Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of and engagement in reflective practice: An exploratory study

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February 2021

Abstract

Reflective practice, its benefits and role in teaching has received much scholarly attention. Although several studies investigated the reflective practice concept in many contexts from several perspectives, not many studies have explored how it is understood among practising teachers. The number of studies exploring reflective practice in the Indonesian context is even smaller. Hence, this thesis aimed to investigate how Indonesian novice EFL teachers understood and engaged in the concept. In this regard, the current study set its research context as two cities in West Java, Indonesia. This study took a qualitative exploratory study approach and applied the convenience sampling method to choose six participants. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews, pre- and post-observation conferences, classroom observations and reflective journals. The NVivo 12 Software was used to store the vast amount of collected data, and thematic analysis was applied to analyse it. The findings suggested that the participants conceptualised reflective practice as a flashback activity to enhance their practice. Equally, the participants engaged in four types of reflection: reflection-before-action (RbA), reflection-in-action (RinA), reflection-on-action (RonA), and reflection-for-action (RfA). It was observed that generally the participants' different types of reflections intersected. The participants' reflections were also analysed through the five levels of Farrell's (2015) framework: philosophy, principles, theory, practice and beyond practice. Hence, the participants' reflections on their personal and professional identities, their perceived roles in education, their assumptions, beliefs and conceptions, their espoused theories and theories in use were presented. Moreover, the participants' reflections on the curriculum and delivery methods were explored as well as their reflections on educational policies and socio-cultural issues. It was noted that the findings of the current study mostly aligned with the previous research, especially in terms of attributing to the reflective practice concept a retrospective aspect. Furthermore, the results of this study suggested that a holistic reflection did not necessarily mean critical reflection. It was indicated that although describing and justifying the critical incidents were crucial, teachers needed an action plan to enhance their upcoming practices. Therefore, a full cycle of reflection, namely, RbA, RinA, RonA, and RbA is encouraged among the practitioners. Based on the findings and thorough discussions, several implications were presented for educational researchers, policymakers, and practitioners.

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Dedication

This dissertation is lovingly dedicated to my first teachers in life, my mother Nevin, and my father Sefer Derinalp.

Acknowledgement

It would have been impossible to complete this thesis without the support and help of many people whom I would like to thank.

First and foremost, I would like to express my deep gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor, Dr. Andy Cirocki. He has always supported me with his detailed and timely feedback. I also would like to thank him for being very patient with me.

I would like to thank my previous supervisor, Dr. Paul Roberts whom I started this journey with. I would like to thank him for his pastoral support and encouragement even after he had to stop supervising me.

I want to extend my gratitude to my Thesis Advisory Panel member, Dr. Bill Soden and thank him for his constructive feedback. I would like to thank him for challenging me with his insightful questions.

A special 'thank you' goes to my family who has always been with me with every step that I have taken. I would like to thank my mother, Nevin, and father, Sefer Derinalp to raise me as the person that I am today. I would like to take this opportunity to thank my sisters, Anil Derinalp, Oznur Derinalp Manap and Esra Aydin, who have always supported me with all the decisions that I made. I am blessed to have such great parents and wonderful and supportive sisters.

Dr. Rana Yildirim, my lecturer from my bachelor's degree, also deserves a 'thank you' as she has continued to support me even ten years after my graduation from the university. Thank you for being such an amazing and inspiring lecturer.

Dr. Endah Yanuarti and her family who have been a family to me in Indonesia deserve a very big and special 'thank you'. Dr. Endah Yanuarti has been a great guide, friend, and mentor. She not only introduced me to a new, fabulous world but also helped me to find participants for the current study. I also would like to take this opportunity to thank the participants of this study who have been really patient with me.

Last but not least, I want to thank the Turkish Ministry of National Education for funding this study.

Author's Declaration

I, Pelin Derinalp, declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work, and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References.

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter lays the foundation for this thesis. It starts with a presentation of the background information for the current study. Hence it introduces the reflective practice concept, which is the main focus of this study, and highlights its growing importance in the English Language Teaching (ELT) field. Next, the context of the study is explained including a brief overview of the Indonesian education system. Then, this chapter continues by explaining the purpose and methodology of the study. This is followed by an explanation of the significance of the current research project. Finally, an outline of the study is provided.

1.1. Background of the study

Reflective practice and Continuous Professional Development (CPD) have long been promoted among teachers. To develop their teaching skills, many teachers participate in pre- or in-service training courses. Attending these courses is useful; however, Roffey-Barentsen and Malthouse (2009) claim that besides attending them, reflecting on those courses or teaching experiences is also crucial. These courses may give the teachers insight into the theoretical background and help them understand several theories underlying the teaching-learning process. However, in order to optimise the outcome of the teaching practices, it is advisable for teachers to put the theories into practice or theorise their practices. Theorising the practice can be defined "as a rigorous and structured process of reflection that uses input from sources such as, indicatively, everyday teaching, professional discussions, readings, observations and experimentations" (Kostoulas, 2011, p. 4). In other words, teachers are encouraged to deliberately and proactively think about their practices and question them in order to improve their practice.

As Tummons (2010, p. 68) states "there's a lot of reflective practice about". While some practitioners find the reflection process eye-opening and extremely beneficial experience, some others consider it as a time-consuming process (Roffey-Barentsen & Malthouse, 2009; Tummons, 2010). Hence, some practitioners have intrinsic motivation towards reflective practice whereas some others are motivated extrinsically, i.e. their institutions require them to reflect. However, several benefits of reflective practice can be listed. It is widely recognised that professional reflective practices can meet the teachers' need for critical thinking, organisational skills and pedagogical content knowledge (Akbari, 2007; Crandall, 2000; Ferraro, 2000). Enhancing problem-solving and decision-making skills and raising self-awareness regarding the teaching practices can be counted as other benefits of reflective practice (Roffey-Barentsen & Malthouse, 2009). Moreover, reflective practice presents opportunities to apply theories that teachers have learned; hence, it helps teachers to improve their teaching skills.

Although the importance of reflective practice is widely accepted in the academic world, it does not refer to the same concept for everyone as it is interpreted in various ways. A deliberate (Dewey, 1910, 1933) and purposeful (Schön, 1983, 1987) activity, a problem-solving strategy (Bjuland, 2004; Kok & Chabeli, 2002; Stroulia & Goel, 1994), a political process that shapes ideologies (Boud et al., 1985) and an ability to make sense out of the encountered issues (Pisapia, 2009) are some of the definitions that are attributed to reflective practice. Rodgers (2002, p. 842) identifies four problems of not having a shared definition of reflective practice:

> First, it is unclear how systematic reflection is different from other types of thought. Second, it is difficult to assess a skill that is vaguely defined. Third, without a clear picture of what reflection looks like, it has lost its ability to be seen and therefore has begun to lose its value. And finally, without a clear definition, it is difficult to research the effects of reflective teacher education and professional development on teachers' practice and students' learning.

Most of the research relevant to reflective practice has investigated how it is implemented or how it can be fostered among the practising teachers. Several studies explored teacher reflections on their beliefs (Cabaroglu, 2014; Fleming et al., 2011; Gan, 2014; Tavil, 2014). Some other studies focused on the tools to promote reflection (Sun, 2010; Tang, 2013; Yang, 2009). However, not many studies investigated how reflective practice is understood among practitioners. In order to be able to promote the concept, first, it is essential to investigate the term from the perspective of the practitioners. Hence, this study aims to explore how practitioners conceptualise reflective practice and in what ways and how they engage in reflective practice.

The number of the studies focusing on reflective practice and conducted in the Indonesian context is even smaller. Among those limited numbers of the studies, most of them focused on pre-service teachers' reflections from different perspectives. To illustrate, Kuswandono (2013, 2014b) investigated how pre-service teachers constructed their identities while Astika (2014) explored which domains of teaching the participants reflected on mostly. Ragawanti (2015), in turn, explored the efficiency of reflective journals in relation to identifying the classroom management issues. One of the most recent studies investigated the Indonesian EFL teachers' attitudes regarding the implementation of reflective practice (Nurfaidah, 2018). In her study, Nurfaidah (2018) concluded that the participating pre-service teachers had great potential to be reflective practitioners. However, she also emphasised the scarcity of research on reflective practice in the Indonesian context. This study recognises that more studies are required in the Indonesian context. Hence, the current study sets its context as two cities in West Java province in Indonesia. The following subsection presents a detailed description of the research context.

1.2. Context of the study

This subsection provides information regarding the context of the study and briefly presents an overview of the Indonesian education system. In this regard, the subsection starts with a summary of the English Language Teaching (ELT) history in Indonesia. As it has a huge impact on the participants' philosophies, principles, and practices, the current curriculum in Indonesia, from 2013, is also presented. Finally, a brief overview of English Language Teacher Education in Indonesia is provided.

1.2.1 English language teaching in Indonesia

English has been taught as a foreign language for more than a century in Indonesia (Kusumarasdyati & Retnaningdyah, 2019). However, it was not until 1967 that the objectives of ELT were released by the Indonesian Ministry of Education (Sulistiyo, 2015). Although information is very limited regarding how English was taught back then, based on the coursebooks that were used at high schools, it appears that the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) (see 4.3.3) was commonplace (Yulia, 2014). This means that the focus was on the structure of the language. Siregar (2014) indicates that the GTM was used until 1968 and replaced with the Audio-Lingual Method (see 4.3.3) which was used until 1984. Although the Audio-Lingual Method emphasises the oral skills, Sulistiyo (2015, p. 16) states that the decree released in 1967 set the ultimate goal of English teaching in Indonesia as "to equip students with language skills, emphasising academic goals, and with the main aim of improving students' reading skills".

The 1984 Curriculum, in turn, encouraged teachers to use the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (see 4.3.3) in order to teach English (Lie, 2007) which means that fluency was emphasised over accuracy opposed to the GTM. When it comes to the 2013 Curriculum, the latest one, it favours the Scientific Approach (see 1.1.3). This means that teachers "must stimulate students to observe, make question, associate, experiment, and then communicate" (Sofyan, 2016, p. 16). The Scientific Approach requires student-centredness and applies the scientists' stages while building new experiences and knowledge. As it is the latest curriculum in Indonesia and apparently affects the teaching-learning practices, it is crucial to analyse the 2013 Curriculum in detail.

1.2.1.1 The 2013 Curriculum

In order to enhance educational quality, Indonesia has changed the educational curriculum several times. The most recent curriculum in Indonesia is the 2013 Curriculum. The latest curriculum emphasises the 21st century skills, character building, and religion as well as English as a foreign language.

The 2013 Curriculum was developed to meet the needs of the 21st century. Hence, it favours a scientific approach to the teaching-learning process. This means that by applying a scientific approach,

the 2013 Curriculum aims for students to develop critical thinking, creativity, collaboration, and communication skills, which are identified as the 21st century skills. The latest curriculum puts learners at the centre of the learning process and focuses on certain life skills and competencies referred to in the curriculum as "productive, creative, and able to contribute to society, nation, and mankind life" (Nugraha & Suherdi, 2017, p. 112). Moreover, digital literacy is identified as a key competency.

Other than applying a scientific method and highlighting the 21st century skills, one of the distinctive features of the 2013 Curriculum is the emphasis on character building including a patriotic and religious identity. Education, religion, and culture have very strong relationships in the 2013 Curriculum (Michie, 2017). As cited in Michie (2017, p. 85), the Ministry of Education and Culture (Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, Kemendikbud) identifies one of the goals of education as raising students to "become religious and pious humans to the one and only great God, of noble character, healthy, knowledgeable, skilful, creative, independent, and become democratic and responsible citizens" (Kemendikbud, 2012, p. 3). The 2013 Curriculum is regarded as an extension of the previous curriculum in various respects, and it aims to train the individuals according to the Ministry of Education and Culture's abovementioned goal. This means that building a good character including a patriotic and religious identity are core objectives. The roots of instilling a patriotic identity among the Indonesian students dates back to the Colonial era which was between 1600's and 1942 (Suratno, 2014). Back then, only a particular group based on their social status could be able to access to education. The idea behind privileging education to certain group was to create a social stratification favouring the Dutch (Suratno, 2014). This realisation caused the emergence of nationalism.

The 2013 Curriculum also puts an emphasis on English as a foreign language and requires all high schools to provide English classes. Indeed, English has been a compulsory subject at the high school level and has been taught as an optional subject by many primary schools for a few decades now. However, the Indonesian students' academic achievements and competence in using the language are generally considered to be low (Lie, 2007; Sulistiyo, 2015; Yulia, 2014). Renandya, Hamied, and Nurkamto (2018, p. 621) state that "official/national proficiency data on Indonesian learners of English is unavailable". However, Yulia (2014, p. 22) bases her claim to a personal interview with a district supervisor and expresses that "[I]n 2010, for example, English together with Bahasa Indonesia achieved the lowest grade compared to mathematics and science in the national examination in Yogyakarta".

The foreign language status of English, the few opportunities for practice and low motivation to learn the language could be several reasons for the Indonesian students' low English proficiency level. Considering that teacher education has a strong relationship with students' learning and achievement, it is crucial to overview the English language teacher education in Indonesia.

1.2.2 English Language Teacher Education in Indonesia

During the early years of independence, education conducted at schools was not functioning well as the schools were closed in many cases because of the students' low attendance. The reason for the students' low attendance was mostly because of the revolutionary battles (Mistar, 2006). However, the drastic increase in terms of students' enrolment to the schools during the early 1950s led to several problems one of which was the shortage of qualified English teachers. In order to solve this problem, university students who studied for at least two years in any major were recruited as teachers (Mooney, 1962). In addition, the Ministry of National Education and Culture operated teacher education programs called B I and B II Courses. The B I Course comprised of two years of further study following high school graduation and included instruction in professional education, fine arts, languages, science and mathematics, economics, and social studies. The B II Course, in turn, represented another two years of study after the completion of the B I Course and consisted of instruction in professional education, chemistry, history, geography, physical education, and mathematics (Mooney, 1962). As can be seen, very little importance was given to pedagogical content knowledge in terms of English language teaching then.

In 1954, the Ministry of National Education and Culture offered a four-year teacher training program, called *Sekolah Guru Bawah* (SGB) and a three-year teacher training program, called *Sekolah Guru Atas* (SGA). The graduates of SGBs could teach at elementary school level whereas SGA graduates were qualified to teach at junior high schools. In the same year, to produce more qualified EFL teachers, Standard Training Centres (STC) were founded in two cities in two different islands, namely Jogjakarta in Java and Bukittinggi in Sumatra. In the STC, in addition to the English language, English literature was also taught. The graduates of the STCs could work at senior high schools (Yanuarti, 2017).

In 1963, those teacher training courses were changed to institutes of teacher education named *Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan*. Although the students of these institutes were provided with a scholarship and accommodation, as well as a guarantee to work as a government officer after graduation, they had to be the high achievers at their high school education (Yanuarti, 2017). Not a long time later, these institutions lost their attraction to the top students. This is because other professions providing higher salaries were considered more prestigious. This situation affected teacher quality in a negative way (Raihani & Sumintono, 2010). In order to increase the quality of the teachers, a few other changes took place, one of which was launching the Open University for teachers to upgrade their qualifications (Yanuarti, 2017). Starting a Teacher Training Program (Program Pendidikan Guru, i.e. PPG) was another approach that the government applied in order to increase the quality of teachers (Susilo, 2015). The aim of the PPGs was to produce competent teachers and help them build and improve their professional skills (Widiati & Hayati, 2015).

Partly due to remunerating the teaching profession, partly due to increasing the quality of teachers, the Teacher Reform, - also known as Teachers Competency Standards- was declared in 2005 (Chang et al., 2013). These standards require competencies in four areas: pedagogical, social, professional, and personal (Sulistiyo, 2015). Pedagogical skills refer to the capability of delivering the material effectively in order to ensure the efficiency of the learning process. Social competence, in turn, describes teachers' ability to socialise and communicate effectively with their students, students' parents, colleagues, and the significant others while professional competence refers to teachers' having deep knowledge about the field that they are teaching. Last but not least, good personality refers to teachers being a role model for their students with having good characteristic features such as being mature, stable, wise, and having good morals (Yanuarti, 2017).

All four competencies can be developed through reflective practice as reflective practice helps teachers improve themselves not only professionally but also personally. Teacher reflection is actually "included in the attachment of the regulation of Ministry of National Education of Indonesia No. 16/2007, which states that teachers, at all stages of education, are expected to implement reflective practices to the enhancement of the learning quality"(Lubis, 2017, p. 31). However, it is crucial to note that although the regulation requires teachers to implement reflective practice, it does not provide teachers with guidelines for teacher reflection.

Lacking clear guidelines for reflection is not the only challenge for Indonesian teachers. Some scholars see culture as a barrier for reflection. To illustrate, although the concept dates back to the thoughts of many prior philosophers including Asian such as Aristotle, Buddha, Confucius, Lao Tzu, Plato and Solomon (Houston, 1988), Marzuki (2013, p. 7) refers to the concept as a "Western based discourse". She argues that different conceptualisation of literacy leads to a difference in practice of literacy. She further states that Indonesian ethnic groups' literal traditions are different from the Western. Therefore, she highly recommends taking into consideration the ethnicity and culture when investigating reflective practice in the Asian context. Although it is important to consider the cultural and contextual differences while adopting an ideology, restricting the term reflective practice to the western world would decrease the potential benefits of reflection in other contexts.

Another point that Marzuki (2013) highlights is the teachers' status in Indonesia. Marzuki (2013) elaborates on the contextual features and states that teachers have a high status in Indonesia which does not allow them to be publicly criticised, which is seen as a hinderance for reflection. This is because Marzuki (2013) regards reflection as a self-assessment tool for teachers to develop themselves. It is also made clear by Marzuki (2013) that critical thinking, leadership, and self-autonomy are core concepts for reflection, which Indonesian teachers might lack and need to develop.

Considering these challenges, the Ministry of National Education and Culture has implemented several changes in order to raise the standards of teachers. Still, teacher education in Indonesia has been criticised by many scholars (Luciana, 2004; Sulistiyo, 2015). One of the most important reasons for low English proficiency in Indonesia is the poorly designed teacher education programs. Luciana (2004) identifies three areas to be improved in terms of the teacher education programs in Indonesia: micro teaching, teaching practicum and seminar on teaching. Luciana (2004) argues that there is no standard among the teacher education programs in Indonesia, meaning that, while some of them provide the students with micro teaching experiences, some of them do not. The duration of the teaching practicums also varies and most of the times, students are not provided with a forum or seminar where they can discuss their practicum experiences. Although Luciana (2004) perceives the risk of simplifying the dynamic nature and richness of different teacher education programs, she favours the idea of establishing standards among those programs.

Supporting Luciana's claim, Sulistiyo (2015) criticises the inadequate application of teacher practicum. To illustrate, at Malang Muhammadiyah University, one of the universities located in East Java, students need 150 credits to complete the EFL program and the teaching practicum includes a microteaching course worth only four credits. Similarly, the Indonesian University of Education, located in West Java and considered to be the most prestigious university for education in Indonesia offers a four-credit teaching practicum course for the students who need 144 credits to complete the course. However, Sulistiyo (2015) argues that teacher practicums need to be given more importance as they would help novice teachers to link the theory that they learn at the training or education programs with real-life practice. In a similar line, Cubero-Pérez, Cubero, and Bascón (2019, p. 2) believe that reflective practice needs to be embedded in the practicum and teacher training courses in order to "ensure effective and autonomous professional practice" and "link theoretical principles to practical resources".

Perdhani (2013), in turn, draws attention to the issue of the teacher training and education programs not preparing prospective teachers as reflective practitioners well enough. Although Perdhani (2013) argues that teacher training and education programs do not provide the pre-service teachers with any training on reflective practice, she does not offer any clear guidance or suggestions for improvement. Unlike Perdhani (2013) who places responsibility on the teacher education and training programs, Yanuarti (2017, p. 261) believes that "[I]t is the government's responsibility to provide the guidelines to promote reflective practice for teachers". She (Yanuarti, 2017) also suggests that school supervisors and principals play a crucial role in assisting and guiding, particularly with inexperienced teachers. Another suggestion of Yanuarti (2017) is that teachers videotape their lessons and reflect on them; however, again, Yanuarti (2017) does not propose clear guidelines or a framework for teachers to reflect on their practice.

1.3 Purpose and methodology of the study

As stated earlier, the term reflective practice has been in the literature for a while; yet the definition of the term remains elusive. Although scholars have not come to an agreed definition, reflection and reflective practice have been widely encouraged in Indonesia as in the other contexts. Moreover, as explained above, although the Indonesian teachers are required to reflect on their practice, they are not provided with clear guidelines. Those guidelines would possibly start with an agreed definition of reflective practice. This means that it would be obvious for teachers what the Teacher Competency Standards refers to when requiring them to reflect. The guidelines would also provide teachers with clear and manageable instructions for them to follow.

This study recognises the fact that before establishing an understanding of the term, promoting teachers to reflect on their practice would be a vain attempt. Therefore, before investigating how reflective practice can be promoted among teachers, this study sets out its purpose as to investigate how reflective practice is defined and applied among Indonesian novice EFL teachers, whereby novice refers to teachers who have less than three years of experiences (see 2.5). In other words, this study attempts to present the existing situation regarding Indonesian novice EFL teachers' conceptualisation and implementation of reflective practice. In line with this purpose, the current research project posed three research questions:

RQ. 1) What is the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of reflective practice?

RQ. 2) How do the Indonesian novice EFL teachers engage in reflective practice?

RQ. 3) How are the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' reflections situated in Farrell's (2015) framework?

It is crucial to note that these questions are investigated through the lenses of a social constructivist worldview (see 3.1). This is mainly because this study supports the idea that knowledge is constructed interactively in a social environment (Vygotsky, 1980). Moreover, the current study aims to bring the participants' voices to research and endorses the idea that a social phenomenon can be interpreted in various ways (Creswell, 2014). Hence, in this study, one universal truth is not sought; rather, the participants' interpretations of reflective practice are investigated.

In line with the social constructivist research paradigm, this study adopts a qualitative research method in order to answer the research questions. In this regard, data is collected through multiple qualitative data collection tools such as interviews, pre- and post-observation conferences, classroom observations and reflective journals. While the first research question is answered based on the

interview data analysis, in order to answer the second research question, pre- and post-observation conferences, reflective journals and classroom observation data was used. When it comes to the third research question, all collected data was triangulated. Hence, a detailed analysis of the phenomenon is arrived at.

1.4 Significance of the study

This study poses several theoretical/conceptual contributions to the existing knowledge. One of the most significant contributions is that the study aims to provide the existing literature with a better understanding of the term reflective practice. Studies conducted on reflective practice mostly focus on how or why it is implemented (Loughran, 2002; Nurfaidah, 2018) or how it can be fostered among teachers (Baecher & McCormack, 2015; Bruster & Peterson, 2013; Komur & Cepik, 2015; Yang, 2009). However, this study suggests that it is crucial to explore how practitioners understand the term before promoting reflection.

Another significance of this study includes its context. A considerable number of studies reveal the benefits of reflective practice (Cirocki & Farrell, 2017; Farrell, 2015; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Schmid, 2011). However, although scholars constantly promote reflective practice and the Indonesian policymakers include the concept in the Teacher Competency Standards (see 1.2.2) and the 2013 Curriculum (see 1.2.1.1), not many studies have investigated how teachers conceptualise reflective practice, specifically in the Indonesian context. Hence, this study contributes to the empirical research exploring how Indonesian EFL teachers understand reflective practice and how they engage in the concept.

1.5 Outline of the study

The current study has been organised into six chapters. The current chapter, Chapter 1, starts with brief background information. Next, this chapter provides a context of the study from the perspective of an overview of the Indonesian education system. In this regard, English language teaching in Indonesia, the 2013 Curriculum and English Language Teacher Education in Indonesia are presented. Then, the purpose and significance of the study are also explained. Finally, a brief overview of the current thesis is provided under the title of the outline of the study.

Chapter 2 presents a critical review of the current literature regarding reflective practice. Several definitions, types, and models of the term are reviewed. Several tools that promote reflective practice are introduced. Empirical studies from pre-service, in-service, and novice teachers' perspective are presented. The fact that studies conducted targeting novice teachers were limited is highlighted.

Chapter 3 provides the methodology and the methods that were applied in the current study in detail. The rationale behind adopting a qualitative study is explained. The profile of the participants and the sampling procedure are explained as well as the data collection tools and protocols. A description of the pilot study is also provided. In addition to the data analysis process, considerations regarding the trustworthiness and ethics as well as the researcher's stance and potential bias are presented.

Chapter 4, in turn, offers a detailed presentation of the findings. The chapter consists of three subsections each of which presents the findings of each research question respectively. The participants' understandings of the term reflective practice are presented in the first subsection. The next subsection illustrates how the participants engaged in reflective practice. The last subsection of Chapter 4, in turn, investigates the participants' reflections through the most recent and holistic framework for teachers which is suggested by Farrell (2015).

Chapter 5, where the findings are critically discussed, presents how the findings of the current study answer the research questions. This chapter follows a similar structure to Chapter 4 and includes three subsections each of which are dedicated to discussing one research question thoroughly.

Finally, Chapter 6 provides a summary of the study and the key findings. Chapter 6 also includes contributions and limitations of the current study as well as the recommendations for further research. Implications for theory, practice, and policy are also set out in detail.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The previous chapter laid the foundation for this thesis. It introduced the reflective practice concept and highlighted its growing importance in the ELT field. The previous chapter provided background information about the current study. The context of the study was also presented. A brief overview of the Indonesian education system was presented in relation to the context of the study. A summary of the most recent curriculum, the 2013 Curriculum was introduced. The purpose and methodology of the study were also introduced along with the significance of the current research project. The previous chapter ended with the outline of the current study.

This chapter, in turn, starts with presenting several definitions and types of reflection. Next, the characteristic features of reflective practitioners are discussed. Constructing a reflective identity is the following topic to be discussed. After that, reflection in pedagogical use is presented. Under that subsection, several models of reflection including Farrell's (2015) framework, which guides this study are presented along with the tools that promote reflection. Finally, following reflection in pedagogical use, empirical studies conducted on reflective practice among pre-service, in-service, and novice teachers are presented.

2.1 Reflection: Its definitions and types

Since the concept was first introduced, various definitions of reflection have been proposed. As it is a complex concept, scholars have not yet come to an agreement in terms of one representative definition of reflection in the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). Hence, the term needs to be presented from different angles. Various definitions of the term are presented below. At the end of the section, the guiding definition of reflection for the current project is presented. Following the section presenting the definitions, the next section is dedicated to exploring how various interpretations of the concept have led to the emergence of different types.

2.1.1   Definitions of reflection

Proposed more than a century ago and still quite popular, the term *reflection* has been defined by many scholars (Akbari, 2007; Farrell, 2007; Rodgers, 2002); yet, it is still elusive. Dewey (1910) sees reflection as ideas that are in consecutive order, each leaning back on the previous yet determining the next. Dewey (1910) regards reflection as a deliberate activity. In other words, the steps that a teacher takes in a class should be consistent with the previous and next ones. This means that the smooth flow of the lesson should be ensured and all the activities that the teachers introduce should have an aim. Agreeing with Dewey and mentioning that reflection is purposeful, Schön (1983, 1987) also suggests that

reflection is a systematic inquiry. Using a more general definition, Boud, Keogh, and Walker (1985) rationalise reflection as a term "for those intellectual and affective activities in which [teachers] engage to explore their experiences in order to lead to new understandings and appreciations" (p. 19). The discussion so far shows that reflection can be defined as a purposeful activity that enlightens the reasons for the classroom activities.

Ross (1989) views reflection as teachers' researching their practice and making sensible choices for their classes and taking responsibility for the consequences of these choices. Bigge and Shermis (1998), in turn, see it as teachers' posing a question towards their practices in order to improve them and attempting to solve the question that they have posed. The questions Bigge and Shermis (1998) mention target the lessons' quality such as how the lesson was, what was good/bad, how it can be improved. Yet, from another perspective, reflection is about the ability to think creatively (Lasley, 1992). Using the metaphor of "a mirror", Bassot (2016, p. 6) suggests that reflection is "a process of thinking and looking at practice… [with the purpose of] heighten[ing the practitioners'] level of critical evaluation and self-awareness". From those perspectives, reflection can be seen as a rightful opposition to mechanical actions and a purposeful activity that the teachers take in order to improve their practice.

Alvesson and Skölberg (2000) define teacher reflection as "one's own interpretations, looking at one's own perspectives from another perspective, and turning a self-critical eye onto one's own authority as interpreter and author" (p. vii). Moon (2004), however, simply describes reflecting as "akin to thinking but more added to this" (p. 82), which is similar to Schön's perspective, namely its being purposeful and systematic. What can be concluded from these definitions is that reflection requires the practitioner to engage in self-criticism and needs to be done in a systematic way. Mere thinking is not counted as a reflection as a genuine reflection would require an aim and be implemented in an organised way.

The debate about whether the reflection is an ability, activity or process still goes on (Boud et al., 1985; Kemmis, 1985; Lynch, 2000; Pisapia, 2009). Lynch (2000) suggests that reflection has been interpreted in many ways; while some see it as a crucial human capacity, some others regard it as an act. Although Pisapia (2009) explains it as an ability to make sense out of the issues encountered, Kemmis (1985) sees it as a socio-political activity suggesting that reflection is not a mere internal activity but integrated with historical and cultural context. Hence, according to Kemmis (1985), any reflection without considering socio-political, cultural, and historical aspects would be limited. This is because Kemmis (1985, p. 147) suggests that "the form and content of reflection are shaped by the life of the society". This means that the way the individual thinks and reflects is influenced by the culture and society that they live in. Boud et al. (1985), on the other hand, perceive it as a political process that shapes ideologies, and in turn, is shaped by ideologies. Indeed, reflection can be interpreted as an

activity that develops into an ability during the process. A number of other scholars have also attempted to define reflection (Akbari, 2007; Impedovo & Khatoon Malik, 2016; Thompson & Pascal, 2012; Torres-Goens & Farley, 2017). As these scholars provide similar definitions to the ones already presented, their definitions will not be discussed here to avoid unnecessary repetition.

It is important here to present one definition that guides the current project as the term is interpreted in different ways. Having presented several definitions and taking them all into consideration, in this project, reflection is seen as a resistance to mechanical reactions, enhancement on the personal and professional level and a tool to link theory with practice. As some problems are not easy to solve, many models suggested for reflection have a cyclical feature (Clarke, 1995; Korthagen, 1999; Ward & McCotter, 2004). Hence, drawing on the perspectives presented above, reflective practice is defined as a cyclical process of critical thinking and evaluation of one's actions considering the socio-political and cultural aspects of their society with the aim of improving practice by taking the research into consideration.

2.1.2 Types of reflection

Cirocki and Farrelly (2016) suggest that instead of trying to agree on a single definition of reflection, it might be more beneficial to consider its different types. Following their suggestion, this subsection focuses on and presents several types of reflection. First, Schön's (1983) categorisation and the criticism of this categorisation is presented. Then, Mezirow's (1990) classification of reflection types is introduced. Next, Senge's (1990) conceptualisation of reflection types is presented. Lastly, Larrivee's (2008) hierarchical levels are discussed.

In order to clarify the concept, Schön (1983) categorises reflection in two ways: Reflection-in-Action (RinA) and Reflection-on-Action (RonA). These two streams are categorised according to the time that the action takes place. If the reflection is simultaneous with the action, then it is referred to as RinA; however, if the reflection process takes place after the action, then it is named as RonA. In other words, if teachers reflect while their classes still go on, then they are reflecting in action but, if teachers give a second thought to their lessons after the class, then they are reflecting on action. Although it is mostly agreed that Schön's contributions have "had the most influence on establishing the notion of reflective practice" (Newman, 1999, p. 99), they are also widely criticised. To illustrate, contrary to Schön (1983, 1989), Newman (1999) argues that reflection is more than mere imitation or a second thought.

Newman (1999, 2018, 2020) was not the only scholar who criticised Schön. Schön (1983, 1987) encourages practitioners to think about current or past events. Although these types of reflection are useful to make meaning of the classroom incidents, without consideration for future incidents, reflection is incomplete. For that reason, finding Schön's model lacking the future component, Killion and Todnem

(1991) expand the reflection process to Reflection-for-Action (RfA). RfA is about thinking about the future while considering the past. In other words, this stage provides teachers opportunities to think about what if an incident that has happened before and puzzled the teacher happens again in future.

Although reflection has long been regarded as a retrospective process, Killion and Todnem (1991) brought a new perspective suggesting that the process can also be prospective. However, they still did not consider the planning stage. Although neglected for such a long time, only recently, anticipatory reflection or Reflection-before-Action (RbA) has started to be discussed (Cirocki & Widodo, 2019). While RfA refers to considering an action plan based on the previous experience, RbA is "anticipatory reflection involving the careful consideration of what to do and why to do it before engaging in action" (Miller & Stoeckel, 2010, p. 41). Being a future-oriented reflection type, RbA denotes teachers' predicting the possible challenges that they might encounter during the class and arranging their lesson plans accordingly. Hence, RbA stage suggests many critical, theoretical, and practical questions for teachers to be able to be well-prepared for their lesson. Hence, this stage provides EFL teachers with a well-organised lesson plan. The process also encourages the EFL teachers to discover the resources that they might use.

From a different perspective, Mezirow (1990) categorises the reflection types into three: content reflection, process reflection, and premise reflection. According to Mezirow's (1990) categorisation, the content reflection seeks the answer for the question of *what*, the process reflection is about *how* the practitioners reflect, and the premise reflection explores the answers for the question of *why* (Figure 1). Mezirow's premise reflection denotes critical reflection. In a similar vein to Ross (1990), Lasley (1992) and Bigge and Shermis (1998) who argue that reflection should be a resistance to mechanical reactions, according to Cirocki and Farrelly (2016), critical reflection is teachers' standing back from their daily routine and thinking about and making meaning of their practice from a different perspective. Critical reflection is about problematising routine teaching practices and posing questions; hence, it requires the practitioner to justify the questions that are posed in the first place. As Mezirow (1990) suggests critical reflection means "challenging the established definition of a problem being addressed" (p. 4). Mezirow (1990) mentions that people have presuppositions, and in order to verify or falsify the presuppositions, critical reflection is crucial.

Figure 1.

Mezirow's (1990) categorisation of reflection

> Content reflection - What ?
>
> Process reflection - How?
>
> Premise (critical) reflection - Why?
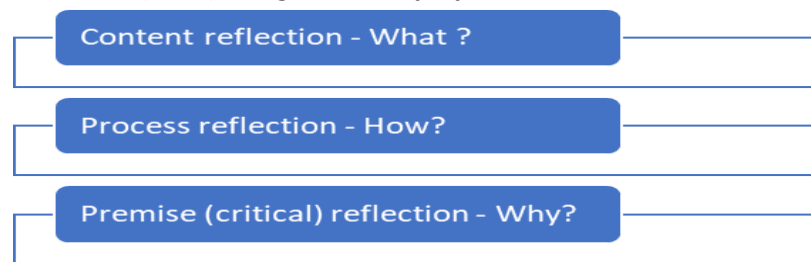
Senge (1990), in turn, proposed a more complex typology of reflection. According to Senge (1990), there are three stages of reflection: technical, practical, and critical. Technical reflection refers to taking the teaching methods, techniques, approaches into consideration which is similar to Smith's (2011) contextual reflection. Contextual reflection refers to investigating how theories, concepts, and approaches affect and inform practice (Smith, 2011). In other words, it questions how the teachers' practice might be different in the case of adopting an alternative technique, method, or theory. Practical reflection, on the other hand, is about the practical outcomes of an action. Building on the first two stages of reflection, critical reflection considers a wider perspective incorporating ethical, financial, social, and political dimensions (Cirocki & Farrelly, 2016; Smith, 2011). This aspect of reflection stresses that the practitioners should take responsibility not only for their acts, but also the social, political, and cultural circumstances that they are in. Bolton (2010, p. 3) advocates that:

> [Reflection] challenges assumptions, ideological illusions, damaging social and cultural
> biases, inequalities, and questions personal behaviours which perhaps silence the voices
> of others or otherwise marginalise them.

Hence, it can be concluded that reflection becomes a purposeful and holistic act rather than being a mere *confession*.

Building on the earlier researchers' work, Larrivee (2008) proposes four hierarchical levels for assessing teachers' level of reflective practice: *pre-, surface, pedagogical*, and *critical* reflection. Larrivee's (2008) pre-reflection stage denotes teachers' interpreting the incidents without taking other incidents or circumstances into consideration. At this stage, teachers' reflections are reactive, impulsive, and automatic. At the surface level, in turn, teachers seek the most efficient method in order to reach the predefined goals. However, teaching practices are not informed by research or theory; rather, teachers rely on their previous experiences at this stage. When it comes to the pedagogical level, teachers' decisions are supported by research and theory as well as their previous experiences. At this stage, teachers are concerned with enhancing their students' learning experiences. Finally, Larrivee (2008, p. 348) defines critical reflection as teachers' consciously considering "how personal beliefs and

values, assumptions, family imprinting, and cultural conditioning may impact on students". This means that teachers need to take social and political issues into consideration and be aware of the consequences of their practices.

The various definitions and types of reflection provide useful information about the qualities of reflective practitioners. For the purpose of the current research study, it is important to address a detailed profile of a reflective teacher. Therefore, the following section discusses several characteristic features of reflective practitioners.

2.2 Characteristic features of reflective practitioners

In the past two decades, teachers have been strongly encouraged to be reflective practitioners in order to improve their practices. While EFL teachers are encouraged and, indeed, expected to be a reflective practitioner, it is important to identify characteristic features of reflective practitioners and present them in a coherent way so that they might possibly be used as a guideline by the teachers and teacher training programs.

When the concept first emerged, the features of reflective practitioners were interpreted from a narrow perspective with only three features: open-mindedness, wholeheartedness, and responsibility (Dewey, 1933). The first feature, open-mindedness refers to being open to new ideas or different points of view. Being open-minded can be characterised as being critical with the self and accepting one's strengths and weaknesses, and also being tolerant of different perspectives. Alvesson and Skölberg (2000) propose that practitioners should be tolerant of criticism in order to develop themselves both personally and professionally. Hence, being open to criticisms is crucial.

Although there was a common agreement on the features of reflective practitioners, interpretations of these features varied. For example, Zeichner and Liston (1996) interpreted the second feature, Dewey's wholeheartedness, as teachers' assessing their own actions, beliefs, and assumptions and learning from new experiences. This interpretation of wholeheartedness; however, is more similar to another feature of the reflective practitioners, namely being mindful as mindfulness requires the practitioner to be aware of their acts. Husu, Toom, and Patrikainen (2008) claim that the reflection process "highlights a teacher's conscious choices about how to act in the classroom" (p. 38). Likewise, Pollard (2002) indicates that teachers should have "an active concern with aims and consequences, as well as means and technical efficiency" (p. 12). Besides this, touching upon reflective practitioners' being responsible for their acts, Pollard (2002) emphasises that teachers should be aware of their acts and what these acts cause. In order for someone to be reflective, the practitioner needs to be aware of their actions; hence, mindfulness is a crucial part of reflection; however, what Dewey means with wholeheartedness may be better interpreted by Rodgers (2002) who defines wholeheartedness as "total

engagement" (p. 859). Being enthusiastic and curious about the topic that is taught gives teacher energy or *fuel,* as Rodgers (2002) states, to be a reflective practitioner. Teachers' putting their heart into their teaching can also be defined as wholeheartedness.

The third component of Dewey's characterisation of a good reflective practitioner is responsibility, which means taking responsibility for the actions that the practitioner takes. What Dewey (1933) means by responsibility is securing integrity; in other words, "consistency and harmony in beliefs" (p. 32). While some scholars such as Pollard (2002) believe that Dewey's making meaning of responsibility applies only within the borders of the classroom; some scholars such as Zeichner (1981) and Güngör (2016) take this further. For instance, interpreted broadly, responsible teachers are understood as attentive teachers by Güngör (2016). She suggests that responsible teachers consider their actions and teaching environment at least from three perspectives: personal, academic, and social and political. A personal perspective denotes teachers' self-concepts while the academic perspective refers to how teachers' actions affect the learners intellectually. Finally, the impact of teachers' action in relation to the outside of the classroom, namely, to the society is related to the social and political perspective as teachers are responsible not only for their own acts – personal and professional but also for society. Pollard (2002, p. 15) highlights the importance of the teachers' engaging with the educational policy stating that:

> It is important that, within a modern democratic society, teachers should be entitled not only a hearing, but also some influence, on educational policy… The reflective teacher should thus be aware of the political process and of its legitimate oversight of public educational services.

Pollard (2002) not only raises teachers' awareness of the political process and its reflections on the public educational services but also encourages teachers to be eager to make a contribution to it as a professional and citizen at the same time. This feature of reflective practitioners can be described as their being attentive to the educational policies and the context that they are surrounded by.

Another feature of a reflective practitioner, one not listed by Dewey, is that they are continuous learners. Reflective practitioners never stop learning and they are committed to developing themselves continuously (York-Barr et al., 2005). This learning process is not limited to their own experiences; they welcome each opportunity in order to improve themselves not only professionally, but also personally and learn from others' experiences, as well.

Some other characteristic features of reflective practitioners can be listed as their being communicative, well-organised and competent, as shown below, in Table 1. Their being communicative involves their interacting with their students, colleagues, and significant others effectively while being

well-organised means planning their time wisely and allocating time to reflect on their actions. Last but not least, competent reflective practitioners have the ability of planning, designing and delivering a lesson efficiently besides evaluating their practice. They also have good classroom managing skills. Table 1 summarises several characteristic features of reflective practitioners that many scholars agreed on (Dewey, 1910, 1933; Güngör, 2016; Pollard, 2002; Rodgers, 2002; Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

Table 1.

Features of reflective practitioners

Feature	Explanation of the feature
Open-minded	They can embrace new ideas or different points of view and tolerant of the differences (Alvesson & Skölberg, 2000; Dewey, 1910, 1933).
Whole-hearted	They are enthusiastic and curious about the topic that they teach. They also feel total engagement in their topic (Dewey, 1910, 1933; Rodgers, 2002). As they enjoy what they teach, they easily motivate their students to learn the topic. They put their hearts into teaching.
Responsible	They are aware of and responsible for their acts and the consequences of their acts (Dewey, 1910, 1933). These acts refer to their teaching practise as well as being role-model for their students.
Life-long learners	They are eager to learn from their and other's experiences, take any opportunity to develop themselves both personally and professionally. They also monitor, evaluate, and revise their practice in a spiralling or cyclical process. Hence, they reflect - before, -in, -on, and -for action.
Critical	They are critical with self and open to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses in their teaching. They are also willing to assess their own practices, beliefs, and assumptions (Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

Mindful	They are aware of their environments, act according to the necessity of their context. Pollard (2002) indicates that teachers should have "an active concern with aims and consequences, as well as means and technical efficiency" (p. 12). Considering their teaching context, they can assess their students' needs. They are aware of their students' abilities and capacities.
Attentive	They are aware of the educational policies and socio-cultural circumstances that they are in, and eager to act accordingly (Güngör, 2016; Pollard, 2002). They take the culture into consideration that they teach in.
Communicative	They are aware of the importance of good communication, and they can interact effectively with their students, colleagues and the other stakeholders that are involved in the teaching-learning process (Pollard, 2002). This feature of reflective practitioners is supposed to help them improve their classroom practice, manage the class better and increase the learning quality (Department of Indonesian National Education, 2007, cited in Yanuarti, 2017).
Well-organised	They plan their classes and time and allocate time particularly for developing themselves personally and professionally.
Competent	They are aware of the different teaching methods and approaches, and they can choose the best one for their context. They are good at planning, delivering and evaluating their lessons and managing the class (Pollard, 2002).

Many different features come together to portray the reflective practitioner. Although the list above is not exhaustive, it presents the most essential features of the reflective practitioners and what they mean. Having presented the characteristic features of reflective practitioners from different perspectives, it is time to present how to construct a reflective identity. Therefore, the next section focuses on exploring why and how EFL teachers construct a reflective identity.

2.3 Constructing a reflective identity

Throughout their life, people do not own only one identity, but they construct multiple identities (Williams, 2013). They construct identities such as personal, social, and professional. Within those identities, they form several other identities; being a mother/father, daughter/son, female/male, employer/employee, student/teacher, to name a few. Even under their personal, social, or professional identities, they continue to form multiple identities. Besides several others, reflective identity is one of the most crucial identities for teachers. Constructing a reflective identity is a complicated process that involves teachers' other identities. As one's multiple identities often overlap, they influence each other. For example, teachers' reflective identities are affected not only by their professional but also by their personal identities (Walkington, 2005). Each teacher has their own unique way of teaching, which is affected by their personal identities, which in turn affects their reflective identities. In a similar vein, teachers develop their reflective identity by reflecting on their previous and current experiences. Teachers' previous language learning experiences and current teaching experiences shape their professional identities (Lortie, 1975), hence, their reflective identities. Another factor that contributes to the reflective identity construction process is the social context that teachers work in (Cirocki & Farrell, 2017; Cserpes, 2012; Williams, 2013). The social context is not only restricted to their classroom, but it involves a wider context including the society, region, or country that they work in.

Regarding the social context, it is vital to highlight the influence of social interaction. Teachers' interacting with their colleagues, principals, mentors, or students enhance their self-awareness regarding their professional identities, their professional development, and their practice (Cirocki & Farrell, 2017). Social interaction helps teachers gain new skills and develop themselves in pedagogical practice; hence, they contribute to their professional development and constructing a reflective teacher identity. In a sense, it can be concluded that being a good communicator, which is one of the suggested characteristic features of reflective practitioners as mentioned in Section 2.2, is crucial for teachers to improve themselves.

From a different perspective, Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson (2005) categorise identity in two groups: identity-in-discourse and identity-in-practice, respectively. Providing further explanation, Varghese et al. (2005) mention that identity-in-discourse acknowledges that reflective teacher identity is mainly constructed through discourse and language. In other words, teachers' discussing their pedagogical practice is a way of constructing and forming their reflective identity.

Identity-in-practice, in turn, has a social perspective to attribute to the reflective teacher identity and advocates that reflective identity is built through engagement, imagination, and alignment (Wenger, 1999). Identity-in-practice refers to how teachers put their pedagogical knowledge into practice. Having

an immediate relation to teachers' practice, engagement refers to engaging in tasks, working alone or in collaboration and transforming ideas into action to develop practice. Engagement helps reflective teachers establish collaboration with their colleagues and learn from each other.

Imagination, in turn, refers to forming the image of and interpreting the external reality (Wenger, 1999). Imagination allows teachers to situate and familiarise themselves with their surroundings and see themselves from a different angle which helps them reflect on the situations that they are in and explore further possibilities. Cirocki and Farrell (2017) suggest that imagination motivates teachers to discover new methods and approaches as it enables them to imagine the teaching setting and locate themselves in it; hence, being in a close relationship with engagement, imagination is also an important factor for teachers to construct a reflective identity.

Alignment is defined as "a mode of belonging" which is not limited to the engagement of both (or each) parties but leads a synergy through building a spirit of community (Wenger, 1999, p. 179). Hence, the third mode of identification, alignment, is not less important than the first two modes. Indeed, without alignment, engagement or imagination would not give the ultimate result (Wegner, 1999). It is important to note that alignment does not refer to a one-way process that is about following prescribed directions; rather, alignment is about interpreting the context and actions, coordinating different aspects, and collaborating with colleagues. Systematising and locating teachers' pedagogical activities in a complex, broader context, alignment encourages teachers to construct a reflective identity (Cirocki & Farrell, 2017).

Besides constructing reflective identities, it is also crucial for teachers to sustain them. Continuous Professional Development (CPD) opportunities are one of the most convenient ways for teachers to sustain their reflective identity. CPDs can be in two ways: top-down and bottom-up (Farrell, 2013). In the case of the recognition of the need for professional development, and initiation courses or workshops by a higher or bigger organisation such as the school administration or the Ministry of Education, the approach can be defined as a top-down one. If the individual identifies the need and seeks to initiate development, the process is defined as bottom-up (Farrell, 2013). Either way, it is essential for teachers to engage in CPDs in order to improve themselves continuously. Below, several models of reflection and tools to promote reflection are discussed, which help teachers to sustain their reflective identities as well.

2.4 Reflection in pedagogical practice

This section deals with two concepts: models of reflection and tools that promote reflection respectively. The first subsection focuses on the models of reflection. The section provides a discussion about the suggested models for reflection and how each model has been influenced by the previous and

has affected the next. Presenting and discussing several models, the most recent and guiding model, Farrell's framework for reflective practitioners is presented (Farrell, 2015). Following the models of reflection, the second subsection presents several tools that promote reflection.

2.4.1   Models of reflection

As the definition of reflection differs from one to another (see 2.1.1), it is being practised in various ways, as well. In order to better understand the concept of reflective practice, it is important to present several models. Hence, this section focuses on presenting several models of reflection with an emphasis on the latest one, namely, Farrell's (2015) framework for reflection as it is chosen as the guiding model for the current project.

Despite being one of the pioneers of the term, Dewey (1910) lacks a systematic process to enable reflective action. Schön (1983), however, offers a systematic way of thinking by presenting Reflection-in-Action and Reflection-on-Action (see 2.1.2). Schön discusses a reflection process that includes the present and past time frames; however, the future implications of reflection are missing. Hence, Killion and Todnem (1991) upgrade Schön's Reflection-in-Action and Reflection-on-Action model by adding Reflection-for-Action which encourages teachers to plan their future classes (see 2.1.2). Although it has been widely accepted, Schön's reflective practice faces some criticisms other than Killion and Todnem (1991) criticism as it does not take teachers' social dimension into consideration (Day, 1999; Fook, 2015; Solomon, 1987). Day (1999), for example, insists on including the social dimension into reflection as Day (1999) argues that the incidents should be considered from a holistic perspective including social, political, economic, and personal aspects. Similarly, Fook (2015) advocates that it is of vital importance to include the social dimension as "social factors might also influence the experience" (p. 443).

Recently some studies (Beijaard & Meijer, 2017; Fullan, 2014) highlight that teachers should be considered as a whole with not only their professional but also their personal dimensions. Fullan and Hargreaves (1994), for example, emphasise the importance of seeing through the teachers' personal dimensions by stating that:

> Human growth is not like rhubarb. It can be nurtured and encouraged but it cannot be
> forced. Teachers become the teachers they are not just out of habit. Teaching is bound
> up with their lives, their biographies, with the kinds of people they have become (p. 68).

Teachers shape both their professional and personal identity through the experiences that they have in and out of the class. Therefore, instead of regarding teachers as technicians or robots without any

feelings or backgrounds, teachers should be seen as a whole, and their out-of-class experiences should also be taken into consideration.

The second model to be discussed is Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle. In the previous model discussed, Schön's model (1983) does not suggest a model or structure. On the other hand, taking into consideration that teachers' experiences have positive effects on learning, Kolb (1984) proposes a four-stage experiential learning cycle. Kolb names the stages as follows: (a) concrete experience, (b) reflective observation, (c) abstract conceptualisation and (d) active experimentation (Figure 2).

Figure 2.

Kolb's four-stage cycle (adapted from Kolb, 1984, p. 42)
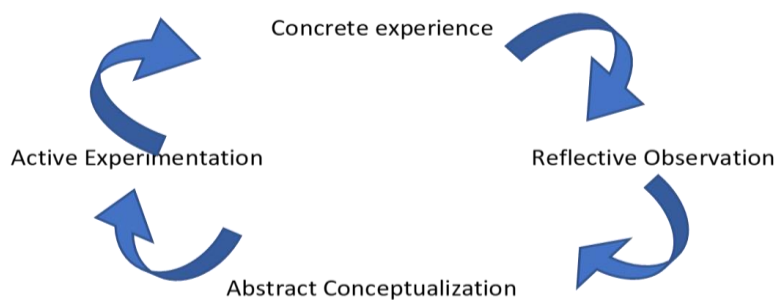
In Kolb's cycle, concrete experience denotes teaching a lesson. After the practice takes place, teachers reflect on their practice evaluating its strengths and weaknesses. This stage is called reflective observation and similar to Schön's RonA process. Mere thinking or reflecting on the practice is not enough. Teachers need to think about *hows* and *whys* which leads them to search the literature. This stage is similar to Killion and Todnem's (1991) RfA stage as the teachers think about how to improve their future classes (see 2.1.2). Having an idea about the *hows* and *whys* during the abstract conceptualisation stage - as it is called, teachers put the solutions into practice. Trying out the new solutions is called active experimentation. According to Kolb (1984), learning is an infinite process that is like a cycle and the cycle can start from any stage. Being able to start from any stage makes Kolb's cycle practical to use and suitable for both experienced and novice teachers.

Expanding Kolb's cycle by dividing the abstract conceptualising phase into two, Korthagen and Kessels' (1999) ALACT model is presented next. The acronym stands for Action, Looking back, Awareness of essential aspects, Creating alternative methods, and Trial (Figure 3).

Figure 3.

The ALACT Model (Korthagen & Kessels, 1999, p.13)

ALL THE PREVIOUS SKILLS + HELP
IN FINDING AND CHOOSING
SOLUTIONS

a separate learning-
programme (if necessary)

HELP IN
CONTINUING THE
LEARNING PROCESS

4
creating
alternative methods
of action

trial   5

ACCEPTANCE
EMPATHY
GENUINENESS
CONCRETENESS
CONFRONTATION
GENERALIZING
UTILIZING THE
HERE-AND-NOW
HELP IN
    MAKING THINGS
    EXPLICIT

awareness
of
essential
aspects

3

HELP IN
FINDING USEFUL
EXPERIENCES

action   1

looking back on
the action

2

ACCEPTANCE
EMPATHY
GENUINENESS
CONCRETENESS

inside the circle:
activities of the student.
outside the circle:
activities of the supervisor.

After the first act, the real classroom practice, the practitioners look back and try to see what happened and detect what went well and what did not go as expected, and what parts should possibly have been improved. This stage is similar to Schön's RonA process or Kolb's reflective observation stage where the teachers look back and reflect on their practices. Differently from Kolb, Korthagen and Kessels (1999) ask the practitioners to identify the positive discovery or the problem and find out what has caused them. Korthagen and Kessels (1999) also encourage practitioners to explore what the elements that were involved are. Only after becoming aware of these essential aspects, can the practitioner proceed to the next phase which is creating alternative methods and seeking an answer to the question of what the possible solutions for a better practice are. Like Killion and Todnem (1991), Korthagen and Kessels, as well, emphasise the future implications and suggests the practitioners ask themselves what should be kept in mind for the next time. Finally, the trial stage is where the practitioner tries out the new techniques that she/he has discovered during the creating alternative methods stage.

Korthagen and Vasalos (2009) criticise Kolb's cycle as they suggest that it is "more useful for describing the analytic processes needed for a better understanding of practice than for improving the relationship between the person of the practitioner and his or her work environment, i.e. for enhancing personal effectiveness" (p. 3). However, despite the concern of personal effectiveness enhancement,

similar to Schön's RinA and RonA, the ALACT model also seems to neglect the social dimension of the teachers.

Delivering a social perspective to reflective cycles and taking into consideration the teachers' feelings, Gibbs' (1988) cycle is the fourth model to be presented. Gibbs' cycle consists of six stages: (a) description, (b) feelings, (c) evaluation, (d) analysis, (e) conclusion, and (f) action plan (Figure 4).

Figure 4.

Gibbs' cycle (adapted from Gibbs, 1988, p. 50)
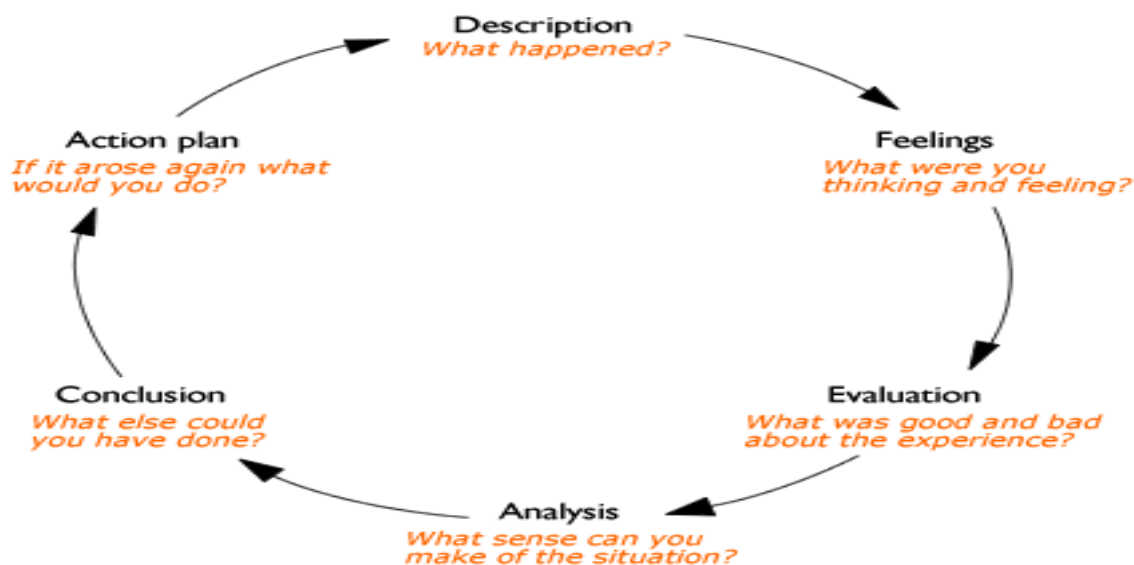
The description stage requires teachers to look back and assess what happened during their practice which is similar to Borton's model (1970) the *What* stage, which encourages teachers to question what happened, what the teacher's role was, what the problems were. In the second phase, differently from Korthagen and Kessels' (1999) ALACT model, taking into consideration the teachers' feelings, Gibbs (1988) asks teachers to focus on their feelings and assess how they felt during their practice. Following the feelings stage, the evaluation stage enables the teachers to see their practice's effective and ineffective parts. The analysis stage, in turn, resembles Kolb's abstract conceptualisation. At this stage, teachers think about the key points of the event and search the literature to enhance their practice. The action plan stage leads teachers to think deeply about what they would change in the case of the incident reoccurs. This stage can be associated with Killion and Todnem's (1991) RfA process.

By including the feelings of the practitioners, Gibbs draws attention to the importance of the feelings in learning as many studies have been conducted regarding how emotions can affect the learning process. For instance, Pekrun (2014) discusses how positive and negative emotions have different impacts on learning. Similarly, while Anttila, Pyhältö, Soini, and Pietarinen (2016) discuss how

success, motivation, and cognitive performance are affected by the student teachers' emotions, Pons, Hancock, Lafortune, and Doudin (2005) provide a detailed discussion to explain the importance of understanding emotions and how to raise awareness regarding emotional comprehension. On the basis of these studies, neglecting the importance of practitioner's feelings would miss a key variable which impacts on the learning process.

Although Gibbs (1988) includes teachers' emotional sides, the proposed cycle remains incomplete as Farrell (2015) advocates that teachers' personal life also affects their professional life; therefore, they should be considered as a whole. As this study takes social constructivism as a research paradigm, it also sees the teacher as a whole. Moreover, although the aforementioned models focus only on the theory and practice levels of teaching, Farrell (2015) encourages teachers to reflect on their philosophy, principles, and beyond practice levels, too. Hence, Farrell's (2015) holistic framework is chosen as the guiding model and is the last one to be discussed. This framework is descriptive rather than prescriptive and a guide to practitioners – particularly for the novice who want to reflect, but do not know where and how to start. While the previous models suggest teachers follow several steps for reflection, in other words, prescribe how to reflect, Farrell (2015) offers a descriptive model. In this descriptive model, the practitioners are encouraged to investigate the roots of the incidents by reflecting on the philosophy, principles, and beyond practice levels rather than merely focusing on the theory and practice levels. Consisting of five stages: philosophy, principles, theories, practice, and beyond practice, and being the most recent and comprehensive model; the guiding framework for the current study is presented in detail in the next section.

2.4.1.1 Farrell's (2015) framework for reflective practitioners

Although several models and frameworks have been suggested, finding them incomplete, Farrell (2015) proposes an overall guide both for novice and experienced teachers to reflect. Farrell (2015) indicates that although it might include contemplation, proper reflective practice is evidence-based. In a similar vein to Ghaye (2010) explaining the importance of evidence-based reflection, Farrell (2015) claims that this kind of reflection raises teachers' awareness not only of their actions but also of the roots, meanings, and effects of such actions both in and out of the classroom. The guiding framework suggests five stages for teachers to reflect: philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and beyond practice. Below, these stages are presented respectively.

The first component of the framework is philosophy. The philosophy stage of the framework represents the origins of the teacher as a person and takes into consideration the teachers' previous experiences. Separating personal identity from the professional one is difficult. Many scholars agree on how previous experiences affect and shape teachers' professional identity (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009;

Lipka & Brinthaupt, 1999). What Farrell (2016, p. 225) means by philosophy is "a window to the roots of a teacher's practice" and Farrell suggests that even though the teacher may not be able to articulate why, each visible behaviour has a logic behind it, which Farrell (2016, p. 225) names as "a philosophy of practice". For a basic reflection on philosophy, self-knowledge is needed. Teachers can aquire some information by exploring their background, i.e., their ethnicity, socio-economic background, religion, personal and family values, heritage, and the culture that they live in, as Farrell claims all those aspects influence their identity as language teachers. Positioning herself with constructivist theorists' side, Kroll (2005) also suggests that teachers should be considered as a whole with their all complexity.

The second stage of Farrell's (2015) framework for reflection refers to principles. This stage of reflection targets teachers' beliefs, assumptions, and concepts of learning and teaching. As Verloop, Van Driel, and Meijer (2001, p. 446) also indicate "in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions, and intuitions are inextricably intertwined", these three concepts often overlap. What Farrell (2015) conceptualises as an assumption is referred to as an intuition by Verloop et. al (2001). However, it is also possible to illustrate them in a continuum as Farrell (2017) suggests (see Figure 5). Assumptions can be placed at one side of the continuum and be "seen as pre-beliefs because they have not really been demonstrated yet, but they are in our heads" (Farrell, 2017, p. 52). Beliefs can be positioned in between assumptions and conceptions as they can be less difficult to articulate than assumptions; yet they are not as solidified as conceptions. Comprising both beliefs and assumptions and being more solidified, conceptions, in turn, can be placed at the other end and be regarded as "a mediator of our responses to situations" (Farrell, 2017, p. 52). Although it is crucial for teacher education programs to help prospective teachers to construct their principles (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017), what teachers believe and what they do is not always consistent (Borg, 2003); therefore, it is crucial for teachers to reflect on their beliefs, assumptions, and conceptions.

Figure 5.

The continuum of assumptions, beliefs, and conceptions
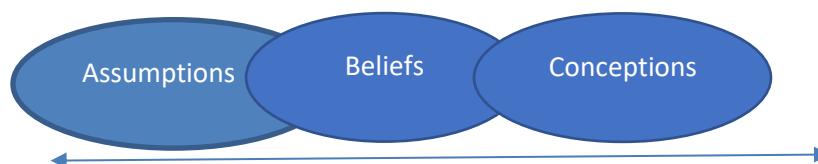
The next stage is theory. This stage of the framework examines and explores teachers' decisions regarding why they would prefer to teach particular skills in the way that they do, that is, how they put theories into practice. When teachers are encouraged to reflect on their theories, according to Farrell

(2017), teachers explore their choices regarding their planning what to teach and how to teach. Affected by the first two stages of reflection, namely philosophy and principles, teachers are ready to construct their own theory of practice. By theory, teachers' preparation for daily, monthly, or yearly plans regarding the types of lessons they would deliver is meant.

Farrell (2016) also touches upon two different theories: official and unofficial theories which are sometimes called Theory with 'T' and theory with 't' or espoused theory and theory-in-use (Argyris & Schön, 1974). By espoused theory, official theories (Li, Leung, & Kember, 2001) or in other words what teachers believe they do is meant; whereas, theory-in-use refers to what they actually do in practice. Teachers learn about theories, approaches, methods, and strategies during their training. However, the implementation of these might be different from expected depending on several factors including but not limited to the contextual factors, teachers' interpretation of the theories, teacher beliefs, previous experiences, or the level or background of the students. In order for them to have clear ideas about what they are doing and why they are doing in the way that they choose, Farrell (2016) invites teachers to reflect on their theories. By doing so, teachers can uncover their underlying reasons for choosing one particular method or strategy and differentiate their espoused theories and theory-in-use.

In the fourth stage, practice, Farrell (2017) uses the metaphor of an iceberg to explain the teaching process as a whole, and suggests that if teaching were an iceberg, then the philosophy, principles, and theories would form the greatest but hidden part of it, and although the practice part would be observable, it would only consist of a very small part of the iceberg (Figure 6). This stage of Farrell's (2015) framework is similar to Schön's RinA and RonA. Yet, reflecting on only the visible part of teaching would be incomplete. Using the metaphor of the iceberg, Farrell (2016, p. 226) suggests that philosophy, principles, and theories are the "*hidden* aspects of teaching". Farrell (2016) also claims that practice is the visible part of the iceberg which constitutes only a small portion of the whole. At this stage, teachers reflect on their observable behaviours. Reflection can be before, during or after the teaching practice.

Figure 6.

Farrell's (2015) framework for reflective practitioners
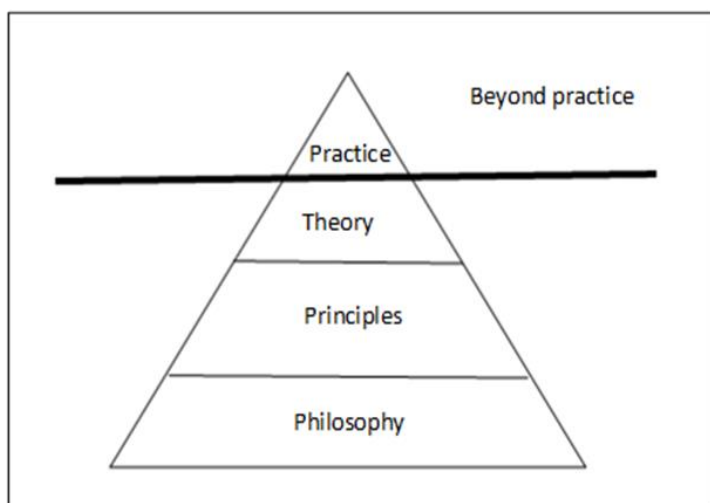
The last stage of the framework is beyond practice. Called critical reflection, this stage explores and examines political, moral, and social issues that influence reflection. Taking a socio-cultural perspective, and in a similar vein to Mezirow (1990), Senge (1990), and Smith (2011), beyond practice stage encourages teachers to focus on considering the moral aspects of practice, as well. This stage of the framework takes teaching practice a step further and encourages teachers to reflect on not only the inside-of-class incidents but also the out-of-class incidents. These incidents may include the socio-cultural conditions that the teachers are surrounded by as well as educational policies or the culture that they practice in to name but a few.

2.4.2   Tools that promote reflection

Having presented various models of reflection and selecting Farrell's (2015) framework as the guiding model for the current project, it is now time to briefly discuss several tools that EFL teachers can apply to their teaching in order to develop their reflective practice. In his relatively exhaustive systematic review consisting of 138 studies, Farrell (2017) asserts that the most frequently used reflective tools are discussion groups comprising of post-observation conferences and reflective discussion groups, reflective journals including online and traditional ways, classroom observations respectively. Farrell's systematic review (Farrell, 2017) also shows that action research, narrative study and lesson study are also used; however, their frequency is much less than the others. The least popular instruments according to that systematic review are peer coaching, cases, team teaching, portfolios, and critical friend reflections. Since the literature shows that there are many tools for teachers to foster reflection, it is important to discuss them. However, it is difficult to include each and every tool fostering reflection; therefore, the selected tools to be discussed here include reflective journals, classroom observations,

discussion groups, and action research. The rationale behind choosing these tools is that they are expected to be used by Indonesian EFL teachers – the teaching context for the current study; hence, it is important to present them in detail.

2.4.2.1 Reflective journals

The first tool to be discussed is the reflective journals. Reflective journals are one of the most popular tools when reflecting on practice and they are used in a wide range; from psychology to nursing and education. Reflective journals are described as "written documents that students [or teachers] create as they think about various concepts, events, or interactions over a period of time for the purposes of gaining insights into self-awareness and learning" (Thorpe, 2004, p. 328). Reflective journals can be in different formats, such as online blogging, dialogue-response journals, traditional journal writings.

Despite some challenges such as being time-consuming, assessment issues, ethical concerns, lack of training or structure, practitioners' unwillingness to disclose their emotions, gender and personality differences, many scholars advocate the benefits of keeping a journal. One of the benefits of this practice is that reflective journals help practitioners to reach "a more realistic, positive sense of their progress" (Foss & Reitzel, 1988, p. 450). Another benefit of keeping reflective journals is that reflective writing might be a way to promote reflective thinking among teachers (Bassot, 2016; Spalding & Wilson, 2002). Moreover, Spalding and Wilson (2002) suggest that enabling them to have an internal dialogue, keeping journals provides practitioners with a good record of their experiences and thoughts. Improving problem-solving skills, intellectual development, promoting reflection and critical thinking, reducing stress, and health benefits are some other advantages of keeping a journal that are elaborated by Hiemstra (2001).

Reflective journals have been widely used as a tool in educational research (e.g. Boud, 2001; Kok & Chabeli, 2002; Lee, 2008). For instance, Lee (2008) undertook research exploring 13 pre-service English teachers' reactions to reflective journal writing, the contents of the journals and whether the participants developed their reflectivity during the process or not. The result of the study showed that keeping a journal was a beneficial tool for the practitioners as journals gave them a voice besides learning to become "more real and more personal" (Lee, 2008, p. 132). Utilising journals as one of the data collection tools for their empirical study, Torres-Goens and Farley (2017) also find journal entries useful by referring to Quesada Pacheco (2005) indicating that they help practitioners understand themselves and their classes; hence, not only the teacher's but also the learners' experiences are enhanced.

Narratives are one of the most commonly used versions of reflective journals. Similar to reflective journals, several drawbacks of narratives are listed in the literature. Some of the drawbacks of

narrative inquiry that are noted by Bell (2002, p. 208) are the "time commitment", "close collaboration with participants" and researchers "imposing meaning on participants' lived experience". However, the existing literature suggests that the benefits of narratives outweigh their drawbacks. Enabling practitioners to have a new perspective of their own practice is one of the benefits of teachers' narratives. Bell (2002) suggests that teacher narratives are beyond just telling stories; rather, they are like windows leading to a glimpse into the practitioners' beliefs and experiences. Narrative inquiries help teachers to examine critical incidents that occur during their teaching practices (Farrell, 2007); hence, they raise teachers' awareness towards the effects of their practices on their students. Defined in various ways by different researchers, critical incidents refer to "any unplanned and unanticipated event that occurs during class" (Joshi, 2018, p. 82). Hence, they are referred to "as a problem or challenge in a particular context, rather than a routine occurrence" (Joshi, 2018, p. 82).

Narrative inquiry has been effectively and widely used in educational research and many studies prove its benefits (e.g. Golombek & Johnson, 2017; Liu & Xu, 2011; Norton & Early, 2011; Zwozdiak-Myers, 2009). For instance, Norton and Early (2011) undertook research to examine the efficacy of narrative inquiry on illuminating the researcher identity in this case teacher educators, at the same time. Norton and Early (2011) differentiated two types of stories: big and small stories. Big stories are life histories whereas small stories may be in the form of chit-chats and small talks (Norton & Early, 2011). They suggested that although it is the big stories that constitute a great deal of the identity construction, the small stories "highlight diverse identity positions in everyday interactive practices and are highly significant for identity work" (Norton & Early, 2011, p. 421). Through narratives, it emerges that the researchers chief concern is not scholarship or research but rather teacher development and their ultimate aim is to have an impact not only on the school context but also on a broader community environment. Through narrative inquiries, practitioners can investigate their practices in-depth. Moreover, Chambers (2003) suggests that narratives facilitate understanding of the practitioner's own actions and generate new knowledge as the practitioners would reflect on their experiences and learn through them. These examples clearly shows that narrative inquiry is a valuable tool for professional development and reflection.

2.4.2.2 Classroom observations

Classroom observations are another highly used tool to foster reflection in the teacher education field. They can be in the form of self or peer observation (Cirocki & Arceusz, 2016; Farrell, 2007). It is commonly agreed that classroom observations are useful for encouraging both the practitioner and the observer to reflect, help build a community sense and promote working collaboratively. On the one hand, classroom observations are useful for the observed teacher as the resulting feedback is context-specific and focused, in other words, feedback produced from the observation is personalised, specific

to that particular observed teacher, the classroom, and the lesson. On the other hand, the observing person also benefits from the skills of detecting and eliciting the features promoting an efficient teaching practice (Halim et al., 2018; Martin & Double, 1998).

One of the significant limitations of classroom observations is time constraints. A very common approach for overcoming the time limitation is video recordings. The feature of being able to be paused or rewound makes video recordings a feasible tool for the practitioners. Several studies that have been conducted in the language teacher education field show the efficacy of video recordings as a tool to foster reflection (e.g. Akcan, 2010; Barlow, McCrory, & Blessing, 2013; Chappell, 2007; Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Gün, 2011; Sydnor, 2016). For instance, with the participation of five pre-service teachers, Sydnor (2016) conducted a study using video recordings in order to explore the impacts of watching videos of themselves. The participants were invited to reflect on the most and least beneficial parts of watching and reflecting on their own practices. The results of the study revealed that the participants' reflectivity enhanced and also the type of reflection shifted from reflection-on-action to reflection-for-action. Finding that video viewing is "a promising practice", Sydnor (2016, p. 81) suggests that the earlier practitioners start this practice, the more they will benefit.

Another example of how pre-service teachers feel about watching videos of themselves while teaching is conducted by Akcan (2010). Having 27 pre-service teachers and a university supervisor for her study, Akcan (2010) collected her data through several tools including video recordings of the pre-service teachers' real classroom practices and retrospective feedback sessions. Her findings showed that recording and viewing videos raised the participants' awareness of their usage of English. The participants also indicated that through videos they became more aware of what they really did during a class rather than what they thought they did. Consistent with the results of Sydnor's study (2016), Akcan (2010) also highlights that this type of instrument allows the participants to have a holistic and critical look towards their practice; hence, promote reflection.

The final stage of classroom observations is post-observation conferences. Although classroom observations are useful for both the observed and the observer, holding post-observation conferences is required for an optimum result. Post-observation conferences provide teachers with constructive feedback; hence, encourage teachers within their continuous learning and lead a better practice (Cirocki & Farrelly, 2016; Korthagen & Vasalos, 2005). Although post-observation conferences tend to focus on reflection-on-action, in other words, the focal point is to answer the questions of what happened, why it happened and how it happened, Cirocki and Farrelly (2016) warn the practitioners to take their future plans into consideration and reflect for action, as well.

Post-observation conferences have been utilised in many studies and proven to be a useful tool for teachers to develop reflective skills (e.g. Copland, Ma, & Mann, 2009; Gan, 2014; Kim & Silver, 2016; Urzúa & Vásquez, 2008; Waring, 2013). For example, Waring (2013) conducted a study to explore how reflection was promoted in post-observation conferences. Mentioning several studies promoting post-observation conferences as a reflection tool, Waring (2013) highlights that the study that she conducted is different in the sense of focusing on the mentor's role. As a result of the study, Waring (2013) indicates that post-observation conferences can be a useful tool to promote reflection as it gives practitioners a chance to explore and explain the issues and generate solutions.

The vital importance of post-observation conferences is also highlighted by Gan (2014). Investigating 17 English as a Second Language (ESL) student-teachers' practicum experiences and their professional development during that period in a Hong Kong context, Gan (2014) conducted a qualitative study. Using several tools such as reflective journals and semi-structured interviews to collect data, Gan (2014, p. 133) emphasised the importance of post-observation conference discussions stating that:

> The post-lesson conference between the supporting teacher and the student teacher
> proved to be very helpful particularly to those student teachers who were experiencing
> difficulties in delivering lesson contents and engaging students in learning activities.

In a similar vein to Akcan's (2010) results, Gan (2014) also notes that the post-observation conference helps one of the participants to realise her weaknesses in her practice. Overall, the participants benefit from both their mentors' and peers' comments during the post-observation conference discussions.

2.4.2.3 Discussion groups

Another tool that encourages teachers to reflect is forming discussion groups. One of the purposes of discussion groups is to build a community of practice (Yang, 2009). In his extensive review, Farrell (2017) finds that discussion is the most frequently used instrument for reflection. Discussion can be used as (reflective) group discussions, online or face-to-face discussions. Whatever the form is, the participants express that taking part in a discussion group helps them build a community of practice and voice their thoughts, ideas, or concerns.

Several studies have been conducted noting the importance of reflective discussion groups on continuous teacher development such as Chaliès, Ria, Bertone, Trohel and Durand (2004), Hung and Yeh (2013), Kaneko-Marques (2015), Mak and Pun (2015). For instance, Hung and Yeh (2013) conducted a study with the participation of five EFL teachers and a professor as a group facilitator. Meeting every other week during an 18-week period, the participants formed a discussion group and exchanged their ideas about teaching activities, brainstormed about their lesson plans and even scheduled their classes

collaboratively. The results of the study showed that forming a discussion group helped teachers improve their practical knowledge regarding their teaching context. Hung and Yeh (2013) highlight the importance of discussion groups by noting that even experienced teachers need encouragement for their continuous learning and discussion groups can act as a stimulus for them to question and develop their practical knowledge.

In another study, Ahmadi, Samad, and Noordin (2013) investigated how pre-service teachers' professional identity was affected by academic socialisation practices. The participants were five in-service teachers who registered on a graduate Teaching English as a Foreign Language programme. One of the data collection tools that Ahmadi, Samad and Noordin (2013) adopted was face-to-face discussion groups. Highlighting the importance of face-to-face discussion groups, the researchers (Ahmadi et al., 2013) suggest that "[e]nough opportunities should be provided for in-service teachers in graduate programs to be more in contact with their colleagues" (p. 1768) and the significant others. Ahmadi et al. (2013) make another point by emphasising that the discussion groups raised the participants' awareness in terms of reconsidering their conceptualising of the shift that they experienced in their professional identity. The common result of the studies utilising group discussions is that being in a community helps teachers learn from each other besides giving them a chance to be heard via their voices.

2.4.2.4 Action research

Recently, action research has been considered as a popular research tool for reflection (Burns, 2005, 2009; Cabaroglu, 2014; Cirocki & Arceusz, 2016; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2005; Sowa, 2009). Burns (2009) describes the process of action research as "taking a self-reflective, critical, and systematic approach to exploring your own teaching contexts" (p. 2). By being critical, Burns (2009) does not mean teachers to be negative in their teaching techniques but problematise their practices; hence, improve them. Action research requires teachers to be their own investigators, as Burns (2009) puts into words. Encouraging teachers to conduct research in their own classrooms, action research is another tool that fosters reflection.

Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) propose four stages for action research: plan, act, observe and reflect. According to Kemmis and McTaggart's (1988) action research schema, initiation of the changes starts in the planning stage. The practitioners define a problematic area and offer some solutions for them. During the action stage, the suggested solutions are implemented. Following the action stage, the effects of the action are observed and during the reflecting stage, the effects of the planning and acting stages are assessed in the light of the collected data during the observation stage. The results of this stage lead the practitioner to conduct new research; hence, it is cyclical and ongoing process (Figure 7).

Figure 7.

The action research spiral (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988, p. 278)
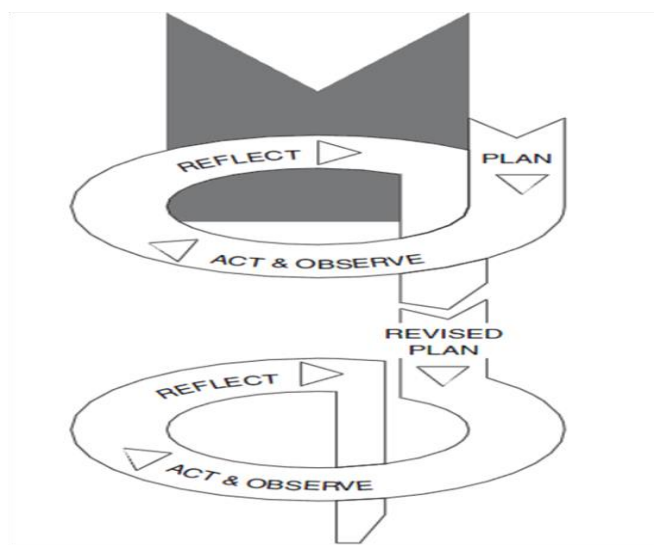
Being an integral part of reflective practice, action research has been employed in several studies, one of which was conducted by Cabaroglu (2014). Adopting a mixed-method research design, Cabaroglu (2014) investigated the impact of action research on pre-service English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and conducted her study with 60 participants during their practicum. First, the participants were introduced to action research, and then they were asked to carry out several tasks related to their action research projects. Cabaroglu (2014) also encouraged her participants to take notes of their reflections. As a result of her study, Cabaroglu (2014) concluded that action research is a useful tool for pre-service teachers to engender self-efficacy. Moreover, Cabaroglu (2014) claims that utilising "action research promotes deeper reflection and the ability to deal with genuine problems creatively in real classroom context" (p. 86).

A more recent study conducted by Mehrani (2017) also highlights that action research is a valuable tool to promote reflection. Aiming to investigate the challenges and opportunities that teachers face during the implementation of action research, Mehrani (2017) collected his data through several tools such as narrative frames, reflective essays, and interviews. The data showed that the participants' concerns were mainly the practical aspects of their teaching such as developing students' knowledge or improving their teaching skills. The participants also mentioned that being involved in action research not only improved their understanding of language education but also encouraged them to reflect on their practice. Both examples suggest how important action research is regarding promoting reflection among teachers.

As a type of "practitioner research in language education" (Hanks, 2015, p. 613), Hanks (2015) claims that exploratory practice takes action research a step further. Instead of "problems" that teachers

face, exploratory practice deals with "puzzles" partly in order to diminish the "negative connotations of 'problem'" (Allwright, 2003, p. 117). Another feature of the exploratory practice is that the puzzles should be considered as a part of life rather than work (Allwright, 2003). Hence, exploratory practice aims to offer practical solutions.

2.5 Empirical studies on reflective practice

Having discussed several tools to promote reflection above, this section continues with exemplifying these tools by presenting several studies conducted on reflective practice. In other words, the discussion moves from the theoretical part towards the empirical studies to show how certain aspects have been discussed in the literature. Hence, this section examines the empirical studies conducted on reflective practice in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) context.

Including but not limited to two recent systematic literature reviews in the field, namely Farrell's (2016) article and Beauchamp's (2015) review of current literature, it is apparent that the number of the studies conducted among novice teachers is quite limited, especially in the Indonesian context. Therefore, a review of research in this area is important here to identify the gap regarding the current issue. As the focus of the studies conducted among pre-service, experienced and novice teachers differ, the current section is divided into three sub-sections: reflective practice studies among pre-service teachers, in-service teachers, and novice teachers. Below, these sub-sections are presented respectively. Although the definition of the novice teacher might vary between zero to five years, this study follows Semingson and Smith (2016) and refers to novices as the teachers with zero to three years of experience in the profession.

2.5.1 Reflective practice among pre-service teachers

Many researchers believe the importance of fostering reflective practice skills at the pre-service level and maintaining a life-long pursuit (Loughran, 2002; Zeichner & Liston, 1996). A large number of studies have been conducted among pre-service teachers from the perspective of reflective practice concerning how it is implemented and how it can be fostered. The reflective practice studies among pre-service teachers can be categorised into two groups: the studies focusing on their beliefs and practices and the studies focusing on the tools that are used to implement or foster reflection. Below, several examples of reflective practice among pre-service EFL teachers from the literature are presented first focusing on their beliefs and practices, and then, the tools that are used among the pre-service teachers to apply or promote reflection. Finally, studies conducted in the Indonesian context are also presented.

Many studies have been conducted on investigating the pre-service EFL teachers' reflections on their beliefs (Cabaroglu, 2014; Fleming et al., 2011; Gan, 2014; Nagamine, 2012; Polat, 2010). For

instance, Tavil (2014) conducted a study with 40 pre-service Turkish EFL teachers in order to investigate the relationship between the pre-service teachers' self-efficacy and self-reflection level. Employing a mixed-method approach and collecting data through several tools including Chiang's (2008) EFL Teacher Efficacy Scale, reflective e-journals and semi-structured interviews, Tavil (2014) claims that reflection encourages pre-service teachers to develop themselves professionally. These results are consistent with the results of Cabaroglu's study (2014) in terms of reflective practice helping pre-service teachers raise their self-efficacy level (see 2.4.2.4).

Another study investigating pre-service teachers' beliefs was conducted by Lin, Shein, and Yang (2012) with the participation of 40 pre-service EFL teachers from Taiwan. The participants were asked to use metaphors to describe how they saw themselves as EFL teachers. The results (Lin et al., 2012, p. 196) indicated that "the metaphor activity provided them with an opportunity to reflect on their roles as EFL teachers, to solidify their views of teaching and learning and to liberate their thinking". In the same line with Lin et al. (2012) and conducting his study in the UK among six pre-service teachers, Chick (2015) also found that reflection helped teachers uncover their beliefs as well as enhance their practice.

Another study encouraging teachers to reflect on their beliefs was conducted by Polat (2010). The aim of the study was to investigate whether the participants' beliefs would change regarding the effectiveness of commercial, authentic, and self-made teaching material after an intervention of pedagogical treatment. Besides semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire, Polat (2010) used retrospective reflection essays for data collection. Data conducted from those reflection essays suggested that "the treatment did generate … metacognitive evaluation of their [preservice teachers'] beliefs about numerous aspects of these materials" (Polat, 2010, p. 202). All these studies show that reflection leads to an increase in awareness of teachers' values, assumptions, and beliefs in terms of learning and teaching.

Besides investigating their beliefs and understandings of reflection, several studies conducted among the pre-service EFL teachers focus on the efficacy of the tools that are used to promote reflection. The impact of blogs is one of the widely researched tools among pre-service EFL teachers (Fleming et al., 2011; Tang, 2013; Yang, 2009). Yang (2009) is not an exemption. Investigating how a blog can foster critical reflection and community of practice, Yang (2009) conducted a qualitative study with the participation of 43 pre-service EFL teachers. However, the study did not focus on the reflections of the pre-service teachers' practices; instead, it investigated their reflections on their learning and the efficacy of the community of practice. The results showed that using blogs provided the participants with more flexible time and space to reflect. The efficacy of blogs in terms of promoting reflection is consistent with Sun's (2010) study conducted among 12 Taiwanese Masters of Arts TESOL pre-service teachers. Moreover, another result that emerged from Yang's (2009) study was that reflections that were

observed were mostly in a descriptive level rather than critical which is consistent with the results of Sharil and Majid's (2010) study conducted among three Malaysian pre-service TESOL teachers.

One of the tools that promotes reflection emerged from the literature is the mentor's feedback (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Hepple, 2012; Waring, 2013). For instance, Waring's (2013) study shows that mentors' feedback or assessments can help triggering reflection among pre-service teachers. Believing self-reflection is underestimated during pre-service training, Eröz-Tuga (2013, p. 182) also recommends trainers to give "regular feedback about teaching performances to trainees as often as time allows". Akcan and Tatar (2010) and Hepple (2012) also highlight the importance of lecturer or mentor's feedback into the process of reflection for pre-service teachers as the feedback that the mentor or lecturer provides to the inexperienced teacher has the potential of triggering the pre-service teachers to achieve higher levels of reflection than they can achieve on their own (Hepple, 2012).

Another focus of the studies is on having a critical friend or peer discussion groups. Although at first, the student-teachers might be reluctant to act as a critical friend, many studies (Hepple, 2012; Wachob, 2011) show that eventually the student-teachers also become aware of the importance of the process most of the time. Conducting an experimental study with a formally peer mentored and non-formally peer mentored student-teachers from a university in Vietnam, Nguyen (2013) found out that the group provided the student-teachers with psychosocial support after spending time with the other members built trust to each other. In his small-scale study, Bai (2014, p. 435) also emphasises the importance of working collaboratively by stating that the participants felt that "other colleagues could work well as their 'mirrors' to see each other's problems in teaching". However, conducting a large-scale study with 185 teachers working in Spain, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2011) warn that some teachers may avoid reflecting on their fellows' negative practices due to several reasons: they might believe only positive criticism enhances awareness or positive feedback is more important than negative. As can be concluded from the abovementioned discussions and already been presented in 2.4.2.3, collaborative work and critical reflection on the peer's practice might be a useful source as long as the conditions are set accordingly.

Using videos is another tool that has been implemented to investigate the pre-service teachers' reflection on their practice. Mak (2011) and Payant (2014) are examples for the researchers who employed videos for their study. Although both studies highlight the importance of reflective practice and the benefits of using videos, they also reveal some shortcomings of reflective practice for pre-service teachers. For example, one of the results of Mak's (2011) study shows that pre-service teachers are at a survival stage. Hence, instead of constructing their own professional identities, they may end up with a dangerous tendency to role model the experienced teacher: obeying and internalising whatever the experienced says and does without critically reflecting on the thoughts and actions. The results of

Payant's (2014) study, in turn, showed that even though reflective practice helped pre-service teachers to link theory with practice, the focus of their reflection was mostly on their linguistics abilities. This result is consistent with Mak's (2012) results as being at a survival stage, pre-service teachers are too busy with their self-image instead of focusing on the actual teaching process and its impact on the learners.

Many studies have been conducted among pre-service teachers around the world. However, the number of studies conducted focusing on the Indonesian pre-service teachers' reflections is limited. Among the limited number of the studies conducted on the Indonesian context, most of them focused on pre-service teachers, yet from different perspectives (Adriana, 2015; Astika, 2014; Kuswandono, 2014b; Ragawanti, 2015). Kuswandono (2014b), for instance, focused on the pre-service teachers' motivations to be a teacher and the issues that they encountered during constructing their identity and being professionals. With the participation of 13 pre-service teachers, Kuswandono (2014b) employed a wide range of data collection tools: reflective journals, focus group discussions, questionnaires, interviews, and autobiographies. The findings of Kuswandono's (2014b) study showed that influenced by a number of factors, the pre-service teachers' motivations underwent several changes as they entered the profession. Finding several contradictions in the participants' beliefs, Kuswandono (2014b) is convinced that the time allocated for reflection at teacher education programs is not sufficient.

Agreeing with Kuswandono (2014b) in terms of the scantiness of the time allocated for reflection, Astika (2014) also conducted a study among 35 pre-service teachers asking participants to keep reflective journals. Using Smith's (2011) theoretical framework to interpret the data, Astika (2014) found out that the reflections were mostly on the personal and contextual domain of teaching which is consistent with Mak's (2012) and Payant's (2014) results. Astika (2014) recommends teacher education programs to consider a comprehensive reflection process as an alternative assessment.

Conducting a study among ten pre-service teachers, Ragawanti (2015), in turn, reveals the efficiency of reflective journals in terms of identifying the classroom management issues. Believing the importance of disclosing the concerns of teachers as it helps reducing stress and improving success, Adriana (2015) also used reflective journals to investigate the teacher development stages in terms of concerns. Conducting the study with eight pre-service teachers, Adriana's (2015) results were not much different from Mak's (2012) and Payant's (2014) results in terms of the focus of the pre-service teachers as their concerns were mostly focused on their feelings, roles, and responsibilities.

As one of the latest works, Nurfaidah's (2018) study also highlights the scarcity of research on the Indonesian EFL teachers' attitudes regarding the implementation of reflective practice. Conducting research with the participation of two pre-service EFL teachers, Nurfaidah (2018) investigated their

attitudes especially focusing on the ones proposed by Dewey (1933), namely, responsibility, wholeheartedness, and open-mindedness. Collecting data through reflective journals and interviews, Nurfaidah (2018) employed thematic analysis to interpret the data. The findings indicate that pre-service teachers have great potential to be reflective practitioners. Although the number of the participants and the data collection tools are very limited, Nurfaidah (2018) suggests teacher education programs to consider that potential and promote reflection.

It can be seen from the studies above that the investigation of reflective practice among pre-service teachers mostly focuses on two main themes: their beliefs and the tools used for reflection. On the one hand, the studies investigating pre-service teachers' beliefs mostly investigated their self-efficacy and aimed to uncover or construct their professional identities. On the other hand, studies focusing on the tools aimed to investigate how reflective practice helps pre-service teachers improve their teaching practices, what the benefits of implementing reflective practice are and which tools can potentially be used to implement and promote reflection. Loughran (2002, p. 42) claims that "if learning through practice matters, then reflection on practice is crucial, and teacher preparation is the obvious place for it to be initiated and nurtured". Agreeing that reflective practice should be introduced and encouraged among pre-service teachers, the impact and the results can be arguable as the practice that the pre-service teachers have experienced is relatively small and usually clinical as their experience is limited to practicum or micro-teaching sessions in most of the cases. Hence, the claim would have been more complete if sustainability had been taken into consideration. Teacher training or education programs are the places to lay the foundation for reflection; however, unless the prospective teachers are encouraged to have reflection as a habit and apply it during their career, the ultimate aim of reflection is not met.

2.5.2 Reflective practice among in-service teachers

Although not as many as the pre-service ones, a number of studies involving reflection have been conducted among in-service teachers (Borg, 2011; Chi, 2010; Chien, 2013; Nishino, 2012; Rodríguez, 2008; Schmid, 2011). Differently from the other contexts in which the focus was mostly on in-service EFL teachers' attitudes and levels of reflection, studies conducted in the Indonesian context focused on teacher beliefs and practices. Below, the studies among in-service teachers focusing on their levels are presented following the studies investigating their attitudes. Lastly, reflective practice studies in the Indonesian context are presented first focusing on in-service teachers' beliefs and then, the tools that they use.

One of the studies investigating in-service teachers' attitudes towards reflective teaching was conducted by Rodríguez (2008). Carrying out a case study with two in-service teachers, Rodríguez (2008)

collected her data through several tools: observations, interviewing, videotaping, dairies, and questionnaires. Although the participants were recruited on a voluntary basis and chosen from a professional development program, Rodríguez (2008) faced a resistance towards reflective practice. Besides several reasons such as anxiety arisen from being observed, resistance might have emerged from the feeling of the hesitancy of leaving the comfort zone. Resistance to change among teachers is not a new topic (Snyder, 2017; Terhart, 2013). It is possible that the more the teachers are experienced, the more they build their own approach to teaching and cling to it; hence, the more likely they are to resist.

Another study investigating in-service EFL teachers' attitudes is conducted by Chi (2010). Carrying out a qualitative study, Chi (2010) analysed 12 Taiwanese EFL teachers' perceptions regarding reflection by employing reflective journals and semi-structured interviews as data collection tools. Differently from Rodríguez's (2008) results, Chi (2010) found that attitudes and perceptions of the participants regarding reflection were quite positive. The participants mentioned that reflection helped them clarify their actions and decisions that they took in the class. Showing their weaknesses and strengths was another benefit of reflection that was stated by the participants. Besides attitudes and perceptions, Chi (2010) also investigated the levels and contents of reflection employed by the participants. The emerging data from journal entries showed that the pattern of the participants' reflections was mostly about instruction, questioning, classroom management, and self-awareness. It is interesting to see that while a similar study was conducted among the pre-service teachers (Payant, 2014), the results showed that the pre-service teachers mostly focused on themselves and their linguistic abilities (see 2.5.1); however, in-service teachers mostly focused on their in-class activities such as classroom management and instruction: in other words, while the focus of the pre-service teachers was internal, which means self-related/teacher-related, the focus of the in-service teachers was external, which means learner-related. Without mentioning how experienced the participants are, Chi (2010) found that the participants' level of reflection differed from descriptive to interpretive and critical. However, Chi (2010) fails to justify why or according to what the participants' level of reflection differ.

A similar study to Chi's (2010) was conducted by Chien (2013) in a Taiwanese context. Chien (2013) also investigated what the participant reflected on and whether reflection was on a descriptive level or not. Carrying out a case study with one elementary school English teacher, Chien (2013) collected data through journal entries, interviews, and observation field notes. Similar to Chi's (2010) results, the focus of the participant was external, in other words, learner related. Chien (2013) found that the participant mostly reflected on students' behaviour, students' performance, and teaching strategies. In a similar vein to Chi (2010), Chien (2013) also highlights the importance of journal writing by stating that keeping a journal helps the participant reflect on her practice as well as examining her beliefs and assumptions.

Differently from the studies conducted in other contexts, the Indonesian research mostly focused on exploring teacher beliefs, practices, and the tools that can be used to promote reflection. Regarding the beliefs, Kuswandono (2014a) conducted a study among six university mentors investigating their beliefs and experiences regarding the implementation of reflective practice in a pre-service teacher training program. The results of the study show that cultural factors may affect the improvement of constructing a reflective identity. This result is in the same line with Bachtiar's (2016) study suggesting that participants' perceptions regarding the quality of professional development are affected by the Indonesian culture.

Perdhani (2013), in turn, conducted a study to investigate reflective teaching practices among 15 lecturers working at a university in Indonesia. In terms of experience, the participants' background varied between one to 15 years, and the gender proportion was not equal (three males and 12 females). Perdhani (2013) chose the participants from very different backgrounds varying also in educational level. Despite collecting data through only one questionnaire with a relatively small number of participants, Perdhani (2013) generalises the data claiming that experience, gender, and education do not have an effect on teacher's reflection. A more comprehensive study would have included more data collection tools before concluding the effects of experience, gender, and education level on reflection. However, it is easy to agree with Perdhani's point (2013) that being aware of a theory does not necessarily mean that teachers apply it.

Finally, one of the studies conducted in the Indonesian context focused on social media usage as a tool for professional development. Using design research methodology, Sari and Tedjasaputra (2013) employed interventions and used Facebook as one of the tools to encourage the participants to engage in reflection. Sari and Tedjasaputra (2013) used social media as a space for designing, developing, and testing several learning activities. Although receiving harsh criticism and resistance from several senior teacher educators, it was observed through the number of the members that the Facebook group reached a wide audience. Despite failing to explain how and at which level the participants engaged in reflection during the study, the findings showed that social media can be considered as one of the tools to promote reflection.

As can be seen above, not many studies have been conducted in the Indonesian context. Another conclusion that can be drawn from the above discussion is that differently from the studies conducted among pre-service teachers, the studies conducted among in-service teachers mostly focus on their attitudes towards reflective practice and their levels of reflection. Studies discussed above indicate two main results: reflection is a beneficial practice helping practitioners raise awareness towards their actions; however, some teachers may underestimate the value of reflection and resist to leave their comfort zone at the expense of developing their practice. Loughran (2002) rightfully claims that the

seeds of reflection should be planted during teacher training or education programs, and the cultivation should start immediately. When pre-service teachers have little experience to reflect and most of the time reflection stays on the theory level, and experienced teachers are resistant to changing their practices, the best time and place to encourage teachers to reflect is probably when they are a novice – right after learning the theory of reflection and before being enslaved by their routines (Dewey, 1933).

2.5.3 Reflective practice among novice teachers

Although the very first years in the profession of teaching are critical and appeared to be the best time to construct a reflective practitioner identity, the quantity of studies investigating reflective practice is surprisingly small. One of these small numbers of studies is conducted by Farrell (2011) in the form of a case study with the participation of one novice ESL teacher focusing on the tool to promote reflection. Employing classroom observations as a data collection tool and using a seating chart observation record (SCORE), Farrell (2011) finds that SCORE charts are beneficial tools for novice teachers to become aware of their practices in the classroom; hence, SCORE charts help novice teachers improve their classroom instruction.

In another study, Farrell and Ives (2015) focused on a novice ESL teacher's reflections regarding his beliefs and practices about teaching reading skills. Differently from several other studies investigating teacher beliefs and practices, besides interviews and journal writings, Farrell and Ives (2015) included classroom observations in their data collection tools. The findings of the study showed that there is a strong relationship between the participant's beliefs and his practice. Although it is a small-scale study, and the authors are also aware that generalising the results is not easy, Farrell and Ives (2015) recommend that language teachers reflect on their beliefs and practices. Teachers not only in the TESOL area (Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell & Yang, 2019) but also in other disciplines (Chen, 2008; Hill, 2010; Nespor, 1987) are also strongly encouraged to reflect on their beliefs and practice.

Another study was conducted on a tertiary-level novice teacher in a Turkish context. Investigating the novice teacher's attitudes towards reflective practice, Kayaoglu, Erbay, and Saglamel (2016) collected their data through interviews, the participant's reflective papers on her practice, classroom observation notes and the informal observations. The findings showed that reflective practice helped the novice teacher construct a self-image of a good teacher as she could see that her practice was in line with the theories that she had been taught. Although the participant held a positive attitude towards reflective practice and encouraged all teachers to engage in reflective practice, she noted that as a novice teacher, she was aware that she lacked experience; hence, opening her class to an outsider was a challenge as she found it difficult to face criticism from an outsider. In a similar vein, Akbari (2007) argued that introducing reflection at a very early stage might be problematic as many new-starter

teachers are too busy with developing their self-image. However, as Kayaoglu et al. (2016) also suggest if novice teachers are trained well to examine their practice in a systematic and critical way, the results of novice teachers' reflection would be more optimistic.

Besides focusing on mere novice teachers, a few studies are also conducted with the participation of both novice and experienced teachers. Sammaknejad and Marzban's (2016) study is an example of the studies choosing their participants from both inexperienced and experienced teachers. Employing their participants from two males (one novice and one experienced) and two females (one novice and one experienced) university-level TEFL teachers, Sammaknejad and Marzban (2016) collected their data through questionnaires. It is interesting to see that another data source was diaries that the female teachers kept. Although Sammaknejad and Marzban (2016) justified their employing diaries as they were beneficial data collection tools in terms of investigating participants' genuine practice, beliefs, and perspectives, they did not explain why only the female participants kept diaries but not the male ones. The results of the study suggested that regardless of their experience both male participants had almost the same level of awareness of self-reflection while the results slightly changed between the female participants. The results revealed that the novice female participant had a lower level awareness of self-reflection than the experienced one.

As is also indicated in Basturkmen's (2012) interpretive review, compared to the novice teachers, experienced teachers' reflections on their beliefs are more consistent with their practice. Several explanations have been suggested for that: experience affects language teachers' principles, novice teachers undergo a change process which affects their beliefs, and it is relatively more difficult for the novice teachers to "have more experientially informed beliefs" than the experienced ones (Basturkmen, 2012, p. 288). Despite having some grounds, these claims are disputable. Below, the reasons why those claims are disputable are discussed.

The claim of experienced teachers' reflections on their beliefs' being more consistent when compared to the novice teachers is credible. However, it is also important to bear in mind that Basturkmen's (2012) claim does not suggest that reflective practice is not suitable for the novices. On the contrary, it might suit the novice teachers even better than the experienced ones due to the following reasons: although the claim of experience affecting the principles is valid, it is also important to take into consideration that the experience referred to here is not necessarily on teaching but also includes the experiences gained during learning the language (Breen et al., 2001). Indeed, the effect of previous language learning experiences has been widely discussed (Elbaum, Berg, & Dodd, 1993; Mak, 2011) and this might be an advantage for the novice teachers as their language learning experiences are fresher than the experienced teachers.

Similarly, it is a fact that novice teachers undergo a change process; however, this is not a disadvantage; on the contrary, as they have not become a slave of their routine yet as Dewey (1933), Mezirow (1990) and Cirocki and Farrell (2017) suggest, the process of change can be regarded as an advantage for the novice teachers to develop themselves. On the contrary, resistance to changing is an obstacle to professional development (Rodríguez, 2008; Sydnor, 2016). As it is also discussed in Section 2.5.2, the more experienced the teachers are, the more they tend to resist change.

These two arguments regarding teachers' undergoing a change process and previous experiences' affecting their beliefs highlight that it is crucial to explain what *experience* and *experientially informed beliefs* mean. It is important to note that while the previous language learning experiences may be counted as experience it should be stated that teaching the same topics exactly in the same way for ten years may not be counted as ten-years of experience rather a ten-year repetition of one year. Hence, it can be deduced that the implementation of reflective practice among novice teachers might potentially have more benefits than for experienced teachers.

Although data collection tools and methodologies vary, the mutual aim of the studies presented above is to investigate the application of reflective practice among EFL teachers and its efficacy. Disu (2017) argues that while many studies can be found focusing on the potential benefits of reflective practice and how it is applied, the studies investigating how teachers apply it in a classroom context or how they construct reflective practitioner identities are limited. However, more importantly, how the teachers understand, conceptualise, and define reflective practice is under-researched. As it is also mentioned in Section 2.1.1, the scholars have not come to an agreement about the definition of reflective practice. While the term still preserves its ambiguity, investigating its efficacy or application would not give clear ideas as the concept can be interpreted in many ways. Hence, first of all, it is crucial to investigate how the implementors define the term reflective practice, only then, can research be done on how they engage in reflective practice and what their levels of reflection are. Although several examples exploring EFL teachers' understandings and practices of reflection can be found from all around the world in the literature, unfortunately, not many studies on the relevant topic have been conducted in Indonesia where reflective practice is encouraged among teachers through Teacher Competency Standards (see 1.2.2). Therefore, it is crucial to explore how the Indonesian novice EFL teachers conceptualise and implement reflective practice in their teaching. Hence, aiming to fill this gap, the current study explores three main questions:

RQ. 1) What is the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of reflective practice?

RQ. 2) How do the Indonesian novice EFL teachers engage in reflective practice?

RQ. 3) How are the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' reflections situated in Farrell's (2015) framework?

In this regard, one of the aims of the current study is to investigate how the Indonesian novice EFL teachers conceptualise reflective practice and how they define the term. Another aim is to explore whether the Indonesian novice EFL teachers implement reflective practice into their professional life or not. If they employ reflective practice, a further question is how they engage in reflective practice, in other words, whether they reflect before, in, on or for action. Last but not least, the study also aims to investigate the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' level of reflection according to Farrell's (2015) framework for reflective practitioners.

Conclusion

Since the origin of the concept, reflective practice has gained considerable significance. However, the scholars still could not come to an agreement regarding what reflective practice denotes as it is a multi-dimensional and complex phenomenon. This chapter explored how reflection and reflective practice were interpreted in several ways by different scholars. The chapter provided a definition for reflective practice, which guides the current study. After settling with one definition, the chapter introduced the types of reflection. Several types of reflection namely Reflection-in-Action, Reflection-on-Action (Schön, 1983), Reflection-for-Action (Killion & Todnem, 1991) and Reflection-Before-Action, content, process and premise reflection (Mezirow, 1990), technical, practical and critical reflection (Senge, 1990), pre-reflection, surface, pedagogical and critical reflection (Larrivee, 2008) were discussed. Next, the chapter introduced the characteristic features of reflective practitioners. The chapter highlighted that reflective practitioners are expected to be open-minded, whole-hearted, responsible and life-long learners as well as critical, mindful, attentive and communicative. It was also discussed that reflective practitioners are well-organised who allocate time for reflection and competent at planning and delivering lessons besides having several other features.

Following the features of reflective practitioners, how teachers can construct a reflective identity was discussed by highlighting several crucial components such as Wenger's (1999) three modes of identification. It was also mentioned that the social environment that the teachers are in has a great impact on constructing reflective identity. Models of reflection were the first topic discussed under the section of reflection in pedagogical practice where the several suggested models were discussed chronologically. Introducing Farrell's (2015) framework as the guiding model for the current study, a justification was also provided for that choice. The next topic discussed in the same section, focused on the tools that promote reflection. After suggesting several tools for teachers to implement in order to promote reflection, several empirical studies from the literature were presented focusing on pre-

service, in-service and novice teachers' reflective practice experiences. It was made clear that although the early years for teachers to construct and sustain a reflective practitioner identity is crucial, the number of the studies conducted among the novice teachers is relatively small. Moreover, studies conducted on the Indonesian context are even smaller. Considering that the curriculum with an emphasis on English and reflective practice in the Indonesian context has recently been updated and not many studies have been conducted regarding how teachers understand and apply reflective practice, it is made clear that research on that topic is needed. The chapter was concluded with the research questions of the current study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The previous chapter presented the related literature and provided some background information for the study. Stating the importance of reflective practice for teacher development, the previous chapter considered several definitions of reflective practice from the literature. However, it was also established that the term is still elusive. Equally, types and models of reflection were explored besides the characteristic features of reflective practitioners. Several empirical studies conducted all around the world were also discussed in various aspects and contexts. The number of the studies conducted in the Indonesian context especially among the novice EFL teachers were focused on as there is an emphasis on reflective practice in more recent versions of the Indonesian curriculum; it was established that there was insufficient research in this specific context. Hence, three main objectives of the current study were identified: exploring the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' conceptualisation of reflective practice, investigating how they implement reflective practice, and exploring on what the Indonesian novice EFL teachers reflect in relation to their pedagogical practice.

This chapter, in turn, introduces the methodological procedures that were used to investigate how the Indonesian novice EFL teachers conceptualise and implement reflective practice. The chapter starts with a presentation of the research design adopted for the current study to answer the research questions. In this regard, a qualitative approach is introduced with the justification of why a particular research paradigm (i.e. social constructivism) and method (i.e. qualitative approach) were chosen to conduct the current research. Providing a definition of qualitative research method, the chapter also presents the features of this research method and illustrates how the present study is positioned in relation to these features. In addition, the chapter also discusses why certain data collection tools were chosen for the current study after describing the participants' profiles and sampling procedure. Finally, the implementation of the pilot study, data analysis method, trustworthiness, ethical considerations, and researcher's stance are also presented respectively.

3.1 Research design: Qualitative approach

In educational research, four main research paradigms are identified: postpositivism, social constructivism, transformative world view and pragmatism (Creswell, 2014). Postpositivism, sometimes called positivism, scientific research or scientific method, can be defined as a position that highlights the significance of observation in order to understand the world, and thus, puts the assessment of the phenomena into the centre of the understanding (Fox, 2012). Having said that, postpositivist researchers "hold a deterministic philosophy" (Creswell, 2014, p. 7); therefore, they tend to identify and evaluate

the causes of affecting results. The postpositivist researchers usually employ quantitative research methods (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Social constructivism, in turn, can be defined as a research paradigm that encourages individuals to discover their conceptualisation of the world that they live and work in. Contrary to postpositivism, constructivist researchers tend to employ qualitative research methods (Creswell, 2014).

The transformative research paradigm, on the other hand, is defined as "a framework of belief systems that directly engages members of culturally diverse groups with a focus on increased social justice" (Mertens, 2010, p. 470). The transformative research paradigm can be associated with politics and usually requires an action agenda which may lead to a change in the participants' lives (Creswell, 2014). As the current study neither provides an action agenda nor handles the issue from a political perspective, the transformative research paradigm does not seem suitable to follow in this case.

The last research paradigm that Creswell (2014) presents is pragmatism. Pragmatism is described as an alternative worldview that supports the mixed methods usage in the research and "sidesteps the contentious issues of truth and reality" (Feilzer, 2010, p. 8). The researchers holding a pragmatic worldview focus on the research questions rather than methods and employ all methods available to explore and answer the questions. In other words, pragmatic researchers focus on "what works" instead of worrying about the nature of the research questions being qualitative or quantitative (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Weaver, 2018).

In exploring the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understandings and implementation of reflective practice, social constructivism appears to be the most suitable paradigm for the current study. This is based on several factors. First of all, as this approach allows the researcher to bring the participants' voices into the study, the present study is qualitative in nature, and constructivism embraces the qualitative research approach (Creswell, 2014). Secondly, one of the aims of the study is to investigate how the Indonesian novice EFL teachers conceptualise reflective practice. Social constructivism supports the idea that there is not only one right or wrong interpretation of the issues; on the contrary, the social world can be interpreted in various ways depending on the individual who interprets (Creswell, 2014). In accordance with this view, instead of looking for universal consent, the study focuses on the individuals' own interpretations of the concept. Rather than categorising meanings or ideas, social constructivism embraces "the complexity of views" (Creswell, 2014, p. 8) and takes into consideration the social and cultural background of the participants and the researchers, as does the current study. Another reason for choosing this research paradigm is that I position myself on the social constructivist theorists' side. As is also advocated in the social constructivist theory, I believe that besides intellectual and cognitive engagement, learners' feelings should also be valued and taken into

consideration (Kroll, 2005). More detailed information about the researcher's stance is presented in Section 3.8.

Taking a social constructivist perspective as the research paradigm, an exploratory qualitative research method was chosen for the current study. When choosing a research method for a particular study, several criteria apply (Bryman, 2016). Hence, the rationale behind choosing this specific method is based on two main considerations. Firstly, most of the time, regarding the implementation of a particular research approach, the determinant is the research questions and aims of the study (Babbie, 2008; Creswell, 2014; Yin, 2014). The present study aimed to explore the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' interpretations of reflective practice. Qualitative studies are used specifically when the individuals are empowered and encouraged to share their stories and make their voices heard (Creswell & Poth, 2018); hence, qualitative studies investigate the participants' interpretations of the phenomenon.

Secondly, described as a "situated activity that locates the observer in the world" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 3), the qualitative research method includes a number of explanatory, material practices which make the world or the phenomenon visible. Similarly, the current study consisted of several interpretive data tools such as semi-structured interviews, pre- and post-observation conferences, and reflective journals. All the data were triangulated to understand the novice teachers' way of thinking regarding reflective practice and how they employ it.

3.1.1 Positioning the current study in qualitative research features

Creswell (2014) categorises characteristic features of qualitative research as: natural setting, researcher as a key instrument, multiple methods, complex reasoning, participants' perspectives, emergent design, reflexivity, and holistic account. The updated version of this categorisation by Creswell and Poth (2018) and how this study is positioned in each of the features is explained below.

Natural setting*:* In qualitative research, a problem or issue is often investigated in the field. Usually, data is collected through face-to-face interaction. Similarly, the current study took place in five high schools. The participants are not asked to come to a laboratory; on the contrary, all data was gathered from the participants' natural contexts of practice. The classroom observations were held in order to gather authentic information and observe the participants in their own context.

Researcher as a key instrument: In qualitative research, data is usually collected through behaviour observation, document examination or participants' interviews. Although a protocol might be used, qualitative researchers tend to design their own instruments. In other words, qualitative researchers are the ones who collect their own data rather than relying on others' data or data collection

tools. In a similar vein, several instruments were designed specifically for the current study and collected by the researcher herself.

Multiple methods: Rather than implementing and collecting data from a single source, in qualitative research, data tends to be collected from multiple sources. As suggested for the qualitative studies, for the current study, various methods were used to collect data: interviews (see 3.3.1.), observations, pre- and post-observation conferences (see 3.3.2), and reflective journals (see 3.3.3). Then, all the data was reviewed, triangulated, and made sense of.

Complex reasoning: In qualitative research, a bottom-up approach tends to be adopted in order to organise the data. Hence, patterns and themes are unique to the specific research. Similarly, in the current study, the data was analysed via the patterns and themes which emerged from the data.

Participants' perspectives: The aim of qualitative research is to give a voice to the participants rather than bringing voices from the literature. Qualitative research encourages a close and interactive collaboration with the participants which gives them a chance to justify or clarify their views. As one of the aims of the study is to explore the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understandings of reflection, investigating their perceptions, assumptions, and beliefs is crucial; therefore, the study attempted to make the participants' voices be heard rather than importing views from the literature. A close relationship was also established with the participants to enable them to feel secure to share their ideas freely and clearly. After transcription, the participants were also asked to confirm whether what the researcher wrote corresponded to what they said in order to ensure the reliability (see 3.6).

Emergent design: In qualitative studies, the process of research is flexible. After entering the field, the original plan may change depending on the emergent problems or issues. Taking into consideration this feature of the qualitative research, any modifications of data collection tools were welcomed, and several changes were implemented during the process.

Reflexivity: A qualitative researcher brings her/his background to the study and is aware that her/his background informs the interpretation of the data. Hence, having a social constructivist perspective, I was aware that the interpretation of data depends on my background and experience; however, I tried to manage the impact of my biases during the data analysis process (see 3.6 and 3.8).

Holistic account: Attempting to build a complex and holistic picture of the issue, qualitative research embraces multiple perspectives. Similarly, in the current study, using Farrell's (2015) framework for reflective teachers, participants are viewed not only as professionals but also as individuals having emotions and backgrounds. Hence, participants' range of perspectives were taken

into consideration. A holistic view of the phenomenon was also captured by implementing several data collection tools.

3.2 Participants and sampling procedure

Convenience sampling was employed to recruit the participants. Convenience sampling can be defined as a participant recruiting strategy which is based on the participant's availability and willingness to take part in the study (Dörnyei, 2007; Johnson & Christensen, 2014). Named as availability, accidental or haphazard sampling as well, Neuman (2014) warns that the sample is often nonrepresentative; hence, the results are difficult to generalise from. However, the aim of the current study is not to generalise the findings; rather, it is to investigate and explore the phenomenon in-depth.

The participants of this study were six Indonesian novice EFL teachers. Six participants, who were all available and volunteers, were chosen from five different high schools. Three of the participants were males and three of them were females. All the participants had a bachelor's degree by the time the data collection process. To be a participant for the study, the only criterion was being an Indonesian novice EFL teacher. The definition of novice can vary between zero to five years of experience in the literature. Although there is not a consensus regarding the definition of the novice in terms of years in teaching, following Semingson and Smith's (2016) study, zero to three years of experience in teaching is regarded as a novice in this study (see 2.5). A summary of the participants' profile is presented below followed by a detailed description (Table 2).

Table 2.

The participants' profile

Name	Gender	Age	Experience	Levels taught	Working context	City
Abur	Male	28	Almost three years	10th, 11th, and 12th grades	A reputable, private vocational high school	Bandung
Anni	Female	22	Less than a year	10th, 11th, and 12th graders	A reputable, private international vocational high school	Bandung
Sri	Male	30	Three years	11th grades	At the same school with Anni	Bandung
Ina	Female	43	Two years	7th and 8th grades	Public junior high school	Bandung
Nisa	Female	25	Less than a year	7th, 8th, and 9th grades	Private junior high school	Cimahi
Rafi	Male	26	One year	9th grades	Private junior high school	Cimahi

Abur was a 28-year-old male English teacher who had almost three years of experience by the time the data collected. He had a bachelor's degree in education. Abur worked in a private highly reputable vocational high school situated in Bandung. He was assigned to teach 10th, 11th, and 12th-grade students. Like many teachers in Indonesia, he had a second job which was still teaching but in a different school. The classroom observations were conducted only in the abovementioned school which was located in Bandung. Abur liked reading books. He even started his own book club.

Being a 22-year-old female English teacher, Anni had less than one year of experience in teaching. She had a bachelor's degree in education, and she graduated in 2018. She was working in a very well-equipped international vocational high school situated in Bandung. It is important to state that in Indonesia, international schools have a good reputation for teaching English. She was assigned to teach 10th, 11th, and 12th graders. By the time the data was collected, she was working five times a week including Saturdays.

Working at the same school with Anni, Sri was a 30-year-old male participant. Besides being an English teacher, he had two other part-time jobs one of which was related to the administrative responsibilities at the same school. However, his other job was not related to education field. He was assigned to teach 11th graders and he had had three years of experience in teaching by the time the study was conducted. He stated that he did not come from an educational background, and being a teacher was not his choice (Sri-Int). As his classroom observations also suggested, he admitted that he "lacked theory" (Sri-Postob2). During a post-observation conference, he stated that in order to compensate for his weaknesses from the theoretical aspect, he was seeking the experienced teachers' advice (Sri-Postob2).

Ina was a 43-year-old female teacher by the time the data was collected, and she had two years of experience in teaching English. She was assigned to teach the 7th and 8th graders in a public school in Bandung. Ina liked reading comics. Although she stated that she liked to teach English through comics, during the five classroom observations, it was observed that she relied on the coursebook, and she never used comics.

Nisa was a 25-year-old female participant. She had a bachelor's degree in education. Although being an English teacher was not her choice, she was proud to say that she was the only teacher in her family (see 4.3.1). Considering that teachers are respected in Indonesia, it can be told that she was also proud of herself for being a teacher. She had less than a year of experience in the profession. She was working at a private school which was located in Cimahi. She was assigned to teach 7th to 9th graders. She stated that her students were coming from broken families which made her job hard (Nisa-Int). During the interview and pre- and post-observation conferences as well as the classroom observations,

it was observed that she was very sensitive and caring. She associated her students with her son probably because she had a very young son.

Rafi was a 26-year-old male English teacher. He had only one year of experience in teaching. He was working at a private school located in Cimahi. He stated that besides the other colleagues, his headmaster was having a strong influence on him in terms of being a good teacher (Rafi-Int). He was assigned to teach the 9th graders. Besides teaching English, he was also teaching the Sundanese language which is an ethnic language mostly used in West Java.

3.3 Data collection tools

Another aspect that should be taken into consideration while conducting research is choosing the appropriate data collection tools. In order to bring several perspectives to the current study, multiple data collection tools were applied. Semi-structured interviews, post-observation conferences following classroom observations, and reflective journals kept by the participants were used as main data collection tools for this study. Below, these data collection tools are presented respectively.

3.3.1 Semi-structured interviews

The current study employed semi-structured interviews as one of the data collection tools. Positioned somewhere between unstructured and highly structured interviews (Dörnyei, 2007; Kvale, 2007), semi-structured interviews can be defined as "a qualitative data collection strategy in which the researcher asks informants a series of predetermined but open-ended questions" (Ayres, 2012, p. 811). In the current study, one of the advantages of using interviews was the way they enabled the researcher to collect detailed information about the participants (Alshenqeeti, 2014). Applying this specific method gave the researcher the opportunity to ask the participants to elaborate on their answers. Hence, detailed information was retrieved from the participants as this type of interview enriched the interaction between the researcher and the participant (Xerri, 2018). Another reason to use semi-structured interviews was that unobservable actions were also investigated (Creswell, 2014). Participants were invited to define their conceptualisation of reflection and identify their assumptions and beliefs regarding the characteristic features of reflective practitioners.

3.3.1.1 Interview protocol

Before conducting the interview, an interview protocol was designed (see Appendix 4) and piloted in order to increase the reliability and practicability, and also to check the clarity (Cohen et al., 2018). While designing the interview protocol, several criteria such as the aims of the interview, formatting of the questions, and participants' level of understanding were taken into consideration (Cohen et al., 2018).

Research objectives and research questions were taken as a base when preparing the interview questions. Simple and clear words were chosen for participants to understand easily. For example, instead of asking how they conceptualised reflective practice, they were asked what came to their mind when they heard the terms *reflection* or *reflective teaching*. Moreover, excessive prompting and leading questions or questions and words that could have caused ambiguity were avoided in order not to affect the quality of the interview (Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007).

The sequence of the interview questions was another criterion that was taken into consideration (Kvale, 2007). The interview started with simple questions and then, moved to the more complex ones and also, from general to more specific questions in order for respondents not to feel intimidated (Cohen et al., 2018). Questions about the respondents' beliefs and assumptions were asked before the questions about their experiences in case of the possibility of respondents' changing their beliefs and assumptions to correspond with their reported experiences. For example, questions about their understanding of reflection and their opinions regarding its benefits were asked before questions about whether they implemented it or not. Detailed information about how the interview protocol was designed and how interviews were conducted is presented below.

The interview protocol, designed based on Creswell's (2014) recommendation, included a section to record important information about the sessions such as the date, time and location of the interview as well as the demographic data about the participants. Consent forms requiring signatures were used to ensure participant consent.

Other than demographic data, the interview protocol contained an introduction, warm-up/icebreaker questions, core questions, and closure sections. It was important to create a non-judgmental atmosphere where participants would feel relaxed and welcomed (Alshenqeeti, 2014). An introductory part informing the participants about the objectives of the study, ensuring confidentiality and informing them about the procedure of the interview is one of the ways to create this atmosphere (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). Therefore, during the introduction section, participants were reminded of the aims of the study. They were also informed that the interview would last approximately half an hour and be recorded. Equally, they were reassured about confidentiality.

After the introduction section, the warm-up questions were asked. The warm-up questions included basic information about the participants, their educational backgrounds, and their motivations to be a teacher. There were two main reasons to collect background information from the participants: to understand the characteristics of teachers as literature shows the importance of teachers' previous learning and teaching experience in terms of shaping their beliefs and identities (Borg, 2011; Inceçay, 2011) and enhance the transferability (see 3.6).

Once a comfortable atmosphere had been created with introduction and warm-up questions, the core questions part, in turn, aimed to investigate the participants' views and implementation of reflective practice. As discussed in Section 2.1.1, the definition of reflection is still elusive. In order to understand whether the Indonesian novice EFL teachers implement reflective practice or not, it was crucial firstly to understand their definition of the term. Hence, the participants were invited to explain their conceptualisation of reflection. They were reminded that their definition of the concept was being sought, not a dictionary definition. They were also asked to express their perspective regarding the benefits of reflection and characteristic features of reflective practitioners.

Moving from the theoretical part to the practical, the participants were asked to what extent they regarded themselves as reflective practitioners. They were also invited to elaborate on their answers. For that, occasionally, they were given prompts and probes. Although several types of probes such as clarification probes (You said reflection is … what do you mean with …?) and justification probes (Why do you think …?) were used, the most commonly used probes were elaboration probes (Could you elaborate on that, please? Can you give more details about it?). These prompts and probes ensured that enough data was collected. At the same time, leading questions were avoided. These questions can be defined as the questions which influence or direct the participants to give a specific answer (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2019). To illustrate, instead of asking a leading question such as "Do you think the purpose of reflection is to develop practitioners' teaching techniques?", the participants were asked "What do you think is the purpose of reflection?".

Before closing the interview, the participants were asked whether they had any comments or thoughts that they would like to add. Their permissions were also obtained if further clarification or confirmation was needed (see 3.7). In order to enhance the credibility, a member check, in other words, "participant verification" strategy was applied (Rager, 2005, p. 26). This means that the participants were contacted again to confirm that the interview data which would be used in the main body of the thesis corresponded to their views (see 3.6). The closure part also gave me as the researcher a chance to thank the participants again. The interviews were held once at the beginning of the data collection process and they lasted 18 to 45 minutes each.

3.3.2 Classroom observations

Another data collection tool used in this study was non-participant naturalistic observation. In the current study, observations were used to investigate whether the participants' beliefs corresponded with their practices, and to explore how they engage in reflective practice. As Borg (2003) also advocates, what teachers believe may not always resemble what they actually do in the class. Therefore,

it was crucial to conduct classroom observations when it comes to investigate teachers' perceptions and practices regarding professional development and reflective practice.

The current study employed a naturalistic, non-participant observation form as the observation took place in the classroom environment and the researcher was not a part of the observed group. Naturalistic observation can be described as a type of instrument which is "carried out in the real world" where the researcher explores the issues in its own contexts (Johnson & Christensen, 2014, p. 237). Employing naturalistic observation was extremely useful for the current study as one of the aims was to investigate the participants' implementation of reflective practice in their teaching. Through the naturalistic observation, the issue was investigated in its real context rather than an artificial environment such as a laboratory; hence the data was richer and more realistic.

Another benefit of conducting classroom observations for the present study was that data collected from the classroom observations captured whether and how the participants employed reflective practice in their classrooms. Hence, the observations helped to answer the second and third research questions (see 2.4.5), which investigated how the participants' engaged in reflective practice and explored areas they had reflected upon in relation to their pedagogical practice. As it is quite common for the participants to feel nervous or uneasy during the observation, it is highly recommended for the observer to build a rapport with the observed subject (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2011). Hence, before conducting each observation, I built rapport with the participants in several ways such as creating an online platform and introducing myself as an insider to observe the class to have an idea about their way of practice rather than an outsider to assess their practice. Another strategy that was used to build rapport with the participants was observing their classes more than once; hence, they felt less anxious over time (Wang & Hartley, 2003).

3.3.2.1 Observation procedure

Following Creswell and Poth's (2018) suggestion, the classroom observation procedure was designed before conducting the observations. First, the sites to be observed were chosen. The aim of the observations was to explore whether the participants were employing reflective practice in their teaching or not, and on the condition that they did, the further investigation aimed to explore how they employed it. In this case, the participants' divergences from the lesson plan were considered as reflective actions as the participants would reflect in action (see 2.1.1). Hence, in order to observe the phenomenon directly, as the observation sites, classrooms were chosen. The next step was to obtain permission from the headmasters of the schools to conduct the research. In order to gain access to the observation sites, as a first step, ethical approval of the University of York's Department of Education was obtained (see 3.7). Next, the participant teachers and institutions were informed, invited to take

part in the study, and asked to sign a participant consent form (see Appendix 1) and an institution consent form (see Appendix 2).

Only after obtaining their consent, the next step was taken which was designing and implementing an observation protocol. The aim of designing an observational protocol was to organise the data more effectively, and also to ensure that actions to be observed were consistent in all the observations. The observation protocol form divided into two sections: pre-observation protocol (see Appendix 5) and classroom observation form (see Appendix 6).

3.3.2.1.1 Pre-observation protocol

The reason behind conducting a pre-observation protocol was to understand the participants' lesson planning process, identify whether they reflect before action or not, and to have an idea regarding what to expect during the classroom observation; hence, prepare the classroom observation protocol accordingly. During the pre-observation conferences, the participants were asked to state the activities that they would do in the class step by step. They were also asked whether they anticipated any problems that would occur during the class. As the answers to this question gave a chance for the participants to discuss previous experience to inform future actions, the practices of reflection on action and before action were sought (see 2.1.2).

Having a separate section for the pre-observation date and time, number and the teacher's pseudo name, the pre-observation protocol included three main sections: introduction, discussion of the lesson plan, and closure. During the introduction section, the participants were informed about the aim and process of the protocol. They were also reassured regarding confidentiality and anonymity; hence, they were encouraged to provide as honest responses as possible.

Discussion of the lesson plan section, in turn, included several questions regarding how the participants planned their lessons. These questions aimed to find out several aspects of the lesson planning process; including but not limited to the criterion that they took into consideration while planning their lesson, the reasons for choosing specific methods, activities, and tools to teach the lesson.

During the closure part, the participants' responses were paraphrased to ensure mutual understanding. They were also asked if there were any comments or thoughts that they would like to add. Finally, I, as the researcher, had a chance to thank the participants again for their time and collaboration.

3.3.2.1.2 Classroom observation form

As indicated in Section 3.3.2, classroom observations were crucial to finding out the divergences from the lesson plan as they would indicate a reflection sign. Hence, based on the pre-observational data, classroom observation forms were designed. Although the form had a pre-determined design in terms of the structure, some parts of the form were developmental.

At the core, all the classroom observation forms included a section for recording the observation date and time as well as the number of the observation and the pseudo name of the participant. Besides this section, the form included another section which was divided into three sub-sections: planned activities, observed activities and observer's reflections. The planned activities section was developmental as they were prepared after the pre-observation interviews. The activities that the teachers mentioned to do were listed in this part with a clear explanation of the strategies to be used. During observations, the observed activities were recorded. The observer's reflections section, in turn, included the comments from the researcher's point of view comparing the planned activities with the observed ones.

During the observations, critical incidents were also identified and noted in the further comments of the observer section (for critical incidents see 2.4.2.1). The reflective notes about the critical incidents were taken immediately briefly, and the notes were expanded at the earliest convenience as suggested by Guest, Namey, and Mitchell (2013). The observations were video recorded. After the observation, post-observation conferences were held in order to have the participants' perspective and explore the phenomena from their sides.

3.3.3 Post-observation conferences

Classroom observations were used as an input for the post-observation conferences. Due to the busy schedules of teachers, in order to transmit the assessment or feedback, observation checklists might be used (Arikan, 2004); however, such an activity would limit the possibilities of interaction between the researcher and participant. At that point, post-observation conferences (POC) might be a useful supplementary tool to exchange thoughts and ideas. Several other benefits of POCs are promoting reflection and helping participants to improve their reflective skills (Copland et al., 2009; Gan, 2014; Kim & Silver, 2016), as well as raising participants' awareness in terms of their strengths and weaknesses (Akcan, 2010; Gan, 2014). Similar to focus groups in terms of having a facilitator to keep the participants focused on the topic, POCs allowed the phenomenon to be analysed deeper and give the participants a voice to explain why, when, and how they reflected in action. Therefore, POCs were used to enrich the data from classroom observations.

3.3.3.1 Post-observation conference procedure

A similar procedure to the interview protocol was followed for the POCs. The criteria that were taken into consideration were the understanding level of the participants, using simple and clear vocabulary for the questions, and the aims of the POC (Cohen et al., 2018) while preparing the POC protocol (see Appendix 7). The protocol included a section to record the date and time that it took place, the number of the post-observation conference and the teacher's pseudo name. Other than this section, the protocol was divided into four sections including the introduction, warm-up questions, core questions, and closure parts respectively.

After the classroom observations, post-observation conferences were held. First, the participants were informed about the general procedure of the POC protocol. This included that the POC would be recorded. They were also reassured about confidentiality and explained how data would be kept and treated.

After a friendly, non-judgemental atmosphere was created to reassure their confidence, the participants were invited to comment on their own performance. They were asked to voice their perceptions about their performance regarding the quality of the lesson. They were also asked to comment about the incidents that went well or not so well during the class. The rationale behind asking these questions was to have the participants' perspectives. For example, one question that was asked was what they would change if they were to teach the same class again These questions directly aimed to answer the second research question (see 2.5.3).

Starting from general and moving to more specific questions as suggested by Cohen et al. (2018), the next section of the POC focused on more details; namely, the divergences from the lesson plan and the critical incidents. The divergences from the original plan identified during the classroom observations were pointed out and the participants were invited to explain what happened during these occasions. They were asked whether they anticipated these divergences beforehand or not. This question aimed to explore whether the participants reflected-before, -in, -on-, or -for-action (see 2.1.1). Another point that was investigated were the critical incidents. Critical incidents that occurred during the class were highlighted and the participants were asked to clarify what happened and why they happened. They were also invited to comment on their professional development through these incidents.

The last section of the POC was closure. This section allowed the participants to comment on their thoughts or acts before finishing the interview. In this section, they were reassured about confidentiality and anonymity.

3.3.4 Reflective journals

The last main data collection tool used in the current study was reflective journals. There were two main reasons for asking participants to keep a reflective journal. First, the data collected from reflective journals helped to answer the second research question, which was how the participants engaged in reflective practice. The second benefit of employing the reflective journals was as an information source about the participants' reflections regarding their pedagogical practice; hence, it helped to answer the third research question. The reflective journals ensured that the participants would reflect. Moreover, the importance of keeping reflective journals in pedagogical research has been highlighted in many studies from several perspectives including but not limited to helping the practitioners cope with uncertainties, conflicts, and instabilities (Chi, 2010), not only as an inventory to keep track of the experiences but also as a tool to promote reflection (Attard, 2006; Spalding & Wilson, 2002), helping teachers examine their beliefs and assumptions and clarify their practice (Chien, 2013). See 2.4.2.1 for more examples showing the importance of keeping a reflective journal.

Journals can take many forms such as learning journals, diaries, and dialog and response journals. Each has benefits and drawbacks (Chi, 2010; Kaneko-Marques, 2015; Sun, 2010; Yang, 2009). Professional reflective journals were particularly chosen for the current research; however, the participants were not limited to reflecting only on their professional life; instead, they were given the freedom to choose the incidents that they wanted to reflect on which helped the researcher identify the level of the reflection, as Farrell (2015) names, that the participants engaged in.

Using Gardner's multiple intelligence theory (Gardner & Hatch, 1989) as a base, the decision of keeping the journals as paper-based, electronic or audio recorded was left to the participants. This was because Gardner and Hatch (1989) suggest that some individuals learn and express themselves better visually, while some others excel at expressing themselves verbally or auditorily. By leaving the choice of journal format to the practitioners, the drawback of its being time-consuming was relatively reduced as the participants were given the option to audio record or write their reflection whichever way they felt comfortable. This also applied for the drawbacks of gender and personal differences (see 2.4.2.1 for detailed information about the drawbacks and benefits of keeping a reflective journal). However, all the participants chose to keep a written diary and submit electronically.

Besides giving the participants an option over the format of the journals, several other precautions were taken to reduce the drawbacks of keeping journals. One of the precautions was reassuring the participants that they would not be assessed, evaluated, or judged for their reflections. Hence, they would feel free to write whatever and however they like. Some academics (Ghaye, 2007) strictly oppose the idea of asking participants to share their feelings claiming that some participants

might feel uncomfortable with opening up their emotions to others. However, on the other hand, it has been argued that "[E]motions are an integral part of teachers' lives" (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Therefore, it is important to investigate teachers' emotions. Hence, the participants were encouraged to reflect on their emotions as well. In order to minimise the drawback effect of disclosing emotions, the participants were assured that the journals would be read only by the researcher and only for the purpose of the study. Another precaution taken involved the ethical issues. Data was collected after the approval of the University of York's ethics committee, which helped to minimise the ethical concerns.

3.3.4.1 Reflective journal procedure

Establishing its place as "as a valuable tool for developing critical reflection" (Richards, 1995, p. 62) even decades ago, the importance of keeping reflective journals' has been previously discussed (see 2.4.2.1 and 3.3.4). Yet, before asking teachers to keep a reflective journal, several factors need to be considered such as the purpose of keeping a journal, depth and length of the journal, and the format of the journal (Moon, 2006).

The first factor to be considered was the purpose of the journals. Several purposes were identified for keeping journals: for personal or professional development, for self-organisation, to keep a record of the experiences, to support and enhance creativity and to encourage metacognition to name but a few (Moon, 2006). As mentioned above, the main reason for asking the participants to keep a reflective journal was to answer the second and third research questions. It was also assumed that the participants would benefit from keeping reflective journals in several ways including helping them discover their beliefs and assumptions, keeping track of their developments and justifying their actions.

Clarifying the purpose, the depth and the length of the journal was another factor to be taken into consideration. The participants could have written a few sentences or several pages about the topic since "there is no 'end-point' of deep reflection" (Moon, 2006, p. 42). In order to avoid this situation, the participants were given a word limit which was between 500 and 1,500 words.

Another factor taken into consideration while designing the reflective journal procedure was its format (Moon, 2006). As mentioned in Section 2.4.2.1 and 3.3.4, reflective journals can be designed in various ways. They can be written as a hard or soft copy, or they can be audio or video recorded. In order to avoid the drawbacks of keeping a reflective journal, the participants were given options to choose the format (see 3.3.4). This is because to accommodate the participants with different learning styles (Gardner & Hatch, 1989) (see 3.3.4). For example, an auditory learner had been offered to keep an audio-recorded journal while a verbal learner could choose to write a journal. Still, they were all given the same template to ensure consistency (see Appendix 8). This template included a section for participants to record the date of the reflection, the date of the lesson reflected, and their pseudo names. The

participants were also informed about the aims and length of reflection. Questions to facilitate reflection posed to the participants included how the lesson was in general, what went well and what did not go that well, what they would change if they were to teach the same class again. In order to make it clear to them what to reflect on, they were also asked to choose at least one critical incident and reflect on it explaining what happened, how and why it happened and what they would do in the event of its repetition.

Although the reflective journal questions were similar to the POC questions, the participants had more time to think when writing the journal. Another difference to take into consideration was the time that the reflection took place. The POCs took place right after the classroom observations and the participants reflected on their practices immediately. Having more time to think about their experiences and space to articulate their thoughts, the participants were expected to deepen their reflections and make them more critical through the journals. Besides their practice, the participants were expected to reflect on their philosophy, principles, theories, and beyond practice (see 2.4.1.1) in their journal.

3.4 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted before proceeding to the main study. Pilot studies can be defined as "mini versions of a full-scale study" (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002, p. 33). The importance of conducting a pilot study is agreed by many scholars (Hassan, Schattner, & Mazza, 2006; Seidman, 2006; van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). In the current study, conducting a pilot study was crucial for several reasons. One of the advantages of piloting the instruments was estimating the approximate time for each tool, as well as establishing familiarity with the tools. Another advantage was that in the case of participants' being confused or not understanding the question, the questions were paraphrased or reworded. Helping the researcher have an initial perception regarding the conceptualisation and implementation of reflective practice in the Indonesian context was another advantage of conducting the pilot study. Finally, the questions were revisited, refined, and finalised. Hence, the feasibility of the instruments was identified as well as their strengths and weaknesses (Yin, 2014).

3.4.1 Participant selection and profile

The pilot study participants were recruited via a teacher trainer in Cimahi, Indonesia. While choosing the participants for the pilot study, similar to the main study, convenience sampling was employed (see 3.2). Six Indonesian novice EFL teachers were expected to participate in the main study. However, eight participants signed up. Of these teachers, two of them were contacted randomly and asked whether they would prefer to participate in the pilot study or the main study. Both of them agreed to participate in the pilot study. Although two participants agreed to participate in the pilot study, one of them withdrew after the interview without providing any reasons and informing the researcher. By the time

it was obvious that he had withdrawn from the study, it was too late to contact other potential participants. Hence, the study was piloted with the participation of one Indonesian novice EFL teacher. The pilot study was conducted in June 2019.

The pilot study participant (PSP hereinafter) was a 37-year-old female English teacher working at a boarding high school teaching 7th-grade students. Although she graduated in 2013, she did not start to teach until recently. She worked in a government office for five years before practicing her profession. She had been teaching English for a year by the time the interview was conducted. During the interview, she mentioned that although the motivation to be an English teacher was extrinsic at first, she did actually like being an English teacher.

The pilot study was conducted in a virtual environment as the distance between the researcher and the PSP prevented the study being conducted in the PSP's real environment. The PSP was contacted through an online application to communicate, namely WhatsApp. The date and time were arranged between the researcher and the PSP which was not very easy due to time difference. Once all the arrangements were ready, the researcher contacted the PSP through another online application, namely SKYPE. The PSP was informed that the interview would be recorded, and she was reassured regarding confidentiality and anonymity.

The same strategy for the pre- and post-observation conferences was applied. The PSP was informed about the process. The date and time were arranged for the pre-observation conference. The pre-observation protocol was conducted and recorded through SKYPE. After the pre-observation conference, the PSP was asked to video-record her class and send it to the researcher. Two days after the pre-observation conference, the PSP sent the video, and the researcher watched it. Thus, another date and time were arranged for the post-observation conference, and the same procedure was applied.

The reflective journal, in turn, was sent through an online application, WhatsApp. The PSP was informed about the format and the aim of the journal, and she was expected to write and send the journal at the earliest convenience. She submitted the journal one day after the post-observation conference.

One of the main aims of conducting the pilot study was to check the appropriateness and practicality of the data collection tools. After piloting the tools, while the format of the reflective journal was kept as it was, a few modifications to the interview protocol and pre- and post-observation conferences were applied. Some unnecessary questions such as how they became a teacher were eliminated from the interview protocol. Similarly, one repetitive question was detected both in the pre- and post-observation protocols. During the pre-observation conference, the PSP was asked to describe what she would do in the class step by step. The pre-observation questions of the pilot study included a question about

whether the teachers had a specific sequence for the activities that they were planning to do. However, when the PSP asked to describe the stages of the lesson plan, she already mentioned the sequence. Similarly, in the post-observation protocol, during the warm-up section, the PSP was asked what she would change if she taught the same class again. In the pilot study, the post-observation protocol's core section included an item asking the same question. In order to avoid repetition, the question in the core section, namely "If you were to teach the same class again, what would you do differently?" was eliminated.

3.5 Data Analysis

Data analysis can be defined as "the process of making sense out of the data" (Merriam, 1998, p. 175). Due to the nature of the qualitative research approach, a vast amount of data tends to be collected; however, handling that data is not always easy. In this exploratory qualitative study, thematic analysis (TA) was used to manage the collected data. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 79) define thematic analysis as "a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data".

There are several reasons for choosing thematic analysis for the current research. A large amount of data tends to be collected in qualitative research. Adopting thematic analysis helps to summarise key aspects of this vast amount of data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Another reason for employing TA in the present study was its being an adjustable and accessible tool to employ. Highlighting its flexibility, Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 78) mention that TA "can potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet complex, account of data". Last but not least reason to adopt TA was to make sense of the complex data. Boyatzis (1998) suggests that applying TA is a practical way to understand the "seemingly unrelated material" (p. 5).

Braun and Clarke (2006) propose six steps as a guide while conducting a thematic analysis. Below is a presentation of how these six steps were applied to the current study following the illustration of the steps in Table 3.

Table 3.

Steps of thematic analysis (adapted from Braun and Clarke, 2006)

Step	Explanation of the step
1. Familiarisation with data	Transcribing and familiarising with data by reading, re-reading and taking notes when necessary.
2. Generating initial codes	Coding and collating the data in a systematic way.
3. Searching for themes	Categorising the codes to create potential themes.
4. Reviewing themes	Crosschecking the themes with codes.
5. Defining and naming themes	Defining and naming the themes by refining them.
6. Presenting findings	Reporting the analysis by relating the themes with the research questions, literature, and analysis.

Using the thematic analysis for all the collected data, first, all the interviews, post-observation conferences and reflective journals were transcribed. The transcribed data was read and re-read several times in order for the researcher to familiarise herself with the data. Meanwhile, notes were taken when necessary, and meanings were sought to identify tentative patterns. After familiarising with the data, the NVivo 12 Software was used to group and code the data systematically. The researcher tried to give equal attention to each extract and some of them were coded a few times as they fit into several themes. The next step was to categorise the codes and search for the candidate themes. A hybrid approach of thematic analysis was used for this study (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). This means that both deductive and inductive approaches were applied. While a deductive approach means using a priori template of codes based on the literature (Crabtree & Miller, 1999), an inductive approach to thematic analysis involves data-driven coding (Boyatzis, 1998). A thematic map of the findings was also created to crosscheck if the themes overlapped with codes. Having a number of candidate themes during the previous phase, themes were separated or brought together as relevant, and a final version of the themes were obtained. Refining them, the final version of the themes was defined and named. The emergent themes were named taking into consideration the research questions. Finally, the relevant parts of the coded, themed, and analysed data were presented in the thesis body. Quotations were made in order to illustrate the phenomenon clearly.

3.6 Trustworthiness

In qualitative studies, trustworthiness is usually questioned (Shenton, 2004). Hence, in order to satisfy the necessities of trustworthiness, four main criteria sought in many studies were taken into consideration: credibility, dependability, transferability, and confirmability (Guba, 1981; Richards, 2003; Shenton, 2004). These criteria and the steps taken in order to meet them for the current study are explained below.

Credibility refers to describing and interpreting the data adequately while considering the degree of confidence in presenting the data as accurately as possible (Mertens, 2014). In other words, the credibility of research indicates how much the findings represent reality (Merriam, 2009). In order to reinforce the credibility, three strategies were applied for the current study. First of all, several tools were applied to collect data which involved reflective journals, classroom observations, pre- and post-observation conferences, and semi-structured interviews. The collected data were triangulated in order to have a holistic perspective on the issue and enhance credibility (Houghton et al., 2013). Secondly, in order to have an in-depth perspective, several observations were held (Guba, 1981). Holding more than one observation helped to reduce the stress level of the participants. Finally, a member check strategy was applied (Guba, 1981). This means that the participants were sent an email including the transcriptions of their interviews, pre-, and post-observation conferences and those data interpretations that would be used in the main body of the thesis and were asked to approve their statements. All the participants responded and confirmed the interpretations. In this study, verbatim transcription was used. This means that audiotapes were "recorded word for word" (McLellan et al., 2003, p. 77). Pauses and false starts were included while nonverbal and background sounds were excluded.

Dependability, in turn, being in the same line with reliability and credibility, is about the consistency of the study with the other studies, researchers and methods (Miles et al., 2014). Dependability also functions as an indicator showing that the researcher did not invent or misrepresent the data (Carcary, 2009). At this point, transparency is crucial to enhance dependability. Therefore, an audit trail was used to create greater transparency and further establish the dependability of the study (Carcary, 2009). The audit trail involved presenting the main research steps and making explicit the methodological, theoretical, and analytical choices (Koch, 2006). Data collection (see 3.3) and data analysis (see 3.5) procedures were also presented in detail.

Transferability was another strategy that was taken into consideration in order to enhance the trustworthiness of the study. In the case of replication of the study, the degree of consistency in the results refers to transferability (Wang, Moss, & Hiller, 2006). In order to maximise the trustworthiness and meet the criteria of transferability, several strategies were applied in the current study. First of all,

a detailed description of the participants (see 3.2) was presented. The participants' ages, their level of experience and working environments were presented. In other words, a thick description of the participants was highlighted in order to allow other researchers or readers to decide whether the findings could be transferable to a different context. Another strategy used to maximise the transferability was describing the context that the study was conducted in (see 1.2) Finally, a detailed description of the data analysis process was also presented (see 3.5).

Confirmability, in turn, can be associated with the researcher's objectivity (Guba, 1981). Although when the participants are humans, and the tools are designed by humans, it is inevitable to have a level of subjectivity, confirmability is about minimising the researcher's biases. In other words, confirmability ensures the findings and their analysis; hence, interpretations are grounded; but not invented (Guba, 1981; Miles et al., 2014). In order to meet this criterion, two steps were taken. Firstly, the researcher's position and potential sources of bias were discussed in detailed (see 3.8). It was crucial to ensure that the results of the study were based on the participants' responses rather than the researcher's biases and preferences (Shenton, 2004). Therefore, a member check strategy (see 3.3.1.1 and 3.6) was applied. The other step taken to consolidate confirmability was data triangulation (Guba, 1981). As indicated in Section 3.3, several tools were applied vigorously in order to have a wider perspective regarding the issue. While evaluating the participants' level of reflection according to Farrell's (2015) framework, data collected from semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, pre- and post-observation conferences, and reflective journals were triangulated. Triangulation of the data provided the reader with a clearer idea in terms of deciding whether the main claims and the results were grounded in the data.

3.7 Ethical considerations

In order not to violate any ethical issues, several precautions were taken before, during and after the study. As a first step, an ethical approval was received from the University of York, Department of Education Ethics Committee, before conducting the study. This process involved filling and agreeing an ethics form provided by the Committee, preparing participant and institutional information and consent forms (see Appendix 1 and 2) and developing a Data Management Plan (see Appendix 3). Through participant and institutional information and consent forms, the participants of the study were informed about the content of the study. They were informed that data would be collected in several ways such as interviews, classroom observations, pre- and post-observation conferences, and reflective journals. They were also told that the data collection process included the recordings of the interviews and observations as well as the post-observation conferences. The British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2018) suggests that the right of anonymity should also be considered and determined by the preferences of the participants who should be anonymised when and wherever they wish and where

possible. Therefore, the participants were assured that the collected data would be anonymised within two to three weeks after the completion of data collection. It was also made clear that the participation was on a voluntary basis, and they could withdraw from the study at any time during the data collection. Data Management Plan, in turn, showed approximately how much data would be collected and how they would be processed and stored. The Data Management Plan also indicated what would happen to the data after completing the study. All these precautions were taken before conducting the study.

During the study, also, ethical issues were taken into consideration. Respecting the researcher-self, as well as the participants was one of the suggestions that was made by BERA (2018) and taken into consideration. Individuals were treated as sensitively and fairly as possible which was another suggestion made by BERA (2018). Another aspect that had to be taken into consideration was researchers' freeing themselves from prejudice. More detail information about the researcher's stance and potential prejudices and how they were overcome were explained in Section 3.8.

After conducting the study, several precautions were taken in order not to violate ethical issues. For example, one of the precautions that was taken in order to increase the credibility was the member check strategy (see 3.6). A detailed description of precautions that were taken after conducting the study in order to avoid the ethical problems was explained in Section 3.6.

3.8 Researcher's position and potential sources of bias

As indicated in Section 3.6, in order to enhance confirmability, it is crucial for researchers to be aware of their bias and role. In order to cope with bias, researchers' reflection on the self and the issue investigated is a precondition (Norris, 1997). As an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher, I have always been aware of the importance of Continuous Professional Development (CPD); however, I have been introduced to reflective practice relatively late. What I realised was, I was implementing reflection on my practice even though I was not aware of the characteristic features of a reflective practitioner or models or levels of reflection. Hence, it can be called a rudimentary version of reflective practice which was mostly on a descriptive level. My passion for CPD and interest in how aware the EFL teachers regarding the concept of reflective practice drove me to conduct the current study. Hence, my aim was to investigate how much the Indonesian novice EFL teachers know about the concept and its application.

In order to minimise the researcher bias, I reviewed the literature critically and tried to familiarise myself with the problems that I might possibly encounter. I also tried to be open-minded to the different ideologies and beliefs of the participants (Norris, 1997). As this study did not aim to implement any intervention, I did not provide the participants with a framework to reflect, and I tried to avoid imposing my perspectives and ideas regarding how the teachers should reflect.

Berger (2013) suggests that the researcher's disclosing relevant features may impact the research. I intentionally disclosed my non-native EFL teacher background so that the participants could see me as an insider. The impact of the researcher's position can be in three ways. First of all, in the condition that the participants feel the sympathy of the researcher, they tend to be more willing to cooperate and share their ideas and experiences; hence, the researcher will have wider access to the participants' perspectives (Berger, 2013). In that case, I introduced myself as an EFL teacher to the participants indicating that I was one of them, and I was there to observe and understand their conceptualisations and implementations of reflective practice. I explicitly explained to them that I was not there to judge or assess their practices. Secondly, disclosing the researcher's identity may affect the relationship between the researcher and the participants. In this case, consciously, I disclosed my non-native identity in order for them not to feel shy about their English level. As a non-native speaker, from time to time, I made grammatical mistakes or could not remember the meaning of a word and asked for their help, which made them feel less nervous. Finally, the researcher's background and worldview may affect the study (Berger, 2013). In other words, the researcher's word choice, constructions of the questions and interpretation of the answers also affect the study. Being an English teacher myself and having gone through similar experiences to the participants also helped me to construct my questions and understand the participants' views.

Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding and implementation of reflective practice. The current chapter presented the methodological approach that was followed in order to investigate the phenomena. It was explained that due to the constructivist perspective, an exploratory qualitative research method was chosen for the current study. Also, it was noted that multiple data collection tools were used, which helped to obtain in-depth information about how the Indonesian novice EFL teachers understand and engage in reflective practice. The participants' profile and the sampling procedure were also explained. Data collection procedures were elaborated on in detail. Before conducting the main research, the study was piloted. The modifications were enacted following the pilot study. The current chapter also presented the analytical framework explaining that thematic analysis was used while analysing the data. Trustworthiness and ethical considerations were the other topics that were discussed as well as the researcher's position in the current study. The following chapter, in turn, presents the data analysis and findings procedure in detail.

Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of the previous chapter was to present the chosen methodology for the current study. Hence, the previous chapter started with a presentation of the research design of this study. In this regard, a qualitative research approach was introduced with the justification of why social constructivism was chosen as a research paradigm. The previous chapter also explained why qualitative approach was adopted to conduct the current research. Several features of qualitative research method were presented along with illustrating how the current study is positioned in relation to those features. Selected data collection tools were also introduced after presenting the participants' profiles and sampling procedure. The implementation of the pilot study, data analysis method, trustworthiness, ethical considerations, and researcher's stance were also presented respectively.

This chapter, in turn, presents the findings of the six participating teachers' data analysis. The current chapter deals with each research question separately; hence, it is divided into three sections. While the first section presents the findings regarding the participants' understanding of reflective practice based on the interview data analysis (research question 1), the next section presents the findings of the second research question and explains how the participants engaged in reflective practice. In order to answer the second research question, mainly, the transcriptions of the pre- and post-observation conferences, and the reflective journals are used. The last section of the current chapter, in turn, investigates the third research question and explores the participants' reflections through Farrell's (2015) framework for reflective practitioners (see 2.4.1.1). The third research question is answered through triangulating the data collected from the interviews, pre- and post-observation conferences, and the reflective journals. While answering the second and third research questions, the video-recorded classroom observations were also referred to from time to time as supporting data. Each section is concluded with a summary of the related findings.

4.1 Conceptualisation of reflective practice

This section presents the findings of the study related to the first research question, which aims to investigate how the participating Indonesian novice EFL teachers conceptualise reflective practice. In order to be able to explore the issue in an organised way, this section is divided into three sub-sections based on the data analysis: the definition of reflective practice, the purpose of reflective practice, and the characteristic features of reflective practitioners.

4.1.1 Definition of reflective practice

The data analysis showed that the participants' definitions of the term were similar to each other in terms of understanding reflective practice as a problem-solving strategy (Figure 8). Taking problem-solving as the main theme, the participants' definitions of reflective practice could be categorised under three perspectives: an activity for sharing knowledge, a process of looking back in order to enhance the teaching practices, and a tool for professional development. These sub-themes and the participants' views are presented below.

Figure 8.

Definition of reflective practice
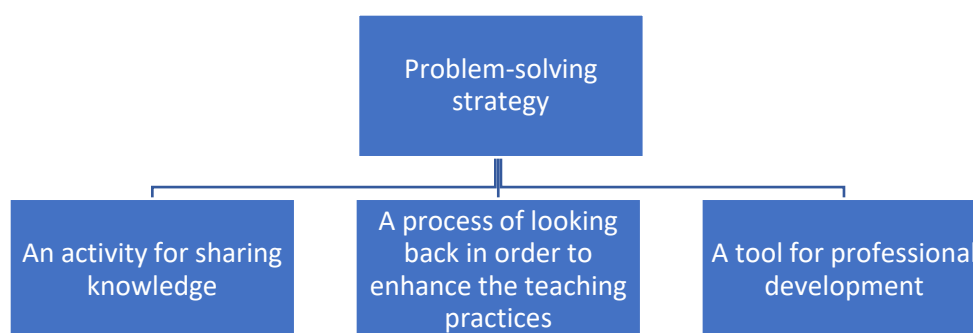
The first sub-theme to be presented is reflective practice as an activity for sharing knowledge. Having a broad perspective, Anni's understanding of the term was reflective practice as an activity that the practitioners learn from not only via their teaching experiences but also through their social interaction. She suggested that reflective teachers were the ones who "share[d] knowledge with the students and the other teachers, and … with the community" (Anni-Int). This understanding indicated that Anni supported the benefits of social learning theory and a dialogic approach to teaching practices (see 4.1.3.2). Moreover, she believed that reflective practitioners play an important role in contributing not only to the students' pedagogical development but also the community and the colleagues' intellectual improvement by sharing knowledge. She also suggested that learning experiences were not bounded by classroom borders. Knowledge sharing could take place "in a conference, in the teachers' room" (Anni-Int) or simply in a non-classroom environment. She further stated that:

> Maybe, you [as a reflective teacher] can write a book or a blog… you can share about…
> how important the education is… how to become a good teacher… to share experience…
> via YouTube, a blog… social media… Because you can give an idea [to the other teachers]
> … You can share the method [that you use] (Anni-Int).

The way of exchanging ideas was also flexible. Anni encouraged teachers to share their teaching experiences by means of several tools. In particular, she stated that online communication tools such as blogs were useful as they make reflection more visible and can guide other practitioners. She believes that teachers could reach a wider audience for experience sharing, and in return, they could also benefit from the online teacher communities of practice.

The second sub-theme regarding the definition of reflective practice was its being a looking back process. Abur, Nisa, and Rafi all thought that reflective practice was a retrospective process for enhancing the teaching practice. However, their perspectives diverged slightly from time to time. For example, Abur stated that "we reflect to see what we have done in the class and what kind of problems we face… So, we should fix them for the next class" (Abur-Int). He thought that reflective practice was a process of looking back for teachers to question their practices and solve the problems that they had faced during a class, especially from the perspective of methodological choices. Similarly, Nisa also focused on critical incidents that could be defined as the unplanned occurrences that emerged during a lesson. However, Nisa's understanding of reflective practice went further than Abur's as she incorporated critical analysis of her teaching; she suggested that "we should reflect to understand what happened and why" (Nisa-Int). Nisa used the metaphor of "a mirror" (Nisa-Int) in order to describe the term and perceived the definition of reflective practice as a process of looking back to her practice in order to detect and analyse the unexpected situations that occurred during her class. She stated that:

> Actually, it is my first time knowing about reflective practice. I heard the word reflective. Maybe it is just like a mirror. So, maybe I can associate it with what happened in my class… suddenly, it has happened accidentally maybe… and then what should I do? So, that is what comes to my mind (Nisa-Int).

Nisa associated the concept with the dictionary meaning of the reflection word. According to her, reflective practice resembled looking in a mirror. The mirror association suggested that she regarded the reflective practice notion as a retrospective process. She assumed that reflective practice was a problem-solving process starting with identifying the incidents which were different from routine or planned occurrences. She thought that she would be able to learn from her own teaching experiences through reflecting on the critical incidents such as unexpected misbehaviour of the students or time management issues. However, differently from Anni, she seemed not to recognise the importance of collaboration and learning from others' experiences. She also suggested that she would know how to react in the case of the reoccurrence of the unplanned incident if she reflected on the critical incidents.

Although Rafi's conceptualisation of reflective practice being a retrospective process informing the future practices was in line with Abur and Nisa's views, his motive for reflecting was more specific.

He thought that reflective practice was a process of looking back in order to identify his students' needs and plan a better lesson for his upcoming class. When asked to define the reflective practice concept, Rafi remembered his experience as a student at the university and explained that:

> When I was back at the university, my paper was about CORE, Classroom Action Research. Okay? In CORE, there are reflective circles. So, what I get from the reflective practice is that we not only teach, we come to the class, and we try to transfer our knowledge, but we also have to research the students. We have to see what the students' problem is and how we can solve it. So, in my mind, reflective practice is about how we research what the students need (Rafi-Int).

The excerpt above suggests that Rafi associated reflective practice with classroom action research that he learned during his university education. His referring to "reflective circles" (Rafi-Int) indicated that he was aware that reflective practice involved a cyclical process. Therefore, it would not be wrong to interpret that Rafi regarded the reflective practice as a continuous journey. The excerpt also indicates that Rafi associated the term with a process to "research the students" (Rafi-Int) in order to find out their problems. He elaborated his thinking by saying that his definition of reflective practice was the way of improving the students' knowledge by looking back to his practices in the previous classes.

The third conceptualisation of reflective practice by the participants, in turn, was its being a tool for professional development. Although the second sub-theme, looking back in order to enhance the teaching practice, could be associated with professional development, it is important to highlight here that the focus of the participants in terms of reflective practice being a process and a tool was different. That means while Abur, Nisa, and Rafi labelled the process of professional development as reflective practice, Ina and Sri treated reflective practice as a tool for professional development.

It was interesting to see that two out of six participants regarded the reflective practice as a professional development tool. While Ina thought that reflective practice would help her to analyse her students' learning outputs and indirectly help her develop herself professionally, Sri focused on more general and direct professional development. To exemplify, Ina treated reflective practice as a tool for assessing the effectiveness of her work and when asked how she conceptualised the term, she stated that:

> I bring my mind… how I teach my students… how the method that I choose can work and what the failure is… and I evaluate the score that my students get… if they can do the test or they fail in the exam… what causes that? (Ina-Int)

Ina associated reflective practice as a retrospective, product-oriented process. Moreover, she believed that she could analyse her students' learning by reflecting on her practice. She also assumed that she could see how well the students achieved the learning outcomes based on her students' exam results. She thought that in the case of the students having low marks or failing an exam, she could search for the reasons that caused the students to fail. Hence, she could find the problematic area of her teaching and improve it for the future practises. This indicated that Ina recognised the reflective practice concept as a tool to assess her methodological choices and better understand her students' learning outputs; hence, she associated the term with a way for enhancing her professional skills.

Sri was another participant who regarded the reflective practice concept as a tool for professional development; however, his focus was more general. Similar to other participants, Sri also conceptualised the term as a looking back. Nevertheless, Sri suggested that the aim and the result of looking back were helping teachers to develop themselves professionally, especially in terms of methodological choices regarding pedagogical practices:

> Reflective practice is like seeing yourself as a teacher and how you teach... how to communicate with the students, how to elaborate, how to deliver to the students, and how we can transfer it to the students. I mean the material... and dealing with flexible changes in the way of teaching (Sri-Int).

The excerpt suggested that Sri saw reflective practice as a tool to improve himself professionally. Reflective practice was an instrument for him to evaluate whether his way of delivering the material was useful or not which was a similar approach to Ina. He also believed that through reflective practice, he would be able to see how well he performed in the class by highlighting that reflective teachers were the "judges" of themselves (Sri-Int) (see 4.1.2.1). However, differently from Ina, Sri supposed that reflective practice would help him to understand how he could cater to the students' needs better instead of only evaluating the students' learning outputs. Moreover, taking the personal aspects of the students on board, Sri believed that through reflective practice, he would see himself objectively and evaluate whether his way of communicating with the students was effective or not. This is because he thought that reflective practice was a tool for him to build rapport with his students by communicating with them efficiently.

Thus, only Anni held a relatively critical view of the reflective practice concept by extending the definition of the term out of the classroom context. All other participants' understanding of reflective practice regarding its definition was mostly descriptive as they provided a limited picture of the concept by associating it with the dictionary meaning. Their definition of the term did not go beyond problem-solving tools and processes. The participants mostly focused on the critical incidents that occurred in

the class including but not limited to methodological choices and student misbehaviours. Moreover, regarding reflective practice as a cognitive process, their mutual understanding of reflective practice was looking back to analyse what happened in the class in order to improve their next practice. Hence, the findings indicated that most of the participants' conceptualisation of reflective practice was future-oriented by referring to their previous experiences in the class. It was also interesting to see that out of six participants, only one of them, namely Rafi, professed to be familiar with the term from his university education, which might suggest that little attention is given to reflective practice in the Indonesian context.

4.1.2 Purpose of reflective practice

When it comes to the purpose of reflective practice, almost all the participants agreed that the main aim of reflective practice was to enhance their teaching and classroom management skills. Although the participants focused on more efficient teaching for the next practices, in two cases, understanding the students' inner worlds in order to provide sufficient and efficient support to address their learning needs was also indicated.

4.1.2.1 Reflective practice for more efficient teaching

Even though five out of six participants conceptualised the purpose of reflective practice as helping them in terms of improving their teaching skills, they had various perspectives. The sub-themes that emerged from the data analysis were identifying the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching practices, resisting the mechanical and routine actions, improving their classroom management skills, and linking theory with the practice.

Rafi, Ina, and Sri thought that the main purpose of reflective practice was professional development. All three participants focused on enhancing teaching skills and believed that reflective practice would help them to deal with the unexpected situations that occurred during their classes. Interestingly, the mutual response for dealing with the unexpected and usually unwanted situation was to try out new methods to eventually solve the unanticipated problems successfully. Rafi, for example, highlighted that he would reflect to find the weaknesses of his teaching practice and apply another strategy for his upcoming class in order to avoid facing the same problem again. He stressed that he would change the method that he used "if the lesson process is not going well" (Rafi-Int), in other words, if the students did not comprehend the provided input. This was because he assumed that his methodological choice to deliver the lesson was not compatible with his students' comprehension ability by stating that "maybe something is wrong with my method" (Rafi-Int). Hence, he highlighted that:

The purpose of reflective practice is to fix our teaching methods if they are not good, right? If we do not reflect on our teaching, then we cannot realise there is something wrong in our class… and then, if we reflect, we try to remember what is going on in the classroom. Maybe we can learn, oh! I think I do not have to do that. I have to do that… it was not on my mind when I was in the class… (Rafi-Int)

Rafi was not the only participant who associated the reflective practice notion with a flashback action for improving their practice (See 4.1.1). Similarly, Sri also thought that reflective practice was a past-oriented action, and it was a necessity for teachers to reflect on their previous teaching experiences in order to inform their future practices. While Rafi focused only on the practitioners' methodological choices, Sri, having a broader perspective, highlighted that the purpose of reflective practice was to help teachers to improve themselves professionally in order to be "a better teacher" (Sri-Int). He believed that the purpose of reflective practice was:

… to improve the things that I do not have, I have not done. It is like… let's say there are ten aspects of being a good, reflective teacher. For example, I already do one to seven. But maybe, eight to ten, I have not done it. So, in the future to become a better teacher, I have to reflect… (Sri-Int).

According to Sri, reflective practice would help teachers become aware of their strengths and weaknesses. He thought that through reflective practice, he could see himself objectively (see 4.1.1) and decide which practices of his were effective and which ones were not. Moreover, he used the metaphor of "being judges of ourselves" as teachers (Sri-Int) in order to evaluate his own practice and made it clear that he conceptualised the purpose of reflective practice as the teachers' assessing their own performances in order to improve it and maximise student learning.

Ina, in turn, agreed with Sri in terms of treating reflective practice as an assessment tool and thought that she could identify the shortcomings of a lesson when she reflected on her teaching. Although all three participants used the looking back strategy to find the problematic area of their teaching practices, Rafi and Sri referred to their own weaknesses whereas Ina thought that she could use reflective practice as an assessment tool (see 4.1.1) to "evaluate the students' learning level" (Ina-Int). Ina assumed that by reflecting on her lesson, she could remember how well her students performed during the lesson; hence, she associated the aim of reflective practice with assessing the students' learning outputs.

Apart from participants' looking back and being aware of the flaws of their practices, the other point that Rafi cogently highlighted was that reflective practice was a crucial way to resist mechanical and routine actions. He clearly stated that in the case of practitioners' not reflecting on their practices,

it would be difficult, almost impossible, for them to realise the weaknesses of their practices. In this case, they would repeat their ineffective teaching practices. However, he continued, "if we [teachers] flashback[ed] to the lesson process and realise[d] that something was wrong with the teaching practice, we could fix the problem" (Rafi-Int). Hence, he believed that he could improve his practice and develop himself professionally through reflective practice. As Rafi refused to repeat the same ineffective strategies in his teaching practices, he showed some signs of having a critical perspective. Nevertheless, his level of criticality was disputable as he oversimplified the problem-solving process by skipping the steps of defining the problem and generating alternative solutions. Rafi's approach for solving a problem was "using another method" (Rafi-Int). However, the trial-and-error method, which was a problem-solving method encouraging the practitioner to try various means until the correct one was found, cost him time and effort. Rafi was not alone in terms of skipping some problem-solving steps and coming to the conclusion of applying another teaching method in order to "obtain better results from the students" (Ina-Int) or "explain the material better and clearer" (Rafi-Int). Similarly, Sri, Ina, and Abur also indicated that they would simply try to apply a different method in the case of the current one was not being effective.

Although Abur and Nisa also thought that the main aim of reflective practice was to engage in professional development, their perspectives were very different from Ina, Rafi, and Sri. While Ina, Rafi, and Sri focused on detecting the problematic areas in order to improve their teaching practices, the latter participants tackled the issue from the perspective of classroom management skills. For instance, Nisa stated that the purpose of reflective practice was mostly about managing the class well:

> Maybe, the aim of reflection… is to manage the classroom, maybe. So, we still control our classroom. Because I heard that, as the teachers, we are the managers of our classroom. If something happens accidentally, we are responsible. So, we should manage it soon (Nisa-Int).

According to Nisa, classroom management skill was one of the core skills that teachers must have. On this basis, she thought that the aim of reflective practice was to help teachers to improve their classroom management skills. She believed that by reflecting on their practice, "we [teachers] keep going on our lesson plan" (Nisa-Int). She assumed that following the lesson plan in order to keep the classroom under control was important and through reflective practice, she would be able to identify and manage unexpected situations.

Similarly, focusing on reflective practice as a tool for teachers to improve their classroom management skills, Abur, in turn, highlighted the gap between the theory and practice and stated that the aim of reflective practice was to link these two. He felt that reflective practice "mostly comes with a

problem" (Abur-Int). The theoretical knowledge "sometimes does not match with the class" (Abur-Int). In other words, what he planned did not always correspond to his actual teaching practice. Hence, being problem-oriented, he thought that he needed to reflect on his practice in order to eliminate the discrepancy. Similar to Rafi, Abur also indicated that he would use "another, different method" (Abur-Int) if the current method was "not appropriate [in terms of] for example classroom management" (Abur-Int). Therefore, he skipped the steps of defining the problem and generating alternative solutions.

4.1.2.2 Reflective practice for understanding the students' inner worlds

Besides professional development in order to enhance teaching practices, the other theme that emerged from the data analysis regarding the purpose of reflection was exploring and understanding the students' inner world in order to support them more efficiently. At this point, the participants' views fell into two groups: understanding the students' emotions and helping them for self-actualisation.

According to Nisa, other than helping her improve her classroom management skills, the aim of reflective practice was to be aware of the students' emotions in relation to their learning experiences. When Nisa was asked why she reflected, she explained that:

> I think I should do reflective practice more… it should be done at every meeting. Because the students are… dynamic… they are not always in the same mood. Maybe the next time, they will be sad. Next time, they will be happy… sometimes the students may be in daily (life)… they have been so happy but when I enter the classroom, suddenly they feel sad. Maybe there is something wrong with me or with them. So, I should check what happened on that day (Nisa-Int).

In contrast to Ina who focused only on her students' intellectual development (see 4.1.2.1) and prioritise the learning outcomes, Nisa was actively concerned with the affective learning theory which was a theory that accounted for the learners' feelings during the teaching-learning process. Hence, Nisa thought that one of the purposes of reflective practice was to analyse the students' feelings and act accordingly. Considering the fluctuations in the students' emotions, she highlighted that reflecting on her practice for each class was essential in order to understand and support the students' well-being. For her, the reasons behind the emotions were as important as the emotions themselves. It was crucial for her to check the reasons behind the emotions as they could be teacher-related.

Anni, on the other hand, had a different perspective than Nisa and stated that she reflected to identify students' goals and motivations. She believed that she could help the students achieve self-actualisation if she was informed about their goals:

Because I really love my students, and then… I think… I have to know about my students… my students have dreams. So, I want to help them reach their dreams… so, I think the purpose of reflection… to help the students get their dreams (Anni-Int).

The excerpt above indicated that Anni associated reflective practice with being a supportive and caring teacher as she highlighted that as a reflective practitioner "you [the teacher] have to know about empathy… and you have to care about your students" (Anni-Int). According to her, through reflection, the teachers could understand more about their students' inner worlds; hence, they could provide more support for them to achieve their dreams. Unlike Ina, she made it clear that the academic achievement of the students was not her priority. Her priority was to improve the students' attitude rather than transferring knowledge. Hence, according to her, the purpose of reflective practice was to have a wider perspective and see beyond the students' academic accomplishments and help them to achieve self-actualisation.

4.1.3 Characteristic features of reflective teachers

The participants reflected on a variety of themes related to defining the characteristic features of reflective teachers. In order to illustrate the results better, the themes that emerged from the data can be divided into two groups: hard skills and soft skills. The former denoted technical or strategy-related skills, whereas the latter referred to intrapersonal and interpersonal skills and transferable skills.

4.1.3.1 Hard skills

Regarding the hard skills of the reflective practitioners, the data that emerged from the analysis fell into two main categories: teachers who were competent in their field and teachers who were life-long learners. It was interesting to see that teachers' being competent in their fields was interpreted in two different ways. While one of the interpretations was having skills to deliver the content of the lesson effectively, having classroom management skills was another interpretation.

One of the sub-themes that emerged from the data analysis was being competent in terms of delivering the content of the lesson effectively, in other words, transferring knowledge in such a way to cater to all the students' needs. Sri, for example, believed that it was crucial for reflective teachers to provide clear input to accommodate all the students with different needs. Sri also highlighted that reflective teachers were supposed to consider the students' backgrounds and levels of understanding while planning and delivering a lesson. He indicated that not all the students had the same level of understanding and he emphasised that the ability to "deliver the material with a clear and simple language" (Sri-Int) was one of the characteristic features of the reflective teachers. Sri's pointing out the individual differences could indicate that according to him, reflective teachers were the ones who were

aware of their students' abilities and created an atmosphere for different learning opportunities for their student.

Nisa, in turn, interpreted the concept of being competent in a different way than Sri and believed that the reflective teachers were supposed to have the skills to manage their classes well especially in terms of students' misbehaviour and time management. Nisa claimed that reflective practice and classroom management skills had a direct relationship. She strongly believed that "the more the teachers reflect[ed] on their practice, it would be easier for them to manage the classroom" (Nisa-Int). She felt that teachers would understand their students' needs and behaviours better when they reflected on their practice as they would be able to recognise the problematic areas of their practices (see 4.1.2) through looking back at their practices (see 4.1.1). By having a better understanding of their students' needs from various viewpoints, they would be able to manage the class more easily.

The other hard skill identified is reflective teachers as life-long learners. Anni tackled the issue from a different perspective, and she believed that reflective teachers were the ones who kept their knowledge updated all the time before they shared it. She argued that "you have to learn first if you want to teach someone" (Anni-Int). She thought that reflective teachers were meant to be experts in the field that they were meant to teach. According to her, it was essential for the reflective teachers to have comprehensive knowledge of the topic that they taught. Anni suggested that there were several strategies available to teachers to keep their knowledge up to date. "Attending a conference, starting [or following] an [educational] blog… using social media" (Anni-Int), collaborative learning, and community of practice were some of the suggestions of Anni's for the reflective teachers to engage in professional development (see 4.1.1).

4.1.3.2 Soft skills

Besides hard skills, the participants thought that soft skills were also crucial for the reflective teachers. The soft skills that the participants stated were being open-minded, communicative, and responsible. The data analysis showed that although the participants' understandings of being open-minded and communicative were similar to each other, being responsible was construed in different ways.

Open-mindedness was predominantly interpreted as being open to the significant others' ideas and learning from them. For example, Rafi construed that reflective teachers were open to new learning and teaching experiences. To illustrate, he explicitly stated that it was his "chance to have another experience from the people who have more knowledge, who have more experience than" him (Rafi-Int) when he heard about being a potential participant for the current study. This could suggest that he was aware that he was still a novice teacher; hence, he lacked experience and he was open to learn from

others. This expression of his could also indicate that he was aware of the potential benefits of collaborative learning which was in line with Anni's views (see 4.1.1 and 4.1.3.1).

Similarly, Anni also believed that "reflective teachers have to be open-minded" (Anni-Int) and open to different ideas. She pointed out that reflective teachers were open to learning from not only their own teaching practices but also from their colleagues and students. She thought that reflective teachers were supposed to embrace the new learning opportunities in order to develop themselves professionally. Moreover, highlighting that "the teacher is not just in the class" (Anni-Int), Anni extended the learning process out of the traditional classroom and teacher concepts where a teacher taught, and the students listened. She suggested that open-minded reflective teachers could also benefit from out-of-school learning opportunities. These opportunities could have a formal structure such as "a conference or workshop" (Anni-Int), as well as an informal structure such as exchanging ideas with a colleague or having a conversation with the students (see 4.1.1). This thought of Anni mostly aligned with the dialogic approach of social learning theory which embraces the idea of using conversations and social interactions for educational purposes (see also 4.1.3.2).

Another feature that emerged from the data analysis was having good communicative skills. Anni claimed that effective reflective teachers would build rapport with their students and provide them with the support that they needed for not only their intellectual but also personal development (see 4.1.2.2). She believed that reflective teachers were the ones who were available and approachable to their students all the time. In this way, the students would "feel comfortable to share" (Anni-Int) their perspectives:

> … sharing… it is like a sharing session. You [as a teacher] have to make sure that your students are Okay [especially mentally] … And after that, [if the teacher senses a problem], you [as a teacher] have to encourage the students to share about [their] problems" (Anni-Int).

Anni thought that being an approachable teacher was crucial in order for the students to open themselves up to their teachers. She pointed out that her opinion regarding the reflective teachers having communicative skills in order to help the students' intellectual and personal development was based on her experiences of observing other teachers' relations with the students. She emphasised that "if you are a harsh teacher, the students will not listen to you" (Anni-Int). She defined "a harsh teacher" as a teacher whose relationship with his/her students did not go beyond the classroom context and the one who did not empathise with the students. She indicated that those harsh teachers were not favoured by the students, and it was rare if at all, the students would talk about their needs to these

teachers. However, she found it essential for students to share their opinions and feelings in order to enhance their learning experiences.

The last soft skill that the participants stated was being responsible. Although four of the participants described the reflective teachers as responsible ones, it was interesting to see that they all conceptualised being responsible differently. For example, according to Anni, reflective teachers were responsible for being consistent with what they said and how they acted as they were supposed to be "the role-models" (Anni-Int) for their students. Anni construed the reflective teachers as role-models especially in terms of social values such as feeling empathy, being disciplined, caring about other people's feelings and opinions. Emphasising that the students would not appreciate a discrepancy between the teachers' statements and behaviours, she strongly believed that it was crucial for reflective teachers to be consistent:

> You have to do it first… I mean because I think if I tell about empathy and discipline to my students, and I do not have empathy and a great attitude, it is like… Seriously? You are the teacher. So, you have to do it first (Anni-Int).

Anni highlighted that being a role-model was not less important than guiding (lecturing) the students. She suggested that the reflective teachers were the ones who had consistency in their statements and attitudes and would not allow a contradiction between these two. Otherwise, she continued, they would face the problem of losing the students' respect. Anni's image of a reflective teacher was a teacher who felt empathy with their students, taught attitude, and also was a role-model. Hence, she thought that reflective teachers were responsible for their actions.

Another interpretation of being responsible was teachers' being creative in terms of delivering the lesson. Abur, for example, conceptualised the reflective teacher as "a responsible teacher and creative teacher" (Abur-Int). Unlike Anni who was concerned about her students' personal development, for Abur, reflective teachers' responsibility was limited to the teaching-learning context. He thought that they were responsible only for their students' academic achievements. For him, reflective teachers were supposed to deliver their lesson in a way that the students could achieve the learning targets. A way to deliver a lesson successfully, according to Abur, was to use an eclectic approach which meant applying several "different methods" (Abur-Int) to the teaching practice. The data suggested that Abur associated a successful lesson with a lesson in which the student engagement was high (see 4.2.3.2, 4.2.4.1, and 4.3.4.2). Therefore, he thought that reflective teachers were supposed to be creative in order to "make the learning [process] enjoyable for the students" (Abur-Int). Although Abur's view corresponded to Sri's view in terms of teachers' being competent at applying diverse

teaching methods in order to accommodate their students' needs (see 4.1.3.1), Abur mainly focused on ensuring the attractiveness of the lesson.

Another interpretation of the responsibility in relation to the reflective teachers was having good classroom management skills. When asked about the characteristic features of the reflective teachers, Nisa, for example, replied as saying "a responsible one maybe… responsible for their students" (Nisa-Int). Then, she justified her response by continuing:

> Because as I said before, the teacher is the manager of the classroom. The students are maybe not just like their students but like their sons, their children. So, they should manage them well. So, it is like an organisation but what their students do is still observed by their teachers (Nisa-Int).

The excerpt indicated that she regarded the classroom as an organisation and the teacher was the director or manager of the organisation. As in several cases, Nisa highlighted again that the teachers were the managers of their classes. Hence, they were responsible for their students; however, instead of clarifying the borders of the teachers' responsibilities, Nisa extended the teacher-student relationship to a parent-child relationship suggesting that the reflective teachers were meant to have various functions. She believed that the reflective teachers were supposed to care for the students as if they were their own children besides ensuring the students' pedagogical development.

Being responsible for their colleagues was another interpretation. Rafi agreed with the other participants in terms of reflective teachers' being responsible. Moreover, he extended their responsibility not only for the students but also for other teachers, as well. He stated that:

> The reflective teachers have to be responsible… responsible for the students… for the teachers, too… to themselves and others [other teachers] … it will be useful for the other teachers, as well. Because reflective teachers will usually discuss the problems they find back in the class (Rafi-Int).

Rafi thought that reflective teachers' responsibility included the other teachers as well as their students. It was important for them to collaborate with their colleagues as he admitted that he benefitted from his colleagues' experience. Rafi was aware that he lacked experience and he found it an effective strategy for him to ask his experienced colleagues' advice about an issue that he faced. This could suggest that Rafi valued and benefited from collaborative learning.

Based on the data analysis, it was apparent that the participants had a mutual understanding in terms of the characteristic features of reflective teachers. Not ignoring the importance of hard skills,

they all believed that soft skills were crucial. The characteristic features of reflective teachers that emerged from the data analysis were their being competent in terms of delivering the material and managing the class as well as being life-long learners. Being open-minded, communicative, and responsible were other features that were attributed to reflective teachers by the participating teachers. It was interesting to see that although four of the participants thought that reflective teachers were meant to be responsible, their interpretation of being responsible was different from each other.

The picture that emerged from the data analysis in relation to the first research question showed that the participants' definitions of the reflective practice concept were similar to each other and mostly on a descriptive level as their thinking did not go beyond the classroom actions. They all agreed that it was a problem-solving strategy. Based on the participants' excerpts, reflective practice was defined as a mental process in which teachers looked back and thought about their practices in order to inform their future classes. When it came to the purpose of reflective practice, the data analysis suggested that almost all the participants agreed that the main aim of the reflective practice was to learn from past experiences and enhance their upcoming practices. Understanding the students' inner world and helping them achieve self-actualisation were the other purposes that the participants highlighted. Finally, the participants' stated beliefs regarding the characteristic features of the reflective teachers were also investigated. The findings showed that soft skills such as being responsible, caring, role-modelling, open-mindedness, being collaborative, and communicative as well as hard skills such as classroom management skills and pedagogical content knowledge were appreciated by the participants regarding the features of a reflective teacher. A summary of the first research question's findings is presented below (see Table 4).

Table 4.

Summary of the RQ1's findings

Conceptualisation of reflective practice						
Definition of reflective practice (A problem-solving strategy)			**Purpose of reflective practice**		**Characteristic feature of reflective practitioners**	
An activity for sharing knowledge	A process of looking back in order to enhance the teaching practices	A tool for professional development	Reflective practice for more efficient teaching	Reflective practice for understanding the students' inner worlds	Hard skills	Soft skills
Anni: sharing knowledge with not only the students but also colleagues and the society	**Abur**: practitioners' questioning their practices and solving the problems that they had faced during a class **Nisa:** understanding what happened and why **Rafi**: identifying the students' needs and plan a better lesson	**Ina**: assessing the effectiveness of the practitioner's work **Sri**: helping teachers to develop themselves professionally, especially in terms of methodological choices regarding pedagogical practices	**Abur**: linking theory with the practice **Ina**: assessing the students' learning outputs **Nisa**: managing the class well **Rafi**: identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the teaching practices, resisting mechanical and routine actions **Sri**: teacher's being their own judges, identifying strengths and weaknesses of their practices and improving them	**Anni:** identifying students' goals and motivations, and helping them for self-actualisation **Nisa:** understanding and supporting the students' well-being	**Anni:** being a life-long learner, having up to date knowledge in their fields **Nisa:** being competent, managing the class well **Sri**: being competent, delivering the content of the lesson effectively	**Abur:** being responsible in terms of being creative and delivering effective, attractive lessons. **Anni and Rafi:** being open-minded, being open to new learning and teaching experiences **Anni:** having good communicative skills, being approachable and being responsible for being consistent with what they say and how they act

4.2 Indonesian novice EFL teachers' engagement in reflective practice

After presenting the findings of the first research question (see 4.1), it is now time to present the second research question's findings, that is, how the novice EFL teachers in Indonesia engage in reflective practice. Based on the data analysis, it became apparent that the participants engaged in reflective practice in various ways for different purposes. Applying a deductive approach (see 3.5), in other words, using the themes from the literature review (see 2.1.2), the participants' reflections were divided into four main categories: reflection-before-action, reflection-in-action, reflection-on-action, and reflection-for-action.

4.2.1 Reflection-before-action

Although teachers' reflection activities can start at any phase, the presentation of the current study's data analysis takes RbA as the starting point since the participants started reflecting before entering the classroom. During the pre-observation conferences, the participants were invited to comment on their predictions regarding the possible challenges that they could face in their classes. The data analysis showed that the participants predicted several possible issues which are presented below under two categories: inhibiting factors of students' classroom engagement and time management issues.

4.2.1.1 Inhibiting factors of students' classroom engagement

The data analysis showed that the factors inhibiting the students' classroom engagement can be divided into three groups: physical, linguistic, and social factors. While the physical factors involved the students' physiological and fundamental needs such as nutrition and sleep and being prepared in terms of the material to be used during the lesson, the linguistic factors denoted the students' vocabulary size, grammatical skills, and capacity to produce the target language. The social factors, in turn, included the students' willingness to collaborate with their classmates, and language anxiety, more specifically, having the courage to speak in front of the class.

For an effective teaching-learning process, several prerequisites are needed. One of these prerequisites is physical readiness. Three participants anticipated that their students were not physically ready for their classes. However, the issues that the participants reflected on were different from each other. For example, taking into the students' personal conditions into consideration, Anni's RbA activities were focused on the students' physiological needs. Anni predicted that some of her students were not ready to engage in learning activities in her class physiologically. She stated that "because it [the class] is in the morning, sometimes, I get one or two students who are sleepy" or they "want to have breakfast" (Anni-Preob2). Considering that it was the first session of the day, and the classes started very early in the morning (at 7:00 am in many schools) in Indonesia, it was not surprising to see

that she was right in her anticipation. Her response to this situation was "waking up the student" and asking them to "go to the bathroom" (Anni-Preob2) to wash their faces as she indicated during the second pre-observation conference. In other words, she allowed her students to cater to their physiological needs.

Reflecting on the physical inhibiting factors from a different angle, Abur and Rafi commented on the issues related to the course materials. Besides physiological needs, another pre-condition of a smooth flow in a lesson is both students' and teachers' being prepared in terms of materials to be used in the class. Therefore, while planning their lesson, it is important for teachers to consider the course materials aspect. Of two participants', namely, Abur and Rafi's RbA topics involved the course materials to be used in the classroom. However, it was interesting to see that while Abur predicted and was prepared for his students' lacking course materials, Rafi could not anticipate that his students would forget to bring the material that he asked for. As an example, for one of his classes, Abur wanted to use a new application that he learned from a colleague during an informal conversation. The application, namely Quizziz, involved using a mobile phone and internet data. He predicted that some of the students would not have their phones with them or would have run out of battery or internet data. In that case, he expressed that:

> So, my preparation for the students who did not bring their mobile phones is to ask them to join their friends. So, two students do the quiz on one mobile phone. For the students who do not have internet data, I will just ask some friends, some students… to share their internet data… (Abur-Preob3)

One of the benefits of RbA activities is that the practitioner can prepare an action plan for the challenges that they expect to face. In this case, Abur's preparation was to encourage students to work collaboratively. The possible outcomes of a collaborative learning approach could have included academic, social, and psychological benefits such as promoting critical thinking, encouraging students to build teamworking skills, and developing positive attitudes towards learning. However, Abur's stated reason to ask his students to collaborate was purely pragmatic, in other words, his only concern was to ensure the smooth flow of his lesson.

In Rafi's case, in turn, the incident was different from Abur's case. Unlike Abur, Rafi gave notice to his students to be prepared in terms of the material to be used. However, he found out that some of his students were underprepared and did not take enough responsibility in terms of their pre-class preparation. To illustrate, on one occasion, he asked his students to bring one food and one drug label for his main activity in advance; however, he did not anticipate that some of the students would not

take responsibility and forget to bring the necessary materials. He pointed out this issue in his fifth reflective journal by noting that:

> … In the core activity, the teacher asks students to take out labels that they have brought from home. Here the teacher found a problem; there were four people who did not carry labels. This problem was not expected by the teacher beforehand … (Rafi-RJ5).

Rafi was convinced that all the students would bring the materials that he asked for in advance. However, on finding out that four of his students were not well-prepared, he was disappointed. He admitted that he was not prepared for this situation; hence, he seemed not to recognise the importance of RbA.

In regard to linguistic obstacles, students' vocabulary size, grammatical and productive skills were the most reflected on topics. Half of the participants, namely, Abur, Ina, and Rafi reflected on the students' vocabulary size. Moreover, they took it further and highlighted that they were worried that their students lacked not only vocabulary but also the skill of producing a text in the target language. For instance, on one occasion, Abur prepared an activity for students to describe a picture that he provided. However, as can be seen from the extract below, based on his previous experience, he assumed that the students would not be able to accomplish the task. In that case, he clearly stated that his plan was to help the students by guiding them.

Extract 1.

Abur's reflecting before and on action (Abur-Preob4)

I: Do you anticipate any problems?

Abur: For this strategy… when they do not know how to describe, I will walk around and guide them.

I: Why do you think the students would not know how to describe?

Abur: In the previous lesson, some groups, and some students… I gave the pictures, and they did not know how to describe it.

I: Why do not they know?

Abur: Vocabulary…

I: They do not know the vocabulary? Did you provide the vocabulary?

Abur: Yeah… actually, not all… but they do not know how to describe what they should describe.

I: Because they already had the picture…

Abur: Yes. For example, I gave them a picture of a place. They do not know how to start. So, I will guide them like "Look, look. The place… where can you find this place?"

The cases of Nisa and Rafi were not different from Abur in terms of the students' vocabulary repertoire and how to use it. Rafi touched upon the issue during the second pre-observation stating that "some students will find it difficult to make a sentence" (P7-R-Preob2), in other words, he expressed his concern regarding his students' low-level productive and grammatical skills. In this case, he continued that his reaction would be to "move around, and ask them … and then, help them" (Rafi-Preob2). Moreover, the prediction of Rafi regarding the students' vocabulary size was not limited to one occasion. Reflecting on his previous lesson, he highlighted that most of the questions that the students posed were "about vocabulary and this [was] indeed in accordance with the teacher's assumption that students [were] still confused with vocabulary" (Rafi-RJ9). Although Rafi's reflection was retrospective, his prediction about the content of his students' questions indicated that he reflected before action.

The idea behind reflecting before action is for teachers to be well-prepared for the challenging situations in the class (see 2.1.2). Therefore, it was interesting to see that although Abur and Rafi predicted that the students would be struggling with the mental lexicon, grammatical skills, and producing the language, they did not make any preparations for the issue. Their response in terms of enhancing their students' mental lexicon, grammatical and productive skills was limited to offering help during the lesson. Ina, on the other hand, proposed a more sustainable solution than Abur and Rafi by making it clear that she would guide her students via "how to find the words by using the dictionary or [ask them to] discuss it in a group" (Ina-Preob1). Hence, in that way, her plan was to encourage the students to be familiar with working both independently and in a group when necessary.

Reflections involving the social inhibiting factors, in turn, focused on a willingness to communicate. The data analysis showed that Abur, Nisa, and Rafi reflected on the social factors that could hinder the students' engagement in the class. However, their points of view were different as Abur and Nisa focused on their students' willingness to collaborate with their classmates whereas Rafi dealt with the issue from the perspective of the students' having language anxiety and expressing themselves in front of the class.

The educational benefits of well-planned grouping strategies have been widely accepted by major approaches to teaching a foreign language. As pairing or grouping the students has an effect on the dynamics of the classroom interaction, it is crucial for teachers to consider potentially the most beneficial pairing or grouping strategy in order to enhance the teaching-learning experience. At one point, choosing to pair his students randomly, Abur prepared a conversation activity. He asked his students to write their names on a piece of paper, fold it and throw it to a corner of the classroom. After that, each student was supposed to pick up a name and compliment that person as his aim for that class

was to teach giving and receiving compliments in the target language. For a brief moment, Abur thought that there was a possibility for some students not to "like the name on the paper" (Abur-Preob2). However, immediately after this thought, he stated that "I think in my class, students are friendly, they will not refuse to give a compliment. No, I think they will keep giving compliments" (Abur-Preob2). Although he was right in terms of the students' not avoiding giving a compliment to each other, he did not consider the cultural factors when he was choosing the random pairing strategy (see 4.3.5.2). During the second post-observation conference, Abur admitted that he did not reflect before his class in-depth. He confessed that he did not take into consideration that two of the students from the opposite genders would have to be paired up and give a compliment to each other in public, which is not common in Indonesia culturally (see 4.3.5.2). Hence, it was observed that this occasion caused short-term chaos in the class by triggering the other students to tease the students who were the subjects of the incident.

Choosing a different strategy to allocate the students into groups, Nisa, in turn, predicted that she would face resistance from her students as there was a possibility for some students not to collaborate with their groupmates. Instead of using a random allocation strategy to group the students like Abur, Nisa preferred to use the "Student Team Achievement Division (STAD)" strategy (Nisa-Preob2) (see 4.2.1.2), a collaborative learning strategy which aimed to ensure that different levels of language learners could achieve the same goal. Stating that she learned the STAD strategy during her education program, Nisa justified the reason for choosing this particular strategy for grouping the students by explaining that "it [would] make easy for [her] to pay attention to them" (Nisa-Preob2). She also thought that the students would be more involved in the learning activity. This is because she expected the highflyers to help the slow learners, and in the case of her not using that strategy, she predicted that some of "the students [would] not understand the task" (Nisa-Preob2). Therefore, they would not be motivated to try to accomplish it; instead, "they [would] play around" or "maybe just keep quiet and [would] not ask to" the teacher (Nisa-Preob2) the questions that they could have.

On the one hand, Nisa justified the advantages of using the STAD strategy to group the students. On the other hand, she predicted that some of the students would not be willing or ready to collaborate with their classmates. Moreover, she "believe[d] that some of the students [would] have difficulties in adapting with the other friends" (Nisa-Preob2). This was clearly different from Abur who did not consider the possible strategies that he could apply in the case of facing the students' resistance to collaborate with their classmates, Nisa stated that her plan was to lecture the students about the importance of teamwork and collaborating with the different members of the class in the case of facing this issue. Nisa's promoting collaborative learning could suggest that she supported the social learning theory (see 4.1.3.2).

The last topic to be presented here is language anxiety as a social inhibiting factor of students' classroom engagement. Although this sub-theme could have been presented under the title of linguistic factors of students' classroom engagement, the data analysis showed that the reason for the anxiety was social rather than a linguistic factor as the teacher gave the option to the students to use their first language if needed. In order to enhance the students' speaking skills in the target language as well as building confidence in speaking in front of a group, Rafi used debating as a teaching technique during one of his classes. In his third reflective journal, Rafi briefly stated that he already "expected that none of the students would dare to speak" (Rafi-RJ3) when he gave a chance to the students to practice a task. Then, he "appointed one student… who the teacher considered the smartest student in the class" (Rafi-RJ3) and after the first student finished her argument, the teacher appointed another one. Only after the third appointed student, the other students "felt less shy" (Rafi-RJ3) and started to express their opinion on the debated topic. Rafi noted in his reflective journal that his aim was to "encourage the students to talk" (Rafi-RJ3) which would lower the students' language anxiety. The template of the reflective journal included prompting questions such as what, how, and why the critical incident happened, whether the participant was prepared for it or not and how. However, Rafi did not provide any reasons why the students had the language anxiety nor analysed the incident further suggesting some precautions or solutions. Despite being on a descriptive level, his writing down his expectation in the journal indicated that he reflected before action.

4.2.1.2 Time management

Although the number of the cases was quite small when compared to the inhibiting factors of students' classroom engagement, in several occurrences, the participants' RbA activities involved the time management issues. While some of the participants considered that they could have extra time, and consequently prepared extra materials, some others took precautions in order not to waste their class time with the activities that are not directly allocated for students to improve their subject knowledge.

Pre-class preparation especially in terms of the materials to be used constitutes an essential part of the RbA activities. Abur was not an exception to the reflective practitioners who reflected before their classes and were well-prepared with regard to materials that they planned to use. For example, during his second pre-observation conference, Abur highlighted that he prepared three listening activities; however, reflecting on the time that was allocated for that class, he stated that he would introduce only one of the activities. Predicting that the time would not allow him to go through all the activities that he prepared, he stated that:

> … anticipation is about the time also… I know that it is quite a big class. There are also
>
> many students in my class… There are 36 if I am not mistaken, or 34, 35… it is quite a

big class… crowded… and, I have to consider the time… For example, for listening, I will just give one [dialogue]. Actually, I prepared three, but I know that the time is not enough. So, I will give them only one dialogue (Abur-Preob2).

Applying an eclectic approach to his teaching (see 4.1.3.2 and 4.2.1.2), Abur designed a lesson plan using various techniques such as repetition drills, translating, role-playing. During the second classroom observation, it was noticed that Abur was generous with the time while applying these techniques. He not only played the listening track several times in order for the students to fill all the missing parts but also took his time while analysing the dialogue. Moreover, it was observed that he invited several pairs of students to the front of the class to role-play the same dialogue as he "wanted to give equal opportunities" for the students to practise the language (Abur-Postob2). Having a contextual awareness of his classroom, he already stated that he had a large class in terms of the students' numbers, and he predicted that working on one dialogue would take a great amount of time. Yet, he highlighted that he prepared two extra dialogues in case he had time as he already stated during the interview, he usually had "Plan A, Plan B, Plan C…" (Abur-Int). His preparing two extra dialogues, as well as being aware of the time that he would spend on one dialogue indicated that he reflected before action and took the time management issue into consideration.

Another participant who reflected before action in terms of time management was Nisa. Having a different approach to Abur who prepared extra materials in case he had time, Nisa was concerned about overrunning the time allocated for her class while grouping the students. Although Nisa anticipated two issues that could occur during the class, which were students' not involving in the activity and taking too much time while forming groups, she preferred to limit the time allocated for the non-learning activity, namely, grouping the students based on her previous experience as a teacher. This might indicate that while Nisa was reflecting before action, she was also reflecting on action. To illustrate, during her earlier class, she wanted to apply the STAD strategy (see 4.2.1.1). However, she faced the students' resistance in terms of collaborating with the students out of their friendship circle. Having experienced this problem before, and, as a consequence, wasted too much time for grouping and persuading them to collaborate, she chose to give freedom to her students in terms of forming their own groups for her next class.

Extract 2.

Nisa's reflecting before action (Nisa-Preob3)

I: Okay. Do you anticipate any problems that might occur during the class?

Nisa: Yeah, maybe… in a group, maybe again…

I: How?

Nisa: Maybe some of them will be willing to do it because of her best friend. But the other… if the student is diligent, all of the students are diligent, all of them will do the assignment. But maybe, all of the students keep quiet, and then, they are lazy to do it… yeah, maybe they will just leave it blank… yeah, it may happen.

I: Okay. Maybe you can tell me more about it [explaining the situation] why you chose to group students based on their wish instead of using another technique such as mixing the high-flyers and slow learners?

Nisa: Yes, at first, I wanted to do. But in the previous class, some students did not want to be with the others. And then, it will be more difficult for me to… I will spend more time, I think, than making a group as they want. Yeah, so, I tried to make as they want. But, yeah, I hope that they can finish it soon because it is their request to make a group with their friends.

I: Okay. In case this happens, in case some students do not do the task, what are you planning to do?

Nisa: I will try to help them. Maybe, for example, if they do not understand about the word, I come and explain. What is the meaning of this? So, when you are trying to find the main idea, you should do this… something like this.

Besides overrunning the time due to arranging the groups, another anticipation of Nisa's was students' different levels of active involvement in learning activities. She predicted that while some of the students would be eager to complete the task with the support and encouragement of their groupmates, some other students could find teamwork a burden when teamed up with poorly motivated classmates. Hence, they could prefer not to engage in the task. In that case, she explained that she would provide assistance to the struggling groups. Nisa's preference regarding minimising the time allocated for grouping the students at the expense of maximising the students' engagement with the activity indicated that time management was her primary concern.

4.2.2 Reflection-in-action

The findings showed that the participants reflected in action mostly when they faced an unexpected situation. In a few incidents, the participants reflected in action due to poor planning. All of the RinA incidents resulted in applying a different teaching method to the participants' practices. The participants' RinA activities were presented under three themes. In this regard, they reflected in action to engage the students better, manage the class better, and deliver the material in a clearer way.

4.2.2.1 Engaging the students better

Among the RinA incidents, the most frequently occurring theme was engaging the students in order to better meet the expected learning outcomes. One of the factors affecting the productivity of the teaching-learning process is student engagement. Hence, it is important for teachers to motivate their students to the teaching-learning activities. Although all the participants used extrinsic motivation, that

is, engaging in an activity to obtain a reward or avoid punishment, the reasons and the strategies that the participants chose to increase their students' engagement level towards the expected outcomes were different. Giving extra points, playing background music, and lecturing about taking responsibility were examples of the topics that the participants reflected in action.

Various extrinsic strategies could be used in order to encourage students towards appropriate behaviour or academic achievement. The data analysis showed that while Abur and Anni used rewards as incentives, Rafi chose punishment. On one occasion, Abur faced a question from one of his students while playing a game in the class resulting him to reflect in action:

> … Meanwhile, a student asked me whether the students who described and guessed would get a score. At that time, I just realised that the score would be a [brain] teaser for them to be active. I know that naturally, people need appreciation for motivation, that is what I learned about human psychology which was one of the subjects when I was at the university. I just used to give appreciation by giving applause or praise. At that time, I did reflection during the learning session. Now, I know about this student's mindset; the score is important. That is what I got from this issue. So, I was straight to apply that idea, even though I did not plan it … (Abur-RJ5).

The excerpt above suggests that not only giving a reward but also the type of reward was important. It is crucial for teachers to know their students, the students' needs and priorities and apply the reward strategy accordingly. The excerpt also indicates that Abur's way of giving a reward for the successful students did not meet the students' expectations. Realising that fact through an explicit question from a student, Abur reflected in action and changed his rewarding system.

The data analysis showed that the participants chose different strategies to motivate their students. For instance, differently from Abur, Anni chose to alter her lesson plan and include playing background music for the students to engage better in the learning activity and keep their concentration span longer on the task. At first, it seemed that she wanted to use the soothing effect of the background music which is a long-established technique in the educational field. In her case, Anni admitted that she was not planning to play music while her students were studying on their tasks; however, she thought that this action could help her students to engage in the activity better. Having contextual awareness of the physical conditions in her classroom, she highlighted that "because it [the class was] in the morning, and [the classroom did not have] enough light" (Anni-Postob2), there were a few students who felt sleepy. Therefore, she thought that playing "energetic songs" (Anni-Postob2) could help students to keep their focus on the task.

Another participant who reflected in action in order to motivate his students was Rafi. However, his reason and way of motivating the students were different from Abur and Anni. When Rafi faced an unexpected issue and wanted to engage his students more in his lesson, he chose the lecturing strategy to encourage the students to take responsibility for the consequences of their actions. Explaining the parts that did not go as he planned during the third post-observation conference, Rafi pointed out that:

> Okay, what did not go that well is when… I realised there are… from my students who
> did not bring labels. Honestly, I did not plan it. But when I faced the problem, based on
> my experience, maybe… I thought it would be a good lesson for the students if I gave
> the preacher, if I preached [lecture/give a talk about responsibility] (Rafi-Postob3).

Having asked his students to bring food and drug labels (see 4.2.1.1), he was disappointed to find out that four of the students failed to accomplish the pre-class preparation task and forgot to bring the necessary materials. Admitting that he did not expect to face this situation, his way of handling the issue was to give a lecture to the students about responsibility. Rafi justified his action of lecturing by stating that it was supposed to be "a life lesson for the students" (Rafi-Preob3). However, despite the probing questions such as how, he could not explain further how the lecturing strategy would help his students to be motivated regarding meeting the pre-class preparation tasks.

4.2.2.2 Managing the class more effectively

Another theme that emerged from the data analysis was that teachers tended to reflect in action to improve the management of their classes. Taking into consideration that it emerged in several areas including teachers' conceptualisation regarding the purpose of reflection (see 4.1.2) and their RbA practices (see 4.2.1), it would be fair to claim that classroom management was one of the primary concerns of the participants. Therefore, it was not surprising to see that participants reflected on the classroom management issues during the RinA processes, as well. Two of the main purposes of classroom management reflections were to maintain the lesson and keep the students' attention.

An example of a RinA activity to maintain the lesson can be Abur's incident. Although the benefits of technology are highly appreciated in education, teachers often find the effective and smooth integration of technology to their classes challenging. On one occasion, Abur faced with a technical problem and he reflected in action in order to maintain his lesson and prevent possible classroom management issues. On that occasion, he wanted to play an audio-record for his class; however, the sound system failed to work. He explained this incident in his journal by noting that:

> … The problem that happened in this class was that the sound system did not work. I
> took enough time to fix it. It still did not work. Finally, I decided not to use the sound

system. For the listening section, I read the conversation loudly. I repeated it more than five times. It drained my energy. Unfortunately, I did not consider that it would happen. The decision to read the conversation loudly just came to mind accidentally … (Abur-RJ3).

After trying to fix the sound system as a first reaction, he had the idea of reading the text aloud. He described the way of overcoming the problem as accidental. This explanation of his suggested that he did not give much thought about what to do, his chief concern was maintaining his lesson. Also, while he was trying to fix the technical problem, the students were not given a task which caused their attention to drift. Hence, by reflecting in action and deciding to read aloud the dialogue he had intended to play, he aimed to keep his class under control.

Similarly, Nisa also reflected in action in order to optimise her class management. However, the source of the issue resulting in her to reflect in action was different from Abur's reason. By reflecting in action, she chose to add a drilling activity (see 4.3.1) to her lesson plan. When asked why she chose to ask the students to recite the days of the week although the reciting and drilling part was not on her lesson plan, she replied that she "realised that some students kept talking while [she] was delivering the material" (Nisa-Postob2). Hence, her reason to add another activity to her lesson plan was to keep her students focused on the lesson and manage the class better.

4.2.2.3 Delivering the material in a clearer way

Delivering the material in a clearer way was the last theme that emerged from the analysis of the participants' RinA activities. For example, in another case, using the exemplification strategy, Nisa was justifying why she decided to teach through examples and diverged from her lesson plan by stating that:

Oh, yeah… At that time, when I wanted to ask them [to give] an example, I saw that some students… did not understand… for example, I asked them to give an example. They were still quiet... Therefore, I looked at the textbook. I tried to figure out if there were any sentences using first of all, next… something like that. So, I just wrote it on the board. (Nisa-Postob1).

While teaching the sequence adverbs, originally, Nisa planned to ask questions to her students about the topic. However, when she saw that her students did not understand the topic and could not give an example, instead of asking questions, she decided to provide the students with more examples. Hence, this incident indicated that she reflected in action in order to make the topic clearer and more understandable for her students. Similarly, Ina also only focused on delivering the material in a clearer way in the case of facing the students' resistance in terms of comprehending the lesson. Ina also

highlighted that she would change the strategy and try new strategies until she found a working one for her students:

> I just thought about my target which was they can deliver their activities in a good sentence. I thought about how to reach the target. So, I use many ways. I use many methods. I use many activities to reach the target… I do not know. I just try… I just try… (Ina-Postob2).

In her case, using the same strategy with Nisa, namely, exemplification, Ina interrupted her lesson plan and started to give more written and verbal examples. When asked whether it was planned, she admitted that it was unplanned. She continued justifying her action as she realised that her students did not understand the topic. By then, she was thinking about her target and trying to find a way to reach it. Therefore, she diverged from the lesson plan and changed the strategy using the trial-and-error method (see 4.1.2.1). She explained that she would have kept trying different strategies until she reached the target of that lesson if the one that she chose had not worked.

One of the findings of this study suggested that the participating teachers' RinA activities often intersected with their RonA activities. To illustrate, while Abur was reflecting in action to engage his students better (see 4.2.2.1), he was also reflecting on his teacher education program. Similarly, when asked to elaborate on her view regarding why and how background music helped students engage in the activities more, Anni stated that she learned this strategy during her teacher education program (see 4.2.2.1). She highlighted that her "lecturer used to play music while she was doing her tasks (Anni-Postob2), which had helped her focus better on the learning activity. This incident suggested that she was looking back to her experience as a student when she decided to diverge from her plan. In other words, Anni was reflecting on action while she was reflecting in action similarly to Abur.

The participants' RonA activities while reflecting in action were not limited to their experiences as students. Differently from Abur and Anni who grounded their diversions from the lesson plans in their education program, Rafi benefited from his own experience on the profession while reflecting -in and -on action. When he chose the lecturing strategy to engage his students more fully and encourage them to take responsibility for their own learning (see 4.2.2.1), he justified the reason for using the lecturing strategy with his previous teaching experience. When asked to elaborate, he stated that he thought that "lecturing would be a good strategy" (Rafi-Postob3) to keep his students' attention in his class and they would take more responsibility for their own learning which would ultimately lead to learner autonomy. It was unsurprising to see that while the participants were diverging from their lesson plans, in other words, reflecting in action, they were reflecting on action, as well. Thus, bringing reflection on action, their spontaneous decisions were informed by both their previous teaching and learning experiences.

From the excerpts above, it can be concluded that the RinA practices of the participants can be categorised into three groups: engaging the students better, managing the class better, and delivering the material clearly. As can also be seen from the excerpts, most of the RinA incidents were triggered by an unexpected incident. By the time the teachers were trying to solve the problem by reflecting in action, they were also reflecting on action in most cases taking into consideration their experiences both as a student and as a teacher. Hence, it was also made clear that RinA and RonA activities were intersected in many cases and the participants' previous experiences both as a teacher and as a student informed their reactions in the event of an unexpected incident.

4.2.3 Reflection-on-action

When it comes to reflection-on-action, although the participants reflected on their professional skills and previous experiences both as a teacher and as a student, the data analysis showed that the most reflected on topic was student engagement. Below, participants' RonA activities are presented under two main categories: their professional skills and student engagement. Both main categories are further divided into sub-themes.

4.2.3.1 Reflections on professional skills

The findings showed that participants' RonA activities regarding professional skills included the participants' classroom management skills, the methods that they chose and the first language (L1) usage. As occurred in several cases (see 4.2.1), the participants faced with time management problems from time to time and reflected on and before this issue. In order to avoid repetition, participants reflecting on their time management skills are not presented here. However, the other issues involving classroom management skills are presented below as well as their reflections on the chosen methods for delivering the topic and the L1 usage.

As highlighted on several occasions, the participants mostly reflected on their practice when they encountered a challenging situation. Reflections regarding classroom management skills were not an exception. Although the reason varied in terms of the content, all the reflections involving classroom management skills were on a descriptive level as the participants did not investigate further why the challenging situation happened or why they chose a specific strategy to deal with the challenge. For instance, on one occasion, while Nisa was reflecting on a critical incident from the aspect of student misbehaviour, she described the situation; however, she could not explain why it happened. In this particular case, the classroom did not seem under control. She described the incident as one of the students' "jumping over the desk" (Nisa-Postob2). When asked to elaborate on the issue and explain why it happened, her response was "I do not know, it is his habit maybe" (Nisa-Postob2). However, when she continued, she also admitted that it was the first time she had seen that behaviour. Her only reaction

was to ask the student not to do it again. This incident suggested that although she reflected on action from the classroom management aspect, her reflection did not go beyond describing the situation. Moreover, she did not indicate taking any precautions while planning the lesson regarding the classroom management issue nor suggest a solution regarding how she would react in case the incident occurred again.

Besides student misbehaviour, organising the classroom space was another issue that the participants reflected on in terms of classroom management skills. Considering that the physical environment has an impact on learning activities, it is crucial to plan how and where to locate the students. On one incident, reflecting on his lesson from organising the classroom space perspective, Abur stated that he realised that he could have managed the class better if he had allocated a specific place for each group. For this particular class, Abur chose to deliver the material by playing a game. Firstly, he grouped the students. However, when the groups took a turn and answered the questions correctly, it was observed that he was confused about which group it was as the groups were not in a specific order, which caused chaos as the groups were scored based on their answers. Reflecting on his experience, he stated that he "should have arranged them [the groups] orderly" (Abur-Postob4) so that it would have been easier for him to identify "if it was the Group 1 or Group 2, etc." (Abur-Postob4). Therefore, it can be concluded that Abur reflected on the lesson plan and realised that he had not considered the classroom layout. Abur's not taking the classroom layout into consideration while planning a lesson was not a one-time-only incident (see 4.2.4.3), which could suggest that the participants' reflections on their action does not necessarily mean a change in their practice.

Equally, the controversial issue of L1 usage in an EFL classroom was reflected on by the participants. For example, during the fourth post-observation conference, Rafi pointed out that after watching the video of his own teaching, he realised that he had overused the L1. He also highlighted that "as an English teacher, I have to use English more frequently" (Rafi-Postob4) as he believed that translation might not have been the best language teaching strategy:

> Because you know if the students are translating, they will try to remember but the weakness of remembering is … maybe sometimes they will forget about that. But if we make them understand, they will remember for a long time. That is what I think (Rafi-Postob4).

The excerpt above suggested that Rafi 's expectation from his students was not only memorising what they had learned but also applying their knowledge into different situations, in other words, producing the language. Seemingly, he reflected on his experience as the proportion of the target language usage increased prominently during the fifth classroom observation.

Reflecting on his L1 usage, Rafi accepted that he had had low expectations for students. He admitted that he "did not give a good space for them [the students] to speak English" (Rafi-Postob5) as he had thought that his "students were not ready to speak English" (Rafi-Postob5). However, when he "tried… [and] pushed them … to speak English" (Rafi-Postob5), he realised that the students responded to him very well. On one incident, he was explaining that the students were expected to present their work but not in the way that they were used to. As soon as he stated that they would present in a different way, one of the students asked how that would be. Puzzled with his students' instant response, Rafi highlighted that he "felt really happy not just for [himself] but also for the students" (Rafi-Postob5) as the students could understand and reply to him in English. This incident could suggest that not only creating a supportive learning atmosphere for students to explore the target language but also teacher expectation affected the students' achievement.

Although Rafi used the target language more when compared to his previous classes, from time to time, it was observed that he still used the first language. For example, during the same class, he used the first language during the closure phase while he was reviewing the lesson. When asked to elaborate on his language preference especially for that incident, he stated that:

> You know… in the closure part, I gave information in Bahasa [Indonesian language] because of the bell. I got a little nervous. Because I was really afraid that the other teacher would come to the class. So, I had to be quick… and then, I used Bahasa. That is the reason (Rafi-Postob5).

That incident showed that not only his language preference was informed based on the context but also, he was aware of the time and reflected on his time management skills as he had already overrun the class hour previously (see 4.2.4.2).

4.2.3.2 Reflections on the student engagement

In the context of student engagement, participants' reflections mostly focused on student motivation and students', and consequently, teachers' feelings. In terms of student motivation, while some of the activities that the participants planned aimed to raise the students' interest and encourage them to become involved in the learning process, some other activities played a preventive role to keep students' attention focused during the lesson. One of the examples for a preventive activity was Abur's strategy. In his reflective journal, Abur was describing the activities that he conducted in the class. He wrote that he came across a problem when he was presenting the new vocabulary:

> … During demonstrating the vocabulary, there were some cases that happened. One of the students seemed sleepy. I could notice from her eyes. I walked towards her straight

away. Then, I asked her a question about what I explained. She got surprised when I asked her. She could answer the questions. Then, she did not look sleepy anymore because of that surprising question. In another case, another student did not pay attention to me while I was explaining the topic. Then, I did the same for her. I asked her some questions. She also got surprised and could not answer the questions… From those cases, I took a solution for the students who got sleepy and did not pay attention by asking them [a question] spontaneously… From my own experience when I was a student, my teacher gave [asked] spontaneous questions. It surprised me and I focused back on the teacher. Moreover, my lecturer when I was at the university also shared that this way can be used for these kinds of cases. I have been applying since I started teaching. It really works… (Abur-RJ4).

Besides Abur's using a question-asking and nominating the students strategies in order to regain the students' attention, another indication of this incident was that while reflecting on action, he was reflecting on his experience not only as a student but also as a teacher. This incident also showed that Abur reflected not only on action but also for action as he was convinced that this strategy worked, and he was highly likely to use it again in case he needed it.

To keep the students' attention in class, choosing effective material for language teaching is essential. In another reflection, justifying the material that he used in the class, Abur highlighted that he chose a short video on purpose. He stated that based on his previous experience, the students would be interested in the video for a while, but then, they would lose their interest if it was too long. He stated that:

… I gave them a short video because it made them focus on … the topic. However, the long video made the students get bored. Once, I gave students a ten-minute video before. They just showed interest at first, but then they did not care. They were just apathetic. That is why, at this learning [session], I gave them a short one and I thought it worked. They paid attention during the video showing … (Abur-RJ1).

He stated that he appreciated the importance of media usage pointing out that "especially in this industrial revolution 4.0 era, the use of media and technology is important to make an attractive learning" (Abur-RJ1). Therefore, he reported that he included the educational technology in his teaching practices as much as he could. However, he also made it clear that it was also crucial to consider the students' attention span. Stating that he had already tried using a long video which caused the students to lose their interest, he preferred a short video for that teaching session. His informed choice regarding using a short video could suggest that he reflected before action, which shows that participants' RbA

and RonA intersected as occurred in several other cases (see 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.2.3, 4.2.4). Another feature of the excerpt above was that the participants reflected on the chosen methods and materials whilst keeping the students' feelings and motivations in mind.

Abur was not the only participant who took the students' interests into consideration while reflecting on action. Sri also highlighted in his reflective journal that while planning his lesson, he chose one particular strategy to teach the lesson because he thought that he would attract his students' attention more through this particular strategy. He noted that:

> … I had trouble when it came to the first time I tried to explain the material because I saw that the students did not understand the material, and I already predicted before, and that is why I chose the matching activity. Because I thought it would make them feel more involved in the learning process. When I implemented the matching activity, the students looked happy, and they could match it correctly … (Sri-RJ3).

The students' emotions and levels are one of the most crucial factors to be considered during planning and delivering a lesson. Similar to Abur, who applied a preventive strategy, Sri also reflected on an issue in which he took the students' levels and interests into consideration in order for students to be engaged in the activity more. He wrote in his journal that even before conducting the lesson, he foresaw that his students would have difficulty in understanding the topic. This prediction of his indicated that he reflected before action although his noting this issue in his journal suggested that he reflected on action (see similar observations in 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.2.4). Anticipating this incident, he already prepared an activity that he thought the students would enjoy and be involved in. That incident suggests that Sri cared about how his students felt.

Not only the students' feelings but also how the teachers' felt was another topic that the participants reflected on. When the students took an active part in the sessions, their enthusiasm was reflected in the response of the participant teachers. For example, Anni highlighted how she felt when she saw that her students could respond to her teaching:

> … I and my students enjoyed the lesson. I enjoyed when I explained the material… when I gave the songs… and my students were like… confident today. And then, my students had questions for me… and then, my students could give an example of the material… could explain it. So, I am proud of them today (Anni-Postob1).

Reflecting on her lesson in general, Anni seemed very satisfied. Stating that her students enjoyed her lesson and felt confident, Anni was very pleased when she recalled how proud of them she was. She also reported that her students could understand the topic by highlighting that they could even give

some examples. The excerpt indicated that delivering the material to the students in an effective way boosted her energy and made her feel pleased. However, during another post-observation conference, still focusing on her feelings and how this was reflected in her students, Anni stated that:

> … Today, my lesson was actually… I felt sleepy and tired… maybe the situation was not the same as yesterday. Yesterday, the students were more active… maybe, I was not tired. Today, because the lesson was in the morning… I am so tired, actually. I am so sleepy, too (Anni-Postob2).

Anni associated her teaching performance with the students' and her feelings, which could suggest that she had contextual awareness of her classroom's physical and her and her students' physiological conditions. Although she did not specify if it was her mood that affected her students and their learning or vice versa or if it was a two-way effect, the excerpt indicated a link between her and her students' feelings and the outcome of the lesson.

The excerpts above suggested that while the participants were reflecting on their lessons in general or a specific method that they used, they were also reflecting on their and their students' feelings. Focusing students' attention on their lesson during the class was one of their concerns. "I do not want my students get bored easily" (Sri-Preob1) or "for the students, one-hour lesson might be boring. So, for my students to enjoy the class, I will use humour" (Rafi-Int) were the statements that were encountered often during the interviews and pre- or post-observation conferences.

When investigated further, the data analysis showed that the participants' stated beliefs regarding designing an engaging lesson were based on their experiences both as a teacher and as a student. For instance, Abur stated that his belief regarding "learning should be fun" (Abur-Postob3) was based on his teacher training program as he recalled that his "lecturer explained that [the students were] learning from early in the morning until the afternoon [which could be] stressful for them" (Abur-Postob3). Reflecting on his experience as a student, Sri, in turn, stated that once, "I was a student and now, I get the teacher position. So, I know [their perspective]. That is why I really want them to be more comfortable in the class" (Sri-Postob1). Hence, the data analysis suggested that the participating teachers considered their students' perspectives and tried to prepare the appropriate conditions in order for learning to take place.

Considering that not only internal learning conditions such as the students' emotions, cognitive processes, learning types but also external conditions such as the social context and the physical conditions of the classroom play an important role in foreign language learning, the participants reflected on the external learning conditions, as well. As an example of the external learning conditions, the 2013 Curriculum (see 1.2.1.1) was a commonly reflected on factor which influenced the teachers to

create student-active lessons. When asked about his reason for making the class fun and the students active, like many other participants, Abur pointed out that it was an "instruction from the curriculum" (Abur-RJ1). Similarly, Rafi also stated that according to "this [2013] curriculum, the classes have to be student-centred" (Rafi-Preob5). This could suggest that the curriculum has an impact on the participants' choices regarding the way they design their lessons.

4.2.4 Reflection-for-action

The last topic presented here is RfA. While RbA, refers to anticipating the challenging situations that a teacher might face during a lesson (see 2.4.1), RfA is related to making plans for future practices based on previous experiences (see 2.4.1). As the participants' RfA activities based on mostly their RonA activities, several intersecting themes and sub-themes were observed. The participants' RfA processes can be categorised under three themes: student-related reflections, teacher-related reflections, and reflections related to the physical environment of the classroom.

4.2.4.1 Student-related reflections

One of the themes that emerged from data regarding the contexts of the participants' RfA practices was student-related reflections. This theme included student motivation and students' language proficiency level. The data analysis showed that when the participants reflected for action, taking into consideration the students' motivation was one of their priorities for their next classes. However, their way of motivating the students varied depending on the situation and the practitioner. While some of them thought that giving equal opportunities for students to contribute to the lesson as a way to motivate the students, some others considered applying a different teaching strategy in order to involve the students in the lesson. Yet, some others believed that punishing the students in order to prevent the reoccurrence of unwanted behaviour was an effective strategy to motivate the students. When it comes to the students' level of mastery in the target language, the reflections mostly focused on the students' vocabulary size.

Student motivation

On several occasions, it was highlighted that student engagement and motivation affected the quality and the productivity of the teaching-learning process (see 4.2.2.1 and 4.2.3.2). Therefore, it was not surprising to see that the participants' RfA activities included student motivation. Some of the participants focused on maintaining student engagement while some others made an effort in order to attract the students' attention. Abur was one of the participants who focused on maintaining student motivation. Not wanting his students to be exposed to the learned helplessness phenomenon, in other words, leading them to think that their efforts to participate in the class would be in vain, Abur

considered giving equal opportunities to all the students in his next class. Continuing to explain the critical incident that he encountered during one of his classes (see 4.2.2.1), Abur wrote in his journal that:

… After I applied this reward [strategy], the students became more active, but the class was still not conducive [to practice learning activities]. What happened in the class was [that it was] too crowded, too many hands were raised up. It is because the students wanted to get a score. As a result, I could not notice which student raised his/her hand up first. Once I pointed a student to guess, you know what happened? Other students got jealous. The student claimed that he/she was the first to raise his/her hand. It was not fair for them. It would make them think that it was hopeless to try to guess if it happened again and again. At that moment, I was thinking about how to make it effective. This strategy should be fixed. Then, my idea came up that the solution for this case is to divide the students into groups. That is what I will do in the next different classes, not in this teaching [as] the time was almost over. I assume that making groups would make this strategy better. Every group will have a chance to speak … (Abur-RJ5).

The extract indicated that Abur detected a problematic area in his teaching and found a solution to improve it; however, he did not have time to put the solution into practice at that time. What Abur was doing was taking some mental notes in order to improve his practice for the next classes, in other words, reflecting for action. Therefore, it could be concluded that Abur's RinA practice intersected with his RfA practice (See 4.2.4). The incident could also suggest that Abur wanted to keep the students' motivation and avoid discouraging them from participating in the class.

Several strategies are available in order to engage the students in the teaching-learning activities. While choosing a specific strategy, one of the significant factors is the students' and the classroom's individualistic features. Having contextual awareness, Anni noted that in her future practices, she would change the music type that she played in order to boost her students' energy, especially in the morning classes. Reflecting on her previous class, she pointed out that her students were not physiologically ready for an intellectual activity; therefore, they could not focus on the lesson as much as she expected. When she was asked what she would change if she were to teach the same class again, she highlighted that:

Because it [the class] was in the morning… my students … were so sleepy… I would change the songs [song types]. Because I think that I have to give energetic songs. Because if I give slow music, my students will fall asleep, and maybe they will get bored (Anni-Postob2).

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During the classroom observations, it was noted that as a ritual activity, Anni started her classes by playing three songs. She believed that listening to songs in the target language was not only a strategy to help students to learn the language but also a way to motivate them. Therefore, she thought that playing background music would help her engage the students better in her class. However, having contextual awareness of her classroom environment, she thought that the type of music was as important as playing it. Thus, she stated that she would choose energetic songs, especially for her morning classes in order to prevent her students from feeling bored or sleepy. Again, it was interesting to see that while Anni was reflecting for action, she was also reflecting on action.

Incorporating educational technology in their teaching practices was another strategy that the participating teachers applied to engage their students better in their classes. Sri was an example of that incident. Reflecting on his lesson, Sri stated that although he thought that he "chose a suitable method based on the students' level" (Sri-Postob2), he admitted that student engagement did not meet his expectations. Therefore, he highlighted that he would include the educational technology in his practice for his upcoming classes by stating that he "want[ed] to add videos… pictures [if he were to teach the same class again]. Because of the way [I] see it, it is quite easier for them [to comprehend] when they [the students] are watching it" (Sri-Postob2).

The data suggested that both Anni and Sri wanted to motivate their students to take part in their classes more by using multimedia. However, the difference was while Anni was already using multimedia to reach her target, Sri stated that he would use multimedia in his future classes. It was interesting to see that while Sri thought that using multimedia would increase his students' motivation towards the lesson and help them understand the lesson more easily, he did not explain how or in which cases he would use a video or why video usage would motivate his students better. This indicated that although he detected the problem (students' lack of motivation) and found a solution (using multimedia), his reflection was on a descriptive level as he did not investigate further the real reason for the problem and how he came up with this solution. Hence, skipping to question, analyse, and suggest solutions based on a deep evaluation of the incident, he did not critically reflect on the issue.

Another participant who indicated that he would include the educational technology in his practice was Rafi. Having a broader perspective than Sri, Rafi, on the other hand, provided a reason why he came up with the idea of including songs and games to his lesson plan in order to attract his students. Referring to himself in the third person, Rafi noted in his reflective journal that:

> … When class time was almost up the teacher called four students to the front and asked
> from previous activities what activities they liked the most. They answered they liked
> when the teacher was telling stories and after several questions, the teacher concluded

four of these students had a mindset that learning English was difficult. Because of this statement, the teacher was required to be even more creative in teaching and asked several colleagues what methods were appropriate in dealing with students who had the mindset that learning English was difficult. Some colleagues gave some suggestion to the teacher, they said the teacher had to apply student to singing and playing games … (Rafi-RJ4).

Rafi was seemingly aware that the students' perspectives were crucial while teaching. Therefore, he investigated his students' ideas regarding the lesson and found out that some of his students believed that learning a foreign language was a challenge. Considering that the mindset and attitude toward a subject affected the quality of learning, it was understandable that Rafi wanted to change his students' mindset regarding English lesson's being a difficult subject to learn. In this regard, he preferred to seek more experienced teachers' help. Following his colleagues' advise, he noted in his journal that he would include games and songs in order to make the English lessons more engaging for his students. Although seeking colleagues' help could suggest that Rafi valued professional development through informal types of learning, he did not state any formal training for improving his practice or seek for a research-based explanation regarding the benefits of games and song in foreign language classes.

External regulations which referred to a strategy used in extrinsic motivation (see 4.2.2.1) and practitioners' using rewards or punishments in order to control a behaviour was one of the strategies that was used by the participants. Besides including songs and games through educational technology to his teaching, applying external regulations was another strategy that Rafi used to make his classes more interesting and appealing to his students. However, while in the abovementioned incidents, the participants used rewards as the external regulations, Rafi considered punishing the students as a way to motivate them to stop unwanted behaviour. In one of his classes, facing that the students failed to do the homework, Rafi thought that the students considered him as "a kind teacher… [who] will not get angry, will not get mad if they do not do homework" (Rafi-Postob4). Therefore, the students skipped submitting the homework that he assigned to them. In order to prevent the students from repeating the same behaviour in the future, his solution was to "discipline them [the students] … give them more assignments, for example writing 100 words from the dictionary" (Rafi-Postob4). Hence, Rafi indicated that he would use punishment in order to motivate the students to do their homework.

Students' language proficiency level

Student motivation was not the only theme that the participants reflected on for their future classes. The students' language proficiency level also took their attention as much as student motivation. Regarding the students' level, their lacking vocabulary was the most stated issue. As vocabulary

knowledge is one of the essential parts of foreign language learning, it was not surprising to see that the participants were concerned with their students' vocabulary size. On several occasions, the participants stated that they wanted to increase their students' vocabulary in their upcoming classes. Rafi was not an exception:

> … In the future, the teacher will emphasise more on teaching vocabulary and include vocabulary teaching activities such as making a poster that contains vocabulary in English or playing a song and giving the lyrics to students and asking students to understand the song they have listened to… (Rafi-RJ6).

Rafi was not the only teacher who was concerned about his students' mental lexicon. Abur, also highlighted that he would focus on increasing his students' vocabulary in his future classes:

> … The problem that came up was that they did not know the vocabulary. So, what happened was mostly they just used the exact words from the conversation at the beginning. Fifty per cent of the students used the word *beautiful*. What I hope was they could find the synonym from that word. From this case, I learned that they usually used the words that exactly what I showed them. For the next teaching, I should provide many vocabularies related to the topic. So, they can use them in practice … (Abur-RJ2).

Complaining about his students' limited mental lexicon, Abur stated that for his upcoming classes, he would have the responsibility of teaching the students more vocabulary (Abur-RJ2). However, in his fourth reflective journal, he noted that "[V]ocabulary that I provided for students was too many" (Abur-RJ4) for them to process in one meeting. Therefore, he concluded that he needed to "consider the amount of the vocabularies" (Abur-RJ4) that the students could learn in one session for his upcoming classes. He did not explain why; however, he suggested that "about 25-30 vocabularies would be enough" (Abur-RJ4). This incident showed that reflecting on his class, Abur identified the problem; yet his solution was not informed by research regarding the amount of the vocabulary that the students could learn at one meeting; rather, he chose to use the trial-and-error method (see 4.1.2.1 and 4.2.3.3).

The data analysis suggested that most of the reflections were on a descriptive level as the participants identified the issue and tried to apply a different strategy in order to solve it without giving much thought about the roots of the issue or the contextual or cultural factors that might have affected the incident. Most of the participants also did not justify why they chose the strategy that they wanted to apply. For example, in both journals, Abur noted the students' vocabulary problem; however, he did not analyse and reflect on the problem critically. In other words, he did not investigate the issue any further in terms of the reasons behind the students' lacking vocabulary and how to solve the issue nor informed his suggestion with research regarding the number of the words that he would teach.

As can be seen above, when the participants reflected for action, they mostly considered their students' motivation and their level of mastery in the target language. Although the ways they motivated the students were different, they all agreed to take action regarding motivating their students to engage more in the lesson. Similarly, it was apparent that most of the participants were aware of their students' abilities and levels, and they stated that they would take into consideration their students' level for their future classes. It was also interesting to see that while the participants reflected for their future lessons, although most of their choices were informed by their previous experiences as a teacher or as a student, none of them stated attending a type of formal teacher training program nor grounding their suggestions on research. Hence, it could be concluded that the participants' RfA activities were mostly empirical in nature.

4.2.4.2 Teacher-related reflections

Apart from the student-related reflections, teacher-related reflections were another issue that the participants reflected for their future practices. When it comes to teacher-related reflections, although most of the RfA activities involved the classroom management skills and adopting a different method, changing the sequence of the planned activities were also noted.

Taking action for managing their classes more effectively was one of the issues that the participating teachers reflected for their future classes. A well-managed classroom is a prerequisite for an effective teaching-learning environment. As classrooms are dynamic and complex in nature, it is common to face unexpected situations. The more the teachers are prepared for the unexpected situations, the better they can manage their classes. As a novice teacher, it was understandable that Nisa was not well-prepared when an unanticipated incident occurred. On that occasion, she was called by the administrative staff to help them during her class time. Explaining that she had no option but to leave the class, she was shocked to find her class in chaos when she came back 15 minutes later. She admitted that it was her mistake to leave her students unattended, and continued:

> … From this lesson, I learned that I should not leave the classroom because my students
> need a guide to do the assignment ... Therefore, someday if it is possible, I would make
> a rule for myself that in any case (depends on the urgency) I will not leave the classroom
> ... Even if I strongly must leave the classroom, I should ensure that my students can do
> the task well. I would ask some students whom I believe having more understanding to
> teach their friends. Also, I should insist on the leader of the class to manage the class.
> As I always noted, the teacher is the manager of the classroom. Therefore, even if I have
> to leave the classroom, the class is still having the manager in order to make the
> classroom conducive [for learning activities]. Then, rather than saying I will give

punishment to those who do not do the assignment and leave the classroom without asking permission, I prefer to negotiate with the students about punishment. So, they will feel reluctant to disobey the order because the punishment is agreed upon by them … (Nisa-RJ1).

Nisa implied in many situations that if she faced any challenges during her lesson, it was mostly her fault as a teacher. She believed that "the teacher is the manager of the classroom" (Nisa-RJ1, Nisa-Int, Nisa-Postob2). Therefore, she thought that it was the teacher's responsibility to ensure the smooth flow of the lesson. As she was able to see her weaknesses through reflecting on her teaching, she could improve her practice for her upcoming classes. The extract suggested that as a consequence of her reflecting for action, she decided to adopt a preventive approach in terms of classroom management strategies to her practice in case she faced a similar problem in future. Another indication of the excerpt was that while Nisa was reflecting for action, she was also reflecting on action.

Issues related to time management was another topic that the participants reflected on in terms of classroom management reflections. Time management skills refer to using the time allocated for a specific activity in the most efficient way. The classroom observations indicated that time management is not one of the strengths of the participants. There were times when it was observed that 40-minute classes ran much longer than expected. In one particular incident, when asked to reflect on her time management skills, being aware that "it was very different than the lesson plan", Nisa admitted that she "chose too many activities"; therefore, she "ran out of time" (Nisa-Postob2). She also confessed that:

… when I asked them [the students] to make ten sentences, they were able to do only five sentences. It is the half of the expectation… I think it is because, they did not know vocabulary. Yeah, I did not give them [enough] vocabulary. I did not enrich their vocabulary. I just asked them to do it without [a clear guidance] … (Nisa-Postob2).

Reflecting for action and seeing her weaknesses, Nisa stated that for her future classes, she would ensure that she provided the students with the prerequisites before she assigned them a task. In another case, being aware of not managing the time well, Rafi stated that:

… I think… but for the next time, I want to improve my time management. Because, what I learned today, I realised that I am really really bad at time management. So, for the next meeting, I want to improve my time management and I will take my lesson plan with me to guide me … (Rafi-Postob5).

One of the benefits of teachers' reflections is practitioners' realising their strengths and weaknesses. In Rafi's case, the excerpt above suggests that Rafi's reflection on his practice enabled him

to think about his time management skills. The excerpt also indicated that Rafi's self-image regarding the time management was his poor performance in this area. The participating teachers' RfA activities showed that time management was one of the skills that they wanted to improve.

Another issue that the participants reflected on for their future classes was the sequence of the activities in their lesson plans. While planning a lesson, it is important to consider a coherent and logical sequence of the activities in order to ensure a smooth transition between the activities and facilitating scaffolding. Considering that most of the participants foresaw their students' lack of vocabulary, it was not surprising to see that they reflected on this issue. The participants highlighted that they would ensure that the students had enough vocabulary before they moved to the planned activities for their future practices. For example, when Nisa was asked what she would change if she were to teach the same class again during a post-observation conference, she expressed that she would "prepare [and teach] the vocabulary first" (Nisa-Postob1). In that way, she believed that the students would have a better understanding of the topic.

In another incident regarding the sequence of the activities, Rafi stated that he would ensure that the students knew how to pronounce the words before he asked them to read a text aloud. Rafi reflected on his class and pointed out that when he asked the students to read a passage, it was clear that his students had several pronunciation mistakes. Based on this experience of his, he stated that in the future classes, he would read the text first to provide an example for his students, and then, he would ask them to read aloud. He believed that in that way, the students' pronunciation mistakes would be minimised as he assumed that the students must have a threshold level in pronunciation which could be built on by reading a text aloud. In his journal, he noted that:

> … The teacher realised that his mistake was not to give an example of how to read the text. If the teacher had exemplified how to read the text and then asked students to repeat what the teacher said maybe the teacher could have minimised the students' errors in reading the text. … If the same thing happens again and the teacher realises that there are still many students who incorrectly pronounce the words in English, the teacher will stop the reading section and the teacher will demonstrate in advance how to read the text. After the teacher gives an example of how to read the text then the teacher will resume activities where each group of students comes forward and tries to read the text in the textbook … (Rafi-RJ1).

This excerpt suggested that Rafi was looking back, analysing what happened in the class, and trying to find a solution to the problem. Although it was still on a descriptive level, the excerpt suggested that the participant involved in the reflective activity. Moreover, considering the past events, he was

reflecting for his future classes and was thinking about how he would react in the event of the issue reoccurring. In other words, this excerpt was another example of intersecting RonA and RfA activities.

4.2.4.3 Physical environment of the classroom

Several factors affect an efficient teaching-learning process. The physical arrangement of the learning environment is one of these factors. Hence, apart from the student-related and teacher-related issues, the participants also reflected for the physical environment of the classroom. These reflections of the participants included classroom layout and technical problems.

Although the use of technology in classes has numerous advantages including but not limited to enhancing the student engagement (see 4.2.3.2 and 4.2.4.1), it also brings several challenges such as unreliable software or devices and inadequate network infrastructure. It was observed that faulty devices were one of the challenges that the participants faced. Continuing his reflection regarding the problem that he faced when the sound system did not work (see 4.2.2), Abur highlighted that for his next classes, he would make sure that the tools that he planned to use for his class were working before he started to teach the class:

> … I prefer to conduct the listening section by using an MP3 and sound system. It would not take much energy from me. Moreover, listening to a native speaker would be much better… In the next teaching [session], I should make sure the tools that I will use for teaching work well. I will also ask the students to check the tools once they come to the class … (Abur-RJ3).

Having access to the necessary equipment while teaching a foreign language is important. Planning to play an audio-recording, Abur was upset to find out that the sound system was not working. It was observed that Abur wasted a significant amount of time to fix the problem with the sound system when finally, he decided to read aloud the script. However, as he stated both in his reflective journal and during the post-observation conference, he was aware that the solution was not optimal.

The faulty sound system was not the only technical problem that Abur faced. Besides lacking necessary devices, inadequate network infrastructure was another challenge that Abur confronted. During another session, he wanted to use an online application (see 4.2.1); however, he faced a number of technical problems due to poor planning. Consequently, in his fourth reflective journal, he noted that he would inform his students beforehand regarding the materials to be used in the class in order not to face the same issue again:

… What the student needed for this quiz was a phone with full battery and internet data. They did not mind using internet data for this quiz. Several problems revealed. Three students did not bring their phones. Actually, it should be my next concern to tell them to bring the phone to my classes. I did not do it before. I should have done it in the previous week. For the next learning, I will tell them to do so … (Abur-RJ4).

Finding this new application that he learned from a colleague very useful, practical, and engaging, Abur highlighted several times that he wanted to use the application in his classes more often. However, he also stressed that he would make sure that he was prepared for unexpected situations. Interestingly, he did not elaborate on what kind of strategy he would follow to be more prepared such as becoming involved in a community of practice and discussing his lesson plans with his colleagues or attending some workshops.

Yet, Abur was confronted with another problem in another session. Although he thought that he designed a very effective and attractive lesson plan, he did not take into consideration the classroom's layout, which seemingly had a crucial role in lesson planning and an impact on the students' learning:

… When I noticed the activity, it did not run smoothly. Some students did not get the paper ball. It was lost. It happened because the class had a lot of things. The class used was not a general class. It was a practice class that consisted of some sets of computers. That was why some paper was lost. Unfortunately, I did not take this case into consideration. It was a lesson for me that I had to check the class schedule before making a teaching plan … (Abur-RJ2).

The classroom that Abur conducted his class on that day was a computer laboratory and space for the students to move around was limited. Explaining the situation, Abur confessed that he did not take into consideration the classroom layout while he was planning the lesson. He also highlighted that it was his responsibility to check the class before he planned a lesson. As can be seen from the examples above, technical problems and classroom layout were other topics that the participants reflected on and wanted to take into consideration for their future classes. As in the other reflection cases, the participants' RfA activities also intersected with their RonA activities as they were considering the past experiences in order to inform their future practices.

The overall picture of the second research questions' findings showed that the participants engaged in reflective practice activities in various ways. These engagements included reflecting on their actions including but not limited to flashbacking their previous experiences both as a teacher and as a student. Although the influences on the participants of formal teacher training were weak, they showed

a high informal learning engagement. In this regard, relying on their previous experiences (see 4.2.2, 4.2.3, 4.2.4) and applying a trial-and-error method (see 4.2.2.3 and 4.2.4.1) were as popular as seeking help from a more experienced teacher (see 4.2.4.1).

The findings of the study showed that the participants mostly reflected when a problem occurred or when they did not plan their lesson well and most of their reflections resulted in changing the method that they used. The data analysis also showed that the participants engaged in reflective practice by reflecting -before, -in, -on, and -for their actions. These reflections mostly included their professional skills such as delivering an effective and compelling lesson, engaging the students better and managing the classroom. The participants' and the students' feelings were another significant topic for the participants while reflecting on their practices. Last but not least, the physical conditions of the classroom were also reflected on. On several occasions, the data analysis showed that the participants' RbA, RinA, RonA, and RfA actions intersected. Abur's reflecting before and on action (see 4.2.3.2) and Rafi's reflecting on and for action could be examples for intersecting reflection types. A summary of the second research question's findings is presented below (see Table 5).

Table 5.

Summary of the RQ2's findings

Indonesian novice EFL teachers' engagement in reflective practice									
Reflection-before-Action		Reflection-in-Action			Reflection-on-Action		Reflection-for-Action		
Inhibiting factors of students' classroom engagement	Time management	Engaging the students better	Managing the class more effectively	Delivering the material in a clearer way	Reflections on professional skills	Reflections on the student engagement	Student-related reflections	Teacher-related reflections	Physical environment of the classroom
Anni: physiological needs such as nutrition and sleep **Abur and Rafi**: students' lacking course materials **Abur, Ina, and Rafi**: students' vocabulary size and productive skills **Abur and Nisa**: students' willingness to communicate **Rafi**: students' language anxiety	**Abur and Nisa**	**Abur and Anni**: using rewards **Rafi**: using punishment	**Abur and Nisa**	**Ina and Nisa**	**Abur**: classroom management in terms of organizing the space **Nisa**: classroom management in terms of the students' misbehavior **Rafi**: L1 usage	**Abur**: student engagement, applying preventive strategies **Anni**: teacher's own feelings **Rafi**: student engagement, students' level and interests	**Abur, Anni, Rafi, and Sri**: student motivation, considering students' needs and interests, including educational technologies **Abur and Rafi**: student language proficiency level	**Nisa**: classroom management **Rafi**: time management, lesson planning, sequence of the activities	**Abur**: unreliable software or devices and inadequate network infrastructure, classroom layout

4.3 Categorising teachers' reflections in accordance with Farrell's (2015) framework

The previous section presented the findings of the second research question. The current section, in turn, focuses on presenting the third research question's findings: investigating the participants' reflection through the five levels of Farrell's (2015) framework (see 2.4.1.1). These findings are divided into five subsections. In this regard, the participants' reflections on their philosophies, principles, theories, practices, and beyond practices are presented below.

4.3.1 Philosophy

As explained in the literature review (see 2.4.1.1), teachers' personal backgrounds cannot be separated from their professional identity as they both influence each other. Therefore, in terms of seeing teachers as a whole, philosophy means teachers' exploring their own identity and trying to justify why they do what they do and reflecting on their own personal backgrounds in order to have informed choices in their professions. In other words, closely related to mindfulness, philosophy encourages teachers to reflect on their identities. Having several dimensions and an ever-changing structure, teacher identity is multifaceted. Data analysis showed that understanding of teacher-self and their role in education were the two themes that the participants reflected on the most which provided information about their personal and professional identities. Those reflections suggest crucial clues about their philosophy of practice. These themes seek the answer to the questions of "who am I?" and "what is my role in education?" respectively.

Understanding of teacher-self

Understanding of teacher-self, in other words, the answer of the "who am I?" question, denotes teachers' reflecting on their backgrounds including but not limited to their religion, ethnicity, the form of their familial connections, and personal traits that contributed to shaping their self-image. In order to initiate a reflection on their philosophy of practice; yet, avoiding leading their answers in a particular direction, the participants were asked to talk and introduce themselves. While most of them provided only general facts about themselves such as where they were from, which university they graduated from, or elaborating on their professional life, some of the participants provided more personal information about them which indicated crucial information regarding their self-images and traits.

Although all the participants belonged to the same ethnicity and the religious belief system, none of them pointed out these topics during the interviews when given a chance to introduce themselves. Among several others, there might be two reasons for the participants not stating their ethnic and religious identities. First, they might not have thought that these two factors helped to shape their personal and professional identities. Therefore, they might have thought these topics were not

relevant to the interview. Second, they might have thought that the answers were too obvious to state as they were raised and educated in a religious community with a curriculum adjusted to religion. Each school having a prayer room, class hours being adjusted to the prayer times, starting the classes with a prayer were a few concrete examples of the reflections of religion being a part of schooling and daily life in Indonesia. In any case, during the classroom observations and pre- and post-observation conferences, both factors were apparent. For instance, when asked to describe what she would do step by step during the class, Anni stated that her "students will read the Al-Qur'an (the Muslim holy book) first. Every morning, my students read the Al-Qur'an first" (Anni-Preob2). Although the school that Anni worked was not a religious school, her statement of starting each day with reading the Muslim holy book indicated that she lived in a religious community.

It was observed that Anni was not the only participant who practised religious activities in her class. When asked to state her lesson plan step by step, Nisa also highlighted that as the first activity, she would "ask the students to lead a prayer… even it is the last class… I think to make the class… under our control, we pray together…" (Nisa-Preob2). It was interesting to observe that although none of the participants stated their religious identities during the interviews, all the participants started their classes with a prayer. Another interesting point was that although the current curriculum in use required teachers to build a religious character among their students (see 1.2.1.1), when asked to justify why Nisa started her classes with a prayer, she did not refer to the curriculum. However, she explained the situation with her previous experience as a student:

> Because you know that sometimes changing the schedule (students finishing studying at one subject and starting to study another one during the day) we always make the students so … uncontrolled. And then, based on my experience, when I was at the junior high school or senior high school, the teacher always asked us to pray first, even it was the last schedule (Nisa-Preob2).

The extract above could suggest that one of the factors that contributed to shaping the participants' identities, and consequently their practices, was their previous experiences as a student. Social circumstances, in other words, living in a religious society, was another factor that could contribute to shaping the participants' identity.

As stated earlier, other than religion, the participants' ethnicity was another factor that influenced how they taught although they did not consider it worthwhile stating. Being a host to more than 600 ethnic groups, Indonesia consists of a multicultural society. Having considerable differences in terms of linguistics and social customs to name a few, teachers play a crucial role in keeping all ethnic groups living in harmony in the society by embedding in the students the motto of the *unity in diversity*

which is promoted by the government (Bazzi et al., 2017; Setiawan, 2020). There were times when the participants benefited from these differences, especially linguistic and cultural ones by including these features to their teaching, in order to create a more friendly environment for learning. For example, on one occasion, one of Abur's students used both the Indonesian and the Sundanese language in the same sentence. Although translanguaging, in other words, using more than one language in a sentence is very common in Indonesia due to the linguistic richness, the instructional language is Indonesian. By recasting what his student said, Abur used humour which was one of the distinguishing features of the Sundanese culture in order to warn the student to use the formal instructional language in the class. When asked to elaborate on the incident, he explained that he liked "making funny things… making the students laugh in [his] class. It is cultural, actually" (Abur-Postob1). What he meant was that humour is a part of the Sundanese culture which the teacher and most of the students belong to and is one of the largest ethnic groups in Indonesia. This incident could suggest that being aware of the context of his teaching especially in terms of the students' ethnic backgrounds, Abur's philosophy of practice must have been influenced by the society that he and his students lived in.

The matrix of the participants' familial connections and parental expectations were the other factors that had a great amount of impact on their philosophy of practice as those connections and expectations provided a glimpse to their personal traits. Not all the participants' reflections included information about their familial backgrounds. Nisa and Sri were the only two participants who disclosed some information regarding this topic. When asked to introduce herself, starting with her name and age, and stating the name of the university that she graduated from, she explicitly highlighted that her career choice was mostly affected by her family:

> … So, actually, I did not want to join [the] English [department]. But my mother urged me to teach English. At first, I wanted to join [to the] Japanese [department], but my mother said that there is no future for the Japanese teachers. Because there are so many things used in English… maybe like a tour guide, something like that… And then… besides, the faculty is near my house. It is only several houses apart. So, my brother also motivated me to become an English teacher… Besides, there is no one from my family comes from an educational program. I am the first one who comes from an educational background… So, I think this is the way how I became a teacher. Because my mum asked me… (Nisa-Int).

The excerpt above has several implications. Firstly, it seems clear that the employability potential of the English-speaking community in Indonesia was higher than the Japanese teachers. Therefore, Nisa's family members believed that learning English would widen her opportunities, and consequently, increase her employability potential. As her family thought that even if she could not find

a job in the education field, she could still use her English skills and find a job in another field. Secondly, the distance of the university was another factor that affected Nisa's occupational choice as she indicated that the faculty that she attended was not far from her house. This could indicate that feasibility of commuting to the university was also one of the considerations that had an impact on Nisa's career choice.

Thirdly, it can be suggested what may have shaped Nisa's philosophy of practice was that education was valued in her family. She was quite proud to announce that she was "the first one" (Nisa-Int) who had entered the education profession in her family. Last but not least, Nisa's allowing her family to decide on behalf of her regarding her occupational choice could suggest that she obeyed the authorities, appreciated the power relations, and tried to meet her parental expectations. All those influences could have shaped Nisa's personality and her self-image as a teacher. It could be suggested that being in the position of decision-maker as a teacher, Nisa felt that she had the authority and expected her students to meet her expectations as a teacher just as her family expected her to meet their expectations.

Apart from Nisa, who stated that her career choice was affected by her family's guidance, which could be interpreted as lack of autonomy from Nisa's part and possibly influenced her professional skills, Sri was the only participant who mentioned his family. Sri's reflection on his family life was limited to the fact that he was "the last member of the family" and he had "three other siblings" (Sri-Int). Sri's indication of being the youngest sibling could give some clue about his traits according to Adler's (1928) birth order theory. This is because Adler (1928) suggests that individual's rank among their siblings provides information about their personalities. Hence, as a last born, Sri tends to be creative, risk-taker, and ill-organised. He stated that preparing and following a lesson plan was not one of his strengths (Sri-Int), which might indicate that he was ill-organised.

Personal traits were another factor that might have shaped the participants' philosophy of practices as well as their familial matrix. Given that teaching occurs in a social context (see 2.3, 3.1, 4.1.1, 4.1.3.2, 4.2.1.1, and 4.2.3.2) and personality affects almost all facets of human life including the teachers' professional identities, it is crucial for teachers to explore their personalities. The participants' implications of their personality traits were not limited to Sri's reflections. Out of big-five personality traits (McCrae & John, 1992) which were the most widely accepted ones, the participants reflected on three of them, namely, openness to new experiences, extraversion, and agreeableness. For example, on one occasion, Abur noted in his reflective journal that he was "curious" to know about a new application that one of his friends was using (see 4.2.1.1 and 4.2.4.3) as he was "a kind of person who likes learning something new" (Abur-RJ4). His eagerness to learn new topics and being curious suggested that he had the openness trait characteristic.

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Along with being curious and open to new experiences which can be associated with some of the characteristic features of reflective practitioners such as whole-heartedness and open-mindedness (see 2.2), another feature of openness was enjoying new challenges. In this regard, Rafi and Anni also could score high in that trait as they claimed that they were adventurous. For instance, when asked about his motivation to be a teacher, Rafi stated that he "wanted to get a new challenge and try to teach" (Rafi-Int). Rafi's having the openness trait could suggest that he was open to accepting the challenges, leaving his comfort zone and try different teaching methods. Likewise, Anni also pointed out a similar reason to be a teacher:

> I really like learning. I really like speaking to each other. I have some knowledge, so I want to share them with my students or my friends. I think I really like the study. I really like the school and I really like learning. I really like the examination (Anni-Int).

In addition to enjoying new challenges, studying, and having exams, Anni also highlighted that she enjoyed communicating with other people and sharing her knowledge with others. These features indicated that besides showing the features of openness, Anni also had some features of extraversion. Another implication for having an extraversion personality trait is the level of sociability. People with the extraversion personality trait tend to have a wide social circle of friends, enjoy starting a conversation, and like being the centre of attention. Sri also showed several of those features during his interview. He clearly stated that "what I love the most is public speaking. I love it so much… I want to express myself" (Sri-Int). He also highlighted that he enjoyed making jokes and he "love[s] to see people laughing" at his jokes (Sri-Int). His using the lecturing strategy and using humour could indicate that his practice was influenced by his personality. As people having a tendency to carry the feature of extraversion personality trait enjoy communicating with other people, that trait can be associated with the skills as a communicator being one of the reflective practitioners' characteristic features (see 2.2).

When it comes to agreeableness which is a trait that portrays a person's level of affection (McCrae & John, 1992), Nisa seemed to have that feature. Explaining her motive to be a teacher as extrinsic motivation, when asked about how she felt about being a teacher, Nisa stated that:

> At the past, I did not like it but nowadays, I feel so happy for being a teacher… I started to understand the children's feeling and what happened to them. Especially in my school, they come from divorced families. It makes me feel more sympathy... So, I know what will happen if someday it [divorce] happens to me, what will happen to my son. But I hope it will not happen. So, being a teacher improves my skills, improves my self-confidence… (Nisa-Int)

Although she confessed that she was not enthusiastic about her profession in the beginning, she highlighted that she gradually accrued job satisfaction especially regarding what the profession offered to her in terms of soft skills (see 4.1.3.2). She highlighted that her profession allowed her to improve her capacity for empathy and understanding of the children's psychology. Having an agreeableness trait, Nisa's teaching style and understanding of her role as a teacher could be affected by her personality. Agreeableness can be associated with mindfulness as the mindful reflective practitioners have high awareness regarding their environmental context and act accordingly (see 2.2).

Teachers' role in education

Moving from the "who am I?" question to the "what is my role in education?" question, the participants' perspectives in terms of the teacher's role in education and positioning themselves in relation to educational philosophies have considerable implications regarding their philosophy of practice. Based on the data analysis, it could be suggested that educational theories, educational policies, especially the 2013 Curriculum (see 1.2.1.1), personal traits, and previous experiences as a student were the primary factors that played a role in the participants' philosophies. The data analysis showed that being a role model was the most attributed role to the teacher by the participants. Considering themselves role-models, the participants' perceived roles fell into two main categories: teacher as a mentor and teacher as an authority.

The data analysis showed that among their constantly changing identities, most of the participants perceived their dominant role as a mentor to guide their students not only in their school life learning but also in real-life situations. It seems likely that the participants perceiving their roles as mentors were mainly affected by the educational policies as the 2013 Curriculum encouraged the teachers to be a role-model for their students in both personal and professional senses (see 1.2.1.1). Seeing themselves as role-models for their students especially in terms of moral education, the participants' approaches to guiding their students varied. To be more specific, both Abur and Anni considered that the students observed the teacher very closely and they would take an example of the teacher's behaviours in terms of the moral values, not the words that they said. However, Rafi chose to give lectures about the importance of attitudes in building character.

Being influenced by the educational policies and the 2013 Curriculum (see 1.2.1.1), especially in terms of educating students to be religious and patriotic citizens, Abur saw his mission as building character among his students. He believed that "the score is not the essential core for learning but improving on knowledge and attitude is" (Abur-RJ5). Abur claimed that the main aim of education was to educate the individuals to create a better society which is a larger objective than just improving their scores. According to him, the role of the teacher in the education system was to be a good example of

a religious and patriotic citizen in order to raise their students with qualities advocated by the curriculum (see 4.3.5).

Other than education policies, educational theories also influenced the participants' philosophies. Following the principles of social constructivism (see 3.1) which suggests that learning occurs in a social environment through interactions with the other members of the society, both Abur and Anni claimed that the main role of the teacher was to be a role-model and help their students to self-actualise themselves (see 4.1.2.2). Therefore, it was crucial for teachers to display attitudes that they expected the students to acquire. To illustrate, during the interview, by stating "If you become a teacher, you have to give the definition of the great attitude" (Anni-Int) with your actions, Anni highlighted that it was crucial for teachers to be a role model for their students (see 4.1.3.2) and instil moral values. By "great attitudes", Anni indicated the teachers having the values of "empathy and care" (Anni-Int) to name a few and inculcate these values by showing exemplary behaviour.

Rafi was another participant who agreed with Abur and Anni in terms of conceptualising the primary aim of education as building character and teachers' being a mentor and guiding their students. The analysis and the classroom observations showed that Rafi's philosophy of practice was also influenced by his educational theories which turned out to be an eclectic one (see 4.1.3.2). The data suggested that Rafi's philosophy was influenced by behaviourism, which is a philosophy of teaching based on the stimulus-response principle and favours rewards and punishments, and constructivism (see 3.1).

Considering his role as a wisdom holder, Rafi chose a different approach to develop character among his students. It was observed that he preferred the lecturing strategy about ethical issues (see 4.2.2.1) which meant that he transmitted knowledge to his students while the students were in the position of being passive receivers of knowledge. On the one hand, from time to time, it was observed that Rafi used the drilling strategy, which was a strategy that resembled the behaviourist educators' approach as in that strategy the role-model read aloud sentences or some phrases and asked students to repeat. On the other hand, during the interview, by explicitly stating that as teachers "we not only teach… and transfer our knowledge, but we also have to research the students" and their needs (Rafi-Int), he pointed out the individual differences of the students. Highlighting the importance of individual differences (see 4.2.2.1) and multiple intelligence theory, which claims that the students learn and acquire knowledge in different ways, he made it clear that he was aware that "every student has a different character" (Rafi-Int). Therefore, their needs were different; hence, the teacher was supposed to cater for the students with different needs. Furthermore, his statement that "the students have to know what the objective" and the desired outcomes of the lesson were (Rafi-Preob4) could suggest that he valued making learning meaningful for his students which could be attributed to one of the features

of constructivist teachers. Including behaviouristic and constructivist approaches, it could be concluded that Rafi's philosophy of practice was an eclectic one.

All three participants conceptualised their main responsibility as building character among the students. However, their approach was different from each other. On the one hand, Abur and Anni thought that in order to help their students to foster the desired attitude and build character, the teacher was supposed to act like a role-model and a facilitator. On the other hand, Rafi thought that the teacher was the one who held wisdom and knowledge and his responsibility was to transmit these attributes to his students through real-life examples (see 4.2.2.1). In accordance with their perceived roles, their attributions of the students' role also varied. Abur and Anni regarded their students as active creators of knowledge as they believed hands-on activities and practice were crucial for learning to occur; therefore, they motivated their students to actively engage in the learning tasks (see 4.2.2.1). However, Rafi's conceptualising of the students' role was more fluid. According to him, although the students were active learners and needed to internalise the learning process, they did not have the full autonomy for their learning and needed teacher guidance. Not only the findings of this study but also the literature suggests (Liem et al., 2009; Maulana et al., 2011) that power relations had a crucial role in Indonesian society (Hofstede, 2011). Therefore, it was not surprising to see lack of autonomy on the part of the students as the power holder as the teacher, the parent, to name a few, held the authority to decide on behalf of the others.

Another role that the participants designated for themselves was teacher as an authority. Three of the participants, namely, Nisa, Sri, and Ina saw themselves as the authority in the class. The data analysis showed that other than educational theories and policies, participants' personal traits and previous experiences as students had a major role in participants' seeing themselves as authority figures. That theme then can further be divided into two: teacher as the manager of the class and teacher as the resource. While Nisa can be categorised in the first sub-theme, data analysis suggested that Ina and Sri saw their role as the knowledge transmitters.

Depending on the role that they chose for themselves, the participants' type of authority also varied. French and Raven (1959) identify four types of authority. Of those types, namely, referent, expert, legitimate, and reward/coercive authority, Nisa's type was referent which meant the teachers took their power from the affection of the students. As occurred in several themes (see 4.1.2.1, 4.1.3.2, and 4.2.4.2), Nisa strongly thought that "the teacher is the manager of the classroom" (Nisa-RJ1, Nisa-Int, Nisa-Postob2). Considering her personal traits, it was understandable that Nisa appreciated the authority figures and power relationships. However, the data analysis also suggested that she cared about her students and their feelings (see 4.1.3) and tried to empathise with them (see the personality traits above). Therefore, although she saw her role as the director of the classroom, she chose to be a

sympathetic director and established her power through showing that she cared about her students and their feelings (see 4.1.2). When asked what the most important factor that she took into consideration while planning the lesson was, her reply "the atmosphere of the class" (Nisa-Preob2), her self-image and approach to her students, and close relationships with her students could suggest that Nisa took a humanistic approach to education. A humanistic approach means that the teacher sees the students as a whole and strongly focuses on their emotional wellbeing.

Besides their personality traits and the educational theories, their previous experiences as students had an impact on the participants' philosophy of practice. Some of the participants attributed the legitimate authority role to themselves. Legitimate authority meant that the teachers inherited their power from the formal and legal authorities, from the law to be more specific, or the principle of the school, and the students had to follow the teachers' instructions just because their teacher is a teacher (French & Raven, 1959). To illustrate, Ina and Sri had a traditional approach to teaching and learning and regarded themselves as resources of knowledge. Referring his "previous experience as a student" (Sri-Preob1) on several occasions, Sri implied that his philosophy of teaching was influenced by how he was taught English. Having learned English through Grammar Translation Method (see 4.3.3), during the pre-observation conferences, Sri made it clear that he saw himself as the authority in the class and wanted his students to obey him. To exemplify, in order to remind the students of the existence of the authority and behave accordingly, at the beginning of each class, Sri stated that he asked one of the students to "recite the classroom rules" because he believed that "they [the students] have to know what they can and cannot do" in the class (Sri-Preob1). Similarly, being product-oriented and conceptualising the purpose of reflection as an assessment tool (see 4.1.2) to check whether the students reached the target of that lesson or not (see 4.2.2), Ina also believed that the teacher was the source of knowledge, and the students were the passive learners. Therefore, it could be suggested that Ina and Sri followed a more teacher-centred and behaviouristic approach to education.

It can be concluded that the participants' philosophy of practices was influenced by two main factors: their self-images (the answer of "who am I?" question) and their perceived roles in education (the answer of "what is my role in education?" question). When investigated further, it became apparent that while the participants' self-images were influenced by their religion, ethnicity, the form of their familial connections, parental expectations and personal traits, their perceived roles in education were shaped by educational theories, educational policies, personal traits, and previous experiences.

4.3.2 Principles

Moving on to the principles level of Farrell's (2015) framework (see 2.4.1.1), this sub-section focuses on the reflections of the participants' assumptions, beliefs, and conceptions about their teaching practices.

Although these three concepts can appear to be used interchangeably and it might be a challenge to treat them individually (see 2.4.1.1), in order for teachers to have informed practices, it is crucial for them to reflect on their principles; hence, their assumptions, beliefs, and conceptions. Below, the data analysis of the participants' reflections on each of these concepts is presented.

4.3.2.1 Reflections on assumptions

Assumptions can be described as pre-beliefs and they are the thoughts that are believed to be true without a concrete justification. Although they might seem obvious to the assumption holders, they are usually difficult to articulate as they are at an unconscious level most of the time (see 2.4.1.1). One way to uncover teachers' assumptions is to encourage teachers to reflect on their guiding principles or maxims. The data analysis showed that the participants' reflections on their assumptions mostly revolved around three teacher maxims (Richards, 1996): the maxim of approachability, the maxim of efficiency and the maxim of order.

The maxim of approachability, which meant teachers' making themselves available to their students mostly in a friendly way, was one of the assumptions that the participants held without being aware of it. Abur was one of the participants who held the maxim of approachability. To illustrate, on one occasion, it was observed that while Abur was teaching adjectives, he avoided demonstrating the adjectives with negative connotations such as bad-tempered or angry. Instead of demonstrating, he used the translation strategy. When questioned as to why he chose not to use the demonstration strategy during a post-observation conference, it became apparent that he did not want to seem angry as he thought that if he had demonstrated an angry face, he was "afraid that they (the students) would not respect" him (Abur-Postob3). His further explanation on the topic suggested that his assumptions of the students' not respecting the teachers displaying angry behaviours was based on his observation of the students' relationships with the other teachers. Abur believed that the students needed a safe and friendly environment to learn. However, he did not explain further based on the fact that he thought that a safe and friendly atmosphere was essential for the learning process. Abur's effort to create a friendly environment for his students could suggest that he valued approachability which could be associated with the reflective teachers' having good communicative skills.

Although Abur's choice of applying the translation strategy on that specific case was based on the maxim of approachability and his unwillingness to threaten the relationship between him and his students, the participants' assumptions regarding the L1 usage were mostly based on the maxim of efficiency. The data analysis showed that although the participants agreed on justifying their L1 usage with the efficiency maxim, which refers to using the class time in the most efficient way, disagreements in terms of their attitudes towards the L1 usage appeared. On the one hand, Abur and Sri rationalised

their L1 usage as the first language being a pedagogical tool for clarification. They supposed that using the L1 would help them deliver the topic more clearly. Hence, their attitude toward using L1 was positive. On one occasion, Abur admitted that he used L1 "to make it [the content of the lesson] understandable to the students" (Abur-Postob3). He justified his using L1 as he believed that "If I speak English all the time in the class, maybe some of the students would not understand what I say" (Abur-Postob3). It could be concluded that Abur's assumption regarding L1 usage was based on the efficiency factor which suggested choosing the language which would be more effective and contribute to the learning process more. Avoiding overuse of it, he also highlighted that the L1 usage strategy was supposed to be applied only when necessary, which was on the same rationale as the efficiency maxim.

On the other hand, differently from Abur and Sri, Rafi had a negative attitude towards using the L1. Although his excessive usage of L1 was observed during the first three observations, after watching the video of his teaching and reflecting on his language choice, Rafi came to a realisation that he used L1 more than the target language (see 4.2.3.1). He also stated that as a language teacher, he should have used the target language more often to make the students get used to listening and speaking in the target language more. Hence, in his next class, he put an effort to increase the target language usage:

> … In this meeting, the teacher uses more English because the teacher is aware that the teacher must force students to get used to hearing and speaking English so that students can master English faster. During this time, the teacher did use more Indonesian because when the teacher spoke English, the teacher always saw [observed] that the students were confused and did not understand what the teacher said … (Rafi-RJ8).

Although the above extract suggests that Rafi achieved his goal of using the target language more, he admitted that he still used the first language more than he intended to. However, he rationalised his overuse of L1 as he observed his students and believed that they did not understand him. Not explaining why he did not choose any other strategy to clear the confusion, based on his previous experience (see 4.2.3.1), it appears that his choice was informed by the efficiency maxim which was similar to Abur's reasoning when using the first language.

Another assumption that the participants held was the maxim of order which could have been affected by their perceived roles as educators. Nisa, for example, was convinced that in order to conduct an effective lesson, she had to maintain discipline and order throughout the class. Nisa often repeated the supposition that teachers were the managers of the classrooms (see 4.1.2.1, 4.1.3, 4.2.4, and 4.3.1). She believed that the best outcome for teachers who reflected on their practices was to manage their classes well:

> … Reflective teachers are someone who could understand the students, who can

manage the class, well. Besides, there are so many things [that] happen accidentally. The teachers are able to control them more easily because the teachers become more experienced because of the activity of reflection. The more they do reflection, the more easily for them to manage the classroom … (Nisa-Int).

Moreover, the data which emerged from her interview and pre-observation conferences suggested that she prepared her lesson plans making the classroom management issue her priority. Being convinced that a well-disciplined classroom was one of the preconditions for effective learning, she justified the reason why she chose one strategy over another by stating that some classes were easier to manage than the others. Therefore, the strategies that she chose to deliver the material varied dependent on the dynamic of the class.

… I will just give them one sentence... and ask them to read one by one… I think that this will be suitable for my students… to make them more concentrated [on the lesson]. Because sometimes, I do it randomly. For example, [for the previous class, she asked the students to] read sentence one, and then, jump to another person, and then, another person... not in order [but with another class, she chose to ask the students read the sentences in order one by one]. Because the students in 9/B can be managed well compared to 9/A … (Nisa-Preob3).

Although she taught the same grade of students, she chose to use different strategies while delivering the same topic. Her choice was based on her understanding that while some group of students would follow the lesson even though the teacher did not have to put too much effort to motivate them, another group needed extrinsic motivation in order not to be distracted. Nisa's assumption regarding the maxim of order could be attributed to her philosophy of teaching and personal traits (see 4.3.1).

4.3.2.2 Reflections on beliefs

Being relatively easier to articulate compared to assumptions, still complicated and constantly changing, teacher beliefs navigate a significant part of teachers' practices. Therefore, it is crucial for teachers to investigate and be informed of their own beliefs. The participants' beliefs regarding their practices can be categorised under three main themes: beliefs about a good teacher, beliefs about the learner, and beliefs about the teaching-learning approach. Teachers form their beliefs based on several factors. In this research study, the data analysis showed that the participants' beliefs are mostly influenced by their previous experiences both as a student and as a teacher and also their informal community of practices.

Beliefs about a good teacher

As the data analysis for the characteristic features of reflective teachers (see 4.1.3) showed, the participants believed that soft skills (see 4.1.3.2) were not less important than having comprehensive pedagogical content knowledge and professional skills (see 4.1.3.1). Therefore, it was not surprising to see that the participants attributed several roles to the concept of a good teacher: teacher as a manager (see 4.1.2.1 and 4.1.3.2), teacher as a life-long learner (see 4.1.3.1), and teacher as a role-model (see 4.1.3.2) to name a few. To illustrate, Nisa believed that a good teacher was a good "manager of [their] classes", as well (Nisa-Int). She thought that teachers were responsible for ensuring a smooth learning process for their students (see 4.1.2.1 and 4.1.3.2). Having a different perspective than Nisa, Anni believed that teachers were supposed to improve themselves continuously; hence, a good teacher was a life-long learner at the same time (see 4.1.3.1). Despite having various perspectives in terms of the characteristic features of a good teacher, the participants agreed that a good teacher was supposed to be a role model in terms which including but are not limited to being a good manager and a life-long learner. Although several attributions appeared during the analysis, teacher as a role-model comprises those roles and can be seen as an umbrella feature. Therefore, the participants' beliefs regarding a good teacher are exemplified through the theme of the teacher as a role-model.

Influenced by their philosophy of practice, the participants' understanding of the good teacher concept is mostly focused on being a role-model and guide to their students from not only the intellectual but also the personality angle. Therefore, they believed that their role was more than merely improving the students' intellectual abilities. For instance, regarding building character as one of his responsibilities, one of the post-observations revealed that Abur's hidden agenda was to encourage students to take risks in general in their life in order to be successful. On one occasion, while playing a game, he applied ten points plus for the correct answers and three points minus for the wrong ones. When questioned further as to why he chose to deduct three points for the wrong answers, he replied that:

Extract 3*.*

Abur's reflecting on his belief about good teacher (Abur-Postob4)

Abur: Psychologically, we can see which students are brave to take the challenge. Like, "I do not know if it is correct or not, but I want to try."

I: Okay. As an English teacher, why do you consider it is important to see the students' personalities? Like, who can take the challenge or risk and who cannot… Why is this important?

Abur: Actually … in the first meeting… I just tell them that being a successful person is not just [about] knowledge but also [about having] a good personality.

I: Why do you think this is important?

Abur: … when the students take the challenge, it means that they can… at least they are brave or… a kind of emotionally challenged. After they graduate from school, they can challenge themselves, they can survive in that field.

I: Okay. But as an *English* (emphasised) teacher … why do you think this is important?

Abur: Okay… I mean that I know I am an English teacher but… yeah, English teacher but still I am a *teacher (emphasised)*. Teacher means that… Teacher for me who not only deliver information but also guide the students to be better… I mean to be better, not just only knowledge[wise] but also characteristically… Personality… Because, in Indonesia, we have a law, a regulation. It says that education is to make people … a good person. It means good religiously, personality, characteristically…

The extract above suggests that although Abur was an English teacher, he saw his responsibilities beyond teaching English. He thought that assessing the students' risk-taking ability and building courage was as important as teaching English. Although risk-taking is a primary contributing factor in language learning, Abur's reason to encourage his students to take risks was not purely related to developing their language learning skills. Having a broader perspective and taking the curriculum as a base, Abur believed that his role as a teacher was to build character (see 4.3.1) and help students to construct a religious, patriotic personality besides developing them intellectually. Aligning with Abur, Rafi also extended his role as a teacher beyond teaching English and encouraged his students to take responsibility for not only their learning but also their actions (see 4.2.2.1).

Beliefs about the learner

When it comes to the beliefs about the learner, corresponding with the participants' beliefs about a good teacher, the general conception of the learner was as an active knowledge constructor who is a good team player and a member of the society. In this regard, student as the labour of the future and student as the digital native were the subthemes that emerged from the data analysis as well as student as the follower of the rules.

The participants saw their primary role as character building; therefore, their underlying beliefs regarding the reason for developing the students' personalities were preparing them for real-life situations and helping them become good citizens. Besides being religious and patriotic, preparing students in a way to contribute to and survive in a society, in other words, creating future labour, was also crucial. For example, applying a hands-on task strategy for one of his activities, Rafi justified his reason for choosing that specific strategy as follows:

… The teacher asks the students not only to make procedure text on cardboard but also

to decorate their assignments and give an out of the box name for their food and drinks

[products] because the teacher wants the students to think creatively and [be able to] make a jargon. In Indonesia, many entrepreneurs produce food or drinks with a unique name, and it can make consumers buy their products, because of this phenomenon, the teacher wants to foster the students' creative spirit in trying because in the future the teacher hopes that there will be a student who will become an entrepreneur … (Rafi-RJ9).

On one occasion, Rafi asked his student to design a label for a product during a teaching-learning activity. His aim was to improve the students' creativity as he thought that this activity could have helped his students to develop a sense of being an entrepreneur. On another occasion when his students were badly behaved (see 4.2.4.1), he justified his use of punishment strategy as he believed that "nowadays, discipline is one of the keys for success. Because, when we work in a place, we have to be disciplined. We have to follow the rules" (Rafi-Postob4). Therefore, it was important for his students to have a habit of being disciplined, well-behaved, and obedient to the authorities. Otherwise, he thought that the students would face difficulties in their working places in future. He believed that one of his missions was to prepare his students for real-life situations (see 4.3.1). Teaching their students to be a good team player through collaborative tasks was another strategy that almost all the participants used with an intention of preparing their students to cooperate and function in a society in harmony (see 4.2.1).

Seeing students as digital natives was another sub-theme that emerged from the data analysis. Trying to include technology into the teaching-learning process as much as possible, Abur was aware that he was a 21st-century teacher who was supposed to use digital tools in order to engage the students in his class (see 4.2.3.2). Moreover, while justifying why he used one of the online applications in his class (see 4.2.1.1 and 4.2.4.3), he made it explicit that "nowadays students are digital natives. Almost all of them are gadget users. They will be more interested if the learning process covered by games using a gadget" (Abur-RJ4).

While Abur was convinced that the 21st-century students were digital natives which required them to have digital literacy, critical thinking and problem-solving skills, Sri and Ina's concepts of the student was more traditional. They believed that the students were passive learners who were supposed to obey the rules and follow the teacher's instructions (see 4.3.1). Conceptualising their role as a legitimate authority (see 4.3.1), it was not surprising to see that both Ina and Sri attributed a more traditional role to their students believing that they lacked autonomy. For instance, during a post-observation conference, Ina complained that "the students depend on their teacher… So, I try to make them independent" (Ina-Postob1). However, it was debatable how much the teacher expectation affected the students' self-images and contributed to them being dependant on the teacher.

Beliefs about the teaching-learning approach

The participants' beliefs about their own and the students' role had a direct influence on their beliefs about the teaching-learning approach. While the participants who regarded their roles as a role-model and counsellor shared their responsibilities with their students and appreciated the student-centred teaching approach more, the participants who regarded their roles as authority-based focused more on the teacher-centred approaches.

A student-centred learning approach encourages the students to choose not only what but also how and why that topic is to be learned. Hence, a student-centred approach promotes students to take responsibility for their own learning. Moreover, shifting the focus from teacher to the student, a learner-centred approach makes the learning process more community-oriented, collaborative, and cooperative as it encourages students to build the community sense and work together. Abur was one of the participants who supported a student-centred approach to learning and believed that the learning process was supposed to be "fun and enjoyable... [so that the students would] enjoy the learning process and they [would] involve in it" (Abur-Preob2). His attempt to include technology into his classes (see 4.2.1.1, 4.2.3.2, and 4.2.4.3) and make the learning process more relevant and engaging for his students could suggest that he appreciated a constructivist approach to teaching (see 3.1 and 4.3.1). Considering their students' physiological (see 4.2.1.1, 4.2.3.2, and 4.2.4.1) needs and putting an emphasis on creating an optimal learning atmosphere, and encouraging their students to collaborate with their classmates, Nisa and Anni could also be considered as the teachers who promoted a learner-centred approach to teaching.

Giving full authority to the teacher, the teacher-centred learning approach, on the other hand, regards the teacher as an instructor or a lecturer. Seeing the students as the passive recipient of knowledge, Ina and Sri were in the category of the participants who characterised the teaching-learning process as a fundamentally traditional one. To illustrate, seeing him as the authority and the students as followers, Sri assessed his achievement with his students' following his instructions. On an occasion, he explicitly highlighted that "I believe I already achieved my aim as the students could do what I instructed in the class" (Sri-RJ1). It was also observed that his teaching style, especially his use of Grammar Translation Method (see 4.2.4.3 and 4.3.3), also reflected his belief about the teaching-learning process:

> ... I wanted to teach about passive voice to them. My aim was to introduce the definition
> of passive voice and giving them examples of how passive voice sentence could be used
> in eleven tenses. First thing, I wrote the definition and then I wrote the eleven tenses to

help them understand. After that, I invited them to join me in a matching activity to gain their attention and [make the learning process more] engaging … (Sri-RJ3).

Although he tried to engage the students in the activities, using a cognitive approach which views learning as a mental activity, Sri focused on teaching the structure and form of the language. It was observed that mostly using the lecturing strategy, Sri conducted a considerable proportion of his classes in a teacher-centred way.

4.3.2.3 Reflections on conceptions

The participants' reflections on conceptions are the last theme to be presented in the principles level. Informing and being informed by teacher assumptions and beliefs, conceptions are more concrete and easier to articulate. Teacher conceptions imply substantial information about their practices as conceptions indicate how teachers see language teaching. In this regard, following Freeman and Richards (1993), teacher conceptions of language teaching are categorised under three categories: science/research conceptions, theory/philosophy conceptions, and art/craft conceptions.

Science/research conception denotes the idea of teachers' viewing teaching as a scientific activity. According to this conception of language teaching, a good teacher is evaluated based on the criteria of student achievement. Unlike Abur and Anni who did not prioritise the students' score (see 4.3.1 and 4.1.2.2), Ina thought that the scores that the students obtained in the achievement test could indicate the performance of the teacher and provide crucial information about whether the teaching-learning process was successful or not (see 4.1.1). For her, teachers' professional development was essential in order to improve their teaching methods and strategies and obtain "better results from the students" (Ina-Int). Ina's conception could also suggest that her decisions might have been influenced by negative washback effect. Washback effect, or backwash effect, as Hughes (1989) would refer, occurs when teachers are "influenced by the knowledge that their students are planning to take a certain test", hence, they "adapt their teaching methodology and lesson content to reflect the test's demands" (Taylor, 2005, p. 154).

Theory/philosophy is another conception of teaching which is based on how a good teaching process should be. In this type of conception, the notion of good teaching is based on previous research; therefore, follows a tested approach of teaching. One of the most significant factors on this type of conception is the teacher education and training programs. Abur exemplified this phenomenon as follows:

… At this preliminary stage, I did a [review]. I asked some students what they remember about the previous learning. Why did I do it? Because this [process] is important as a

review of the topic that the students have learned in the last meeting. This is also a way to find out the level of thinking and remembering, the state of absorbing and storing and seeing the extent of the learning outcomes of each student. I know about [review] from the college and training about the curriculum of 2013 … (Abur-RJ2).

Justifying why he chose the strategy of reviewing the previous learning session, Abur made it explicit that he learned that strategy during his university education. He also explained that when he attended a teacher training program focusing on the application of the new curriculum, the trainer also conducted a review of the previous session before starting the new one. Hence, it seems that on that occasion, Abur's conception of good teaching follows a theory/philosophy notion in the example above as it took the basis of teacher education and training program and rationalised how good teaching should be.

The art/craft conception is the last one of the teaching notions that the participating teachers held. According to this view, good teaching is inspired by previous experiences and comprises of customised strategies based on the students' needs. In this category, teachers' previous experiences, especially as a teacher, inform their practices as they tend to apply the theories that they used previously and were convinced it was an efficient theory. On one occasion, Abur demonstrated a good example of the teachers' who held that conception of teaching:

… The next phase is the main activity. When I was planning this activity, I had to work hard to make the learning process engaging to the students… I chose the role-play method. I considered that role play can support this learning process. As I know, role play can encourage students to practice and express their feeling during the learning process. Once, I ever applied this method when I taught English for senior high school last year in the previous school, not the recent school. This method encouraged students to speak. They expressed their feelings... (Abur-RJ2).

The extract above suggests that Abur wanted to apply the role-playing strategy as he had used it previously and obtained a favourable result. What can also be concluded from the examples above is that although teachers' conceptions are more concrete than their assumptions and beliefs, they are not obliged to cling to one type of conception. Their conception of teaching is influenced by not only their assumptions and beliefs but also by the context that they teach in.

In conclusion, the participants' reflections on their principles are presented under three main themes: assumptions, beliefs, and conceptions. The participants' reflections on their assumptions were analysed through teacher maxims. In this regard, the analysis of the participants' reflections on their assumptions showed that teachers held the maxims of approachability, efficiency, and order. When it

comes to the beliefs that the participants' held, the participants' reflections analysed through their beliefs about a good teacher, belief about the learner and belief about the teaching-learning process. The participants' conceptions, in turn, were categorised under three themes: science/research conceptions, theory/philosophy conceptions, and art/craft conceptions.

4.3.3 Theory

The reflections of the participants on their theory can be categorised into two: espoused theories and theories in use (see 2.4.1.1). In terms of espoused theories, it was apparent that all the participants were aware of the 2013 Curriculum's requirements to use a scientific method (see 1.2.1.1) and deliver the lessons in a student-centred way. However, when it comes to theories in use, from time to time, what they believed they practised and what actually they practised did not correspond to each other.

Although all the participants believed that they had to conduct a student-centred class by taking the students' needs and abilities into consideration and making them more active, not all the observed classes were student-centred. Ina and Sri, for example, clung to the Grammar Translation Method, which is a traditional way of language teaching focusing on teaching the grammatical rules to the students and expecting them to apply those rules by translating sentences. Choosing that method for their teaching, it can be suggested that Ina and Sri conducted mostly teacher-centred classes where the teacher was at the position of information transmitter and students were passive receivers of knowledge (see 4.3.1 and 4.3.2.2). When asked why he used the translation method most of the time, Sri explained that "because they [the students] need to know the meaning first" (Sri-Postob2) which shed a light to his assumption regarding the L1 usage (see 4.3.2.1). When investigated further, Sri explained that he felt a familiarity with this method and admitted that he used the Grammar Translation Method as it was the only method that he knew about and he "felt comfortable with [applying that] method" (Sri-Postob2). Although Ina and Sri believed that learning was supposed to be engaging and students and their needs and abilities were supposed to be the focus during the teaching-learning process, most of the activities that they used in their classes were not student-centred.

Abur, in turn, contrary to Ina and Sri, designed a large part of his classes to be student-centred. He chose to use an eclectic approach (see 4.2.1.2). In this regard, he mostly used Task-based Learning, which is a language teaching method encouraging students to solve a task while using the authentic language, and Communicative Language Teaching approach, which is an approach promoting interaction among the classroom members and regards language as not only a goal to be learned but also a tool for communication. Believing the importance of engaging the students in the learning activities by fostering curiosity and interest in the topic at hand, Abur delivered most of his classes considering the students' preferences in terms of their needs and learning styles, to name a few. For

example, in his fourth reflective journal, Abur realised that his students lacked vocabulary and stated that he "decided to use demonstration strategy for providing vocabulary related to physical appearance and personality" (Abur-RJ4). He believed that the demonstration strategy (see 4.3.2.1) would attract the students' attention and help them "understand [the new vocabulary] easily" (Abur-RJ4) and memorise them as mimes and gestures would trigger visual memory.

Further proof of Abur's student-centred approach was that he constantly encouraged his students to take an active part in the learning process. Using "an online interactive quiz" (Abur-RJ4) was an example of Abur's encouraging his students to take part in the class actively. Abur's justifying the reason for using "an online interactive quiz" as he thought that strategy was "suitable for the students" considering their needs and interests (Abur-RJ4) could suggest that he was aware that the 21st-century students were "digital natives" (see 4.3.2.2); therefore, the teacher had to include digital literacy skills in his/her teaching.

Another participant who used an eclectic approach was Rafi (see 4.3.1). Using the Grammar Translation Method during the first few classroom observations, it was observed that Rafi changed his method. Hence, he started to use a more Task-based and Collaborative Language Learning Approach, which encourages students to work together and makes the learning process more interesting and meaningful. His reason to choose these methods was to involve the students in the class more as he realised that he conducted a considerable proportion of his classes in a teacher-centred way after watching his own classroom observation record (see 4.3.2.1). Contemplating his students' lack of vocabulary on one occasion, in a similar way to Nisa (see 4.2.1), Rafi made it clear in his reflective journal that he wanted to use "the peer tutor method [during his next class] to make it easier for students to remember vocabularies that are new to them" (Rafi-RJ9). His preference regarding using the peer tutor method which was a strategy that allowed the students to come together and practice their language skills could suggest that he applied the Collaborative Language Learning Approach. By shifting from traditional methods to a more communicative one, Rafi not only made his classes more student-centred by sharing the teaching-learning responsibility with his students but also, increased the proportion of the target language usage in his classes (see 4.2.3.1).

Anni, in turn, was the only participant who preferred the Audio-lingual method which prioritised the skills of listening and speaking over writing and reading. The data emerged from the interview and post-observation conferences suggested that she strongly believed that as a pre-condition for the students to speak English, they had to improve their listening skills. According to Anni, "the steps for learning to speak English are listening, speaking, reading, and writing" respectively (Anni-Postob1). Although she did not use the immersion approach, exposing her students to the target language

excessively, she played three songs at the beginning of each class and asked her students to find the themes of the songs and write the words that they heard and recognised.

The data analysis showed that the teachers were aware that the curriculum required them to design more student-centred classes. However, most of them tended to conduct teacher-centred classes. The reason behind this could mostly be because of the participants' being familiar with the traditional approaches and feeling more comfortable when applying them. Another reason was their lacking experience both as a student and as a teacher. They lacked the experience of having a student-centred class when they were students as they were mostly taught through the Grammar Translation Method. They also lacked knowledge of designing and conducting student-centred classes. Hence, they planned most of their classes in the way that they felt confident to conduct. In general, the participants' reflections on their theory level were very limited. Other than Sri and Rafi, none of the participants reflected on their theory of practise explicitly.

4.3.4 Practice

Practice constitutes only a small yet the most visible part of the teaching activity. This part of the framework encourages teachers to reflect before, in, on, and for their teaching (see 2.4.1.1) in order for them to have informed choices about their practice. As the findings of the participants' RbA, RinA, RonA, and RfA actions were presented in the previous section (see 4.2), they are not repeated here. However, this subsection focuses on the factors that influenced the participants' choices. In this regard, the data analysis showed that the participating teachers' decisions were informed by two main factors: the curriculum and assessment, and delivery methods. From those factors, while the topics related to curriculum and assessment were not open for negotiation, the participants negotiated some parts of their lesson plans especially in terms of delivery methods in order to accommodate their students' needs better.

4.3.4.1 Non-negotiable factor: the curriculum and assessment

The participants' referring to the curriculum on several occasions (see 4.2.3.2, 4.3.2.2., 4.3.2.3, and 4.3.5.1) indicated that the curriculum had an important role in their practices. The data analysis showed that the participants regarded the curriculum as a non-negotiable factor which was imposed by the government and must have been strictly followed. Although syllabus constitutes a part of the curriculum, the data analysis indicated that the participants used those two terms interchangeably. Curriculum, in this context, can be described as the route, which is prescribed by an authority, usually the educational policymakers, and followed by the teachers and the students. In this regard, the participants referred to the milestones that had to be achieved. Topics to be covered, mid-term tests, and the national exam were the milestones that the participants stated. To illustrate, Abur noted on his

journal that "[T]he topic that we discussed at that time [the class that he was reflecting on] was taken from the syllabus directed by the government" (Abur-RJ1). Similarly, when asked the most important factor that was taken into consideration while planning her lesson, Ina also stated that "the syllabus and the curriculum" (Ina-Preob1). Abur's and Ina's statements could suggest that the participants perceived that their freedom regarding choosing the topics to be discussed was restricted by the curriculum designers.

The data analysis showed that the mid-term test and the national exam were one of the most crucial motives for the participants while designing a lesson plan. According to the participants, those factors were not open for negotiation. Anni and Rafi can be taken as examples for the participants whose decisions were informed by the curriculum. To illustrate, while justifying the most important factor that they considered while planning their lessons, Anni stated that "because of the [national] curriculum… I have to [teach] the topic for the mid-term test" (Anni-Preob1). Similarly, Rafi also stated that his decision was informed by "the curriculum… Because the procedural text is one of the topics that will [be asked] in the national exam" (Rafi-Preob5). These examples could suggest that the participants had negative washback effect (see 4.3.2.3). This is because they thought that they had to adjust their teaching practices according to the mid-term test and national exam. As reflecting on the issues related to the curriculum involves beyond practice reflection, it might be suggested that the participants' practice and beyond practice level reflections intersected.

4.3.4.2 Negotiable factor: delivery methods

The previous subsection illustrated that the participants' decisions were mostly driven by the mid-term tests and the national exams. Therefore, they felt that they were obliged to follow the curriculum and the syllabus in terms of the topics. Although the participants thought that they had to adhere to the topics in the syllabus that were provided by the government, the findings showed that they were aware of their students' needs (see 4.1, 4.2.1.1., and 4.3). Therefore, the data analysis disclosed that there were times when the participants negotiated some aspects of their lesson plans such as delivery method and the order of the activities. The data suggested that the participants took the initiative and gave voice to their students especially in terms of the teaching delivery methods. As one of the participants stated, "in the end, [as long as] I can reach the target of the syllabus and the curriculum, the method is on me" (Ina-Int). The data analysis showed that while making a decision regarding the teaching method, the participants took two routes: either explicitly or implicitly negotiating the delivery methods with their students.

Explicit negotiation

Explicit negotiation denotes that the teacher and the students discuss the subject of the negotiation in order to have a shared understanding and accommodate both parties' needs and aims. In other words, while the teacher wants to teach a topic, the student needs to learn. When the teacher and the student have an agreement on what, why, and how to be learned, the activity of teaching and learning will be more efficient. Despite being very limited when compared to the implicit negotiations, there were cases where the participants explicitly negotiated with the students in terms of the delivery of the topic. The data analysis showed that increasing or maintaining the student motivation and improving the learner autonomy were the two underlying reasons why the participants compromised their autonomy and lesson plans and negotiated the teaching delivery methods.

As emerged in several themes (see 4.2.2.1, 4.2.3.2, and 4.2.4.1), student motivation was one of the concerns of the participants. Therefore, it was not surprising to see that the participants negotiated some aspects of their lesson plans in order to keep their students motivated in their classes. Abur was an example for the participants who reflected in action and changed his lesson plan in order to maintain student engagement:

> … For the presentation, I planned to give them a chance to present when it had enough time. But if it was not [enough time left], I planned to take some representative group to do so. In fact, all the groups were enthusiastic to present. so, I gave all the groups the chance to present by shortening the presentation time of every group. I thought it was unfair if I had not given time to present when they were high-spirited … (Abur-RJ1).

That was not the only incident when Abur reflected in action on his practice and explicitly negotiated his lesson plan with his students. On one occasion, Abur negotiated an individual aspect of lesson delivery. To illustrate, while playing a game, after one of his students' asking whether a reward system would be applied for the ones who answered the questions correctly (see 4.2.2.1), he compromised from his lesson plan by reflecting in action and negotiating his teaching method explicitly again.

Apart from the student engagement, learner autonomy (see 4.2.2.1) also concerned the participants and directed them to negotiate their delivery methods by reflecting in action. Explicit negotiation is one of the ways to promote learner autonomy as the students are given a chance to make a decision for their own learning process. Sri was one of the participants who professed to support the idea of explicit negotiation in order for students to have the optimum learning experience. For instance, on one occasion, Sri explained how he intended to evaluate himself as a teacher:

… The first thing is from the result itself. The result of the mid-test… and I will ask them [the students] which part was the most difficult, which one is the hardest question, and how we can solve it together… Because … I need to know what they really want… and I choose the dialog [strategy]. Because they can say whatever they need to… express themselves and I will know how I am going to respond to their request … (Sri-Postob1).

Sri stated that he planned to assess whether his teaching strategies were effective or not through the result of the mid-term test and the students' feedback. Sri also pointed out that his aim was to accommodate the students' pedagogical needs by giving them a voice in order for them to express their needs and wants. However, other than his statement, no further evidence was found supporting Sri's explicit negotiation with his students.

Implicit negotiation

While explicit negotiation refers to the mutual decisions made directly by the learners and the teacher, implicit negotiation means teachers' interpretations of the learners' wants and needs and adapting their teaching styles accordingly. Implicit negotiation usually derives from teachers' comprehensive context-awareness. Despite not necessarily being informed by the results of the RonA activities, implicit negotiation generally took place in either RinA or RbA stages. In this study, the data analysis showed that the participants' implicit negotiations were informed by their previous experiences, especially as teachers. Context awareness, especially in terms of the students' interests and abilities, were the main reasons for the participants' negotiating their teaching styles as well as to maintain the student engagement.

The data analysis showed that the participants had a high context-awareness. Being aware of their students' interests and abilities, the participants implicitly negotiated their teaching styles and adjusted their teaching methods to accommodate the students' needs. Sri was one of the participants who supported the idea of designing the lesson plans according to the students' abilities and needs. During one of the pre-observation conferences, he justified why he thought the students' background was one of the most important factors to be considered while planning a lesson:

… Because you know … we have various kinds of students' background. So, we cannot apply the same method [to every] class. So, that is why I need to be flexible about how I teach. Sometimes, I can become very strict, and sometimes, I can become very tolerant... (Sri-Preob1)

Pointing out the individual differences of his students and the dynamic of the classes, Sri implied that teachers were supposed to know their students' needs and interests and apply the teaching

methods accordingly. Using the same methods in every class would not have the same results as the characteristic features of the classes were different. Therefore, according to him, despite following the same curriculum or even the same topic, teachers were obliged to negotiate their teaching styles and adjust them according to their students. Similarly, Ina stated that "because every student is very different from each other… every class has its own characteristic… we [teachers] should use a combination of different methods" (Ina-Int) and adjust our [teachers'] teaching approaches accordingly.

Similar to Sri and Ina, Nisa also considered that teachers were supposed to be aware of their context and adapt their delivery methods. She highlighted that while delivering a lesson, teachers could be faced with the students' resistance in terms of understanding the topic. In that case, reflecting in action, teachers were supposed to adjust their lesson plan in order for students to have an optimum learning experience. During the interview, she pointed out that being aware of their students' needs, teachers were required to be flexible:

> … Maybe, at the meeting, I cannot change the lesson plan, but I just go on with myself.
> Like… when the lesson plan says, for example, the students should do task number
> three, for example… but the student cannot do it. Then, so maybe, I will think: What is
> the similar task? And then, if it does not work, maybe, I will change the lesson plan for
> the next week … (Nisa-Int).

In the case of facing difficulty in terms of delivering her lesson plan, Nisa thought that her first reaction would be to find a similar and more doable task for her students. However, as a novice teacher, she stated that there could be times when it was difficult for teachers to reflect in action and find a solution while the class was still going on. In that case, she suggested that teachers could take mental notes and reflect on action. While planning their next classes, by reflecting before action, teachers could benefit from those mental notes and negotiate their lesson plans and delivery methods accordingly.

Other than the context awareness, one of the most crucial factors that creates effective teaching is capturing the students' attention. While designing a lesson plan, teachers have to consider the students' interests, needs, and wants as well as the expected outcomes and the syllabus. However important it may be, keeping the students' attention is not enough unless it is maintained. Being aware of the importance of maintaining the students' attention as well as considering their interests, Rafi was one of the participants who negotiated his delivery method implicitly in order to maintain his students' attention. During the first post-observation conference, when asked how the lesson was in general, he stated that:

> I think the lesson was going well… But you know, in the middle [of the session], I saw
> the students got bored. That is why … you know… I changed my plan. And then, I tried

to… play a game with the students… So, I divided the students into the groups… (Rafi-Postob1)

When asked to elaborate, when and how he decided to negotiate and change his lesson plan, he continued:

> … You know like… if the students… it can be seen by the activeness of the students. So, when I started to teach, the students just waited… they did not talk much. They did not give a good reaction. But after, I started the game, they became more active … (Rafi-Postob1).

Explaining his implicit negotiation of the lesson plan as an impulsive action which resulted from the students' unresponsiveness, Rafi implied that students' taking an active part during the teaching-learning process was important. One of the reasons for his thinking in that way could be because of a desire to conduct more student-centred classes (see 4.3.3).

The data analysis showed that having a product-oriented mindset, which refers to a focus on the results, the participants felt that they had to follow the curriculum which was provided by the government especially in order for their students to be successful in the mid-term tests and the national exam. However, they were also aware that as teachers they had the autonomy of negotiating their teaching styles and delivery methods. There were incidents where the participants shared the decision-making responsibility with their students both explicitly and implicitly. The findings showed that while the participants explicitly negotiated their methods in order to improve or maintain the student motivation and develop the learner autonomy, implicit negotiations resulted from the context awareness and mostly to maintain the student engagement.

4.3.5 Beyond practice

The last level of Farrell's (2015) framework is beyond practice. According to Farrell's (2015) framework (see 2.4.1.1), the beyond practice stage concerns teachers' reflections on the political, moral, and social factors. As schools are not isolated from the political and social contexts that they are in, it is crucial for teachers to reflect on these factors to be able to be fully aware of power relations and how those factors affect their teaching. Reflecting on the beyond practice level means teachers' reflecting on the out of class issues in order to understand their classes and their teaching practices more fully. The data analysis showed that the participants' reflections on the political issues focused on the educational policies and mostly involved the 2013 Curriculum. As the 2013 Curriculum places a considerable emphasis on the moral education making those two subthemes almost impossible to be reflected on separately (see 1.2.1.1), the findings of the reflections on the curriculum and moral education are presented under the

same theme: educational policies. When it comes to the social aspect, the data analysis suggested that the participants mostly reflected on the cultural and environmental issues.

4.3.5.1 Reflections on educational policies

Political tendencies are one of the most crucial factors that impact the education systems in nations. Therefore, it was not surprising to see that educational policies affected the participants' educational philosophies and their practices (see 4.3.1). In order to have informed choices regarding their teaching, it is crucial for teachers to reflect on the beyond practice level. In this regard, the 2013 Curriculum and moral education were the two topics that the participants reflected under the theme of educational policies. As discussed in Chapter 1 (see 1.2.1.1), the curriculum required teachers to help the students build character. In this regard, the participants' reflections on the curriculum and moral education were interrelated. Hence, they reflected on the issues concerning but not limited to building a nationalistic and religious character and preparing the students for real-life situations.

Reflection with the guidance of the curriculum led the participants to reflect on the beyond practice level. Following the curriculum, building a religious character was one of Nisa's teaching objectives. In order to achieve this, she asked her students to pray together at the beginning of each class (see 4.3.1). Using this practice as a classroom management strategy, she stated that by building a sense of community and a peaceful, friendly environment for learning, "praying together [would help to] keep the classroom under control" (Nisa-Preob2). Noting that her teacher had have always asked her to pray before starting the class when she was in primary school, her hidden agenda was building a religious character among her students. Although Nisa reflected beyond practice by putting a primary emphasis on building character, in line with its importance in the national curriculum, her reflections were mostly on a descriptive level. This is because of that her justification for starting each class with a prayer was a type of routinised practice based on her experience since she was a primary school student. Not explaining how and why building a religious character help her students to be better citizens and people in general, she did not demonstrate a high degree of critical thinking.

Another participant who valued the character-building aspect of the curriculum was Abur. However, differently from Nisa, Abur focused on building not only a religious character but also a nationalistic one (see 4.3.1). Therefore, during the pre-observation conferences and in his journals, he started his classes with a national anthem as well as a prayer. He also asked his students to check the classroom and make sure that it was clean and tidy before he started his classes. He noted in his reflective journal that:

> … Beginning with praying before the learning process, a student led a prayer. We, the Indonesian teachers, do it to embed a religious attitude. I also asked them to sing

national songs. This aims to embed a nationalistic attitude toward the country. To embed the social attitude, I asked students to make sure that the class that they are using is clean, no trash. These considerations - embedding religious, social, nationalistic attitude – come from the law about education no 20, year 2000. It said that "education is a conscious and planned effort to create an atmosphere of learning and learning process so that students actively develop their potential to have spiritual strength, self-control, personality, intelligence, noble character, and the skills needed by themselves, society, nation, and country". The point from that article is the learning [activities] in Indonesia should contain those aspects; religious, nationalistic, and social … (Abur-RJ2).

Being aware of the latest curriculum, Abur noted that the curriculum required him to embed religious, social, and nationalistic attitudes in his teaching practices. From the extract, it is clear that he made an effort to build character among his students in the light of the curriculum. Even though Abur's reflections showed beyond practice activities, they were mostly on a descriptive level. Similar to Nisa, he based his actions on the curriculum without interrogating the rationale behind its moral, religious, and nationalistic features, nor thinking critically about their implications for the nation's future.

In Rafi's case, on the other hand, preparing the students for real-life situations was more important than building a religious, patriotic character in terms of moral education. As an example, during the third pre-observation conference, he clearly stated that his personal aim for that specific lesson was to prepare the students for unexpected situations. For an activity, he asked his students to bring some materials from home (see 4.2.1.1). When the students brought the materials, he asked them to exchange the materials with their friends, which was not excepted by the students. He justified his decision as:

Because… in this school, we, the teachers, not only teach academic knowledge but also teach them about the character. So, today, I will teach them that they have to be ready for everything that may happen. Because you know… there are always some unexpected things in life, and they have to be ready for that … (Rafi-Preob-3).

When he asked his students to bring some materials from home, he predicted that "the students would search the easy ones for them to analyse" (Rafi-Preob3). However, when they exchanged the materials with their friends, the content would be new to them; moreover, they would be surprised. He further explained that one of his aims was to surprise his students. Not everything went as planned in life, he thought. As required by the curriculum, and also, the philosophy of the school that he worked at, he wanted his students to "be ready for the unexpected situations" (Rafi-Preob3). Rafi's reflections indicated that he valued the moral education and that his teaching practices were involved in beyond

practice reflections. These included: asking his students to work in a team in order to teach them the value of collaboration (Rafi-Preob2); creating real-life situations in which the students would increase their empathy towards other students (Rafi-RJ7); helping his students build confidence in public speaking (4.2.1.1) or encouraging them to have a healthy lifestyle by inviting "the students to consume more healthy food and avoid drugs" (Rafi-RJ4).

4.3.5.2 Reflections on socio-cultural issues

The second theme that emerged from the data analysis regarding the participants' beyond practice level reflections was the socio-cultural aspect. Reflections on the socio-cultural issues included cultural and environmental factors. The participants' reflections on the environmental issues, then, can be further divided into two: the physical conditions that the teaching took place in and socio-economic issues.

Culture and education have a two-way impact on each other. As social constructivism (see 3.1) suggests, learning occurs in a social environment through individuals' interactions. Social constructivism also advocates that a significant proportion of the individuals' content of thinking is provided by culture. Therefore, teachers are supposed to know the culture that they are teaching in and plan their lessons accordingly. Even though not all the participants' reflections involved the beyond practice level, some participants' reflections revealed that it is crucial to be aware of the context that they teach in and take the Indonesian culture into consideration when they are planning or delivering the lessons. For example, on one occasion, Abur explained one of the critical incidents as follows:

> … During the role-play activity, I also noticed there was a male student who got a chance to give a compliment to a female student... The students in the class started to laugh. I believe the culture has an effect on this event to happen as the students from different gender got interacted. I saw the boy feeling ashamed when his friends laughed and teased. I just made them calm down briefly. I think I should have given them more explanation about this case. I am afraid it would give a bad effect on him [the subject of the incident] to get involved again in the learning activity… (Abur-RJ2).

Abur's description of the incident in his journal revealed that he did not consider the potential implications of male and female students being paired up for an activity which required each student to give a compliment to the other. When the male student gave a compliment to his female friend, the whole class started to cheer which caused the subjects of the incident to feel embarrassed (see 4.2.1.1). Despite admitting that he did not predict this incident to happen, Abur wrote in his journal that the reason behind the whole class behaving in the way that they did, and the subjects of the incidents' feeling embarrassed was "cultural" (Abur-RJ2). He continued explaining that in Indonesia, it is rare for the opposite genders to compliment each other unless they were in an emotional relationship. That

reflection could suggest that although Abur seemed not to consider the cultural aspect during planning the lesson, his justification of that critical incident included the culture and its effects on the students' behaviour; hence, his reflection involved in the beyond practice level.

Reflections regarding environmental issues, in turn, revolved mostly around the physical and socio-economic conditions. For instance, on one occasion, during her second post-observation conference, highlighting that the physical conditions of the classroom were not suitable for a good learning environment on that day, Nisa explained why the lesson did not go as well as she planned:

> Maybe it is because of the situation in the classroom. It is too hot in the class. Yeah, the atmosphere in the classroom is not too good, I think. Yeah, maybe it is the last session of this day. So, the students really want to go home. So, they are not too interested in the material in my class today (Nisa-Postob2).

Considering the pre-conditions for an effective learning environment, Nisa reflected on the issues beyond actual teaching practices. She stated that the room temperature was not suitable for an optimal learning environment. Also, considering that it was the last session of the day, she indicated that she was aware that the students could be tired. Therefore, reflecting on the environmental issues, it could be suggested that Nisa's reflected on the issues involved the beyond practice level of Farrell's (2015) framework. Similar to Nisa, Anni was another participant who reflected on the physical conditions of the classroom (see 4.2.2.1).

For some participants, not only the physical learning environment but also the students' social and socio-economical environments affected their learning. Hence, these factors also equally deserved to be reflected on. As an example of that issue, Sri stated that knowing about the students' background helped him understand them better and consequently, treat them accordingly. After telling an anecdote, he stated that he knew the real reason why one of the students was bullying the others. He justified the underlying reasons for that particular student's bullying behaviour as follows:

> They [the students] are coming from different backgrounds. I know the person that I mentioned before. He uses his power… Because he is coming from the wealthiest family. I know… because his parents are on the verge of a divorce. I think he is seeking attention. I think he feels helpless at home. So, he uses his power at the school (Sri-Postob4).

The extract above suggests that Sri was aware of his students' backgrounds. Sri stated that one of his students was having a hard time at home and did not have enough parental attention. Therefore, that particular student was using his physical and financial power in order to bully others; hence, he would get the teacher's attention. Although Sri was aware of this situation, he did not state any action

plans that he would apply in order to prevent this student from bullying the other students. This incident could suggest that Sri reflected on the beyond practice level. His reflection can also be considered on a critical level as he took into consideration the environmental, social, and even the psychological circumstances. However, the efficiency of his reflection was debateable as he did not have an action plan in order to make the condition better.

Despite being from different perspectives, the data analysis suggested that the participants reflected beyond practice. The participants' beyond reflection activities included context and cultural awareness as well as curriculum-driven choices. However, the criticality and impact of the reflections were disputable as some of them were on a descriptive level, and still, some others did not include an action plan in order to lead to a more evolved practice.

The main themes that emerged in the participants' reflections suggested that being linked to each other, their reflections on their philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and beyond practice had a mutual influence on each other. This could suggest that it is crucial to see the teacher as a whole and encourage them to reflect on all these aspects so that they can have informed choices for their practices. In other words, the participants' personal and professional histories had an impact on not only the theories that they tended to use but also their practices. Considering the effects of the context that the teachers lived and taught in, reflecting on the beyond practice level also deserves equal attention. A summary of the third research question's findings is presented below (see Table 6).

Table 6.

Summary of the RQ3's findings

Categorising teachers' reflections in accordance with Farrell's (2015) framework												
Philosophy		Principles					Theory		Practice		Beyond practice	
Understanding of teacher's self	Teacher's role in education	Reflections on assumptions	Reflections on beliefs			Reflections on conceptions	Espoused theory	Theory-in-use	Non-negotiable factor: the curriculum and assessment	Negotiable factor: delivery methods	Reflections on educational policies	Reflections on socio-cultural issues
Abur: ethnicity **Abur, Anni, Rafi, and Sri:** personal traits **Anni and Nisa:** religious identity **Nisa and Sri:** the matrix of their familial connections, familial expectations	**Abur and Anni:** teacher as a mentor **Ina and Sri:** teacher as the authority **Rafi:** teacher the wisdom holder, character builder	**Abur**: maxim of approachability **Abur, Rafi, and Sri:** maxim of efficiency, L1 usage **Nisa:** maxim of order	Beliefs about a good teacher **Abur**: teacher as the role-model **Anni and Nisa:** teacher as the life-long learner **Nisa:** teacher as the manager	Beliefs about the learner **Abur**: student as the digital native **Ina and Sri:** student as the passive learner **Rafi:** student as the future workforce	Beliefs about the teaching-learning approach **Abur, Anni, and Nisa:** student-centred teaching **Ina and Sri:** teacher-centred teaching	**Abur**: Art/craft conception, theory/philosophy conception **Ina:** science/research conception	Scientific Approach	**Abur:** eclectic approach including Task-Based Learning and Communicative Language Teaching **Anni**: Audio-Lingual Method **Ina and Sri:** Grammar-Translation Method **Rafi**: eclectic method including Grammar-Translation Method and Collaborative Language Learning Approach	**Abur, Anni, Ina, and Rafi:** decisions were informed by the curriculum and the national test	**Abur, Ina, Nisa, Rafi and Sri:** delivery methods can be negotiable both implicitly and explicitly as long as the curriculum is followed.	**Abur**: religious and patriotic character building **Nisa**: religious character building **Rafi**: preparing students to the real-life situations	**Abur**: culture **Anni and Nisa**: physical conditions of the classroom **Sri**: socio-economic backgrounds of the students

Conclusion

This chapter presented the findings of the data analysis. Aiming to explore how the Indonesian novice EFL teachers conceptualised and engaged in reflective practice, the study posed three research questions. The first research question investigated what the participants understood from the concept of reflective practice. In this regard, the participants' definitions, and understandings of the purpose of reflective practice were presented as well as the characteristic features of reflective practitioners. Regarding reflective practice as a problem-solving strategy, the participants saw the reflective practice as a mental, flashback process. The data analysis showed that while Anni understood the concept as an activity for knowledge sharing, Abur, Nisa, and Rafi saw it as a looking back process. Ina and Sri, in turn, regarded reflective practice as a tool for professional development. The participants also thought that the purpose of reflective practice was to develop their practices. In this regard, while Rafi, Ina, and Sri thought that the purpose of reflective practice was to solve the problematic areas of their practices, Abur and Nisa believed that the aim of reflecting on their practice was to manage their classes better. Yet, Anni considered the purpose of reflective practice as understanding her students' inner world better.

The second research question, in turn, investigated how the participants engaged in reflective practice. The findings showed that the participants reflected before, in, on, and for their action. It was observed that those reflections intersected in many cases. While engaging in reflection, the participants reflected on their previous experiences both as students and teachers. The data analysis showed that classroom management and student engagement were the two mostly reflected on themes. While all the participants reflected on their students' engagement, in particular, Nisa's and Abur's reflections focused on classroom management issues. It was also observed that the participants barely benefited from formal teacher training opportunities whereas they engaged readily in informal learning.

Finally, investigating the participants' reflections through Farrell's (2015) framework, the third research questions' findings suggested that not only the teachers educational but also their personal background influenced their teaching practices. In this regard, the participants' reflections were analysed through their philosophy, principles, theory, practice and beyond practice levels. It was seen that teachers' philosophies are shaped by their religious beliefs, ethnicities, familial matrices, social norms, personal traits, educational theories, and educational policies as well as their previous experiences. Another finding also suggested that it was crucial for teachers to reflect on their assumptions, beliefs, conceptions, espoused theories, and theories in use in order for them to be informed about their own teaching practices. The data analysis showed that the 2013 Curriculum was the most reflected on topic. To be more specific, Abur's, Ina's, Anni's, and Rafi's reflections focused on the curriculum. The findings also indicated that reflecting on the political, socio-cultural, and contextual

aspects was also essential in order to maximise the students learning experience. The next chapter, in turn, sets out to discuss these findings in relation to the current literature.

Chapter 5: Discussion

In the previous chapter, the findings of the current study were presented through thematic, cross-case analysis. The previous chapter was divided into three subsections. Each subsection dealt with one research question. In this regard, the first subsection presented the findings regarding the participants' understanding of reflective practice based on the interview data analysis, which answered the first research question. The next subsection of the previous chapter dealt with the second research question and explained how the participants engaged in reflective practice. In this regard, the participants' RbA, RinA, RonA, and RfA activities were presented. The transcriptions of the pre- and post-observation conferences, classroom observations, and the reflective journals were used to answer the second research question. The last section of the previous chapter presented the findings of the third research question and explored the participants' reflections through Farrell's (2015) framework for reflective practitioners. All data collected from the interviews, pre- and post-observation conferences, classroom observations, and the reflective journals were triangulated to answer the third research question.

This chapter, in turn, brings the findings together and presents a discussion of these findings along with relevant literature, especially from the novice EFL teachers' aspect. As the current study adopts social constructivism as its research paradigm (see 3.1), it is crucial to understand the context that the research took place in (see 1.2). Therefore, it is worth mentioning that the study took place in a multicultural, multilingual context which was mainly dominated by Islamic belief. In addition, in the background of the current study is the education system, which has undergone several changes since the independence of the country, yet, still has traces of the colonial era (Harits et al., 2016) (see 1.2.1.1). This suggests that the participating teachers were influenced by those social, historical, and educational contexts. Moreover, it is also important to point out that although teachers are required to implement reflection on their practices by a regulation (see 1.2.2), they are not provided with a clear definition of reflection nor explicit instructions for them to follow while reflecting on their teaching. Hence, in light of the limited research, teacher education and training programs in Indonesia are encouraged to promote reflective practice (Nurfaidah, 2018). Considering these factors, the current study investigates the following research questions:

RQ. 1) What is the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of reflective practice?

RQ. 2) How do the Indonesian novice EFL teachers engage in reflective practice?

RQ. 3) How are the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' reflections situated in Farrell's (2015) framework?

As stated in the literature review (see 2.1), different interpretations of the term denote different meanings; therefore, it was crucial to understand how the Indonesian novice EFL teachers understood the term reflective practice. After this, their way of engaging in reflective practice was investigated, and their reflections were explored through Farrell's (2015) framework for TESOL teachers. In order to ensure consistency, a similar structure to the findings chapter is used. In this regard, the findings of the current study's research questions are discussed and presented respectively.

5.1 The Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of reflective practice

Despite prompting significant discussion, reflective practice is not a straightforward term to define. Therefore, it was not surprising to see that the participants' conceptualisation of reflective practice varied. While conceptualising reflective practice, the participating teachers attempted to describe the term, rationalise the aim of reflection and list the characteristic features of reflective practitioners. Hence, the findings of the current study are discussed starting with the participants' definition of the term and followed by their understanding of the purpose of reflection. Finally, the participants' understandings of the characteristic features of reflective practice are also discussed in light of the current literature.

As there appeared to be no consensus regarding the definition of the term reflective practice in the literature, it is difficult to assess how accurate the participants' understandings of the term is. However, rather than be judgemental and evaluative, this study adopted an exploratory approach (see 3.1) which was similarly used in different contexts such as Canada (Farrell, 2014) and Turkey (Komur & Cepik, 2015). Also, the current study follows the principles of the social constructivism research paradigm and adopts the interpretive data collection methods, i.e. interviews, reflective journals and pre- and post-observation conferences (see 3.1). This means that during the data collection, the participants were reminded that there was not a right or wrong answer, and they were not asked for a dictionary explanation of the term, instead, they were encouraged to explain how they conceptualised it.

Given this context, the findings of the study suggested that using the metaphor of "mirror" (see 4.1.1), the participating teachers conceptualised reflective practice as a flashback action which was associated with the problem-solving process and ultimately led to professional development. Abur, Nisa, and Rafi thought that they could look back and try to picture what happened in their class and why it happened. This is in line with Bigge and Shermis' (1998) conceptualisation of the term which encourages practitioners to pose questions of their practices in order to analyse and improve them (see 4.1.1). Bassot (2016) also suggests that the practitioners can use a "metaphorical mirror" to question their

practice with the intention of raising their self-awareness and critical thinking, and ultimately improve their practice.

When investigated further, the data analysis showed that the participants' articulated definitions included reflective practice being an activity for sharing knowledge (Anni), a process of looking back for improving teaching practices (Abur, Nisa, and Rafi), and a professional development tool (Ina and Sri). These views correspond to understandings in other contexts such as the USA (Pedro, 2005) and Romania (Stăncescu et al., 2019) especially in terms of reflective practice as a flashback process and a tool for improvement. Although only one of the participants, namely Rafi referred to reflective practice as a cyclical process; hence, a continuous journey for teachers to develop themselves (see 4.1.1), the common understanding was that reflective practice was retrospective.

One of the themes that emerged from the findings suggests that the participants conceptualised reflective practice as an activity for sharing knowledge which is consistent with the current literature. Anni thought that reflective practice was an activity in which the student-teacher not only interacted and exchanged knowledge but there was similar interactions and exchanges among teachers in the teaching community. Reflective practice is mostly regarded as learning from and through experience (Boud et al., 1985; Finlay, 2008; Jarvis, 1992), which is similar to Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle (see 2.4.1). This usually involves questioning everyday practice and being critical and self-aware about one's own practice in order to gain new insights and improve future practice (Finlay, 2008).

Limiting this experience to the teachers' own teaching practices would lessen the learning opportunities whereas learning from and through others' experiences as well as one's own could help individuals to have a wider perspective to their teaching practices without having to reinvent the wheel. Therefore, practitioners, especially the novices, were strongly encouraged to involve in collaborative learning in terms of their professional development (de Groot, Endedijk, Jaarsma, van Beukelen, & Simons, 2013; Finlay, 2008; Ghaye, 2010; Hepple, 2012; Nguyen, 2013; Parsons & Stephenson, 2005; Salleh & Tan, 2013; Wachob, 2011). Finlay (2008, p. 2), for example, invites teachers to engage in "critical dialogue with others". Not defining whom she means by others, Finlay (2008) leaves the interpretation to the practitioner. This wide spectrum of critical dialogue involving a range of potential correspondents enhances the practitioners' perspective as reflection could take place out of the school environment as well as in the school context.

The findings suggested that there was only one participant, namely Anni, who considered the collaborative learning aspect of reflective practice. However, the findings still indicated that social learning theory and a dialogic approach were present in her definition. Boud et al. (1985, p. 19) suggest that reflection "may take place in isolation or in association with others". Encouraging practitioners to

hold "reflective conversations", Ghaye (2010, p. 43), in turn, suggests that initially, the form of the reflective dialogues might be "conversations with self". However, later on, he strictly recommends that these private conversations should be conducted with a "public company" (Ghaye, 2010, p. 43). Articulating thoughts in the form of words, being better informed about own's thoughts and practices, benefitting from others' experiences while possibly contributing to their perspectives are some of the benefits of reflective conversations with others that Gyahe (2010) lists. Parsons and Stephenson (2005, p. 95) add to the list stating that collaborative learning which is conducted as a dialogue with a critical partner "enable[s] deeper thinking about practice". Similarly, Mann and Walsh (2013, p. 297) emphasise that "[F]oregrounding the individual process underestimates the value of collaborative processes"; therefore, they encourage practitioners to share their experiences with a colleague or a mentor. Hence, it can be concluded that the participants' understanding of reflective practice as a knowledge-sharing activity is supported by research highlighting the importance of collaborative learning. However, it is also important to note that this aspect of reflective practice has been brought up by only one participant out of six.

Another interpretation of the concept was that reflective practice was a process of looking back in order to improve teaching practices. Abur, Nisa, and Rafi defined the term as a flashback activity to improve practice. In spite of the longstanding implications of its also being prospective and anticipatory, the concept of reflective practice is mostly regarded as a retrospective process. Especially early definitions of reflection suggest that the term was mostly associated with a lookback process (Dewey, 1910; Schön, 1983; Valli, 1997). To illustrate, tracing the root of the word, Valli (1997) conceptualises that reflection means "bending back" (p. 67) and sees the reflective practitioner as a "deliberative thinker" (p. 68). However, restricting the process to a retrospective time frame would cause the practitioners to miss the potential benefits of RbA, RinA, and RfA activities (see 2.1.2).

More than three decades ago, Shulman and Colbert (1989, p. 44) claim that "[R]eflection requires that a teacher be able to look back on his or her own teaching and its consequences". A careful examination of Shulman and Colbert's assertion (1989) would suggest that practitioners are encouraged not only to look back on their experiences but also examine any consequences which possibly affect the present and future. In fact, the benefits of prospective and anticipatory reflection are not less than the retrospective reflection. Conway (2001, p. 90) suggests that the dictionary meaning of "reflection" is mostly connoted with "looking back in time". However, he (Conway, 2001, p. 90) argues that:

> …what is meant by 'looking back' is turning inward, examining one's own remembered experiences and/or anticipated experiences, not exclusively looking back in time. Looking back in the reflective sense is about gaining some reflective distance to understand better the meaning of lived experience, one's relationship within and to the

world. Reflection is not only about taking the long view backward in time, but also, and this is borne out in experience, about looking forward toward the horizon.

Hence, Conway (2001) suggests practitioners to keep the past in mind; yet look forward to the future. Furthermore, Conway (2001, p. 90) emphasises the importance of prospective and anticipatory reflection by highlighting that "greater attention to prospective reflection might accelerate and deepen the journey toward reflective practice through more focused reflections". It can thus be suggested that although the participants' views were mostly in line with the current literature, the future aspect of reflective practice was not given enough attention.

Another interpretation of the term was as a tool to evaluate and ultimately improve the practitioners' professional skills, especially in terms of the methodological choices. Although the term is still elusive in terms of its definition (see 2.1.1), it seems that many scholars agree that reflective practice enhances the teachers' practices (Cirocki & Farrell, 2017; Farrell & Kennedy, 2018; Ghaye, 2010; Mathew, Mathew, & Prince, 2017; Walkington, 2005); hence, it helps teachers improve themselves professionally.

Although it can be suggested that the participants' views regarding reflective practice being a tool for professional development are in line with the current literature, it is important to highlight that the findings suggest that the participants associated professional development with the teachers' methodological choices (see 4.1.1). However, current literature suggests that reflective practice offers several professional development opportunities besides merely improving the methodological choices. For instance, in their relatively small-scale empirical study, Wu and Wu (2016) found that reflective practice helped the participants to enhance their pedagogical content knowledge, helped their students to cultivate learner autonomy, and increase their skills to create a positive classroom atmosphere. Moreover, assessing the students' average score before and after the study, Wu and Wu (2016) suggest that reflective practice affects the teaching outcomes positively. Promoting and developing "self-monitored learning" and contributing to "the growth of both personal and professional practices" (Torres-Goens & Farley, 2017, p. 450), were some other benefits of reflective practice that were noted in the current literature; yet, they were not visible within this data set.

Another aspect that emerged from the analysis and is discussed here is the perceived purpose of reflective practice. In this regard, the data analysis showed that the participating teachers thought that the ultimate aim of reflective practice was to enhance their teaching skills (Abur, Ina, Nisa, Rafi, and Sri) and understand and cater for their students' needs better (Anni and Nisa). In this regard, enhancing the teaching skills is understood as identifying the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching practices, resisting mechanical and routine actions, improving their classroom management skills, and linking

theory with the practice. Whereas, understanding the students' need better was interpreted as empathising with the students especially in terms of their emotions and assisting them to self-actualise.

It is not wrong to assume that the participants' perceptions of the purpose of reflection especially in terms of improving the teaching skills were all interconnected and echoed in the current literature. To illustrate, conducting a study with the participation of 13 pre-service ESL teachers, Sanders (2017) lists being aware of one's own strengths and weaknesses as one of the benefits of reflective practice. Highlighting that "reflection promotes awareness", Sanders (2017, p. 43) suggests that reflection helps teachers to recognise their weaknesses. However, she also warns teachers not to be discouraged as reflective practice "produces opportunity for professional development and teacher improvement". Being aligned with Sanders (2017), Roffey-Barentsen and Malthouse (2009) note that it is not only the weaknesses that the teachers can recognise through reflective practice but also the strengths and good practice. Hence, Roffey-Barentsen and Malthouse (2009) encourage teachers to analyse what went well and why to inform their next practices.

Zeichner and Liston (2014), in turn, suggest that the difference between technical teaching, as they refer to it, and reflective teaching is the practitioners' being aware of the context that they teach in, their strengths and weaknesses and their students' needs. Besides being aware of the strengths and weaknesses, this view, indeed, corresponds the idea of resisting the mechanical, routine actions and questioning one's own practices (Bigge & Shermis, 1998). As the teachers question their practices, they raise awareness towards their working practices and the practices that need to be altered or improved. Hence, reflective practice leads to an improvement in the teachers' practices.

Taking these discussions further, Sankar (2017) suggests that when the teacher has a context awareness of the learning environment and the students' needs and abilities, classroom management issues are minimised. This can further to be linked to recognising and catering for the students' needs. For example, conducting an action research with the participation of six practicing teachers, Sowa (2009, p. 1030) noted that all her participants stated that the study "gave them a better understanding of how to meet the needs of" their students.

Based on the discussions above, it can be suggested that the participants' understandings in terms of the purpose of reflective practice is in line with the earlier studies. However, it seems that the participants did not recognise the fact that initiating and promoting the critical thinking skills (Chi, 2010) and helping teachers to be informed about their own choices by "solidify[ing] their views of teaching and learning" (Lin, Shein, & Yang, 2012, p. 196) were other purposes of reflective practice that were stated in the literature among several others.

The last factor that is discussed in terms of the participants' conceptualisation of the term included the characteristic features of the reflective practitioners. In this regard, reflective teachers' being competent especially in terms of delivering the course materials and managing the class, being life-long learners, open-minded, communicative, and responsible were the features that the participating teachers stated. It is important to note that although there are similarities between the characteristics expressed by the current study's participants and those described by early studies (such as Güngör, 2016; Korthagen & Wubbels, 1991; Pollard, 2002; York-Barr, Sommers, Ghere, & Montie, 2005), the literature suggests a wider spectrum of the characteristic features of the reflective practitioners than the participants stated. Moreover, it is also worth noting how these features were defined as some terms might be interpreted in several ways.

It seems that the current literature tends to define a competent reflective teacher as a practitioner who is good at technical skills. Korthagen and Wubbels (1991) describe these technical skills as teachers' being masters of techniques and learning and applying the theoretical principles. The participants' associating the competent teacher with a teacher who has efficient classroom management skills can be related to Korthagen and Wubbels' (1991) interpretation of the technical skills. Pollard (2002), in turn, suggests that reflective teachers are competent in methods of evidence which includes reviewing the current, relevant literature, collecting evidence, analytical and evaluative skills. Reviewing the current literature means learning as much as possible from the significant others. Although Pollard (2002) refers to other teachers and professional researchers as the significant others, the participants extended the definition of learning from others to learning from their students and communities as well as their colleagues and professional researchers.

When it comes to Pollard's (2002) suggestion of gathering evidence, the concept can be associated with mindfulness and self-awareness as Pollard (2002) invites teachers to collect data to describe the situations that occurred in the class. Hence, through gathering evidence, teachers are encouraged to describe what they think they do, what they actually do, and also, how they feel about the situation. Indeed, teachers are strongly advised to critically reflect on their practice to detect and minimise the discrepancy between what they think they do and what they actually do (Borg, 2003) (see 2.4.1.1). Analysing and evaluating skills, in turn, require teachers to interpret the data that they gather and make judgements to inform their future practice which again appears to align with the participants' understandings. The findings indicated that the participants conceptualised a competent reflective teacher as a practitioner who can analyse his/her students' needs in order to cater for them better. Therefore, it can be suggested that although the participants seemed to oversimply and limit the concept of being competent with the technical skills, their perspective was indeed in accord with the current literature.

The findings suggested that the participants' defining reflective teachers as life-long learners who continuously develop themselves (Gibbs, 1988; Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1983; York-Barr et al., 2005), as open-minded individuals who embrace new ideas and welcome criticism (Alvesson & Skölberg, 2000; Dewey, 1910, 1933), and as communicative practitioners who can interact with their students, colleagues and the significant others effectively (Pollard, 2002) was in line with the literature. However, the participants described being a responsible, reflective teacher in several different ways, which was not surprising as being responsible has been interpreted in many ways in the literature. In this regard, being consistent with what they say and do (Dewey, 1933; Pollard, 2002), ensuring a creative, effective lesson delivery, applying diverse teaching methods (Rodgers, 2002), having good classroom management skills (Korthagen & Wubbels, 1991; Pollard, 2002), and being responsible for not only their students' but also their colleagues' development (Güngör, 2016) were the responsibilities that were attributed to the reflective teachers by the participants. The current literature has examples for each interpretation of being a responsible reflective teacher. However, this could suggest that although each participant's understanding of being responsible can be associated with the current literature, it seems that the participants failed to see the wider picture.

In summary, the first research question of this study investigated how the Indonesian novice EFL teachers understand reflective practice. In this regard, it was presented that conceptualisation of reflective practice was discussed under three main themes: definition of reflective practice, purpose of reflective practice and the characteristic features of reflective practitioners. It was concluded that designating it as a problem-solving strategy and having a limited concept of what it entails, the participants saw reflective practice as a professional development tool. Hence, it appeared that they defined the term from a retrospective perspective and thought that reflective practice was a means to co-construct knowledge to inform the future practice by analysing the past experiences. It was shown that although the participants' definitions of the term have been echoed in the current literature (Bassot, 2016; Finlay, 2008; Pedro, 2005; Stăncescu et al., 2019), it was suggested that the participants tended to focus too much on the technical skills, such as classroom management skills, and did not consider some other benefits of reflective practice, such as enhancing pedagogical content knowledge and cultivating learner autonomy among the students.

5.2 The Indonesian novice EFL teachers' engagement in reflective practice

The second research question of the current study investigated how the Indonesian novice EFL teachers engaged in reflective practice. The findings were interesting in relation to the type, level, and content of the participants' reflections. In this regard, the data analysis showed that the participating teachers engaged in reflective practice by reflecting -before, -in, -on, and -for their practices. Equally, the participants' levels of reflections were varied from pre-reflection, surface reflection, and pedagogical

reflection to critical reflection. When it comes to the content of the reflections, it seemed that technical, affective, and cognitive domains were most commonly reflected on. Below, these results are discussed respectively in light of the relevant literature.

The current study suggested that the participants engaged in reflective practice through reflecting -before, -in, -on, and -for their actions. In the literature review (see 2.1.2) and findings chapter (see 4.2.1 and 4.2.4), it was made clear that RbA, in this study, was associated with an anticipatory reflection (Conway, 2001; Farrell, 2016b; Freese, 2006; Van Manen, 1991, 1995). In other words, RbA seeks answers for the questions such as "what are the possible challenges that might occur during the class?". In this regard, the current literature suggests that the studies with a RbA element mostly focused on lesson planning (Cirocki & Widodo, 2019; Luwango & Schafer, 2013; Nguyen, 2017).

Nguyen (2017) is one of the researchers who conducted a study with RbA aspect in mind. In his detailed empirical study, Nguyen (2017) associates RbA with lesson planning activity and focuses mostly on methodological choices. Investigating the participants' beliefs and their reflections, Nguyen (2017) asks the participants to design several lesson plans collaboratively. Although the current study did not require the participants to work collaboratively, particularly two findings of Nguyen (2017) were in line with the current study. In both studies, student language proficiency and student engagement were objectives during RbA activities. Although this study confirms that student proficiency level was one of the main concerns of the participants, the current literature suggests that only a limited number of studies have been conducted regarding assessing the students' language proficiency in Indonesia, and more research is needed to fill this niche (Renandya et al., 2018).

One of the benefits of the RbA activities is to prepare teachers for possible challenges. In their study conducted in the Indonesian context, Cirocki and Widodo (2019, p. 24) claim that it is crucial for teachers to "reflect on various aspects of their upcoming lessons to ensure that they are well planned, possible challenges are identified in advance and solutions to the identified problems are considered". The findings of the current study suggested that although the participants reflected before action, there were incidents that the participants could not foresee due to the unpredictable and chaotic nature of the classrooms (Even, 2020; Simpson & Rose, 2020; Urzúa & Vásquez, 2008) as in the cases of Abur and Rafi (see 4.2.1.1). That was not a surprising finding considering the current study was conducted among the novice teachers. Moreover, this also accords with earlier observations. To illustrate, Urzúa and Vásquez (2008, p. 1940) warn that it is highly possible that some plans "may be tentative, ill-structured, and contradictory, especially when dealing with new or unfamiliar situations". Furthermore, on some occasions, even though the participants predicted possible challenges, either they did not take any precautions or the solutions that they suggested were not always sustainable (see 4.2.1.1). Therefore,

it seems that a thorough and systematic RbA activity could be more beneficial especially among inexperienced teachers.

RinA is perhaps "the most demanding type of reflecting" (Hatton & Smith, 1995, p. 46) as it requires teachers to think about their practice while the class is still progressing. Although it is challenging, RinA provides teachers with invaluable benefits as it "enables them to optimize teaching on the spot" (An, Bakker, Ordanovski, Taconis, Paffen and Eggen, 2019, p. 1). Literature offers several studies focusing on teachers' RinA practices with different perspectives (An, et al., 2019; Burhan-Horasanlı & Ortaçtepe, 2016; Fagan, 2012; Ishino, 2018; Li, 2020; Tsang, 2004). For instance, finding RinA "challenging, demanding extra thinking in teachers' already intensive routines", An, et al. (2019, p. 1) conducts a study investigating how technology could possibly enhance the RinA processes. An, et al. (2019) lists three benefits of RinA: conforming ongoing performance, making new sense of ongoing performance, and modifying upcoming actions. The RinA activities in the current study confirmed the third category in that list as the participants reflected in action mostly when they detected a problematic area and wanted to prevent it as in the cases of Abur, Anni, and Rafi (see 4.2.2.1). This process is called as problem avoidance by John (2000). Allwright (2003), in turn, suggests the term of puzzlement rather than problem as the latter one has negative connotations (see 2.4.2.4).

In the comprehensive book chapter, Li (2020) explores why and how teachers make interactive decisions, in other words, reflect in action and alter their lesson plans. Collecting data from four in-service teachers, Li (2020) categorises the basis for the RinA activities into four groups. In this regard, Li (2020) finds out that teachers alter their lessons in the case of facing an unexpected situation, or puzzlement as some scholars prefer (Allwright, 2003; Finlay, 2008; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Schön, 1983) and because of insufficient knowledge, the nature of the activities and emerging learning opportunities. Although the first reason for RinA, reacting to unexpected situations, emerged in the current study as well, the other reasons were either vague or did not exist. However, the current study indicates that the other reason for teachers to diverge from their lesson plan and reflect in action could be poor planning.

When it comes to RonA, a vast quantity of studies investigating this type of reflection can be found in the literature (see 2.4.3, 2.4.4, and 2.4.5). To illustrate, in his relatively comprehensive literature survey, Farrell (2016) analyses 116 studies conducted in the TESOL field with the perspective of engaging teachers in reflective practice. Most of these studies had a RonA element despite having different foci. Some studies focused on teacher identity (Kong, 2014; Lim, 2011; Trent, 2010), some others investigated teacher beliefs and assumptions about teaching and learning (Lin et al., 2012; Polat, 2010). Yet, some others investigated the efficiency of different tools to promote reflection (Abednia et al., 2013; Akcan, 2010), or treated reflection as a tool for professional development (Bai, 2014; Conway & Denny, 2013). In the current study, it was clear that the participating teachers mostly reflected on their practices to

heighten their professional skills and motivate their students better. Therefore, it can be suggested that the RonA activities in this study were regarded as a tool for professional development rather than a tool to promote reflection.

Literature suggests several tools that promote reflection. Among the studies with a RonA focus, Abednia et al. (2013) explored the advantages and challenges of keeping a reflective journal with the participation of six in-service teachers. Abednia et al. (2013) listed several advantages of keeping a journal such as developing reflection and reasoning skills, making new meaning of the incidents, and increasing self-awareness. The challenges identified by Abednia et al. (2013, p. 509), on the other hand, were "[C]onflict between transmission-oriented schooling and a reflective task" and "thorough preparation required for writing journals". The current study required the participants to keep a reflective journal; however, the study did not specifically focus on the tools that promoted reflection. Therefore, no data has been found regarding the benefits and drawbacks of keeping reflective journals although it was assumed that keeping a journal would enhance the participants' awareness regarding their actions and help keep track of their developments (see 3.3.4.1).

Even though the focus was not to identify tools to promote reflection, on one occasion, one of the participants, namely Rafi, stated that watching himself on video increased his self-awareness towards his L1 usage (see 4.2.3.1). Nevertheless, this incident was observed in only one participant and at one time. Therefore, it is difficult to generalise this finding based on the current study. However, this unintended finding is, indeed, in line with the current literature suggesting that video-recording of teachers can guide them to better plan their upcoming lessons and heighten the practitioners' self-awareness helping them identify their strengths and weaknesses, in other words, promote critical self-examination (Baecher et al., 2013, 2014; Baecher & McCormack, 2015; Kourieos, 2016; Mercado & Baecher, 2014; Payant, 2014; Pellegrino & Gerber, 2012; Yaffe, 2010).

Although the existing literature lists several benefits of self-observations, this study accords with Baecher et al.'s (2013, p. 196) suggestion regarding "[F]urther investigation is needed into the processes invoked when video is introduced into preparation activities, [and] how it may influence self-evaluation". Moreover, the current study agrees Baecher et al. (2013, p. 195) in terms of "the ease, affordability, and accessibility of digital video records of teaching will continue to make video an increasingly essential educational tool". However, this study suggests that more promotion of video-recordings and self-observation is needed especially among the early career teachers as self-observation may reduce the tension of being observed by a supervisor or mentor.

As stated earlier (see 2.1.2 and 4.2.4), RfA meant teachers' reflecting on their previous experiences and taking lessons from them. In light of those experiences and lessons, being prepared for

a similar incident that has happened in the past is considered as a RfA activity. In other words, RfA means "how do I react if this situation reoccurs?". In this regard, the current literature suggests that the number of the studies investigating what the teachers do with information that they have from RbA, RinA, and RonA activities are few.

Naming the process as reflection-beyond-action, Edwards (2017, p. 9), who deals with the concept from the health sciences perspective, suggests that RfA encourages practitioners "to make links between their past and present experiences, using these to inform future experiences". In this regard, the current study's findings suggest that based on their previous teaching experiences, Abur, Anni, Rafi, and Sri reflected on student motivation while Abur, Nisa, and Rafi reflected on technical skills such as classroom management, methodological choices and the sequence of the lesson plan and the classroom layout. These results partly support evidence from previous studies (Burhan-Horasanlı & Ortaçtepe, 2016; Otto, 2017). For instance, Otto (2017) conducts a self-study and identifies the teaching areas to be improved as time management, better methodological choices and the set-up of the classroom. While all these aspects were visible in the current study, Otto's (2017) study did not provide any evidence regarding reflecting for the sequencing of the activities in the lesson plan.

Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016), in turn, conducted a study among nine masters-level TESOL students the majority of whom worked as a teacher at the same time. Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016) also noted that their participants' RfA activities mostly involved the participants' enhancing their teaching practices and improving their students' learning experiences. While the reflections on classroom layout were not as visible in Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe's (2016) study as it was in the current and Otto's (2017) study, the other result that Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016) found was participants contributing to their own institutions. However, this result was not present in the current study.

Although the existing literature does not offer many studies regarding the RfA activities especially in the TESOL field, the current study's findings suggest that this type of reflection is too crucial to neglect. The present study highlights that it is vital for teachers to reflect for their future practices to be prepared in case they face a similar situation in the future. In other words, although being aware of what might happen (RbA), what is happening (RinA), and what happened (RonA) in the class is important, how to react in the case of reoccurrence of a similar issue (RfA) would grant practitioners added agency. As Edwards also (2017, p. 9) suggests through RfA, "[T]he past and present become accessible to actions in the future, making the links between them more explicit and less tacit".

One of the most interesting findings of the current study is that the participants' reflection activities were not in the form of a linear continuum. In other words, the participants' reflections did

not follow the pattern of reflecting -before, -in, -on, and -for action all the time. In fact, there were times when the lines were not very clear indicating where one type of reflection activity finished, and another type started. Instead, the findings presented several examples of intersecting reflection activities (see 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.2.3 and 4.2.4). This finding is worth noting as most of the studies investigating the types of reflections treat them as discrete units (Burhan-Horasanlı & Ortaçtepe, 2016; Li, 2020; Nguyen, 2017; Otto, 2017). However, the current study argues that it is difficult to draw clear lines among the types of reflections; rather, they are all interconnected as shown in the diagram below (see Figure 9).

Figure 9.

Interconnected reflection types
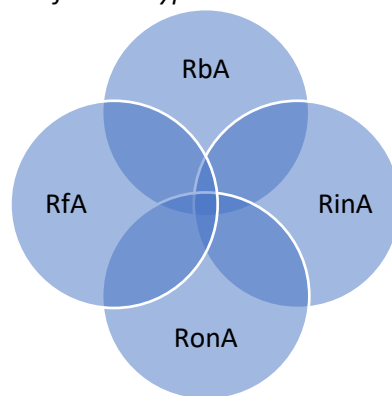
Moving from the type to the level of reflections, the findings of the current study suggested that the level of the participants' reflections varied. Larrivee's (2008) typology (see 2.1.2) was applied to classify the participants' reflections. In this regard, it was seen that examples could be found for all stages, namely, pre-reflection, surface reflection, pedagogical, and critical reflection. As an example of pre-reflection level, on one occasion, one of the participants could not explain what really happened during a critical incident (see 4.2.3.1) and acted automatically. In that incident, one of Nisa's students jumped over the desk. Without investigating how or why the student acted in that way, Nisa reacted without giving much thought to the reasons and consequences of the incident and asked the student not to do it again. This type of reflection can be classified as pre-reflection according to Larrivee's (2008) typology. It is not surprising to see inexperienced teachers acting impulsively and using their tacit knowledge in the case of an unexpected situation. This finding was also reported by several other studies (Ann et al., 2018; Campoy, 2010). For example, Campoy (2010) describes one of the pre-service teachers' reflection at a pre-reflection level. In Campoy's example (2010, p. 18), the pre-service teacher automatically accepts the methods that are used by the observed supervisor "without naming the underlying reasons for the selection of those practices and without reference to theory, research, best practices or even the pre-service teacher's own classroom experience". Campoy (2010) concludes that

inexperienced teachers need more field experience in order to have more informed choices and reactions.

When teachers have more experience in the field and support their beliefs and choices with their previous experiences and analyse their teaching methods in order to reach the predefined goals, their reflections are regarded as surface level (see 2.1.2). Surface level reflections were the most frequently observed ones as the participating teachers were mostly product-oriented and focused on "strategies and methods used to reach predetermined goals" (Larrivee, 2008, p. 342). Ina's reflection can be a perfect example for the surface level reflection (see 4.2.2.3). She justified her reason to diverge from her original lesson plan as she only thought about finding a way to reach her predetermined target; therefore, she changed her lesson delivery method. In that case, Ina focused on the "how" question, in other words, she prioritised how she could reach her target and deliver the lesson in a way that the students could understand better. However, Hanks and Dikilitaş (2018, p. 33) state that "puzzling is an essential step which is too often overlooked in the rush to action". Therefore, Hanks and Dikilitaş (2018) encourage teachers to have an exploratory approach to their practice and ask "why (such as why is this method not working? Why are the students struggling in comprehending?)" rather than the *how* question.

Although the surface level was the most frequent reflection in this study, the current literature has not come to a consensus on whether this type of reflection is the most common or not. Winchester and Winchester (2011) suggest that all their participants (six faculty members working at a university college level in the UK) engage in surface level reflection. However, in their quantitative study, Kheirzadeh and Sistani (2018) find out that surface level score the lowest. They also conducted three classroom observations to investigate whether there was a discrepancy between what the participants stated in the survey and what they practised. They concluded that the classroom observation data was consistent with the survey data. However, the reason for surface level reflection to score the lowest might be because the researchers applied an intervention, and the participants were encouraged to build knowledge in an environment where they could conduct a self-directed inquiry and discuss their practices in an online community. Similarly, another study (Tan et al., 2011) suggests that contrary to the researchers' expectation, surface level is the lowest reflected level among the data collected from 137 online blog entries with the participation of 26 pre-service teachers. However, there might be several reasons for that. To illustrate, Tan et al. (2011) conducted their study in an Iranian context where most teachers attend teacher training courses before they start to practise their profession. In those courses, Tan et al. (2011) state that the link between theory and practice is emphasised which might have affected the participants' reflection levels. Hence, this conclusion highlights the importance of evaluating the results of each research considering the context that it was conducted.

While the same study (Tan et al., 2011) shows that the reflections at the pedagogical level have the highest proportion, it is difficult to conclude the same result for the current study. Although the participants showed a high degree of concern about enhancing their students' learning experiences, their choices or beliefs were not particularly grounded in research or theory. They preferred to apply the trial-and-error method (see 4.1.2.1, 4.2.3.3, 4.2.4.1, and 4.2.4.3) instead of validating their decision with the existing research or theories. Ann et al., (2018, p. 10) also found a similar result and reported that the participants showed "a lack of linking of their actions to learning theories". As in Abur's deciding how much vocabulary to teach at a session (4.2.4.1), the current study suggested that the trial-and-error method was not always the most beneficial one.

When it comes to critical reflection, there were times where the participating teachers could not analyse "how personal beliefs and values, assumptions, family imprinting, and cultural conditioning may impact on students" (Larrivee, 2008, p. 348). An example of that could be Abur's not considering the cultural factors while planning a lesson (see 4.2.1.1). However, there were also times where the participating teachers acknowledged "the social and political consequences of one's own teaching" (Campoy, 2010, p. 17). The participants' being aware of the educational policies and implementing the curriculum could be an example of the political reasons and consequences of their teaching. Rafi's effort to encourage his students to take responsibility for their acts and preparing his students to real-life situations (see 4.2.2.1), in turn, can be associated with his being aware of the social consequences of his practice. Although the existing literature suggests that not all the practitioners reach the critical level (Ann et al., 2018), the current study confirmed that the participants reflected all levels of Larrive's (2008) typology. However, the efficiency and sustainability of the reflections are disputable in this study as on several occasions, it was observed that reflection did not necessarily mean a change in the participants' practice (see 4.2.3.1 and 4.2.4.3). That was, indeed, in line with Kiely and Davis' (2010, p. 291) discovery which suggests that although the process of teachers' reflection "is likely to have an impact on practice" it is difficult to claim that it "will [always] lead to improved practice".

The last aspect to be discussed in this sub-section is the content of the reflections. The existing literature suggests that inexperienced teachers are too busy with uncovering or constructing their identities (see 2.4.3 and 2.4.5); hence, the content of their reflections mostly focuses on their beliefs and assumptions (Mak, 2011; Payant, 2014). However, the findings of the current study indicated that the participants' reflections went beyond their self-image and identities. The findings of the current study suggested that the participating teachers' reflections included technical, affective, and cognitive domains. The technical domain includes teachers' reflecting on their methodological choices and classroom management issues while the affective domain denotes participants' own and their students'

feelings and student engagement issues. The cognitive domain, in turn, consists of participants' reflections on the linguistic factors such as vocabulary size and the skill of producing the language.

These results mostly reflect those of Chi (2010) who conducted a study with the participation of 12 in-service teachers whose experiences in the field vary between two to ten years. In Chi's (2010) study, the participants were provided with a modified version of Ho and Richards' (2000) framework as a guideline for their reflective journals. In this regard, Chi (2010) categorises the contents of the teacher reflections into four groups: questioning, classroom management, self-awareness, and instruction. By questioning, Chi (2010) means teachers' evaluating their teaching methods and materials. This aspect was referred as the technical domain in the current study. Chi (2010) notes that classroom management and teaching methods were one of the most frequently reflected on issues. This finding was in line with the current study as the participants mostly focused on technical skills and their teaching styles. In his study conducted among 43 pre-service EFL teachers, Yang (2009), in turn, found out that theories of teaching were the second most reflected on issue following self-awareness.

Chi (2010) includes students' feelings, engagement, motivation, attitudes, and student behaviour as aspects of classroom management. These can all be assigned to the affective domain. In addition to the aspects that Chi (2010) includes in the classroom management group, teachers' feelings are also considered within the affective domain in the current study, which ultimately leads to teachers' self-awareness. One example is Anni's reflection on her physiological condition (see 4.2.3.2) and being aware that her physiological and psychological condition may affect the student engagement, which, in turn, directly and indirectly, affects classroom management.

Although Yang (2009) did not refer to any findings regarding the participants' feelings, following the social constructivism and regarding the teacher as a whole, this study is in agreement with Pekrun's (2014) claim which advocates that emotions are too crucial to ignore in an educational setting. Moreover, this study supports the idea that "teaching embodies far more than the technical" (Klein, 2008, p. 111) as it involves emotions (Pekrun, 2014) and requires empathy and caring (Noddings, 2010) and imagination and observation (Miller, 2000). While Klein (2008) advocates that the inner world of teachers including their beliefs, emotions, hopes, and values should be acknowledged, Maaranen and Stenberg (2017, p. 710) believe that "this is perhaps the most important task of teacher education". Moreover, they take the argument further and claim that "[T]eacher education should not only acknowledge, but 'promote' the inner life of teachers" (Maaranen & Stenberg, 2017, p. 710).

By instruction, in turn, Chi (2010) refers to the strategies that the teachers apply, teachers' pedagogical knowledge and their language choice. This group can be associated with the cognitive domain. Although most of the reflections were empirical in nature, meaning that the participants

reflected on their previous learning and teaching experiences and ignored the theoretical and philosophical part of teaching, the findings of this study accord with Chi's (2010) study suggesting that teachers' reflections involved considerations regarding how to better help their students learn.

Naming the domains differently, Astika (2014) also found out that majority of the reflections were on personal and contextual domains (41% and 49% respectively). Astika (2010) refers to the feelings of the participants, personal and professional development as personal domains whereas the contextual domain is defined as teachers' being aware of their students' needs, abilities, and interests. Although these factors were visible in the current study, Astika's (2014) critical domain which refers to teachers' reflecting on ethical or social issues affecting teaching was not very apparent. Moreover, as Astika (2014) conducted his study among pre-service teachers, he also included an interpersonal domain which denoted the relationship between the pre-service teachers and their mentors. This domain was not applicable to the current study as the participating teachers did not have any mentors.

In conclusion, this section intended to discuss the findings of the second research question which investigated the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' engagement in reflective practice. In this regard, the issue was handled under three main themes: type, level, and content of the reflections. It was observed that the participating teachers engaged in reflective practice through reflecting -before, -in, -on, and -for their actions. The findings suggested that RonA activities were the most frequent type of reflection not only in the current study but also in the existing literature. The study also found that the studies investigating teachers' RfA activities were scarce although this type of reflection offers various insights to the teachers' practices. Hence, more studies are needed exploring and encouraging teachers to reflect for their practices. The study also highlighted that it is difficult to treat the types of reflection separately as they are all interconnected.

When it comes to the level of reflections, it was stated that Larrivee's (2008) classification was applied to categorise the participants' level of reflections. In this regard, the current study presented examples from all levels, namely, pre-reflection, surface, pedagogical, and critical reflection levels. Equally, the study made clear that there is disagreement in the literature on the most common level of reflection. In this regard, several conflicts between the current study's results and the existing literature were discussed. It was also suggested that the efficiency and sustainability of the reflections were as important as the levels.

Finally, the content of the reflections was also discussed. Contrary to the existing literature's claim regarding inexperienced teachers focusing too much on their identity constructions, the current study suggested that most of the participants' reflections were in the technical, cognitive, and affective domains. In this sense, the content of the participants' reflections included external factors such as

student engagement and level, classroom management and methodological choices as well as internal factors such as the teachers' own identity and beliefs.

5.3 Teacher reflections through Farrell's (2015) framework

The third research question of the current study explored the participants' reflections through Farrell's (2015) framework, presented in Section 2.4.1.1. In this regard, the participants' reflections on their philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and beyond practice levels are discussed in the current section. The participating teachers provided a large set of complex data. Hence, in order to present the data in a clear way, this section is divided into five subsections. The first subsection, the discussion of the philosophy level, regards the teacher as a whole (see 2.4.1.1 and 4.3.1) and examines their reflections through their personal identities which then may have shaped their professional identities. The second subsection, the discussion of the principles level, in turn, analyses and discusses teacher assumptions, beliefs, and conceptions. Thirdly, the theory level discussion revolves around the participants' reflections on their espoused theories and theories in use. Following the theory level, on the practice level, the participants' informed choices and negotiation styles are examined from the perspective of the curriculum and delivery method. Finally, education policies and social issues are discussed in terms of beyond practice level reflections.

5.3.1 Discussion on the philosophy level

Farrell (2017, p. 38) presents a holistic view of teachers, each individual as a teacher-as-person; therefore, he advocates that "the person (as teacher) cannot be separated from the act of teaching". In other words, who teachers are underpins how they teach, as Farrell (2017) suggests. Thus, it was crucial to understand the participants' personal histories; hence, the study explored the participants' reflections on the philosophy level of Farrell's (2015) framework (see 2.4.1.1.). In this regard, the findings of the study showed that on the philosophy level, the participants reflected on their personal identities which then influenced their professional identities. The current study suggests that the participants' reflections on their identities consisted of a wide spectrum. Those reflections included the participants' previous learning and teaching experiences, ethnicity, and religion which then affected their perceived roles in education which were mainly as role-models (see 4.3.1). Although the participants' reflections covered a broad range of topics, it was also apparent that some issues which the existing literature suggests as significant such as the participants' being non-natives and their language proficiency level did not emerge in the current study.

The current literature offers several studies investigating English language teachers' or learners' philosophy of practice; however, they focus on different perspectives. For example, Chik and Breidbach's (2011) study explores the participants' language learning histories to investigate how they form their

professional identities. The influence of previous learning experiences has long been investigated and found to be one of the factors that shapes teachers' identities (Ahmad, 2019; Borg, 2004; Lortie, 1975; Moodie, 2016). The findings of this study also confirm that not only teachers' prior learning but also their teaching experiences influence their practices which is not a surprising finding (Kini & Podolsky, 2016; Sun, Strobel, & Newby, 2017). At this point, it is important to note that Crandall (2000, p. 35) claims that "reflection on practice can help teachers move from a philosophy of teaching and learning" developed as a learner and helps them construct their emerging teacher identities. Therefore, the current study supports Crandall's (2000, p. 35) suggestion in terms of "conscious reflection (is needed) upon those experiences".

Ethnicity and religion, in turn, were two other factors that seemingly shaped the participants' identity and their practices. Both factors featured in the current study even though the participants did not directly reflect on them as in the cases of Abur, Anni, and Nisa (see 4.3.1). The vague reflections of the participants' ethnic and religious identities are echoed within the existing literature. Yilmaz and Ilhan (2017) conducted a study in the form of pairwise comparison, which is a data analysis method comparing entities in pairs to determine whether the entities are significantly different from each other (Salkind, 2010). In their study, Yilmaz and Ilhan (2017) identify six levels of teacher identities: moral, professional, political, ethnic, religious, and gender identity respectively. As can be seen, ethnic and religious identities are ranked as the fourth and fifth in the hierarchy of teacher identities. As in the current study, this finding suggests that Yilmaz and Ilhan's (2017) participants favoured the other identities to their ethnic and religious identities.

In the same study (Yilmaz & Ilhan, 2017), moral identity has the most priority. The findings of the current study suggest that the participating teachers perceived their roles in education as role-models especially in terms of moral education. Hence, the findings indicate that the participating teachers recognised displaying and instilling moral values as one of their responsibilities. This finding accords with Yilmaz and Ilhan's (2017, p. 8) study as their participants were professed to be "individuals considering it important to display moral behaviours" and prioritise their moral identities to the other types of identities as listed above. However, further research is needed regarding how teachers see their role in moral education to be able to draw a more assertive conclusion as that issue has not received the attention it deserves (Akbari & Tajik, 2012; Amini et al., 2020; Johnston, 2003).

The findings of the current study suggest that although the participants' reflections on their philosophy level included a broad range of topics, there were, indeed, several aspects that were not visible within this data set. To illustrate, their being non-native speakers and their own language proficiency level were two of those undervalued issues. There might be several reasons for the participants not reflecting on those topics. For instance, as they teach in an EFL context, they might have

assumed that most of the teachers are non-native. Therefore, they may not have found it is worth mentioning. When it comes to their language proficiency level, as teachers, they might not have been ready to criticise themselves in public as Marzuki (2013) suggests (see 1.2.2). However, Lim (2011), investigating 90 Korean pre-service EFL teachers' professional identity formation, established that the participants' non-native speaker identities and insecurity about their language proficiency level are closely linked to their perceived ability in teaching. The literature offers a great number of studies pointing out the importance of investigating teachers' non-native identities (Aneja, 2016; Bernat, 2008; Chung, 2014; Reis, 2011) and their language proficiency levels (Elder & Kim, 2013; Kong, 2014; Richards, Conway, Roskvist, & Harvey, 2013) and how those factors impact their practices. This study, in turn, having a broader perspective, suggests that it is crucial to see the teacher as a whole person and explore their identities holistically rather than having a reductionist approach. This is based on the view that a reductionist approach, as opposed to the holistic one, focuses on discrete units of their identities (Schmidt, 2019) and presents a rather limited picture of the phenomenon.

5.3.2 Discussion on the principles level

The previous subsection discussed the participants' reflections on their philosophy level. The current subsection, in turn, focuses on the principles level of Farrell's (2015) framework (see 2.4.1.1) and examines the participating teachers' assumptions, beliefs, and conceptions. In this regard, the participants' reflections on their assumptions were analysed through teacher maxims which showed that they mostly focused on the maxim of approachability, efficiency, and order (see 4.3.2.1). When it comes to their beliefs, the participants reflected on their beliefs regarding a good teacher, a learner, and teaching-learning approach (see 4.3.2.2). Last but not least, the participants' reflections on their conceptions of language teaching were categorised into three groups: science/research, theory/philosophy, and art/craft conception (see 4.3.2.3).

Although the existing literature suggests several teacher maxims such as the maxim of accuracy which refers to teachers' emphasising accurate learner output or the maxim of planning (Richards, 1996), the findings of the current study showed that the participants' assumptions mostly included the maxim of approachability (Abur), efficiency (Abur, Rafi, and Sri), and order (Nisa). In this respect, it was established that the participants of this study held the assumptions that being an approachable and friendly teacher was important to create a safe environment for the teaching-learning activities (see 4.3.2.1).

The assumption of approachability is indeed widely held among the EFL teachers. For instance, in their study, Farrell and Kennedy (2018) report the principle of approachability as one of their participants' assumptions. Similarly, Shooshtari, Razavipour, and Takrimi (2019) conducted a study

among pre-service teachers and found out that the participants are constantly concerned about their students' feelings and search for ways to be loved by their students. Although Shooshtari et al. (2019) name that maxim as the affective dimension of teaching, they are ostensibly referring to teachers' being approachable so that the students would feel comfortable to approach them.

Likewise, Prashanti and Ramnarayan (2020, p. 550) claim that "the most important aspect in a safe and positive learning environment is the student-teacher rapport". Therefore, teachers are advised to be approachable to their students and not underestimate the role of their relationship with them. In that way, Prashanti and Ramnarayan's (2020) claim that students will express their lack of understanding to their teachers freely. However, Prashanti and Ramnarayan (2020) do not provide an in-depth guideline regarding how to be approachable and what the possible effects would be of being approachable. Therefore, although the existing literature along with the current study calls on teachers to build a rapport with their students and be approachable, additional studies are needed to develop a full picture of how teacher approachability affects the teaching-learning outcomes.

The maxim of efficiency refers to teachers' applying any pedagogical tools to use the class time efficiently (see 4.3.2.1). In this regard, the current study's participants' reflections mostly focused on the L1 usage as in the case of Rafi (see 4.3.2.1). The findings suggested that the participants legitimated the L1 usage based on their efficiency assumption; however, their attitudes regarding the L1 usage varied. On the one hand, some of the participants held a positive attitude towards using the L1 in a foreign language classroom and assumed that it helped to use the class time efficiently and deliver the content in a clearer way. On the other hand, some other participants felt guilty about not using English more often (see 4.3.2.1).

During the past few decades, the position of the L1 usage in foreign language classes has received serious scholarly attention (Cook, 1997, 2001; Muñoz, 2008; Yavuz, 2012). However, considering the globalising world and the increase in multilingual societies, the current debates suggest that the discussions have moved from whether or not to use L1 in foreign language classes to how to integrate it effectively so that the teaching-learning process could benefit more (Canagarajah, 2005; Hall & Cook, 2012; Levine, 2014; Miri et al., 2017). In this regard, the latest studies provide several examples regarding teachers' justifying their use of L1 based on the maxim of efficiency, which accords with the findings of the current study (Erk, 2017; Kovacic & Kirinic, 2011; Shimizu, 2006).

The last assumption that the participants of the current study held turned out to be the maxim of order (see 4.3.2.1). In particular, one participant, Nisa, presumed that one of the main roles and responsibilities of a teacher was to manage the classroom well. She strongly held the assumption of keeping the classroom under control in order to conduct an efficient lesson. This finding accords with

the earlier findings. As an example, Kandel (2018) conducted a study with the participation of 10 teachers to investigate their perceptions towards the maxim of order. Kandel (2018, p. 47) found that most of the participants favour the maxim of order; moreover, they "preferred giving order to the students to keep peaceful and calm environment in their classes".

Kandel (2018) argues that teachers who are in favour of the maxim of order are not student-centred, tend not to conduct group or pair works and have a formal relationship with their students. Therefore, they are the authorities in the classrooms. However, the findings of this study contradict that claim in one respect, that of group and pair works were observed in Nisa's classes. Moreover, although Nisa strongly believed that the teacher was the manager of the classroom; therefore, order in the classroom was crucial, her relationship with her students was beyond a formal teacher-student relationship (see 4.1.3.2). She extended her role and relationship with her students to a parent-child relationship. Furthermore, while literature offers several authority types (see 4.3.1), labelling teachers who adhere the maxim of order with "authoritative power" (Kandel, 2018, p. 47) requires more than one study. Hence, further research is needed to investigate the relationship between the maxim of order and different authority types.

On the principles level, besides assumptions, the participants of the current study reflected on their beliefs as well. These reflections included their beliefs regarding a good teacher, a learner, and teaching-learning approach (see 4.3.2.2). The participating teachers assigned several roles to a good teacher. These roles include their having professional skills such as pedagogical content knowledge, classroom management skills and being lifelong learners, and soft skills such as being a role-model to their students especially in terms of moral education and helping them build life skills such as taking risks. The findings suggest that the participants valued personal skills slightly more than professional skills.

The concept of *a good teacher* or *an ideal teacher* as some scholars would refer (Altindag & Korkmaz, 2017; Arnon & Reichel, 2007; Kapranov, 2020; Kozikoglu, 2017) is a popular topic of investigation. In their study with the participation of 89 pre-service and in-service teachers, Arnon and Reichel (2007) concluded that personality is the most attributed quality of the ideal teacher. Similarly, Beishuizen, Hof, Van Putten, Bouwmeester, and Asscher (2001) group the characteristic features of a good teacher in two main categories: personality and ability aspects. Şahin and Cokadar (2009), in turn, identified three major themes: personal characteristics, affective roles, and professional roles in teaching. Along with the current project, all these studies suggest that the personal aspect of a teacher is not less important than the professional skills. In this regard, characteristic features that are attributed to a good teacher in the present literature and the current study revolved around being caring, communicative, approachable, and open-minded. However, it is also crucial to highlight that although

the existing knowledge is expansive regarding the beliefs of pre-service and in-service teachers about a good teacher, the findings are context-dependent (Bullock, 2015; Murphy et al., 2004). Therefore, before expanding the findings to another context, a careful consideration and investigation is needed.

Another point worth noting is that the participating teachers, specifically Rafi, in the current study believed that one of the good teachers' role is to shape the future and prepare their students for real-life situations. However, the teacher as an agent of socialising has not been a primary concern of the abovementioned studies' participants (Arnon & Reichel, 2007; Beishuizen et al., 2001; Bullock, 2015; Şahin & Cokadar, 2009). Devine, Fahie, and McGillicuddy (2013) conducted a mixed-method study collecting questionnaire data from 126 teachers and semi-structured interview data from 73 teachers after observing their classes. Devine et al. (2013) found out that the social and moral dimension of teaching rank as the second most important characteristic features of good teachers following being a life-long learner. Ciascai and Vlad (2014), in turn, investigated the concept of ideal teacher behaviours from the students' perspective. As a result of their study, Ciascai and Vlad (2014, p. 57) reported that students appreciated the teachers who worked "on the real life applications of the notions". Therefore, it can be suggested that the current study's participants' attributing a social and moral role to a teacher who prepares their students for real-life situations accord with the existing literature.

When it comes to the beliefs about learner, the present study indicates that the participants' stated beliefs about the role of a learner is as a digital native, active knowledge constructor, and future workforce participant. All those roles attributed to the learners can be found in the existing literature. As an example, recently, students' being digital native has attracted scholarly attention (Bennett et al., 2008; Margaryan et al., 2011; Prensky, 2001). Kennedy, Judd, Churchward, Gray, and Krause (2008, p. 108) conducted a critical study and explored whether the participating students were "really digital natives". Kennedy et al. (2008, p. 117) found out that although most of the participants confirmed that they used well-established technologies such as mobile phones, computers, and emails, "the patterns of access to, use of and preference for a range of other technologies show considerable variation". Therefore, they invited more studies to be conducted and suggested that researchers take into consideration the context and the specific circumstances. Although one of the current study's participants referred to all students as digital natives, following Kennedy et al.'s (2008) advice, it is crucial to take into account not only the students' background and preferences regarding educational technology usage but also the feasibility of the resources.

Even though the roles that the current study's participants attributed to the learners can be found in the existing literature, most of the studies dealt with only a few roles of the students. For instance, Bridger (2007) discusses how to transform passive students to active learners in her in-depth case study. Tabulawa (2004) argues that classrooms are places for co-construction of knowledge

between the teacher and students. Chang and Quintana (2006) are also convinced that students are active knowledge constructors rather than passive recipients of knowledge. Jackson, Lower, and Rudman (2016) and Morgan, Campbell, Sargeant, and Reidlinger (2019), in turn, focus on the students' role in society and designate the learners the role of future workforce participants. However, it is vital to note that similar to teachers, learners need to be seen as a whole and learner identity and the roles designated to them need to be investigated in a holistic way rather than applying a reductionist approach.

The last belief that emerged from the participants' principles was about the teaching-learning approach. The participating teachers' beliefs regarding the teaching-learning approach are divided into two: teacher-centred and student-centred learning approach. The present literature suggests that teachers' pedagogical beliefs have been widely discussed from different perspectives. Some studies investigate the matches or mismatches between the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and practices (Borg, 2003; du Plessis, 2016; Mambwe, 2019) and found out that teachers' espoused beliefs do not always match with their enacted beliefs. Some others explain why today's education system needs more learner-centred classes (Brown, 2003; Premawardhena, 2018; Sinadinović, Mijomanović, & Aleksić-Hajduković, 2019) justifying this as "the growing need to empower the language learner" (Sinadinović et al., 2019, p. 297) and to meet the twenty-first century students' increasing diverse needs (Brown, 2003).

Still, some other studies with a more recent and holistic perspective invite teachers to transform their beliefs and practices from learner-centred to learning-centred education which embraces the idea of applying any pedagogical tools and approaches to maximise student learning (Bremner, 2019; Brinkmann, 2019; O'Sullivan, 2004). While the existing literature encourages learner and learning centred approaches to the teaching and learning process, it was disappointing that the current study's participants held traditional pedagogical beliefs. However, that was an unsurprising finding considering that the participating teachers mostly benefited from an informal community of practices rather than research-based, formal professional development opportunities (see 4.2.1.1, 4.2.4.1, and 4.2.4.3) which would help them recognise the current discussion in the field.

Conceptions about language teaching were the last theme that emerged from the current study's participants' reflections on their principles level. The existing literature suggests several categorisations for teacher conceptions. To illustrate, Zahorik (1986) categorises teacher conceptions about good teaching into three: science/research conceptions, theory/philosophy conceptions, and art/craft conceptions (see 4.3.2.3). Freeman and Richards (1993) build on Zahorik's classification and suggest scientifically-based, theory- and values-based, and art/craft conceptions of teaching. Wallace (1991), in turn, suggests three teaching models: the craft, applied science, and reflective model.

Although most of the recent studies take Wallace's (1991) categorisation as a base (Hordern & Tatto, 2018; Winchester & Winchester, 2011), the present study's participants' reflections are mostly aligned with Zahorik's (1986) categorisation as listed above.

The findings of this study illustrated examples of each category that Zahorik (1986) suggests. An interesting finding of the current study is that although conceptions are stronger than assumptions and beliefs, they are not necessarily unchangeable. The data indicates that the same teacher might have different conceptions of language teaching in the case of different contexts as in the case of Abur (see 4.3.2.3). As interesting as it may be, this finding is not new. The examples of this finding can be seen even in very early studies. Samuelowicz and Bain (1992, p. 93) suggest that "teaching conceptions are context-dependent". Likewise, more recent studies (Nguyen, 2016; Tarone & Allwright, 2005) embrace more socio-constructivist views and suggest that teachers may negotiate their conceptions and teaching styles depending on their teaching contexts, learner levels, needs and abilities (Tarone & Allwright, 2005).

5.3.3 Discussion on the theory level

Theory is the next stage of Farrell's (2015) framework. The present literature suggests that there might be a mismatch between espoused theories, which refers to what teachers believe they do, and the theories in use (see 4.2.1.1), in other words, what teachers actually do (Argyris & Schön, 1974; Kaymakamoglu, 2018; Madsen et al., 2018). In this respect, the findings of the current study accord with the existing literature. The data analysis showed that all the participants were aware that the 2013 Curriculum required them to use a scientific approach to teaching and make the classes more student-centred (see 1.2.1.1 and 4.3.3). However, the methods that the participants used varied. To illustrate, it was observed that Ina and Sri conducted most of their classes as teacher-centred using the Grammar Translation Method. The participants admitted that they applied the method that they were most familiar with. This finding was, indeed, in line with the current literature. Waks (2020, p. 71), as an example, claims that "[T]heories in use are habits that function spontaneously and with confidence". Waks (2020) suggests three ways for teachers to apprehend their tacit practices and reconstruct more informed practices: reflection, dialogue with their colleagues, and research.

Another interesting finding of the current study was that of six participants, only two, namely Sri and Rafi (see 4.3.3), explicitly reflected on their theories. The present literature highlights the importance of teachers' reflecting on their theories in order to have more informed choices regarding their practices and develop themselves professionally (Cirocki & Farrell, 2017; Farrell, 2017; Wyatt, 2010). As an example, Wyatt (2010) who holds a constructivist view in language teacher education conducted a longitudinal case study. As a finding of his study, Wyatt (2010) established that his

participant could draw on her "public as well as personal theories, adapting materials, finding new ideas to experiment with in her classroom" through reflective practice. Therefore, Wyatt (2010, p. 256) strongly encourages teachers to reflect on their theories.

Although teachers' reflecting on the theoretical influence on their teaching is highly recommended (Cirocki & Farrell, 2017; Farrell, 2017; Sharil & Majid, 2010; Wyatt, 2010), Kiely and Davis (2010) warn that improvements in overall practice may not be achieved through focusing only on a theory level. Practitioners are encouraged to undertake a more holistic reflection (Cirocki & Farrell, 2019; Farrell, 2015, 2016b, 2017). Therefore, the discussion continues with the current study's participants' reflections on their practice level.

5.3.4 Discussion on the practice level

At the practice level, although the discussion could also have focused on the participants' RbA, RinA, RonA, and RfA, as those topics are covered in the previous section (see 5.2), the current subsection handles the issue from the perspective of the factors that influenced the participants' choices during their practice. The findings indicated that the participants' reflections at this level fell into two main themes: curriculum and delivery methods.

Firstly, the curriculum was one of the most influential factors on the instructional choices of the participating teachers. Almost all the participants believed that they had no other option but follow the curriculum; therefore, the curriculum was the non-negotiable factor in their decision-making process. While the participants of the current study did not even consider adapting the curriculum let alone designing their own, the current literature suggests a shift in teacher agency from curriculum transmitter to curriculum developer (Bouckaert & Kools, 2018; Shawer, 2010). To illustrate, the findings of a recent empirical study conducted in the Netherlands by Bouckaert and Kools (2018) suggest that the participants of the study saw their roles as curriculum developers. Creating or adapting course materials, as well as assessing and improving the curriculum were some of the roles that the participants of Bouckaert and Kools (2018) designated for themselves. However, it is important to note here that the context of the study needs to be considered as well and that Bouckaert's and Kools' participants were educators working at a higher education institute.

The perceived role of teachers as curriculum developers empowers teachers in relation to producing or adapting their own curriculum in order to cater for their students' needs in their own contexts. However, it is important to consider whether teachers are provided with training, expert and external support, as well as opportunities for their role as curriculum developer (Chien, 2020). Therefore, it is crucial to note that teacher agency and their stated power to adapt or creat a curriculum

should be evaluated with reference to the context in which they teach (Priestley et al., 2012; Wallace & Priestley, 2017).

Secondly, delivery methods were the other theme that emerged from the participants' reflections on their practice level. While the participants assumed that they had no authority in relation to the curriculum, they believed that they could negotiate some parts of their lesson plans and decide how to deliver their lessons, and in which order as in the case of Ina (see 4.3.4.2). The findings suggested that the most significant reason for the participating teachers to negotiate their teaching methods was to increase or maintain student motivation. As "student motivation impacts student achievement" (Jones, 2019, p. 15), the participants' effort to encourage their students to be motivated in their classes was not surprising.

The data analysis suggested that the participants negotiated their delivery methods explicitly and implicitly. During explicit negotiations, it was observed that the participants of the current study mostly used the extrinsic motivation strategy. Throughout the literature, it is common to encounter a vast number of studies targeting student motivation. Some studies focus on intrinsic motivation; why and how to enhance it (Hassan, Hariri, & Khan, 2020; Shan, 2020). Some others investigated the effects of different tools to enhance extrinsic motivation; utilising internet (Gagić et al., 2019), rewarding students with badges (Dicheva et al., 2020), creating digital stories (Liu, Tai, & Liu, 2018). The current study's findings mostly accord with the previous research suggesting that increasing student motivation is possible through extrinsic motivation. However, it is also crucial to note that the type of the reward to be used is context-dependant and teachers need to know their students' needs to choose the most appropriate type of reward.

The existing literature also shows that having a high-context awareness is important during not only the explicit but also the implicit negotiation. To illustrate, Akbar (2016) conducts action research with the participation of 17 adult English learners in Japan. As a result of his study, Akbar (2016) is convinced that teachers' being aware of their students' background, interests and goals has a great impact on maintaining and increasing student motivation. The data analysis of the current study suggested that most of the participants had high context-awareness and negotiated some part of their lesson plans and delivery methods implicitly taking their students' needs and interests into consideration. Therefore, it seems clear that the findings of the current study accord with the previous studies.

5.3.5 Discussion on the beyond practice level

At the last stage of Farrell's (2015) framework (see 2.4.1.1), beyond practice level, the participating teachers' reflections involved educational policies and socio-cultural issues. In terms of the educational

policies theme, the national curriculum and moral education were the two topics that interested the participants the most (see 4.3.5.1). These two topics were interrelated as the participants associated the 2013 Curriculum with moral education. The 2013 Curriculum underpins 18 values to instil which are being religious, hardworking, patriotic, nationalist, honest, disciplined, creative, tolerant, democratic, independent, curious, peace-making, environmentally aware, socially aware, friendly, appreciative, responsible, and an avid reader. Schools and teachers are given authority to prioritise among the specified values as well as to add some other values (Qoyyimah, 2016).

The current study suggested that the participants put emphasis mostly on the values of being religious, patriotic, nationalist, disciplined, and responsible. Earlier studies conducted in the Indonesian context investigating the implementation of the 2013 Curriculum are aligned with this finding. To illustrate, in their small-scale qualitative research with the participation of two EFL teachers, Thoyyibah, Hartono and Bharati (2019, p. 263) discovered that "[T]he most frequent [values were] religiousness, confidence, discipline, hard work, responsibility, honesty, curiosity, cooperation and environmental care". Similarly, conducting a qualitative study, Muttaqin, Raharjo, and Masturi (2018) concluded that religiosity and nationalism were the predominant values that were instilled by their participants. Although, in their diagnostic study, Kurniasih, Utari, and Akhmadi (2018) agree that religiosity, morality, and nationalism are the most predominant values in the 2013 Curriculum, they are worried that the learning aspect of education has fallen behind the moral education. However, Kurniasih et al.'s (2018) claim has not been confirmed in the current study as the participating teachers' way of instilling moral values has not seemed to override the cognitive aspect of teaching practices.

When it comes to the sociocultural aspect of the participants' beyond practice level reflections, the current study's participants reflected on cultural and environmental issues (see 4.3.5.2). The notions of culture and education are inseparable as they have a two-way effect on each other (Masemann, 2003; Meşeci-Giorgetti, Campbell, & Arslan, 2017; Teise & Alexander, 2017). Teachers' being aware of the culture that they teach in is crucial as culture might impact the instructional practice. In this study's context, the impact of the culture on education was visible (see 4.3.5.2). On one occasion, one of the participants, namely Abur, justified the students' misbehaviour and classroom disruption from the cultural aspect (see 4.2.1.1). Although Abur brought a cultural aspect to his reflection, his reflection took place only after the incident occurrence. However, taking the culture into consideration during the lesson planning process could have increased the quality of the instructional practice and prevented the disruption.

Indeed, the current literature takes the argument one step further and claims that "[C]ulturally responsive education can strengthen student connectedness with schools" (Bazron, Osher, & Fleischman, 2005, p. 83). Therefore, culturally-aware teacher education programs are promoted (Brown,

2007; Ford & Kea, 2009; Montgomery, 2001). Hence, this study supports the idea of teachers being informed about the classrooms', schools', and the societies' culture that they practice in and encourages teachers to reflect before and for their action as well as reflecting in and on their practice considering the cultural factors.

The participants' reflections on the environmental issues, in turn, categorised into two groups: reflections on the physical conditions that the teaching takes place and the socio-economic conditions of the students. Most of the schooling time is spent in the classroom; therefore, proper attention needs to be given to the quality of the classrooms' physical conditions (Puteh et al., 2015). Several studies have confirmed that the physical conditions of the teaching-learning environment has an influence on the student achievement (Higgins et al., 2005; Puteh et al., 2015; Suleman & Hussain, 2014). Although the current study suggests that the participants reflected on the physical conditions such as temperature and classroom layout, as in the cultural aspect, those reflections took place only after the lesson and the participants did not pursue the incident nor suggest a solution for future practices. Therefore, even though those reflections were on the beyond practice level, they were descriptive in nature and did not lead to a change or better practice.

Similarly, the socio-economic conditions of their students were an area of focus for the participants of the current study (see 4.3.5.2). The findings of the current study suggest that the participants reflected on their students' backgrounds and social and socio-economic status in order to be aware of the individual differences as in the case of Sri (see 4.3.5.2). The existing literature suggests that knowing the students' socio-economic backgrounds (Butler & Le, 2018; Fernald et al., 2013; Kormos & Kiddle, 2013) and familial relationships (Egalite, 2016; Oloke, 2020) is crucial to understand them better and ultimately provide them with an optimal learning experience. Moreover, recent studies take the debate further and encourage a more holistic perspective on student-as-a-whole development (Darling-Hammond & Cook-Harvey, 2018; Schwarzer, 2009). By "a whole child approach", Darling-Hammond and Cook-Harvey (2018, p. 1) refer to "interrelationships among all areas of development" which includes access to social supports, health care and nutritious food, secure relationships, not only cognitive but also affective development to name a few. As indicated earlier, this study also supports the idea of having a holistic view rather than reductionistic towards the learner as well as the teacher and treating the learner as a whole.

One of the arguments arising from the findings of the current study is that reflecting on all stages of Farrell's (2015) framework is crucial to have a broad perspective about the teaching-learning learning process. However, even holistic reflection is not enough as long as it is followed by an action plan. Farrell (2017) argues that beyond practice level entails critical reflection as teachers are encouraged to explore and evaluate the social, political, and moral issues that influence the teaching-learning process.

However, this study presented several examples where the participants reflected on beyond practice level considering political and social issues; yet they could not go beyond describing or justifying the situation. This study supports the idea that "[T]he aim of critical reflection is not just understanding, but improving" (Valli, 1997, p. 78) the teaching-learning experiences and producing "actions for enhanced student learning, better education and a more just society for all students" (Mpofu & Maphalala, 2017, p. 9259).

Overall, this section attempted to discuss the findings of the third research question of the current study with regard to the existing literature. Farrell's (2015) framework for TESOL teachers (see 2.4.1.1) was taken as a frame of reference and the findings of the participants' reflections on their philosophy, principles, theory, practice and beyond practice level were discussed. The results suggest that the findings of the current study mostly accord with the previous research; however, there were times where conflicts were observed. Moreover, the results of the present research evoked interesting debates suggesting that a holistic reflection does not necessarily mean critical reflection. It was indicated that although describing and justifying the critical incidents were crucial, teachers need an action plan to enhance their upcoming practices. Therefore, a full cycle of reflection, in other words, RbA, RinA, RonA, and RfA is encouraged among the practitioners as also cogently suggested by Cirocki and Widodo (2019).

Conclusion

This chapter examined the main findings of the current study. The findings of each research questions were discussed respectively. The first section of the current chapter showed that the participating teachers' conceptualising of the term reflective practice mostly agreed with the existing literature, which was associated with a flashback activity. However, it was highlighted that reflective practice entails moving beyond merely a retrospective process and the most recent studies encourage teachers to see reflective practice's prospective and anticipatory aspects as well as the retrospective ones. Next, the participants' engagement in reflective practice was introduced into the discussion. While both supporting and contradicting arguments were discussed from the type, level, and content of the reflections, the most significant finding was established as being that all four types of reflection are interconnected. The last section of this chapter, in turn, discussed the participants' reflections through Farrell's (2015) framework (see 2.4.1.1). The participants' reflections on their philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and beyond practice level were discussed. A particularly interesting finding was identified at the beyond practice level. It was argued that although beyond practice level was supposed to entail critical reflection, the current study's participants' reflections on this level were mainly descriptive. The following chapter includes a summary of the study and the findings, as well as the contributions, limitations, and implications of the current project.

Chapter 6: Conclusions, Implications, and Limitations

The final chapter of this thesis presents a comprehensive summary of the current research project. The findings of the study revealed how the participants conceptualised and engaged in reflective practice. After presenting a summary of the key findings, the contributions of the current study are addressed in terms of theoretical/conceptual aspects. This chapter also presents the limitations of the current study along with several recommendations for further research. Finally, it ends with implications for theory, practice, and policy.

6. 1 Summary of the study

The current study was designed to investigate Indonesian novice EFL teachers' experiences with the concept of reflective practice. In an effort to fulfil this aim, this study explores how the participants defined the term, in what ways they engaged in reflective practice, and then describes how each participants' reflections are situated within Farrell's (2015) framework, which was presented in Chapter 2. Given these premises, the current thesis' research questions are framed as below:

RQ. 1) What is the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of reflective practice?

RQ. 2) How do the Indonesian novice EFL teachers engage in reflective practice?

RQ. 3) How are the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' reflections situated in Farrell's (2015) framework?

This study took a social constructivist perspective based on three primary reasons. First, this thesis aims to bring the participants' voices into the study; therefore, it adopts a qualitative approach and social constructivism embraces a qualitative research approach. To illustrate, social constructivist researchers tend to use open-ended questions as qualitative data collection tools allow researchers to examine how the participants construct meanings of the phenomena that are being investigated. Second, one of the aims of this study is to explore Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of the reflective practice concept. Social constructivist research paradigm supports the idea that there are multiple interpretations of an issue (Creswell, 2014); hence, searching for only one truth is not always applicable in human sciences. As stated in Chapter 3, the aim of this study is not to search for universal consent or objective reality; instead, this study is interested in how the participants have constructed and interpreted the concept. Finally, this study supports the idea that individuals' feelings as well as

their intellectual and cognitive engagement need to be valued and taken into consideration, which is in line with the social constructivist research paradigm. Hence, as the abovementioned features of social constructivism are compatible with the aims of the current study, it appears to be the most suitable research paradigm for this study.

A qualitative study was used on account of the nature of the current study. The participants of this study were six Indonesian English teachers whose experience varied from zero to three years. This research applied a convenience sampling method and recruited the participants from five different schools located in two different cities, namely Bandung and Cimahi, Indonesia. At the start of the data collection, each participant was informed about the aim and procedure of the study. Interviews with each participant were held in order not only to build rapport with the participants before observing their classes but also to explore how they conceptualised reflective practice, defined the purpose of it, and interpreted the characteristic features of reflective practitioners, which then answered the first research question. In an attempt to answer the second research question which was how they engaged in reflective practice, classroom observations and pre- and post-observation conferences, and reflective journals were used. Finally, to answer the third research question, all collected data was triangulated to analyse the participants' reflections in terms of Farrell's (2015) framework.

6.2 Summary of the findings

The current study has provided empirical evidence regarding novice EFL teachers' definitions and engagement in reflective practice. As an answer to the first research question, the results showed that the participants of the current study defined reflective practice from a retrospective aspect. The findings suggested that unlike what exploratory practice suggests (Allwright, 2003; Hanks, 2015, 2017; Hanks & Dikilitaş, 2018), all the participants regarded unexpected incidents as problems rather than puzzlements, and reflective practice was seen as a problem-solving strategy, as shown in Chapter 2 and Chapter 5. From the participants' point of view, reflective practice was defined as a cognitive process that the practitioners flashed back to and analysed their lessons with in order to inform their future classes. The findings suggested that the participants saw the purpose of reflective practice as a notion which helps learning from and through experience which then can further be associated with Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle. This is because Kolb's learning cycle also suggests that teachers improve their concrete experience through reflecting on their practice. The other purposes that emerged from the data analysis were understanding the students' inner world which includes their emotions and helping them to self-actualise, in other words, helping them to reach their life goals. Finally, the participants' perceptions regarding the characteristic features of reflective practitioners were categorised under two main groups: soft and hard skills. Their idea of soft skills included: role-modelling, open-mindedness,

being responsible, caring, collaborative, and communicative. In relation to hard skills, the participants prioritised classroom management skills and pedagogical content knowledge.

The second research question focused on engagement in reflective practice and the findings were organised into types, levels, and contents of reflection. The data showed that the participants engaged in all types of reflection, namely, reflection *before, in, on,* and *for* action. The most significant finding was that the reflections did not occur in a linear continuum; rather, they were mostly intersected and interconnected. When it came to the level of reflections, the findings suggested that the participants engaged in four levels, namely, pre-, surface, pedagogical, and critical reflections. It was noted that although the current literature does not come to an agreement regarding which level is the most common, surface reflection appeared to be the most frequently observed one in this study. The study also highlighted that the efficiency and sustainability of reflections were as important as the levels. Last but not least, the content of the participants' reflections fell into three domains: technical, affective, and cognitive. The reflections on the technical domain consisted of teachers' reflecting on their methodological choices and classroom management issues. The affective domain, in turn, included student engagement issues and the feelings of both the participants and their students while the cognitive domain denoted the participants' reflections on the linguistic factors including vocabulary size of the students and the skills of producing the language. The current literature argues that as inexperienced teachers are too busy to construct their identities, the content of their reflections mostly consists of identity construction. However, the findings of this study showed that the participants' reflections went beyond their self-image and included the technical, affective, and cognitive domains.

Lastly, this study investigated how the participating teachers' reflections were situated in Farrell's (2015) framework for TESOL teachers. The participants' reflections were analysed and discussed in terms of the levels of Farrell's (2015) framework, namely, philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and beyond practice levels. On the philosophy level, the participants' reflections included their previous learning and teaching experiences, ethnic and religious identities, and their role in education. The data analysis of this study revealed that the participants saw their role in education as role-models for students. On the principles level, in turn, the participants' reflections were analysed through their assumptions, beliefs, and conceptions regarding the teaching-learning process. When it comes to the theory level, this study confirmed the earlier studies in terms of the mismatch between teachers' espoused theories and theories in use. The participating teachers' reflections on their practice level were discussed through the curriculum and delivery methods. The discussion showed that this study's participants' point of views were outdated as they saw themselves as curriculum transmitters rather than curriculum developers or makers. Finally, while the findings of this study suggested that the participants involved in the beyond practice level of reflection through reflecting on educational policies

and socio-cultural issues, their reflections were mostly descriptive. Hence, one particular contradiction between this study's findings and the current literature was found. This striking finding of the current study was that not all the reflections at the beyond practice level entail critical reflection. This is in opposition to what Farrell (2017) suggests.

6.3 Contributions of the study

The current study has made several contributions to teacher professional development, specifically to the TESOL field. The present study claims to have contributed to the existing literature in teacher education and professional development field in terms of theoretical/conceptual aspect.

Theoretical/Conceptual contributions

This study poses three theoretical/conceptual contributions. The first is a better understanding of the term reflective practice. This study set out to explore how novice teachers defined the reflective practice term and how their reflections were situated in Farrell's (2015) framework for TESOL teachers. As presented in Chapter 2, most of the research relevant to the present study investigated how reflective practice is implemented or how it can be fostered among teachers or what the teachers' attitudes and levels of reflection are. This study, however, argues that in order to further investigate how the participants engaged in reflective practice, it was necessary to understand how they conceptualised the term. Therefore, one of the contributions of this study is to investigate how the participants define reflective practice. However, it needs to be noted that this study did not seek for a definition that one-fits-all; rather, this study recognises the contextual factors that might have shaped teachers' conceptualisation and implementation of reflective practice.

Secondly, this study also contributes to the literature in terms of better understanding the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' identity from the reflective practitioner aspect. The findings of this study showed that the participants' reflective practitioner identities were shaped by the social, religious, and political context that they live and work in. It was seen that the participants were aware of the reflective practice concept although they provided an outdated description of the term. Moreover, this study also showed that the participants engaged in four types of reflection, namely, reflection *before, in, on,* and *for* action activities.

The last theoretical/conceptual contribution of this study is that the current study contributes to the growing body of knowledge in terms of understanding of the relationship among the types of reflection. This study revealed that the pattern of reflections is not always on a linear continuum; rather, they are intersected as presented in Chapter 4. This means that the previous literature's presentation of the reflection types might lead a misunderstanding as if they occur only sequentially, in a linear

fashion. However, this study showed that on several occasions, types of reflections do not necessarily follow a hierarchy. Indeed, most of the reflections were intersected.

6.4 Limitations of the study and recommendations for further research

While this study has presented crucial information regarding how Indonesian novice EFL teachers conceptualise and engage in reflective practice, the results need to be interpreted cautiously and several limitations of the current study must be acknowledged. This study posed four limitations: generalisability, observation bias, social desirability bias, and researcher bias.

Generalisability

The current study applied a qualitative research method with the participation of a small number of Indonesian novice EFL teachers. Although a wider perspective was aimed at through incorporating five different schools, the nature of the qualitative approach made the study highly contextualised which reduced the current study's generalisability. Data was collected from six participants working at five different schools located in two different cities in the same region, West Java, in Indonesia. Therefore, although this study posed several theoretical/conceptual contributions to the existing literature, the findings of the current study should not be generalised to all teachers within the Indonesian context. However, it is crucial to note that despite being of limited applicability to the whole Indonesian context, this study is still important for the schools in West Java as it reveals that Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understandings of the term reflective practice are shaped by the social, religious, and political contexts that they are in. It is equally important to highlight that this study has a social constructivist perspective as stated in Chapter 3, and the aim is not to generalise the findings; rather, the study intended to investigate and explore the reflective practice concept in-depth. As Patton (2002, p. 267) suggests this study attempts to "offer perspective and encourage dialogue among perspectives rather than aiming at singular truth and linear prediction".

Although generalisability is restricted due to the nature of the study, this study considered the credibility, dependability, transferability, and confirmability of the study in order to establish trustworthiness as explained in Chapter 3. Hence, to increase credibility which refers to accurate description and interpretation of the data, several data collection tools were applied, and the participants' confirmation of their statements was sought. In order to reinforce dependability which shows that the researcher did not invent or misinterpret the data (Carcary, 2009), transparency is important. Hence, an audit trail which presents the main steps of the study is used (Koch, 2006). In this regard, the participants' profile and data collection and analysis processes were presented in Chapter 3 in-depth. When it comes to transferability, as also Mertens (2010) argues, it is the researcher's responsibility to provide a detailed description of the case so that the transferability of the study can be

judged by the reader. In this regard, as an attempt to enhance transferability, a detailed description of the context of the study including ELT in Indonesia, the 2013 Curriculum, and English language teacher education in Indonesia is provided in Chapter 1. Confirmability, in turn, can be associated with the researcher's objectivity (Guba, 1981). In order to enhance confirmability, this study acknowledges researcher bias and attempts to minimise it. Moreover, this study uses the data triangulation method to have a wider perspective of the issues as an attempt to increase confirmability.

This study encourages further case studies exploring novice EFL teachers' conceptualisation and implementation of reflective practice both within other regions of Indonesia and similar contexts abroad. Moreover, further studies could also apply several quantitative data collection tools such as questionnaires, which might then provide a more holistic perspective on the issue. Widening the scope by including more participants from different institutions and cities might also lead to more generalisable findings.

Observation bias

Another limitation of this study is identified as observation bias which is also named as the Hawthorne effect. Observation bias occurs when participants are aware that they are being observed and they change the way that they act consciously or unconsciously (McCambridge et al., 2014). One of the data collection tools applied in this study was classroom observations. It is acknowledged that the participants may have acted differently during the classroom observations. This means that the participants might have included reflection to their practices during the observations. As an attempt to reduce the observation bias, two precautions were taken. Firstly, more than one classroom observations were held for each participant. In this way, it was hoped that the participants would feel less nervous (Wang & Hartley, 2003) and provide more accurate data. Secondly, the researcher located herself and the camera at the back of the classroom and conducted the classroom observation in a non-participant manner as presented in Chapter 3 in order not to intimidate the participants. However, this study still recognises that observation bias might have occurred.

Social desirability bias

Another limitation of the current study is social desirability bias. In this qualitative study, a considerable amount of data was collected through interviews, pre-observation and post-observation conferences, and reflective journals which were in the form of self-report. Therefore, the accuracy of data relied on the participants providing thorough and truthful answers to the questions. It is natural that the participants might have had social desirability bias which means that they might have had a tendency to answer the questions in the most desirable way (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964; Grimm, 2010). In order to minimise the social desirability effect, it was clearly communicated to the participants that their

interpretation and understandings were sought rather than one correct answer. They were reminded that there were no correct or wrong answers to the questions. They were also assured that their names would be anonymised (see Appendix 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, and 8) However, this study recognises that the effects of social desirability bias might still exist. Further research might involve conducting online data collection procedures so that the participants feel safer when sharing their opinions freely (Zhang et al., 2017).

Researcher bias

Finally, researcher bias including subjectivity and the language barrier was another limitation of the current study. The data was analysed based on my own perspective, my previous experiences as an EFL teacher, the social context that I was in, and my level of expertise. Furthermore, "[N]ature and the world do not tell stories, individuals do. Interpretation is inevitable because narratives are representations" (Riessman, 1993, p. 2). Therefore, "representational decisions could not be avoided" (Hole, 2007, p. 701). Patton (2002) discusses that different experiences might lead to different interpretations of an incident. Therefore, a researcher with a different background could have interpreted and presented the data differently. However, although this aspect might be considered as a limitation from the quantitative researchers' perspective, it is considered to be one of the fundamental features of qualitative studies (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Patton, 2002), which brings richness to the literature.

As an attempt to minimise subjectivity and misinterpretations, and ensure the mutual understanding between the researcher and participants (Mertens, 2010), a member-check strategy was applied as stated in Chapter 3. In this regard, all the participants confirmed the interpretations of the transcripts that were used in the main body of this thesis. In addition, a considerable amount of the findings accords with the previous research (Güngör, 2016; Otto, 2017; Pedro, 2005; Stăncescu et al., 2019), which further adds to the current study's reliability. Nevertheless, it is important to highlight that this study still acknowledges that the current study's findings are interpretative.

Regarding the language barrier, the researcher and the participants did not share the same first language and English was a foreign language for both parties. The participants were offered a translator during the interview; however, none of them required a translator. All the participants are English teachers. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that they all have a certain proficiency level in expressing themselves in English. However, it is acknowledged that in the case of the researcher sharing the same first language with the participants, the participants could have explained themselves more openly. Therefore, Indonesian speaking researchers are encouraged to replicate this study and compare the results in order to have an understanding of if and how the language barrier affects the findings.

6.5 Implications for theory, practice, and policy

This study poses several implications in terms of theory, practice, and policy. The first set of implications focus on theory and concerns educational researchers. The next set of implications, in turn, which relate to practice concern teachers and teacher educators. The last set of implications are suggestions for policymakers.

Implications for theory

The first set of implications concern theory and inform educational researchers. This study revealed that there is an urgent need for researchers to investigate RbA and RfA activities as the studies in those types of reflection are limited. Moreover, it is advisable to examine intersected reflection activities through empirical studies. This is because it is vital for researchers to discover a pattern regarding the intersecting reflection types and possibly propose a model for teachers to reflect more efficiently.

Educational researchers are also invited to conduct more thorough studies investigating Farrell's (2015) framework for TESOL teachers from several aspects. One of the aspects that could be investigated more in-depth could be what each level entails. Farrell (2015) argues that beyond practice level entails critical reflection. Nevertheless, the findings of this study suggest that although the participants reflected on beyond practice level, their reflections did not go beyond describing the incidents as they did not explain why the incidents occurred and investigating further how the situation could be improved. However, a more thorough, critical reflection would include why the incidents have happened, what the factors influencing the teaching practice are and how the next practice could be improved. Farrell's (2015) framework for TESOL teachers is the most holistic model providing practitioners with several insights. Yet, as the framework is relatively recent, there are only a few empirical studies guiding practitioners about how to navigate the framework. More empirical studies with examples of critical reflections would help practitioners understand what critical reflection entails and how it should be done.

Implications for practice

The second set of implications relate to practice. These implications are aimed to guide practising teachers and teacher trainers. First, implications are presented from the perspective of teachers, and then, the suggestions continue with targeting teacher trainers.

This study suggests that teachers use Farrell's (2015) framework to reflect on their practice holistically. In this regard, teachers can start with reflecting on their philosophy. Teachers can use narrative inquiry or storytelling (Norton & Early, 2011) in order to reflect on their philosophy. Farrell's

(2016) "Tree of Life" can be used as a framework for narratives. In order to navigate the "Tree of Life", teachers are encouraged to reflect on the roots, trunk, and limbs of their life trees. The roots of the tree denote the foundations that shape teachers' early years which include their ethnicity, religion, family values, and socio-economic backgrounds. Trunk, in turn, captures school experiences from early school years to high school years. In Farrell's (2016) "Tree of Life", limbs symbolise teachers' experiences beyond high school. This study agrees that teachers' reflecting on their chronological stories help gain some insight into who we are as teachers, which is the essential foundation of our philosophy of practice" (Farrell, 2016b, p. 28). Considering Gardner's multiple intelligences theory (Gardner & Hatch, 1989) (see 3.3.4), practitioners can choose to audio-record, write down or type their reflections.

Teachers are also encouraged to reflect on their principles in order to be better informed about their practices. In this regard, teachers can consider and evaluate their assumptions, belief, and conceptions for teaching through examining their personal and professional development, and analyse their teaching practices as also suggested by Cirocki and Farrell (2019). One way for teachers to reflect on their assumptions, beliefs and practices could be through portfolios. Cirocki and Farrell (2019) suggest teachers to start with an introduction part of the portfolio where teachers can familiarise themselves with the format and aim of the portfolio. Next, the writers suggest that teachers collect data from their own everyday practices systematically. Then, they advised that teachers select an exemplary work to focus on and justify their reason for choosing that work. After the selection stage, teachers are invited to reflect on the content and organisation of the portfolio. As the last step of the portfolio, teachers are encouraged to present their reflections to a critical friend.

Next, Farrell (2015) suggests teachers to reflect on their theories. As presented in Chapter 2, teachers have two types of theories: espoused theories and theories in use (Argyris & Schön, 1974). Espoused theories mean what teachers believe they do while theories in use means what they actually do. However, different teaching theories will highly likely to lead different understanding of practice (Richards, 1998). This means that a didactic teaching theory suggests that teacher is the knowledge transmitter whereas a discovery teaching theory allows students to discover and construct knowledge with minimum interference of teacher (Farrell, 2015). One way of reflecting on theory is through case studies. Through reflecting on and analysing case studies, teachers can be informed about what kind of incidents other teachers have had and how they have overcome the issues that they have faced. While analysing case studies, teachers can be more informed about how their theories influence their practices.

Following Farrell's (2015) framework for TESOL teachers to reflect, next, this study encourages teachers to reflect on their practices. While reflecting on their practices, it is recommended that teachers follow the full cycle of reflection types (Cirocki and Widodo, 2019). This means that teachers are advised

to reflect before their classes and consider the incidents that potentially might happen. In light of those reflections, it is advisable for teachers to develop an action plan in case these incidents occur. During the class, teachers reflect in action and occasionally change their plans. It is advisable for teachers to take notes in the cases of if, when and why they change their plans in order to reflect on them in depth later on. After the class, this study encourages teachers to reflect on their classes and think about the activities that have gone well besides the incidents that have not been planned or have not gone as well as planned. Based on these reflections, it is also suggested that teachers plan their next classes by reflecting for action.

Finally, this study suggests that teachers reflect on beyond practice level. It is crucial for teachers to consider the contextual factors that they teach in. These factors include cultural, social, socio-economic, and political aspects. One way for teachers to reflect on beyond practice level is through joining a teacher reflection group (Farrell, 2014a) and having a dialogic approach to their reflections. Those groups could be formed among the English teachers that work in the same school or the same region. Although those groups could be initiated in a top-down fashion, which means with the guidance of an educational organisation such as a school or Ministry of Education, a bottom-up approach can also be followed where the initiative comes from the community members. The latter approach could be possibly more efficient as the participation would be voluntary. Also, a community of practice can be facilitated face-to-face or virtually depending on feasibility and acceptability. Although practitioners are encouraged to reflect on their practice daily, such community groups could gather weekly or biweekly, if feasible. In these circumstances, the experienced reflective practitioners could mentor the novices; hence, novice teachers could benefit from the experienced reflective practitioners through collaborative learning in those community groups.

So far, the practical aspect of the implications is presented targeting teachers. Now, it is time to present the practical implications of this study from the teacher trainers' perspective. This study argues that it is imperative for teacher trainers to consider offering reflective practice courses as a separate module and train both prospective and in-service teachers to be professional reflective practitioners. In teacher education or training programs, reflective practice is mostly used as an assessment tool and integrated into other modules. Therefore, it is not surprising to find out that the participants of this study associated the term with an assessment instrument. However, as has been thoroughly discussed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 5, reflective practice constitutes more than merely an assessment tool and includes prospective, anticipatory, and retrospective elements. Equally, reflective practice encourages teachers to take into consideration the social, political, and cultural aspects of the teaching-learning process. Therefore, this study calls on teacher education and training programs to teaching reflective

practice in a wide-ranging sense which includes definitions, the various models, and its holistic life applications to both pre-service and in-service teachers.

Teacher educators and trainers are also urged to not only provide the prospective teachers with the latest developments in the field but also encourage them to be perpetual reflective practitioners. As Larrivee (2000, p. 306) suggests, reflective practice should be seen as "a way of life" rather than "a way of approaching teaching". Reflective practice should be considered as a life philosophy and living style and should be applied to every facet of life. In order for teacher educators and trainers to instil this philosophy to prospective and in-service teachers, first, they need to internalise the reflective practice concept and practise it as a lifestyle. Moreover, it is crucial for teacher educators and trainers to explain clearly why the prospective and in-service teachers need to reflect and how implementing reflective practice would enhance not only into their teaching but also all aspects of their life including but not limited to problem-solving skills.

Implications for policy

The last set of implications target policy and inform policymakers. Policymakers are invited to include the policy implementors, in this case, teachers in the process of creating new educational policies. Teachers have a crucial role in implementing an educational policy by putting the curriculum into practice. Teachers' implementing of educational policies is based on their understanding of the stated policy (Coburn & Stein, 2006). Therefore, as has been frequently suggested in the previous studies (Vandeyar, 2011; Wang, 2008), it is vital that policymakers involve teachers in the policymaking process. As Wang (2008, p. 19) also argues "[W]ithout their [teachers'] sincere participation, the continuity and sustainability of any innovative curriculum will be out of the question". Therefore, this study calls policymakers to collaborate with teachers, one of the most significant factors in creating, implementing, and evaluating educational policies, while developing a new curriculum. Policymakers can involve teachers in the curriculum development process via surveys investigating their needs and views. Focus groups can also be formed in order to give an opportunity for teachers to elaborate their perspectives on the curriculum and its implementation.

Another implication of this study for the policymakers is that they need to specify their expectations from the policy implementors in terms of the expected outcome and provide the implementors with clear guidelines in order to avoid misunderstandings. In order for teachers to implement a policy, as a first step, they need to understand what it means, how it can be applied and why it needs to be applied. Therefore, it is crucial for policymakers to provide a clear definition of reflective practice along with its benefits and objectives. One way for mutual understanding of definition and implementation of reflective practice among the policymakers and implementors is to provide

teachers with workshops. Those workshops can be held online or face-to-face; however, it is advisable to keep the workshops mandatory for every practising teacher in order to avoid any misunderstandings regarding the objectives and implementation of the new curriculum. Moreover, a guideline or framework for teachers to reflect needs to be provided. This study can serve as a basis for policymakers to understand how practising teachers conceptualise and apply reflective practice. Building on this study's findings, policymakers can specify what they mean by reflective practice and how they expect practitioners to implement it.

Conclusion

This chapter has presented an exhaustive summary of the current thesis. Hence, the current chapter started with the summary of the study. Next, the findings of the current study were summarised and presented. After that, this chapter discussed the contributions of the current study. In this respect, theoretical/conceptual contributions were presented. Following the presentation of the contributions, the limitations of the study were discussed, and several recommendations were pointed out for future research. Finally, this chapter presented several implications for educational researchers, practitioners, and policymakers.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Participant consent form

UNIVERSITY *of York*

Information Page

Investigating Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of and engagement in reflective practice: An exploratory study.

Dear Participant,

I am currently carrying out a research project to investigate the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding and practices of reflection. I would like to invite you to take part in this research project.

Before agreeing to take part, please read this information sheet carefully and let me know if anything is unclear or you would like further information. Please also read the information about GDPR that is provided on a separate sheet.

Purpose of the study

The study is designed to explore Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding and practices of reflection. The contribution of the study will be two-pronged which is both globally and locally. Firstly, the result of the study will contribute to the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education area and the reflective practice literature in general. The second, local, contribution of the study will be directly to the Indonesian context. As the studies investigating the conceptualisation and application of reflective practice in the Indonesian context is highly limited, this study will be one of the pioneer studies.

What would this mean for you?

Aiming to investigate the novice teachers' perceptions and practices of reflection, the study will adopt qualitative research method. I will collect data through four data collection tools: a questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and reflective journals. The data collection process will last two to three months. At the end of the study, based on your request, the principal and the participant teachers get to see the outcome of the study.

Participation is voluntary

Participation is optional. If you do decide to take part, you will be given a copy of this information sheet for your records and will be asked to complete a participant information form. If you change your mind at any point during the data collection process and up to three weeks after, you will be able to withdraw your participation without having to provide a reason. However, you may not withdraw after that time as the data will be anonymised.

Processing of your data

Under the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), the University has to identify a legal basis for processing personal data and, where appropriate, an additional condition for processing special category data.

In line with our charter which states that we advance learning and knowledge by teaching and research, the University processes personal data for research purposes under Article 6 (1)(e) of the GDPR:

Processing is necessary for the performance of a task carried out in the public interest

Research will only be undertaken where ethical approval has been obtained, where there is a clear public interest and where appropriate safeguards have been put in place to protect data.

In line with ethical expectations and in order to comply with common law duty of confidentiality, I will seek your consent to participate where appropriate. This consent will not, however, be our legal basis for processing your data under the GDPR.

Anonymity and confidentiality

The data that you provide (e.g. recordings of the interview, notes from observations, journal records) will be stored by code number. Any information that identifies you will be stored separately from the data. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection and up to three weeks after the data is collected.

Information will be treated confidentially and shared on a need-to-know basis only. The University is committed to the principle of data protection by design and default and will collect the minimum amount of data necessary for the project. In addition, I will anonymise or pseudonymise data wherever possible.

Storing and using your data

I will put in place appropriate technical and organisational measures to protect your personal data and/or special category data. Data will be stored in secure filing cabinets and/or on a password protected computer.

Data will be kept for ten years after which time it will be destroyed. The data that I collect (audio recordings, transcripts, etc.) may be used in *anonymous* format in different ways. Please indicate on the consent form enclosed with a ☑ if you are happy for this anonymised data to be used in the ways listed. You will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of your statements.

Sharing of data

Only the researcher will be able to access to the anonymised data; however, anonymised data will be accessible to the researcher, the supervisor of the researcher and the Thesis Advisory Panel member. Anonymised data may be used for future analysis and shared for research or training purposes. If you do not want your data to be included in any information shared as a result of this research, please do not sign the consent form.

Transfer of data internationally

It is possible that the data is transferred internationally. The University's cloud storage solution is provided by Google which means that data can be located at any of Google's globally spread data centres. The University has data protection compliant arrangements in place with this provider. For further information see, https://www.york.ac.uk/it-services/google/policy/privacy/

Your rights

Under the GDPR, you have a general right of access to your data, a right to rectification, erasure, restriction, objection or portability. You also have a right to withdrawal. Please note, not all rights apply where data is processed purely for research purposes. For information see, https://www.york.ac.uk/records-management/generaldataprotectionregulation/individualrights/

Questions or concerns

If you have any questions about this participant information sheet or concerns about how your data is being processed, please feel free to contact Pelin Derinalp by email (ppd505@york.ac.uk), or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk. If you are still dissatisfied, please contact the University's Data Protection Officer at dataprotection@york.ac.uk

Right to complain

If you are unhappy with the way in which your personal data has been handled, you have a right to complain to the Information Commissioner's Office. For information on reporting a concern to the Information Commissioner's Office, see www.ico.org.uk/concerns

I hope that you will agree to take part. If you are happy to participate, please complete the form enclosed and hand it in the researcher once you have signed.

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Yours sincerely

Pelin Derinalp

Investigating Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of and engagement in reflective practice: An exploratory study.

Consent Form

Please tick each box if you are happy to take part in this research.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the above-named ☐ research project and I understand that this will involve me taking part as described above.

I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' ☐ understandings and practices of reflection.

I understand that data will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet or on a password protected ☐ computer and only the researcher will have access to any identifiable data.

I understand that my identity will be protected by use of a pseudonym. ☐

I understand that participation in this study is voluntary ☐

I understand that my data will not be identifiable, and the data may be used ….

        in publications that are mainly read by university academics ☐

        in presentations that are mainly attended by university academics ☐

        in publications that are mainly read by the public ☐

        in presentations that are mainly attended by the public ☐

        freely available online ☐

I understand that data will be kept for ten years after which it will be destroyed. ☐

I understand that data could be used for future analysis or other purposes. ☐

I understand that I can withdraw my data at any point during data collection and up to three ☐

weeks after data is collected

I understand that I will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of my responses. ☐

NAME_____

SIGNATURE_____

DATE_____

UNIVERSITY *of York*

Information Page

Investigating Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of and engagement in reflective practice: An exploratory study.

Dear Principal,

I am currently carrying out a research project to investigate the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding and practices of reflection. I would like to invite your institution to take part in this research project.

Before agreeing to take part, please read this information sheet carefully and let me know if anything is unclear or you would like further information. Please also read the information about GDPR that is provided on a separate sheet.

Purpose of the study

The study is designed to explore Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding and practices of reflection. The contribution of the study will be two-pronged which is both globally and locally. Firstly, the result of the study will contribute to the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education area and the reflective practice literature in general. The second, local, contribution of the study will be directly to the Indonesian context. As the studies investigating the conceptualisation and application of reflective practice in the Indonesian context is highly limited, this study will be one of the pioneer studies.

What would this mean for your school?

Once you have agreed to be a part of my project, I will come and visit the school on an agreed date and commence with data collection. On this occasion, I intend to collect data during the school term. I will collect data through four data collection tools: a questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and reflective journals. At the end of the study, based on your request, the principal and the participant teachers get to see the outcome of the study. I may alter any of the above to suit you and your school. I have no intention to disturb the running of the school or ask you to do anything that would impede the learning of the students. I will be around to collect data and understand how reflection takes place in and out of the classroom. It is neither a judgment about nor a test for the teachers, it is just getting idea about their understandings and practices of reflection. I will never record

outside of the classrooms or people who have not given consent. I am happy to work with you in order to reach agreement that will suit you and help me answer my research questions.

Participation is voluntary

Participation is optional. If you do decide to take part, you will be given a copy of this information sheet for your records and will be asked to complete a participant information form. If you change your mind at any point during the data collection process and up to three weeks after, you will be able to withdraw your participation without having to provide a reason. However, you may not withdraw after that time as the data will be anonymised.

Processing of your data

Under the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), the University has to identify a legal basis for processing personal data and, where appropriate, an additional condition for processing special category data.

In line with our charter which states that we advance learning and knowledge by teaching and research, the University processes personal data for research purposes under Article 6 (1)(e) of the GDPR:

Processing is necessary for the performance of a task carried out in the public interest

Research will only be undertaken where ethical approval has been obtained, where there is a clear public interest and where appropriate safeguards have been put in place to protect data.

In line with ethical expectations and in order to comply with common law duty of confidentiality, I will seek your consent to participate where appropriate. This consent will not, however, be our legal basis for processing your data under the GDPR.

Anonymity and confidentiality

The data that you provide (e.g. recordings of the interview, notes from observations, journal records) will be stored by code number. Any information that identifies you will be stored separately from the data. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection and up to three weeks after the data is collected.

Information will be treated confidentially and shared on a need-to-know basis only. The University is committed to the principle of data protection by design and default and will collect the minimum amount of data necessary for the project. In addition, I will anonymise or pseudonymise data wherever possible.

Storing and using your data

I will put in place appropriate technical and organisational measures to protect your personal data and/or special category data. Data will be stored in secure filing cabinets and/or on a password protected computer.

Data will be kept for ten years after which time it will be destroyed. The data that I collect (audio recordings, transcripts, etc.) may be used in *anonymous* format in different ways. Please indicate on the consent form enclosed with a ☑ if you are happy for this anonymised data to be used in the ways listed. You will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of your interview/focus group.

Sharing of data

Only the researcher will be able to access to the anonymised data; however, anonymised data will be accessible to the researcher, the supervisor of the researcher and the Thesis Advisory Panel member. Anonymised data may be used for future analysis and shared for research or training purposes. If you do not want your data to be included in any information shared as a result of this research, please do not sign the consent form.

Transfer of data internationally

It is possible that the data is transferred internationally. The University's cloud storage solution is provided by Google which means that data can be located at any of Google's globally spread data centres. The University has data protection compliant arrangements in place with this provider. For further information see, https://www.york.ac.uk/it-services/google/policy/privacy/

Your rights

Under the GDPR, you have a general right of access to your data, a right to rectification, erasure, restriction, objection or portability. You also have a right to withdrawal. Please note, not all rights apply where data is processed purely for research purposes. For information see, https://www.york.ac.uk/records-management/generaldataprotectionregulation/individualrights/

Questions or concerns

If you have any questions about this participant information sheet or concerns about how your data is being processed, please feel free to contact Pelin Derinalp by email (ppd505@york.ac.uk), or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk. If you are still dissatisfied, please contact the University's Data Protection Officer at dataprotection@york.ac.uk

Right to complain

If you are unhappy with the way in which your personal data has been handled, you have a right to complain to the Information Commissioner's Office. For information on reporting a concern to the Information Commissioner's Office, see www.ico.org.uk/concerns

I hope that you will agree to take part. If you are happy for you /your institution and teachers to participate, please complete the form enclosed and hand it in the researcher once you have signed.

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Yours sincerely

Pelin Derinalp

Investigating Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of and engagement in reflective practice: An exploratory study.

Consent Form

Please tick each box if you are happy to take part in this research.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the above-named ☐
research project and I understand that this will involve me taking part as described above.

I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate the Indonesian novice EFL teachers' ☐
understandings and practices of reflection.

I understand that data will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet or on a password protected ☐
computer and only the researcher will have access to any identifiable data.

I understand that my identity will be protected by use of a pseudonym. ☐

I understand that participation in this study is voluntary ☐

I understand that my data will not be identifiable, and the data may be used ….

        in publications that are mainly read by university academics ☐

        in presentations that are mainly attended by university academics ☐

        in publications that are mainly read by the public ☐

        in presentations that are mainly attended by the public ☐

        freely available online ☐

I understand that data will be kept for ten years after which it will be destroyed. ☐

I understand that data could be used for future analysis or other purposes. ☐

I understand that I can withdraw my data at any point during data collection and up to three ☐

weeks after data is collected

I understand that I will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of my responses. ☐

NAME_____

SIGNATURE_____

DATE_____

Appendix 3: Data Management Plan

York Data Management Plan (DMP) for Postgraduate Research Projects

<table>
<tr><td>

Postgraduate researcher: Pelin Derinalp

</td></tr>
<tr><td>

Project title: Investigating Indonesian novice EFL teachers' understanding of and engagement in reflective practice: An exploratory study

</td></tr>
<tr><td>

Project start/end: 01/01/2018 – 30/06/2021

</td></tr>
<tr><td>

Funder (where applicable): The Turkish Ministry of National Education

</td></tr>
<tr><td>

Project context:

The individually based project will be conducted in Indonesia with the participation of six EFL teachers from five different schools.

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<tr><td>

Defining your data

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<tr><td>

1a. What data will you produce?

The study will be exploratory. Qualitative research method will be adopted to collect data.

- Using a digital audio recorder, I will record the interviews, and transcribe them.
- I will ask the participants to keep a reflective journal and these journals will be analysed by using thematic analysis method. From time to time, I will give them guidance if needed.
- I will observe the participants classes, take notes and audio and video record them.

</td></tr>
<tr><td>

1b. What formats and what software will you use?

The participants will be asked to keep reflective journals. The format of the reflective journals will be written. Semi-structured interviews and post-observation conferences will be audio-recorded while the researcher takes notes. Audio recordings will be saved as MP3 files; transcripts will be created in and saved as Word documents. Classroom observations will be based on the researcher's attendance to the class, taking notes and audio and video recording them. All the collected data will be transformed to a written format. The data will be both in electronic and printed versions. For the electronic version Microsoft Office Word will be used.

</td></tr>
</table>

1c. How much data do you expect to generate?

   I am expecting to collect

- 6 reflective journals that the participants will keep during data collection (for 12 weeks) approximately 12-15 pages for each participant,
- 6 semi-structured interviews lasting for no more than 40 minutes each,
- 30 post-observation conferences lasting for about twenty minutes each,
- 30 classroom observation audio and video recordings lasting for 40 minutes for each participant for five weeks.
  Based on the estimations from previous audio and video files that I have, I am estimating that I will collect about 600 Mb of files for semi-structured interviews, about 1.2 Gb of audio files for the post-observation conferences, and 16 Gb for audio and video recordings.

1d. Who owns the data you will generate?

The data will be owned by myself as the researcher.

Looking after your data

2a. Where will you store your data?

The collected data will be in two formats: electronic and typed/printed. The electronically formatted data will be protected on my personal, password-secured computer. I will back it up to my google drive associated with my university email address. The typed/printed data will be protected in a secure filling cabinet with a lock in my house.

2b. How will you back-up your data?

I will generate my data in both electronic formats and typed/printed version as a back-up.

2c. Who else has a right to see or use this data during the project?

 My supervisor may see my anonymised data during the project. My supervisor can have a right to use the collected data to publish with me.

2d. How will you structure and name your folders?

 Data and documentation files will be held in separate folders. Data files will be organised according

  to data type and then according to research activity. Documentation files will also be organised

according to type of documentation file and research activity.

2e. How will you name your files

I will use conventions. The files will be named according to the data collection tools, date and pseudo-names of the participants (e.g. Interview16032019Jane).

2f. How will you manage different versions of your files?

If there is more than one version of my files I will add V1 to the end of the file name with V1_1 for minor changes.

2g. What additional information will be required to understand your data?

I keep additional notes about interviews in a Word document with the audio recordings and transcripts. I will have a separate notebook including my participants real identities.

Archiving your data

3a. What data should be kept or destroyed after the end of your project?

All data will be kept for ten years at the end of my project and after that period, all data will be destroyed.

3b. For how long should data be kept after the end of your project?

In line with the University Research Data Management Policy, the data that will support my published research findings will be kept for 10 years from date of last requested access.

3c. Where will the data you keep be stored at the end of the project?

I will provide a copy of the data supporting my thesis to the University who will keep the selected data for the agreed retention period.

3d. When will you archive your data?

I will provide a copy of the data supporting my thesis to the University for long-term retention when I submit my thesis.

Sharing your data at the end of the project

4a. What data should or shouldn't be shared openly and why?

The participants will be informed that their responses will be anonymised, and all the relevant, transcribed part of the data will be shared within the thesis in the results and discussion parts, in order to give a clearer picture of the context to the reader. However, in order to keep the participants' anonymity, the entire data will not be shared. The results may also be shared through publications and conferences.

4b. Who should have access to the final dataset(s) and under what conditions?

My data will be made available upon request under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-NC-ND 4.0) License. (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/)

4c. How will you share your final dataset(s)?

A copy of the data supporting my thesis will be retained by the University, and the University will field any requests for access on my behalf and make the data available to the requestor

Implementing your plan

5a. Who is responsible for making sure this plan is followed?

I am responsible for making sure this plan is followed. My supervisor will help me with the process.

5b. How often will this plan be reviewed and updated?

Every 6 months, this plan will be reviewed and updated if necessary.

5c. What actions have you identified from this plan?

- Ask the PI of the research team for guidance on how my data should be managed, for example what file naming system/convention is to be used by team members.

- Learn how to anonymise my data so that it can be shared.
- Ensure that I request informed consent from my participants for archiving and sharing their data.

5d. What policies are relevant to your project?

This project is covered by the University of York Research Data Management Policy.

5e. What further information do you need to carry out these actions?

If needed, the necessary help will be sought from the university's RDM webpage.

Signed: Pelin Derinalp	**Version:** 1
Date created: 23/05/2019	**Date amended:**

Appendix 4: Interview Protocol

<div align="center">

Interview Protocol Form

</div>

I.   **Demographic Data**

Interviewee		Gender	
Date		Age	
Interview begins / finishes		Experience as an English teacher	
Location		Highest Education Level	

II.   **Introduction (3 min)**

Hello, I am Pelin. I am a PhD student and I am conducting a research study about reflective practice among novice EFL teachers. I am really thankful that you are allocating time and helping me with my research.

The aim of my study is to understand how the Indonesian novice EFL teachers conceptualise and implement reflective practice. In order for me to understand that, as a first step, I will conduct an interview with you. I also would like to inform you that the interview will be recorded. I assure you that the recordings will be used only for research purpose, and your name will be anonymous. You will not be judged or assessed; hence, it is important that you provide as honest responses as possible.

The interview should take about 35 minutes. First, I will start with asking general questions, and then more specific ones. If you agree to continue, could you please sign the consent form?

III.   **Warm-up / Icebreaker questions (7 min)**

Tell me about yourself and your educational background	Why did you become a teacher?

IV.   Core questions (20 min)

1. According to you, what is reflective teaching / reflective practice? How do you understand it?

    Prompts: - Have you heard about teacher reflection?

    - When I say reflection/reflective teaching, what comes to your mind?

    - What do you think is the purpose of reflection? When should teachers reflect?

    - Please, complete this sentence "Reflective practice is about …".

    Probes: Can you elaborate on that, please?

2. To what extent do you agree that it is useful for teachers to reflect on their practice?

    Prompts: - What are the potential benefits of reflective practice for teachers, students, schools?

    Probes: Why? Can you give an example, please?

3. In your opinion, what are the characteristic features of reflective teachers?

    Prompts: - How would you describe a reflective teacher?

4. What do you do to develop yourself professionally?

    Prompts: - Do you attend professional development courses?

    -    Do you read articles about EFL teaching and learning strategies?

- What do you do when you face a problem in the class?

Probes: - How often do you do these?

- Why do you choose to do these?
- How do they impact on you as a teacher and your teaching practice?

5. On a scale of 1 to 10, where would you place yourself as a reflective practitioner? Can you justify your choice?

Prompts: - How often do you reflect on your teaching?

- How do you reflect on your teaching?

- When do you reflect?

- What do you reflect on?

- Why do you reflect?

V. Closure (5 min)
- Before we end our interview, are there any further comment or thought that you would like to add?
Participant's further comments and thoughts:

- Can I contact to you again if clarification or confirmation is needed?   Yes / No

- Thank you very much for your time. As I said, all the answers will be confidential and anonymous.

Appendix 5: Pre-observation Protocol

Pre-observation date/time	Pre-observation number	Teacher name

Pre-observation protocol

I.   Pre-conference Introduction (5 min)

Thanks for taking the time to meet with me. I'm really looking forward to coming into your class on _____. This discussion should take us about 25 minutes, and we will be talking about how you planned your lesson. The purpose of our conversation is for you to help me to understand your planning process and what I can expect to see during the observation. I will record the conversation, and I assure you this conversation will be used only for research purposes; you will not be assessed or judged. I will not collect any personal data. So, your answers will be anonymous. It is important that you provide as honest responses as possible.

II.   Discussion of the Lesson Plan (15 min)
Intentions and plans for the lesson being observed

I would like you to tell me about your lesson plan, please.

- What are you planning to teach?
- What are the aims of this lesson? / What do you expect students to know and be able to do at the end of the lesson?
- What activities are you planning to do to achieve these aims?
- What kind of background information do students need to achieve these aims?
- What was the most important thing that you took into consideration when you were planning the lesson?
- Why was this more important than the others?
- Why did you choose the activities that you plan to do?
- Do you anticipate any problems that might occur during the class? If yes, what are they?
- Do you have a plan B in case a problem occurs? If yes, for which cases and why?
- Except than the lesson plan, do you have any personal goals for your class such as including a specific student more or lowering the teacher talking time? If yes, why?

III.   Pre-conference Closure (5 min)

Based on what you shared with me during our conversation, it sounds like you planned to do … (a summary of the lesson plan). Is there anything you would like to add?

Thank you for your time and collaboration.

Looking forward to attending your class on _____.

Appendix 6: Classroom Observation Form

Observation date/time	Observation number	Teacher

Classroom observation form

This form is designed based on the pre-observation data and the lesson plan of the lesson to be observed. The observer considered the teacher's lesson plan and the planning process while designing the classroom observation form. Planned activities were designated before the observation. Observed activities were recorded during the observation. The observer's reflections were recorded at the earliest convenience.

Planned activities	Observed activities	Observer's reflections
- - - - - - - -		

- Further comments of the observer:

Appendix 7: Post-observation Protocol

POC date/time	POC number	Teacher

Post-observation conference (POC) protocol

I.   **Introduction (3 min)**

Thank you for taking the time with me. This discussion should take us about 30 minutes, and we will be talking about your lesson that I observed on _____. The purpose of our conversation is for you to help me understand some points that occurred during the class. I will record the conversation, and I assure you this conversation will be used only for research purpose and I will not collect any personal data. So, your answers will be anonymous. It is important that you provide as honest responses as possible.

II.   **Warm-up questions: (7 min)**
-       How was the lesson?
-       What went well?
-       What did not go that well?
-       What would you change if you taught the same class again?

III.   **Core questions: (17 min)**
   a.   **General questions:**
-       So, you mentioned the aim of the lesson was _____. Do you think you achieved it? Why/Why not? Can you explain this, please?
-       Besides these aims, you mentioned that your personal aim was to _____. Do you think you achieve it? Why/Why not? Can you explain this, please?
-       Before the lesson, you mentioned that students need _____ as background information. After the lesson, do you think that the background was enough for them to be able to understand the lesson?
-       Do you think the sequence of the activities were well-designed? Elaborate your answer, please.
-       If you were to teach the same class again, what would you do differently, if any?

b. Specific questions:

- What happened here?
- Why do you think it happened?
- Why did you change your plan here?
- **This activity** was not in your plan. Did you come up with **this activity** just during the class?
- Did you have an alternative plan in case **this specific event** would happen?
- What did you learn from this experience?

IV.   Closure: (3 min)

Before finishing our conversation, are there any comments or thoughts that you would like to add?

Can I contact you again if I need you to clarify or confirm your comments and thoughts?

Thank you very much for your time and help. As I said in the beginning, this conversation will be used only for research purpose and your name will be anonymous.

Appendix 8: Reflective Journals

Reflective journal template

The date of reflection	The date of the lesson reflected	Teacher

Introduction:

Thank you for taking the time to reflect on your practice. The aims of reflecting on your practice are justifying your actions (what you did and why you did it in the way that you did) and exploring/enclosing your beliefs and assumptions (what are the real reasons behind choosing a specific method or teaching a skill in the way that you chose). Please, keep your reflections between 500 and 1500 words (one to three pages). See guideline for reflection section for further information.

Please, note: You will be using your pseudo name; hence, your journal will be anonymous. It will only be used for research purpose. You will not be assessed or judged. It is important that you provide as honest responses as possible. Thank you for your time.

Guideline for reflection:

Think about your teaching practice and try to reflect on it. First, reflect on your practice in general. Then, choose and focus on at least one critical incident and reflect on it. You can use the following questions as a guideline.

1) Take time to think about the general aspects of your teaching. Try to answer the following questions:
   - How was the lesson in general?
   - Did I achieve my aims? If not, why?
   - What went well and what did not go that well during the class? Please, justify.
   - If I were to teach the same class again, what would I do differently? Why?

2) Choose a critical incident happened during the class. Try to elaborate on the questions below:
   - What happened there?
   - How did it happen?
   - Why did it happen?
   - Was I prepared for that incident to happen? If yes, how?
   - If it were to happen again, what would I do?

Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Explanation
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
Int	Interview
L1	First language
PPG	Program Pendidikan Guru
Preob	Pre-observation
Postob	Post-observation
RbA	Reflection-before-Action
RfA	Reflection-for-Action
RJ	Reflective Journal
RinA	Reflection-in-Action
RonA	Reflection-on-Action
SGA	*Sekolah Guru Atas*
SGB	*Sekolah Guru Bawah*
STC	Standard Training Centres
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

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