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INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE REFLECTIVE
PRACTICES AND THE POSSIBLE LANGUAGE TEACHER SELVES OF EFL
INSTRUCTORS AT A TURKISH STATE UNIVERSITY

A MASTER'S THESIS

BY

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TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

İHSAN DOĞRAMACI BILKENT UNIVERSITY

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2020



To the memory of father and my grandmother...

Investigating the Relationship Between the Reflective Practices and the Possible
Language Teacher Selves of EFL Instructors at a Turkish State University

The Graduate School of Education

of

İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University

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Özge Özsoy

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Özge Özsoy

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.

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ABSTRACT

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PRACTICES AND THE POSSIBLE LANGUAGE TEACHER SELVES OF EFL
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Özge Özsoy

M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Hilal Peker

June 2020

The aim of this study was to investigate whether there was a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' reflective practices and their possible language teacher selves. This correlational quantitative study was conducted with 94 EFL instructors working at a school of foreign languages at a state university in Turkey. The data were collected via an online survey, which was designed to investigate EFL instructors' engagement in reflective practice, and their perceived levels of possible language teacher selves. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data. The results of the analyses revealed that EFL instructors sometimes engaged in reflective practice, and they had a high level of ideal language teacher self. The results also revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' overall reflective practice and their possible language teacher selves. Practical, cognitive, learner-related, and meta-cognitive types of reflective practice were found to have a statistically significant relationship with at least one type of possible language teacher selves.

Keywords: Reflective practice, possible selves, possible language teacher selves

ÖZET

Türkiye’deki Bir Devlet Üniversitesindeki İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğreten Öğretim Görevlilerinin Yansıtıcı Uygulamaları ve Olası Dil Öğretmeni Benlikleri Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi

Özge Özsoy

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Bu çalışma İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğreten öğretim görevlilerinin yansıtıcı uygulamaları ve olası yabancı dil öğretmeni benlikleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunup bulunmadığını araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Bu korelasyonel, nicel çalışma Türkiye’deki bir yabancı diller yüksekokulunda çalışan 94 öğretim görevlisinin katılımıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Veriler, öğretim görevlilerinin yansıtıcı uygulamaları ve algılanan olası yabancı dil öğretmeni benliklerini araştırmak için hazırlanan bir anketle toplanmış, betimsel ve çıkarımsal istatistikle analiz edilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, öğretim görevlilerinin bazen yansıtıcı uygulamada bulunduklarını ve ideal olası yabancı dil öğretmeni benliklerinin yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. Sonuçlara göre genel yansıtıcı uygulamalar ile olası yabancı dil öğretmeni benlikleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca, uygulamaya dayalı, bilişsel, öğrencilerle ilgili ve biliş ötesi yansıtıcı uygulamaların, olası yabancı dil öğretmeni benliklerinden en az bir türü ile istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişkisi bulunduğu sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Yansıtıcı öğretmenlik uygulaması, olası benlikler, olası yabancı dil öğretmeni benlikleri

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Teaching is a highly complex, dynamic, intense, and demanding profession, and teachers confront with numerous challenges stemming from different sources throughout their careers (Alexander, 2008). Therefore, it is essential for teachers to constantly engage in continuous learning to develop and maintain their professionalism so that they can be equipped with competencies and strategies to skillfully cope with the many challenges they face. Thus, professional development as a continuous learning strategy, is regarded to be of utmost importance for teachers to keep up with the recent developments in their field, set clear goals for their future practice, and remain committed to their profession (Day, 1999).

Teachers might choose to achieve professional development through utilizing different means. One commonly utilized means of seeking professional development for teachers is engaging in reflective practice (Finefter-Rosenbluh, 2016; Gheith & Aljaberi, 2018). Reflective practice can be defined as a critical evaluative process, which enables teachers to reflect on various dimensions of their profession, such as their assumptions, beliefs, knowledge, experiences, and practices (Gheith & Aljaberi, 2018). Being acknowledged as a highly effective tool for professional development (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2011), reflective practice in teaching has received great attention from researchers (Farrell, 2004, 2013, 2018; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Schön, 1983; Sellars, 2017) as an important element influencing teachers' practices.

Another important element which influences teachers' practices and their professional development is motivation. Teacher motivation is a relatively new research area in educational psychology, which has only recently started to receive

increased attention (Hiver, 2013). Language teacher motivation, in particular, has begun to receive attention even more recently, particularly after the introduction of the construct of possible language teacher selves as a source of motivation for language teachers (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009). As teacher motivation has been shown to have a close relationship with learning, student motivation, effectiveness of teaching, and student achievement (Han & Yin, 2016), it is imperative that more studies be conducted to shed some light on factors which influence teacher motivation, and the relation of teacher motivation to other variables in education. Taking this as an impetus, the current study is designed to investigate whether there is a statistically significant relationship between language teachers' reflective practices and their possible language teacher selves as a potential source of motivation.

Background of the Study

For teachers, professional development activities are geared towards the achievement of one common goal, which is to achieve an improvement in one's teaching practice (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993). Teachers might engage in a multitude of professional development activities for different reasons, such as following the latest trends in their field, planning their teaching practices, and maintaining high levels of commitment to their profession. Some of the professional development activities teachers engage in are listed by Harmer (2001) as keeping a journal, peer teaching and/or observation, becoming a member of professional teachers' associations, and exchanging ideas with colleagues, which are all considered to have a substantial impact on teacher professional development. All these professional development activities are fundamentally aimed to build premises on which teachers can reflect on their teaching practices.

Reflection is famously defined by Dewey (1933) as the “active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and further conclusions to which it tends” (p. 9). Dewey (1933) maintains that reflective thought should be regularly exercised by teachers because it transforms routine action into “intentional” and “intelligent” action and it helps them to think about and attain their future goals (p. 17). He further asserts that reflective thinking enables individuals to predict and potentially avoid unwanted consequences and that people gain “intellectual mastery” (p. 20) as a result of lived experiences, which empowers them to create richer meanings. With these seminal thoughts, Dewey is considered to be the one who laid the foundation for the conceptualization of reflection as it is perceived today in educational research (Hatton & Smith, 1995), and his conceptualization was further developed by Donald Schön.

The types of reflection are divided into two different categories by Schön (1983) as *reflection-in-action* and *reflection-on-action*. *Reflection-in action* is defined as the kind of reflective thinking teachers exercise in the process of teaching, whereas *reflection-on-action* is defined as the reflection teachers engage in after a specific teaching experience has taken place (Rahimi & Weisi, 2018). This bipartite categorization proposed by Schön (1983) was found to be incomplete, and another category was added to the two types of reflection by van Manen (1991). Van Manen added *reflection-for-action* to the two pre-existing categories to include the kind of reflection teachers engage in to focus on prospective courses of action they plan to take.

The practice of reflection for professional development purposes, also known as reflective practice, is regarded as a separation from the traditional top-down

approaches to professional development, and is regarded to be a more bottom-up and a practitioner-initiated approach (Farrell, 2013). Especially after Schön's (1983) conceptualization of teachers as reflective practitioners, and the post-method era, which gave teachers the role and the responsibility of a reflective practitioner (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2003), reflective practice became a vital part of the teaching profession (Islam & Shuchi, 2017). Reflective practice is also recognized as a core practice that lies at the heart of professional development (McGregor & Cartwright, 2011); hence, it remains a key component of teacher training programs (Kalk, Luik, Taimalu, & Taht, 2014; Pitsoe & Malia, 2013).

Reflective practice has been observed to offer numerous benefits to teacher practitioners, such as increasing the capacity of teachers to make better use of personal judgements in the classroom (Pollard, Anderson, Maddock, Swaffield, Warin, & Warwick, 2008) by refining and developing knowledge about the profession (Loyghran, 2002), giving teachers the tools to self-assess their beliefs, assumptions, knowledge (Cirocki & Widodo, 2019), and developing a deeper awareness of both instructional processes and student progress (Farrell, 2011). Reflective practice is also considered to be an effective professional development method as it provides teachers with the opportunity to critically analyze and evaluate their teaching practices on the basis of their teacher selves (Yanping & Jie, 2009).

Reflective practice, and its place in teaching have attracted great attention from educational researchers (Farrell, 2008; Kalk et al., 2014; Mathew, Mathew, & Peechattu, 2017; Zwozdiak-Myers, 2011). Reflective practice has been investigated in research studies from different focus points such as teachers' engagement in different types of reflection (Özsoy, 2017), the use of technology in reflective practice (Burhan-Horasanlı & Ortaçtepe 2016), and the tools used for reflective

practice (Coggin, Daley, Syndor, & Davis, 2019; Farrell, 2008). Reflective practice has also been examined in relation to some other variables in education. For example, Abdolrezapour and Fallah (2015) investigated the relationship between reflective teaching, and student autonomy and intrinsic motivation. They found that reflective teaching had a significant effect on improved student autonomy and increased intrinsic motivation. In another study, Moradkhani, Raygan, and Moein (2017) examined the relationship between EFL teachers' reflective practices and their self-efficacy. The results revealed that there was a significant relationship between teachers' overall reflective practice scores and their perceived levels of self-efficacy. In a more recent study, the relationship between English teachers' reflective practices and their self-regulation was investigated (Pazhoman & Sarkhosh, 2019). The results showed a positive relationship between teachers' reflective practices and their self-regulation. Although the relationship between reflective practice and variables such as student autonomy, teacher self-efficacy, and teacher self-regulation have been investigated, the literature has failed to examine the relationship between teachers' engagement in different aspects of reflective practice and teacher motivation.

Motivation is studied within the realm of educational psychology and it is a relatively new strand of investigation in education. Although motivation has attracted some attention in educational psychology, the vast majority of research has focused primarily on student motivation (Ordem, 2017). Teacher motivation within the realm of teacher cognition research, on the other hand, has not received equal attention from researchers (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Kubanyiova, 2009; Kubanyiova, 2012) although it is reported to be among the most influential factors that play a key role in increasing learner motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). As teacher motivation

bears such potential to improve educational practices, different frameworks are now used as lenses to explore teacher motivation more thoroughly, and one of these lenses is the theory of possible selves.

The theory of possible selves was first proposed by Markus and Nurius (1986) as an addition to self-knowledge. Markus and Nurius (1986) refer to possible selves as dynamic representations of one's future self, and they specify three dimensions of future selves as *ideal*, *feared*, and *ought-to* selves. *Ideal self* is the representation of a positive state that an individual would like to attain in the future such as becoming a very successful teacher, whereas *feared self* represents images of what an individual is afraid of becoming, such as becoming a teacher whose lessons are not enjoyed by learners. The third dimension of possible selves is the *ought-to self*, which encompasses future images which are formed by the expectations of others, such as friends, family, or administrators (Hiver, 2013). Possible selves function as motivational mechanisms by serving as tools for evaluating one's current self. Possible selves also help regulate current behavior so that one could attain a positive future self or avoid a negative one (Higgins, 1987). Because of the motivational potential possible selves carry for individuals, the theory of possible selves has been used in a plethora of studies to investigate motivation in relation to issues such as the degree of teenager delinquency (Oyserman & Markus, 1990), young people's access to higher education (Harrison, 2018), and professional preparations, identity and career developments in different professions such as managers, clergy, clinical psychologists (Nazar & Van der Heijden, 2013; Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008).

The theory of possible selves has also been used as a theoretical framework in teacher cognition research by a number of scholars to explain teacher motivation.

Ronfeldt and Grossman (2008) explored the impact of possible selves on the construction of novice teacher professional identity. The findings indicated that teacher candidates form a repertoire of different possible selves on the road of professional preparation, and a wider repertoire could potentially enhance the development of professional identity. Another study, which was conducted by Kubanyiova (2007), utilized possible selves to investigate in-service language teachers' choices to pursue a professional development course in Slovakia. The findings of this study revealed that three dimensions of the possible selves were present as motivational forces in language teachers' commitment to continue the professional development course and to accept reform-induced conceptual change. Based on the findings in this study, Kubanyiova (2007) conceptualized the framework of *possible language teacher selves*, encompassing three aspects of the language teacher self which are *the ideal language teacher self*, *the feared language teacher self*, and *the ought-to language teacher self*. Kubanyiova's (2007) study is now recognized as a seminal work to explain language teacher conceptual change and motivation to pursue professional development (Hiver, 2013; Tao, Zhao, & Chen, 2019). In another study, Hiver (2013) explored the impact of possible language teacher selves in the professional development choices of seven in-service Korean English teachers. The results of the study revealed three major sources of motivation for the participants engage in to pursue professional development activities, which are to repair inadequacies, to enhance language teacher selves, and to fulfill obligations. The findings of the study corroborated Kubanyiova's (2007) model of ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves as sources of language teacher motivation.

Statement of the Problem

As an inextricable aspect of teacher professional development, reflective practice is regarded to be an indispensable component of teacher training and practice (Pitsoe & Malla, 2013). Thus, the literature has witnessed a proliferation of research studies dedicated to examining the extent of teacher reflective practice (Akbari, Behzadpoor, & Dadvand, 2010; Kömür & Gün, 2016; Xu, Li, & Curtis, 2015), different dimensions of reflective practice (Burhan-Horasanlı & Ortaçtepe, 2016; Özsoy, 2017), and different tools used for reflective practice (Azizah, & Tosriadi, 2018; Farrell, 2011). Reflective practice has also been investigated in relation to other variables such as teacher burnout (Farzaneh & Mohammad, 2014), self-efficacy (Moradkhani, et al., 2017), and self-regulation and teaching experience (Pazhoman & Sarkhosh, 2019). However, the literature has failed to produce research studies which attempt to explain the relationship of reflective practice to another important variable in education, which is motivation.

Motivation in is a popular topic in second language acquisition research; however, most of the studies conducted in this area have predominantly taken students as their focus points, failing to extensively investigate the motivation of language teachers, who are an important stakeholder in the language learning process (Dörnyei, 2005). Only a limited number of research studies have attempted to shed light on teacher motivation and its sources (Dabback, 2018; Ng, 2019), and among the limited number of research studies which investigated teacher motivation, only few of them have been conducted to specifically investigate language teacher motivation in relation to possible language teacher selves (Hiver, 2013; Kubanyiova, 2007; Rahmati, Sadeghi, & Ghaderi, 2018). The few studies which investigate language teacher motivation and possible language teacher selves are dominated by

qualitative means of data collection (Hiver, 2013; Kubanyiova, 2007); hence, the results derived from such studies are difficult to generalize. In addition, these studies mainly focus on exploring the effect of possible language teacher selves as a motivational factor on language teachers' engagement in one specific type of professional development activity (Hiver, 2013; Kubanyiova, 2007). On the other hand, the effect of possible language teacher selves on a general tendency for language teachers to improve their teaching practice has remained under-researched. Therefore, there is a need in the literature to investigate the relationship between possible language teacher selves and reflective practice as a form of professional development, on a larger scale, in order to gain more generalizable data, and to get a fuller glimpse of language teachers' possible selves and their pursuit of reflective practice as a means of professional development.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether there is a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' reflective practices and their possible language teacher selves. To this end, the study seeks to provide answers for the following questions:

1. To what extent do EFL instructors engage in reflective practice?
2. What are EFL instructors' perceived levels of their possible language teacher selves?
3. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current overall reflective practice and their possible language teacher selves?

Sub-questions:

- a) Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current practical reflective teacher practice, and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- b) Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current cognitive reflective teacher practice, and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- c) Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current learner-related reflective teacher practice, and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- d) Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current meta-cognitive reflective teacher practice, and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- e) Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current critical reflective teacher practice, and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?

Significance

This study can contribute to the existing literature by investigating the relationship between EFL instructors' reflective teacher practices and their possible language teacher selves, which is a relatively unexplored area in teacher cognition and motivation research (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019; Kubanyiova, 2007). The findings of the study can produce valuable data for both teachers and administrators to better understand different types of reflective practices EFL instructors choose to engage in for professional development purposes, and in-service professional development activities might be designed taking teacher preferences into consideration. The study

might also be valuable for understanding EFL instructors' motivation sources to become better practitioners by examining different possible language teacher selves and by investigating the extent to which these possible language teacher selves exist in language teachers' future self-representations. In addition, examining the relationship between reflective practice types and possible language teacher selves might shed light on the potential impact of instructors' possible language teacher selves in engaging in different types of reflective practices, and/or the impact of reflective practice in language teachers' possible selves, which could provide valuable insights into the interplay between teachers' reflective practice choices and their sources of motivation.

On the local level, this study might contribute to all stakeholders in delineating the types of reflective practice that instructors opt to engage in, and these types of reflective practice activities could be incorporated into institutional professional development policies. The data produced from the study could also help stakeholders identify different sources of motivation for English language instructors, and design professional development activities which would encourage instructors think about, individualize, and particularize their future self-visions, which could potentially enhance and elaborate their different possible language teacher selves. This, in turn, could serve as a more effective source of motivation for self-improvement (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019) as enhanced and elaborated possible selves might act as agents for higher levels of motivation (Kubanyiova, 2012).

Definition of Key Terms

Reflective practice: A professional development and continuous learning process in which practitioners employ different types of methods to examine, evaluate, and review their values, beliefs, perceptions, and practices about teaching to achieve

higher levels of self-awareness about their profession (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Pitsoe & Maila, 2013).

Possible selves: Possible selves are elements of the self-concept representing individuals' aspirations, fears, or goals in the future dimension. They serve as incentives for prospective behavior and facilitate individuals' evaluation of their actual or current selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Oyserman & Markus, 1990).

Ideal self: The mental future visions of the self which represent goals an individual would like to achieve to become the ideal version of themselves (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Feared self: The mental future visions of the self which represent what an individual is afraid of becoming (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Ought-to self: The mental future visions of the self which represent what an individual feels that they have to become because of external obligations (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Possible language teacher selves: The cognitive future visions of individually and socially constructed self-representations of language teachers which might function as a source of motivation for professional development and change (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009).

Ideal language teacher self: The cognitive future visions of language teachers which represent their goals and aspirations they would like to attain (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009).

Feared language teacher self: The cognitive future visions of language teachers which represent what they are afraid of becoming as a teacher (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009).

Ought-to language teacher self: The cognitive future visions of language teachers which represent rules and obligations regarding their profession (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009).

EFL instructor: Instructors who teach English as a foreign language to tertiary level students in English preparatory programs in Turkey.

Conclusion

In this chapter, brief definitions of reflection, reflective practice, and motivation were presented as an introduction to the current research study. Following the introduction, more detailed information was provided for key concepts such as reflection, reflective practice, teacher motivation, possible selves, and possible language teacher selves, which constitute the theoretical background of the current study. By referring to relevant studies conducted on reflective practice and possible language teacher selves, the gap in the literature was identified. Next, the research questions were presented, which were followed by the statement of the significance of the study, and its potential contribution to the literature. Finally, some key terms which are relevant to the study were briefly defined. In the next chapter, the relevant literature on key concepts is reviewed and presented in detail. In the third chapter, the methodology of the study is explained. The fourth chapter includes the analysis of the findings from the quantitative data collected for the study. Finally, in the fifth chapter, the discussion of the results of the study are presented, which are followed by pedagogical implications and limitations of the study along with suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter presents the review of the literature relevant to the present study that is designed to investigate whether there is a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' reflective practices, and their possible language teacher selves. In this respect, this review of literature is divided into two main parts, each one aimed to explain the two theoretical frameworks that constitute the background of this study. The first part begins with the definitions of professional development, reflection, and reflective practice, and the importance attributed to them in the teaching profession. By delineating different types of reflective practice and reviewing different perspectives about reflective practice, an outline of what reflective practice encapsulates is provided. Following the elaboration of the reflective practice model that is utilized as the main framework of reflective practice in the current research study, the first part ends with the review of relevant studies which were conducted to investigate reflective practice and its relation to other variables in the domain of language teaching. The second part of the review focuses on the possible selves theory, and seeks to elucidate its relation to motivation in the field of education, and specifically in the field of foreign language education through a detailed explanation of the possible language teacher selves theory within the scope of language teaching. The second part of the literature review concludes with a selection of empirical studies carried out with the purpose of investigating teacher possible selves in general, and possible language teacher selves, in particular.

Professional Development

Richards and Schmidt (2003) define professional development as the kind of professional improvement a practitioner achieves by becoming more experienced and acquiring more expertise through systematic analysis and evaluation of their teaching. Recently, in the field of English language education, as in all other areas of teaching, there is a recognition that EFL instructors must continually engage in professional development practices (Farrell, 2008; Matilde & Martinez, 2018; Yurtsever, 2013) because professional development is considered to provide valuable opportunities for teachers to refine their skills and improve their professional practices (Loizou, 2008). As one of the main actors in education, teachers are almost mandated to constantly and actively engage in professional development processes, which would allow them to reshape their knowledge over highly complicated matters related to teaching and learning (Farrell, 2008) because teachers as professionals are expected to be experts on content, theory, and pedagogy (Gonzalez-Bravo, 2015).

Apart from such external expectations, there might be a number of other reasons why a teacher would opt for participating in professional development practices. According to Farrell (2013), these reasons might differ based on what stage in their career teachers pursue professional development. For instance, novice teachers might seek professional development upon realizing that they have not fully acquired all the necessary information or knowledge they might need in their actual teaching practice. Mid-career teachers, on the other hand, might have different motives for professional development such as reflecting on their experiences and practices, or gaining more knowledge on issues such as subject-matter, pedagogy, or self-awareness. Still, regardless of what stage a teacher is at their teaching career, there seems to be a common agreement that all teachers should pursue professional

development by engaging in different activities or practices (Korucu-Kis & Demir, 2019; Özsoy, 2017; Roberts, Crawford, Hickmann, 2010; Yurtsever, 2013).

There are numerous ways for instructors to engage in professional development activities or practices such as attending workshops, conducting action research, being observed by or observing a peer, becoming a member of some teachers' associations, entering in-service programs, getting a place on post-graduate programs, or forming small teacher groups (Farrell, 2008; Harmer, 2001). However, not every professional development activity is fruitful and effective. Traditional professional development activities, for example, are usually considered to lack effectiveness because they are mostly short-termed, and they lack "conceptual grounding" (Roberts et al., 2010, p. 260). In addition, traditional professional development is criticized for being dominated by top-down approaches because it is largely characterized by teachers attending mandatory professional development activities as dictated by outer forces such as the school administration. Farrell (2013) questions the effectiveness of such approaches to professional development by claiming that teachers might feel what is presented to them through top-down approaches are not directly connected to their own real teaching practice. Farrell (2013) also observes that most of the time teachers are not consulted on what kind of areas they would like to improve professionally or what kind of professional development programs they would like participate in. Therefore, top-down approaches to professional development fail to cater for the specific individual needs or wishes of teacher practitioners. On the other hand, unlike top-down approaches, bottom-up approaches to professional development advocate teachers' "selves" as the most significant source for professional development (Yanping & Jie, 2009).

Professional development is pursued by teachers to improve their teaching practices. As there are different approaches to professional development, there are different methods a teacher might adopt towards achieving improved practice (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993). One effective method utilized by teacher practitioners towards attaining the goal of developing professionally is engaging in reflective practice (Korucu-Kis & Demir, 2019). Reflective practice helps teachers shape and reshape their professional knowledge through continuous self-inquiry and critical evaluation (Farrell, 2018). In addition, teachers' engagement in systematic and active reflection might lead to improved teaching practice (Farrell, 2008).

Professional development and reflective practice are considered to be inextricably linked because reflective practice is regarded as an awareness-raising mechanism for better and deeper professional growth as well as the key to achieve a change in practice or behavior (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993). The change that reflective practice brings about is usually accompanied by an affective dimension since reflective practice promotes self-inquiry into one's actions, behaviors, habits, decisions, and plans, which reflects that reflective practice is both an emotional and cognitive process. Therefore, for teachers to achieve improvement in their profession through more meaningful reflective practice which could promote change, it is necessary to establish a balance between cognitive and affective dimensions of their profession through active, systematic, and insightful reflection (Cartwright, 2011).

Reflection, and Reflective Thinking

Pitsoe and Maila (2013) note that the concept of reflection, also referred to as reflective thinking, is indeed a very old concept that can be traced back to the time of Greek philosophers, to the Socratic method of questioning in particular, which aimed to stimulate critical thinking. Since then, reflection has taken an active part in various

aspects of life as it enables individuals to critically analyze their actions, beliefs, assumptions, or practices of any kind, and thus it has become a ubiquitous term. There have been many attempts to define what reflection is, and yet no seeming consensus has been achieved over the definition of the concept (Akbari et al., 2010; Farrell, 2008; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Kalk et al., 2014; Yeşilbursa, 2013). However, briefly, reflection can be defined as a meta-cognitive process for monitoring, analyzing, and questioning one's actions, beliefs, habits, or practices in a critical and analytical way (Mede, 2010).

Adding to the multitude of definitions, a number of different approaches have also been proposed as guidelines for professionals, especially for teachers, to effectively reflect on their practice (Farrell, 2019), as well as diverse theoretical perspectives (Hickson, 2011). A notable attempt to this end, for instance, was made by John Dewey in the year 1933 in his seminal work, *How We Think: A restatement of the Relation of Reflective Thinking to the Education Process*. Apart from being a noteworthy attempt to define reflection in detail, this book is also recognized as the source from which the modern concept of reflection or reflective thinking, as it is understood today in the field of education, originated, and it gave the author John Dewey the title of the father of reflection (Glasswell & Ryan, 2017; Hickson, 2011; Impedova & Malik, 2016; Kalk et al., & Taht, 2014; Kis & Kartal, 2019).

Dewey (1993) defines reflective thinking as “active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the further consequences to which it leads” (p. 9), attributing reflective thinking the quality of a deliberate, logical cognitive process (Sellars, 2017). Dewey (1933) argues that reflective thinking enables individuals to gain certain values from engaging in reflective thought. First, reflective thinking liberates

people from routine actions by enabling them to intentionally plan activities in line with specific aims they have in mind and that reflective thinking transforms routine and repetitive action into more purposeful, insightful, and intelligent action. (Dewey, 1993). Rather than sticking to rules, regulations, or repetitive habitual behavior, the individual can devise more rational ways of acting through reflective thinking (Sellars, 2017). Reflective thinking also helps people to create a series of mental signs that remind them of potential consequences of their actions so that they can avoid such consequences in the future (Dewey, 1933). Additionally, reflective thinking helps individuals to gain intellectual mastery over events and objects, and by doing so, it gives a higher status and adds a greater value to experiences.

As one of the most influential thinkers to theorize about reflection, Dewey (1933) also contributes to the conceptualization of reflective thinking by elaborating on the attributes of reflective thinkers, the stages in the reflective thinker's reflection process, and certain criteria as to what reflective thinking is and what it entails. For Dewey (1933), a reflective thinker must possess three chief attributes, which he lists as open-mindedness, whole-heartedness, and responsibility. Open-mindedness allows the reflective thinker to be open to different alternatives whereas whole-heartedness implies that the reflective thinker can fight fears to critically evaluate their work, which might lead to change. Responsibility, on the other hand, involves the act of being aware of potential consequences of one's own actions (Farrell, 2008; McGregor, 2011). A reflective thinker also usually goes through five stages of reflective thought which are suggestion, intellectualization, hypothesis, reasoning, and testing. When these stages are combined, one can find a way to resolve a doubt or solve a problem, which, in turn, helps the individual improve the effectiveness of their practice (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2012).

Dewey (1933) also specifies four distinct criteria that represent his concept of reflection, which are listed by Rogers (2002) as reflection being a meaning-making process, reflection being a systematic way of thinking, the need for reflection to occur in interaction with others, and reflection requiring the value given to the intellectual growth of oneself and others. Through all this detailed description of what reflection and reflective thinking mean, Dewey (1933) provides a general framework upon which the concept of reflection and reflective practice in the field of education was constructed (Impedova & Malik, 2016; McGregor, 2011; Yavuz, 2005), and this framework was further explored and expanded by Donald Schön (Thorsen & DeVore, 2013).

Donald Schön is another prominent figure who adds remarkably to the conceptualization of reflection (Hickson, 2011; Kiemle, 2008; Leigh, 2016). In his book *The Reflective Practitioner* (1983), Schön develops a twofold framework of reflection consisting of reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. He postulates that the notion of reflection-in-action arises from what he calls knowing-in-action, which he defines as a type of awareness which is deeply rooted in intelligent action, and which is mostly tacit. Reflection-in-action refers to a practitioner's practice of thinking at the moment by examining their beliefs, experiences, and the connection of these to theories in use (Torres-Goens & Farley, 2017). In addition, reflection-in-action occurs when the practitioner experiences an ambiguous situation that needs to be solved. Reflection-on-action, on the other hand, is defined by Schön (1987) as "thinking back on what we have done in order to discover how our knowing-in-action may have contributed to an unexpected outcome" (p. 26), which implies that reflection-on-action is of retrospective nature as it happens after a specific action has taken place (McGregor, 2011). Although Schön's typology of reflection includes

both the past and present dimensions of time, it lacks reflection which is practiced with reference to the future dimension of time.

Adding to the two types of reflection (i.e., reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action) proposed by Schön (1987), Van Manen (1991) proposes a third type of reflection, which he refers to as “anticipatory reflection” (p. 101). Anticipatory reflection, also referred to as reflection-for-action, (Farrell, 2004; Farrell, 2013; Ghaye, 2011; Killion & Todnem, 1991) is a type reflection which involves planning for future actions through anticipating what might potentially come up, and making deliberate decisions so that one would be better prepared when approaching certain situations (Van Manen, 1991). Anticipatory reflection might include a wide range of different levels of reflection varying from a general mental rehearsal to a meticulous preparation for a prospective situation. With Van Manen’s (1977) addition of anticipatory reflection, reflection becomes a concept which extends into all three dimensions of time including the past, the present, and the future (Killion & Todnem, 1991).

In addition to the classification of reflection in relation to time, reflection is also classified based on some other features. For example, Van Manen (1977) proposed a classification of reflection by referring to three different levels, which are technical, practical, and critical reflection. In this typology, technical reflection mainly revolves around reflecting on the effectiveness of predetermined objectives, which implies that the center of reflection is not the objectives themselves, but rather the process and the extent to which those objectives have been attained. Farrell (2004), in a similar vein, refers to this level of reflection as technical rationality, which could be utilized as a route for reflective teaching especially by new teachers for an effective transfer of technical knowledge into their teaching practices

(Pazhoman & Sarkhosh, 2019). The second level of reflection is practical reflection, which includes the analysis and evaluation of objectives as well as the route to achieve them. The last level of reflection is critical reflection, which brings the moral and ethical aspects of reflection into the equation, and it is the ultimate level of reflection which is desired to be employed by reflective practitioners (Sellars, 2017). Each one of these levels of reflection supersedes the other, and together they create a continuum (Yanping & Jie, 2009).

Transformational theory is another attempt to define and classify reflection, with reference to different levels (Mezirow, 1991). In this theory, reflection comprises of three levels, which are content, process, and premise reflection. Kreber and Canton (2000) note that the content level is an attempt to describe a specific problem, the process level is an attempt to solve the problem, and the premise level is an attempt to question the reason why a specific problem was defined as a problem in the first place. By utilizing these three levels of reflection, a practitioner could identify and examine a problem, inquire possible solutions, reconceptualize new theories of practice, and finally experiment with new methods or strategies (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993).

Reflection and reflective thinking are conceptualized and theorized by different scholars from different perspectives (e.g. Dewey, 1933; Farrell, 2004; Mezirow; 1991; Schön, 1983; Van Manen, 1977), and these perspectives have been influential on areas of professional expertise such as law, health care, and education. Regarding reflection and education, Dewey (1933) maintains that reflective thinking should be an educational aim because of the potential gains it offers to teachers, such as liberating them from routine teaching practices. In a similar vein, Schön (1983) contends that teachers, as professionals, need to become reflective practitioners

because reflection is a trademark of professionalism (Yanping & Jie, 2009). From a teacher-empowerment perspective, Kumaravadivelu (2001) highlights the role of teachers as reflective practitioners, who are responsible for building a connection between theory and practice by observing their own practices, assessing the outcomes of their practices, diagnosing problems, finding alternative ways to solve problems, and trying out different solutions to identify what works effectively to solve problems, all of which could be achieved by engaging in systematic reflective practice.

Reflective Practice

There are as many definitions of reflective practice as there are of reflection and reflective thinking. In essence, reflective practice is a process of identifying problems, critically evaluating experiences, questioning beliefs and assumptions to gain new understandings for improved practice (Finlay, 2008). Reflective practice is not merely equal to being thoughtful; rather, it involves diagnosing problems and turning them into potential learning opportunities so that professional growth can be increased (Jarvis, 1992). In teaching, reflective practice refers to a method of inspection or an analysis process via which teachers construct and reconstruct their theories, assumptions, habits, knowledge, or practices in order to develop themselves professionally (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2012). As is clear from these definitions, reflective practice is supposed to involve a critical stance at current practice and be used a means of transforming the current practice into a better and more improved one.

Reflective practice is a multifaceted and multidimensional concept that comprises of numerous components, which have a major influence on professional development. According to Zwozdiak-Myers (2012), teacher reflective practice includes nine distinct dimensions and reflective teachers;

- “study their own teaching for personal improvement
- systematically evaluate their own teaching through classroom research procedures
- link theory with their own practice
- question their personal theories and beliefs
- consider alternative perspectives and possibilities
- try out new strategies and ideas
- maximize the learning potential of all their students
- enhance the quality of their own teaching, and
- continue to improve their own teaching” (p. 28).

The nine dimensions explained by Zwozdiak-Myers (2012) constitute an integral construct of the reflective teaching process. Although the steps are presented in a sequential order, any one stage can trigger the reflective process, and all the components are closely interrelated. For instance, a teacher as a reflective practitioner, might try out a new strategy in class for a period of time, and then reflect on how the new strategy has affected his/her teaching, and this reflection might navigate the teacher to the first step, where the teacher studies his/her own teaching method, or style, for personal improvement.

Reflective practice is considered to be an effective way of empowering teachers. In this sense, Zeichner and Liston (1996) differentiate between the concepts of teachers as technicians, and teachers as reflective practitioners. Zeichner and Liston (1996) posit that being a teacher as a technician translates into basing one's judgement about their own practice on fixed beliefs, practices, or assumptions offered by others; thus, it is rather inadequate in identifying and solving problems. Being a teacher as reflective practitioner, however, enables the teacher to personally

frame a problem and to solve it by questioning and critiquing values, beliefs, or assumptions from their own perspective (Gheith & Aljaberi, 2018). Therefore, teacher reflective practice means identifying problems and being aware of and critical about one's own practice. In this sense, Zeichner and Liston (1996) appraise teacher reflective practice and outline the five distinctive characteristics of a reflective teacher as a practitioner who

- “examines, frames, and attempts to solve dilemmas of classroom practice;
- is aware of and questions the assumptions and values he or she brings to teaching;
- is attentive to the institutional and cultural setting in which he or she teaches;
- takes part in curriculum development and is involved in school change efforts; and
- takes responsibility for his or her own professional development” (p. 6).

Teacher reflective practice is claimed to be more effective if it is an on-going process that extends through a teacher's career (de Lima, 2014). For a teacher, reflective practice should be a departure from routine thinking to professional and active thinking, which should continuously be exercised through external evidence. To achieve such level of reflection, Pollard (2005) identifies seven major features of reflective practice, which are;

1. “implying an active concern with aims and consequences, as well as means and technical efficiency;

2. being applied in a cyclical or spiraling process, in which teachers monitor, evaluate and revise their own practice continuously;
3. requiring competence in methods of evidence-based classroom enquiry, to support the progressive development of higher standards of teaching;
4. requiring attitudes of open-mindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness
5. being based on teacher judgement, informed by evidence-based enquiry and insights from other research;
6. being enhanced through collaboration and dialogue with colleagues;
7. enabling teachers to creatively mediate externally developed frameworks for teaching and learning” (p. 14 – 15).

These key features function as guidelines through which teachers can develop professional expertise and engage in effective reflective practice (McGregor, 2011). Following these guidelines, in turn, might lead to improved practice as reflective practice stimulates changes in teachers’ beliefs, assumptions, or practices.

Different tools, techniques, and methods have been proposed and utilized to stimulate and enhance teachers’ reflective practice (Hickson, 2011), and during their careers, teachers might opt for employing different methods and techniques to reflect on their teaching practices. Each method or technique can be utilized separately or together depending on the issue under investigation, analysis, or evaluation (Farrell, 2008). Among approaches to promote reflective teaching is the utilization of different tools, such as classroom observations, teaching journals, teacher development groups, lesson study, self-assessment checklists, action research, blogging, and photovoicing (Cirocki & Widodo, 2019; Farrell, 2008; Honigsfeld & Dove, 2019). These reflective tools could be used by teachers both individually and collectively. For instance, teachers could use self-assessment rubrics to collect data

regularly about their teaching practices on their own to reflect over their teaching experiences (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2019), or teachers could conduct collective action research with colleagues to gather systematic data about teaching practices, to analyze the gathered data, and to reflect on what the data indicate for better future practice (Burns, 2005). In short, by using different reflective tools individually or collaboratively, teachers can critically evaluate their teaching experiences and achieve enhanced practice.

Reflective Practice: Benefits and Challenges

Literature on reflective practice is abundant in references to the place reflective practice holds in teacher professional development, and the numerous advantages that a professional can reap through actively engaging in reflective practice. As one of the scholars who made a significant contribution to reflective practice, Schön (1983) posits that reflective practice is a major component of continuous professional learning and a key asset in being a true professional. In a similar vein, Leigh (2016) contends that reflective practice can be found in a myriad of academic or professional programs, and engaging in reflective practice is considered to be a big step into improving one's self-development and professional practice. A positive position towards reflective practice, especially in language teacher education, also comes from de Lima (2014), who asserts that reflective practice leads to efficient and effective work in a practitioner's professional work life. It is also claimed that through reflective practice, teachers get the opportunity to have a better understanding of their teaching practice and thus, they can better design or modify their future practices by stepping out of their routine teaching zone to make necessary adjustments to better cater for learner needs and preferences, which results in greater teaching effectiveness (Pitsoe & Maila, 2013). Reflective practice is

also reported to increase teacher empowerment by giving the teacher a chance to exert more active agency and enjoy more autonomy by “expanding their scope of action and opening up perspectives for professional development” (Kramer, 2018, p. 211), as well as laying potential foundation for having a sense of control over matters such as curriculum, solving problems, making decisions, and making personal connections between educational theories and practice (Yavuz, 2005). Additionally, reflective practice is regarded as a powerful tool for asking novel questions, identifying problems, exploring new methods, developing a higher ability of observation, and being critical of long-held beliefs, assumptions, or habits (Bolton & Delderfield, 2018). Authentic reflective practice is defined as being a key factor in improving professional skills and competencies through contemplation (Sellars, 2017) and is also referred to as a means to analyze one’s teaching practice to improve it in order to achieve better learning outcomes (Mathew et al., 2017). In short, reflective practice has largely been associated with improved teaching practice and professional development.

Although empirical studies have showed a strong link between reflective practice and improved teaching or improved practice, there are certain concerns raised by scholars about the effectiveness and the utilization of reflective practice. Leigh (2016) warns that the integration of reflective practice as part of a program does not necessarily lead to the deliberate act of individualized reflection. In a similar vein, Clegg (2000) posits that in some contexts, reflective practice aims to generate normative behavior instead of a critical look at idiosyncratic teaching practices. Taking a critical stance, Farrell (2018) calls the effectiveness of the utilization of reflective practice into question by claiming that especially in teacher-training environments, reflective practice has somehow turned into a standard,

automatic, routinized, and mechanical activity, which is usually carried out by check-lists rather than actual critical reflective thinking. In addition, some practitioners are reported to suffer from challenges such as having little time, self-confidence, or motivation to effectively and regularly engage in reflective practices (Emira & Wilde, 2011). Mesa (2018) emphasizes the need to train teachers on reflective practice and warns that without training, reflective practice would be an imposition by administrators, rather than a personal tool for teachers to develop more effective teaching strategies. Reflective practice might also result in teachers' experiencing ethical dilemmas, such as violating the privacy of students while being observed as part of reflective practice, which could potentially lead to moral suffering (Rosenbluh, 2016). In brief, although reflective practice is considered to be a must staple in a teacher's professional development kit, care should be given to its effective implementation.

A Model for Reflective Practice

Although many attempts have been undertaken by scholars to define reflection and reflective practice, there have been few attempts to systematically analyze these concepts. To address the need to systematically operationalize reflection and reflective practice in language teaching (Cirocki & Widodo, 2019; Yeşilbursa, 2013), Akbari et al. (2010) conducted a study to develop and validate an instrument to clearly define major components of teacher reflective practice. The literature review they carried out yielded more than six hundred categories of reflection, which included an assortment of elements such as management, planning, keeping a journal, or considering the socio-cultural background of teachers' teaching environments. After reducing repeating items in the assortment and categorizing them based on themes, the researchers developed an initial hypothetical model

consisting of six elements of reflective practice, which are practical, cognitive, learner-related (affective), meta-cognitive, critical, and moral aspects. After implementing the questionnaire which consisted of items related to the six components, the moral element had to be removed as it did not survive the confirmatory factor analysis in the data analysis stage. Hence, the final version of the model consisted of 5 constructs, namely, practical, cognitive, learner-related (affective), meta-cognitive, and critical.

The practical component of the reflective practice inventory is defined as “the actual act of reflection by using tools” (Akbari et al., 2010, p. 215). Practical reflection might be done individually through utilizing different tools such as professional development or reflective teaching or journals (Benamor & Guerroudj, 2018; Özsoy, 2017), or teaching diaries (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2012). According to Akbari et al. (2010), personal practical reflection might include individual reflections on teaching practice by keeping accounts of one’s teaching experiences or practices. In addition, a teacher can engage in practical reflective practice in collaboration with other teachers. The tool in Akbari et al.’s (2010) model for engaging in such collaborative practical reflection is peer observation, which is a frequently exercised form of reflective practice (Farrell, 2011).

The cognitive aspect of reflective practice in the proposed model mainly focuses on teachers’ efforts to pursue professional development. According to Fat’hi and Behzadpour (2011), a reflective teacher can achieve different levels of reflection by engaging in continuous professional development. In Akbari et al.’s (2010) model, teachers’ efforts to engage in professional development include engaging in a range of activities such as reading books or academic journals related to one’s field of study, attending conferences and workshops in order to keep up with the latest

trends in the teaching profession, or conducting small-scale classroom research to reflect on teaching and learning processes.

The learner-related (affective) component of reflective practice is mainly related to teachers' reflections over matters regarding learners. Xu et al. (2015) indicate that learners are an important aspect of teacher reflection, and looking from a humanistic perspective, learner differences, needs, preferences, backgrounds, and emotions should be taken into consideration when reflecting over teaching. In Akbari et al.'s (2010) model, the learner-related component includes elements of reflection which take student behavior and emotion as the locus of reflection. For instance, the learner-related reflective dimension includes teacher reflection in the form of asking learners whether they liked a task or not.

Meta-cognitive reflection is the fourth dimension of reflective practice in the model proposed by Akbari et al. Moon (2005) defines meta-cognition as "a form of reflection in which a process of cognitive work, itself, is reviewed" (p. 21). In the model, meta-cognitive reflection indicates the type of teacher reflection which is related to teachers' knowledge of their personality, background, and their views about their profession (Xu et al., 2015). The elements in this dimension of the model include meta-cognitive means of reflection, such as reflecting over one's teaching philosophy, or the meaning of one's job as a teacher (Akbari et al., 2010)

The last aspect of reflective practice in the model is critical reflection, which entails social and political dimensions of teaching practice. (Akbari, et al., 2010, p. 215). As one of the most influential theorists of reflection, Van Manen (1977) refers to critical reflection as critical rationality. He states that a teacher can critically reflect on the social, political, and cultural phenomena, and question assumptions regarding such phenomena. In the model proposed by Akbari et al. (2010), critical

reflection refers to the general social and political dimensions of the teaching practice, and it includes elements such as thinking about the ways social events might influence classroom practice, or bringing less-discussed issues such as old age or gender discrimination to the classroom as topics for discussion.

Empirical Studies on Reflective Teaching

Reflective practice has inspired research both on the local and global level. At the local level, Dağkiran (2015) conducted a quantitative study to find out whether there was a statistically significant relationship between tertiary level Turkish EFL instructors' engagement in reflective practice, and their perceptions of the post-method pedagogy. The participants' answers revealed that they only "sometimes" engaged in reflective practice. The results also showed that Turkish EFL instructors "often" engaged in reflective practice when it involves sharing classroom experiences with peers, considering their learners' needs or learning styles, questioning their own beliefs, and reflecting on their teaching philosophy. With other reflective practices, such as classroom observations, writing articles, keeping files, or promoting democracy in the classroom, Turkish EFL instructors' engagement frequency was found to be somewhere between rarely and never. The study also revealed a statistically significant relationship between the learner-related and meta-cognitive elements of reflective practice, and the three principles of the post-method pedagogy, which are particularity, practicality, and possibility.

In another study, Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016) explored the effect of online discussions on EFL teachers' reflective practices in a qualitative research study conducted with the participation of in-service EFL instructors. They concluded that reflective practice was an "embedded and collaborative process" (p. 372), and through discussions with colleagues in an online community of practice, the

participants constantly engaged in reflection-in, on, and for-action, which served as a gateway for improved and enhanced professional development.

Kömür and Gün (2016) conducted a quantitative study with thirty-seven English teachers who taught English in different state schools in the Muğla province of Turkey. By using the inventory by Akbari et al. (2010), the researchers aimed to investigate which types of reflective practice the participants engaged in and which aspects of reflective teaching the participants considered to be the most important. The results showed that participants most frequently reflected over matters related to the learner-related component, which was followed by the meta-cognitive component. The least frequently reflected components were cognitive and critical aspects of reflective practice, respectively.

On the global level, Xu et al. (2015) designed a study to validate English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory developed by Akbari et al. (2010) in the Chinese context. The results of the study confirmed the cognitive, critical, meta-cognitive, learner-related, and practical aspects of reflective teaching. The results also statistically approved the moral component, which was excluded from the original inventory as it failed to survive the confirmatory factor analysis. Classroom management was added to the inventory as the seventh construct, which the original inventory did not possess. The participants of the study were reported to have an overall reflection level of intermediate. The classroom management and moral aspects of teaching practice were found to be the most frequently reflected types of practice, and they were followed by the meta-cognitive, learner-related, cognitive, critical, and practical aspects of reflective practice.

In Faghihi and Sarab's (2016) study, the perceptions of 60 Iranian EFL teachers on their reflective practice were examined by employing the inventory by

Akbari et al (2010). The results revealed that the participants most frequently engaged in the meta-cognitive aspect of reflective practice. The other four components, which are practical, cognitive, learner-related, and critical, were less reflected areas of reflection, and they did not show a significant range of difference among themselves. The researchers concluded that the participants in the study were primarily concerned with their own opinions and personalities when they reflected on their teaching practice. The researchers also concluded that the teachers who took part in the study were less sensitive to learner needs', less aware of the ethical aspect of teaching, and less conscious about their needs in terms of professional development as they were not actively reflective about these issues.

On the global level, as well as being examined in terms of teachers' reflective practice levels and perceptions, reflective practice has also been investigated in relation to diverse variables. For instance, Abdolrezapour and Fallah (2015) investigated the effect of reflective teaching on student autonomy and intrinsic motivation. The researchers identified two teachers, one reflective and one unreflective, based on the reflective teaching questionnaire developed by Behzadpour (2007). Sixty female learners in the study were randomly assigned to two groups and one group, the experimental group, was taught by the reflective teacher, and the other group, the control group, was taught by the unreflective teacher. At the end of the treatment period, students' levels of autonomy and intrinsic motivation were measured. The results of the study revealed that reflective teaching had a significant effect on enhancing student autonomy and intrinsic motivation.

Farzaneh and Mohammad (2014) conducted a mixed-methods research study to examine the relationship between EFL teachers' reflective practices and their feelings of burnout. The results of the quantitative phase of the study suggested that

there was a significant and reverse relationship between EFL teachers' reflective practices and their burnout levels. In other words, higher levels of reflection were noted to be associated with lower levels of burnout. The results also revealed that the three components of burnout, namely, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment, were found to be predictive of teachers' reflective practice levels. The findings of the qualitative stage of the study indicated that the majority of the participants who took part in the qualitative data collection phase had an average level of reflective practice. More than half of the participants stated that they reflected on their lessons before and after classes. The participants also stressed the need for teachers to choose and adjust methods and techniques in line with their own contexts, and they delineated the types of reflective practices they employed in their own teaching practices, such as establishing clear classroom rules, sharing experiences with colleagues, keeping a diary, and striving to know more about their students.

In an attempt to systematically investigate the relationship between reflective teaching, use of motivational strategies, and sense of efficacy, Nostrania and Moradi (2017) carried out a research study with 194 EFL teachers. The study yielded results which showed that there was a statistically significant and positive correlation between reflective practice and use of motivational strategies, and between reflective teaching and sense of efficacy. The results also revealed that reflective practice could more significantly predict participants' levels of self-efficacy than use of motivational strategies could.

In a mixed-methods study conducted by Moradkhani et al. in 2017, possible relationships between EFL teachers' reflective practices and their self-efficacy were examined in the context of Iran. In this study, 102 EFL teachers answered a survey,

which measured their levels of reflective practice and self-efficacy. The results revealed that participants engaged in the meta-cognitive aspect of reflective teaching most frequently, which was followed by learner-related, practical, cognitive, and critical aspects, respectively. The quantitative data also indicated a medium and significant relationship between participants' total scores of reflection and self-efficacy. The participants who took part in the qualitative data collection phase made references to the four aspects of reflective practice, which are practical, cognitive, learner-related, and meta-cognitive. However, the fifth aspect of reflective practice, the critical aspect, was not referred to by any of the participants.

Motallebzadeh, Ahmadi, and Hosseinnia (2018) investigated the relationship between the reflective practices and teaching effectiveness of 115 EFL teachers who taught at various language institutions in Iran. The results of the study indicated that participants' total reflective practices and their total teaching effectiveness were positively and significantly correlated. In addition, a weak positive and significant relationship was found between EFL teachers' level of reflective practices and their years of teaching experience.

In a recent study, Pazhoman and Sarkhosh (2019) investigated the relationship between 103 English teachers' reflective practices and their self-regulation. The results of the study indicated a positive relationship between teachers' reflective practices and their self-regulation. In addition, reflective practice was reported to be a strong predictor of teachers' self-regulation. The results of the study, however, did not reveal a significant relationship between teachers' self-regulation and their years of teaching experiences. Finally, although not reported as a major result, the most frequently utilized aspects of reflective practice were the meta-

cognitive and critical aspects, and the least frequently utilized aspect was the learner aspect.

As is reflected through the research studies listed above, reflective practice has been extensively researched in a significant number of studies across different contexts. However, there are still some gaps in the literature on reflective practice. One of the biggest gaps regarding reflective practice is the lack of research on the relationship between different sources of teacher motivation and teacher reflective practice. Although the relationship between reflective practice and other variables such as self-efficacy (Moradkhani et al., 2017), or self-regulation (Pazhoman & Sarkhosh, 2019) has been examined, the relationship between reflective practice and motivation has largely remained under-researched.

Motivation

Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) define motivation as a dynamic and altering state of arousal in individuals which trigger, guide, navigate, terminate, or assess cognitive and motor courses, and thus, individuals' wishes or aspirations are selected, arranged, operationalized, and performed. Motivation is regarded to be a driving force that serves as an incentive for individuals to engage in purposeful action, and it has received great attention from various disciplines to explain why people engage in the kind of behavior that they do. However, because motivation is a highly complex phenomenon, different theories have been proposed by different scholars to explain motivation in different disciplines (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). One of these theories of motivation is the possible selves theory by Markus and Nurius (1986), who put individuals' different "selves" at the heart of motivation. Through the proposition of possible selves, Markus and Nurius (1986) made a significant contribution to the elaboration of the future aspects of the self-concept.

The Self-concept

Every individual possesses different images and ways of thinking about themselves, which are called self-concepts. The self-concept, as a term, is defined as the “totality of a complex, organized, and dynamic system of learned opinions, attitudes, and feelings that each holds to be true about his or her personal existence” (Mehrad, 2016, p. 62). The self-concept comprises of semantic, visual, and emotional portrayals of who an individual was in the past, who an individual is at the present, and who an individual might possibly become in the future (Oyserman and Fryberg, 2006). In other words, the self-concept is not only anchored in the present; it extends back into the past and future dimensions, as well (Dabback, 2018). The self-concept, as a complex and dynamic construct, is regarded as carrying potential for self-development or growth as long as it is viewed from the perspective of the working self.

The working self encompasses an individual’s present self-knowledge, which is subject to change depending on internal and external factors that an individual is exposed to at a given moment. Hence, rather than a generalized, consistent, and unified knowledge of the self, the working self is a dynamic and active knowledge of the self (Markus & Nurius, 1986). This knowledge constitutes an important dimension of the self-concept, which has been used as a basis for explaining motivation in different frameworks, and one of these frameworks is the theory of possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Possible Selves

One of the theories in psychology which puts individuals’ different “selves” at the core of motivation is the possible selves theory by Markus and Nurius (1986). The theory of possible selves was first introduced by Markus and Nurius (1986) as

an addition to the conceptions of self-knowledge. According to the authors, possible selves “represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming, and thus provide a conceptual link between cognition and motivation” (p. 954). Although Markus and Nurius (1986) refer to a number of different self-concepts, such as the good selves, the bad selves, and the not-me selves, their work mainly laid the foundation for the three major forms of possible selves, which are the ideal self, the expected self, and the feared self (Ölmez-Çağlar, 2019). The ideal self is a positive future image which encapsulates properties that one aspires to attain (Hiver, 2013). The feared self, on the other hand, represents the images of a future self one is afraid of becoming, and thus tries to avoid (Peker, 2016). The final form of possible selves is the expected, or ought-to self (i.e., the ought self), which includes the facets of one's future image that is shaped up by the expectations of other people (Dörnyei, 2005).

Possible selves are born out of past self-representations, are closely related to present self-representations, and they also include future self-representations (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Thus, a change in one's identity both in the present and future dimensions takes place as one uses past memories and future images to construct a certain image of the actual present self (Lee & Schallert, 2016). Thus, possible selves are not static and unchanging representations of the individual's self-concept; on the contrary, they are dynamic, and they are influenced by numerous factors, such as personal goals, and social context (Hamman, Coward, Johnson, Lambert, Zhou, & Indiatsi, 2013; Karimi & Norouzi, 2019).

The construction of possible selves is a complex process influenced by a number of different forces, and it is highly specific to the individual. One's pool of possible selves carry elements from one's own individual invention; however,

possible selves are also shaped by social experiences of the individual within the sociocultural and historical context they live in. Thus, possible selves not only reflect individuals' vision of themselves, but also the degree of the impact of external variables on the construction of the self (Markus & Nurius, 1986). By choosing among the pool of possible selves, individuals become active producers of self-development.

The three possible selves are three different aspects of future representations of the self and as such, they can be investigated as separate constructs. However, Oyserman and Fryberg (2006) also suggest that the ideal and feared selves can be studied together as they create a balance of future expectations and images created in the same domain. In a similar vein, Dörnyei (2005) maintains that the self will function as a stronger motivational resource if a positive representation of a future self is offset by a negative representation of the future self. For instance, a teenager might want to attain high levels of popularity among his/her peers as an ideal future self and at the same time, this teenager might be afraid of being not liked by his/her friends, a feared future self he/she would like to avoid. For the teenager, having images both pertaining to the ideal and the feared self serves as a more distinct reminder of what the future holds if a goal is achieved and if a goal is not achieved (Lee & Oyserman, 2009), which has the potential to create a more powerful motivational source (Dörnyei, 2005). Hence, the balance between the ideal and feared self contributes to the individual's motivation to approach expected or desired selves and avoid feared or undesired selves (Lee & Oyserman, 2009).

Possible selves have a role in individuals' evaluation of their present or real selves by acting as motives for change and tools for inspecting one's current selves (Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008). They also serve as a source of motivation for

individuals to attain their ideal selves by closing the gap between their present and future possible selves or move away from their feared-selves. According to Dörnyei (2005), possible selves function as driving forces for individuals to engage in and maintain intentional behavior by giving individuals' goals, aspiration, or fears by giving them meaning, shape, and direction. In addition, possible selves serve as a base for regulating present behavior to shape the future (Frazier & Hooker, 2006; Oyserman & Fryberg, 2006) in an effort to attain a desired self or avoid a future feared self (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019).

The conceptualization of the possible selves as a theory has immensely contributed to L2 learning motivation research (Hiver, 2013). Another theory which has also made a great contribution to L2 learning motivation research is the self-discrepancy theory. Self-discrepancy theory, proposed by Higgins in 1987, is considered to be strongly related to the theory of possible selves (Chan, 2014), and it includes three major domains, which are the actual self, the ideal self, and the ought self. The actual self involves the properties that someone (we or someone else) thinks we possess, the ideal self represents properties that someone (we or someone else) would wish us to ideally possess, and finally the ought self represents the properties someone (we or someone else) believe we should possess. Higgins (1987) contends that both ideal and ought selves involve desired future visions; however, whereas the ideal self is mainly concerned with what one aspires to achieve, the ought self is more related with what one feels that they need to achieve because of responsibilities, expectations of others, or obligations (Martinovic, 2017). Higgins, Roney, Croew, and Hymes (1994) explain that individuals might strive to reduce the gap between their actual selves and their desired selves, or they might try to amplify the gap between their actual selves and undesired selves. In other words, individuals

might adopt an approach system (attempting to get closer to an ideal state) or avoidance system (attempting to move away from an undesired state) to self-regulate their present behavior. Whether an individual adopts an approach or avoidance system, both systems function as incentives for motivated action through self-regulating present behavior.

Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory was used by Dörnyei (2005, 2009) to propose a theoretical framework to explain learner motivation under the name of L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS). Dörnyei identified three sources of learner motivation in his framework, which are the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the learning experience (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019). According to Dörnyei's L2MSS, the ideal L2 self is a more internalized self as it is a future representation formed by the learner, whereas the ought-to L2 self is not as internalized as the ideal L2 self because ought-to L2 self is molded by external forces such as obligations, and expectations (Peker, 2016). Dörnyei's L2MSS framework has been widely used to explain factors underlying L2 learners' motivation to learn a second/foreign language, making a significant contribution to research on student motivation. In addition to contributing to student motivation research, L2MSS also inspired the conceptualization of language teacher motivation, as well (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019).

Teacher Motivation and Possible Language Teacher Selves

The field of educational psychology has produced a great body of research on factors impacting student motivation; yet, factors that influence teacher motivation have remained relatively less explored (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Kubanyiova, 2009; Kubanyiova, 2012; Ordem, 2017). The limited research on teacher motivation has pointed out two different approaches to explaining teacher motivation. The first approach claims that general models of motivation can be utilized to describe

teaching and teacher motivation because teaching is yet another form of human behavior. The second approach, however, contends that teaching has unique characteristics, which means that it might entail unique motivational forces (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), and in order to investigate the presence and the impact of these potentially unique motivational forces, there is a need for theoretical models which specifically elaborate developmental models of teacher motivation (Alexander, 2008). One of the models provided to meet this need was proposed by Kubanyiova (2007) in order to facilitate a more insightful understanding of the interplay of cognition, context, and motivation in the process of language teacher development (Kubanyiova, 2009).

Kubanyiova (2007) conducted a longitudinal mixed-methods research study, which explored the professional development of eight in-service EFL teachers in Slovakia. In addition to producing valuable results on language teachers' motivational sources for professional development and conceptual change, the study also led to the proposition of a language teacher motivation model. Drawing from Dörnyei's L2MSS framework along with Markus and Nurius's theory of possible selves, and Higgins's self-discrepancy theory, Kubanyiova (2007) conceptualized the model of possible language teacher selves as an addition to teacher cognition research. Kubanyiova (2007, 2009) proposed the model of possible language teacher selves as a theoretical framework to explain language teacher conceptual change, and this framework has inspired a new line of research on language teacher motivation (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019).

Kubanyiova (2012) defines possible language teacher selves as a model which conceptualizes language teachers' cognition from a future dimension. In line with the theory of possible selves, the possible language teacher selves model

encompasses language teachers' ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves in relation to their profession. Hence, the possible language teacher selves model is a tripartite construct which comprises of the ideal language teacher self, the ought-to language teacher self, and the feared language teacher self. The ideal language teachers self is a total of goals and aspirations that a language teacher would like to achieve, and the goals and aspirations present in the ideal language teacher self serve as an incentive to reduce the gap between the actual language teacher self and the language teacher self that a teacher would ideally want to become (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009, 2012). The ought-to language teacher self, on the other hand, refers to professional responsibilities and obligations a language teacher feels they have to fulfill. Similar to the ideal language teacher self, the ought-to language teacher self also functions as a motivational factor for language teachers to reduce the gap between the current and a future self; however, unlike the ideal language teacher self, the ought-to language teacher self is driven and molded by extrinsic forces (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009, 2012). The third and the final dimension in the possible language teacher selves model is the feared language teacher self, which is a future representation of what a language teacher is afraid of becoming. This dimension of the possible language teacher selves is heavily based on the possible consequences of the fear of not being able to fulfill expectations or attain goals (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019). The feared language teacher self also acts as a motivational force as language teachers try to avoid becoming feared versions of themselves by failing to attain their ideals, responsibilities, or obligations.

All three of the possible language teacher selves carry motivational potential, and thus, they might potentially lead to self and professional development. In this respect, possible self-development occurs in two stages: the first stage involves the

construction of one's concept of possible selves, and the second stage consists of self-regulatory activity to become successful in reaching predetermined goals or to avoid such constructed possible selves (Pizzolato, 2006). According to Higgins (1996), self-regulatory mechanisms should be triggered in order for an individual to attempt to reduce the discrepancy between an actual and a possible desired state. Similarly, Kubanyiova (2012) suggests that for self-development to occur, one should be aware of the dissonance between the actual self, and an ideal or ought-to self. In the absence of such awareness, there would not be enough motivational desire to self-regulate present behavior to engage in self or professional development activities, and possible selves would have less motivational impact.

The literature on teacher cognition research has recently started to produce an increasing number of research studies dedicated to the investigation of both teacher possible selves and possible language teacher selves. The reason for the increasing interest in this line of research might be the impact of teacher motivation on a wide range of variables such as student motivation, student achievement, and the quality of learning experiences (Gonzales-Bravo, 2015; Han & Yin, 2016). The investigation of possible teacher selves and possible language teacher selves have produced some valuable insights into the complex functioning of teacher motivation. Some of the research studies which investigated possible teacher selves and possible language teacher selves will be explained in the next section.

Empirical Studies on Possible Teacher Selves and Possible Language Teacher Selves

One of the most influential studies regarding language teacher motivation was conducted by Kubanyiova (2007). In a longitudinal mixed-methods study, she investigated the impact of a 20-hour in-service teacher development course on eight

EFL teachers in Slovakia. The study revealed that motivation for EFL instructors' reform-induced conceptual change stemmed from the dissonance between language teachers' actual selves and their reform-related possible selves. The study also showed that the ideal self might explain why teachers engage in certain practices or more easily accept conceptual change, and ought-to self might lead to developing more internalized future images, and thus act as an incentive for self-regulatory behavior. In addition, feared-self was found to have a detrimental effect on professional development of conceptual change if it is more vivid and more dominant than the ideal or ought-to aspects of the self (Kubanyiova, 2012). These findings culminated in the conceptualization of the tripartite possible language teacher selves construct, consisting of the ideal language teacher self, the feared language teacher self, and the ought-to language teacher self.

In the study they conducted, White and Ding (2009) explored the impact of a nine-month e-learning project on the self-concept of 23 teachers in China, the U.K. and New Zealand to identify how technological innovations influenced teacher identity and autonomy. The findings of the study showed the power of possible selves on teachers' motivation confirming the findings of Kubanyiova's (2007) study. The motivation of teachers was found to be mainly driven by both their ideal and ought-to teacher selves. The teacher possible selves of the participants were interpreted as "socially constituted, dynamic, evolving representations of not just the individual self but of others, and of what it may be possible to be or become" (p. 347). The results of the study indicated that possible selves are strong motivational drives for workplace learning for experienced teachers, and the teacher self functioned as a catalyst for the engagement of teachers in the project, and also in

dialogue and reflection which were reported to be practiced “with and through” other teachers (p. 347).

Kumazawa (2013) aimed to explore the motivation of four novice EFL teachers in Japan through a longitudinal study, which expanded over a two-and-a-half-year period of time. This time frame started two months before the four teachers started to work, when they all had vivid visions of their future language teacher selves. Upon entering professional life of teaching, they found a big gap between what they aspired as their future selves and their actual selves. A major finding of the study revealed that the teachers’ ideal selves had less effect on their motivational states compared to the previous studies that centered around possible teacher selves because the gap between participants’ actual selves and their ideal selves were too large. On the other hand, the teachers’ ought-to language teacher selves were discovered to undermine their motivation because the novice teachers were pressured to assume undesirable roles. However, the data collected towards the end of the study showed that the teachers were able to find a balance between their ideal, ought-to, and actual selves through reflective thinking, which helped them regain their motivation.

In the qualitative case study he conducted, Hiver (2013) aimed to explore the roles of ideal, ought-to, and feared language teacher selves in the professional development choices of seven in-service Korean English teachers working in public schools. The study yielded three major sources for motivation for the Korean teachers in the study to engage in professional development activities, which are listed as repairing what they find inadequate in their teacher selves, enhancing their language teacher selves, and adhering to obligations in order “to approach consistency or avoid discrepancies with external obligations” (p. 215), which meant

that the findings illustrated the presence of three possible language teacher selves in participants' decision to continue engaging in professional development. The findings also revealed that the participants' motives to engage in continuing professional development stemmed mostly from more self-related internal factors.

Dabback (2018) investigated three early career music teachers' possible selves in a longitudinal multiple-case study. The three teachers' identity formation was explored starting from their student teaching semester into their first years of teaching music. The participants were both hopeful and apprehensive when they first started teaching as students, and they articulated representations of their future teacher selves referring to their ideal (as a successful teacher), feared (as a failing teacher) and ought-to (referring to others' expectations) selves. After becoming a full-time teacher and working for a couple of years, all participants have experienced both personal and professional changes. Dabback (2018) asserts that by affecting the participants' decisions and goals, these teachers' possible selves had an influence on the changes in their identity. Possible selves played a major role for the participants to successfully handle challenges and build more positive self-concepts as the participants used their possible selves as a basis for their actions and evaluations of themselves. The self-images they had about themselves and collaboration with colleagues (as significant others) promoted success.

Rahmati, Sadeghi, and Ghaderi (2018) explored the relationship between language teacher vision and motivation in the Iranian context in a mixed-methods study. At the qualitative phase of the study, the researchers developed a questionnaire after interviewing 10 teachers on motivation and vision. Then, they administered the questionnaire to 211 in-service language teachers. The results revealed a positive relationship between language teacher vision and motivation. The

results also indicated that language teachers who took part in the study either did not have future visions of themselves as professional teachers, or their visions were not vivid. There were some teachers who had visions of themselves as future professionals; however, their visions were mostly dominated by their ideal L2 teacher self and L2 teaching experience, and they lacked feared or ought-to L2 teacher selves. The researchers conclude that “visionary teachers”, who were able to construct a future L2 teacher self exhibited more motivated behavior than teachers who had limited or no vision of their future L2 teacher selves (p. 13).

Two hundred and ninety-one in-service primary school teachers’ continuous professional learning and their teacher possible selves were investigated by Ng (2019) in a mixed-methods study. Strongly committed teachers who had a strong professional sense of self were reported to engage in professional learning more than those teachers who had a moderate or weak sense of professional selves. During the interviews conducted with 8 selected teachers, strongly committed teachers were more concerned with their ideal selves, whereas less committed teachers were more concerned with their feared selves.

In the Turkish context, a study was conducted by Ölmez-Çağlar (2019) to investigate the relationship between pre-service English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers’ possible language teacher selves, their motivation for teaching English, and their self-efficacy beliefs. The results of the study demonstrated that the pre-service language teacher candidates had highly developed possible language teacher selves, which was manifested through high scores reported for each of the three aspects of possible language teacher selves. The most highly developed possible language teacher self of the teacher candidates was the ideal language teacher self, which was followed by ought-to language teacher self with a very close

score. The indication of this finding was that pre-service teachers' future visions of themselves as language teachers were dominated by images of their ideal and ought-to language teacher selves. Although the findings also revealed that pre-service language teachers possessed clear feared language teacher visions of themselves, as well, the score related to this dimension of the possible language teacher selves of the participants was relatively lower compared to their ideal and ought-to language teacher selves. The ideal and ought-to language teacher selves were also reported to be positively and strongly related to each other, and both were found to be predictors of pre-service EFL teachers' motivation to teach.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the literature pertaining to reflective practice and possible language teacher selves was reviewed by describing key terms such as reflection, reflective thinking, reflective practice, motivation, the self-concept, possible selves, and possible language teacher selves. Also, relevant studies about reflective practice and possible language teacher selves were presented. In the next chapter, the methodology of the current study will be presented in detail by providing detailed information about the research design, setting, participants, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether there is a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' reflective practices and their possible language teacher selves. To this end, the study seeks to provide answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent do EFL instructors engage in reflective practice?
2. What are EFL instructors' perceived levels of their possible language teacher selves?
3. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current overall reflective practice and their possible language teacher selves?

Sub-questions:

- a. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current practical reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- b. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current cognitive reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- c. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current learner-related reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- d. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current meta-cognitive reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?

- e. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current critical reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?

The aim of this chapter is to provide detailed information related to the methodology of the current study. First, brief information about the research design will be provided. Next, the setting, and the participants will be described. Finally, information regarding data instrumentation, method of data collection, and analysis will be explained.

Research Design

This study has a quantitative, descriptive, non-experimental, and cross-sectional correlational research design. First, the current study's data are primarily quantitative because the data were collected via one online survey consisting mainly of Likert-scale items; hence, the study has a quantitative design. Quantitative research studies are described as “systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 34); therefore, they enable the production of more reliable and more generalizable data. Second, the study aims to describe the relationship between two variables; therefore, it has a descriptive and correlational design. According to Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2012), descriptive studies “describe a given state of affairs as fully and carefully as possible” (p. 14) and correlational studies, which are listed as a type of associational research, are carried out to investigate whether there is a relationship between two or more variables, or the extent to which a relationship or relationships exist between two or more variables. Correlational studies are a type of descriptive research design as they describe the extent to which two or more variables are related to each other, and unlike experimental studies, correlational studies do not involve any treatment or

manipulation of the variables (Fraenkel et al., 2012). As the current research study is designed to investigate whether there is a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' reflective practice and their possible language teacher selves, and as it does not involve any treatment or manipulation of a variable, a descriptive, correlational design was adopted as the most appropriate design.

Sampling, and the Sample Size

In quantitative research, the aim is to investigate a phenomenon about the larger group, which is called *population*, by studying a smaller group, which is called *sample* (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). Because in most cases it is practically not possible to reach the whole population, a sample group is selected to collect data. The population for the present study was selected as all the EFL instructors who worked at the school of foreign languages at a state university in Turkey, and the sample for the current research study was those EFL instructors who participated in the study. The participants who constitute the sample will be explained in detail in the setting, and participants sections of the chapter.

The sampling method employed in the current study is convenience sampling, which can be defined as selecting a sample of a group of participants who are available to take part in a research study (Fraenkel et al., 2008). There are different views on calculating a sample size for different research designs. For instance, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) state that the sample for any research study should have at least 30 individuals. On the other hand, Fraenkel et al. (2008) recommend a minimum sample size of 50 participants for correlational research studies. Both sources were used in deciding on the sample size for the current study. In addition, a website named danielsoper.com, which is dedicated to calculating the sample size depending on the specific qualities of a study such as the number of

variables, was also used to calculate exactly how many participants were required to obtain more reliable results. According to the calculations made on the website, the ideal sample size for the current study was calculated as 91.

Setting

This study was conducted at the school of foreign languages at a state university in Turkey. The school provides its students a one-year intensive English program before they begin their studies at their departments. The program is compulsory for those students who will receive instruction in English at their departments; however, there are also those students who attend the program voluntarily. The students are placed into different levels depending on the scores they receive from a placement exam they take at the beginning of the academic year. The levels are named D, C, B, and A, and according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), these levels refer to A1(Beginner), A2 (Elementary), B1 (Pre-intermediate), and B1+(Intermediate) respectively. The instructors at the school of foreign languages teach between 14-18 hours a week on average. Every instructor is required to attend weekly meetings held by level coordinators to go over the agenda of that specific week, and they are also required to take part in the preparation and assessment of tests and exams. Some instructors have extra duties at different institutional units such as the professional development unit, the material development unit, or the technology unit.

Participants

This study was conducted in the academic year 2019-2020. There were 146 instructors employed at the school of foreign languages at the time of data collection. Out of the 146 instructors, 102 were female and 44 were male. Eight of the instructors were on leave for different reasons, and a total of 138 instructors were

actively working at the institution. Three of these instructors were not actively teaching at the time of data collection because of their administrative duties. The EFL instructors who teach at the institution are graduates of departments such as English Language Teaching, English Language and Literature, American Culture and Literature, English Linguistics, and Translation and Interpreting. Some of the instructors who teach at the institution hold MA and PhD degrees, and some of them have CELTA and/or Delta certificates. There are also some instructors who attend and present papers at national and international conferences or publish articles regularly. Table 1 displays demographic information about the participants.

Table 1

Demographic Information about the Participants

Demographics	N
Age	
21-30	9
31-40	49
41-50	28
51 and over	8
Gender	
Female	65
Male	29
Years of teaching experience	
1-5 years	2
6-10 years	20
11-15 years	20

Table 1 (cont'd)

Demographic Information about the Participants

16-20 years	31
21 years and over	21
Country	
Turkey	93
Other	1
Last degree earned	
BA	40
MA	45
PhD	9
Qualifications	
CELTA	39
Delta	10
Other	5
None	40
Graduated department	
English Language Teaching	72
English Language and Literature	6
American Culture and Literature	6
Translation and Interpreting	5
Linguistics	5
Other	-

Instrumentation

In order to collect data for this study, an online survey was sent to the participants (See Appendix A). All the sections in the survey are in English because the participants of the current study are all fluent speakers of English. Starting with an Informed Consent form as the first section, the survey is composed of six sections. The remaining sections are namely The English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory (Akbari et al., 2010), Ideal Language Teacher Self (ILTS), Feared Language Teacher Self (FLTS), and Ought-to Language Teacher Self (OLTS), which were adapted from Three Measures of Possible Language Teacher Selves (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019). The sixth and the final part of the questionnaire consists of questions which were designed to obtain demographic information about participants' age, gender, years of teaching experience, country, last degree earned, qualifications, and the department they graduated from.

The English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory (ELTRI), designed by Akbari, et al. (2010), was used in the current study to collect information about the extent to which EFL instructors engage in reflective practice. The inventory was designed with the aim of devising a model of teacher reflection in applied linguistics, which would enable researchers to quantify the construct in empirical research studies. After carrying out a thorough literature review and drafting constructs regarding teacher reflection, repeating items in constructs were removed by the researchers. The remaining items were grouped under common themes, which resulted in the emergence of six different overarching categories, namely *practical*, *cognitive*, *learner/affective*, *meta-cognitive*, *critical*, and *moral*. However, the *moral* component did not survive Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and hence it was removed from the inventory. The final version of The English Language Teaching

Reflection Inventory consists of 29 statements on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *always* under five sub-categories of reflective practice, namely *practical* (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), *cognitive* (items 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12), *learner/affective* (items 13, 14, 15), *meta-cognitive* (items 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22), and *critical* (items 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29). The item correspondence to factors of the ELTRI are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2

Item Correspondence to Factors of the ELTRI

Construct	Corresponding Items in the Survey
Practical	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
Cognitive	7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12
Learner	13, 14, 15
Meta-cognitive	16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22
Critical	23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29

The Ideal Language Teacher Self, Feared Language Teacher Self, and Ought-to Language Teacher Self sections of the questionnaire were adapted from Three Measures of Possible Language Teacher Selves (TMPLTS) developed by Karimi and Norouzi (2019). After carrying out an extensive literature review, the researchers drafted preliminary components of each scale representing language teachers' future visions of themselves. In the next stage, the researchers conducted interviews with English language teachers to create a pool of relevant items. Following the elimination of overlapping items, possible language teacher selves were categorized under three constructs, which are *ideal language teacher self*, *feared language teacher self*, and *ought-to language teacher self*, based on Kubanyiova's (2007,

2009) model of possible language teacher selves. In the original questionnaire developed by Karimi and Norouzi (2019), the *ideal language teacher self* consists of 15 items, the *feared language teacher self* consists of 13 items, and the *ought-to language teacher self* consists of six items. In the adapted versions of these scales in the current study, some items were rephrased in order to achieve a clearer meaning, and some items were added to make the scales more contextually appropriate. One ELT expert at Bilkent University MA TEFL program, and eight in-service EFL instructors' opinions and feedback were taken into consideration while rewording the original items in the TMPLTS, and adding new items to the ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS sections of the survey.

The TMPLTS (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019) was divided into three sections in the current research study under the headings of Ideal Language Teacher Self, Feared Language Teacher Self, and Ought-to Language Teacher Self. All three sections include statements on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *very untrue of me* to *very true of me*. The Ideal Language Teacher Self section consists of 15 items, which aim to investigate language teachers' future visions of themselves as ideal language teachers. The Feared Language Teacher Self section consists of 16 items, which are designed to examine language teachers' future visions of themselves regarding the kind of language teacher they are afraid of becoming. The Ought-to Language Teacher Self section consists of 11 items, which aim to investigate language teachers' future images of themselves as shaped up by expectations from other people, such as the school administration, parents, or students.

The final section of the questionnaire is the demographics section, which is designed by the researcher to obtain data about the participants' backgrounds. This section is composed of seven questions, which aim to identify the participants' age,

gender, years of teaching experience, country, last degree earned, qualifications, and the department they graduated from.

The Permission Procedures

After the surveys which would be used for the current study were finalized by the researcher, an e-mail was sent to Bilkent University Ethics Committee to obtain the necessary permission to conduct the study. After receiving an e-mail of permission by the Ethics Committee, the researcher sent another e-mail to the school of foreign languages where the study would be conducted. After obtaining permission from the school of foreign languages to conduct the study, the researcher transferred all items onto a website named Qualtrics, which is a reliable website designed for composing surveys. The license of the website was obtained by the university, and to keep all the data to be collected on the website safe, the researcher changed the original password with a more secure one. After the final version of the survey was uploaded onto the website, all items were examined by the researcher, a professor at Bilkent University MATEFL program, and eight in-service EFL instructors for face and content validity, and based on the feedback received, necessary modifications were made.

Piloting the Questionnaire

The questions which are used in the current study were adopted from two questionnaires, namely The English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory (Akbari et al., 2010), and Three Measures of Possible Language Teacher Selves (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019). The English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory is a reliable questionnaire, which has been used in various different research studies in different contexts before (Dağkiran, 2015; Faghihi & Sarab, 2016; Moradkhani et al., 2017). However, the Three Measures of Possible Language Teacher Selves is a fairly

new survey, and to the best knowledge of the researcher, it has only been used in the original study which aimed to validate the survey. In order to revalidate both surveys and identify potential problems, the researcher decided to conduct a pilot study.

Piloting is an essential component of research studies because it helps the researcher to become aware of any problems which might emerge in the actual study.

According to Dörnyei (2007), piloting is even more important in quantitative research design as quantitative research studies “rely on psychometric properties of the research instruments” and it is paramount that a pilot study is conducted to ensure higher levels of reliability and validity in the actual study (p. 75).

The pilot study was conducted with 30 participants at the school of foreign languages where the actual study would take place. Thirty-two participants were sent the survey via e-mail, with a short note informing them about the piloting stage, and 30 of them completed the survey. After collecting data from the pilot study, the data were analyzed on Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS v.25). First, items were checked for Cronbach’s alpha levels to measure the internal consistency reliability. According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2018), the Cronbach alpha, or the alpha coefficient, can be used to measure reliability. The Cronbach alpha provides researchers with the correlation of each item within the total of all the other relevant items, which makes it fit for measuring the reliability of multi-scale items. The Cronbach alpha is considered to be very highly reliable when it is over .90, highly reliable when it is between .80 and .90, reliable when it is between .70 and .79, marginally/minimally reliable when it is between .60 and .69, and unacceptably low when it is below .60. More specifically, internal consistency measure is expected to be more than .70 for a test to be regarded as internally consistent (Muijs, 2004).

The first section of the questionnaire which was used in the piloting stage was The English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory (ELTRI) (Akbari et al., 2010), which is an inventory designed to measure the extent to which instructors engage in reflective practice. The questionnaire has five factors, which are practical, cognitive, learner, meta-cognitive and critical. First, the Cronbach's Alpha level for the whole ELTRI was calculated and it was found to be .89, which indicates that the questionnaire is highly reliable. Next, each factor in the inventory was analyzed separately for Cronbach Alpha levels.

The Cronbach's Alpha level for the practical factor, which included six items, was .53, which was a very low reliability score. The corrected item-total correlation values of the items in the practical factor were .10, .31, -.00, .28, .51, and .57 respectively. As the third item had the lowest score, it was removed and the Cronbach's alpha level increased to .60. However, because the Cronbach's alpha was still below the desirable reliability level, the first item was also removed, and the Cronbach's alpha level of the practical factor increased to .72, which is a reliable score.

The cognitive factor had six items and a Cronbach's alpha level of .82, which is a very highly reliable score. The corrected item-total correlation scores of the items were .64, .43, .45, .79, .54, and .69, respectively. Because the Cronbach's alpha level was highly reliable, no changes were made in this factor.

The learner factor had three items and the Cronbach's alpha level for this factor was .62. The corrected item-total correlation scores of the items were .37, .48, and .44, respectively. Although this factor was below the expected reliability level of .70, no items were removed because this section had only three items, and the removal of one item would disturb the integrity of the content of the factor.

The meta-cognitive factor had 7 items, and the Cronbach's alpha level for this factor was .80, which is considered to be a highly reliable score. The corrected item-total correlation scores of the items were .76, .34, .79, .50, .62, .28, and .63, respectively. Because the Cronbach's alpha level was highly reliable, no changes were made in this factor.

The last factor of the ELTRI (Akbari et al., 2010) was the critical factor, which had seven items. The Cronbach's alpha level for this factor was .86, which is a highly reliable score. The corrected item-total correlation scores of the items were .48, .72, .73, .63, .54, .63, and .68, respectively. Since the Cronbach's alpha level of this factor was highly reliable, no changes were made in this factor.

After analyzing the Cronbach alpha levels of the ELTRI, two items were removed from the practical factor due to low reliability scores. Because of this, the item number for the ELTRI was reduced from 29 to 27. The item correspondence for the ETLRI that was used in the current study is given in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Item Correspondence to Factors of the ELTRI after the Piloting Stage

Construct	Corresponding Items
Practical	1, 2, 3, 4
Cognitive	5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
Learner	11, 12, 13
Meta-cognitive	14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20
Critical	21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27

The second, third, and fourth sections of the questionnaire were the Ideal Language Teacher Self (ILTS), the Feared Language Teacher Self (FLTS), and the

Ought-to Language Teacher Self (OLTS) sections, which were designed to examine language teachers' visions about their future ideal language teacher selves, their future feared language teacher selves, and their future ought-to language teacher selves. In addition to measuring the reliability of the first section of the questionnaire, the ELTRI, factor analyses were conducted for the ILTS, the FLTS, and the OLTS sections because the inventory from which these sections were adopted had been developed very recently, and some changes in the items had been made by the researcher for the present study. Because of these reasons, factor analyses were conducted for the ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS (see Appendix B).

Factor analysis is a process which is conducted to bring together variables which share common characteristics. According to Cohen et al. (2018), factor analysis "enables the researcher to take a set of variables and reduce them to a smaller number of underlying (latent) factors which account for as many variables as possible. It detects structures and commonalities in the relationships between variables" (p. 818). Thus, through factor analysis, researchers can identify separate variables which address the same underlying factor or concept. The factor analysis used for the Ideal Language Teacher Self, the Feared Language Teacher Self, and the Ought-to Language Teacher Self sections was exploratory factor analysis, which is conducted to explore variables which are previously unknown.

Different methods of factor analysis were used for the pilot study. The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure, which correlates pairs of variables, was used to check for sampling adequacy. According to Cohen et al. (2018), the KMO measure should be greater than .6. The KMO measures were calculated as .61, .79, .80 for ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS respectively, which indicated that the sampling size was large enough. Bartlett Test of Sphericity showed p values of $< .001$, $< .001$, and

$< .001$ for ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS, respectively, which revealed that the data could be factorized. For factor analysis, Principal Components Analysis was used as the extraction method, and Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization was conducted for factor rotation. In Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization, Eigenvalues greater than 1.00 constitute factors; thus, Eigenvalues greater than 1.00 were extracted for ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS sections.

In the ILTS section, five factors were extracted initially; however, item 15 was extracted as a separate factor on its own. Because one item would not constitute a meaningful factor, the number of factors was forced to four. The four factors that were extracted had Eigenvalues of 6.35, 1.73, 1.31, and 1.25. The four factors explain 71 % of all the variable variances for the ILTS. In the FLTS section, three factors were extracted with Eigenvalues of 9.82, 1.95, and 1.04. These three factors explain 80 % of all the variable variances for the FLTS. Finally, in the OLTS section, two factors were extracted with Eigenvalues of 6.63, and 1.42. These two factors explain 73% of all the variable variances for the OLTS.

Table of communalities was also inspected for ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS sections. Communalities show “the variance of each observed variable explained by the factor” (Santos, Gorgulho, de Castro, Fisberg, Marchioni, & Baltar, 2019, p. 6). The initial set and the extracted set of communalities are provided in a proper solution. The communalities for ILTTS, FLTTS, and OLTTS were fine in this study.

The structure matrix of the factor analysis shows the items which loaded on different factors. In the ILTS section, items 4, 9, 10, 11, and 12 were loaded on factor one, items 1, 2, and 3 were loaded on factor two, items 13, 14, and 15 were loaded on factor three, and items 5, 6, 7, and 8 were loaded on factor four. The items in the first factor are named “ILTS as an expert and motivated teacher”, the items in the second

factor are named “ILTS as a good language user”, the items in the third factor are named “ILTS as catering for learner needs”, and the items in the fourth factor are named “ILTS as seeking professional development”. The item correspondence to factors of the ILTS are displayed in Table 4. In the FLTS section, items 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 were loaded on factor one, and items 1, and 2 were loaded on factor 2, and items 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 were loaded on factor three. The items in the first factor are named “FLTS as an inexperienced teacher”, the items in the second factor are named “FLTS as a poor language user”, and the items in the third factor are named “FLTS as not seeking professional development”. The item correspondence to factors of the FLTS are displayed in Table 5. Finally, in the OLTS section, items 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 were loaded on factor one, and items 1, 2, 4, 5, and 11 were loaded on factor 2. The items in the first factor are named “OLTS as an expert in teaching”, and the items in the second factor are named “OLTS as seeking professional development”. The item correspondence to factors of the OLTS are shown in Table 6.

Table 4

Item Correspondence to Factors of the ILTS

Construct	Corresponding Items
ILTS as an expert and motivated teacher	4, 9, 10, 11, 12
ILTS as a good language user	1, 2, 3
ILTS as catering for learner needs	13, 14, 15
ILTS as seeking professional development	5, 6, 7, 8

Table 5

Item Correspondence to Factors of the FLTS

Construct	Corresponding Items
FLTS as an inexperienced teacher	3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
FLTS as a poor language user	1, 2
FLTS as not seeking professional development	11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16

Table 6

Item Correspondence to Factors of the OLTS

Construct	Corresponding Items
OLTS as an expert in teaching	3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
OLTS as seeking professional development	1, 2, 4, 5, 11

After conducting factor analyses for the ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS sections, the Cronbach alpha levels were calculated to obtain reliability scores for these three sections. The ILTS included 15 items, and it had a Cronbach's alpha level of .885, which indicates high reliability. The corrected item-total correlation values of the items in this section were .34, .56, .18, .57, .50, .70, .46, .76, .62, .63, .65, .71, .76, .51, and .52, respectively. The FLTS included 16 items, with a Cronbach's alpha level of .956, which indicates very high reliability. The corrected item-total correlation values of the items in this section were .58, .45, .59, .95, .91, .83, .89, .84, .86, .87, .50, .61, .58, .80, .79, and .76, respectively. Finally, the OLTS included 11 items. It had a Cronbach's alpha level of .93, which indicates very high reliability.

The corrected item-total correlation values of the items in this section were .44, .61, .62, .83, .71, .69, .83, .86, .82, .70, and .75, respectively.

Data Collection

After analyzing the piloting data, necessary modifications were made, and the survey for the actual study was sent to 114 instructors at the school of foreign languages via e-mail, which included a link to the survey on the Qualtrics website. The data were collected in a period of 15 days.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the surveys for the actual study were analyzed quantitatively on SPSS using both descriptive and inferential statistics. First, the data from Qualtrics were transferred to Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), and the data were organized and cleared up. After clearing the data, reliability analyses were conducted for the ELTRI, ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS sections as well as for the factors in each section. Then, composite scores were created for each factor in the ELTRI, ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS sections.

Item Reliability Analysis

Based on the data from the pilot study, the number of the items in the ELTRI section were reduced from 29 items to 27 items, and factors were extracted for the ILTS, FLTS, and the OLTS sections. Item reliability analyses were carried out for the ELTRI, ILTS, FLTS, and the OLTS sections, and for all the factors in each section. The Cronbach alpha levels for the survey are shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Cronbach Alpha Levels for the Survey

Survey Parts	Cronbach Alpha
ELTRI	.93

Table 7 (cont'd)

Cronbach Alpha Levels for the Survey

Survey Parts	Cronbach Alpha
a. Practical	.79
b. Cognitive	.88
c. Learner	.74
d. Meta-cognitive	.87
e. Critical	.87
ILTS	.90
a. ILTS as an expert and motivated teacher	.84
b. ILTS as a good language user	.66
c. ILTS as catering for learner needs	.77
d. ILTS as seeking professional development	.79
FLTS	.98
a. FLTS as an inexperienced teacher	.97
b. FLTS as a poor language user	.93
c. FLTS as not seeking professional development	.93
OLTS	.95
a. OLTS as an expert in teaching	.93
b. OLTS as seeking professional development	.90

Corrected item-total correlation values were also calculated for each factor in the ELTRI, ILTS, FLTS, and the OLTS sections. The corrected item-total correlation values for factors in the ELTRI are displayed in Table 8, the corrected item-total correlation values for factors in ILTS are displayed in Table 9, the corrected item-total correlation values for factors in FLTS are displayed in Table 10, and the corrected item-total correlation values for factors in OLTS are displayed in Table 11.

Table 8

Corrected Item-total Correlation Values for Factors in ELTRI

Construct	Corrected Item-Total Correlation Values
Practical	.55, .57, .63, .65
Cognitive	.67, .65, .65, .76, .76, .71
Learner	.53, .59, .59
Meta-cognitive	.67, .56, .76, .64, .69, .59, .61
Critical	.55, .67, .64, .64, .61, .74, .70

Table 9

Corrected Item-total Correlation Values for Factors in ILTS

Construct	Corrected Item-Total Correlation Values
ILTS as an expert and motivated teacher	.52, .68, .67, .68, .71
ILTS as a good language user	.52, .63, .41
ILTS as catering for learner needs	.60, .71, .52
ILTS as seeking professional development	.56, .68, .56, .61

Table 10

Corrected Item-total Correlation Values for Factors in FLTS

Construct	Corrected Item-Total Correlation Values
FLTS as an inexperienced teacher	.76, .91, .92, .89, .90, .93, .92, .93
FLTS as a poor language user	.87, .87
FLTS as not seeking professional development	.71, .81, .79, .86, .85, .77

Table 11

Corrected Item-total Correlation Values for Factors in OLTS

Construct	Corrected Item-Total Correlation Values
OLTS as an expert in teaching	.64, .84, .85, .83, .82, .76
OLTS as seeking professional development	.69, .73, .85, .81, .69

Normality Assessment

In order to answer the first and the second research questions, descriptive statistics were utilized, and to answer the third research question, inferential statistics were utilized. Before analyzing the data, normality assessment was made for each research question because in order to choose the most appropriate statistical procedures, the data should initially be checked for normality. If the data are normally distributed, parametric tests are utilized; however, if the data are not normally distributed, non-parametric tests should be utilized (Dörnyei, 2007). Therefore, before running statistical analyses to answer the research questions of the

current study, the data were analyzed for normality to choose the most appropriate statistical test for each research question.

Different methods were followed in order to assess the normality of the data collected in the actual study. First, skewness and kurtosis values were examined by checking z-scores. By dividing skewness and kurtosis values by their standard errors, a z-score was obtained for each research question. According to Kim (2013), in order for data to be considered normal, z-scores should be smaller than 1.96 for small sample sizes ($n < 50$), and 3.29 for medium-sized samples ($50 < n < 300$). Because the sample size in the actual study was medium ($N = 94$), z-values smaller than 3.29 were interpreted as normal (Kim, 2013). After analyzing z-scores for each research question, boxplots were also examined because boxplots reveal outliers, who have scores well below or above the majority of the participants, and this might also affect data normality (see Appendix C). As the final step for normality check, the difference between mean values and 5% trimmed mean values, which is calculated by removing the top and the bottom 5% of all the cases, were calculated. Differences between mean values and 5% trimmed mean values which were smaller than .15 were interpreted as normal (Pallant, 2011). The research questions and the normality assessment for each research question is explained in the following section.

Question 1) To what extent do EFL instructors engage in reflective practice, and to what extent do EFL instructors engage in the practical, cognitive, learner-related, meta-cognitive, and critical components of reflective practice?

Because this research question is of descriptive nature and because it does not involve any comparison between different groups, no normality assessment was made for this question.

Question 2) What are EFL instructors' perceived levels of their possible (ideal, feared, and ought-to) language teacher selves?

Because this research question is of descriptive nature and because it does not involve any comparison between different groups, no normality assessment was made for this question.

Question 3) Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current reflective practices (RP) and their ideal language teacher selves (ILTS), feared language teacher selves (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher selves (OLTS)?

The normality assessment analyses for this research question were run following the procedures explained at the beginning of this section. The analysis showed that all normality values for this question were found to be within the limits of -3.29 and + 3.29, which is the appropriate criterion in medium-sized samples (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012; Kim, 2013). For RP composite scores, skewness (0.27) was divided by standard error (0.25). The z-score obtained from the division was 1.1. Kurtosis for RP composite scores (-0.08) was divided by standard error (0.49) and the result was -0.17. When the boxplot for RP composite scores was checked, one outlier was detected. Therefore, the difference between the mean score (3.2) and trimmed mean score (3.2) was calculated. The difference between the mean score and the trimmed mean score was 0.01, which is smaller than the acceptable top limit of 0.15. For ILTS composite score, when skewness (-0.15) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -0.60. When kurtosis for ILTS (-0.03) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -0.06, and no outliers were detected in the boxplot for ILTS composite scores. For FLTS composite score, when skewness (-0.64) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -2.57. When kurtosis for FLTS (-0.66) was

divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -1.34, and no outliers were detected in the boxplot for FLTS composite scores. For OLTS composite score, when skewness (-0.79) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -3.16. When kurtosis for OLTS (1.23) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was 2.50. When the boxplot of OLTS composite scores was checked, two outliers were detected. Therefore, the difference between the mean score (3.77) and trimmed mean score (3.80) was calculated. The difference between the mean score and the trimmed mean score was 0.04, which is smaller than the acceptable top limit of 0.15 (Pallant, 2011). In conclusion, all the data were found to be within normality levels; therefore, parametric tests were utilized to answer this question.

Question a. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current practical reflective practice (PRP) and their ideal language teacher selves (ILTS), feared language teacher selves (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher selves (OLTS)? The analysis showed that all normality values for this question were found to be within the limits of -3.29 and + 3.29. For PRP composite scores, skewness (0.30) was divided by standard error (0.25). The z-score obtained from the division was 1.20. Kurtosis for PRP composite scores (-0.27) was divided by standard error (0.49) and the result was -0.56. No outliers were found upon the inspection of the boxplot for PRP composite scores. For ILTS composite score, when skewness (-0.15) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -0.60. When kurtosis for ILTS (-0.03) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -0.06, and no outliers were detected in the boxplot for PRP composite scores. For FLTS composite score, when skewness (-0.64) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -2.57. When kurtosis for FLTS (-0.66) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -1.34, and no outliers were detected in the boxplot for

FLTS composite scores. For OLTS composite score, when skewness (-0.79) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -3.16. When kurtosis for OLTS (1.23) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was 2.50. When the boxplot of OLTS composite scores was checked, two outliers were detected, and the difference between the mean score (3.77) and trimmed mean score (3.80) was calculated. The difference between the mean score and the trimmed mean score was 0.04, which is smaller than the acceptable top limit of 0.15 (Pallant, 2011). To conclude, all the data were found to be within normality levels for this question, and therefore, parametric tests were utilized to answer this question.

Question b. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current cognitive reflective teacher practice (CORP) and their ideal language teacher selves (ILTS), feared language teacher selves (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher selves (OLTS)? The analysis showed that all normality values for this question were found to be within the limits of -3.29 and + 3.29. For CORP composite scores, skewness (0.62) was divided by standard error (0.25). The z-score obtained from the division was 2.49. Kurtosis for CORP composite scores (0.15) was divided by standard error (0.49) and the result was 0.30. For CORP composite scores, no outliers were detected in the boxplot. For ILTS composite score, when skewness (-0.15) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -0.60. When kurtosis for ILTS (-.03) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -0.06. For ILTS composite scores, no outliers were detected in the boxplot. For FLTS composite score, when skewness (-0.64) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -2.57. When kurtosis for FLTS (-0.66) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -1.34, and no outliers were detected in the boxplot for FLTS composite scores. For OLTS composite score, when skewness (-

0.79) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -3.16. When kurtosis for OLTS (1.23) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was 2.50. When the boxplot of OLTS composite scores was checked, two outliers were detected, and the difference between the mean score (3.77) and trimmed mean score (3.80) was calculated. The difference between the mean score and the trimmed mean score was 0.04, which is smaller than the acceptable top limit of 0.15 (Pallant, 2011). To conclude, since all the data were within normality levels, parametric tests were utilized to answer this question.

Question c. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current learner-related reflective teacher practice (LRP) and their ideal language teacher selves (ILTS), feared language teacher selves (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher selves (OLTS)? The analysis showed that all normality values for this question were found to be within the limits of -3.29 and + 3.29. For LRP composite scores, skewness (-0.33) was divided by standard error (0.25). The z-score obtained from the division was -1.34 Kurtosis for LRP composite scores (0.52) was divided by standard error (0.49) and the result was 1.06. One outlier was detected for the LRP composite score in the boxplot, so the difference between the mean score (3.52) and trimmed mean score (3.53) was calculated. The difference between the mean score and the trimmed mean score was 0.01, which is smaller than the acceptable top limit of 0.15. For ILTS composite score, when skewness (-0.15) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -0.60. When kurtosis for ILTS (-0.03) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -0.06. There were no outliers in the boxplot of ILTS composite score. For FLTS composite score, when skewness (-0.64) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was - 2.57. When kurtosis for FLTS (-0.66) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result

was -1.34, and no outliers were detected in the boxplot for FLTS composite scores. For OLTS composite score, when skewness (-0.79) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -3.16. When kurtosis for OLTS (1.23) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was 2.50. When the boxplot of OLTS composite scores was checked, two outliers were detected, and the difference between the mean score (3.77) and trimmed mean score (3.80) was calculated. The difference between the mean score and the trimmed mean score was 0.04, which is smaller than the acceptable top limit of 0.15 (Pallant, 2011). In conclusion, because all the data were within normality levels, parametric tests were used for answering this question.

Question d. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current meta-cognitive reflective practice (MRP) and their ideal language teacher selves (ILTS), feared language teacher selves (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher selves (OLTS)? The analysis showed that all normality values for this question were found to be within the limits of -3.29 and + 3.29 except for the MRP composite skewness z-scores. For MRP composite scores, skewness (-0.86) was divided by standard error (0.25). The z-score obtained from the division was -3.45, which was not between the limits of -3.29 and + 3.29. Kurtosis for MRP composite scores (-0.42) was divided by standard error (0.49) and the result was -0.84. The boxplot of the MRP was inspected and no outliers were found. In addition, trimmed mean scores (2.99) were subtracted from mean scores (2.98), and the result was 0.01, which is smaller than the acceptable top limit of 0.15. As a result, the data for the MRP was interpreted as normal. For ILTS composite score, when skewness (-0.15) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -0.60. When kurtosis for ILTS (-0.03) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -0.06, and no outliers were detected for ILTS composite score boxplot. For FLTS

composite score, when skewness (-0.64) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -2.57. When kurtosis for FLTS (-0.66) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -1.34, and there were no outliers in the boxplot for FLTS composite scores. For OLTS composite score, when skewness (-0.79) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -3.16. When kurtosis for OLTS (1.23) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was 2.50. When the boxplot of OLTS composite scores was checked, two outliers were detected, and the difference between the mean score (3.77) and trimmed mean score (3.80) was calculated. The difference between the mean score and the trimmed mean score was 0.04, which is smaller than the acceptable top limit of 0.15 (Pallant, 2011). To conclude, since all the data were within normality levels, parametric tests were utilized for answering this question.

Question e. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current critical reflective teacher practice (CRRP) and their ideal language teacher selves (ILTS), feared language teacher selves (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher selves (OLTS)? The analysis showed that all normality values for this question were found to be within the limits of -3.29 and + 3.29. For CRRP composite scores, skewness (-0.04) was divided by standard error (0.25). The z-score obtained from the division was -0.14. Kurtosis for CRRP composite scores (-0.25) was divided by standard error (0.49) and the result was -0.49. When the boxplot for CRRP was inspected, no outliers were found. For ILTS composite score, when skewness (-0.15) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -0.60. When kurtosis for ILTS (-0.03) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -0.06, and no outliers were detected in the ILTS boxplot. For FLTS composite score, when skewness (-0.64) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -2.57.

When kurtosis for FLTS (-0.67) was divided by standard error (0.49), the result was -1.34, and there were no outliers in the boxplot for FLTS composite scores. For OLTS composite score, when skewness (-0.79) was divided by standard error (0.25), the result was -3.16. When kurtosis for OLTS (1.231) was divided by standard error (0.493), the result was 2.50. When the boxplot of OLTS composite scores was checked, two outliers were detected, and the difference between the mean score (3.77) and trimmed mean score (3.80) was calculated. The difference between the mean score and the trimmed mean score was 0.04, which is smaller than the acceptable top limit of 0.15 (Pallant, 2011). In conclusion, all the data were within normality levels, and parametric tests were utilized for answering this question.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the methodology of the current study was provided by explaining the research design, sampling, setting, participants, instrumentation, piloting, data collection, data analysis, item reliability analysis, and normality assessment. In the next chapter, the results of the study will be explained in detail.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

The present study is designed to investigate whether there is a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' reflective practices and their possible language teacher selves. To this end, the study seeks to provide answers for the following questions:

1. To what extent do EFL instructors engage in reflective practice?
2. What are EFL instructors' perceived levels of their possible language teacher selves?
3. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current overall reflective practice and their possible language teacher selves?

Sub-questions:

- a. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current practical reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- b. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current cognitive reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- c. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current learner-related reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- d. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current meta-cognitive reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher

- e. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current critical reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?

In this study, 94 EFL instructors' reflective practices and their perceived levels of their possible language teacher selves were examined to answer the research questions above. The data were collected through an online survey, consisting of six sections (see Appendix A). The first section is composed of an Informed Consent form. The second section is the English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory (ELTRI) (Akbari et al., 2010). The following three sections are the Ideal Language Teacher Self (ILTS), Feared Language Teacher Self (FLTS), and Ought-to Language Teacher Self (OLTS) scales, which were adapted from Three Measures of Possible Language Teacher Selves (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019). The sixth and the final part of the questionnaire, which consists of demographic questions, was designed to collect data about participants' age, gender, years of teaching experience, country, last degree earned, qualifications, and the department they graduated from. The quantitative data of the study were analyzed using SPSS v. 25.

Results of the Study

The results of the current study, which was designed to investigate whether there was a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' reflective teacher practices and their possible language teacher selves, will be presented under three sections as EFL Instructors' Engagement in Reflective Practice, EFL Instructors' Perceived Levels of Their Possible Language Teacher Selves, and The Relationship Between EFL Instructors' Reflective Practice and Their Possible Language Teacher Selves. Results regarding each separate research question are interpreted in this part.

EFL Instructors' Engagement in Reflective Practice

RQ 1. To what extent do EFL instructors engage in reflective practice?

In order to answer the first research question, descriptive statistics were utilized. First, EFL instructors' engagement in overall reflective practice was analyzed by including all components of reflective practice. Then, EFL instructors' practices of five components of reflective practice were analyzed separately. Table 12 shows the mean scores of EFL instructors' overall reflective practice (ORP), and the mean scores of EFL instructors' engagement in five components of reflective practice, which are practical reflective practice (PRP), cognitive reflective practice (CORP), learner-related reflective practice (LRP), meta-cognitive reflective practice (MRP), and critical reflective practice (CRRP).

Table 12

EFL Instructors' Engagement in ORP and Five Components of Reflective Practice

Construct	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
ORP	3.20	0.56
1. PRP	2.92	0.66
2. CORP	2.75	0.82
3. LRP	3.52	0.74
4. MRP	3.82	0.63
5. CRRP	2.98	0.76

The results of the descriptive statistical analyses revealed that EFL instructors engaged in overall reflective practice slightly more than “sometimes” with a mean of 3.20 ($SD = 0.56$) in terms of the frequency of their overall reflective practices. As for EFL instructors' engagement in five components of reflective practice, the results

showed that EFL instructors practiced meta-cognitive reflective practice the most frequently among all types of reflective practice. Meta-cognitive reflective practice includes practices such as thinking about one's strengths and weaknesses as a teacher, reflecting on one's teaching philosophy, or the inconsistencies and contradictions that occur in the teaching practice (Akbari et al., 2010). EFL instructors reported to engage in such meta-cognitive reflective practice often, with a mean of 3.82 ($SD = 0.63$). The highest score for meta-cognitive reflective practice belonged to the item which was "I think about my strengths and weaknesses as a teacher" with a mean of 4.14 ($SD = 0.77$), and the lowest score belonged to the item which was "I think of the ways my biography or background affects the way I define myself as a teacher" with a mean of 3.63 ($SD = 0.89$). Table 13 shows item frequencies for MRP.

Table 13

Item Frequencies for MRP

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
5- I think about my strengths and weaknesses as a teacher.	4.14	0.77
4- I try to find out which aspects of my teaching provide me with a sense of satisfaction.	3.94	0.84
3 - I think of the meaning or the significance of my job as a teacher.	3.86	0.81
1- As a teacher, I think about my teaching philosophy and the way it is affecting my teaching.	3.76	0.85
6- I think of the positive/negative role models I have had as a student and the way they have affected me in my practice.	3.74	0.89

Table 13 (cont'd)

Item Frequencies for MRP

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
7- I think of inconsistencies and contradictions that occur in my classroom practice.	3.70	0.85
2 - I think of the ways my biography or my background affects the way I define myself as a teacher.	3.63	0.89

The next most frequently reported reflective practice was learner-related reflective practice, which is about reflecting over matters related mostly to learners, such as talking to learners to explore their backgrounds, families, learning styles, or preferences (Akbari et al., 2010). The results revealed that EFL instructors often engaged in learner-related reflective practice, with a mean of 3.52 ($SD = 0.74$). The highest score for learner-related reflective practice belonged to the item which was “I talk to my students to learn about their learning styles and preferences” with a mean of 3.57 ($SD = 0.89$), and the lowest score belonged to the item which was “I talk to my students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests and abilities” with a mean of 3.44 ($SD = 0.96$). Table 14 displays item frequencies for LRP.

Table 14

Item Frequencies for LRP

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1 - I talk to my students to learn about their learning styles and preferences.	3.57	0.90
3- I ask my students whether they like a teaching task or not.	3.55	0.88

Table 14 (cont'd)

Item Frequencies for LRP

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
2- I talk to my students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests and abilities.	3.44	0.96

Critical reflective practice was the third most frequently practice type of reflection among EFL instructors. Critical reflective practice is mainly about integrating important and less frequently discussed topics such as old age, or discrimination about women, into classroom, or reflecting on the impact of social events on one's teaching (Akbari et al., 2010). The results showed that critical reflective practice is sometimes practiced by EFL instructors with a mean of 2.98 ($SD = 0.76$). The highest score for critical reflective practice belonged to the item which was "I think of ways through which I can promote tolerance and democracy in my classes and in the society in general" with a mean of 3.55 ($SD = 0.95$), and the lowest score belonged to the item which was "I think about the political aspects of my teaching and the way I may affect my students' political views" with a mean of 2.30 ($SD = 1.04$). Table 15 displays item frequencies for CRRP.

Table 15

Item Frequencies for CRRP

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
5 - I think of ways through which I can promote tolerance and democracy in my classes and in the society in general.	3.55	0.95
7 - I think of outside social events that can influence my teaching inside the class.	3.28	0.97

Table 15 (cont'd)

Item Frequencies for CRRP

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
6- I think about the ways gender, social class, and race influence my students' achievements.	3.16	1.05
2- I think of ways to enable my students to change their social lives in fighting poverty, discrimination, and gender bias.	2.93	1.06
3- In my teaching, I include less-discussed topics, such as old age, AIDS, discrimination against women and minorities, and poverty.	2.83	1.04
1 - I think about instances of social injustice in my own surroundings and try to discuss them in my classes.	2.79	0.96
4- I think about the political aspects of my teaching and the way I may affect my students' political views.	2.30	1.04

Similar to critical reflective practice, practical reflective practice was also sometimes practiced by EFL instructors, with a mean of 2.92 ($SD = 0.66$). Practical reflective practice refers to practical instances of reflection such as discussing theoretical or practical issues related to teaching with other instructors, or observing other instructors to gain insights into efficient teaching practices (Akbari et al., 2010). The highest score for practical reflective practice belonged to the item which was “I talk about my classroom experiences with my colleagues and seek their advice/feedback” with a mean of 3.82 ($SD = 0.80$), and the lowest score belonged to the item which was “I ask my peers to observe my teaching and comment on my

teaching performance” with a mean of 2.03 (SD = 0.85). Table 16 displays item frequencies for PRP.

Table 16

Item Frequencies for PRP

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1- I talk about my classroom experiences with my colleagues and seek their advice/feedback.	3.82	0.80
2 - I discuss practical/theoretical issues with my colleagues.	3.70	0.85
3 - I observe other teachers' classrooms to learn about their efficient practices.	2.12	0.85
4- I ask my peers to observe my teaching and comment on my teaching performance.	2.03	0.85

The least frequently practiced component of reflective practice was found to be cognitive reflective practice. Cognitive reflective practice includes practices such as attending conferences for professional development, publishing articles over educational matters, or conducting small-scale research (Akbari et al., 2010).

According to the results, EFL instructors sometimes engaged in cognitive reflective practice, with a mean of 2.75 (SD = 0.82). The highest score for cognitive reflective practice belonged to the item which was “I participate in workshops/conferences related to teaching/learning issues” with a mean of 3.15 (SD = 0.79), and the lowest score belonged to the item which was “I think of writing articles based on my classroom experiences” with a mean of 2.17 (SD = 1.04). Although cognitive reflective practice had the lowest score among all other components of reflective practice, it was still close to practical reflective practice and critical reflective

practice in terms of their frequency. Similar to practical reflective practice and critical reflective practice, cognitive reflective practice was also sometimes utilized by EFL instructors. Table 17 displays item frequencies for CORP.

Table 17

Item Frequencies for CORP

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
2- I participate in workshops/conferences related to teaching/learning issues.	3.15	0.79
1 - I read books/articles related to effective teaching to improve my classroom performance.	2.98	0.98
4 - I look at journal articles or search the Internet to see what the recent developments in my profession are.	2.95	1.09
6 - I think of classroom events as potential research topics and think of finding a method for investigating them.	2.89	1.12
5 - I carry out small scale research activities in my classes to become better informed of learning/teaching processes.	2.36	1.11
3 - I think of writing articles based on my classroom experiences.	2.17	1.04

In summary, the EFL instructors who participated in the current research study reported that they sometimes engaged in overall reflective practice. The results revealed that EFL instructors often engaged in metacognitive and learner-related aspects of reflective practice, whereas they only sometimes engaged in critical, practical, and cognitive dimensions of reflective practice.

EFL Instructors' Perceived Levels of Their Possible Language Teacher Selves

RQ 2. What are EFL instructors' perceived levels of their possible (ideal, feared, ought-to) language teacher selves? In order to answer the second research question, descriptive statistics were utilized by analyzing EFL instructors' perceived levels of their ideal language teacher selves, feared language teacher selves, and ought-to language teacher selves separately. Table 18 shows the mean scores of EFL instructors' perceived levels of their ideal language teacher selves (ILTS), feared language teacher selves (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher selves (OLTS).

Table 18

EFL Instructors' Perceived Levels of Their Possible Language Teacher Selves

Scale	Mean scores	Standard deviation
ILTS	4.13	0.47
FLTS	3.46	1.11
OLTS	3.77	0.75

The results revealed that EFL instructors' perceived levels of their ILTS had the highest value, with a mean of 4.13 (SD = 0.47). ILTS is a future dimension of language teachers' future visions of themselves, which is dominated by the presence of positive cognitive representations of the language teacher as having achieved their goals and aspirations (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009, 2012). The highest score for ILTS belonged to the item which was "I would like to be a language teacher who can create a comfortable learning environment in his/her classes" with a mean of 4.53 (SD = 0.56), and the lowest score belonged to the item which was "I would like to be a language teacher who uses L2 all the time when teaching" with a mean of 3.41 (SD

= 1.05). According to the results obtained from the analysis, EFL instructors reported that they strongly agreed that they had cognitive future representations of their ideal language teacher selves. The item frequencies for ILTS are displayed in Table 19.

Table 19

Item Frequencies for ILTS

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
4- I would like to be a language teacher who can create a comfortable learning environment in his/her classes.	4.53	0.56
2- I would like to be a language teacher who sets a great example for his/her students in using English effectively.	4.48	0.56
8- I would like to be a language teacher who has good rapport with his/her students.	4.45	0.68
1- I would like to be a language teacher who has a perfect command of the English language.	4.32	0.64
6- I would like to be a language teacher who can adopt various strategies to facilitate the learning process.	4.31	0.66
9- I would like to be a language teacher who is liked by her students.	4.28	0.68
5- I would like to be a language teacher whose lessons are considered to be fun by his/her students.	4.19	0.78
10- I would like to be a language teacher who gets excited/happy by the thought of teaching.	4.18	0.73
13- I would like to be a language teacher who tries to expand his/her professional/content knowledge.	4.14	0.70

Table 19 (cont'd)

Item Frequencies for ILTS

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
7- I would like to be a language teacher who caters for students' learning styles and preferences.	4.11	0.65
12- I would like to be a language teacher who can use a variety of sources for lesson plans and classroom practices.	4.05	0.81
15- I would like to be a language teacher who can integrate technology into his/her teaching practice effectively.	3.97	0.77
14- I would like to be a language teacher who attends workshops, seminars, and conferences to keep up with the latest trends in his/her practice.	3.79	0.82
11- I would like to be a language teacher who looks forward to another day at work.	3.69	0.92
3- I would like to be a language teacher who uses L2 all the time when teaching.	3.41	1.05

OLTS was found to have the second highest score among all types of possible language teacher selves, with a mean of 3.77 ($SD = 0.75$). OLTS mainly represents language teachers' visions of themselves, which include their future obligations and responsibilities as shaped up by external forces such as the school administration, colleagues, parents, or students (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009, 2012). The highest score for OLTS belonged to the item which was "I think I should become a language teacher who can create a stress-free classroom atmosphere because my students expect it from me" with a mean of 4.02 ($SD = 0.90$), and the lowest score

belonged to the item which was “I think I should become a language teacher who uses L2 all the time in the classroom as it is expected from me by my institution/by my students” with a mean of 3.46 ($SD = 0.97$). The responses of EFL instructors showed that they agreed to have a clear OLTS regarding their future visions of themselves. The item frequencies for OLTS are displayed in Table 20.

Table 20

Item Frequencies for OLTS

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
2- I think I should become a language teacher who can create a stress-free classroom atmosphere because my students expect it from me.	4.02	0.90
5- I think I should become a language teacher who takes different learner needs into account while teaching as catering for different learner needs is expected from me by my students.	3.88	0.83
4- I think I should become a language teacher who employs different teaching strategies in his/her classes because my students expect it from me.	3.87	0.78
7- I think I should become a language teacher who looks motivated in the classroom as it is expected from me by my students/my institution.	3.86	1.02
1- I think I should become a language teacher who is an adept user of English because I am expected to be an adept speaker of English by my institution/students.	3.85	0.86

Table 20 (cont'd)

Item Frequencies for OLTS

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
6- I think I should become a language teacher who maintains a good relationship with his/her students because it is an expectation from my institution/students.	3.84	0.99
8- I think I should become a language teacher who uses a variety of materials while teaching because of my students' expectations from me.	3.76	0.92
11- I think I should become a language teacher who makes use of technology in his/her teaching practice because of my students' expectations from me to make use of technology in my classes.	3.71	0.88
9- I think I should become a language teacher who can keep up with recent developments in teaching as it is expected from me by my institution/colleagues.	3.70	0.96
10- I think I should become a language teacher who participates in professional development activities in his/her institution or elsewhere because it is expected from me by my institution.	3.51	0.98
3- I think I should become a language teacher who uses L2 all the time in the classroom as it is expected from me by my institution/by my students.	3.46	0.97

EFL instructors' perceived levels of their FLTS had the lowest score among all possible language teacher selves with a mean of 3.47 ($SD = 1.12$). FLTS is a dimension of language teachers' cognition, which is comprised of negative future mental versions of themselves that they would like to avoid becoming (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009, 2012). The highest score for FLTS belonged to the item which was "I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who cannot use the English language skillfully" with a mean of 3.64 ($SD = 1.32$), and the lowest score belonged to the item which was "I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who is tired of preparing lesson plans for every class" with a mean of 3.28 ($SD = 1.15$). Table 21 shows item frequencies for FLTS.

Table 21

Item Frequencies for FLTS

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who cannot use the English language skillfully.	3.64	1.33
8- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who disregards his/her students' feelings.	3.59	1.47
5- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher whose students do not enjoy his/her classes.	3.57	1.36
2- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher whose students do not admire his/her proficiency in English.	3.57	1.32
6- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who uses the same teaching methods in all classes.	3.56	1.23
10- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who does not care about his/her students.	3.51	1.45

Table 21 (cont'd)

Item Frequencies for FLTS

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
4- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher whose classes are known as stressful.	3.50	1.35
9- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher whose students do not like him/her.	3.47	1.38
13- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who keeps using the same materials every year.	3.43	1.12
14- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who gets tired of learning.	3.40	1.31
7- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who does not take learner differences into account.	3.40	1.27
15- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who cannot keep up with recent trends in education.	3.39	1.17
12- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who feels exhausted by the thought of another day at work.	3.37	1.24
3- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who predominantly uses L1 in the classroom.	3.37	1.25
16- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who cannot use technological tools effectively in his/her classes.	3.29	1.21
11- I am afraid of becoming a language teacher who is tired of preparing lesson plans for every class.	3.28	1.15

The results from the current study indicated that EFL instructors' visions of their FLTS were the least clear among all possible language teacher selves. The mean scores of EFL instructors' responses were between neither agree/nor disagree to agree, which implies that their visions of their FLTS were not very vivid.

In conclusion, the results obtained from the descriptive statistical analysis conducted for the second research question revealed that EFL instructors possessed all three types of possible language teacher selves at different levels. The most dominant type of possible language teacher self was found to be the ILTS, which was followed by the OLTS, and EFL instructors' future visions of themselves as language teachers were least dominated by their FLTS.

The Relationship Between EFL Instructors' Reflective Practice and Their Possible Language Teacher Selves

RQ 3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current overall reflective practice and their ideal, feared, ought-to language teacher selves? In order to answer the third research question and the five sub-questions related to the third research question, Pearson Correlation Test was utilized as the data for this question were found to be normal. Correlation coefficients were computed to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' overall reflective practice (ORP), and their ideal (ILTS), feared (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher selves (OLTS). The correlation coefficients are displayed in Table 22.

Table 22

Correlation between ORP and ELTS, FLTS, OLTS

Construct	ELTS	FLTS	OLTS
ORP	.459**	.219*	.284**

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In this question, the first null hypothesis was “There is no statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors’ overall reflective practice and their ideal language teacher selves”. According to the results obtained from the analysis, the null hypothesis was rejected for the correlation between ORP and ELTS. As Ratner (2009) stated, the r values between 0 and 0.3 indicate a weak relationship, the r values between 0.3 and 0.7 indicate a moderate relationship, and the r values between 0.7 and 1.0 indicate a strong relationship between variables. Therefore, the results showed that there was a moderate positive correlation between ORP and ELTS ($p < .001$, $r = .46$, $r^2 = .21$), with a shared variance of 21%.

The second null hypothesis for the third research question was “There is no statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors’ overall reflective practice and their feared language teacher selves”. This null hypothesis was also rejected for the correlation between ORP and FLTS. The results indicated a weak positive correlation between ORP and FLTS ($p = .035$, $r = .22$, $r^2 = .048$) with a shared variance of 5%.

The third null hypothesis for this research question was “There is no statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors’ overall reflective practice and their ought-to language teacher selves”. The null hypothesis was rejected for the correlation between ORP and OLTS. According to the results, there

was a weak positive correlation between ORP and OLTS ($p = .006$, $r = .28$, $r^2 = .08$) with a shared variance of 8%.

In conclusion, ORP had a statistically significant relationship with all three types of possible language teacher selves. The highest correlation was found to be between ORP and ILTS, which was followed by the correlation between ORP and OLTS, and the correlation between ORP and FLTS, respectively.

RQ 3. Sub-questions. In order to answer these research questions, Pearson Correlation Test was utilized as the data for this question were found to be normal. Correlation coefficients were computed to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' reflective practice types, which are practical reflective practice (PRP), cognitive reflective practice (CORP), learner-related reflective practice (LRP), meta-cognitive reflective practice (MRP), critical reflective practice (CRRP) reflective practice, and their ideal language teacher selves (ILTS), feared language teacher selves (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher selves (OLTS). The correlation coefficients are displayed in Table 23.

Table 23

Correlation between EFL Instructors' Reflective Practice Types and ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS

Construct	ILTS	FLTS	OLTS
PRP	.410**	.274**	.175
CORP	.448**	.071	.254*
LRP	.315**	.028	.153
MRP	.472**	.301**	.339**
CRRP	.162	.159	.139

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

a: Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current practical reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves? In this question, the first null hypothesis was “there is no statistically significant relationship between PRP and ILTS”. According to the results, the null hypothesis was rejected for the correlation between PRP and ILTS. Ratner (2009) states that the r values between 0 and 0.3 indicate a weak relationship, the r values between 0.3 and 0.7 indicate a moderate relationship, and the r values between 0.7 and 1.0 indicate a strong relationship between variables. The results revealed that there was a moderate positive relationship between PRP and ILTS ($p < .001$, $r = .41$, $r^2 = .17$) with a shared variance of 17%.

The second null hypothesis for this question was “there is no statistically significant relationship between PRP and FLTS”. According to the results, the null hypothesis was rejected for the correlation between PRP and FLTS, and there was a moderate positive relationship between PRP and FLTS ($p = .008$, $r = .27$, $r^2 = .07$) with a shared variance of 7 %.

The third null hypothesis was “there is no statistically significant relationship between PRP and OLTS”. According to the results, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected for the correlation between PRP and OLTS ($p = .091$, $r = .175$, $r^2 = .03$), and there was no statistically significant relation between PRP and OLTS.

Overall, regarding the relationship between PRP and the three possible language teacher selves, PRP was found to have a statistically significant relationship with ILTS, and FLTS, but not with OLTS.

b. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current cognitive reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves? In this question, the first null hypothesis was “there is no statistically

significant relationship between CORP and ILTS”. The results revealed that the null hypothesis was rejected for the correlation between CORP and ILTS. According to Ratner (2009), when the r values are between 0 and 0.3, there is a weak relationship; when the r values are between 0.3 and 0.7, there is a moderate relationship, and when the r values are between 0.7 and 1.0, there is a strong relationship between variables. Based on the results, there was a moderate positive relationship between CORP and ILTS ($p < .001$, $r = .45$, $r^2 = .20$) with a shared variance of 20%.

The second null hypothesis for this question was “there is no statistically significant relationship between CORP and FLTS”. According to the results, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected for the correlation between CORP and FLTS ($p = .499$, $r = .07$, $r^2 = .00$), and there was no statistically significant relation between CORP and FLTS.

The third hypothesis for this question was “there is no statistically significant relationship between CORP and OLTS”. The results revealed that the null hypothesis was rejected for the correlation between CORP and OLTS. The results showed that there was a weak positive relationship between CORP and OLTS ($p = .014$, $r = .25$, $r^2 = .06$) with a shared variance of 6 %.

In summary, CORP was found to have a statistically significant relationship with ILTS, and OLTS, but not with FLTS.

c. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current learner-related reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves? In this question, the first null hypothesis was “there is no statistically significant relationship between LRP and ILTS”. The results revealed that the null hypothesis was rejected for the correlation between LRP and ILTS. As Ratner (2009) states, the r values from 0 and 0.3 are accepted as weak, the r values

from 0.3 to 0.7 are accepted as moderate, and the r values from 0.7 to 1 are accepted as strong in terms of the strength of the correlation between variables. According to the results, there was a weak positive relationship between LRP and ILTS ($p = .002$, $r = .32$, $r^2 = .10$) with a shared variance of 10%.

The second null hypothesis for this question was “there is no statistically significant relationship between LRP and FLTS”. According to the results, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected for the correlation between LRP and FLTS ($p = .791$, $r = .03$, $r^2 = .00$), and there was no statistically significant relation between LRP and FLTS.

The third null hypothesis for this question was “there is no statistically significant relationship between LRP and OLTS”. According to the results, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected for the correlation between LRP and OLTS ($p = .141$, $r = .15$, $r^2 = .02$), and there was no statistically significant relation between LRP and OLTS.

In summary, LRP was found to have a statistically significant relationship only with ILTS, but not with FLTS or OLTS.

d. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current meta-cognitive reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves? In this question, the first null hypothesis was “there is no statistically significant relationship between MRP and ILTS”. The results revealed that the null hypothesis was rejected for the correlation between MRP and ILTS. According to Ratner (2009), when the r values are between 0 and 0.3, there is a weak relationship; when the r values are between 0.3 and 0.7, there is a moderate relationship, and when the r values are between 0.7 and 1.0, there is a strong

relationship between variables. The results indicated a moderate positive relationship between MRP and ILTS ($p < .001$, $r = .47$, $r^2 = .22$) with a shared variance of 22%.

The second null hypothesis for this question was “there is no statistically significant relationship between MRP and FLTS”. The results revealed that the null hypothesis was rejected for the correlation between MRP and FLTS. According to the results, there was a weak positive relationship between MRP and ILTS ($p = .003$, $r = .30$, $r^2 = .09$) with a shared variance of 9 %.

In this question, the third null hypothesis was “there is no statistically significant relationship between MRP and OLTS”. The results revealed that the null hypothesis was rejected for the correlation between MRP and OLTS. According to the results, there was a weak positive relationship between MRP and ILTS ($p = .001$, $r = .34$, $r^2 = .11$) with a shared variance of 11 %.

In summary, MRP was found to have a statistically significant relationship with ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS.

e. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current critical reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves? In this question, the first null hypothesis was “there is no statistically significant relationship between CRRP and ILTS”. According to the results, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected for the correlation between CRRP and ILTS ($p = .119$, $r = .16$, $r^2 = .03$), and there was no statistically significant relation between CRRP and ILTS.

The second null hypothesis for this question was “there is no statistically significant relationship between CRRP and FLTS”. According to the results, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected for the correlation between CRRP and FLTS ($p =$

.126, $r = .16$, $r^2 = .03$), and there was no statistically significant relation between CRRP and FLTS.

In this question, the third null hypothesis was “there is no statistically significant relationship between CRRP and OLTS”. According to the results, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected for the correlation between CRRP and OLTS ($p = .183$, $r = .14$, $r^2 = .03$), and there was no statistically significant relation between CRRP and OLTS.

The overall results obtained from the five sub-questions of the third research question indicated that out of all the five components of reflective practice, practical, cognitive, learner-related, and meta-cognitive reflective practice had a statistically significant relationship with at least one type of possible language teacher selves. The first component of reflective practice, PRP, had a statistically significant relationship with both ILTS and FLTS. The second component, CORP, had a statistically significant relationship with ILTS and OLTS. LRP had statistically significant relationship only with ILTS, whereas MRP had a statistically significant relationship with ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS. MRP was the only type of RP which had a statistically significant relationship with all three types of possible language teacher selves. On the other hand, the fifth component of reflective practice, CRRP, had no statistically significant relationship with any type of possible language teacher selves.

Conclusion

This study investigated EFL instructors’ reflective practices and their perceived levels of their possible language teacher selves. The study also investigated whether there was a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors’ reflective practices and their possible language teacher selves. The

findings from the quantitative data collected for the study were presented in this chapter. The next chapter will be dedicated to the discussion and conclusion of these findings, along with pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research.



CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

Introduction

This chapter begins with an overview of the present study. Following the overview, the chapter provides the discussion of major findings about the engagement of EFL instructors in reflective practice, EFL instructors' perceived levels of their possible language teachers selves, and the relationship between EFL instructors' reflective practices and their possible language teacher selves. Next, implications for practice are discussed, which is followed by the limitations of the study and implications for further research.

Overview of the Study

The present study investigated the engagement of EFL instructors' in reflective practice, and their perceived levels of their possible language teacher selves. The study also examined whether there was a statistically significant relationship between five dimensions of EFL instructors' reflective practices and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves. To this end, the study sought to provide answers for the following research questions:

1. To what extent do EFL instructors engage in reflective practice?
2. What are EFL instructors' perceived levels of their possible language teacher selves?
3. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current overall reflective practice and their possible language teacher selves?

Sub-questions:

- a. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current practical reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- b. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current cognitive reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- c. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current learner-related reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- d. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current meta-cognitive reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?
- e. Is there any statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' current critical reflective practice and their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves?

In this study, 94 EFL instructors' levels of engagement in reflective practice and their perceived levels of their ideal, feared, and ought-to language teacher selves were investigated to answer the research questions above. Data were collected through an online survey, which consisted of six sections. The first section of the questionnaire was an Informed Consent form (see Appendix A), and the second section was the English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory (ELTRI) (Akbari et al., 2010), which was utilized to investigate reflective practices of EFL instructors. The following three sections were three scales named the Ideal Language Teacher Self (ILTS), Feared Language Teacher Self (FLTS), and Ought-to Language Teacher

Self (OLTS) scales, which were adapted from Three Measures of Possible Language Teacher Selves (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019). These three scales were used for examining EFL instructors' perceived levels of the three dimensions of their possible language teacher selves. The sixth and the final part of the questionnaire included demographic questions, which were designed to collect data about participants' age, gender, years of teaching experience, country, last degree earned, qualifications, and the department they graduated from. The quantitative data of the study were analyzed using SPSS v. 25 by conducting descriptive and inferential statistical procedures.

Discussion of Major Findings

Considering the results obtained from statistical analyses, some interpretations and assumptions can be made regarding EFL instructors' reflective practices, their possible language teacher selves, and the relationship between the sub-constructs of these two variables. The major findings related to each research question will be reported under three different sections, and the findings will be analyzed and interpreted with reference to relevant previous research. However, in the current study, only some relationships, similarities and differences can be supported from the previous studies because none of the current study's variables were investigated all together in previous research studies. Therefore, the connections between the major findings of the current study will be made by referring to individual studies in the following section.

EFL Instructors' Engagement in Reflective Practice

The results obtained from statistical analyses related to the first research question revealed that overall, EFL instructors reported that they *sometimes* engaged in reflective practice. Considering the five dimensions of reflective practice, EFL

instructors *often* preferred to engage in meta-cognitive reflective practice, which had the highest frequency among all components of reflective practice. Meta-cognitive reflective practice was followed by learner-related reflective practice, which was also *often* utilized by EFL instructors. The critical and practical dimensions of reflective practice were *sometimes* practiced by EFL instructors, with very close frequencies. Finally, the least frequently practiced component of reflective practice was the cognitive aspect, which was also *sometimes* practiced by EFL instructors. Compared to critical and practical reflective practice, which were also reported to be practiced *sometimes* by EFL instructors, cognitive reflective practice was utilized less frequently because it had a score almost in the middle of *sometimes* and *rarely*, whereas critical and practical reflective practice had scores very close to *sometimes*.

The analysis of each item in the five aspects listed under reflective practice revealed some important results. In the meta-cognitive aspect of reflective practice, instructors most frequently thought about their weaknesses and strengths as a teacher. As reflection is a critique of one's performance to become a better performer, and a practice which aims to critically think about the *self* (Clegg, 2009), this result may be predictable. A more frequent reflection over thinking about one's weaknesses and strengths might lead to a higher chance of identifying problematic areas or areas which need further development. The least frequently practiced meta-cognitive reflection was instructors' thinking about the impact of their backgrounds or biography on their teaching. This could be because thinking about one's background or biography is not strictly and directly related to day-to-day teaching practice, but rather a general contemplation about one's teaching, which could explain why it is less frequently practiced than other items in the meta-cognitive category.

EFL instructors reported to engage in the act of talking to their students to learn about their learning styles or preferences most frequently among the three learner-related reflective practices. The least preferred learner-related reflection was talking to students about their backgrounds and getting some personal information such as their hobbies, and interests. Although one of the items listed in this paragraph is reported as the most frequently performed learner-related reflective activity, and the other as the least practiced learner-related activity, their frequencies were significantly close to each other. The conclusion that can be drawn from these results might be that the EFL instructors in the study really care about their students and they are adamant about getting to know their students really well so that they could cater for their needs and preferences. It can also be argued that instructors feel that students' needs, preferences, and opinions have great significance on better teaching.

Critical reflective practice was the third most often utilized dimension of reflective practice according to the results. What teachers reported to practice the most often was thinking of ways to create an atmosphere of democracy and tolerance in and out of class. It can be argued that instructors in this institution feel responsible for creating such an atmosphere both in the class and out in the world. Instructors might feel that they have a role as potential actors who influence society both in and out of class. Regarding the fact that students at the institution are university students, instructors might feel that democracy and tolerance are concepts to be actively integrated into the lives of young adults. The least applied critical reflective practice by EFL instructors was thinking about the political aspects of their own teaching and the impact of their political views on learners. This practice was reported to be almost rarely practiced by instructors, which might indicate that the instructors who participated in the study do not regard personal political opinions as a vital

component of their teaching, and they might not feel that it is their duty to become role models for students with their political opinions.

Practical reflective practice had four aspects and the most frequently practiced aspect was talking to peers about teaching experiences and seeking advice or feedback from them. At the institution where the study was conducted, teachers share the responsibility of teaching a class collaboratively, and they teach in coordination with each other, explaining each other issues such as the content covered in the lesson, or discussing how students are performing. Because teachers are constantly in close communication with each other over such issues, it is possible that they engage in discussions or experience-sharing sessions with each other frequently. The results of the study revealed that the least frequently preferred type of practical reflective activity was asking peers to observe their teaching and comment on their teaching performance. This might be because observation is considered to be a challenging task and it is “seen as a notoriously threatening exercise, the main reason being teachers’ feeling of being checked on” (Kubanyiova, 2007, p. 233).

Among all five components of reflective practice, the EFL instructors in the study reported they performed cognitive reflective practice the least. Within the six reflection options in this category, the instructors preferred participating in workshops or conferences about issues regarding teaching and learning. One of the reasons for this could be the support of the institution to the staff to attend conferences or other professional development activities. The institution also designs in-service continuous professional development activities for instructors, making activities such as conferences or workshops more available and reachable. The least utilized cognitive reflective practice, on the other hand, was found to be writing

articles based on classroom experiences. Although the instructors who participated in the study work at a university, the position they hold as instructors do not require them to publish articles regularly. In addition, the investigation of classroom experiences might be better suited for action research, which is more related to the actual practice of teaching, and which takes less time than publishing an article, making it a more preferable option for teacher reflection.

The findings from the present study are in alignment with some previous studies in the literature in terms of the level of overall reflective practice EFL instructors engage in. Farzaneh and Mohammad (2014) reported that EFL teachers had an average level of reflection, which is very similar to the findings of the current study, which revealed that EFL instructors *sometimes* engaged in reflective practice. The findings also align with Dağkiran's (2015) study, where 390 participants were similarly reported to *sometimes* engage in overall reflective practice. The overall reflective practice levels of the EFL instructors who participated in the current study was also very close to the participants in Motallebzadeh et al.'s (2018) study, who had an average level of overall reflective practice.

The engagement of EFL instructors in five components of reflective practice in the present study show some similarities to previous research; however, there are also some differences. Studies conducted by Faghihi and Sarab (2016), and Moradkhani et al. (2017) indicated that participants engaged in the meta-cognitive aspect of reflective practice the most frequently, which is a finding that was also obtained in the current study. However, Kömür and Gün's (2016) study provided different findings. The English teachers who participated in that study most frequently engaged in the learner-related aspect of reflective practice, which is different than the findings in this study. In a validation study conducted by Xu et al.

(2015), classroom management and moral aspects were added to the five components of reflective practice, and it was reported that teachers preferred to reflect on classroom management and moral factors the most frequently. Because these two constructs were not present in the questionnaire used for the current study, the next most frequently practiced reflection was checked for comparison. The third most commonly utilized means of reflection in Xu et al.'s (2015) study was meta-cognitive reflection, which might be interpreted as similar to the results of the present study, where meta-cognitive reflection was the most commonly reported reflective practice. Finally, Motallebzadeh et al.'s (2018) study showed that teachers engaged in the learner-related aspect of reflective practice most frequently, which contrasts with the findings of the present study, where instructors utilized the meta-cognitive type of reflection the most.

EFL Instructors' Perceived Levels of Their Possible Language Teacher Selves

The results of the statistical analyses run for the current study revealed EFL instructors' perceived levels of their possible language teacher selves (PLTS) in terms of their ideal language teacher self (ILTS), feared language teacher self (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher self (OLTS). The findings showed that the ILTS, which represents language teachers' goals and aspirations that they would like to attain in the future, was more heavily present in EFL instructors' future self-representations as language teachers compared to the FLTS and the OLTS were. In other words, the most vivid mental self-representations of the EFL instructors who participated in the study belonged to instructors' ideal language teacher versions of themselves in the future, which they would ideally like to become. This might indicate that EFL instructors' future mental images of themselves are mainly shaped

by positive images that are formed by their own personal ideals, rather than negative images, or images that are molded by extrinsic forces.

According to the findings, the ILTS was followed by OLTS, showing that EFL instructors' future visions about themselves were also guided by responsibilities language teachers felt they had to fulfill, rules they needed to follow, or expectations from others, such as colleagues, the administration, or students, that the instructors felt they needed to satisfy. This finding might imply that the instructors are aware of and affected by the demands of external forces, and their future images of themselves are also based on external drives, as well as internal. The reason why OLTS was the second most powerful dimension of the possible teacher selves could be the shared responsibility of teaching at the institution where the study was conducted. As instructors have to work collaboratively to teach shared classes, they might feel that they need to be better teachers because they feel responsible to other teachers as well as to their students and the administration.

Finally, the least powerful dimension of the possible language teacher selves for the EFL instructors was found to be the FLTS, a dimension which includes qualities or features a language teacher would like to avoid possessing. The reason why FLTS was the least powerful constituent could be attributed to the demographics of the sample of the current study. The EFL instructors who participated in this study are predominantly experienced teachers. As is noted in chapter 4, there were only two teachers who reported to have less than five years of teaching experience at the institution where the study was conducted. In addition, to the best of the knowledge of the researcher, the instructors who have the fewest years of teaching experience among the participants have been working at the institution for four years. With such a sample of teachers who are mostly experienced, it is

understandable that the results of the study did not indicate a powerful overall feared language teacher self among the instructors. It is highly likely that the experienced EFL instructors have experimented with different practices, engaged in various professional development practices, and received feedback on their teaching practices. Thus, over the years, they might have gained courage and confidence in their competence in teaching, and this could be the reason why their feared language teacher self was found to be a less powerful possible language teacher self compared to their ILTS and OLTS.

The findings regarding the perceived levels of the ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS share some similarities and differences with some previous studies in the literature. For instance, the ranking of the three possible language teacher selves in the current study is the same as the ranking reported in a recent study by Çağlar-Ölmez (2019), where the most powerful dimension of pre-service teachers' possible language teacher selves was ILTS, which was followed by OLTS, and finally FLTS. The strength of the three possible language teacher selves in the current study and Çağlar-Ölmez's (2019) study are different, however. Compared to the EFL instructors who took part in the present study, the ILTS, OLTS, and FLTS of pre-service teachers in Çağlar-Ölmez's (2019) study were stronger. This might stem from the fact pre-service teachers might need the guidance of future images more than experienced EFL instructors because pre-service teachers are in the process of discovering, exploring, negotiating and navigating through different selves to construct professional identity (Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008). The results of the current study are in line with the findings provided by White and Ding (2009) who reported that teachers were mainly motivated by their ideal and ought-to selves. Similarly, in the

present research study, instructors reported to have higher levels of ILTS and OLTS than FLTS.

Compared to Kubanyiova's (2007) seminal study, the results of the current study are similar because the participants were reported to be motivated by their ILTS and OLTS. Similarly, in the current study, the instructors reported to have higher levels of ILTS and OLTS, as well. In Kubanyiova's (2007) study, FLTS was shown to play a detrimental role in participants' motivation. In the current study, FLTS received the smallest score among all teacher possible selves; however, this finding only reveals the extent to which teachers possess a FLTS; it does not necessarily indicate that FLTS functions as a demotivating factor for the teachers who participated in the study.

The findings of the present study regarding the possible language teacher selves differ significantly from those of Rahmati et al. (2018). In their study, the participants were reported not to have clear images of their possible language teacher selves on average. The teachers who did have relatively clearer images regarding their possible language teacher selves were guided by their ILTS, which is seemingly similar to the findings of the current study. However, unlike Rahmati et al.'s (2018) study, the dominance of the ILTS was not restricted to a number of instructors in the present study. In addition, in Rahmati et al.'s study (2018), language teachers were reported to lack FLTS, or OLTS, which contrasts with the relatively strong presence of OLTS and the moderate presence of FLTS in the future visions of the participants of the present study.

The analysis of the items in each possible language teacher dimension yielded some results which reflected specific aspects of each possible language teacher self that were considered to be more important for language instructors. To

begin with in both ILTS and OLTS, the highest scores belonged to items which emphasized creating desirable classroom atmospheres that are comfortable, and stress-free. As stated by Dorman, Aldridge, and Fraser (2006), there is a significant number of studies which suggest that classroom atmosphere is directly linked to student learning, and students learn better when they feel they are in a positive learning environment. It could be argued that the direct and significant influence of the classroom environment on learners is a serious consideration of EFL instructors, which is reflected in the importance they attach to providing such environments for learners as part of their future goals. Another element which was regarded as a future aim by EFL instructors was linguistic competence. In ILTS scale, setting an example for language use for learners and having a perfect command of the English language were revealed to be important facets of the future ideals of EFL instructors. Similarly, in FLTS scale, not using English skillfully and failing to receive students' admiration for using English effectively were reported among the most feared aspects of instructors' future language teacher selves. Valmori and De Costa (2016) emphasize the importance of EFL teachers' L2 proficiency levels referring to a potential causal relationship between aspects of teacher language proficiency and student learning. Considering the importance attributed to language proficiency by the EFL instructors in the study, it could be claimed that they also believe that their linguistic competences influence their teaching. The findings about instructors' linguistic proficiency are in line with previous research (Hiver, 2013; Karimi & Norouzi, 2019), which indicated the presence of language proficiency as an important element of in foreign language teachers' future visions about themselves. The element which received the least importance from EFL instructors in the present study was the use of L1 in the classroom. The results indicated that teachers did not

feel that their ideals, responsibilities, or obligations included being a teacher who only uses English in the class. Similarly, they also did not fear utilizing L1 for teaching. This stance might stem from the notion that although the use of L1 in foreign language classrooms is still somewhat a taboo, if used effectively and efficiently, it could actually enhance learning as explained by Juarez and Oxbrow (2007). The use of technology was not found to be a vital part of EFL instructors' future visions, either. Although the effective use of technology is listed among the competencies that teachers of the 21st century are expected to possess (Raob, Al-Oshaibat, & Ong, 2012), it was not found to hold an important place in EFL instructors' future ideals or fears. They also did not feel a strong obligation to use technology in teaching. One reason for this could be the opportunities that are available at the institution where the study was conducted. The institution provides necessary infrastructure and tools for teachers and learners, and thanks to the presence of a technology unit, in-service trainings are continuously provided for instructors. In each classroom, there is a computer and a projector, and it is commonplace to use these tools in every class. In short, because technology is readily available for teachers at the institution, and it is so tightly weaved into everyday practice, instructors might feel that they already possess necessary skills and are qualified enough to effectively use technology, and therefore, they do not fear failing to use technology effectively in teaching. Also, because technology is utilized very frequently, using technology might not be interpreted as an obligation, but merely a practice.

The Relationship Between Reflective Practice and Possible Language Teacher Selves

Correlational statistical analyses conducted for the present study revealed some statistically significant results about the relationship between reflective practice and possible language teacher selves. To begin with, EFL instructors overall reflective practice (ORP) was found to be positively correlated with all three aspects of their possible language teacher selves (PLTS). In terms of the strength of the relationship between ORP and PLTS, ORP had a moderate positive relationship with ideal language teacher self (ILTS), and a weak positive relationship with feared language teacher self (FLTS) and ought-to language teacher self (OLTS). These results might indicate that language teachers' future visions about themselves possibly have an impact on their current reflective practice. In other words, teachers' reflective practice might be guided by their desires, fears, and the obligations and responsibilities they feel they need to fulfill. As Dewey (1933) suggests, reflective thought is a catalyst which facilitates the transformation of routine action into intentional and intelligent action, and thus helps individuals attain future goals. In the context of this study, it is possible to infer that teacher reflective practice acts as an agent for instructors to achieve desired or expected future states, and avoid undesired ones.

Overall, the findings of the study regarding the relationship between reflective practice and PLTS revealed that reflective practice and possible language teacher selves were significantly related to each other. This finding is in alignment with the findings of some previous research; however, there are some minor differences, as well. In Kubanyiova's (2007) study, the sources of motivation behind language teachers' acceptance of conceptual change induced by a reform were

investigated, and all three types of possible language teacher selves were found to function as motivational incentives for reform-induced language teacher conceptual change and professional development. The findings of the current study are in line with Kubanyiova's (2007) study because both studies reveal that teachers' possible language teacher selves and professional development are related to each other. However, it should be noted that in Kubanyiova's (2007) study, professional development is a 20-hour in-service teacher development course, whereas in the current study professional development refers to EFL instructors' general engagement in reflective practice.

The findings of the current study also align with Hiver's (2013) study, which indicated that language teachers' motivation to pursue professional development stemmed both from a desire to enhance their teacher selves or close the gap between their current selves and possible language teacher selves and comply with obligations. One difference stands out between Hiver's (2013) study and this study, however. Although the motivation of the participants in Hiver's (2013) study were driven predominantly by internal factors, the participants of the present study were driven by external factors, as well, because they reported to have a relatively high level of ought-to language teacher selves. Finally, Rahmati et al.'s (2018) findings showed that teachers' visions were mostly dominated by their ideal language teacher self; however, they lacked feared or ought-to language teacher selves. Although both Rahmati et al.'s (2018) study and the present study indicate the dominance of the ideal language teacher self, the latter revealed the presence of both the feared and ought-to language teacher selves, as well.

The Relationship Between Types of Reflective Practice and Possible Language Teacher Selves

The correlational analyses revealed both the absence and presence of a number of statistically significant relationships between components of reflective practice and dimensions of possible language teacher selves. As one of the main variables of the current study, reflective practice encompasses five distinct categories, which are practical reflective practice (PRP), cognitive reflective practice (CORP), learner-related reflective practice (LRP), meta-cognitive reflective practice (MRP), and critical reflective practice (CRRP). Possible language teacher selves, on the other hand, is a tripartite construct consisting of ideal language teacher self (ILTS), feared language teacher self (FLTS), and ought-to language teacher self (OLTS). The analyses revealed that four of the five categories of reflective practice had a statistically significant relationship with at least one of the possible language teacher selves (PLTS), and only one category of reflective practice did not have a statistically significant relationship with any of the PLTS.

The first component of reflective practice, PRP, was found to have a statistically significant relationship with two PLTS. More specifically, PRP had a moderate positive correlation with ILTS, and a weak positive correlation with FLTS. PRP incorporates reflective activities such as sharing teaching experiences and discussing teaching issues with colleagues, as well as engaging in peer observation (Akbari et al., 2010). As indicated by the results, EFL instructors' level of engagement in such practical reflective practices might have been moderately influenced by internally-driven positive future self-representations, and they might have been weakly influenced by negative future self-representations. This may indicate that in order to achieve ideal future versions of themselves, language

teachers choose to practically reflect on their teaching experiences through sharing experiences with colleagues, or observing them. It is also possible to claim that language teachers engage in practical reflection as a means of avoiding unwanted future states, as well. However, EFL instructors' desire to avoid unwanted states may not be as powerful as their desire to achieve their ideals through engaging in practical reflective practice.

CORP was another component of reflective practice which had a statistically significant relationship with at least one of the PLTS. CORP was moderately related to ILTS and weakly related to OLTS. On the other hand, no statistically significant relationship was found between CORP and FLTS. CORP refers to reflective activities such as attending workshops, conferences, carrying out small-scale classroom research, or reading academic publications to keep abreast of recent trends in teaching (Akbari et al., 2010). The results imply that instructors' engagement in the listed cognitive practices of reflection may be mainly guided by their desire to become ideal versions of themselves, or maybe their ideal future representations may include self-portrayals of themselves as teachers who attend professional-development activities and who keeps up with the recent developments in their profession. The results might also indicate that instructors' engagement is also driven by a desire to fulfill expectations from others; but this is not as powerful as their desire to achieve their ideals. It can also be inferred from the results that EFL instructors' fears do not function as incentives to engage in cognitive reflection because the results showed no significant correlation between CORP and FLTS. The findings regarding the relationship between CORP and possible language teacher selves align with White and Ding's (2009) study. In their study, teachers were reported to be predominantly motivated by their ideal and ought-to language teacher

selves in an e-learning project, which could be regarded as a cognitive reflective practice.

The third component of reflective practice is LRP, which includes teacher reflections regarding learners' needs, preferences, feelings, and backgrounds (Akbari et al., 2010). LRP was identified to have a statistically significant relationship with only ILTS, and the relationship was found to be weak. One conclusion which could be drawn from this result is that teachers' choice in reflecting on learner-related issues are not driven by their fears, or by external factors. Instructors' choices to reflect over matters about their students might be influenced by their ideal future-representations; however, it is safe to say that this impact is not very significant, either. The findings regarding the relationship between reflective practice and LRP slightly resonate with Kubanyiova's (2007) study, where she noted that teachers' motivation to pursue professional development was not stirred by a desire to facilitate student learning. However, it should be kept in mind that the implication in Kubanyiova's (2007) study is related to student learning rather than learners per se, unlike the present study.

MRP includes reflections made by teachers regarding their professional selves and their professions. For instance, meta-cognitive reflective practice involves teachers reflecting over their strengths or weaknesses as a teacher; it also involves teachers contemplating over their teaching philosophies and the meaning and the significance of their profession (Akbari et al., 2010). It could be inferred that meta-cognitive reflective activities might be directly related with the *self* of the teacher because compared to other components of reflective practice, MRP is predominantly a critical reflection of teachers' professional and personal selves. This might explain why MRP was the only component of reflective practice which was found to have a

statistically significant relationship with all PLTS. MRP was shown to have a moderate positive correlation with ILTS, and a weak and positive correlation with both FLTS and OLTS. This may indicate that MRP is guided by all dimensions of PLTS, which might function as motivating mechanisms for instructors to practice meta-cognitive reflection.

Finally, CRRP and its relation to PLTS was examined, and unlike other constituents of reflective practice, CRRP was found to have no statistically significant relationship with any of the PLTS. CRP, as a form of teacher reflection, is mainly about teachers' reflections over social or political issues, and the handling of such issues in the classroom. CRP is also about enabling learners change their lives, or promoting democracy and tolerance at school (Akbari et al., 2010). The absence of a statistically significant relationship between CRRP and PLTS could indicate that EFL instructors' future visions of themselves do not carry elements of critical reflection. It could be argued that EFL instructors do not have a strong desire for becoming or fear of not becoming a teacher who reflects over political or social issues. It could also be argued that instructors do not feel obligated or forced to integrate such issues into their everyday teaching practices. This finding is parallel to the findings of Karimi and Norouzi's (2019) possible language teacher self scale development study. In the scale development process, the factors which were associated with teachers' visions of themselves as guides who could "bring about justice and educate autonomous and critical learners" had to be removed from the scale (p. 54). It could mean that what these items represented (i.e. the representation of teachers as guides for critical thinking and action) was not inextricably linked to teacher motivation. It could be argued that in both studies being a teacher who

promotes critical thinking and action was not among the top goals to be achieved for teachers.

To summarize the findings pertaining to the relationship between five components of reflective practice and PLTS, four components of reflective practice were statistically significantly related to at least one PLTS. PRP was found to be significantly related to all three types of PLTS, whereas CRRP was found to have no relationship with any of the PLTS. It is possible to claim that practices in MRP exist in teachers' future representations of themselves as language teachers in the ideal, feared, and ought-to dimensions. CRRP, on the other hand, could be missing, or could be present only with little importance, in all three dimensions of future self-images of EFL instructors.

Reflective practice reportedly facilitates critical analysis of teaching practices for teachers. According to Yanping and Jie (2009), through reflective practice, teachers can engage in such critical analysis on the basis of their teacher selves. The correlational results of the present study are in line with this suggestion because reflective practice was found to have a significant relationship with all dimensions of possible language teacher selves. As is outlined by Higgins (1987), if an individual detects a discrepancy between what they are at the present and what they want to become or avoid becoming in the future, self-regulating behavior mechanism might be activated to reduce the gap between a desired or expected future state or avoid a feared one. Because reflective practice is significantly related to all three PLTS, it could be argued that reflective practice might potentially act as an agent for teachers to self-regulate their present behaviors in order to achieve a desired or expected future language teacher self, or avoid a feared language teacher self.

Implications for Practice

The findings of the present study denote important pedagogical implications for practice. First, the current study revealed that EFL instructors *sometimes* engage in reflective practice, and they most frequently utilize the meta-cognitive aspect of reflective practice. Meta-cognitive reflective practice embodies elements such as thinking about one's strengths and weaknesses as a teacher, or the inconsistencies and contradictions that occur in classroom practice (Akbari et al., 2010). These reflective practices are performed mainly on a very personal level, which could indicate that reflective practice is predominantly regarded as a solitary activity by EFL instructors. Although some collaborative activities, such as talking about classroom experiences with colleagues were preferred frequently by instructors, collaborative activities such as observing other instructors or being observed by other instructors, were shown to be not favored by instructors. It is advisable to investigate the factors that lie behind the reasons why instructors are inclined to engage in solitary reflective practice rather than in collaboration with colleagues because teachers might have difficulty developing a critical perspective to analyze their own behavior if they reflect on their teaching only by themselves (Osterman and Kottkamp, 1993). In addition, care should be given to design in-service professional development activities, which are in line with the preferences of instructors as these activities are more likely to be attended by teachers. As Hiver (2013) implies, if more bottom-up approaches are adopted for professional development, instructors are more likely to participate in professional development activities.

Another finding of the study revealed that EFL instructors had high scores regarding their ILTS, which means that their future visions of themselves are dominated by their own desires, wishes, and goals. It might be a good idea to

investigate what ideal images instructors hold for themselves for the future, and provide institutional opportunities for them to attain those ideals. The study also showed that instructors also had medium to high scores in terms of their OLTs, which indicates that instructors are aware of the expectations from them, or the obligations they need to fulfill, and these expectations and obligations constitute an important part of their future visions of themselves, as well. The lowest score belonged to instructors' FLTS, which indicates that fears or inhibitions of EFL instructors do not dominate their future visions of themselves. According to Kubanyiova (2012), possible selves need to be detailed, and specific. Thus, enhancing EFL instructors' possible language teacher selves might be integrated into institutional policies so that instructors could have more detailed and specific possible future visions of themselves. This could be achieved by encouraging instructors to think about their future self-images (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019), or by designing activities such as guided imagery (Valmori & De Costa, 2016), or promoting discussions of professional and personal narratives with colleagues (Gaines et al., 2018). Kubanyiova (2012) also argues that possible selves should be available, accessible, and modelled in the social context. To help instructors achieve such possible selves, administrators could clarify expectations from instructors and provide necessary resources or opportunities for instructors to achieve expectations. However, expectations should also be plausible because if instructors feel that they cannot meet the expectations, their FLTS might be detrimental in terms of their motivation (Freese, 2006; Kubanyiova, 2012), and as Valmori and De Costa (2016) note, to transform motivation into action for improved practice "both contextual and individual factors need to interact in a mutually reinforcing manner" (p. 106).

The findings of the study revealed that there is a statistically significant relationship between EFL instructors' reflective practice and their possible language teacher selves. This might indicate that instructors' future visions might function as sources of motivation for them to engage more actively in reflective practice, which has been shown to potentially increase improved teaching (Farrell, 2008).

Alternatively, reflective practice might lead to more detailed versions of possible language teacher selves, which is linked to higher levels of motivation (Kubanyiova, 2007; Hiver, 2013). Presuming the positive relationship between reflective practice and possible language teacher selves, both reflective practice and the enhancement of possible language teacher selves could be encouraged by institutions. For instance, instructors could be encouraged to integrate their future visions into their reflective practice so that reflective practice and possible selves might act in mutual reinforcement. In addition, professional development activities could be designed to enhance instructors' possible selves not only as language teachers but also as reflective practitioners. For example, EFL instructors might be encouraged to form an ideal reflective teacher self, or an ideal reflective practitioner self, who is critical of their classroom practice, who is in search of constant personal and professional development, and who is consistent in their effort to become a reflective teacher. In addition, models of reflection and reflective practice could be provided for teachers to develop possible reflective practitioner selves. This could provide bases for instructors to decide what and how to ideally attain (ideal self), to avoid (feared self), or to achieve as expected from them (ought-to self) through active reflection. Thus, possible language teacher selves might trigger self-regulatory action and become motivational incentives for instructors to reflect more effectively on teaching practice and thus become better practitioners (Kubanyiova, 2012).

Implications for Further Research

To the best knowledge of the researcher, no previous study has examined the relationship between different types of reflective practice and possible language teacher selves. Therefore, although the present study might have offered valuable insights into the relationship between these two variables, the study had certain limitations, as well. Considering the findings and limitations of the current study which investigated EFL instructors' reflective practice types and their possible language teacher selves, there may be some suggestions for further research.

The first suggestion for future studies is the replication of the current study in similar contexts, where instructors have similar backgrounds or workloads as the instructors in the current study. Also, the sample size was medium in the present study, and because of this, the findings do not have a high level of generalizability. Therefore, the replication of the present study could be conducted with a larger sample size at similar contexts, as well. In addition, although the English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory (Akbari et al., 2010), which was used in the current study, has been validated in other contexts multiple times, the Three Possible Language Teachers Selves Scales adopted from Karimi and Norouzi (2019) are fairly new, and some modifications were made on the scales by the researcher. Therefore, the replication of the present study is also necessary for further validating the Three Possible Language Teachers Selves Scales (Karimi & Norouzi, 2019).

Another suggestion for future research would be replicating the present study by adopting a different design. The data for the current study was collected through only quantitative means, and the only data collection instrument was a questionnaire; therefore, the data were not triangulated. Adding qualitative means of data collection to future studies, such as open-ended questions or semi-structured interviews, would

provide a deeper understanding of the relationship between reflective practice and possible language teacher selves. Qualitative data collection would also provide valuable information about causality between variables pertaining to reflective practice and possible language teacher selves, which was not provided in the current study because of its correlational design. In addition, by using statistical analyses such as regression models or structural equation models, a deeper insight could be gained regarding the relationship between reflective practice and possible language teacher selves.

Finally, future researchers could conduct the same study in similar contexts by comparing different demographic groups to each other. For instance, the differences regarding the relationship between reflective practice types and possible language teacher selves could be investigated by comparing novice teachers and experienced teachers, or by comparing teachers who have a Master's or PhD degree to teachers with BA degrees. Future studies could also be designed for comparing EFL instructors who work at state universities and EFL instructors who work at foundation universities. A comparison of different groups could produce a more detailed representation of the whole population of EFL instructors and their engagement in reflective practice in relation to their possible language teacher selves.

Limitations

This study revealed some significant results regarding teacher reflective practice and possible language teacher selves. Although the findings might offer some valuable insights into teachers' engagement in reflective practice as a means of professional development, teachers' perceived levels of possible language teacher selves, and the relationship between the two, the study is not without limitations. Therefore, the findings obtained from the study should be interpreted with caution.

The first limitation of the study is its design. In this study, a quantitative cross-sectional design was adopted to collect data. Although quantitative studies allow for collecting data from a big sample in a short period of time, they provide only limited information and do not allow the research to explore phenomena in detail (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Because no qualitative means were utilized for data collection such as interviews, the data are not triangulated. Also, because the study had a correlational design, the results cannot be used for identifying causation between variables (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

The second limitation of the study is the data collection instrument. The data for this research study were obtained only through an online questionnaire, which was composed merely of Likert-scale items. Therefore, the questionnaire was limited in terms of the depth of investigation because there were no open-ended questions which would give the participants the chance to elaborate their answers. In addition, the ILTS, FLTS, and OLTS sections used in the questionnaire are fairly new scales; therefore, instrument reliability might be relatively low. Even though factor and reliability analyses were conducted for the aforementioned constructs, the instrument needs validation at different contexts (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

Another limitation of the current study is related to the sampling method and the sample size. The population of the present study was the EFL instructors who worked at the school of foreign language of a state university. The sample for the present study was chosen through convenience sampling, which makes the results more difficult to generalize to other contexts (Fraenkel et al., 2012). Also, out of 148 teachers in the population, 94 of them responded in total. According to Kim (2013), this corresponds to a medium-size sample, which is relatively small. In addition,

because not all members of the population answered the questionnaire, the results might not have provided a true representation of the views of the whole population.

The final limitation of the study is the limited number of research studies to compare the findings of the current study. Because there were no previous studies which investigated the relationship between language teachers' reflective practice types and their possible language teacher selves, the findings could not be supported more with reference to the previous literature.

Conclusion

This current research study offered an investigation of EFL instructors' reflective practice and their possible language teacher selves with the participation of 94 EFL instructors working at a state university in Turkey. The study also provided an examination of the relationship between five components of reflective practice and three possible language teacher selves, and the results from these investigations revealed some significant results.

The descriptive results showed that EFL instructors sometimes engaged in reflective practice, and the most frequently employed reflective practice type was meta-cognitive reflective practice. Another result derived from descriptive analysis was related to instructors' perceived levels of possible language teacher selves, which showed that the ideal language teacher self was the most dominant type of possible language teacher self for the instructors who participated in the study. The correlational analyses regarding the relationship between reflective practice and possible language teacher selves indicated that reflective practice had a statistically significant relationship with all three types of possible language teacher selves, and the strongest relationship was between reflective practice and ideal language teacher self. In terms of the relationship between the components of reflective practice and

possible language teacher selves, the analyses revealed that practical, cognitive, learner-related, and meta-cognitive reflective practice had a statistically significant relationship with at least one of the possible language teacher selves. However, critical reflective practice showed no statistically significant relationship with any of the possible language teacher selves. Among all components of reflective practice, meta-cognitive reflective practice was the only component which had a statistically significant relationship with all three possible language teacher selves.

To conclude, the present study shed some light on the relationship between teacher reflective practice and possible language teacher selves. The findings obtained from the study might contribute to the growing body of research on teachers' possible selves-related motivation, and its place in teachers' involvement in reflective practice as a form of professional development. The implications derived from the study might be used by administrators and teacher educators to identify the types of reflective practice instructors would like to engage in, and the potential sources of motivation for teachers' professional development. Thus, professional development activities which are in line with teachers' preferences and which carry higher motivational capacity could be designed or promoted in order to increase both teacher reflection and teacher motivation by utilizing possible selves as a tool.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Survey Form

PART 1-Informed Consent Form

Dear Colleagues,

This research study is designed to explore EFL instructors' reflective practice and their possible language teacher selves. To that end, your careful completion of the surveys will contribute greatly to obtaining real data, which is crucial for more accurate findings. Upon the completion of surveys, you may be asked to participate in an interview, which will take place at a convenient time and place for you, and it will be tape-recorded. 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. If you have any questions about this research project, or would like more information, please contact me at the e-mail address below:

Özge Özsoy

MATEFL Student

Graduate School of Education

Bilkent University, ANKARA

ozgeozaydin@anadolu.edu.tr

I agree to participate in this study voluntarily:

Yes

No

PART 2- The English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory

Please read the following items below and choose the appropriate response which suits best to your teaching practice. (1:never, 2:rarely, 3:sometimes, 4:often, 5:always)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. I talk about my classroom experiences with my colleagues and seek their advice/feedback.					
2. I discuss practical/theoretical issues with my colleagues.					
3. I observe other teachers' classrooms to learn about their efficient practices.					
4. I ask my peers to observe my teaching and comment on my teaching performance.					
5. I read books/articles related to effective teaching to improve my classroom performance.					
6. I participate in workshops/conferences related to teaching/learning issues.					

7. I think of writing articles based on my classroom experiences.					
8. I look at journal articles or search the Internet to see what the recent developments in my profession are.					
9. I carry out small scale research activities in my classes to become better informed of learning/teaching processes.					
10. I think of classroom events as potential research topics and think of finding a method for investigating them.					
11. I talk to my students to learn about their learning styles and preferences.					
12. I talk to my students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests and abilities.					
13. I ask my students whether they like a teaching task or not.					
14. As a teacher, I think about my teaching philosophy and the way it is affecting my teaching.					
15. I think of the ways my biography or my background affects the way I define myself as a teacher.					
16. I think of the meaning or the significance of my job as a teacher.					
17. I try to find out which aspects of my teaching provide me with a sense of satisfaction.					
18. I think about my strengths and weaknesses as a teacher.					
19. I think of the positive/negative role models I have had as a student and the way they have affected me in my practice.					

20. I think of inconsistencies and contradictions that occur in my classroom practice.					
21. I think about instances of social injustice in my own surroundings and try to discuss them in my classes.					
22. I think of ways to enable my students to change their social lives in fighting poverty, discrimination, and gender bias.					
23. In my teaching, I include less-discussed topics, such as old age, AIDS, discrimination against women and minorities, and poverty.					
24. I think about the political aspects of my teaching and the way I may affect my students' political views.					
25. I think of ways through which I can promote tolerance and democracy in my classes and in the society in general.					
26. I think about the ways gender, social class, and race influence my students' achievements.					
27. I think of outside social events that can influence my teaching inside the class.					

PART 3- Ideal Language Teacher Self

Please use the first line written in bold as the start of each numbered item in this section, and choose the response that best indicates how true each statement is for you. (1: very untrue of me, 2: untrue of me 3: neither true/untrue of me 4: true of me 5: very true of me)

I would like to be a language teacher...	1	2	3	4	5
1. who has a perfect command of the English language.					
2. who sets a great example for his/her students in using English effectively.					
3. who uses L2 all the time when teaching.					
4. can create a comfortable learning environment in his/her classes.					
5. whose lessons are considered to be fun by his/her students.					
6. who can adopt various strategies to facilitate the learning process.					
7. who caters for students' learning styles and preferences.					
8. who has good rapport with his/her students.					
9. who is liked by her students.					
10. who gets excited/happy by the thought of teaching.					
11. who looks forward to another day at work.					
12. who can use a variety of sources for lesson plans and classroom practices.					
13. who tries to expand his/her professional/content knowledge.					
14. who attends workshops, seminars, and conferences to keep with the latest trends in his/her practice.					
15. who can integrate technology into his/her teaching practice effectively.					

PART 4- Feared Language Teacher Self

Please use the first line written in bold as the start of each numbered item in this section, and choose the response that best indicates how true each statement is for you. (1: very untrue of me, 2: untrue of me 3: neither true/untrue of me 4: true of me 5: very true of me)

I am afraid of becoming a language teacher ...	1	2	3	4	5
1. who cannot use the English language skillfully.					
2. whose students do not admire his/her proficiency in English.					
3. who predominantly uses L1 in the classroom.					
4. whose classes are known as stressful.					
5. whose students do not enjoy his/her classes.					
6. who uses the same teaching methods in all classes.					
7. who does not take learner differences into account.					
8. who disregards his/her students' feelings.					
9. whose students do not like him/her.					
10. who does not care about his/her students.					
11. who is tired of preparing lesson plans for every class.					
12. who feels exhausted by the thought of another day at work.					
13. who keeps using the same materials every year.					
14. who gets tired of learning.					
15. who cannot keep up with recent trends in education.					

16. who cannot use technological tools effectively in his/her classes.					
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PART 5- Ought-to Language Teacher Self

Please use the first line written in bold as the start of each numbered item in this section, and choose the response that best indicates how true each statement is for you. (1: very untrue of me, 2: untrue of me 3: neither true/untrue of me 4: true of me 5: very true of me)

I think I should become a language teacher...	1	2	3	4	5
1. who is an adept user of English because I am expected to be to be an adept speaker of English by my institution/students.					
2. who can create a stress-free classroom atmosphere because my students expect it from me.					
3. who uses L2 all the time in the classroom as it is expected from me by my institution/by my students.					
4. who employs different teaching strategies in his/her classes because my students expect it from me.					
5. who takes different learner needs into account while teaching as catering for different learner needs is expected from me by my students.					
6. who maintains a good relationship with his/her students because it is an expectation from my institution/students.					

7. who looks motivated in the classroom as it is expected from me by my students/my institution.					
8. who uses a variety of materials while teaching because of my students' expectations from me.					
9. who can keep up with recent developments in teaching as it is expected from me by my institution/colleagues.					
10. who participates in professional development activities in his/her institution or elsewhere because it is expected from me by my institution.					
11. who makes use of technology in his/her teaching practice because of my students' expectations from me to make use of technology in my classes.					

PART 6- Demographic Information

Please choose the appropriate response for each item.

1. What is your age?

21-30

31-40

41-50

2. What is your gender?

Female

Male

51 and over

3. How long have you been teaching English?

1-5 years

6-10 years

10-15 years

15-20 years

4. In which country do you currently reside?

5. What is the highest degree that you completed?

B.A.

M.A.

Ph.D.

6. Do you have any other qualifications? Please choose the most recent one that you have completed.

CELTA

DELTA

Other:

7. What department did you graduate from?

English Language Teaching

English Language and Literature

American Culture and Literature

Translation and Interpreting

Linguistics

Other

Thank you for your participation!

APPENDIX B

Factor Analysis

Table 1

Total Variance Explained for ILTS

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Rotation
				Loading			Sums of
	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative	Squared
		Variance	%		Variance	%	Loadings
							Total
1	6.352	42.347	42.347	6.352	42.347	42.347	4.835
2	1.748	11.652	53.999	1.748	11.652	53.999	2.696
3	1.308	8.717	62.716	1.308	8.717	62.716	3.296
4	1.253	8.352	71.068	1.253	8.352	71.068	3.155
5	1.019	6.794	77.862				
6	.810	5.403	83.265				
7	.683	4.556	87.821				
8	.438	2.920	90.742				
9	.386	2.572	93.314				
10	.304	2.024	95.337				
11	.263	1.756	97.093				
12	.173	1.151	98.245				
13	.146	.976	99.221				
14	.080	.536	99.757				
15	.036	.243	100.000				

Figure 1

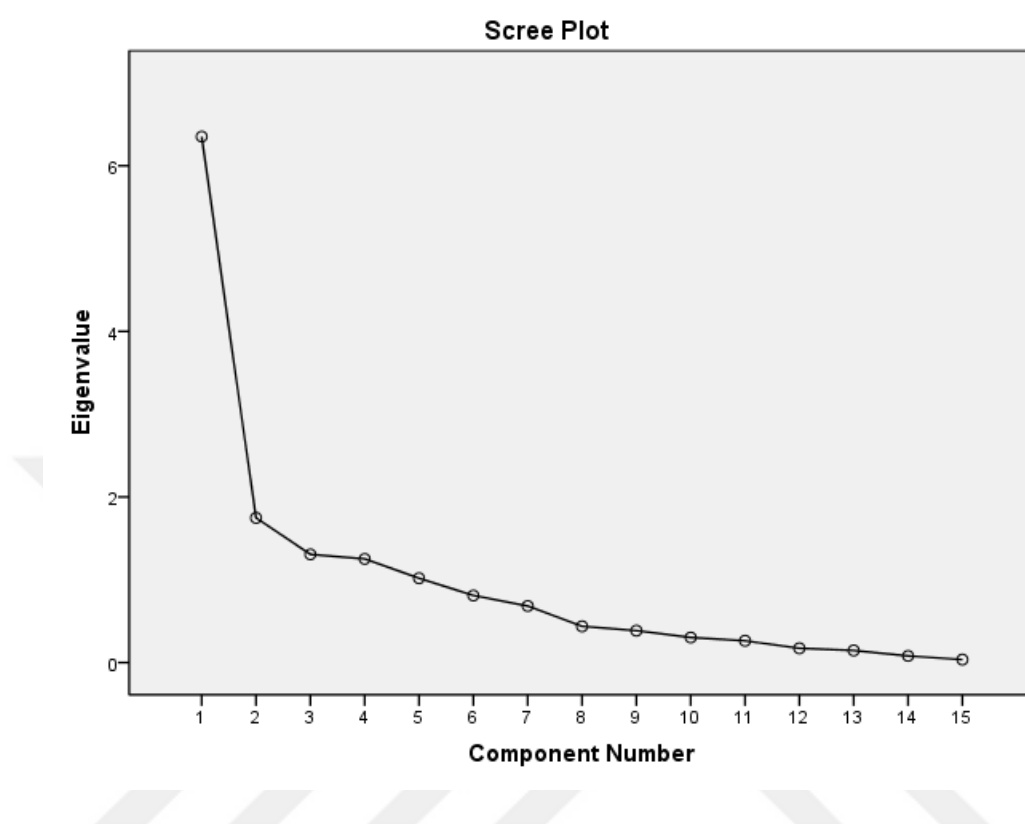
Scree Plot for ILTS

Table 2

Communalities for ILTS

	Initial	Extraction
ILTS- who has a perfect command of the English language.	1.000	.799
ILTS- who sets a great example for his/her students in using English effectively.	1.000	.857
ILTS- who uses L2 all the time when teaching.	1.000	.460
ILTS- can create a comfortable learning environment in his/her class.	1.000	.685
ILTS-whose lessons are considered to be fun by his/her students.	1.000	.561
ILTS- who can adopt various strategies to facilitate the learning process.	1.000	.621
ILTS- who caters for students' learning styles and preferences.	1.000	.646
ILTS- who has good rapport with his/her students.	1.000	.727
ILTS- who is liked by her students.	1.000	.724
ILTS - who gets excited/happy by the thought of teaching.	1.000	.673
ILTS- who looks forward to another day at work.	1.000	.726
ILTS- who can use a variety of sources for lesson plans and classroom practices.	1.000	.732
ILTS- who tries to expand his/her professional/content knowledge.	1.000	.768
ILTS- who attends workshops, seminars, and conferences to keep with the latest trends in his/her practice.	1.000	.843
ILTS- who can integrate technology into his/her teaching practice effectively.	1.00	.839

Table 3

Structure Matrix for ILTS

	Component			
I would like to become a language teacher...	1	2	3	4
who has a perfect command of the English language.	.218	.881	.018	.098
who sets a great example for his/her students in using English effectively.	.355	.849	.430	.117
who uses L2 all the time when teaching.	-.101	.567	.082	.344
can create a comfortable learning environment in his/her class.	.575	.560	.017	.503
whose lessons are considered to be fun by his/her students.	.439	.048	.225	.696
who can adopt various strategies to facilitate the learning process.	.564	.314	.511	.598
who caters for students' learning styles and preferences.	.245	.241	.198	.799
who has good rapport with his/her students.	.580	.344	.545	.673
who is liked by her students.	.834	.278	.286	.157
who gets excited/happy by the thought of teaching.	.813	.105	.278	.324
who looks forward to another day at work.	.829	.093	.297	.410
who can use a variety of sources for lesson plans and classroom practices.	.811	.258	.495	.352
who tries to expand his/her professional/content knowledge.	.708	.253	.709	.326
who attends workshops, seminars, and conferences to keep with the latest trends in his/her practice.	.379	.243	.888	.072
who can integrate technology into his/her teaching practice effectively.	.255	.015	.820	.542

Table 4

Total Variance Explained for FLTS

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Rotation
				Loading			Sums of
	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative	Squared
		Variance	%		Variance	%	Loadings Total
1	9.821	61.383	61.383	9.821	61.383	61.383	9.082
2	1.952	12.202	73.586	1.952	12.202	73.586	2.783
3	1.041	6.507	80.092	1.041	6.507	80.092	6.865
4	.730	4.560	84.652				
5	.495	3.093	87.745				
6	.479	2.993	90.739				
7	.385	2.409	93.148				
8	.289	1.804	94.951				
9	.243	1.520	96.471				
10	.193	1.204	97.675				
11	.133	.830	98.505				
12	.087	.545	99.050				
13	.065	.406	99.456				
14	.047	.294	99.750				
15	.029	.180	99.930				
16	.011	.070	100.000				

Figure 2

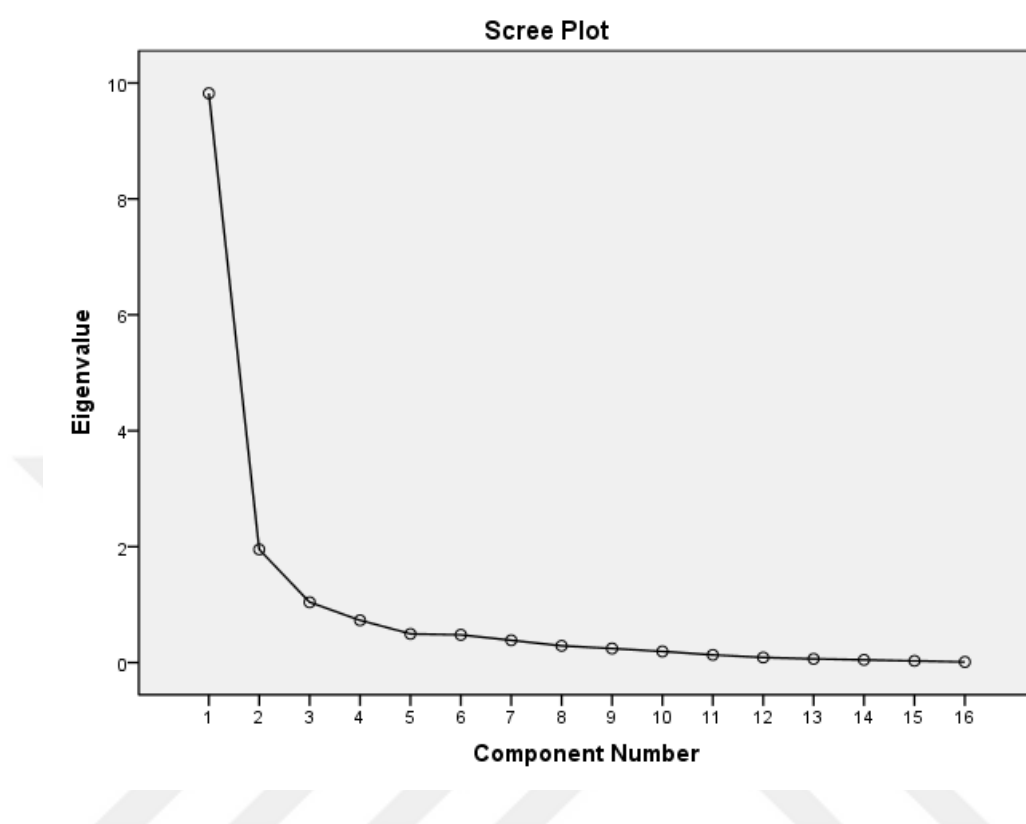
Scree Plot for FLTS

Table 5

Communalities for FLTS

	Initial	Extraction
I am afraid of becoming a language teacher...		
who cannot use the English language skillfully.	1.000	.815
whose students do not admire his/her proficiency in English.	1.000	.827
who predominantly uses L1 in the classroom.	1.000	.482
whose classes are known as stressful.	1.000	.953
whose students do not enjoy his/her classes.	1.000	.856
who uses the same teaching methods in all classes.	1.000	.745
who does not take learner differences into account.	1.000	.906
who disregards his/her students' feelings.	1.000	.917
whose students do not like him/her.	1.000	.824
who does not care about his/her students.	1.000	.903
who is tired of preparing lesson plans for every class.	1.000	.638
who feels exhausted by the thought of another day at work.	1.000	.813
who keeps using the same materials every year.	1.000	.785
who gets tired of learning.	1.000	.739
who cannot keep up with recent trends in education.	1.000	.848
who cannot use technological tools effectively in his/her classes.	1.000	.766

Table 6

Structure Matrix for FLTS

I am afraid of becoming a language teacher...	Components		
	1	2	3
who cannot use the English language skillfully.	.508	.818	.420
whose students do not admire his/her proficiency in English.	.458	.877	.142
who predominantly uses L1 in the classroom.	.587	.491	.433
whose classes are known as stressful.	.970	.328	.666
whose students do not enjoy his/her classes.	.895	.301	.729
who uses the same teaching methods in all classes.	.849	.280	.638
who does not take learner differences into account.	.944	.372	.555
who disregards his/her students' feelings.	.948	.166	.533
whose students do not like him/her.	.902	.333	.584
who does not care about his/her students.	.948	.281	.545
who is tired of preparing lesson plans for every class.	.534	-.332	.646
who feels exhausted by the thought of another day at work.	.600	-.288	.803
who keeps using the same materials every year.	.465	-.051	.876
who gets tired of learning.	.753	.138	.795
who cannot keep up with recent trends in education.	.664	.382	.856
who cannot use technological tools effectively in his/her classes.	.660	.332	.821

Table 7

Total Variance Explained for OLTS

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Rotation
				Loading			Sums of
	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative	Squared
		Variance	%		Variance	%	Loadings Total
1	6.632	60.294	60.294	6.632	60.294	60.294	5.732
2	1.417	12.885	73.180	1.417	12.885	73.180	4.897
3	.747	6.795	79.975				
4	.529	4.808	84.783				
5	.413	3.752	88.535				
6	.368	3.349	91.885				
7	.292	2.658	94.543				
8	.263	2.388	96.930				
9	.191	1.738	98.668				
10	.111	1.010	99.678				
11	.035	.322	100.000				

Figure 3

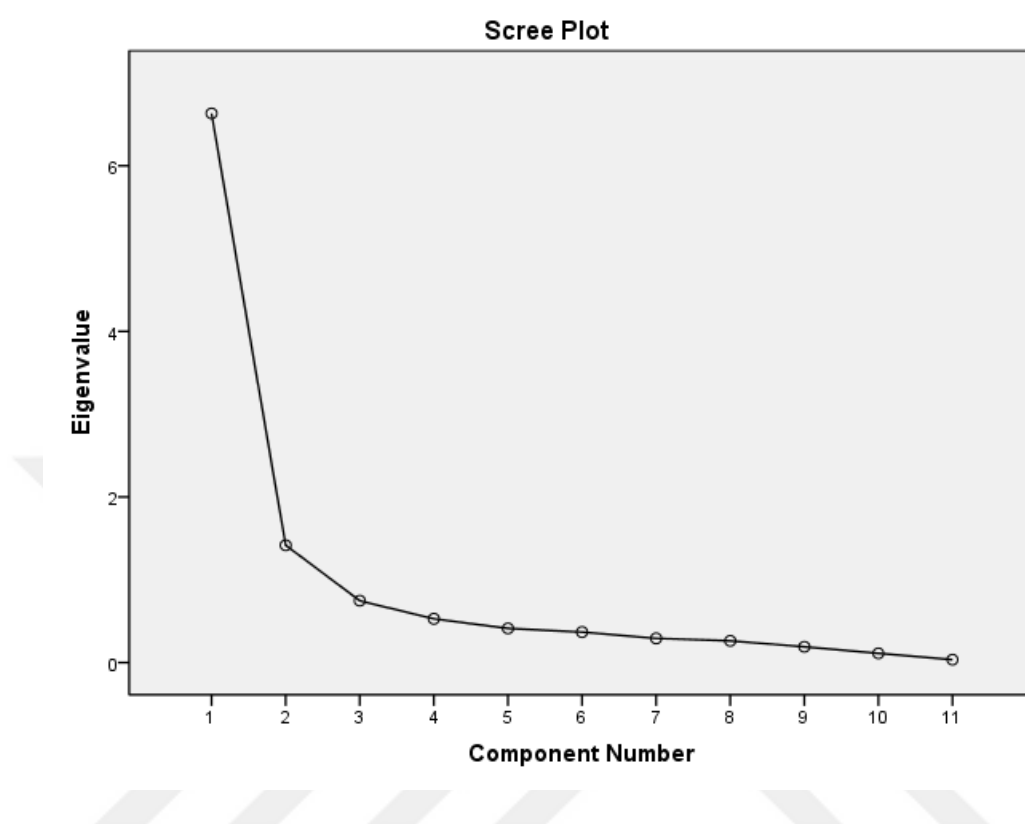
Scree Plot for OLTS

Table 8

Communalities for OLTS

I think I should become a language teacher...	Initial	Extraction
who is an adept user of English because I am expected to be to be an adept speaker of English by my institution/students.	1.000	.566
who can create a stress-free classroom atmosphere because my students expect it from me.	1.000	.685
who uses L2 all the time in the classroom as it is expected from me by my institution/by my students.	1.000	.653
who employs different teaching strategies in his/her classes because my students expect it from me.	1.000	.800
who takes different learner needs into account while teaching as catering for different learner needs is expected from me by my students.	1.000	.723
who maintains a good relationship with his/her students because it is an expectation from my institution/students.	1.000	.746
who looks motivated in the classroom as it is expected from me by my students/my institution.	1.000	.854
who uses a variety of materials while teaching because of my students' expectations from me.	1.000	.819
who can keep up with recent developments in teaching as it is expected from me by my institution/colleagues.	1.000	.763
who participates in professional development activities in his/her institution or elsewhere because it is expected from me by my institution.	1.000	.665
who makes use of technology in his/her teaching practice because of my students' expectations from me to make use of technology in my classes.	1.000	.776

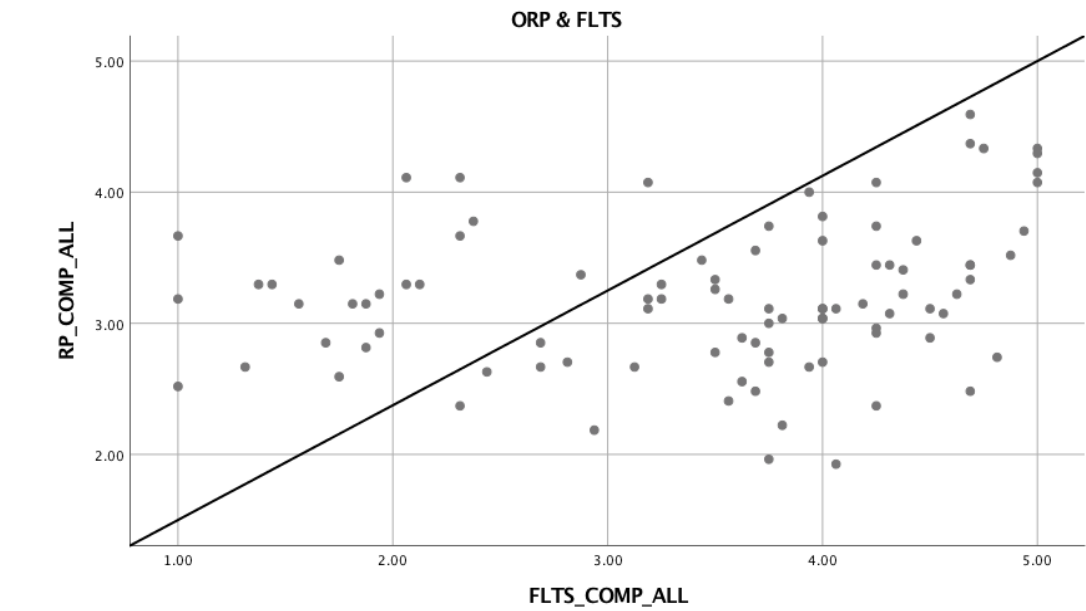
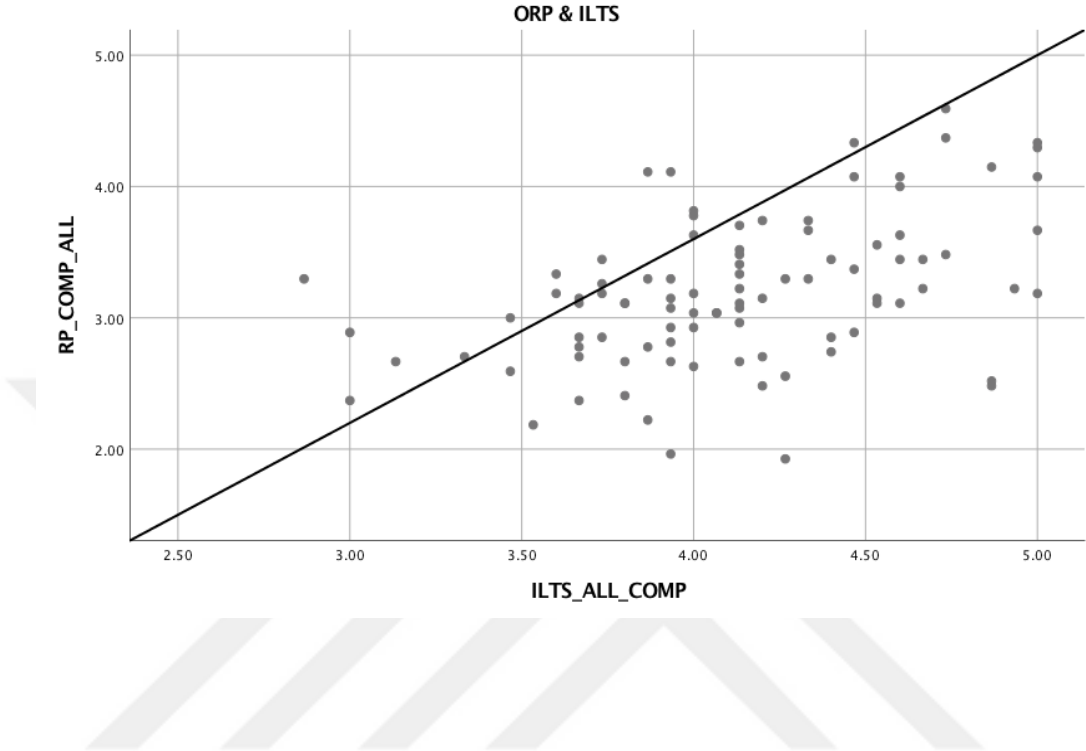
Table 9

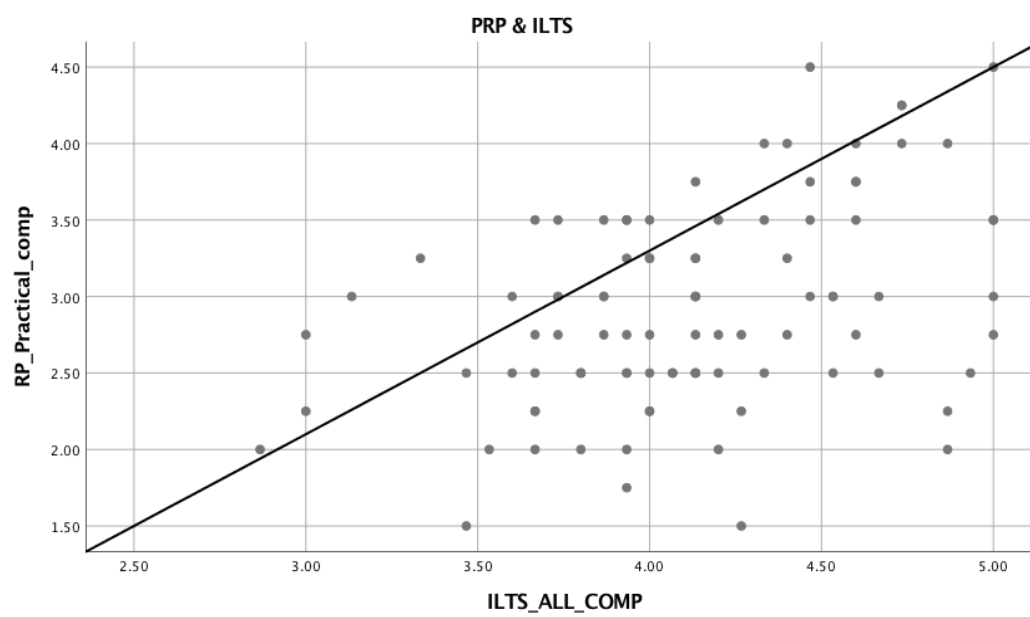
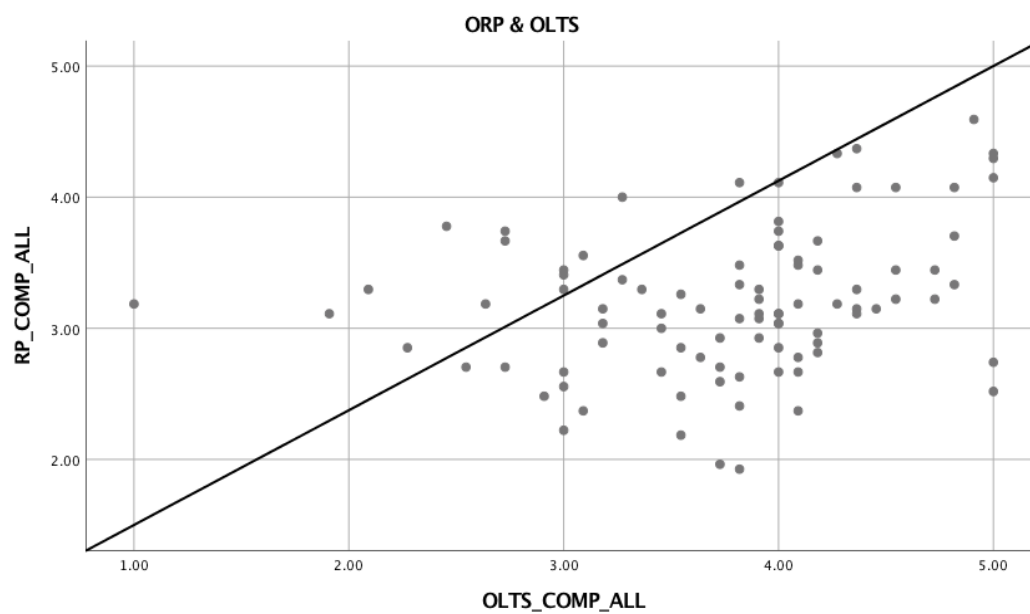
Structure Matrix for OLTS

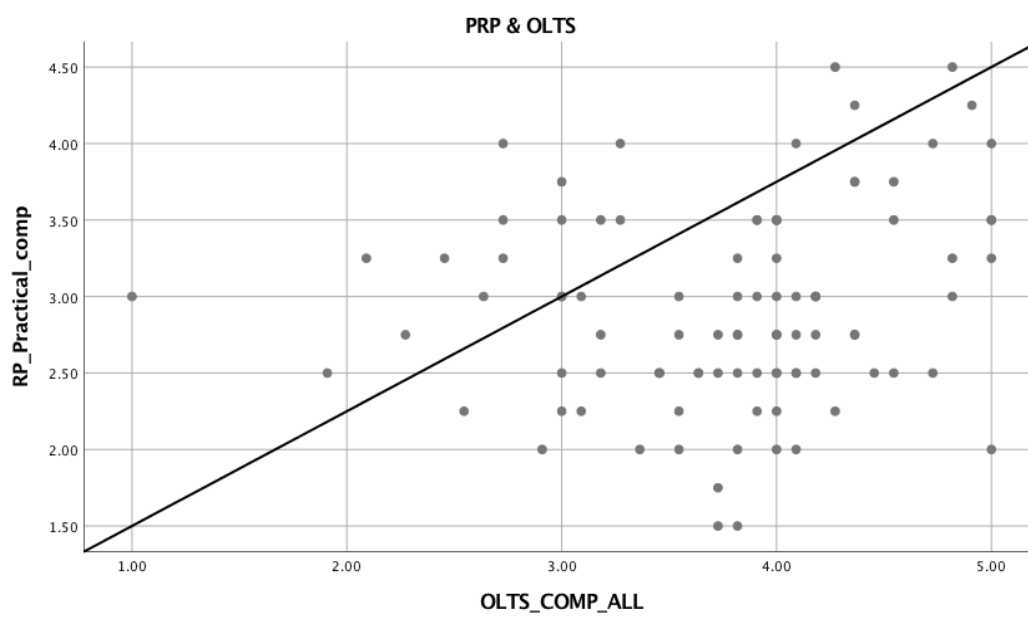
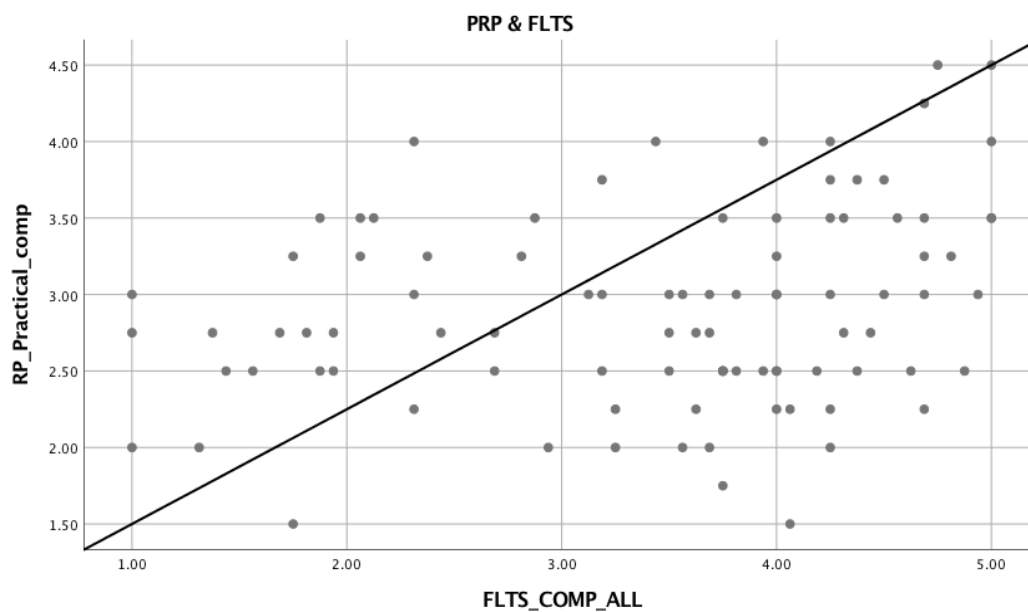
	Component	
	1	2
I think I should become a language teacher...		
who is an adept user of English because I am expected to be to be an adept speaker of English by my institution/students.	.238	.736
who can create a stress-free classroom atmosphere because my students expect it from me.	.434	.828
who uses L2 all the time in the classroom as it is expected from me by my institution/by my students.	.799	.300
who employs different teaching strategies in his/her classes because my students expect it from me.	.700	.833
who takes different learner needs into account while teaching as catering for different learner needs is expected from me by my students.	.551	.837
who maintains a good relationship with his/her students because it is an expectation from my institution/students.	.862	.383
who looks motivated in the classroom as it is expected from me by my students/my institution.	.922	.521
who uses a variety of materials while teaching because of my students' expectations from me.	.864	.668
who can keep up with recent developments in teaching as it is expected from me by my institution/colleagues.	.845	.616
who participates in professional development activities in his/her institution or elsewhere because it is expected from me by my institution.	.814	.441
who makes use of technology in his/her teaching practice because of my students' expectations from me to make use of technology in my classes.	.581	.864

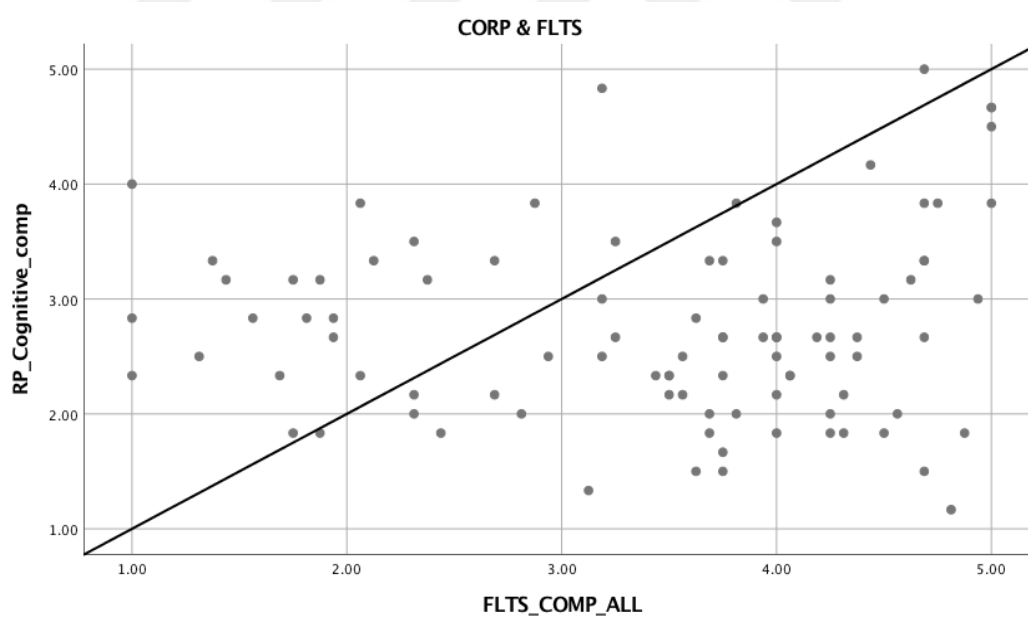
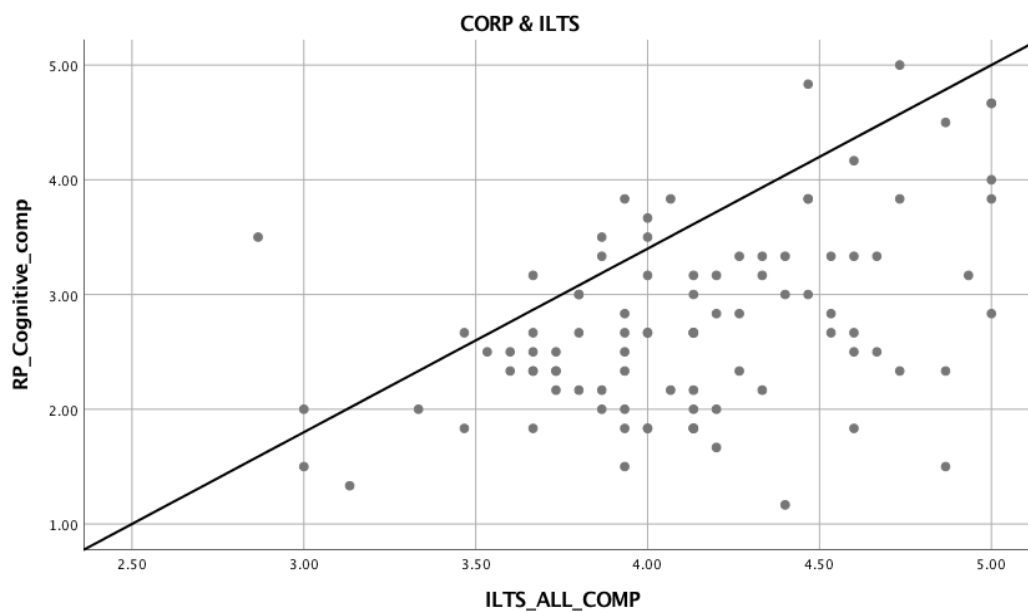
APPENDIX C

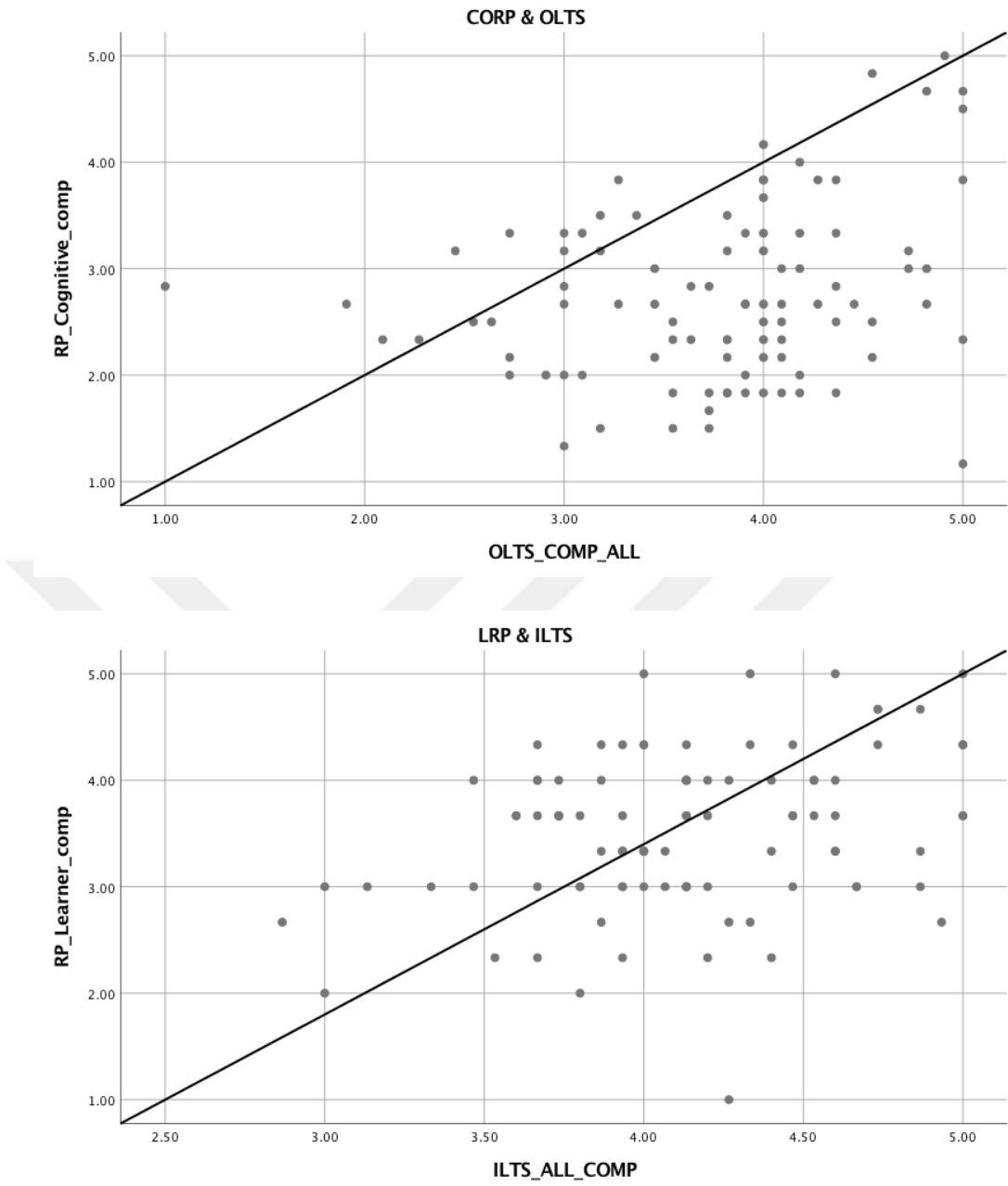
Normality Analysis

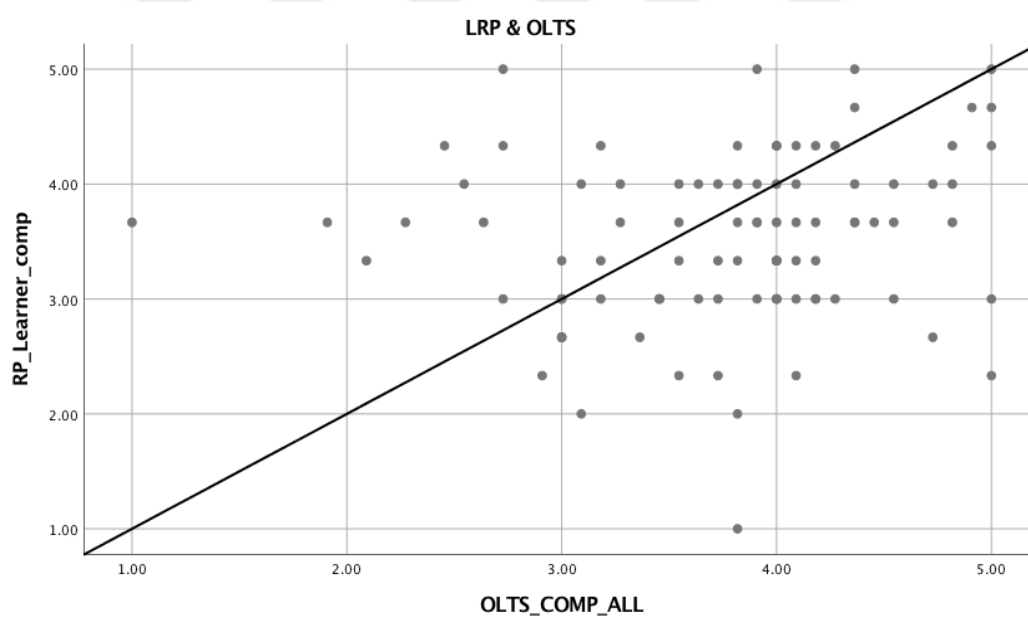
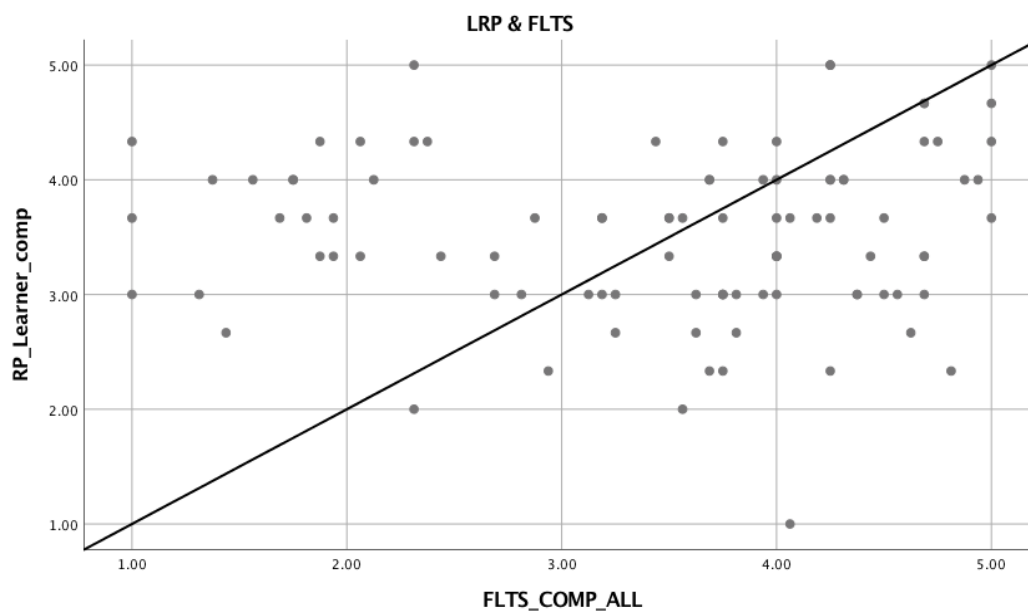


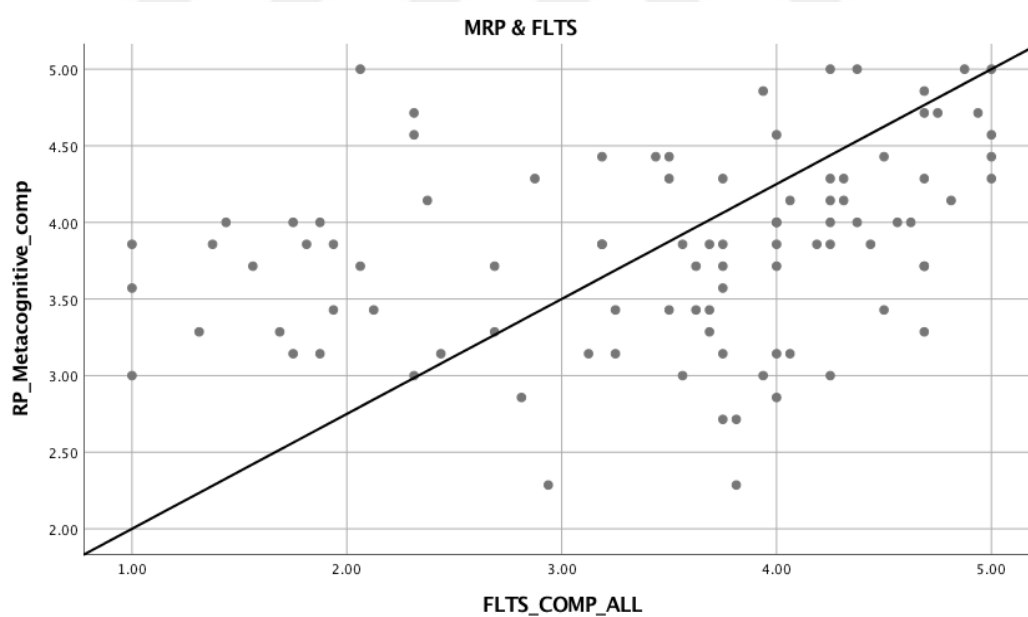
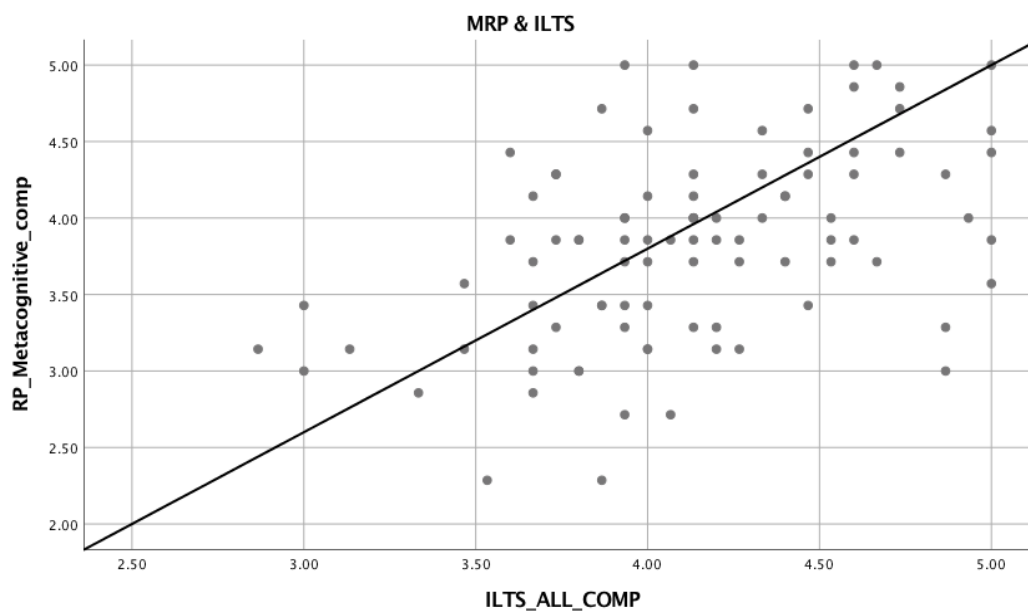


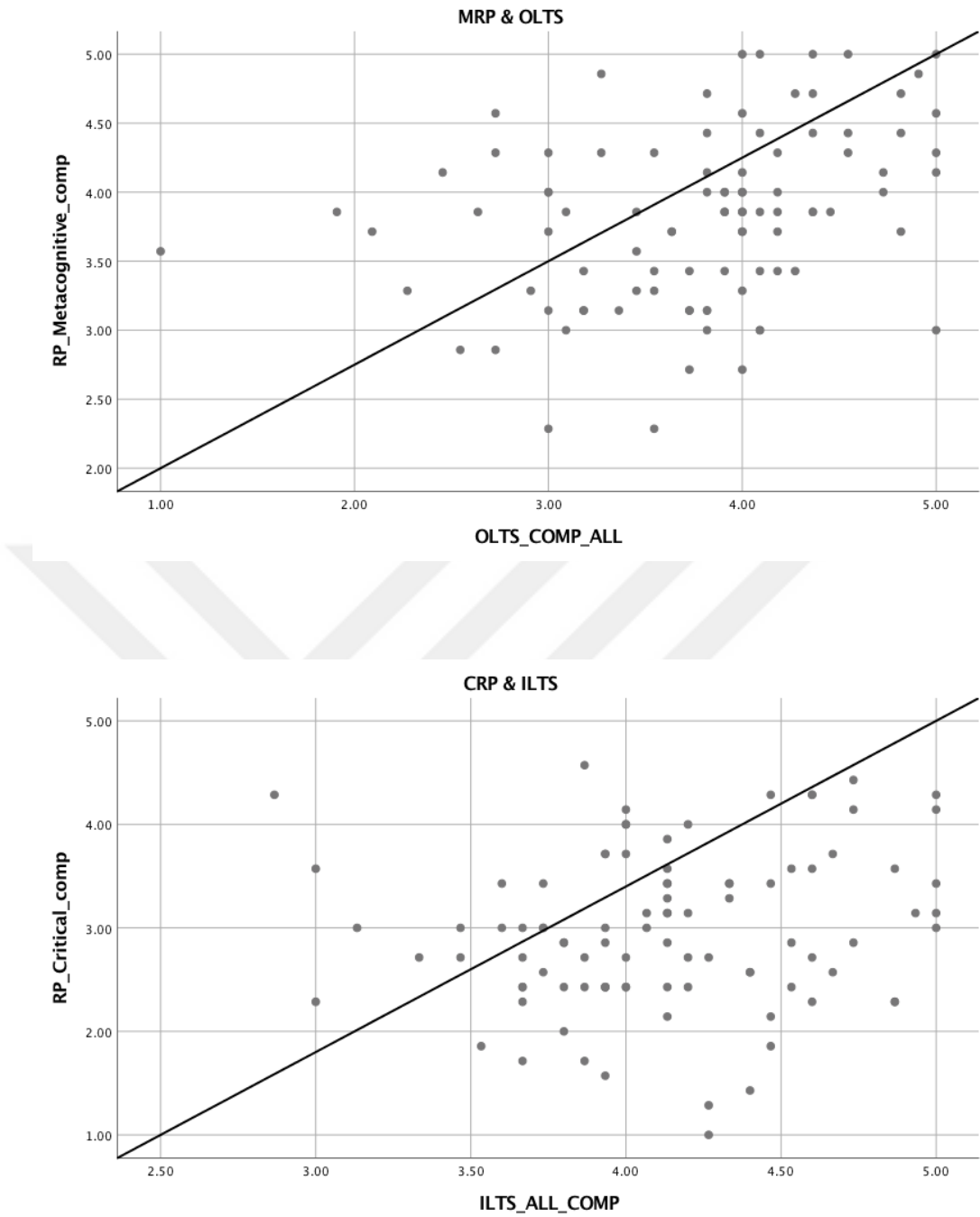


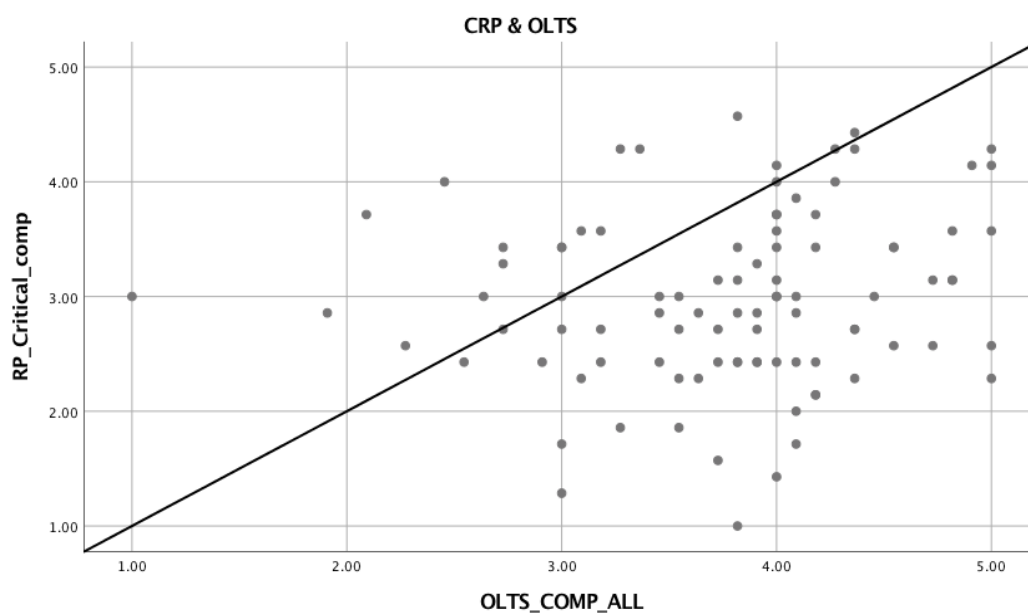
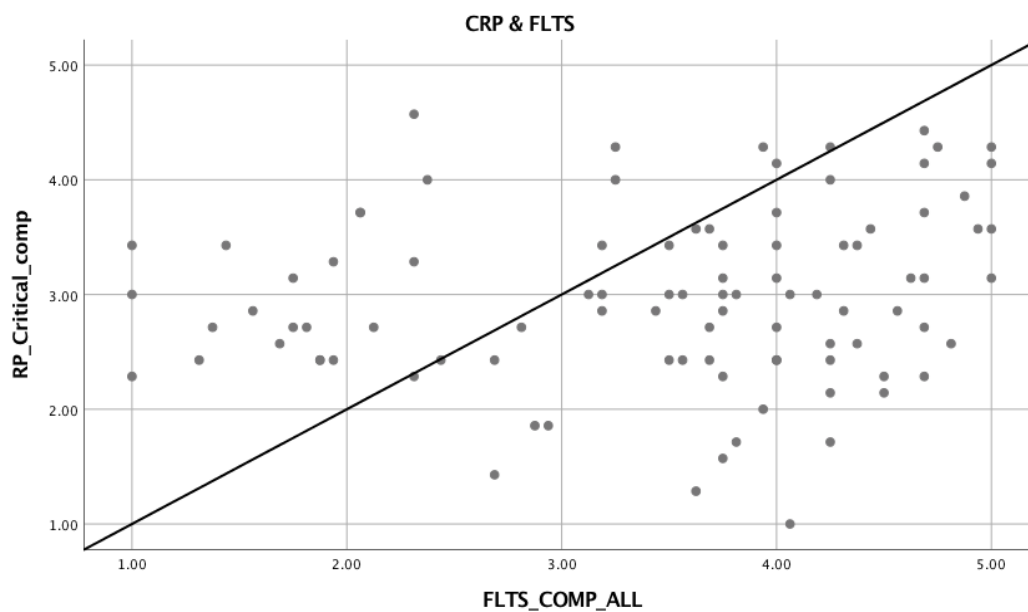












HISTOGRAMS FOR NORMALITY

