). This binary model of L2 motivation attempted to explain causes and effects of motivational behavior from the perspective of individuals isolated from their micro context (Ushioda, 2009). Moreover, it was linear (Ushioda, 2009). In other words, it was in a positivist manner where one obtained the exact same results every time they performed a certain act. However, such a perspective excludes cognitive aspect of motivation. Furthermore, within the advancements in technology, easy and affordable access to overseas travel, and migration due to political and financial purposes, the world today has become freer of boundaries of any kind (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009; Ushioda, 2013). In the early 2000s, for example, English was spoken by almost 1.5 billion people in the world (Crystal, 2003). In addition, speaking English is viewed as a fundamental

skill regarding education besides literacy and algebra (Graddol, 2006). Therefore, the motivational reasons one possibly has and the ownership of English have transformed in the last decades and new horizons in motivation needed to be discovered in the area of L2 motivational research.

One of the recent motivational theories is the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). The term was coined by Dörnyei, who re-theorized motivation in relation to self and identity (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). Dörnyei developed this novel theory of motivation based on two tenets in psychology: Possible selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987).

Possible Selves Theory

To be able to define possible selves, self-knowledge must be defined first. In philosophy, self-knowledge is "the knowledge of one's own sensations, thoughts, beliefs, and other mental states" (Gertler, 2015, para. 1). In psychology, it is regarded as an important factor that regulates human behavior (Carver & Scheier, 1982; Greenwald & Pratkanis, 1984). Sources of self-knowledge are physical world (e.g. measuring our weight), social comparison, reflected appraisals, introspection, and self-perception (Brown, 2014). Some of these sources need not to be tested by individuals themselves.

As Markus and Nurius noted (1987), one's perceptions, beliefs and ideas on their hopes, fears, dreams and capacity are among the sources that help individuals acquire knowledge on the self. Although they might not be experienced or tested in real life, they are worth discussing because they are reflected on the way one functions and behave. For instance, an amateur guitarist who wants to be one of the top guitar virtuosos in the world will practice for hours. Moreover, this guitarist

might be practicing for hours because his/her parents expect him/her to become a virtuoso. Furthermore, he/she might dread the prospect of turning into an ordinary musician who spends his/her life playing in front of a small audience in bars or restaurants; hence, he/she might be motivated not to be lazy. All these three future possible options are parts of one's self according to Markus and Nurius (1987). Although Markus and Nurius do not overtly state how many possible selves there are, in their terminology, becoming one of the top guitar virtuosos is this musician's *ideal self*; fulfilling his/her parents' expectations is his/her *ought self* and being afraid of becoming an ordinary guitarist is his/her *feared self*.

One last aspect to be touched upon possible selves is that individuals have their own image of future self and they set a course accordingly. Even though two different individuals possess the same ideal self, here being a guitar virtuoso playing rock music, the imagery in their mind would differ. For instance, one might think of becoming the next Carlos Santana, while the other dreams of being the successor of Eric Clapton. Then, the songs they practice would even differ. Therefore, future possible selves are unique.

In brief, as Oyserman and Markus noted (1990), possible selves represent "what individuals could become, would like to become, or are afraid of becoming" (p. 112). They are tailored to the wants, needs, or fears of an individual. People either approach or avoid the possible selves in their mind. In other words, they are motivated to shorten or widen the discrepancy between their current selves and possible selves.

Self-Discrepancy Theory

This theory postulates that individuals are motivated to meet their self-guide depending on how much importance they attach to it (Higgins, 1987). One's self-

guide consists of *ideal self* and *ought self.* Then, an individual tries to minimize the discrepancy between his/her *actual self* and related self-guides. Besides, there are two standpoints to the discrepancies namely *own* (individuals' own opinions about themselves) and *significant other* (other people's opinions about them). In that, people compare their actual/own self and ideal/own self, while they compare their actual/other self and ideal/other self to shape their lives. According to Higgins, two basic psychological situations occur regarding discrepancies. These are *absence of positive outcomes* (either actual or expected) and *presence of negative outcomes* (either actual or expected). Higgins (1987), however, chooses to explain only four of the discrepancies and psychological situations, hence emotions attributed to them.

The first one is *actual/own versus ideal/own*. When there is discrepancy between the two, one might feel dejection-related emotions such as sadness and disappointment because of the absence of positive outcomes. For instance, when a student gets lower letter grade than he/she personally expects, he/she is vulnerable to disappointment or dissatisfaction. The second one is *actual/own versus ideal/other*. Similar to the first type of discrepancy, there is the absence of positive outcomes. Therefore, people might experience dejection-related emotions such as shame, embarrassment or feeling downcast since they think that they lose status before others' eyes. The third one is *actual/own versus ought/other*. This discrepancy might result in agitation-related emotions such as fear, threat or anxiety because of the presence of negative outcomes (e.g. punishment). For instance, when office workers cannot complete a project on time, they might have their pay cut or even lose their job. Finally, the last discrepancy proposed by Higgins (1987) is *actual/own versus ought/own*. If individuals are in the opinion that they cannot fulfil what they personally think they are obliged to do, they are susceptible to agitation-related

emotions (i.e. guilt, uneasiness and self-contempt) due to the presence of negative outcomes. These obligations are mostly associated with internalized moral standards.

In conclusion, this theory presents four self-discrepancies that motivate them to curtail the discomfort caused by the discrepancy. However, it does not suggest that individuals have only one type of self-discrepancy. "Particular individuals can possess none of them, all of them, or any combination of them; thus, one can have no emotional vulnerability, only one (i.e., a pure case), or a number of different kinds of emotional vulnerabilities" (Higgins, 1987, p. 323). As noted before, they are activated depending on the existence (availability) and intensity (accessibility) of the discrepancy in a person. Therefore, Dörnyei (2005, 2009) constructed his theory of motivation, *L2 Motivational Self System* based not only on Possible Selves by Markus and Nurius (1986), but also on Self-Discrepancy Theory by Higgins (1987).

L2 Motivational Self System

Moving beyond integrativeness by Gardner and Lambert (1972), Dörnyei (2009) brought individual differences and "the motivating power of mental imagery" (Dörnyei, 2009, p.16) to the fore in this system. Specifically, the ideal self and the ought self as future self-guides are the two basic elements regarding L2 learning motivation. However, Dörnyei added the learning process as a third, complementary element to reconceptualize L2 motivation. As a result, the L2 Motivational Self System consists of three components: *Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self,* and *L2 Learning Experience*.

Ideal L2 Self is the ideal person in one's mind who speaks an L2. Put differently, if we dream of becoming a person who has a command of English, we try to minimize the discrepancy between our actual, not-English-speaking selves and ideal English-speaking selves. This type of motivation brings about "traditional

integrative and internalized instrumental motives" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). Ought-to L2 Self is the L2-related part of one's ought self. For example, because being competent in a foreign language is a prerequisite for our job, we learn an L2 well. We do so "to meet expectations and avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). Therefore, ought-to L2 self is more of extrinsic instrumental motives. L2 Learning Experience is comprised of motives in relation to actual learning environment and experience. Classmates, teachers, materials, and curriculum are among the factors that affect motivation. Dörnyei (2009) called them 'executive' motives (p.29). Since the first appearance of L2 Motivational Self System in 2005 (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009), there has been a mounting interest in this new paradigm. Researchers have investigated and tested various aspects of SLA and L2 Motivational Self System in their studies (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Papi, 2010; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009).

Empirical Findings on L2 Motivational Self System

One of the recent studies was conducted by Lee and Lee (2019) with Korean learners of English. Lee and Lee investigated willingness to communicate (WTC) in L2 within the scope of L2 motivational self system. In order to identify the role of the L2 motivational self system in WTC, the researchers conducted a mixed method study. They followed an explanatory sequential design in which quantitative data were collected first. The participants were 105 undergraduate students and 112 high school students. After analyzing the quantitative data, researchers collected quantitative data by organizing a focus group discussion including nine participants. In addition, they interviewed five participants so as to have an in-depth insight on the matter. As for the high school students, the results showed that students who reported stronger presence of ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self were more eager to

communicate both inside and outside language classroom. University students, on the other hand, reported higher levels of WTC in both settings only when their ideal L2 self was stronger. The comparison between the two groups indicated that high-stakes English tests had a strong effect on ought-to L2 self of secondary school students. Consequently, Lee and Lee suggested pedagogical support based on English performance (e.g. task-based activities especially for secondary school students) and ideal L2 self imagery (e.g. showing internationally-recognized Korean celebrities for both groups) to promote WTC in test-oriented countries such as Korea.

Moskovsky, Assulaimani, Racheva and Harkins (2016) investigated the relationship between English proficiency levels of Saudi learners and L2 Motivational Self System. They measured all three components of L2 Motivational System namely the ideal L2 self, the L2 ought-to self and the L2 learning experience in addition to intended learning effort. Participants who were native speakers of Arabic between the ages of 19 and 31 studying at two different universities in Saudi Arabia (N = 360) first answered the questionnaire on the four items mentioned above as well as background information regarding gender, hometown and education level of parents. Then participants took a reading and writing test based on IELTS for researchers to determine the proficiency level. Multiple regression analyses revealed that L2 Motivational Self System could predict the intended efforts of the learners although intended effort was not consistently associated with L2 achievement. In other words, participants with lower proficiency levels reported greater effort. Therefore, it can be inferred that motivation does not always result in expected behaviors.

Yahima, Nishida, and Mizumoto (2017) investigated the impact of gender and learner beliefs on L2 Motivational Self System. Participants of the study were 2631 Japanese first-year university students (798 females, 1883 males) whose L2 was English. The participants completed a questionnaire on ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, intended learning effort and learner beliefs (Communication Orientation and Grammar-Translation Orientation). Then they sat the TOEFL-ITP test. The results yielded a positive correlation between L2 motivational selves and higher English proficiency. As for learner beliefs, Communication Orientation was associated with ideal L2 self, while Grammar-Translation Orientation was linked to ought-to L2 self. Furthermore, female students were prone to attach more importance to communicative activities; hence, they had a stronger ideal L2 self imagery. Male participants, on the other hand, had a tendency for Grammar-Translation orientation and ought-to L2 self. Finally, a comparison between Japanese context and other contexts using Structural Equation Modeling unveiled that ought-to L2 self is a stronger motivator in Japan.

Hessel (2015) investigated only one aspect of L2 Motivational Self System, which was ideal L2 Self. It was aimed to find out the relationship between Ideal L2 Self and effort expended to reach it in the study. The participants were 97 German learners of English who ranged from upper-intermediate to advanced level. A quantitative measure was used to test the frequency of ideal L2 Self imagination, perceived discrepancy between current and future self, and whether there was a specific Ideal L2 Self per individual. It also included present effort and future effort. The results yielded that although the study failed to predict effort expended, there was a positive relationship between the ideal L2 self that participants considered plausible and effort expended. However, unlike Higgins (1987) suggested, the

participants who addressed a narrower gap between their actual and ideal L2 selves reported expending significantly more effort to attain their ideal L2 self ($r = .54$, $p < .01$). The results further showed that not only the perception of current and ideal self determined the effort expended, but also frequency of the imagery mattered. Therefore, to enhance perceived present self-concept of the learners and activate their ideal L2 selves, Hessel suggested pedagogical interventions, specifically tasks focusing on self-efficacy and providing learners with mastery experiences.

Mackay (2019) designed an ideal L2 self intervention and tested its effect on developing and enhancing ideal L2 self vision. The intervention lasted 12 weeks (one hour per week). It consisted of visualization techniques and strategy training. There were two intact intervention groups (*N = 47)* and two intact control groups (*N = 51)*. Participants were Spanish intermediate learners of English who studied at the language school of a university in Barcelona. For the first three hours, control groups were introduced Positive Visualization Techniques and its benefits via examples from sports. The first example was an image and an interview in Catalan with FC Barcelona's former trainer, Pep Guardiola who talked about Positive Visualization technique. Participants translated the text into English and brainstormed techniques for language learning. They were also taught relaxation and breathing techniques. For another four hours, the participants were presented visualizations of general ideal self, ideal L2 self and feared L2 self. Then, in groups of three or four, they discussed these four visualizations. After that, as a whole class activity, the teacher guided students to form their imagery of ideal L2 selves by giving instructions and asking questions. The participants, then, reflected on their visualization experience in their writing assignment. They viewed and edited each other's pieces of writing. For the last five hours, personalized action plans were created. At the end of the intervention,

the participants were able to identify their own ideal L2 self. However, interviews with participants revealed that although L2 vision promoted motivation, other factors such as learner attitudes and previous learning experience were effective as well.

Baran-Lucarz (2017) conducted a mixed-method study to investigate the relationship between pronunciation anxiety and motivation within the perspective of L2 Motivational Self System. The quantitative data were collected via two questionnaires (i.e., the measure of pronunciation anxiety and pronunciation motivation questionnaire), both of which were developed by the researcher. The participants of the questionnaire were 78 Polish university students of English. Then according to the level of anxiety (as in low and high), participants were sent emails to collect qualitative data. Four participants with low pronunciation anxiety and four participants of high pronunciation anxiety volunteered to take part in the semi-structured interviews. The results showed that the ought-to self was not associated with pronunciation anxiety. On the other hand, there was a statistically significant negative relationship between pronunciation anxiety and the ideal L2 self. However, as Yan and Horwitz noted (2008), anxiety might be positively correlated with motivation. Similarly, one of the interviewees with high level of anxiety reported high level of motivation to attain a good pronunciation. Furthermore, it was found that positive self-perception regarding pronunciation contributed to motivation. Therefore, Baran-Lucarz suggested keeping self-perceptions of the students high by positive feedback on their achievement and promoting foreign language self-images.

Although L2 Motivational Self System has been tested through various aspects of language learning in international contexts, it was not studied in Turkish context until recently (Thompson & Erdil-Moody, 2016). One of these recent studies was conduced by Taylan (2017). Taylan examined the applicability of L2

Motivational Self System in Turkish university context via a quantitative study. The participants were 250 students who were learning English in the school of foreign languages at a state university in Turkey. The results yielded that ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and attitudes toward learning English correlated with intended learning efforts. However, attitudes toward learning was the most powerful indicator while ideal L2 self of the participants was in the second rank and the effect of ought-to L2 self was in the third as well as being questionable. Finally, Taylan found that international community has an important effect on self-imagery, which meant the fact that English is a global language attracted students.

Another study investigated L2 Motivational Self System in Turkish context was Engin's (2019) study. Engin examined the relationship between the components of L2 Motivational Self System and demographics of the participants such as "gender, English proficiency level, experience of studying abroad, family members speaking English, field of study, type of high school, year at prep program, third foreign language proficiency and years of learning English" via a questionnaire (Engin, 2019, p. iv). Participants were 147 learners of English at a private university in Turkey. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in attitudes to L2 community between the participants whose family members could speak English and those whose could not. Moreover, second year students differed in attitudes to L2 community as well as participants who had studied abroad and participants who had been learning English for a longer time. Finally, ought-to L2 self was more apparent in second year students.

L2 Motivational Self System seems to have shifted towards two directions. The first direction is on motivation to learn languages other than English (Blair & Azaz, 2019; Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Nakamura, 2019; Zheng, Lu, & Ren,

2019). The second direction is to enlarge L2 self-concept (Fryer & Roger, 2018; Lanvers, 2016; Teimouri, 2017; Thompson & Vasquez, 2015).

Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System

This model encompasses ideal, ought-to and feared aspects of possible selves into L2 Motivational Self System. Peker (2016) studied L2 motivation and identity revolving around face-to-face and online bullying that English learners in the United States suffered from. Participants of the research were 1022 English learners. They self-reported their choices on the three issues aforementioned via an adopted survey consisting of three main surveys. The quantitative data revealed that there was a strong relationship between bullying victimization, L2 identity and L2 Motivational Self System. Moreover, Peker found that feared L2 self of the participants was affected by bullying victimization and it was a motive for learners to learn English well. In other words, participants who were afraid of being bullied by the others due to their poor language skills were also motivated to master English more to be able to avoid negative consequences. Therefore, in addition to the two L2 selves in Dörnyei's model (2005, 2009), Peker (2016) identified feared L2 self in the motivational self system as an emerging self and recategorized ought to L2 self items because some of the included avoidance concepts would fit well with feared L2 self. Thus, Peker defined ideal L2 self as "individuals' ideas of what L2-specific facet they would like to become/achieve", ought-to L2 self as "what they think as necessary to realize and meet the expectations of worthy others" and feared L2 self as "what attributes and characteristics they are afraid of acquiring in relation to language learning" (p. 27).

Conclusion

Pronunciation anxiety has many characteristics such as apprehension, worry and most importantly, fear resulting from negative perceptions and outcomes in one's mind. Because pronunciation anxiety derives from the desire to possess a native-like pronunciation, obligations one has to fulfil and fear of being discriminated or at least belittled, these three aspects aforementioned correspond to ideal L2 (pronunciation) self, ought-to L2 (pronunciation) self and feared (pronunciation) L2 self respectively. Therefore, this study examined pronunciation anxiety within the scope of Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between the future possible selves and current pronunciation anxiety of adult EFL learners at a state university in Turkey within the scope of Reconceptualised L2 Motivational Self System (Peker, 2016). It is also aimed to explain how different the values of foreign language anxiety and future possible selves are with respect to the parameters of the sample such as age and gender. Therefore, the following research questions are posed in this study:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between foreign language pronunciation anxiety and learners' future selves? Specifically,
    a) Ideal L2 pronunciation self
    b) Ought-to L2 pronunciation self
    c) Feared L2 pronunciation self
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between learners' ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self, and ought-to L2 pronunciation self?
3. To what extent does learners' FLPA differ by age, gender, English proficiency level, having been abroad, time spent learning English, and country?
4. To what extent do learners' future L2 selves differ by age, gender, proficiency level, having been abroad, time spent learning English, and country?

This chapter provides information about the methodology of this study in five sections. In the first section, research design is described. In the second section, setting and participants are portrayed. In the third section, instrumentation is described. In the fourth section, data collection is explained, and in the final section data analysis is depicted.

Research Design

This study is conceptualized as a non-experimental, correlational, cross-sectional research. According to Fraenkel, Hyun, and Hyun (2012), the term cross-sectional refers to time frame. In other words, a cross-sectional research is the one that is done at a time. Correlational studies, on the other hand, "seek to explore relationships among variables" (Fraenkel et al., 2012, p. 368). Since this study benefits from two questionnaires that the researcher implements in one day at a state university in Turkey to understand the relationship between pronunciation anxiety and future possible selves, it can be designated as a correlational, cross-sectional design.

Setting and Participants

This study took place at the school of foreign languages of a state university in Turkey in the spring term of 2019 – 2020 academic year. The reason why the aforementioned school chosen was due to convenience sampling (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel et al., 2012; Muijs, 2004) because they were available and willing to participate. The total number of the students reached was 673, while 596 of them took part in the study, which resulted in a response rate of almost 90%. The school offers three programs namely English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Basic English (BE) and English for General Purposes (EGP). Of the three, the first two are provided for the students who study at the two and four-year departments, whereas

the last one is a preparatory program for the students of the departments that offer 30% or 100% of their courses in English. Since the students of the aforementioned preparatory program were recruited as participants, it is discussed in details in the following.

The school of foreign languages conducts two kinds of proficiency exams at the beginning of the fall semester for the preparatory program. The first one is for the students of departments that offer 30% or 100% of their courses in English, which also serves as a placement test for those who fail. It consists of one written and one oral proficiency section. In the written proficiency section, students answer multiple-choice questions regarding grammar, vocabulary, listening, and reading. Moreover, they are expected to write an essay (either opinion or advantages-disadvantages essay) on one of the topics given. The oral proficiency exam lasts ten minutes per student. Two proctors interview one student. It consists of an introduction (warm-up questions), a monologue (picking a card and talking about it after getting ready in a minute) and conversation where proctors ask follow-up questions. The passing grade is 60 for the students of the departments with 30% English medium instruction (EMI) and 70 for the students of the departments with 100% EMI. The students who fail the exam have to study in English prep classes. The school offers four levels of courses: L1 (beginner elementary), L2 (beginner pre-intermediate), L3 (beginner intermediate) and L4 (advanced intermediate). The instruction either lasts two quarters for the ones who start as L3 and four quarters who start as L1 or L2. All students are expected to become L4 at the end of the instruction and the proficiency exams are prepared accordingly.

There are three proficiency exams conducted in total: one in September (also a diagnostic and a placement test), one in February and another in June. In addition

to proficiency exams administered to this group of participants, exams they have to take throughout the academic year are achievement, mini oral and gateway (written and oral) exams. These exams determine the success of students specific to the level they study and they either pass or fail the level they are at. Achievement tests are two in total per level, there is one mini oral exam and there is one gateway exam. While achievement tests and mini oral exam are administered within a level (achievement I in week 4, mini oral in week 5, achievement II in week 6), gateway exams are the summative tests administered at the end of each level. Achievement tests and written gateway exams consist of three skills such as listening, reading, and writing. They also test discrete grammar and vocabulary points in contextualized cloze tests such as one-word or word formation questions. Mini oral and oral gateway exams are in the same format as proficiency speaking exams. However, mini oral exams last five minutes, whereas oral gateway and proficiency exams take ten minutes per student. To be able to sit gateway exams, a student has to collect 60 points out of 100. Eighty percent of the total score comes from achievement tests I and II (40% each) and 20% of it comes from mini oral exams. A student needs to meet the attendance requirement as well. Gateway exams keeps the same percentage. In other words, written section constitutes eighty percent, or eighty points of the total score and oral section constitutes twenty percent or twenty points of the total score. The cut-off score to pass is sixty in gateway exams. If a student fails to satisfy the conditions, he/she repeats the same level. This time the levels are named L1 repeat (L1R in short), L2 repeat (L2R), L3 repeat (L3R) and L4 repeat (L4R). If a student fails a level twice, he/she has to join virtual classes.

The second type of proficiency exam is for the students of the language departments such as English Language and Literature, American Culture and

Literature and Spanish Language and Literature. Each of these departments prepare their own exams and conduct a different program other than EGP. Therefore, the proficiency level expected is C2 advanced. The passing grade is 70 since all the courses at the relevant department are of EMI. The students who fail the proficiency exam study at the same class without levelling. However, another proficiency exam is given at the beginning of the spring term and if they pass it, they can start studying at their departments. If they do not, they continue their education in the same classroom until the second proficiency exam in June.

The participants of this study were the students who continued their education at the school of foreign languages in English prep classes and who desired to take part in the research voluntarily. The total number of the participants was 596 (see Table 1). No L1 or L1R students participated in the study because by the time the survey was distributed, they had either been L2 or failed L1 level twice. Male participants consisted one third of the participants, while female participants consisted two third. The number of the participants who chose 'other' option was low. In total, there were only 8 people. Out of 596 students, 579 were Turkish citizens, whereas 17 of the participants were international students. The majority of the participants were between the ages of 16 and 20. The second largest group in terms of age was 21 – 25 year age group with 73 participants. Between the ages of 26 and 30, there were seven participants, whereas participants who were over 31 were only 3 in number. As for English proficiency, the largest group was L3 with 255 students. Since this study was conducted in Spring I (third quarter), it was expected that the largest group would be L3 because they were the ones who started as L1 and L1 is always the largest group of all at the beginning of the academic year. On the other hand, the largest group regarding time spent learning English consisted of the

participants who had been learning English less than a year (*N* = 210). The total number of the participants who had been abroad was 99, whereas the participants who had not been abroad were 497 in total.

Table 1

Information about the Participants of the Study

Demographic Information	*N* = 596
Gender	
Male	207
Female	381
Other	8
Country of Birth	
Afghanistan	1
Azerbaijan	1
Bulgaria	1
Cyprus	1
Egypt	1
Haiti	1
Iran, Islamic Republic of Iran	3
Iraq	2
Netherlands	1
Palau	1
Syrian Arab Republic	3
Turkey	579
Yemen	1
Age	
16 – 20 years	513
21 – 25 years	73
26 – 30 years	7
31 years and above	3

Table 1 (cont'd)

Information about the Participants of the Study

Demographic Information	*N* = 596
English Proficiency Level	
L1	0
L1R	0
L2	76
L2R	81
L3	255
L3R	16
L4	95
L4R	57
Literature and Language Group	16
Time Spent Learning English	
0 – 11 months	210
1 – 5 years	121
6 – 10 years	180
11 years and more	85
Been Abroad	
Yes	99
No	497

Instrumentation

The participants took one survey (see Appendix A) including two main pillar questionnaires to provide the data necessary to answer the research questions: a pronunciation anxiety questionnaire and Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System questionnaire.

The pronunciation anxiety questionnaire is based largely on Foreign Language Pronunciation Anxiety (FLPA) questionnaire. FLPA was developed by Kralova, Skorvagova, et al. (2017) for the pre-service English teachers in Slovakia.

Kralova, Skorvagova, et al. were inspired by Horwitz et al.'s (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and Baran-Lucarz's (2013) Phonetics Learning Anxiety Scale to create their questionnaire. Furthermore, they relied on their own experiences of teaching English phonetics and their students' reflections on English phonetics. Their questionnaire consists of two sections. The first section is designed to gather demographic information from the participants in four categories: gender, age, learning English (since/where/how), time spent in an English speaking country and communication with English native speakers (duration/frequency). The second section presents twenty statements to collect "students' perceptions of their pronunciation" (Kralova, Skorvagova, et al., 2017, p. 51) in the foreign language that they are mastering and going to teach. It has five constructs, which are "oral performance apprehension (items 1-4), self-concern over pronunciation (items 5-8), pronunciation self-image (items 9-12), pronunciation self-efficacy (items 13-16) and attitude to English pronunciation (items 17-20). While conducting the study, Kralova, Skorvagova, et al. made use of a 6-point Likert scale to be able to attain levels of anxiety (Beck, Epstein, Brown, & Steer, 1988). They ranged from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". "Strongly agree" referred to 6 points, "agree" 5 points, "partly agree" 4 points, "partly disagree" 3 points, "disagree" 2 points, "strongly disagree" 1 point. The sum of the points determined the participants' scores, hence their level of pronunciation anxiety. The researcher of this study adopted FLPA and its scaling with nuances. No permission from the authors was sought since it is available online.

First, the demographics section was adapted considering the parameters of the sample. Although age and gender information remained the same, "learning English" component was reduced to duration, "time spent in an English speaking country"

was changed into “a foreign country that participants had to speak English”, and “communication with English native speakers” component was omitted. Country section was added since the sample was not homogenous. It is also important to note that the demographics / background information section appeared at the end of the survey since these sections “tend to be very off-putting” for the participants and they are “best left at the end of the questionnaire” (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 48).

Second, the researcher made two changes in the wording of the actual statements of the questionnaire. She changed the term “Slovak accent” in item 15 to “first language / mother tongue’s (e.g. Turkish) accent” because of different nationalities and ethnicities that might be observed in the participants. In addition, she replaced “my future students” expression in item 11 with “my future colleagues” because the former referred to pre-service English teachers while the latter referred to undergraduate students of all departments who learn English as a requirement of their own department where they will specialize in a profession such as engineering. Moreover, she changed “an English teacher” expression in item 20 into “a person”. Third, the researcher provided a bilingual survey (in English and in Turkish, see Appendix A and Appendix B) for the participants to raise “the quality of the data” (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 49) because the vast majority of the participants were Turkish and there were less proficient participants in English. The participants had the chance to switch languages at any point while responding to the items. The researcher followed the translation steps suggested by Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010). As noted in Dörnyei and Taguchi, after translating the survey, researchers might benefit from two options when they have limited resources. The first one is to consult *external reviewers* and the second one is to hire an independent translator to *back-translate* the survey (Brislin, 1970). The researcher, who has an MA degree in

Translation and Interpretation in English, initially translated the survey into Turkish by herself. Then, an independent translator translated the Turkish version back to English version, compared the two texts and concluded that the back-translated English version corresponded with the original. The final change was in scaling. The researcher did not use the scoring system of FLPA. Instead, she asked participants to mark one of the items prepared in accordance with 5-point Likert scale, which are "strongly agree - 5", "agree - 4", "neither agree nor disagree - 3", "disagree - 2" and "strongly disagree - 1".

The second part of the survey was on the future possible L2 pronunciation selves. The researcher developed it based on Pronunciation Motivation Questionnaire (Baran-Lucarz, 2017) and Reconceptualised L2 Motivational Self System (Peker, 2016). The questionnaire was constructed on Ideal L2 self, Feared L2 self and Ought-to L2 self regarding pronunciation. Ideal L2 pronunciation self included 10 statements that explore participants' imagery of an English speaker with a good pronunciation. The Feared L2 pronunciation self consisted of 14 statements representing the dreaded future form of one who will have to put up with the unwanted conclusions of poor pronunciation. Finally, the Ought-to L2 pronunciation self had 6 statements with respect to external expectations and obligations that motivate an individual to be able to pronounce words in a foreign language well in the future. 5-point Likert scale was used for this part of the survey as in the first part. Both questionnaires were piloted before the study.

Piloting the Questionnaire

In advance of the actual study, piloting the questionnaire on a sample of people who are similar to the target sample is of utmost importance to prevent problems (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) because "the way questionnaires are designed

and questions are worded affect the answers respondents give" (Muijs, 2004, p. 45). Thus, the researcher of this study conducted piloting to be able to overcome any subtle complications prior to collecting the actual data.

Since this research benefitted from human subjects, the researcher initially completed institutional review board (i.e., Bilkent University ethics committee approval) processes on February 14 (Document No: 20_02_14_04). After obtaining permission from the related institutions, piloting started on March 4 and lasted two days to reach at least 50 participants, which is the number to reach a valid piloting process (Dörnyei & Taguchhi, 2010, p. 56). It was conducted in four classes, one class from each level of L2, L3, L4 and Literature Program Group (i.e., students of English Literature and Language Department and American Culture and Literature Department). Since there were no classes of L1, piloting and the actual study lack of L1 students. The total number of the participants was 66. The researcher distributed the survey online via an instant messaging service to the students at the aforementioned levels. Indeed, she shared the anonymous link of the survey with the instructors of the classes selected, and then the instructors shared the link with their students using the same instant messaging service. The participants completed the questionnaires via Qualtrics platform, an online survey creation software. The researcher informed all the participants on the consent form at the beginning of the questionnaires and asked them to approve it by clicking YES button or deny it by clicking NO button (see Appendix A). She also acknowledged that they had the right to quit the questionnaire whenever they wanted. After collecting the data for piloting, the researcher analysed it by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS v.25). Cronbach's alpha coefficient values were checked to reveal whether the survey was internally consistent. The alpha values are described as good to excellent

($\alpha > .8$), acceptable ($\alpha > .7$), questionable ($\alpha > .6$), poor ($\alpha > .5$), and unacceptable ($\alpha < .5$) (Bland & Altman, 1997; DeVellis, 2012; Field, 2009; Taber, 2018). The expected Cronbach alpha value was .70 and above to indicate reasonable reliability (Muijs, 2004, p. 73).

The survey consisted of two main parts: Foreign Language Pronunciation Anxiety and future L2 pronunciation selves. The Cronbach's Alpha level of constructs and the corrected item- total correlation values of these constructs' items regarding FLPA were checked initially. The first construct to be tested was oral performance apprehension (FLPA). The Cronbach Alpha level of the construct, which consisted of 4 items was .84; hence, it was found to be reliable. The corrected item – total correlation values of the items in this construct, namely item 1, 2, 3 and 4 were .67, .63, .70 and .69 respectively.

The second construct was called self-concern over pronunciation (FLPA). It included 4 items. The Cronbach Alpha level was .63. The corrected item – total correlation values of the items in this construct, namely item 5, 6, 7 and 8 are .31, .54, .13 and .71 respectively. The Cronbach Alpha level of this construct is below to be considered reliable; however, above .60 is a questionable value for reliability (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 95). Taking corrected item – total correlation values into account - all were above .03 -, this construct was accepted as reliable.

The third construct was pronunciation self-image (FLPA). It consisted of 4 items. Its Cronbach Alpha level was first found to be .52; therefore, it was not reliable. The corrected item – total correlation values of the items in this construct, namely item 9, 10, 11 and 12 were .38, .10, .40 and .43 respectively. The second item (item 10 in the survey) was removed because it affected the reliability of the construct. The item stated "*I consider imitating native-like English pronunciation*

ridiculous." The participants may have found the item irrelevant because it does not seem directly related to self-image. When the item was removed, the Cronbach Alpha level raised (α = .63) and the construct was accepted as reliable. Removing other items in the construct would not cause a positive change in the Cronbach Alpha level; therefore, they were kept within the construct. The new corrected item – total correlation values for the remaining items (item 9, 11 and 12) were .45, .37 and .54 respectively.

The fourth construct was pronunciation self-efficacy (FLPA), which had 4 items in total. The Cronbach Alpha was .78. Thus, it was reliable. The corrected item – total correlation values of the items in this construct (item 13, 14, 15, and 16) were .57, .47, .63 and .65.

The fifth construct was attitude to English pronunciation (FLPA). It consisted of 4 items. The Cronbach Alpha (.54) indicated that the construct was not reliable. The corrected item – total correlation values for all items, namely item 17, 18, 19 and 20 were .49, .46, .57 and -.073 respectively. The value of the last item (item 20) was significantly low. The researcher first thought that it might be because of the wording of the item. It stated "*I think that good English pronunciation is very important for a person."* whereas all other three items had an adjective with a negative meaning such as "*very difficult"* and "*incomprehensible".* Therefore, the last item was coded reversely. However, its new value was .07 and removing it would raise the Cronbach Alpha distinctively. The participants might have found the item out of context because the first three items refer to the rules of English pronunciation specifically, while the last item is about the attitude in general. As a result, it was removed and the Cronbach Alpha became .77. The new corrected item – total correlation values of the first three items (item 17, 18 and 19 in the survey) were .64, .60 and .59.

The following three constructs of the survey, which are ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self and ought-to L2 pronunciation self were designed by the researcher; therefore the factor analysis needed to be conducted before calculating Cronbach's alpha and the corrected item – total correlation values of the constructs and items.

Factor Analysis

As noted before, the researcher developed the possible selves part of the survey based on Pronunciation Motivation Questionnaire (Baran-Lucarz, 2017) and Reconceptualised L2 Motivational Self System (Peker, 2016). It is aimed to explore the L2 pronunciation selves by 32 items in total that measure three main constructs: Ideal L2 pronunciation self (10 items), Feared L2 pronunciation self (14 items) and Ought-to L2 pronunciation self (8 items). Sometimes items created measure more than a researcher aims at. Factor analysis provides whether items in a questionnaire measure a single construct or several constructs and it ensures the construct validity (Muijs, 2004). Differently put, factor analysis has "pattern finding capacity that makes large datasets more manageable and therefore it is often used in the preparatory phase in data processing" (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 92). Therefore, a factor analysis was conducted for this part of the survey.

In order to extract the factors from the variable data, the principal components analysis was run. Other operations benefitted from were Direct Oblimin for factor rotation, Kaiser's rule for the selection of the best factors to interpret the data, and Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure to determine the adequacy of sampling size. KMO showed that the number of the participants was adequate for piloting. The value to obtain adequate sampling is .6 and above (Cohen, Manion, &

Morrison, 2018). The values of ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self and ought-to L2 pronunciation self are .9, .9 and .8 respectively.

For the ideal L2 pronunciation self, only one factor was identified (see Appendix A), while two factors were identified for both feared and ought-to L2 pronunciation selves. The one factor identified for the ideal L2 pronunciation self explained 62% of all the variable variances. The two factors identified for feared L2 pronunciation self accounted for 72% of all the variable variances. Finally, the two factors identified for ought-to L2 pronunciation self explained 66% of all the variable variances.

The structure matrix of feared L2 pronunciation self uncovered that 9 items out of 14 (item no. 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, and 14) loaded on factor one, whereas 5 items (item no. 1, 2, 3, 6, 11) loaded on factor two. Factor one was called "consequential fears" because they bore serious consequences such as failing an interview or missing life opportunities. On the other hand, the items in factor two were called "mild fears" because they were items such as 'identified as a foreigner', which did not have threatening consequences, but still unpleasant. The structure matrix of ought-to L2 pronunciation self revealed that 6 items out of 8 (item no. 2, 3, 4, 6, 7 and 8) loaded heavily on factor one, while items 1 and 5 loaded on factor two. The Cronbach Alpha level of factor one was .84 and the Cronbach Alpha level of factor two was .10. Therefore, items 1 and 5 were removed, and they were not named. No structure matrix was formed since the first 10 items regarding Ideal L2 pronunciation self was one factor, which means there were no other underlying themes in the construct.

Continuing reporting reliability after factor analysis, the sixth construct was ideal L2 pronunciation self. This construct was highly reliable (α = .93). It had 10

items in total. The corrected item – total correlation values of the items in this construct, namely item 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 were .79, .66, .74, .75, .81, .55, .66, .76, .85 and .73 respectively.

The seventh construct was feared L2 pronunciation self. It was found highly reliable because the Cronbach Alpha was .96. It consisted of 14 items. The corrected item – total correlation values of the items in this construct, namely item 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14 were .77, .77, .58, .83, .86, .71, .78, .79, .73, .79, .67, .82, .79 and .77 respectively.

The last construct was ought-to L2 pronunciation self. The Cronbach alpha level was .82 for this section. Thus, it is considered as reliable. It had 8 items in total. The corrected item – total correlation values of the items in this construct, namely item 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 were .15, .68, .58, .63, .37, .67, .62 and .52 respectively.

In conclusion, FLPA questionnaire was reduced to 18 items after the reliability test and L2 pronunciation selves questionnaire was reduced to 30 items after the validity test. The pilot analysis unveiled the weak points of the study and strengthened the instrument to be able assess the scores of the data properly with respect to validity and reliability.

Method of Data Collection

This research was conducted in the spring semester of 2019 - 2020 academic year. As noted before, the pilot study was conducted on March 4-5, 2020 online through personal connections. As for the actual data collection, the researcher and the administration of the school whose students took part in the study voluntarily determined a date and a certain hour to distribute the survey to the participants. It was the third hour on March 11, 2020. The administration informed the instructors about the implementation of the survey via an email a day before. The email

included the link of the survey as well so that the instructors could share the link there when needed. On the day of the implementation, the same procedure as the pilot study was followed. The administration sent the link of the survey via an instant messaging service and the instructors shared the link with their students. Volunteers took part in the survey. In total, 673 participants attempted to do the survey; however, only 596 of them could complete it successfully. It is possible to find different views on the adequate sample size of quantitative studies in the literature. For instance, Fraenkel et al. (2012) suggested minimum number of subjects required for each type of study:

> There are a few guidelines that we would suggest with regard to the minimum number of subjects needed. For descriptive studies, we think a sample with a minimum number of 100 is essential. For correlational studies, a sample of at least 50 is deemed necessary to establish the existence of a relationship. For experimental and causal comparative studies, we recommend a minimum of 30 individuals per group, although sometimes experimental studies with only 15 individuals in each group can be defended if they are very tightly controlled; studies using only 15 subjects per group should probably be replicated, however, before too much is made of any findings. (p. 103)

This study is a descriptive correlational study. According to Fraenkel et al. (2012), a minimum number of 100 for sample size is enough for descriptive studies, whereas a minimum number of 50 participants is enough to be able conduct a valid and reliable research. Therefore, the sample size of the study with a total number of 596 participants is more than enough according to the guideline provided above.

Method of Data Analysis

In this study, the aim was to define the relationship between the future possible selves and current pronunciation anxiety of adult EFL learners at a state university in Turkey within the scope of Reconceptualised L2 Motivational Self System (Peker, 2016). Therefore, the researcher answered the research questions using descriptive and inferential statistics. She exported the data on Qualtrics online platform in SPSS format, as she used SPSS v.25 to analyse the data. As for the demographic information, she ran descriptive statistics and formed frequency tables to have a better insight of the participants. For inferential statistics, composite scores were created for each construct. To unearth the relationship between the students' FLPA and future L2 pronunciation selves, (Pearson) correlational coefficients were computed. To compare the means of multiple groups regarding FLPA and future L2 pronunciation selves such as age and proficiency levels, one-way ANOVA was conducted. To compare the means of two groups, independent samples t-test was run.

Conclusion

In this chapter, research design was defined at the beginning. Then setting and participants were depicted in detail. Furthermore, instrumentation, data collection and data analysis procedures were thoroughly explained. In the next chapter, item reliability analysis and normality check of the actual data will be discussed before the results. Then the results of the study will be provided per each research question posed in the current study.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

In this study, it was aimed to investigate the relationship between the current foreign language pronunciation anxiety (FLPA) and the future reconceptualised L2 possible selves, namely ideal L2 pronunciation self (ILPS), feared L2 pronunciation self (FLPS), and ought-to L2 pronunciation self (OLPS) of adult EFL learners at a school of foreign languages of a state university in Turkey. It was aimed to explain the correlation among the aforementioned reconceptualised L2 possible selves, as well. Furthermore, the differences between different groups based on age, gender, English proficiency level, having been abroad, time spent learning English, and where participants were from in FLPA were explored. Finally, the difference between the subcategories of the aforementioned variables (e.g. age and gender) was also examined regarding ILPS, FLPS, and OLPS. To this end, the following research questions were asked:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between foreign language pronunciation anxiety and learners' future selves? Specifically,
    a) Ideal L2 pronunciation self
    b) Ought-to L2 pronunciation self
    c) Feared L2 pronunciation self
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between learners' ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self, and ought-to L2 pronunciation self?

3. To what extent does learners' FLPA differ by age, gender, English proficiency level, having been abroad, time spent learning English, and country?
4. To what extent do learners' future L2 selves differ by age, gender, proficiency level, having been abroad, time spent learning English, and country?

In order to answer the research questions above, a survey on Qualtrics, an online platform, was given to 596 participants learning English at the school of foreign languages at a state university in Turkey. Along with the informed consent form at the beginning, the survey consisted of three parts (see Appendix A): FLPA, reconceptualised L2 possible selves (ILPS, FLPS, OLPS) and demographic questionnaire. FLPA and demographics section were adopted from Kralova, Skorvagova, et al. (2017) and reconceptualized L2 possible selves section was developed by the researcher based on Baran-Lucarz (2017) and Peker (2016). SPSS v.25 was used to analyse the data.

Results of the Study

To test the internal consistency of the factors in the actual study, an item reliability analysis was conducted before starting to analyse the data. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of FLPA with 18 items in the survey was found to be .88 at first. However, the corrected item-total correlation values revealed that the third item of the second construct (self-concern over pronunciation) bore the value of -.163. The item stated, "*I realize it when I make a pronunciation mistake."* While the other items in the construct are apparently negative because of the adjectives such as "not satisfied, uncomfortable and embarrassed", this item seems to pose a neutral stance. Thus, participants might have been indecisive about the message of the item.

Therefore, it was excluded from the analysis. The new Cronbach alpha value for FLPA with 17 items was .89, in particular, .77 for oral performance apprehension, .72 for self-concern over pronunciation, .61 for pronunciation self-image, .69 for pronunciation self-efficacy, and .77 for attitude to English pronunciation. The corrected item – total correlation values for the items 1, 2, 3 and 4 in oral performance apprehension were .61, .46, .63 and .61 respectively. In addition, the corrected item – total correlation values for the items 5, 6, and 7 in self-concern over pronunciation were .48, .62 and .54 respectively. After that, the corrected item – total correlation values for the items 8, 9, and 10 in pronunciation self-image were .51, .45 and .31 respectively. Next, the corrected item – total correlation values for the items 11, 12, 13 and 14 in pronunciation self-efficacy were .49, .43, .53 and .64 respectively. Finally, the corrected item – total correlation values for the items 15, 16, and 17 in attitude to English pronunciation were .67, .59 and .57 respectively.

As for ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self (including consequential fears and mild fears), and ought-to L2 pronunciation, Cronbach alpha values were .90, .95, .94, .83 and .82 respectively. The corrected item – total correlation values for the items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 in ILPS were .65, .57, .59, .70, .63, .54, .68, .73, .69 and .69 respectively. FLPS consisted of two constructs. The corrected item – total correlation values for the items in the first construct, consequential fears, of FLPS were found to be .76 for item 4, .74 for item 5, .72 for item 7, .74 for item 8, .80 for item 9, .79 for item 10, and .80 for items 12, 13 and 14. Also, the corrected item – total correlation values for the items 1, 2, 3, 6, and 11 of FLPS in the second construct, mild fears, were found to be .70, .68, .64, .56 and .54 respectively. Last, the corrected item – total correlation values for the items in OLPS

were .64 for item 1, .72 for item 2, .69 for item 3, .61 for item 4, .34 for item 5 and .54 for item 6.

The item reliability analysis of the actual study suggested all the items in the survey were internally consisted (Bland & Altman, 1997; DeVellis, 2012; Field, 2009; Muijs, 2004; Taber, 2018). After the item reliability analysis, normality of the actual study data was assessed per research question and analysis was conducted accordingly.

Normality, or in other words, normal distribution is "being symmetrical, with the greatest frequency in the middle and relatively smaller frequencies as you move toward either extreme" (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2014, p. 49). It is important to test normality because the results of a study do not "draw accurate and reliable conclusions about reality" (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012, p. 486) when outliers are not taken into account. Moreover, a researcher should check the assumption of normality because there are different statistical tests based on either normality or non-normality (Pallant, 2011). Therefore, a preliminary analysis based on z-score comparison (Field, 2009; Kim, 2013) and skewness – kurtosis measure check (Bryne, 2010; Hair, Babin, & Anderson, 2010) was conducted using 'explore' option in SPSS (v.25) to choose among the right statistical techniques regarding each of the research questions of the study. Then the questions were answered using appropriate tests.

Is There a Statistically Significant Relationship Between FLPA and ILPS?

The analysis showed that all normality values regarding z-score for this question were found to be within the limits of -2.58 and + 2.58, which is the appropriate criterion in large sample sizes with 200 or more participants (Field, 2009; Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). For FLPA composite scores, skewness (0.08)

was divided by standard error (0.10). The result was .77. Kurtosis for FLPA composite scores (-0.12) was divided by standard error (0.20) and the result was -.58. For ILPS composite score, when skewness (-0.23) was divided by standard error (0.10), the result was -2.30. When kurtosis for ILPS (0.45) was divided by standard error (0.20), the result was 2.25. Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to answer this question.

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to determine if there was a relationship between FLPA (oral performance apprehension, self-concern over pronunciation, pronunciation self-image, pronunciation self-efficacy, attitude to English pronunciation) and ILPS. The results of the correlational analyses indicate that there is a moderate statistically significant negative relationship between FLPA and ILPS, r (596) = -.30, r^2 = .09, p < .001.

Is There a Statistically Significant Relationship Between FLPA and FLPS?

Normality values for FLPA composite scores had been found to be within the limits as stated above. Normality values of FLPS composite scores were found to be within the range, as well. Kurtosis measure (-0.44, *SE* = 0.20) and Skewness measure (0.40, *SE* = 0.10) indicated that the FLPS scores were normally distributed (Bryne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). Thus, parametric tests were used to answer this question.

Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated to examine the relation between FLPA (oral performance apprehension, self-concern over pronunciation, pronunciation self-image, pronunciation self-efficacy, attitude to English pronunciation) and FLPS (mild fears, consequential fears). Results of the correlation indicated that there was a significant positive association between FLPA and FLPS, r (596) = .62, r^2 = .38, p < .001.

Is There a Statistically Significant Relationship Between FLPA and OLPS?

Normality values for FLPA had been found to be normal as mentioned above. For OLPS composite score, on the other hand, when skewness (-0.11) was divided by standard error (0.10), the result was -1.06. When kurtosis for OLPS (-0.34) was divided by standard error (0.20), the result was -1.68. Both results were within the values of -2.58 and +2.58 (Field, 2009; Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). Therefore, parametric tests were preferred to interpret the data.

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to determine if there was a relationship between FLPA (oral performance apprehension, self-concern over pronunciation, pronunciation self-image, pronunciation self-efficacy, attitude to English pronunciation) and OLPS. The results of the correlational analyses indicated that there was a modest statistically significant positive relationship between FLPA and OLPS, r (596) = .31, r^2 = .10, p < .001.

Is There a Statistically Significant Relationship Between ILPS and FLPS?

Normality values of ILPS and FLPS composite scores previously signified that data had been distributed normally; therefore, Pearson correlation coefficients were performed to examine the relation between ILPS and FLPS (mild fears, consequential fears). Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there was a modest significant negative association between ILPS and FLPS, r (596) = -.14, r^2 = *.02, p* < .001.

Is There a Statistically Significant Relationship Between ILPS and OLPS?

Both normality values of ILPS composite scores and OLPS composite scores previously signified that data had been distributed normally. Thus, parametric tests (Pearson correlation coefficients) were computed to determine if there was a relationship between ILPS and OLPS. The results of the correlational analyses

indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between ILPS and OLPS, r (596) = -.01, r^2 = .00, p = .649. The direction of the relationship is negative and there is almost no linear association between the two.

Is There a Statistically Significant Relationship Between OLPS and FLPS?

Normality values of OLPS composite scores previously indicated that data had been distributed normally, values regarding FLPS had referred to the same. Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to answer for this question. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to examine the relation between OLPS and FLPS (mild fears, consequential fears). Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there was a modest significant positive association between OLPS and FLPS, (r (596) = .34, r^2 = .12 p < .001).

To What Extent Does Learners' FLPA Differ by Age?

The same calculations regarding z-scores were done to determine normality for age groups for this question, as well. There are four age groups (16 – 20, 21 – 25, 26 – 30, 31+) in this study. The results showed that the data of all age groups were normally distributed (see Table 2).

Table 2

Normality Values of Age Groups Regarding FLPA

Age Groups	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
16 – 20	0.06 / 0.11 / 0.55	-0.08 / 0.22 / -0.35
21 – 25	0.30 / 0.28 / 1.07	-0.22 / 0.56 / -0.39
26 - 30	-0.18 / 0.79 / -0.22	-1.94 / 1.59 / -1.21
31 +	0.47 / 1.23 / 0.38	none

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the difference in FLPA scores among age groups (see Table D1 for FLPA scores of all groups in question 3). The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($F(3, 592) = .81$, $p = .489$) in FLPA scores among 16-20 age group ($M = 49.72$, $SD = 11.76$), 21-25 age group ($M = 50$, $SD = 11.40$), 26-30 age group ($M = 44.42$, $SD = 12.26$), and 31 and over age group ($M = 43$, $SD = 19.08$).

To What Extent Does Learners' FLPA Differ by Gender?

The results of the normality analysis showed that the data of all genders were normally distributed for this question (see Table 3). Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to proceed.

Table 3

Normality Values of Gender Groups Regarding FLPA

Gender	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Male	-0.01 / 0.17 / -0.07	0.06 / 0.34 / 0.18
Female	0.06 / 0.13 / 0.45	-0.24 / 0.25 / -0.97
Other	0.79 / 0.75 / 1.05	0.78 / 1.48 / 0.52

A one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test was conducted to compare the difference in FLPA scores between gender groups (see Table D1 for FLPA scores of all groups in question 3). The results indicated that there was a statistically significant mean difference ($F(2, 593) = 13.8$, $p < .001$) in FLPA scores between the three groups of gender (male, female, other). However, only male ($M = 46.37$, $SD = 11$) and female ($M = 51.51$, $SD = 12$) groups differed from each other, while the 'other' group ($M = 46.25$, $SD = 17$) did not differ from males and females.

To What Extent Does Learners' FLPA Differ by English Proficiency Level?

The results of the normality test showed that the data of all English proficiency levels were normally distributed for this question. Therefore, parametric tests were used to data analysis in this question. L1 and L1R groups were excluded from the table since no participants of these groups joined the survey (see Table 4).

Table 4

Normality Values of English Proficiency Levels Regarding FLPA

English Proficiency Level	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
L2	0.14 / 0.28 / 0.51	-0.32 / 0.55 / -0.58
L2R	-0.06 / 0.27 / -0.23	-0.33 / 0.53 / -0.62
L3	-0.02 / 0.15 / -0.14	0.04 / 0.30 / 0.13
L3R	0.88 / 0.56 / 1.56	0.22 / 1.09 / 0.20
L4	-0.23 / 0.25 / -0.93	-0.31 / 0.49 / -0.63
L4R	0.52 / 0.32 / 1.63	0.07 / 0.62 / 0.11
Literature/Language Group	-0.01 / 0.56 / -0.02	-1.03 / 1.09 / -0.95

A one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test was conducted to compare the difference in FLPA scores between English proficiency groups (see Table D1 for FLPA scores of all groups in question 3). The results indicated that there was a statistically significant mean difference ($F(6, 589) = 5.17$, $p < .001$) in FLPA scores between the groups. However, while L4 group ($M = 44.40$, $SD = 10.80$) differed from L2 ($M = 52.82$, $SD = 12.35$), L2R ($M = 52.01$, $SD = 11.74$) and L3 ($M = 50.24$, $SD = 11.16$), others (L3R ($M = 51.13$, $SD = 13.22$), L4R ($M = 48.21$, $SD = 11.67$), Literature and Language Group ($M = 48.38$, $SD = 13.27$) did not differ from each other. L4 group had a significantly lower level of English pronunciation anxiety

compared to L2, L2R, and L3. In addition to that, L4 group had numerically lowest FLPA mean score of all.

To What Extent Does Learners' FLPA Differ by Time Spent Learning English?

Regarding the normality values of -2.58 and +2.58 (Field, 2009; Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012), the results of the normality test showed that the data of time spent learning English were normally distributed for this question (see Table 5). Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data in this question.

Table 5

Normality Values of Groups on Time Spent Learning English Regarding FLPA

Time Spent Learning English	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
0 – 11 months	0.08 / 0.17 / 0.48	-0.16 / 0.33 / -0.50
1 – 5 years	-0.07 / 0.22 / -0.34	0.66 / 0.44 / 1.52
6 – 10 years	0.02 / 0.18 / 0.10	-0.23 / 0.36 / -0.62
11 years and more	0.18 / 0.26 / 0.68	-0.74 / 0.52 / -1.43

A one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test was conducted to compare the difference in FLPA scores between groups regarding time spent learning English (see Table D1 for FLPA scores of all groups in question 3). The results indicated that there was a statistically significant mean difference ($F(3, 592) = 5.17$, $p < .001$) in FLPA scores between the groups. The group who had been learning English for less than a year ($M = 52.70$, $SD = 11.83$) differed from the group who had been learning English for 6 to 10 years ($M = 46.81$, $SD = 10.68$) and the group who had been learning English for more than 11 years ($M = 46.54$, $SD = 12.14$). Moreover, the group who had been learning English for 1 to 5 years ($M = 50.80$, $SD = 11.40$) was

different from the group who had been learning English for 6 to 10 years (*M* = 46.81, *SD* = 10.68).

To What Extent Does Learners' FLPA Differ by Having Been Abroad?

This question tested the effect of having been abroad on learner's FLPA. The results of the normality analysis for this question indicated that the data were normally distributed (see Table 6). Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data.

Table 6

Normality Values of Groups on Having Been in a Foreign Country Regarding FLPA

Been in a Foreign Country	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Yes	-0.03 / 0.24 / -0.13	-0.20 / 0.48 / -0.41
No	0.09 / 0.11 / 0.84	-0.13 / 0.22 / -0.58

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference in FLPA scores between the groups who had been and had never been abroad (see Table D1 for FLPA scores of all groups in question 3). The alpha level was .05. Homogeneity of variances was observed. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant mean difference ($t(594) = -3.6$, $p < .001$) in FLPA scores between the group who had been abroad (*M* = 45.84, *SD* = 11.30) and the group who had never been abroad (*M* = 50.42, *SD* = 11.70).

To What Extent Does Learners' FLPA Differ by Country?

In this question, international students and Turkish students were compared in terms of their FLPA level. Regarding the normality values of -2.58 and +2.58 (Field, 2009; Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012), the results of the normality test showed that the

data of international students and Turkish students were normally distributed for this question (see Table 7).

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference in FLPA scores between Turkish and international groups (see Table D1 for FLPA scores of all groups in question 3). The test was conducted using an alpha level of .05. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($t(594) = .51$, $p = .612$) in FLPA scores between the Turkish group ($M = 49.7$, $SD = 11.7$) and international group ($M = 48.2$, $SD = 13.9$).

Table 7

Normality Values of Country Groups Regarding FLPA

Country	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Turkey	0.10 / 0.10 / 1.02	-0.11 / 0.20 / -0.54
Other	-0.46 / 0.55 / -0.84	-0.43 / 1.06 / -0.78

To What Extent Do Learners' ILPS Differ by Age?

How age groups differ in ILPS was tested in this question. The normality analysis revealed that the data were distributed normally (see Table 8). Thus, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data.

Table 8

Normality Values of Age Groups Regarding ILPS

Age Groups	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
16 – 20	-0.28 / 0.11 / -2.61	0.53 / 0.22 / 2.45
21 – 25	0.07 / 0.28 / 0.25	0.00 / 0.56 / 0.00
26 - 30	0.01 / 0.79 / 0.02	-2.02 / 1.59 / -1.27
31 +	0.63 / 1.23 / 0.52	none

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the difference in ILPS scores between age groups (see Table D2 for ILPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($F(3, 592) = .26$, $p = .770$) in ILPS scores among 16-20 age group ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 0.69$), 21-25 age group ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 0.70$), 26-30 age group ($M = 3.78$, $SD = 0.49$), and 31+ age group ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 1.16$).

To What Extent Do Learners' ILPS Differ by Gender?

In this question, learners' genders were compared in terms of their ILPS. The results of the normality test showed that the data of the three groups were normally distributed for this question (see Table 9). Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data here.

A one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test was conducted to compare the difference in ILPS scores between gender groups (see Table D2 for ILPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was a statistically significant mean difference ($F(2, 593) = 13.8$, $p < .001$) in ILPS scores between the three groups of gender (male, female, other). However, only male ($M = 3.44$, $SD = .70$) and female ($M = 3.65$, $SD = .67$) groups differed from each other, while the 'other' group ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .62$) did not differ from males and females.

Table 9

Normality Values of Gender Groups Regarding ILPS

Gender	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Male	-0.30 / 0.17 / -1.78	0.59 / 0.34 / 1.74
Female	-0.18 / 0.13 / -1.5	0.33 / 0.25 / 1.32
Other	1.04 / 0.75 / 1.38	0.52 / 1.48 / 0.35

To What Extent Do Learners' ILPS Differ by English Proficiency Level?

Groups of different English proficiency levels were compared regarding ILPS. The normality analysis revealed that the data were distributed normally (see Table 10). Thus, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data.

A one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test was conducted to compare the difference in ILPS scores between English proficiency groups (see Table D2 for ILPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was a statistically significant mean difference ($F(6, 589) = 2.21$, $p = .041$) in ILPS scores between L2 ($M = 3.71$, $SD = 0.61$), L2R ($M = 3.64$, $SD = 0.75$), L3 ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .66$), L3R ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 0.79$), L4 ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 0.69$), L4R ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.68$), and Language and Literature Group ($M = 4.01$, $SD = 0.79$). However, the multiple comparison table did not reveal any specific statistically significant relationship between the groups.

Table 10

Normality Values of English Proficiency Levels Regarding ILPS

English Proficiency Level	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
L2	0.21 / 0.28 / 0.77	0.25 / 0.55 / 0.45
L2R	-0.47 / 0.27 / -1.75	0.91 / 0.53 / 1.72
L3	-0.50 / 0.15 / -3.29	0.93 / 0.30 / 3.0
L3R	-0.08 / 0.56 / -0.13	-0.92 / 1.09 / -0.85
L4	0.29 / 0.25 / 0.88	-0.37 / 0.49 / -0.75
L4R	-0.18 / 0.32 / -0.55	-0.09 / 0.62 / -0.15
Literature/Language Group	-0.23 / 0.56 / -0.41	-0.84 / 1.09 / -0.77

To What Extent Do Learners' ILPS Differ by Time Spent Learning English?

All the values in this question were found to be normal except Kurtosis measure (1.23, *SE* = 0.33) for the first group who had been learning English for less than a year (see Table 11). Therefore, boxplot was checked to see whether the data contain outliers. The total number of the outliers was six, and %5 trimmed mean (3.60) was subtracted from mean (3.58). The result was .02, which meant two mean values were not very different from each other (Pallant, 2011). It showed that the data was normal. Thus, parametric tests were used to answer this question.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the difference in ILPS scores between groups regarding time spent learning English (see Table D2 for ILPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($F(3, 592) = 1.27$, $p = .285$) in ILPS scores among 0 – 11 month group ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 0.72$), 1 - 5 year group ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 0.66$), 6 – 10 year group ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 0.63$), and 11+ year group ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 0.73$).

Table 11

Normality Values of Groups on Time Spent Learning English Regarding ILPS

Time Spent Learning English	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
0 – 11 months	-0.54 / 0.17 / -3.21	1.23 / 0.34 / 3.67
1 – 5 years	0.18 / 0.22 / 0.82	-0.26 / 0.44 / -0.60
6 – 10 years	-0.18 / 0.18 / -1.01	0.20 / 0.36 / 0.55
11 years and more	-0.10 / 0.26 / -0.36	-0.35 / 0.52 / -0.67

To What Extent Do Learners' ILPS Differ by Having Been Abroad?

In this question, a comparison in relation to ILPS was made regarding the participants who had been abroad and the participants who had never been abroad. The results of the normality test showed that the data of the two groups were normally distributed for this question (see Table 12). Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data here.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference in ILPS scores between the groups who had been and had never been abroad (see Table D2 for ILPS scores of all groups in question 4). The alpha level was .05. Homogeneity of variances was observed. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($t(594) = 1.7$, $p = .087$) in ILPS scores between the group who had been abroad before ($M = 3.7$, $SD = 0.73$) and the group who had never been abroad ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 0.67$).

Table 12

Normality Values of Groups on Having Been Abroad Regarding ILPS

Been in a Foreign Country	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Yes	-0.19 / 0.24 / -0.76	0.72 / 0.48 / 0.15
No	-0.26 / 0.11 / -2.37	0.55 / 0.22 / 2.52

To What Extent Do Learners' Ideal L2 Pronunciation Self Differ by Country?

Turkish participants and international participants were compared with respect to ILPS in this question. The normality analysis revealed that the data were distributed normally (see Table 13). Thus, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data.

Table 13

Normality Values of Country Groups Regarding ILPS

Country	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Turkey	-0.24 / 0.10 / -2.39	0.48 / 0.20 / 2.35
Other	0.16 / 0.55 / 0.28	-0.51 / 1.06 / -0.48

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference in ILPS scores between Turkish and international groups (see Table D2 for ILPS scores of all groups in question 4). The test was conducted using an alpha level of .05. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($t(594) = -1.1$, $p = .273$) in ILPS scores between the Turkish group ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 0.68$) and international group ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 0.72$).

To What Extent Do Learners' FLPS Differ by Age?

This question tested how age groups differ in FLPS. The normality analysis revealed that the data except the age group consisted of participants between 16 and 20 years old were distributed normally (see Table 14). However, the number of the participants in this age group (N=513) was the highest in number. According to Kim (2013), Bryne (2010) and Hair et al. (2010) in such large sample sizes, skewness measures below 2 and kurtosis measures below 7 are considered to be normal. Moreover, 5% trimmed mean technique with a mean difference (.28) between the mean (36.88) and trimmed mean (36.60) indicated that data were normally distributed. Thus, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the difference in FLPS scores between age groups (see Table D3 for FLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($F(3, 592)$

= .36, p = .808) in FLPS scores among 16-20 age group (M = 36.88, SD = 12.70), 21-25 age group (M = 35.74, SD = 14.05), 26-30 age group (M = 35.29, SD = 15.16), and 31 and over age group (M = 41.33, SD = 6.66).

Table 14

Normality Values of Age Groups Regarding FLPS

Age Groups	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
16 – 20	0.40 / 0.19 / 3.71	-0.43 / 0.22 / -0.20
21 – 25	0.50 / 0.28 / 1.78	-0.41 / 0.56 / -0.74
26 - 30	0.16 / 0.79 / 0.20	-1.26 / 1.59 / -0.80
31 +	1.69 / 1.23 / 1.35	none

To What Extent Do Learners' FLPS Differ by Gender?

In this question, learners' genders were compared in terms of their FLPS. The results of the normality test showed that the data of the three groups were normally distributed for this question (see Table 15). Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data here.

Table 15

Normality Values of Gender Values Regarding FLPS

Gender	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Male	0.46 / 0.17 / 2.74	-0.07 / 0.34 / -0.21
Female	0.26 / 0.13 / 2.11	-0.66 / 0.25 / -2.65
Other	1.86 / 0.75 / 2.46	3.72 / 1.48 / 2.51

A one-way ANOVA conducted to compare the difference in FLPS scores between gender groups (see Table D3 for FLPS scores of all groups in question 4).

However, Levene's test revealed that equality of variances was violated ($F(2, 593) = 15.9$, $p < .000$). Therefore, further analysis was not done.

To What Extent Do Learners' FLPS Differ by English Proficiency Level?

Groups of different English proficiency levels were compared regarding FLPS. The normality analysis revealed that the data were distributed normally (see Table 16). Thus, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the difference in FLPS scores between English proficiency groups (see Table D3 for FLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($F(6, 589) = 1.96$, $p = .070$) in FLPS scores among L2 ($M = 38.63$, $SD = 12.92$), L2R ($M = 37.42$, $SD = 13.88$), L3 ($M = 36.70$, $SD = 12.31$), L3R ($M = 43.81$, $SD = 15.97$), L4 ($M = 33.86$, $SD = 13.12$), L4R ($M = 36.13$, $SD = 11.93$), and Language and Literature Group ($M = 37.44$, $SD = 11.73$).

Table 16

Normality Values of English Proficiency Levels Regarding FLPS

English Proficiency level	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
L2	0.06 / 0.28 / 0.20	-0.80 / 0.55 / -1.47
L2R	0.45 / 0.27 / 1.68	-0.48 / 0.53 / -0.91
L3	0.33 / 0.15 / 2.14	-0.38 / 0.30 / -1.25
L3R	0.36 / 0.56 / 0.64	-1.51 / 1.09 / -1.38
L4	0.65 / 0.25 / 2.63	0.02 / 0.49 / 0.04
L4R	0.60 / 0.32 / 1.90	-0.32 / 0.62 / -0.52
Literature and Language Group	0.40 / 0.56 / 0.71	-0.55 / 1.09 / -0.51

To What Extent Do Learners' FLPS Differ by Time Spent Learning English?

In this question, the duration of the time spent learning English were compared in terms of their FLPS. The results of the normality test showed that the data of the four groups were normally distributed for this question (see Table 17). Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data here.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the difference in FLPS scores between groups regarding time spent learning English (see Table D3 for FLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($F(3, 592) = 2.19$, $p = .088$) in FLPS scores between 0 - 11 month group ($M = 38.15$, $SD = 13.90$), 1 - 5 year group ($M = 37.35$, $SD = 11.93$), 6 – 10 year group ($M = 34.92$, $SD = 12.17$), and 11+ year group ($M = 36.29$, $SD = 12.63$).

Table 17

Normality Values of Groups on Time Spent Learning English Regarding FLPS

Time Spent Learning English	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
0 – 11 months	0.36 / 0.17 / 2.11	-0.63 / 0.33 / -1.89
1 – 5 years	0.30 / 0.22 / 1.37	-0.07 / 0.44 / -0.16
6 – 10 years	0.52 / 0.18 / 2.90	-0.39 / 0.36 / -1.08
11 years and more	0.26 / 0.26 / 1.01	-0.53 / 0.52 / -1.03

To What Extent Do Learners' FLPS Differ by Having Been Abroad?

This question explored whether having been abroad makes a difference in FLPS. The normality analysis revealed that the values of the group who had been abroad were within the range; however, the z-score of the group who had not been

abroad was above the range (see Table 18). Moreover, 5% trimmed mean technique with a mean difference (.34) between the mean (37.08) and trimmed mean (36.74) indicated that data were not normally distributed. However, the sample size of this group (*N*=497) was high in number. According to Kim (2013), in such large sample sizes, skewness measures below 2 and kurtosis measures below 7 are considered to be normal. Thus, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data.

Table 18

Normality Values of Groups on Having Been in a Foreign Country Regarding FLPS

Been in a Foreign Country	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Yes	0.27 / 0.24 / 1.12	-0.60 / 0.48 / -1.24
No	0.43 / 0.11 / 3.87	-0.43 / 0.22 / -1.95

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference in FLPS scores between the groups who had been and had never been abroad (see Table D3 for FLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The analysis was conducted using an alpha level of .05. Homogeneity of variance was observed. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($t(594) = -1.5$, $p = .146$) in FLPS scores between the group who had been abroad before ($M = 35$, $SD = 12.7$) and the group who had never been abroad ($M = 37$, $SD = 12.8$).

To What Extent Do Learners' FLPS Differ by Country?

Turkish participants and international participants were compared with respect to FLPS in this question. The normality analysis revealed that the Turkish data were not normally distributed because z-score (3.98) was above the limits (see Table 19). However, the sample size was large (*N = 579)*. Furthermore, although

there were no outliers, the mean difference (.21) between the mean (36.84) and trimmed mean (36.53) indicated that data were normally distributed. Thus, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference in FLPS scores between Turkish and international groups (see Table D3 for FLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The test was conducted using an alpha level of .05. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($t(594) = 1$, $p = .314$) in FLPS scores between the Turkish group ($M = 36.8$, $SD = 12.9$) and international group ($M = 33.6$, $SD = 11.6$).

Table 19

Normality Values of Country Groups Regarding FLPS

Country	Skewness / *SE* / z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / z-score
Turkey	0.41 / 0.10 / 3.98	-0.46 / 0.20 / -2.24
Other	-0.05 / 0.55 / -0.09	-0.29 / 1.06 / -0.27

To What Extent Do Learners' OLPS Differ by Age?

This question tested how age groups differ in OLPS. The normality analysis revealed that the data were distributed normally (see Table 20). Thus, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the difference in OLPS scores between age groups (see Table D4 for OLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($F(3, 592) = .23$, $p = .874$) in OLPS scores among 16-20 age group ($M = 3.09$, $SD = 0.87$), 21-25 age group ($M = 3.00$, $SD = 0.92$), 26-30 age group ($M = 3.05$, $SD = 0.61$), and 31 and over age group ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 0.10$).

Table 20

Normality Values of Age Groups Regarding OLPS

Age Groups	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
16 – 20	-0.12 / 0.11 / -1.06	-0.35 / 0.22 / -1.62
21 – 25	-0.03 / 0.28 / -0.11	-0.37 / 0.56 / -0.66
26 - 30	0.36 / 0.79 / 0.45	-0.16 / 1.59 / -0.10
31 +	-1.73 / 1.23 / -1.41	none

To What Extent Do Learners' OLPS Differ by Gender?

In this question, learners' genders were compared in terms of their OLPS. The results of the normality test showed that the data of the three groups were normally distributed for this question (see Table 21). Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data here.

Table 21

Normality Values of Gender Groups Regarding OLPS

Gender	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Male	-0.11 / 0.17 / -0.62	-0.20 / 0.34 / -0.60
Female	-0.12 / 0.13 / -0.99	-0.38 / 0.25 / -1.50
Other	0.53 / 0.75 / 0.70	-1.23 / 1.48 / -0.86

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the difference in OLPS scores between gender groups (see Table D4 for OLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($F(2, 593) = .76$, $p = .469$) in OLPS scores between the groups of male ($M = 3.03$, $SD = 0.86$), female ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 0.88$), and other ($M = 2.85$, $SD = 0.80$).

To What Extent Do Learners' OLPS Differ By English Proficiency Level?

Groups of different English proficiency levels were compared regarding OLPS. The normality analysis revealed that the data were distributed normally (see Table 22). Thus, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data.

Table 22

Normality Values of English Proficiency Levels Regarding OLPS

English Proficiency Level	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
L2	-0.14 / 0.28 / -0.49	-0.26 / 0.55 / -0.48
L2R	-0.17 / 0.27 / -0.64	-0.23 / 0.53 / -0.61
L3	-0.11 / 0.15 / -0.73	-0.37 / 0.30 / -1.22
L3R	0.09 / 0.56 / 0.16	-0.09 / 1.09 / -0.09
L4	-0.08 / 0.25 / -0.31	-0.48 / 0.49 / -0.98
L4R	-0.21 / 0.32 / -0.65	-0.32 / 0.62 / -0.52
Literature and Language Group	0.34 / 0.564 / 0.60	-0.26 / 1.09 / -0.24

A one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test was conducted to compare the difference in OLPS scores between English proficiency groups (see Table D4 for OLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was a statistically significant mean difference ($F(6, 589) = 2.13$, $p = .049$) in OLPS scores between L2 ($M = 3.25$, $SD = .88$), L2R ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 0.95$), L3 ($M = 3.04$, $SD = 0.86$), L3R ($M = 3.34$, $SD = 0.79$), L4 ($M = 2.86$, $SD = 0.87$), L4R ($M = 3.13$, $SD = 0.86$), and Language and Literature Group ($M = 3.01$, $SD = 0.60$). However, multiple comparison table did not show a statistically significant difference between the proficiency groups.

To What Extent Do Learners' OLPS Differ by Time Spent Learning English?

In this question, the durations of the time spent learning English were compared in terms of their OLPS. The results of the normality test showed that the data of the four groups were normally distributed for this question (see Table 23). Therefore, parametric tests were chosen to analyse the data here.

Table 23

Normality Values of Groups on Time Spent Learning English Regarding OLPS

Time Spent Learning English	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
0 – 11 months	0.04 / 0.17 / 0.26	-0.49 / 0.33 / -1.46
1 – 5 years	0.05 / 0.22 / 0.24	-0.45 / 0.44 / -1.02
6 – 10 years	-0.28 / 0.18 / -1.54	-0.33 / 0.36 / -0.92
11 years and more	-0.33 / 0.26 / -1.28	-0.02 / 0.52 / -0.03

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the difference in OLPS scores between groups regarding time spent learning English (see Table D4 for OLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($F(3, 592) = 2.32$, $p = .074$) in OLPS scores between the 0 – 11 month group ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 0.86$), the 1 - 5 year group ($M = 3.01$, $SD = 0.87$), the 6 – 10 year group ($M = 2.98$, $SD = 0.87$), and the 11+ year group ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 0.89$).

To What Extent Do Learners' OLPS Differ by Having Been Abroad?

This question explored whether having been abroad makes a difference in OLPS. The normality analysis revealed that the values of both groups were within the range (see Table 24); therefore, parametric tests were used to analyse the data.

Table 24

Normality Values of Groups on Having Been Abroad Regarding OLPS

Been in a Foreign Country	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Yes	-0.53 / 0.24 / -2.19	-0.26 / 0.48 / -0.54
No	-0.02 / 0.11 / -0.19	-0.32 / 0.22 / -1.48

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference in OLPS scores between the groups who had been and had never been abroad (see Table D4 for OLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The analysis was conducted using an alpha level of .05. Homogeneity of variance was observed. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($t(594) = .55$, $p = .586$) in FLPS scores between the group who had been abroad before ($M = 3.1$, $SD = 0.88$) and the group who had never been abroad ($M = 3$, $SD = 0.87$).

To What Extent Do Learners' OLPS Differ by Country?

Turkish participants and international participants were compared with respect to OLPS in this question. The normality analysis revealed that the data were distributed normally (see Table 25). Therefore, parametric tests were used.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference in OLPS scores between Turkish and international groups (see Table D4 for OLPS scores of all groups in question 4). The test was conducted using an alpha level of .05. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference ($t(594) = -.75$, $p = .455$) in FLPA scores between the Turkish group ($M = 3.1$, $SD = 0.9$) and international group ($M = 3.2$, $SD = 1$).

Table 25

Normality Values of Country Groups Regarding OLPS

Country	Skewness / *SE* / Z-score	Kurtosis / *SE* / Z-score
Turkey	-0.09 / 0.10 / -0.88	-0.34 / 0.20 / -1.65
Other	-0.63 / 0.55 / -1.15	0.07 / 1.06 / 0.07

Conclusion

In the current study, the relationship between foreign language pronunciation anxiety and reconceptualized possible L2 pronunciation selves was examined. In addition, the relationship among reconceptualized possible L2 pronunciation selves within one another was explored. Finally, the differences between the subcategories of demographics regarding foreign language pronunciation anxiety and reconceptualized possible L2 pronunciation selves were investigated. The results of the research questions were answered by analyzing the quantitative data collected via the online survey in this chapter. The next chapter will focus on the interpretation, discussion and pedagogical implications of the results. Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research will also be presented.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This chapter primarily presents an overview of the study. Then, in light of relevant literature, major findings of the study with regard to pronunciation anxiety and reconceptualized L2 pronunciation selves are discussed. After that, implications for practice and further research are introduced. Finally, limitations of the study are stated.

Overview of the study

In this non-experimental cross-sectional quantitative study, pronunciation anxiety and reconceptualised L2 pronunciation selves, namely ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self, and ought-to pronunciation self of the adult learners of English in Turkey were aimed to be investigated. For this purpose, the following research questions were posed:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between foreign language pronunciation anxiety and learners' future selves? Specifically,
    a) Ideal L2 pronunciation self
    b) Ought-to L2 pronunciation self
    c) Feared L2 pronunciation self
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between learners' ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self, and ought to L2 pronunciation self?

3. To what extent does learners' FLPA differ by age, gender, English proficiency level, having been abroad, time spent learning English, and country?
4. To what extent do learners' future L2 selves differ by age, gender, proficiency level, having been abroad, time spent learning English, and country?

The participants of this study were 596 adult learners of English at a state university's school of foreign languages in Turkey. The data were collected through a self-report survey consisting of three major parts (see Appendix A and Appendix B) starting with the informed consent form. The first part of the survey was a questionnaire on pronunciation anxiety amounting to the constructs such as oral performance apprehension, self-concern over pronunciation, pronunciation self-image, pronunciation self-efficacy and attitudes to English pronunciation. The questionnaire was adopted and adapted from Kralova, Skorvagova, et al. (2017). The second part of the survey was on the three L2 pronunciation selves and it was developed by the researcher based on Baran-Lucarz (2017) and Peker (2016). The third part was demographics section. The questions comprised of age, gender, English proficiency level, having been abroad, time spent learning English, and country. In order to analyse the data collected, inferential statistics tests were conducted using SPSS v.25.

Discussion of Major Findings

Investigating pronunciation anxiety is new in the field of SLA and Reconceptualised L2 Motivational Self System (Peker, 2016) is a novel concept. In addition, L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009) is less examined in

Turkish context. Still, deriving from the previous international literature, some assumptions were made and the research questions were answered accordingly.

The Relationship Between Foreign Language Pronunciation Anxiety and Learners' Future Selves

The first research question addressed whether there was a statistically significant relationship between foreign language pronunciation anxiety (FLPA) and ideal L2 pronunciation selves (ILPS), feared L2 pronunciation selves (FLPS) and ought-to L2 pronunciation selves (OLPS) of the participants. As for ILPS, the analysis of the quantitative data revealed that there was a negative moderate relationship between FLPA and ILPS. Therefore, it could be inferred that the participants felt less anxious regarding their English pronunciation when they could imagine themselves articulating English words in a flattering, nativelike manner. This finding is in line with Baran-Lucarz's study (2017). Baran-Lucarz investigated the relationship between pronunciation anxiety and motivation within the perspective of L2 Motivational Self System. She found that participants who had low pronunciation anxiety were fond of nativelike pronunciation and they demonstrated positive attitudes toward target language. Moreover, they could clearly visualize ideal L2 self as an adept speaker who could, for instance, speak to foreigners outside classroom.

Another aspect Baran-Lucarz examined L2 was ought-to self. The results of her study demonstrated that ought-to self was not associated with pronunciation anxiety in Polish context. However, the results of the current study revealed the opposite. The participants of this study felt more anxious about their English pronunciation when they thought that they had to live up to the expectations and obligations by others. The difference between Polish context and Turkish context

might derive from the values of Turkish society such as respect to the elderly, authorities and family. According to Taguchi et al. (2009), ought-to L2 selves of individuals are adjusted to the immediate environment they are in. Moreover, Lee and Lee (2019) found that ought-to L2 self was stronger in Korean secondary school students regarding willingness to communicate because education system in Korea was test-oriented. Because the participants in this study came from a test-oriented culture and because they had to pass the English proficiency exam to be able to start their departments, results might have differed.

Finally, the results regarding feared L2 pronunciation self unveiled that there was a significant positive association between FLPA and FLPS. Thus, this finding translates into the conclusion that participants felt more anxious about their English pronunciation when they imagined they would become the person they were afraid to be regarding L2 pronunciation. Put differently, they were dreaded to be a person who was ridiculed, discriminated, and unsuccessful because of poor pronunciation skills as noted in Peker (2016). Moreover, the correlation between FLPA and FLPS in this study supports Peker's study. Peker investigated motivation, identity and bullying victimization in English learners. One of the constructs she examined was English anxiety regarding R-L2MSS. In her study, she found that feared L2 self was strongly correlated with English anxiety, whereas there was not a significant relationship between English anxiety and ought-to L2 self. In this study, although both selves significantly associated with FLPA, FLPS was found to be a stronger indicator.

The Relationship Between Learners' Ideal L2 Pronunciation Self, Feared L2 Pronunciation Self, and Ought-to L2 Pronunciation Self

The second research question was posed to reveal whether there was a statistically significant relationship among participants' ILPS, FLPS and OLPS

regarding English pronunciation. The results indicated that there was a negative significant relationship between ILPS and FLPS. In other words, participants could imagine themselves as a person who articulated English words clearly and beautifully when they were less afraid of becoming the one who had to endure negative outcomes of possessing poor pronunciation. Therefore, ideal L2 self might be promoted through interventions (Baran-Lucarz, 2017; Hessel, 2015; Mackay, 2019).

Another significant result was the relationship between OLPS and FLPS. OLPS and FLPS positively correlated in the study, which meant participants had to fulfill what others expected from them regarding pronunciation and they were afraid of becoming a disrespected, discriminated and unsuccessful person with poor pronunciation. In other words, the more they thought they needed to become the person meeting expectations and obligations, the more fear they experienced. The positive correlation between OLPS and FLPS might have derived from the consequential fears construct of FLPS. Among consequential fears was losing life opportunities due to poor pronunciation skills. For instance, if one cannot pass an interview in L2, then he/she fails to land a good job. As a result, the individual here might be motivated to avoid the unemployed self. These findings of question two are consistent with Peker's (2016) and Uslu-Ok's (2013) studies. As mentioned before, Peker worked on motivation, identity and bullying victimization in English learners. Uslu-Ok, on the other hand, investigated motivation to learn English in relation to future time perspectives and possible selves. Both studies found that the associations between feared L2 self and ought-to L2 self were significant and positive.

Finally, no statistically significant relationship between ILPS and OLPS was found, which translates into the inference that obligations and dreams were two

discrete concepts for the participants. This result is supported by Lee and Lee's (2019) study. Lee and Lee found that ideal L2 self was stronger in university students who did not have to take English exams, whereas both ought-to and ideal L2 selves were in effect for secondary students. Although the participants in this study were preparatory year students who had to pass the proficiency exam, it might be concluded that studying English for a year obligatorily might not be what students dream of.

The Extent to Which Learners' Foreign Language Pronunciation Anxiety Differ By Age, Gender, English Proficiency Level, Having Been Abroad, Time Spent Learning English, and Country

The third question was raised to address the differences among groups with regard to FLPA. The first variable was age to discuss. The results showed that there was not a statistically significant mean difference among the age groups. In other words, age was not a determinant of foreign language pronunciation anxiety in this study. However, the numerical difference between the age groups indicated that the age group who bore the highest level of anxiety was the group consisting of the participants aged 21 to 25. The second highest was the age group 16 – 20. The third was the age group of 26 – 30. The least anxious was 31+ age group. This finding contradicted with the findings of Dewaele and MacIntryre (2014), who studied the effect of age on foreign language classroom anxiety and found that teenagers were the most anxious of all age groups. However, there seems to be no consensus on the effect of age on foreign language anxiety. Similar to Dewaele and MacIntyre, Arnaiz and Guillén (2012) found that the older learners of foreign languages were less anxious compared to the younger ones, yet Dewaele's (2010) research revealed that the peak ages of foreign language anxiety were twenties.

Another variable investigated in the current study was gender. There were three gender groups: male, female, and other. While there was a statistically significant mean difference in FLPA between male and female groups, participants of the other group did not demonstrate any differences. When the FLPA mean scores of the female participants and those of male participants were compared, it was observed that the scores of the female group was higher than the male group. In other words, females were significantly more anxious regarding English pronunciation than males were. This finding was not supported by Kafes (2018), who drew binary comparison regarding gender. In his study, the FLPA means of male participants and female participants did not differ. The impact of gender on foreign language anxiety and foreign language classroom anxiety is not definitive either (Dewaele & Al-saraj, 2015). While Arnaiz & Guillén (2012) and Dewaele & MacIntyre (2014) found that female students reported a higher level of anxiety compared to male students, Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham (2008) concluded that gender had no effect. Therefore, the finding on gender differences in this study does not provide evidence to conclude that gender is an indicator of FLPA. Instead, it should be considered exploratory. Further research is needed on that matter.

English proficiency level was the third variable to be tested in relation to FLPA. There were seven groups in total, which were L2, L2R, L3, L3R, L4, L4R and Language and Literature Group. The groups that have the lowest level of English proficiency are L2 and L2R (elementary), whereas the Language and Literature group is the most proficient (advanced) one. Although there was a statistically significant difference, not all groups differed from each other. L4 group had a significantly lower level of English pronunciation anxiety compared to L2, L2R, and L3. Although there was not significant relationship between the most proficient

group, i.e. Language and Literature Group and L4, mean difference shows that L4 was less anxious. This finding is confirmed by the findings of Baran-Lucarz (2014). Baran-Lucarz examined the effect of English proficiency levels (i.e., three proficiency levels: A2, B1, and B2) on the relationship between willingness to communicate and FLPA. The results indicated that there was a negative relationship between willingness to communicate and FLPA and the highest correlation, in other words lowest FLPA, was found in B1, but not in B2. However, these findings are not in line with the findings in the study by Kafes (2018). Kafes (2018) found a different pattern:

> [T]he analysis of the findings indicate that the more proficient the learners are, the more anxious they are about their pronunciation in English. That is, as their awareness of having proper English pronunciation increases, their level of anxiety levels also grow. (p. 1821)

Szyszka (2011), on the other hand, found that participants who reported their pronunciation levels as low had a higher level of anxiety. Research in foreign language anxiety and foreign language classroom anxiety yielded dichotomy with this regard, as well (Liu & Chen, 2013; Marcos-Llinás & Juan-Garau, 2009; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Thompson & Lee, 2014).

Another variable examined in the current study was the total duration of the time spent learning English. The results indicated that learners who had been learning English for less than a year were found to be more anxious than the ones who had been learning English for 6 to 10 years. They also reported being more anxious than the group who had been learning English for more than 11 years. However, there was no significant difference found between them and the group with 1 - 5 year learning experience. On the other hand, the group who had been learning

English for 1 to 5 years held a higher level of anxiety compared to the group who had been learning English for 6 to 10 years. There was no statistically significant difference between the groups of 1 - 5 year learning experience and 6 - 10 year learning experience. However, sig value was found to be very close to alpha level (p = .053) in this comparison. Overall, the results regarding this variable indicated that participants who had been learning English for a shorter period were more anxious regarding pronunciation.

Having been abroad was another variable that might have an effect on FLPA level of learners. Therefore, it was examined in the current study. The results showed that the group who had been abroad was less anxious regarding English pronunciation than the group who had not been abroad. This finding resonated with the findings of Thompson and Lee (2014). Thompson and Lee investigated whether language proficiency and experience abroad had an effect on language learning anxiety. As for experience abroad, they offered options (i.e. never, several weeks, several months, one year or more) for participants to choose among. They concluded that as the time spent abroad increased, participants had less language learning anxiety. In particular, there was a significant difference between *never* and *one year or more* in addition to between *several weeks* and *one year and more*. The difference between *never* and *several weeks* was not significant; however, sig value was found to be very close to alpha level. The comparison of *several months* and *one year and more* did not yield significant difference, nor it indicated a big effect size, which meant spending several months abroad is the threshold to lose language learning anxiety.

The last variable to be discussed regarding FLPA was country. In this part of the question Turkish students' FLPA was compared to that of international students'.

The two groups did not differ in FLPA. Since no relevant previous literature was found, this comparison offers further research to explore the difference between EFL learners in a foreign country and local cohort.

The Extent to Which Learners' Future L2 Selves Differ By Age, Gender, Proficiency Level, Having Been Abroad, Time Spent Learning English, and Country

The last research question of the current study was posed to find out whether there were differences among groups in relation to ILPS, FLPS, and OLPS. The first variable examined was age in this study. The results showed that there was no statistically significant mean difference among age groups regarding all future L2 selves. However, as for ILPS, participants scored close to 4 on average in all groups, which meant they agreed with the statements in the questionnaire. In other words, their imagery of ILPS was strong. As for FLPS, the group aged 31 and over had the highest numerical mean, while the means of other groups were close to one another. Therefore, it might be inferred that older leaners are afraid to become a ridiculed and discriminated person because of their foreign language pronunciation. As for OLPS, the participants neither agreed nor disagreed with the idea that they should become a person that others expected them to be.

Gender is another variable that might have an impact on L2 future selves. Hence, it was examined in the current study. In relation to ILPS, there was a statistically significant mean difference between male respondents and female respondents, whereas the other group did not demonstrate any significant differences. The fact that females scored higher in ILPS questions indicated that female participants had a stronger view of ILPS. This finding is in line with Yahima et al.'s (2017) findings. Yahima et al. investigated gender difference in ideal L2 self and

ought-to L2 self in addition to communication orientation versus grammar-translation orientation. The results yielded that female participants were more communication oriented and their ideal L2 selves were higher, while male participants were grammar-translation oriented and their ought-to L2 selves were higher. When viewed from this aspect, the current study is supported by Yahima et al.'s study since it is on oral production skills. However, there was not a significant difference among gender groups regarding OLPS. Although this finding contradicts with Yahima et al.'s findings, it is resonated in Engin's (2019) findings. Engin studied L2MSS at a private university in Turkey and found out that gender did not make a difference regarding the components of L2MSS. Finally, no homogeneity of variances were observed regarding gender and FLPS; therefore, further tests were not run.

Another variable tested in this question was English proficiency. The participants with different levels of English proficiency did not demonstrate significant difference in FLPS. However, there was a statistically significant difference among these level groups regarding ILPS and OLPS. On the other hand, when multiple comparisons table is examined, it was found that the differences between the groups remained nonsignificant. These findings were contrary to Engin's (2019) findings. Engin (2019) reported that proficiency levels of pre-intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced did not demonstrate any difference regarding ideal and ought to L2 selves. The contrary findings may be because of students' individual differences; however, more research is needed to clarify this contradiction.

As for time spent learning English, no significant difference was detected related to future L2 pronunciation selves. This finding is not supported by Engin's

(2019) study, in which there were statistical differences in learners who had been learning English for years. In Engin's study, the participants with more English learning experience demonstrated significantly higher scores in the attitudes toward L2 language scale.

Having been abroad might be a factor effecting L2 motivation. In a qualitative study conducted with two participants, Mezei (2008) found that the participant who had been abroad had a more positive attitude toward L2 community and language. Therefore, experience abroad was tested within the scope of future L2 pronunciation selves. However, the group who had been abroad and the group who had not been abroad before did not report differently regarding any of future L2 pronunciation selves in this study. It might be because of the short visits that the young sample of this study went on with their families, where they did not have a chance to interact with the speakers of English and they did not develop ILPS, FLPS and OLPS yet.

The final variable regarding future L2 pronunciation selves measured was country in this study. The scores of Turkish participants and international participants were compared. It was found that there was not a statistically significant mean difference between them in any of future L2 pronunciation selves. However, Turkish nationals scored higher in FLPS, while they reported lower ILPS and OLPS. Still, this finding does not constitute evidence to conclude that learners of English in a foreign country demonstrated similar appearance of future L2 pronunciation selves to local learners of English. Hence, this comparison could be a further research topic.

One last issue to be discussed in this question is the distinction between FLPS and OLPS. A general overview of the scores regarding FLPS and OLPS revealed that participants reported higher levels of FLPS than they did for OLPS. For instance,

both Turkish nationals and foreign nationals scored higher in FLPS compared to OLPS. This finding is supported by Peker's (2016) findings in that feared language self can be considered as a separate additional construct to L2MSS.

Implications for Practice

The findings of this study yield significant pedagogical implications for practice relying on the literature reviewed. First, FLPA was the most apparent and prominent factor observed in learners in the current study. Therefore, although this study did not examine any experimental techniques to help learners feel less anxious about their pronunciation, language instructors might make use of some techniques suggested by the researchers mentioned in the literature review section of the current study. For instance, one of them is corrective feedback. Lee (2016) found that instructors' all kinds of oral corrective feedback except for clarification helped students lower their anxiety. In another study, Luquin and Roothoft (2019) tested corrective feedback (i.e. recasts and metalinguistic feedback) as a tool to ease stress and anxiety as well as a tool to foster pronunciation development and recasts were found to be the most efficient type of corrective feedback in pronunciation development. Another practical suggestion to improve pronunciation of learners could be AAM (Demirezen, 2010). AAM makes use of minimal pairs, tongue twisters, and problem-sound concentrated sentences. Although criticized for including decontextualized exercises and contrastive analysis (Geylanioğlu & Dikilitaş, 2012), AAM might help instructors of English, specifically in Turkey because there is a considerable amount of sources addressed pronunciation problems of Turkish learners of English and tested AAM. In conclusion, since poor pronunciation results in negative emotions such as fear (Baran-Lucarz, 2014, 2016),

pronunciation development will eventually benefit learners to experience less FLPA in turn.

In this study, it was also found that FLPA positively correlated with OLPS and FLPS. Contrastively, FLPA and ILPS were negatively correlated. In other words, FLPA hinders the realization of ILPS, while it fosters OLPS and FLPS. Therefore, educators might plot a route to lower FLPA by generally suggested interventions or extra-curricular engagements to enhance motivation in the existing literature. Psychosocial training suggested by Kralova et al. (2017, 2018) is one of them. Psychosocial training is a non-therapeutic training, and it stimulates social learning. It helps individuals cope with stress by providing a supportive environment. Another option could be discovering and enhancing learners' ILPS. Mackay (2019) suggested positive visualization techniques to identify and promote ideal L2 self. Positive visualization techniques include presentation of future selves, brainstorming, discussions, guided imagery, and reflective practice. Hessel (2015) emphasized the frequency of imagery to be able to keep ideal L2 self active. Therefore, it might be better for instructors to refer to positive visualization techniques more than once throughout an academic year.

Finally, FLPA was found to be higher in female students, the 21 - 25 age group, less proficient learners, learners who had been learning English for a shorter period, and learners who had never been abroad. In order to support female empowerment, the age group vulnerable to anxiety and the learners who need extra practice, youth participatory action research (Powers & Tiffany, 2006; Rubin, Ayala, & Zaal, 2017) can be promoted at schools. Perhaps there is not much to do for the learners who have started their English journey later in life, but for the learners with

no experience abroad, youth exchange programs (e.g. Key Action 2 by European Union) can be organized.

Implications for Further Research

Based on the findings and limitations of the current study, some implications for further research can be offered. First, the research questions in the current study might be further explored in other settings since the current study was conducted only at one state university. Conducting similar studies in other settings could offer more insights in terms of the issues discussed here. Second, different age groups can be compared since the majority of the participants were either young adults or in their early twenties. Third, no beginner level students participated in the study; as a result, future studies might include them. Next, diverse communities can be selected to implement this study because the sample consisted of Turkish adult students except for 17 international participants. Moreover, a mixed-methods design might be adopted to obtain a better insight on foreign language pronunciation anxiety and future L2 selves.

Both pronunciation anxiety and future L2 selves are less frequently examined concepts. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is no previous literature in Turkish context. Moreover, this study is the first research bridging foreign language pronunciation anxiety and Reconceptualised L2 Motivational Self System. Therefore, this study might be replicated to provide support and in depth conclusions. In addition, since FLPA was found to be playing an important role in the emergence and formation of future L2 selves, further research might refer to testing the effectiveness of interventions such as psychosocial training or techniques such as different types of corrective feedback (e.g. implicit vs explicit corrective feedback) to lower FLPA.

Limitations

Many studies have limitations, and this study is no exception. First limitation is sampling. The researcher benefitted from convenience sampling to conduct this study; therefore, the sample was homogeneous although its size was big (N = 596). Participants were all university students learning English at prep school and they were at about the same age. “The sample who respond are not representative of the population at large” (Moore, McCabe, & Craig, 2009, p. 199); thus, the study might not be generalized. Additionally, no beginner level learners of English participated in the study. As a result, this study lacks the reports of beginner level students. Second, this study is a pure quantitative study, and triangulating the findings with qualitative data would increase the validity of the study. Other techniques such as open-ended questions at the end of the survey, semi-structured interviews for both self-related and anxiety issues, or observations could be adopted to triangulate the data.

Conclusion

In this non-experimental cross-sectional quantitative study, foreign language pronunciation anxiety and future L2 selves (i.e. ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self, and ought-to L2 pronunciation self) were investigated. One of the aims of this study was to explore the relationship between EFL learners’ pronunciation anxiety and future L2 selves. Another one was to examine these two concepts in relation to age, gender, English proficiency, time spent learning English, having been abroad, and country. The results of the study showed that foreign language pronunciation anxiety was a determinant of future L2 pronunciation selves. Moreover, ideal L2 pronunciation self imagery helped learners to cope with their fears of pronunciation related to future L2 selves. Furthermore, when one had a more apparent image of ought-to L2 pronunciation self, his/her feared self was apparent to

him/her, as well. Another result of this study was that the level of foreign language pronunciation anxiety was higher in female learners, less proficient learners, learners who had never been abroad and learners who had been learning English relatively for a short period. Finally, the variables such as age, English proficiency, experience abroad, and country did not show significant differences among groups in future L2 pronunciation selves except for gender. Therefore, to improve pronunciation skills, techniques such as corrective feedback and AAM might be implemented in language classrooms. Furthermore, to help learners with affective and cognitive aspects of foreign language pronunciation, programs such as psychosocial training, positive visualization, student exchange and youth participatory action research might be promoted.

In conclusion, it is attempted to explore and explain the relationship between foreign language pronunciation anxiety and motivation within the scope of Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System in this study. While anxiety was found to be a prominent actor in learners' oral production, findings regarding ideal L2 pronunciation self, feared L2 pronunciation self and ought-to L2 pronunciation lend support to Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Survey – English

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Dear Participants,

This research study is designed to examine the relationship between future possible selves and current foreign language pronunciation anxiety in learners of English. To this end, your careful completion of the surveys will contribute greatly to obtaining real data, which is crucial for more accurate findings. I guarantee that all information and data from the surveys will be stored safely and will not be shared with others in any way in which the participants' names or individual responses could be identified. Additionally, in all presented and published data resulting from the research, your responses will be aggregated with responses from other participants to assure protection of your identity. Please be informed that your participation is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from this study at any time for any reason without any explanation and/or without any penalty. You may choose not to answer any question for any reason.

Thank you very much in advance for your invaluable time and cooperation and if you have any questions about this research project, or would like more information, please contact me at the e-mail address below:

Burcu Tekten
MATEFL Student
Graduate School of Education
Bilkent University, ANKARA
btekten@ankara.edu.tr

I agree to participate in this study voluntarily.

Yes No

CURRENT PRONUNCIATION ANXIETY and FUTURE POSSIBLE SELVES

Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the statements below by marking the related spot next to each of them. The statements refer to your learning and using of English as a foreign language.

Strongly Agree (completely true about me)

Agree
Neither Agree Nor Disagree
Disagree
Strongly disagree (definitely not true about me)

PART 1

I feel nervous when I speak English.
I do not like talking to more advanced English speakers than me.
I feel embarrassed talking to people with good English pronunciation.
I get nervous when I have to speak English in front of other people.
I am not satisfied with my English pronunciation.
I feel uncomfortable about making pronunciation mistakes.
I realize it when I make a pronunciation mistake.
I feel embarrassed when I realize that I pronounce some words incorrectly.
I am afraid people will think I am silly and incompetent because of my poor English pronunciation.
I am afraid my future colleagues will have better English pronunciation than I do.
Other students have better English pronunciation than I do.
I am worried about not being understood because of my improper pronunciation.
I feel ashamed when people correct my pronunciation mistakes.
It seems to me that I cannot get rid of my first language/mother tongue's (e.g. Turkish) accent in English.
I can never master good English pronunciation.
I think English pronunciation is very difficult.
I consider the rules of English pronunciation incomprehensible.
It is very difficult to pronounce like a native speaker.

PART 2

I imagine myself as an English speaker ___ in the future.

who has a nativelike English accent
who speaks English without his/her first language/mother tongue's (e.g. Turkish) accent
that other speakers of English are surprised to find out that he/she is not a native speaker of English.
who receives compliments on his/her pronunciation
whose pronunciation is aspired by other non-native speakers of English
who does not envy the good pronunciation of other non-native speakers of English since his/hers is good enough
whose good English pronunciation brings opportunities (career, relationships, etc.) in life
who gets top scores in speaking/oral exams or interviews because of his/her adept pronunciation
who is respected because of his/her good pronunciation skills
who is understood easily by native speakers of English because of his/her good pronunciation skills

PART 3

I am afraid of becoming an English speaker _____ in the future.

who can never have a near-nativelike pronunciation of English
whose first language/mother tongue (e.g. Turkish) has a strong effect on his/her accent
whose accent gives away that he/she is a foreigner
who is discriminated due to poor pronunciation skills
whose pronunciation is criticized by other non-native speakers of English
who envies the good pronunciation of other non-native speakers of English since his/hers is not good enough
whose life (career, relationships and life opportunities) is affected negatively by a strong accent of his/her first language/mother tongue (e.g. strong Turkish accent)
who gets low scores in speaking/oral exams or interviews because of his/her poor pronunciation
who is not respected due to his/her poor pronunciation skills
whose speech will not be understood due to his/her pronunciation
whose pronunciation is corrected by others
whose pronunciation is a topic of gossip
who is being called mean names due to his/her accent or mispronunciation
who is considered to be less educated because of his/her pronunciation

PART 4

I should / ought to / have to be an English speaker with good pronunciation in the future because ____

people surrounding me expect me to do so
people I respect think that I should do so
if my pronunciation of English is far from good, I will disappoint those I care about
if I fail to articulate words correctly, I'll be letting my teachers down
an educated person is supposed to be able to pronounce English well
other people will respect me more if I do so

PART 5

Please choose the appropriate response for each item.

1. What is your age?

16 – 20
21 – 25
26 – 30
31 +

2. What is your gender?

Male
Female
Other

3. What is your English proficiency level?

L1
L1R
L2
L2R
L3
L3R
L4
L4R
Literature and Language Group

4. Which country are you from?
(Choosing among the countries in the list provided by Qualtrics Survey Software)

5. How long have you been learning English?

0 – 11 months
1 – 5 years
6 – 10 years
11 years and more

6. Have you ever been in a foreign country that you spoke English? (This may include your touristic travels.)

Yes
No

7. If you have said NO to the previous question, please SKIP this question. If you have said YES, please ANSWER this question. What is the total duration of the time you spent abroad?

0 – 3 months
4 – 6 months
7 – 9 months
10 months – 1 year
1 year and more

APPENDIX B

Survey – Turkish

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAY FORMU

Değerli Katılımcılar,

Bu araştırma, İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenenlerin mevcut telaffuz kaygısı ile gelecekteki olası benlikleri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek için tasarlanmıştır. Bu doğrultuda, anketleri dikkatle doldurmanız gerçek veriye ulaşmak için büyük bir katkıda bulunacaktır. Anketlerden elde edilen bütün bilgiler güvenlik içinde saklanacak ve katılımcının ismi ya da bireysel cevaplarını ortaya çıkaracak bir şekilde hiç kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır. Ayrıca, çalışma sonucu yayınlanacak hiçbir yayında katılımcıların kimliğini ortaya çıkaracak paylaşımlar yapılmayacaktır. Katılımınız tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Bu çalışmayı, bir sebep belirtmeden ya da bir cezaya maruz kalmadan herhangi bir sebepten dolayı herhangi bir zaman bırakabilirsiniz. Herhangi bir soruyu herhangi bir sebepten dolayı cevaplamayabilirsiniz.

Değerli vaktiniz ve katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim. Eğer bu çalışmayla ilgili bir soru sormak ya da daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz aşağıdaki elektronik posta adresinden bana ulaşabilirsiniz.

Burcu Tekten
MATEFL Öğrencisi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Bilkent Üniversitesi, ANKARA
btekten@ankara.edu.tr

Çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Evet Hayır

MEVCUT TELAFFUZ KAYGISI VE GELECEKTEKİ OLASI BENLİKLER - TÜRKÇE

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı/katılmadığınızı ifadelerin yanındaki ilgili yeri işaretleyerek belirtin. İfadeler sizin yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğreniminiz ve kullanımınızla ilgilidir.

Kesinlikle Katılıyorum (benim için tamamen doğru)

Katılıyorum
Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum
Katılmıyorum
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (benim için hiç doğru değil)

BÖLÜM 1

İngilizce konuştuğumda gergin hissediyorum.
Benden daha ileri seviyede İngilizce konuşanlarla sohbet etmekten hoşlanmıyorum.
İyi İngilizce telaffuzu olan kişilerle konuşurken utanıyorum.
Diğer insanların karşısında İngilizce konuşmak zorunda kaldığımda gergin hissediyorum.
İngilizce telaffuzumdan memnun değilim.
Telaffuz hatası yapmaktan rahatsızlık duyuyorum.
Telaffuz hatası yaptığımda fark ediyorum.
Bazı kelimeleri yanlış telaffuz ettiğimi fark ettiğimde utanıyorum.
Kötü İngilizce telaffuzumdan dolayı insanların ahmak ve yetersiz olduğumu düşünmelerinden korkuyorum.
Gelecekteki iş arkadaşlarımın benden daha iyi bir telaffuza sahip olmasından korkuyorum.
Diğer öğrenciler benim telaffuzumdan daha iyi bir telaffuza sahipler.
Hatalı telaffuzumdan ötürü anlaşılmamaktan endişe duyuyorum.
İnsanlar telaffuz hatalarımı düzelttiğinde utanıyorum.
İngilizce konuşurken kendi birinci/anadilimin (örneğin Türkçe) aksanından kurtulamayacakmışım gibi geliyor.
İyi İngilizce telaffuzu konusunda asla ustalaşamam.
Bence İngilizce telaffuz çok zor.
İngilizce telaffuz kurallarını anlaşılmaz buluyorum.
İngilizce anadili konuşucusu gibi telaffuz etmek çok zor.

BÖLÜM 2

Kendimi gelecekte İngilizce bilen ____ biri olarak hayal ediyorum.

anadil konuşucusu gibi İngilizce aksanı olan
kendi birinci/ana dilinin (örneğin Türkçe) aksanı olmadan İngilizce konuşan
İngilizce konuşan diğer kişilerin İngilizce'nin ana dili olmadığını öğrendiklerinde şaşırdıkları
telaffuzu hakkında övgüler alan
ana dili İngilizce olmayan İngilizce konuşucularının telaffuzuna gıpta ettiği
kendi telaffuzu yeterince iyi olduğu için diğer ana dili İngilizce olmayan İngilizce konuşucularının iyi telaffuzunu kıskanmayan
iyi İngilizce telaffuzu hayatta karşısına fırsatlar çıkaran (kariyer, ilişkiler vb.)
çok iyi telaffuzundan dolayı konuşma sınavı, sözlü sınav ya da mülakatlarda en yüksek puanları alan
iyi telaffuz becerilerinden dolayı saygı duyulan
iyi telaffuz becerilerinden dolayı söyledikleri kolayca anlaşılan

BÖLÜM 3

Gelecekte _____ İngilizce konuşan biri olmaktan korkuyorum.

anadil konuşucusuna yakın İngilizce telaffuzu asla olamayan
kendi birinci/ana dilinin aksanının ağır etkisi olan (örneğin Türkçe aksanlı)
aksanı yabancı olduğunu ele veren
zayıf telaffuz becerilerinden ötürü ayrımcılığa uğrayan
telaffuzu ana dili İngilizce olmayanlar tarafından eleştirilen
kendi telaffuzu yeterince iyi olmadığı için diğer ana dili İngilizce olmayanların telaffuzlarını kıskanan
hayatı (kariyeri, ilişkileri ve hayattaki fırsatları) kendi birinci/anadilinin ağır aksanından (örneğin ağır Türkçe aksanından) ötürü olumsuz etkilenen
zayıf telaffuzundan dolayı konuşma sınavı, sözlü sınav ya da mülakatlarda düşük puanlar alan
zayıf telaffuz becerilerinden dolayı saygı duyulmayan
telaffuzundan dolayı konuşmasının anlaşılmayacağı
telaffuzu diğerleri tarafından düzeltilen
telaffuzu dedikodu malzemesi olan
yanlış telaffuzundan ya da aksanından ötürü kötü adlar takılan
telaffuzundan ötürü az eğitimli olduğu düşünülen

BÖLÜM 4

Gelecekte iyi İngilizce telaffuzu olan biri olmalıyım / olmam gerekir / olmak zorundayım çünkü _____

etrafımdaki insanlar benden öyle bekliyor
saygı duyduğum insanlar öyle olmam gerektiğini düşünüyor
İngilizce telaffuzum iyi olmaktan uzak olursa önemsediğim insanları hayal kırıklığına uğratırım
kelimeleri düzgün telaffuz edemezsem öğretmenlerimi hayal kırıklığına uğratırım
eğitimli bir insanın İngilizce telaffuzunun iyi olması gerekir
öyle olursa diğer insanlar bana saygı duyar

BÖLÜM 5

Lütfen her madde için uygun cevabı seçin.

1. Yaşınız nedir?

16 – 20
21 – 25
26 – 30
31 +

2. Cinsiyetiniz nedir?

Kadın

Erkek
Diğer

3. İngilizce yeterlik seviyeniz nedir?

L1
L1R
L2
L2R
L3
L3R
L4
L4R
Filoloji Grubu

4. Hangi ülkedensiniz?
(Qualtrics tarafından sağlanan listenin içinden ülkelerini seçerek)

5. Ne kadar süredir İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz?

0 – 11 ay
1 – 5 yıl
6 – 10 yıl
11 yıl ve üzeri

6. İngilizce konuştuğunuz yabancı bir ülkede hiç bulundunuz mu? (Buna turistik gezileriniz de dahil olabilir.)

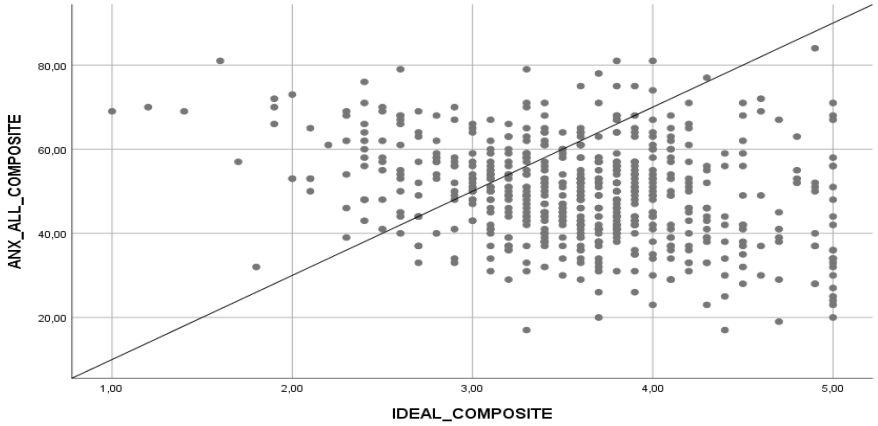
Evet
Hayır

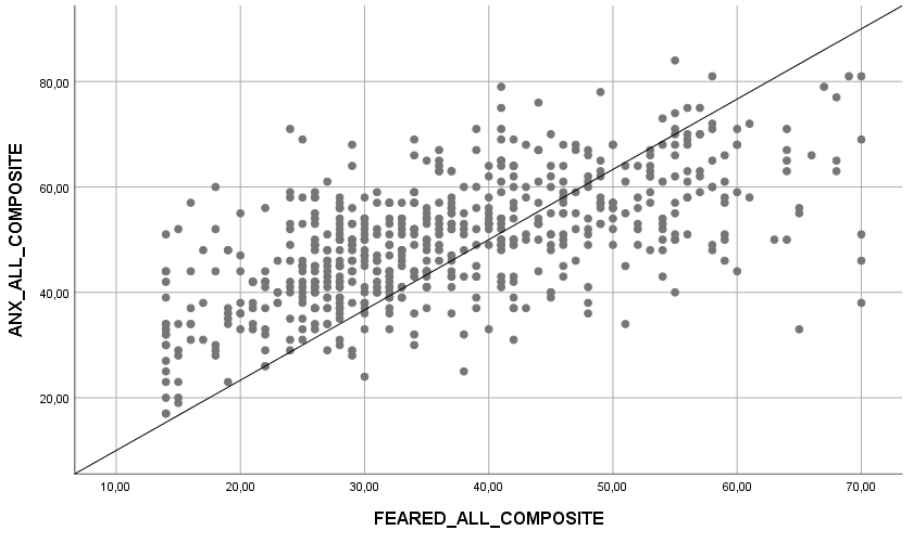
7. Bir önceki soruda HAYIR dediyseniz, lütfen aşağıdaki SORUYU ATLAYIN.
EVET dediyseniz, lütfen aşağıdaki SORUYU CEVAPLAYIN.
Yurtdışında geçirdiğiniz toplam süre ne kadardır?

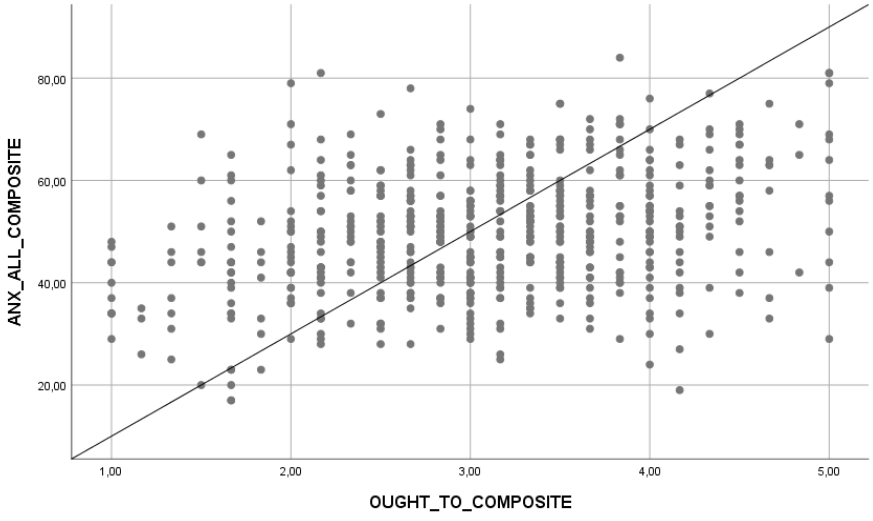
0 – 3 ay
4 – 6 ay
7 – 9 ay
10 ay – 1 yıl
1 yıl ve üzeri

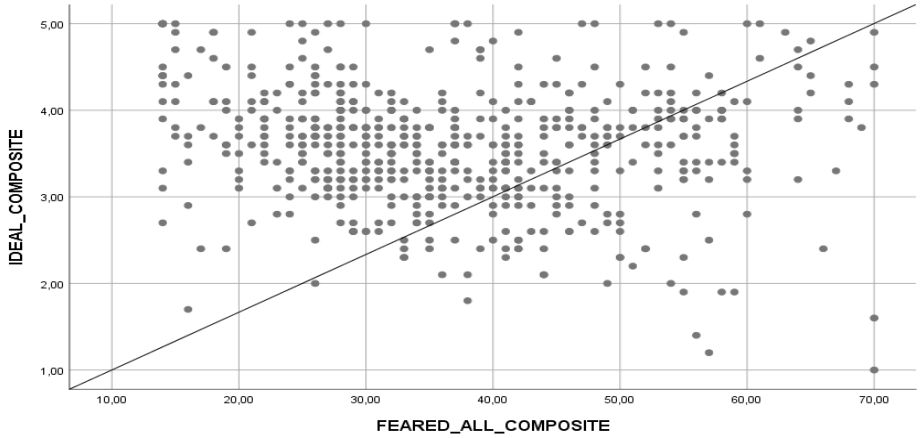
APPENDIX C

Scatterplots for Linear Relationships of FLPA, ILPS, FLPS, and OLPS





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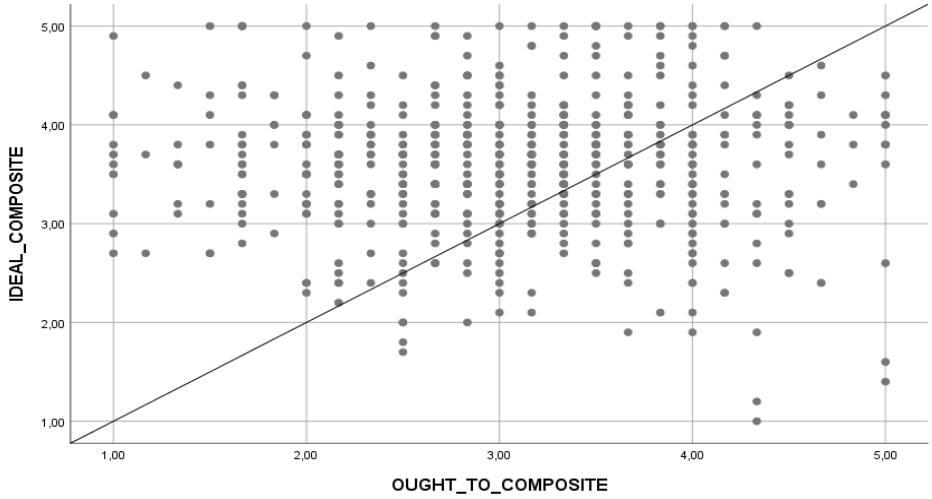
5,00
4,00
3,00
2,00
1,00
10,00
20,00
30,00
40,00
50,00
60,00
70,00
FEARED_ALL_COMPOSITE


IDEAL_COMPOSITE
5,00
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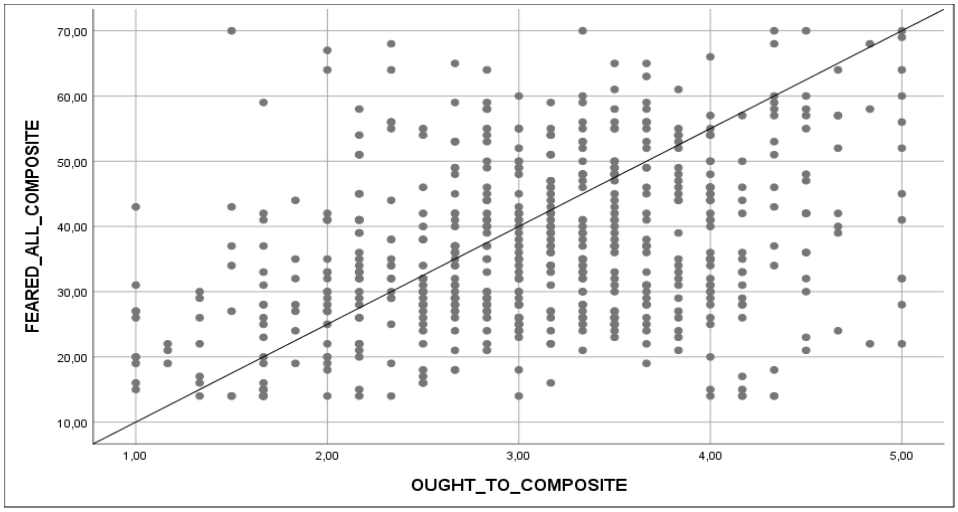
1,00
2,00
3,00
4,00
5,00
OUGHT_TO_COMPOSITE


FEARED_ALL_COMPOSITE
70,00
60,00
50,00
40,00
30,00
20,00
10,00
1,00
2,00
3,00
4,00
5,00
OUGHT_TO_COMPOSITE

APPENDIX D

One-way ANOVA and Independent Samples T-Test Tables

Table 1

FLPA Results Regarding Groups

		Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	16 - 20	49.72	11.76
(*F*(3, 592) = .81,	21 - 25	50.00	11.40
p = .489)	26 - 30	44.42	12.26
	31 +	43.00	19.08
Gender	Male	46.37	11.00
(*F*(2, 593) = 13.8,	Female	51.51	12.00
p = .000)	Other	46.25	17.00
English Proficiency	L2	52.82	12.35
(*F*(6, 589) = 5.17,	L2R	52.01	11.74
p = .000)	L3	50.24	11.16
	L3R	51.13	13.22
	L4	44.40	10.80
	L4R	48.21	11.67
	Language/Literature	48.38	13.27
Time Spent	0 – 11 months	52.70	11.83
Learning English	1 – 5 years	50.80	11.40
(*F*(3, 592) = 5.17, *p* = .000)	6 – 10 years	46.81	10.68
	11 years and more	46.54	12.14
Experience Abroad	Yes	45.84	11.30
(*t*(594) = -3.6, *p* = .000)	No	50.42	11.70
Country	Turkish	49.70	11.70
(*t*(594) = .51, *p* = .612)	International	48.20	13.90

Table 2

ILPS Results Regarding Groups

		Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	16 - 20	3.58	0.69
(F(3, 592) = .26,	21 - 25	3.62	0.70
p = .770)	26 - 30	3.78	0.49
	31 +	3.77	1.16
Gender	Male	3.44	0.70
(F(2, 593) = 13.8,	Female	3.65	0.67
p = .001)	Other	3.81	0.62
English Proficiency	L2	3.71	0.61
(F(6, 589) = 2.21,	L2R	3.64	0.75
p = .041)	L3	3.52	0.66
	L3R	3.49	0.79
	L4	3.60	0.69
	L4R	3.48	0.68
	Language/Literature	4.01	0.79
Time Spent	0 – 11 months	3.58	0.72
Learning English	1 – 5 years	3.52	0.66
(F(3, 592) = 1.27,	6 – 10 years	3.57	0.63
p = .285)	11 years and more	3.70	0.73
Experience Abroad	Yes	3.70	0.73
(t(594) = 1.7, p = .087)	No	3.60	0.67
Country	Turkish	3.60	0.68
(t(594) = -1.1, p = .273)	International	3.80	0.72

Table 3

FLPS Results Regarding Groups

		Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	16 - 20	36.88	12.70
(F(3, 592) = .36,	21 - 25	35.74	14.05
p = .808)	26 - 30	35.29	15.16
	31 +	41.33	6.66
Gender	Male	Levene's test revealed that equality of variances was violated; therefore, no further analysis was done.	
(F(2, 593) = 15.9,	Female		
p = .000)	Other		
English Proficiency	L2	38.63	12.92
(F(6, 589) = 1.96,	L2R	37.42	13.88
p = .070)	L3	36.70	12.31
	L3R	43.81	15.97
	L4	33.86	13.12
	L4R	36.13	11.93
	Language/Literature	37.44	11.73
Time Spent	0 – 11 months	38.15	13.90
Learning English	1 – 5 years	37.35	11.93
(F(3, 592) = 2.19,	6 – 10 years	34.92	12.17
p = .088)	11 years and more	36.29	12.63
Experience Abroad	Yes	35.00	12.70
(t(594) = -1.5, p = .146)	No	37.00	12.80
Country	Turkish	36.80	12.90
(t(594) = 1, p = .314)	International	33.60	11.60

Table 4

OLPS Results Regarding Groups

		Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	16 - 20	3.09	0.87
(F(3, 592) = .23,	21 - 25	3.00	0.92
p = .874)	26 - 30	3.05	0.61
	31 +	3.11	0.10
Gender	Male	3.03	0.86
(F(2, 593) = .76,	Female	3.11	0.88
p = .469)	Other	2.85	0.80
English Proficiency	L2	3.25	0.88
(F(6, 589) = 2.13,	L2R	3.21	0.95
p = .049)	L3	3.04	0.86
	L3R	3.34	0.79
	L4	2.86	0.87
	L4R	3.13	0.86
	Language/Literature	3.01	0.60
Time Spent	0 – 11 months	3.20	0.86
Learning English	1 – 5 years	3.01	0.87
(F(3, 592) = 2.32,	6 – 10 years	2.98	0.87
p = .074)	11 years and more	3.11	0.89
Experience Abroad	Yes	3.1	0.88
(t(594) = .55, p = .586)	No	3.00	0.87
Country	Turkish	3.1	0.90
(t(594) = -.75, p = .455)	International	3.2	1.00