TEACHERS' POSSIBLE SELVES AND THEIR USE OF ICT IN TEFL: MULTIPLE CASE STUDIES IN INDONESIA

RIZKI ISRAENI S. NUR

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITI MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR
2019

TEACHERS' POSSIBLE SELVES AND THEIR USE OF ICT IN TEFL: MULTIPLE CASE STUDIES IN INDONESIA

RIZKI ISRAENI S. NUR

THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR

2019

UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA

ORIGINAL LITERARY WORK DECLARATION

Name of Candidate **RIZKI ISRAENI S. NUR**

Registration/Matric No **PHA120015**

Name of Degree **DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

Title of Thesis :

TEACHERS' POSSIBLE SELVES AND THEIR USE OF ICT IN TEFL: MULTIPLE CASE STUDIES IN INDONESIA

Field of Study : TESL

I do solemnly and sincerely declare that:

(1) I am the sole author/writer of this Work;
(2) This Work is original;
(3) Any use of any work in which copyright exists was done by way of fair dealing and for permitted purposes and any excerpt or extract from, or reference to or reproduction of any copyright work has been disclosed expressly and sufficiently and the title of the Work and its authorship have been acknowledged in this Work;
(4) I do not have any actual knowledge nor do I ought reasonably to know that the making of this work constitutes an infringement of any copyright work;
(5) I hereby assign all and every rights in the copyright to this Work to the University of Malaya ("UM"), who henceforth shall be owner of the copyright in this Work and that any reproduction or use in any form or by any means whatsoever is prohibited without the written consent of UM having been first had and obtained;
(6) I am fully aware that if in the course of making this Work I have infringed any copyright whether intentionally or otherwise, I may be subject to legal action or any other action as may be determined by UM.

Candidate's Signature   Date:

Subscribed and solemnly declared before,

Witness's Signature   Date:

Name:
Designation:

ABSTRACT

Of late, a rapid growth of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) has tremendously changed educational practices, particularly in English language teaching and learning. Consequently, many EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers actively use ICT in their classroom practices as it offers amount of benefits in facilitating student learning. Nevertheless, the advantages of ICT in educational practices do not always impress some other teachers. Some teachers, particularly senior teachers, feel reluctant to integrate ICT in teaching. They do not see themselves as figures who are able to teach more effectively using ICT. In psychological perspective, the way people see themselves refers to a 'self-concept', which is formed by past experiences. In the case of ICT use among teachers, the way teachers see themselves as ICT practitioners not only are associated by past experiences, but also by their possible potential in the future classroom practices. In other words, teachers' self-concept about ICT use also links to how they envision themselves and restructure their future classroom practices. The content of the future-oriented component of self-concept have been termed 'possible selves'. By employing possible selves theory, this study attempted to better understand teachers' possible selves and their use of ICT in TEFL by seeing how EFL teachers in urban and rural setting perceive their possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current ICT use in teaching practices. Another aim was to see how those particular teachers' characteristics (ideal self and ought-to self) in each setting (urban and rural) influence their use of ICT in TEFL. The research methodology utilized in this research was qualitative approach within multiple case studies. Four senior EFL teachers participated in this study through purposeful sampling. Each participant went through two interview sessions and three classroom observations.

The participants' students took part in focused-group interview about EFL subject and their teachers (the participants). The interviews and observations were recorded with the consent of participants. To ensure the trustworthiness of this study, several steps were taken. These steps comprised data triangulation, member check, long-term observation, peer examination, and researcher's bias through reflexivity. The findings of this study revealed that teachers, who guided with ideal selves, were prominently focused on the value of students' learning experiences. Whereas teachers guided by ought-to selves tended to use ICT to merely pass through the lessons without bringing any significant advantage to students' learning. The implication for teacher education and teacher professional development are discussed.

KEMUNGKINAN KENDIRI GURU DAN PENGGUNAAN TMK DALAM PENGAJARAN BAHASA INGGERIS SEBAGAI BAHASA ASING: KAJIAN PELBAGAI KES DI INDONESIA

ABSTRAK

Pada masa ini, pesatnya perkembangan TMK (Teknologi Maklumat dan Komunikasi) telah merubah amalan pendidikan, terutamanya dalam pengajaran dan pembelajaran Bahasa Inggeris. Oleh itu, ramai guru Bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa asing secara aktif menggunakan TMK dalam amalan pengajaran mereka kerana ia menawarkan banyak manfaat dalam memudahkan pengalaman pembelajaran pelajar. Walau bagaimanapun, terdapat beberapa guru, terutamanya guru-guru berpengalaman, merasa keberatan untuk mengintegrasikan TMK dalam pengajaran. Mereka tidak melihat konsep diri mereka sebagai tenaga pengajar yang dapat mengajar dengan lebih berkesan menggunakan TMK. Dalam pengertian ini, konsep diri guru mengaitkan bagaimana mereka membayangkan diri mereka sendiri dan menyusun semula amalan kelas mereka seterusnya dengan penggunaan TMK. Kandungan komponen konsep diri yang berorientasikan masa hadapan ini telah disebut sebagai 'kemungkinan kendiri'. Dengan menggunakan teori kemungkinan kendiri, kajian ini cuba memahami dengan lebih baik guru-guru dalam penggunaan TMK dalam pengajaran Bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa asing dengan cara meneroka bagaimana kemungkinan kendiri guru Bahasa Inggeris di bandar dan luar bandar daripada amalan pengajaran konvensional hingga amalan pengajaran menggunakan TMK. Matlamat lain dalam kajian ini adalah melihat bagaimana ciri-ciri tertentu daripada kemungkinan kendiri guru-guru (unggul kendiri dan patut kendiri) dalam setiap kawasan (bandar dan luar bandar) mempengaruhi penggunaan TMK mereka

dalam pengajaran Bahasa Inggeris sebagai Bahasa Asing. Metodologi kajian yang digunakan dalam kajian ini adalah pendekatan kualitatif dalam kajian pelbagai kes. Empat guru Bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa asing mengambil bahagian dalam kajian ini melalui persampelan bertujuan. Setiap peserta menjalani dua sesi temubual dan tiga pemerhatian di bilik darjah. Para pelajar mengambil bahagian dalam temubual kumpulan berfokus tentang subjek Bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa asing dan guru mereka (peserta). Temubual dan pemerhatian direkod dengan persetujuan peserta. Untuk memastikan kebolehpercayaan kajian ini, beberapa langkah telah diambil. Langkah-langkah ini terdiri daripada triangulasi data, pemeriksaan ahli, pemerhatian jangka panjang, peperiksaan rakan sebaya, dan bias pengkaji melalui amalan refleksi. Hasil kajian ini mendedahkan bahawa guru-guru, yang berpedoman dengan unggul kendiri, menumpukan perhatian kepada nilai pengalaman pembelajaran pelajar. Manakala guru-guru yang berpandukan kepada patut kendiri cenderung menggunakan TMK untuk melangkaui pelajaran tanpa membawa kelebihan yang signifikan kepada pembelajaran pelajar. Implikasi untuk pendidikan guru dan pembangunan profesional guru dibincangkan dalam kajian ini.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This long journey has tremendously changed the way I see myself and the world. Thank you University of Malaya, I will definitely miss the life campus in this university.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Chapter 4: Findings

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF APPENDICES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASEAN : Association of South-East Asian Nations

CAQDAS : Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software

CMS : Content Management System

CPU : Central Processor Unit

CTD : Continuing Teacher Development

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

ELT : English Language Teaching

ICT : Information Communication Technology

IT : Information Technology

L2 : Second/Foreign Language

LCD : Liquid Crystal Display

LMS : Learning Management System

Ms : Microsoft

OHP : Overhead Projector

PC : Personal Computer

PD : Professional Development

RSBI : *Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional*

(International Standard schools)

RQ : Research Question

TEFL : Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TEFLIN Indonesia : The Association of Teaching English as a Foreign Language in

TD : Teacher Development

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Introduction

Language has a fundamental function as a medium for exchanging ideas and information. However, people still experience multiple language barriers when it comes to communicating with others throughout the world (Prasetya, 2016). Fortunately, there is one language that has become a default lingua franca all over the globe (Mauranen, 2018). That language is English, which plays an ever-increasing role in global cultural, political, and economic domains (Zhang & Ardasheva, 2019). This global lingua franca is increasingly important and even compulsory in all nations throughout the world, as people can communicate effectively with others from different countries (Panggabean, 2015; Wyra & Rossetto, 2016).

As English is the most widely spoken language in the world (Hasan, 2018), it influences all kinds of communication and entertainment worldwide. It has been shown in many internet websites that approximately millions of people speak and write English, both in their daily lives and in their professional fields (Intarapanich, 2013). This is because English language dominates a number of fields such as arts, commerce, science, technology and education (Martinez, 2017). Subsequently, English has become the most widespread language in the world, used by many people for more purposes than any other language on Earth (Haidara, 2016).

The amount of needs to learn English has made this language becomes a commodity business (Masita, 2018). It is one of the most widely spoken languages, especially for communication between people who speak different languages (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2017). It is mainly used in international contexts with foreigners and

somehow at international conferences or workplaces (Leitner, 2018). Thus, English is assumed to have in this global and competitive world, which has imposed an educational policy for its inclusion as a subject to be taken by many non-English speaking countries throughout the globe (Prilia, Ratminingsih & Myartawan, 2018). In Indonesia, for instance, English is seen as a prestigious language and considered as an access for better future career (Andreani & Dewi, 2017).

Indonesian government has realized that English is important for the country's development, especially in the effort of human resource development (Oktaviani & Fauzan, 2017). Therefore, the Indonesian Government has made English a compulsory subject from junior secondary to tertiary level with the expectation that students will achieve a basic standard competency in English, enabling them to communicate both written and spoken modes (Permendikbud, in Alfian, Wyra, & Rossetto, 2016).

In Indonesia, English is still considered as a foreign language which is also known as EFL (Hidayati, 2018; Silva, 2014; Tantra, 2015; Wiyono, 2017). This means that practicing English occurs mostly in classrooms (Agustina & Cahyono, 2018; Sulistiyo, 2016), which is only taught up to three hours a week in schools (Lie, 2017; Mustafa, 2018). Based on the national curriculum of Indonesia, English has become a compulsory subject since secondary school up to university (e.g. Marzuki, 2017; `Nasrullah & Rahman, 2018). In primary schools from grade four to grade six, the English subject is classified into additional subjects or local content (Nasrullah & Rahman, 2018). Most EFL learners attain English either through formal and informal education. School is one place that facilitate student to learn English where students must learn the language for examination purposes (Adinuansah & Agustini, 2018; Sulistiyo, 2016).

Unlike English language, Indonesian' first language -*Bahasa* does not have tense rules. Hence it constitutes a unique problem by EFL learners in Indonesia. Therefore, those who learn English must be highly exposed to the language as they should be made accustomed to practice the language. This is because EFL learners mostly communicate using their either vernacular or national language after the class hours (Wiyono, 2017). In facing this EFL barrier, some learners, who are strongly motivated, learn English from their surrounding community or through self-study. Mat, Qodriani & Kardiansyah (2018) reported that 58% of the respondents believed that self-study is effective for them to improve their English. Similarly, Amir (2018) reported that students had their own learning preferences and strategies in learning English.

Moreover, Lamb (2007) has found that young people in Indonesia, who passionately learn and use English, were not confined to formal school, but from online/offline computer or mobile usage involving English, English language TV programmes or videos, and through English language songs. Lamb also indicated that 54% of young learners had taken a private English tuition and sometimes at home with a tutor, because they were more concerned with the experience of classroom learning than with the value or importance of English.

Additionally, Lamb (2007) reported that the majority of pupils, who dislike English, complain about English lessons which lack intrinsically motivating activities (e.g., "the lessons just follow the curriculum and do not fulfil the desires or interests of the students"; "Because it is not fun."), or teachers failing to make the lessons comprehensible. Additionally, another research carried out by Amir (2018), reported that language teachers only teach the language. They do not teach the

learners how to learn it. Lie (2017), likewise, reported that most English language learners, in Indonesia, do not demonstrate an adequate command of English.

In short, the problems that EFL students face in Indonesia relate to the types of classroom tasks provided by EFL teachers (Widiati & Cahyono, 2006), or to the teacher her/himself, because teachers have a primary role in determining what is needed, what would be needed and what would work best for their class (Elsami & Fatahi, 2008). In relation to what Lamb (2007) have found about EFL that is mostly learned and used outside classroom through computer, mobile phone, television, Mustafa (2018), similarly, found that most students learned English by watching movies, reading, and communicating with foreigners online and through other Information Communication Technology (ICT) tools.

According to Alkamel and Chouthaiwale (2018), ICT is defined as a different set of technological tools and resources that used to communicate, create, spread and manage information. Mallick and De (2018), explained the purposes of ICT as a diverse set of technological tools and resources used to communicate, and to create, disseminate, store, and manage information. In particular, as cited by Jati (in Floris, 2015), ICT is similar to Information Technology (IT), but focuses primarily on communication technologies, which include the computers, broadcasting technology (radio and television), internet, wireless networks, cell phones, and other communication medium. Thus, ICT becomes essential in language learning.

To date, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has brought numerous benefits to different aspects of living especially in teaching and learning (Husain, 2018). It has brought many innovations in almost every aspect of life (Bajrami & Ismaili, 2016). ICT tools or devices have been proliferating like a storm, give us extra help in revealing the unseen that is beyond our reach, which in turn,

4

give us potential to do things we have not been able to do before (Floriasti, 2018). The adoption and integration of ICT into teaching and learning environment provides more opportunities for teachers and students to work better in a globalised digital age (Lawrence & Tar, 2018). The widespread availability and use of ICT in society, in general, is leading teachers and students to use these tools to complement their teaching and learning processes outside the traditional classroom context (Hinostroza, 2018). Hence, the importance of ICT for teaching and learning becomes widely recognised (Valtonen, Kukkonen, Kontkanen, Sormunen, Dillon, & Sointu, 2015).

Most educational institutions have been integrating ICT in subjects including EFL. It is increasingly used in teaching and learning English all over the world (Tiwari & Singh, 2018). This is because ICT processes information that is greatly being used in teaching as a step to ensure better understanding of concepts and introduction of an array of activities during class hours to make the session interesting and entertaining (John & Arthi, 2018). Hence, it is becoming extremely difficult to ignore the role of ICT in teaching practices as it provides a great advantage in the preparation and organization of teaching classes (Delić-Zimić & Gadžo, 2018; Ozer, 2018).

Some literature also emphasize the importance of using ICT in teaching, as it is a powerful tool in promoting successful teaching and learning activities (e.g. Awada & Ghaith, 2014; Aydin, 2013; Cahyani & Cahyono, 2013; Chang & Hsu, 2011; Hismanoglu, 2012; Hsu, 2013; Hwang, Chen, Shadiev, Huang & Chen 2014; Rusman, Riyana & Kurniawan, 2011; Son, Robb & Charismiadji, 2011; Vurdien, 2013). Al-Munawwarah (2015), for instance, listed three benefits of using ICT in English teaching and learning process; namely helping the teachers to conduct

interesting and enjoyable learning activities, promoting learner autonomy, and motivating the students to learn. Likewise, Benade (2015) pointed out that learning and teaching at school prepare students for engaging in a complex and dynamic world with ICT.

On the other hand, some other research studies raised barriers and other problematic issues relating to the use of ICT in teaching by including several proportions that the researchers presume as key factors that influence teachers to use ICT such as attitudes, knowledge, attributes, cultural perceptions, literacy, competence, behaviour, technical supports, skill and experience (e.g. Chikasa, Ntuli, Sundarjee & Chikasa, 2014; Suleiman, Suleiman, Juma, 2018; Perbawaningsih, 2013; Rahimi & Yodallahi, 2011; Raman & Yamat, 2014; Salehi & Salehi, 2012). Consequently, an implication from the studies above, that raised both pros and cons of ICT use in education, addressed teachers to pro-actively take up professional development courses in ICT for educational purpose. They also implied that the government should provide professional development programmes, curriculum amendment, and technical support.

As a matter of fact, In Indonesia, ICT was first developed in 1983 at the University of Indonesia, in the form of University Network (UINet). The network was developed for over four years (Sutedjo, in Copriady, 2015). Whereas, the implementation of ICT in education have been carried out in Indonesia since 1999. In technical aspects, human resources and content, Priowijanto, Djokosumbogo, Prakoso and Mustafa (2008) listed ICT in education infrastructure developments phases in Indonesia from 1999 until 2013, to align with other nations in the utilization and development of ICT in educational practices (i.e. Network Internet; Network Information School; City Wide Area Network; ICT Center; Indonesia

Higher Education Network; National Education Network; and Southeast Asian Education Network). Moreover, Yulia (2013) has reported that teachers have been trained through pre-service and in-service programmes to achieve good quality teaching as well as developing learning materials in the form online access.

Nevertheless, the use of ICT in educational practices by teachers in Indonesia is apparently far from sufficient (Rye, 2009; Yunus & Wekke, 2009). They encounter problematic issues such as lack of time, technical skills, technical supports and pressures concerning the incorporation of ICT in the curriculum (i.e. Muslem, Yusuf, & Juliana, 2018; Webb, Clough, O'Reilly, Wilmott & Witham, 2017). Safitry, Mantoro, Ayu, Mayumi, Dewanti, and Azmeela (2015), for instance, reported that teachers, especially those who have been teaching for more than ten years, feel depressed in using ICT in classroom activities. The problems appear due to the lack of knowledge on how to apply ICT, as they never have attended a formal training in using ICT. Anas and Musdariah (2018) also emphasized that senior teachers underuse ICT in their teaching practices.

Furthermore, Raman and Yamat (2014) attempted to see why teachers do not use ICT tools in their English classrooms even though the school is fully supported with highly resourced ICT tools and maintenance. They revealed several barriers such as lack of time, workload, teaching experiences and age, lack of ICT skills and negative attitudes towards ICT are hindering the teachers' integration of ICT in their English classrooms. They also reported that some of the teachers were enthusiastic to integrate ICT tools in English teaching and learning, but during the implementation stage, their keenness decreased and they fell back on their traditional mode of teaching.

The rapid growth of ICT and the ICT-literate pupils have shifted educational realms into a new dimension and teachers' demand to meet their pupils' needs. The previous studies above have revealed some factors that trigger teachers to use or not to use ICT in their educational practices. However, the way teachers, particularly mid-career teachers envision themselves and restructure their classroom practices in relation to these changes remain largely unresearched.

According to Sincero (2012), when a person faces different situations and new challenges in his life, his insight towards himself may constantly change depending on the way he responds to such life changes. Sincero states that we see things depending on our self-concept. We behave according to how we see ourselves in a situation. Therefore, self-concept is a continuous development wherein we tend to let go of the things and ideas that are not congruent to our self-concept, and we hold on to those that we think are helpful in building a more favourable perception of our personal existence.

Literally, self-concept is the individual's belief about him/herself (Baumeister, 1999). According to Lee and Oyserman (2012), self-concept is one's theory about oneself, the person in the past, present, and the future, including social roles and group memberships. A well-functioning self-concept helps make sense of one's present, preserves positive self-feelings, makes predictions about the future, and guides motivation. The contents of the future-oriented component of self-concept have been termed 'possible selves' (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Possible selves are broadly defined as representation of individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming. Markus and Nurius (1986) conceptualized possible selves as the domain of self-concept that is concerned with how people think of themselves, their

potential, and their future. The domain is occupied by selves (desired or feared) that reflect some current capabilities and attributes which also reflect the potential for change over time.

Possible selves function as future self-images that channel and give direction to current motivational behaviours and so, provide a conceptual link between the self-concept and motivation (Markus & Nurius, 1986). When we imagine doing something, we also 'experience' the action and feel emotionally involved. As we can utilise actual life experiences to improve future performance. In this sense, imagined-experiences enable us to predict how we may behave in certain situations, where we may succeed and where we may fail (Ryan & Irie, 2014).

If we look back into findings of previous studies related to the use of ICT among teachers, especially those issues in teaching by using ICT, the prominent factor for not using ICT does not come from ICT support, attitudes, skills, or competence, but from their self-concept. In other words, they do not see themselves as figures who are able to teach more effectively using ICT. Indeed, Raman and Yamat (2014) reported, there are teachers who believe in traditional method which lets the students touch, feel and learn, and promotes an interactive lesson without using ICT (i.e. "too old to adapt new teaching styles and happy with his/her own teaching period").

In other words, the way teachers perceive their next teaching practices in responding to such domain (ICT in teaching practices), relate to his/her past teaching experiences. Accordingly, his/her future self-image triggers necessary self-regulation along the way. As Dornyei (2009) pointed out, future possible self-images motivate action by triggering the execution of self-regulatory mechanisms.

Hence, this study attempts to propose teachers' possible selves as another factor of ICT use in teaching practices. As White (2007) believed that the most crucial challenge for teachers using ICT in teaching comes not from changes in knowledge, roles, skills and practices per se, but from challenges to teacher self in each domain. Likewise, Ushioda (2011) suggested that focusing on the internal domain of self has important implications for how language teachers engage the motivation, interests of their students; and for why teachers should exploit their students' world of digital technologies, social networking and online communication to this end.

1.2   Background of the Study

1.2.1   Teachers' possible selves

Teachers, particularly language teachers, are often called upon to adjust or restructure their pedagogical and professional practices in response to changes in curricula, materials, classes and learners, and in response to shifts in broader understandings of language learning and teaching (White & Ding, 2009). Consequently, many teacher-education researchers are interested in how individuals perceive and manage important transition phases of their lives by employing future-oriented selves (Hamman, Coward, Johnson, Lambert, Zhou, & Indiatsi, 2013).

In addressing the transition phases faced by teachers, some researchers have conducted studies to see how teachers reshape their self-concept when they face conflict between their future-oriented selves and unexpected circumstances they encounter by employing possible selves theory (e.g. Hamman, Gosselin, Romano, & Bunuan, 2010; Kubanyiova, 2009; Kumazawa, 2013).

In teacher domain, particularly language teachers, Kubanyiova (2007, 2009) developed a new framework of the "possible language teacher self", which draws on "possible selves" theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and "L2 motivational self-system" (Dornyei, 2005, 2009). From her theory, she derived two key constructs: (1) ideal language teacher self, which constitutes identity goals and aspirations that involve the self which they would ideally like to attain; (2) ought-to language teacher self, which refers to the language teachers' cognitive representations of their responsibilities and obligations regard to their work.

A previous study was carried out by Kumazawa (2013), employed possible selves theory to investigate pre-service to in-service phases among EFL teachers. He revealed conflict between what the teachers ideally want to become (i.e. want to be a respectable teacher, focusing on communicative approach) and the reality that they faced in the first year of their teaching career (i.e. disruptive students, their students' resistance to the communicative approach and the love for writing activities instead). This unexpected circumstance and all tensions coming from the extensive range of duties prevented them from pursuing their ideal self-images. Thus, under inescapable pressures from the environment, the novice teachers' ideal English teacher selves gradually surrendered to the imposed ought-to selves.

The conflict between what the teachers ideally want to become and the reality they faced in the professional teaching environment was confirmed by Kim and Cho (2014) who also found the same pattern. In this regard, Kim and Cho concluded that teachers, especially during the first few years of teaching, tend to experience varying degrees of reality shock. These novice teachers' reality shock is associated with the significant discrepancies between theories and practices, unexpected obstacles

imposed by the teaching environment, the complex role of the teacher, and the heavy workload.

Another research was carried out by White and Ding (2009), employed ideal and ought-to selves of 23 experienced language teachers in China, UK, and New Zealand to examine how possible selves relate to teachers' engagement in the new teaching domain of e-language teaching programme. Their case study revealed that teachers, who were driven by ought-to selves, were struggling with the imperative to engage with new technologies and failed to fully meet perceived students' needs. While teachers, who were driven by ideal selves, collectively and successfully shaping (as well as being shaped by) innovations through intra and inter group interaction sustained, which is not only by intrinsic interest, experimentation and motivation but also by a greater awareness of and engagement with others.

In short, Kumazawa's study has made significant contributions by incorporating 'possible selves' theory with EFL teachers' phases transition. However, the transition of teachers lives do not only happen to the novice teachers. The rapid growth of ICT and current students, the so-called 'digital natives' (Prensky, 2001) who usually adapt quickly to technology (Raman & Yamat, 2014), are also a challenge phase to teachers, mainly those who have been teaching for decades and have experienced a convenience in traditional classroom setting.

Likewise, White and Ding's (2009) study has also made significant contributions in supporting the imperative role of possible selves as powerful motivators for experienced teachers who try to implement changes to their teaching. However, their study only focused on teachers' tendency for joining the e-language teaching development programme they conducted during their study. Whereas, the main challenge of experienced teachers is not only in e-language teaching, but

beyond electronic language features, that is ICT tools which have been growing rapidly and somehow urging them to use these in their work routines.

Thus, this study attempted to delve the issue deeper, by employing possible selves theory to see how EFL teachers perceive their self-concept from their past conventional teaching practices to the current ICT demanding teaching practices, and to see how those teachers' possible selves categories (ideal self and ought-to self) influence them in using ICT in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL).

1.2.2 Teachers' Use of ICT in TEFL

In these digital days of time, information and communication technology changes everything; it also changes various ways to communicate. We can communicate through short message, social media, computer, tablet, or smartphones. It also means that we can use those tools as a platform to learn or to teach English (Fauzi, 2018). In language teaching domain, English has achieved prominence to develop communication among nations as well as the rapid growth of communications technology (Yulia, 2014). Students have been engaged with ICT devices in their life. Hence, more and more literature confirmed the importance and effectiveness of merging ICT in an educational environment (e.g. Bacescu, 2014; Chandra & Mills, 2015; Husain, 2018). Lawrence and Tar (2018), for instance, emphasized that the adoption and integration of ICT into teaching and learning environment provides more opportunities for teachers, as it has the potential to play an increasingly important role in educational activities in a classroom, administration and online instruction or other activities.

Therefore, teacher is the one who should manage, plan, and make the teaching process interesting and engaging (Panggua, Wello, & Macdonald, 2017). Hence, the

role of the teacher is critically important in mediating students' awareness of the language learning, offered by the everyday technologies they use (Ushioda, 2011), as Sulisworo, Nasir, and Maryani (2017) emphasized that teacher is one of the key factors to raise successful learning outcomes and a crucial factor to determine the quality of education.

In the Indonesian context, Jati (in Floris, 2014) stated that implementing ICT in the school will improve the quality of classroom activities as both teachers and students can have quick and affordable access to most up-to-date sources and information. Likewise, Yusri & Goodwin (2013) suggested that improving ICT skill and knowledge of teachers is essential for the success of ICT integration into education. Additionally, Cahyani and Cahyono (2012) reported that language classrooms should have various types of technology and that the teachers themselves should use them to develop students' language skills.

The literature above is only the view of many others who underline the importance and benefits of ICT use in educational practices. Yet, using ICT in teaching is not always beneficial to teachers. In fact, there are several researchers who have raised the issues of using ICT in language teaching. Two of them are Raman and Yamat (2014) who attempted to determine the reasons for teachers not using ICT in the classrooms, even though they are provided with sufficient technical supports. They found that the senior teachers with more experience in teaching did not prefer to use ICT tools in their English classes. The reasons are lack of skills and time in preparing ICT tools before starting the lesson due to the workload.

Another study was carried out by Jones (2001) who found that the teachers prefer to use the traditional method for teaching English language in their classroom because of their lack of motivation, acceptance and readiness towards the ICT

integration and adoption in teaching and learning process. Kim (in Leem & Sung, 2018), also reported that teachers who have more traditional teaching philosophies or who do not believe in the effectiveness of using ICT may avoid integrating ICT in their teaching practices. Teo and Zhou (2017) pointed out that when teachers do not use ICT in the way it was designed to function, they do not exploit the capabilities of the ICT in question to serve their professional purposes. From the literature, many technology acceptance studies have focused on the identification of factors that affect users' ICT acceptance.

These issues also occur in Indonesian context, whereby teachers do not implement ICT because of their low ICT skill level (Yusri & Goodwin, 2013). It is consistent with the study carried out by Sumintono, Wibowo, Mislan and Tiawa (2012) who revealed some issues regarding the use of ICT in Indonesia such as teachers' skill and competence, the effectiveness of ICT implementation in education, and lack of hardware and software facilities. The lack of technical supports was also reported by Dwi, Ulaya, and Emma (2017) as one of the factors that inhibit teachers to implement ICT in classroom. Besides technical support, ICT competence is common factors, reported by researchers, as a barrier in ICT integration (e.g. Relmasira, Thrupp, & Hunt, 2017).

Besides factors above, Suhartono and Junus (2014) elaborated two main obstacles that inhibit teachers in using ICT: (1) teachers' day-to-day heavy workloads, due to the regulation that teachers must fulfil certain hours per week, and let alone, working with ICT is not yet included in the work load; and (2) high school teachers are forced to focus on the national test and the university entrance with multiple choice questions. Syvänen, Mäkiniemi, Syrjä, Heikkilä-Tammi and Viteli (2016) pointed out that the accelerating digitalization of society has resulted in a

demand to speed up the implementation of ICT in teaching. However, the demand to increase ICT use in teaching practices may also cause stress among teachers.

Raising either pros or cons towards ICT use in education, the research studies discussed above suggested that attitudes, competence, knowledge, skill, and technical supports, age, and experience are factors of ICT implementation in education. These revealed factors led them to advocate teachers, schools, and government with several solutions (i.e. conducting ICT-related professional development programmes, providing proper technical support, and curriculum amendment) (e.g. Yusri & Goowin, 2013; Cahyani & Cahyono, 2013; Raman & Yamat, 2014).

In response to the studies' implications above, providing technical support and ICT training to teachers, in fact, has been implemented in Indonesia since 1999 (e.g. Priowirjanto, Djokosumbogo, Prakoso & Mustafa, 2008). However, due to the geographical issues in Indonesia, this educational ICT development expansion could not reach the whole region. Indeed, Elmunsyah (2012) reports that the obstacles that may inhibit the implementation of ICT in the schools located in remote areas, in Indonesia, are: (1) inefficient management of infrastructure; (2) monopoly of the government in managing the infrastructure; and (3) limited funding, especially in the initial investment.

In other words, relying on the government to keep updating the technical supports and running ICT-related teacher training programme, do not effectively encourage teachers to utilize ICT in their work routine. As a result, those realisations remain obsolete and are being abandoned. Additionally, factors identified from the studies above (i.e. attitudes, competence, knowledge, skill, technical supports, age, and experience) seem merely other teachers' external excuses for not implementing

ICT in TEFL. Whereas, the teachers' internal inclination about their selves as teachers in facilitating classroom activities through ICT remain uninvestigated.

Thus, this study attempts to investigate the teachers' self-concept through lens of possible selves theory pertaining to ICT that is rapidly growing. As White and Ding (2009) believe that the notion of possible selves is a useful lens to bring to examining how experienced language teachers envision and re-envision themselves in the new domain.

1.3   Statement of the Problem

We are at present witnessing a rapid increase in the use of English as a language of wider communication (Smith, 2015). It is undoubtedly often claimed that English dominates computers, internet, and it is an increasingly urban language associated with growing middle classes, metropolitan workplaces and city lifestyles (Graddol, 2006). Therefore, we are prompted to have good English language proficiency (Amir, 2018). However, in Indonesia, English is only taught in the classroom. Hence, students have less time to practice English as they do not practice it properly outside the classroom (Syatriana, 2018).

In the case of regional divides, Javed, Juan, and Nazli (2013) pointed out that there was a significant difference between the English performance of urban and rural students. A study carried out by Lamb (2012) in Indonesia, offers strong evidence for the existence of regional differences in junior high school pupils' motivation to learn English, and in the progress they are making. In short, a young Indonesian's chance of gaining mastery of English depends most of all on where (s)he lives, with those living in the central area of a city holding a huge advantage over those from rural areas. Kang and Liang (2018) pointed out that English teaching

and learning are far from enough in rural schools, and thus students are in a more disadvantageous position compared to their peers in the urban areas.

Similarly, Soebari and Aldridge (2016) indicated that schools in rural areas, in Indonesia, were disadvantaged by inadequate resources and facilities. They also reported that students in urban schools were highly motivated to learn English. Whereas in rural schools, students were less enthusiastic and did not enjoy English classes. Soebari and Aldridge revealed that the differences in enjoyment of English classes for urban and rural students could have been influenced by the teaching strategies used by the teachers, the materials presented during English lessons and the value that the students held for learning English.

A recent study by Mudra (2018) also revealed more learners in rural Indonesia consider English classes difficult to follow. This can be seen from their ignorance and lack of attention during the English lessons. Mudra explained that some learners did not respond to their EFL teachers enthusiastically and they did not try to follow their teachers' instructions. Noise of the learners shows that teaching and learning process was not properly accomplished. In another case, reported by Yulia (2013) EFL teachers seemed to dominate the class with their 'language mixture' and students tended to keep silent. When the students gave responses, they mostly spoke in Bahasa Indonesia.

Certain obstacles frequently appear during the foreign language learning process, which include external matter from the students' surroundings such as tools and study aid or learning strategies. In addition, there are also internal ones derived from the students themselves, comprising self-motivation to learn (Yusri, Romadloni, & Mantasiah, 2017). Apart from the disadvantage of gaining mastery of English in rural areas, Lamb (2013) revealed that there were still some learners in

rural Indonesia claimed to invest effort in learning English beyond the requirements of their school lessons. Mudra (2018) also reported that some learners in rural areas are motivated due to the importance of English for the future.

In studying the tendency of young people learning second/foreign language (L2) in rural and urban Indonesia, Lamb (2012, 2013) employed 'L2 motivational self system' (Dornyei, 2005, 2009). This model also draws on 'possible selves' theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and 'self-discrepancy' (Higgins, 1987), from which Dornyei operationalizes two key categories: (1) ideal L2 self, which represents the attributes one would ideally like to possess (i.e. a representation of personal hopes, wishes to reach future career that require L2 fluency); (2) ought-to L2 self, which corresponds to the more externally regulated types of instrumental motive that have a prevention focus (i.e. studying hard for English in order to avoid failing an exam).

In Lamb's study (2013), he found some students in rural areas, strive to achieve their ideal future self that require English fluency (i.e. studying abroad or becoming a flight attendant). Based on the interview, learners mention various strategies to learn English outside school (i.e. private tuition, internet, television, and other ICT tools), and there is no evidence that any of them were following a plan or had any pedagogic guidance, in which activities appeared to be idiosyncratic and spontaneous. In fact, school itself was strangely absent from the students' talk during the interview in Lamb's study. Similarly, recent study carried out by Mustafa (2018) revealed that more students, in Indonesia, learned English outside the schools.

Furthermore, Lamb (2012) revealed evidence that individual teachers have a strong influence on pupils' attitudes to the experience of learning English. Thus, he suggests that the role of the teacher is potentially important in converting generally positive attitudes toward English into actual learning effort. This finding is supported

by the contrasting motivation levels of classes within schools taught by different teachers. Additionally, Lamb also pointed out many young Indonesians have attributed to the conflicted feelings, by sharing a strong cultural predisposition to respect their school teacher, yet also feeling frustrated by aspects of their teaching.

In line with Lamb's findings pertaining to the tendency of young learners to deal with ICT tools to learn English, and the importance of teacher's role in successful teaching and learning, Ramat and Yamat (2014) pointed out that the present young people who usually adapt quickly to technology, impacts the situation in the schools. Therefore, there have been worldwide changes taking place in the teaching and learning process towards the use of ICT tools. This is because young learners eagerly use various ICT devices like computer, laptop, android phone, or tab in their learning (Mallick & De, 2018).

The utilization of ICT tools in schools then demand teachers to use them for their instruction with all the benefits they can offer. Although teachers have a positive response to ICT implementation (Awada & Ghaith, 2014; Cahyani & Cahyono, 2013; Rusman et al, 2011; Vurdien, 2013), many other teachers feel uncomfortable with these changes (Chikasa, Ntuli, Sundarjee & Chikasa, 2014; Koppi, Naghdy, Chicaro, Sheard, Edwards, 2008; Perbawaningsih, 2013; Rahimi & Yodallahi; Salehi & Salehi, 2012), particularly the experienced teachers who were conveniently used to the traditional method, critiqued themselves as too old to adapt to the new ICT tools, and did not want to use the new methods of teaching (Raman & Yamat, 2014).

Turning to EFL teaching and learning, Lamb's (2012, 2013) studies have made significant contributions, to how rural-urban divide among Indonesian causes different chances of gaining mastery of English. It also included how such ideal

future self breaks that regional boundary and induced EFL learners to facilitate the necessary self-regulation along the way (i.e. using ICT tools to learn English). What Lamb has revealed, as well as the issues of EFL teachers that were raised in his studies, explained above, encouraged the researcher to delve into teachers' possible selves and their use of ICT in TEFL.

1.4   Significance of the Study

Dunkel and Kerpelman (2006), pointed out that research pertaining to possible selves have grown in many directions and shown great promise for continuing important contributions to a number of fields. In fact, one growing area of possible selves work is in the educational field. This is because possible selves offer a unique and viable approach to helping individuals learn, in ways to identify and work toward attainable self-goals in the academic and career domain.

Lee and Oyserman (2012), indeed, specifically asserted that teachers have possible selves images of how things might be in the near and more distant future. These images illustrate that change is possible. It is because possible selves are malleable and can be influenced by intervention. Thus, they can undergird self-improvement by showing a path toward the future and by highlighting where one might end up if effort is not maintained.

In order to supplement additional contributions in both fields (i.e. possible selves theory; the use ICT in TEFL), this study intends to provide insights into EFL teachers in particular, and other educators in general, due to similar circumstances that they may encounter (i.e. their possible selves dealing with the rapid growth of ICT). Thus, in utilizing the findings of this study, the researcher expects that teachers

will gain a greater understanding of the importance of teachers' awareness of their selves change that influence their behaviour.

Furthermore, in order to build awareness of teachers' possible selves to anticipate upcoming changes/challenges (e.g. ICT in TEFL), this study is significant to the schools and institutions of pre-service teachers (i.e. by adopting 'teachers possible selves' into their pre-service teachers programme, and teacher's self development programme for in-service teachers).

A number of research in the field of ICT in educational practices commonly addressed the government to continuously facilitate ICT supports into schools (e.g. Ghavifekr, Razak, Ghani, Ran, Meixi & Tengyue, 2014; Özdemir, 2017). Although relying on the government is feasible, several drawbacks remain. First, it requires huge expenses which have been a common issue in some countries or institutions (e.g. Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2015). Second, ICT facilities in school remain unutilized by the teachers (e.g. Crompton, Burke, & Gregory, 2017; Kopcha, 2012). Consequently, this solution is potentially redundant, as ICT devices are constantly changing in a rapid pace and can be obsolete.

Therefore, this study would rather offer an alternative solution (i.e. by adopting possible selves theory) that can bring long lasting impact to teachers. This is because, if teachers have successfully built their self awareness of how their ideal and ought-to selves affect their behaviour, they will supposedly use the proper ICT tools by themselves, as ICT devices have becoming more affordable to them.

1.5   Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to better understand teachers' possible selves and their use of ICT in TEFL. Another objective is to see how those teachers' possible

selves (ideal self and ought-to self) in each setting (urban and rural) influence their use of ICT in educational activities. From this understanding, it is hoped that the dissonance between teachers' possible selves and their ICT use in education can be minimized for a successful EFL teaching and learning process.

1.6 Research Questions

To achieve the objectives above, the study is guided by the following research questions:

1. How do EFL teachers in urban setting perceive their possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current ICT use in teaching practices?

2. How do EFL teachers in rural setting perceive their possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current ICT use in teaching practices?

3. How do EFL teachers' possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self) in urban setting influence their use of ICT in TEFL?

4. How do EFL teachers' possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self) in rural setting influence their use of ICT in TEFL?

1.7   Theoretical Background of the Study

This study stands on Markus and Nurius's (1989) 'possible selves' theory and Kubanyiova's (2009) 'possible language teacher self' concept. Possible selves theory defined as individuals' imagined-future selves of what they expect to become or afraid of becoming, whether in long term (e.g. next 20 years) or in short term (e.g. next week) (Lee & Oyserman, 2012; Oyserman & Fryberg, 2006). These possible selves derive from representations of the self in the past, and they include representation of the self in the future (Markus and Nurius, 1986), which contain

information about self-related concerns that guide decisions about what goals to work on, where to expend time and effort, what to avoid or resist, and what to abandon (Smith & Freund, 2002).

In this sense, possible selves serve three important functions, resulting the direction of current behaviour. First, possible selves provide information to individuals about progress toward their desired future selves, or away from their undesired future selves, (Hamman et al 2013); second, possible selves may also reflect an individual's motivation to try to control the direction of his/her future life, such as self-improvement, self-maintenance, or efforts to minimize loss (Hamman et al., 2013; Smith & Freund, 2002); and third, possible selves are also dynamic in the sense that the power they exert is situationally determined, which is highly dependent on current circumstance or the state of mind of the individual at a particular point in time (Henry, 2015).

ACTIVATED
(Working self is the "activated" self schema)

EXTERNAL
(Environmental cues may elicit self-schema)

INTERNAL
(Behavior self-regulated in a manner consistent with self-schema)

POTENTIAL
(All possible self-representations including possible selves, goals, efficacy)

Figure 1.1. Possible selves are the product of individual self-concept, social environment, and the interaction between them (Hamman et al., 2010)

In relation to teachers' current work as EFL teachers, who are facing certain challenges (i.e. ICT in TEFL), Kubanyiova's (2007, 2009) possible language teacher self, provides information about teachers' cognitive representations of their ideal and ought-to selves that function as an incentive for development and change. Kubanyiova's (2007, 2009) conceptualization of possible language teacher self, is operationalized as (1) ideal language teacher self (self which they would ideally like to attain, and (2) ought-to language teacher self (cognitive representations of responsibilities and obligations with regard to their work).

This concept provides information about how each category has its own sake that drives language teachers of a choice for their professional development. Whereby, teacher with ideal self reflects a central need to repair perceived inadequacies of his/her self as a teacher. Whereas teacher with ought-to self is more likely adhered to normative obligations, which was found to be the least significant in driving choices for taking any professional development programme. In this sense, this theory helps current researcher to understand the cases from the particular angle. That is to see how EFL teachers' possible selves (ideal and ought-to) deal with their current circumstances and whether they react accordingly for their professional improvement.

The theoretical background of this study is also drawn from previous research, in EFL field, that provide imperative following information: (1) future self image affects current behaviour in order to 'progress towards' (ideal self) or 'away from' (ought-to self) desired future selves (e.g. Lamb, 2012, 2013); (2) the conflict between ideal self image and undesired reality lead to a person's possible self from 'want to become' (ideal self) into 'have to become' (ought-to self) (e.g. Kumazawa, 2013); and (3) a person's tendency in joining such professional development

programme, either for 'career secure' (ought-to self) or 'personal growth' (ideal self) (e.g. White & Ding, 2009). This information contributes into the meaning-making process of the cases being studied.

Based on the previous studies above, the current researcher generates the assumptions, if the ideal self is activated within oneself; he/she is more likely to tackle necessary efforts to achieve desired future self despite encountering certain obstacle. However, when they meet undesired circumstance, they will face conflict between their ideals and the reality. This incongruence will potentially impose their ideals to ought-to selves, which in turn influence their behaviour and affect their performance in particular domain. This is in accordance to Dornyei (2009), who believes that the ought-to self is closely related to peer-group norms and other normative pressure, that conflict with individual's ideal self. This dimension (i.e. ought-to self) concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes, which is to be less internalised types of instrumental motives.

From these assumptions, I conclude that ideal self has possibility to strive sustainable efforts, because a person, who is mostly driven by ideal self, tends to generate powerful self-regulation in order to fulfil his/her personal growth. Whereas a person, who is mostly driven by ought-to self, is prone to execute temporal efforts, as his/her tendency is merely to reach the prevention boundary.

1.8   Conceptual Framework

Possible selves theory is used in forming the conceptual framework to guide this study. It operates as a lens to understand how teachers' possible selves influence their classroom practices, especially in ICT use in TEFL. Figure 1.2 illustrates the

interaction between situation, activated self-concept, appraisal towards the situations, possible selves categories, self-regulation, and ICT use in TEFL. The single arrows between elements indicate one-way interaction. In other words, one element can only influence the pointed element. Whereas the double arrows indicate two-way interaction. Meaning, the elements can influence each other. For example, 'ideal self' and 'ought-to self' can influence 'ICT use in TEFL'. Whereas the use of ICT in TEFL can influence and can be influenced by environmental cues/situation and standard/self regulation.

In addressing the first and the second research questions, the researcher explored the malleability of teachers' possible selves towards situational changes from early teaching to the present. As Henry (2015) pointed out that possible selves are highly dependent on current situations and the state of mind of the individual at a particular point in time. The appraisals depend on how an individual responds to the situations, which is influenced by her/his self-concept. Whatever appraisal he/she makes, it triggers projections of his/her possible selves (ideal self or ought-to self). These activated teachers' possible selves influence his/her standards within a particular domain, which leads to self-regulations. This mechanism reoperates whenever different situations occur.
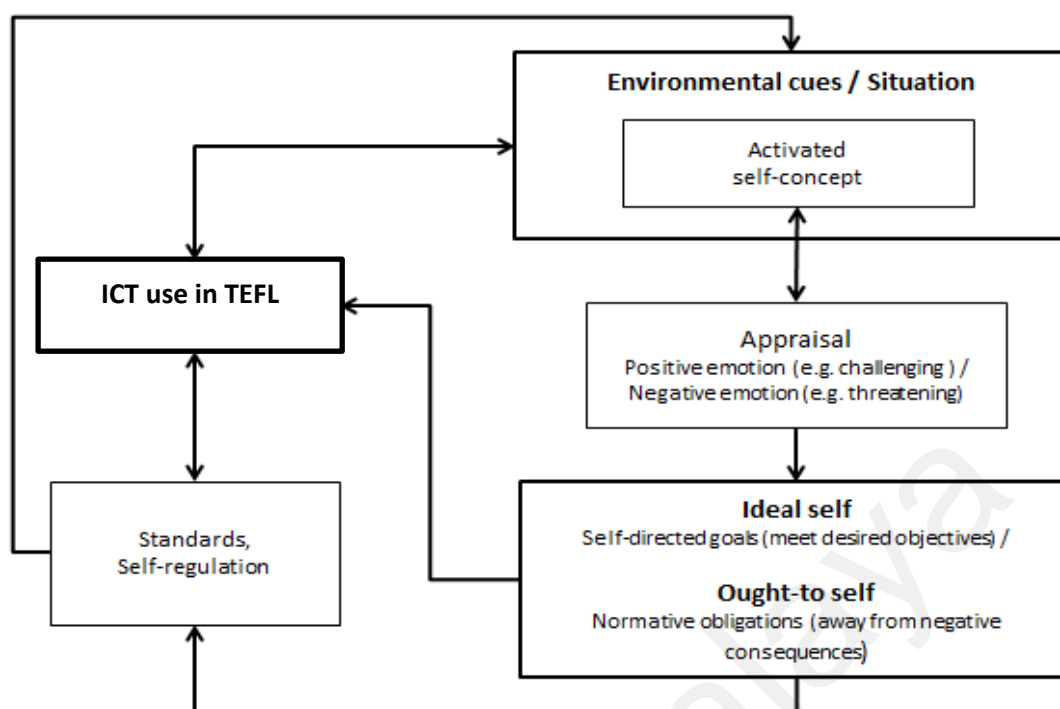
Figure 1.2. Conceptual framework

In addressing the third and fourth research questions, the researcher focused on how teacher's ideal self or ought-to self influences his/her ICT use in TEFL. Figure 1.2 illustrates that teachers' possible selves influence their use of ICT in TEFL. The teachers' use of ICT is also influenced by encountered situations, how they see themselves in the face of a particular circumstance, and their standards.

According to Vohs and Schmeichel (2007), standards are ideals, norms, obligations, or other guidelines that represent the end goal that people seek to meet when they engage in self-regulation. They explain that when a person becomes aware of a standard that he/she wants to meet, an assessment is done to check whether the goal is currently being met. If it is, no self-regulation is needed. If the standard is not being met, then there is a discrepancy that needs to be closed and therefore self-regulation is needed. In this sense, ideal self tends to undertake action to meet a different level of standards than the ought-to self does.

1.9   Limitations of the Study

The implementation of this study bears a few limitations. First, this study only involves two categories of possible selves – ideal self and ought-to self – due to the preliminary study results that only detected those two possible selves categories among the teachers in research sites. Second, the sample selection was just limited to those experienced teachers, who have experience in traditional teaching practices. Thus, the comparison of their possible selves before and during their use of ICT can be made.

1.10   Definition of Terms

The terms which are used in this study are defined as the following:

1.10.1 Teachers' Possible Selves

Teachers and educators, of all stripes, are accustomed to thinking about the future in terms of instructional objectives, students' outcomes, and curriculum standard by navigating their current self-view in response to the demands of contextual influences (Hamman et al., 2013). Possible selves act as 'future self-guides', reflecting a dynamic, forward pointing conception that can explain how someone is moved from present toward the future (Dornyei, 2009). In this study, teachers' possible selves are defined as the representation of teachers' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming when dealing with certain circumstance.

Since possible selves theory first published, several terminologies have been arisen to describe the specific characteristics of the theory. Back in the last three decades, pioneering possible selves researchers Markus and Nurius (1986), distinguished the theory into three main types: (1) 'hoped-for selves' or 'ideal selves'

that we would very much like to become; (2) selves that we could become; and (3) 'feared selves' that represent the selves that we are afraid of becoming. A few years afterwards, Oyserman and Markus (1990), came up with 'expected selves' which has similar meaning to hoped-for and ideal selves.

After proliferated in psychology field, a psycholinguistics researcher, Dornyei (2005) adopted possible selves theory to construct L2 motivational self-system, which comprises 'ideal L2 self' and 'ought-to L2 self' based on Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy terminologies (i.e. ideal self and ought self). Not long afterwards, Kubanyiova (2007) formulated possible language teacher self, that she segregated into three categories: 'ideal language teacher self', 'ought-to language teacher self', and 'feared language teacher self'.

In this context, I employ two possible selves' categories: ideal self & ought-to self, based on Kubayiova's (2009) possible language teacher self concept: (1) Ideal self, which constitutes identity goals and aspirations of the language teachers, that is, involves the self who they would ideally like to attain; and (2) Ought-to self, which refers to the language teachers' cognitive representations of their responsibilities and obligations with regard to their work.

1.10.2 Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in TEFL

ICT is information and communication technology which consist of hardware, software, network and media for collecting, storing, processing, transmitting and presenting information (voice, data, text and image) as well as related services (Talebian, Mohammadi & Rezvanfar, 2014). It is also a form of technology for creating, displaying, manipulating, and exchanging information (Meleisea, in Salem & Mohammadzadeh, 2018).

In this context, ICT in TEFL refers to information and communication technology / multimedia devices that teachers use for their classroom practices. Those devices include online/offline Personal Computer (PC), mobile phone, Liquid Crystal Display (LCD) projector, television, radio/tape and other information technology tools with one- or two-way communication features.

1.10.3 Conventional/Traditional Teaching Practices

In this study, conventional/traditional teaching practices refer to classroom practices that merely equipped with traditional teaching tools such as chalk, blackboard, textbooks and all manual teaching tools that do not require electronic devices.

1.11   Roadmap of the Thesis

This chapter provides the context of the study and background information related to the study topic. This chapter also introduces the purpose, significance, theoretical framework, and limitation of the study. The chapter that follows, presents literature review that features the theories employed in this study (i.e. possible selves, self discrepancy, L2 motivational self-system, and possible language teacher self), Teachers' use of ICT in TEFL and its issues, including the link between teachers' possible selves and language teaching through technology. In chapter 3, I describe the methodology and procedures in collecting and analysing the data. Chapter 4 elaborates findings of the study. Lastly, Chapter 5 presents discussion of the findings, theoretical and practical implication, suggestions, and conclusion.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with English as a foreign language and problematic issues in English teachers in Indonesia, then followed by possible selves, teachers' possible selves and Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in TEFL and its issues related to the implementation in teaching and learning practices.

2.2 English as a Foreign Language

The term "English as a Foreign Language" (EFL) typically refers to the status of English in countries or regions where English is not dominantly used for daily communication by the local people (i.e. Chandra & Hayati, 2018; Damayanti, 2017). Thus, in EFL context, school becomes a foundational vehicle for English language learning (Irmawati, Widiati, & Cahyono, 2017). In many cases, learning EFL is confined to activities conducted in classrooms without practice of the target language in genuine settings (Ozverir, Herrington, & Osam, 2016).

Various researchers and educators have taken different approaches to defining the role of English and the position or status of English in Southeast Asia (Ireland & Van Benthuysen, 2014). As a foreign language, English language has been taught at schools since the Dutch colonial era in Indonesia (Yumarnamto, 2017). Schools have become important places to learn English, mainly because Indonesian learners do not practice English on a daily basis (Irmawati, Widiati, & Cahyono, 2017). Hence, English language is learned as a compulsory subject from secondary schools to tertiary education (Hidayati, 2018; Larson, 2014).

In Indonesian educational system, the aims of teaching English are divided into several divisions: (1) English as a compulsory subject, which is taught to the first year students of junior high school (age eleven to twelve years old) up to the third year students of senior high school (sixteen to seventeen year old students); (2) some schools start teaching English at an earlier age as an optional subject; and (3) several higher educational institutions provide English as a compulsory subject for one semester or more (Yufrizal, 2018).

In secondary schools, English is regarded as an important subject, as it is one of the core subjects in Indonesian curriculum. The English language ability of students is assessed in national exams across junior and senior secondary schools (i.e. Qoyyimah, 2015; Yulia, 2013). Most secondary schools offer three hours of English a week every semester throughout the two levels of the schools (i.e. junior and senior high schools). Each level takes three years (Mustafa & Kirana, 2017) with the expectation that students will be able to communicate and to express their ideas, feelings, and thoughts in English (Manurung, 2015).

Nevertheless, as reported by Amir (2018), a great number of students are unsuccessful in learning English. They do not know how exactly to learn it. Amir pointed out that low proficiency in English among students in Indonesia has been a significant issue in the educational system. This issue has become a long debate and a hot topic among researchers. Indeed, Poedjiastutie, Akhyar, Hidayati, and Nurul Gasmi (2018) pointed out that English proficiency of Indonesian learners is considered low and unsatisfactory. As stated by Musthafa (2015), the low English proficiency among students is caused by the lack of English exposure on a daily basis. Whereas, EFL learners' communicative activities in real-life, and all kinds of

environmental supports, can contribute to the English language development of the learners.

In EFL context, as pointed out by Luo (2017), English has been traditionally taught as a school subject and learners rarely have opportunities to use English outside classrooms. Indeed, Panggabean (2015) pointed out that Indonesian speaking learners of English, indeed, spend very little time using and thinking in English. They are dependent on classroom learning activities that may occur twice a week, in which, each meeting lasts an hour. Moreover, the teachers mostly teach in a traditional method and rarely use English as their language instruction. This means that the actual time spent in one week is less than two hours.

Additionally, after graduating from senior high school and having learned English for six years, some graduates are still unable to use English properly. Al-Hazmi (2017), for instance, reported that many students are not effective in using English for further academic or real-life purposes after they leave secondary school in spite of the fact that they have had studied English for six years. Some of the reasons, as reported by Amir (2018), that most students merely learn English in schools and they do not practice the language outside classrooms. Marzuki (2017), similarly, reported that students more dominantly use their mother tongues than English during speaking class activities. The lack of English language practices by students is considered, by Weda and Sakti (2018), as low student interest and motivation to learn English. This is because of the difficulties in understanding the language elements such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

Another issue, reported by Musthafa (2015), is that many Indonesian teachers of English have publicly admitted that they also rarely used English in the classroom. In this case, the teachers tend to use *Bahasa* Indonesia to carry out their English

lessons in the classroom. They merely use English when greeting students before they start and end the sessions. In this situation, students practically do not gain sufficient and functional English language uses. Hence, it becomes difficult to imagine how students in this learning environment would develop a good sense of purposes and direction in learning the language.

This problematic issue of EFL teaching and learning has been intriguing some researchers to carry out further investigation. Mbato (2013), for instance, observed several reasons for the limited effectiveness of EFL teaching and learning in Indonesia. First, EFL learning mostly occurs in the classroom context, with English learners having limited exposure to English for communicative purposes. Second, the only source of learning is from the teachers and learning materials provided in class. Third, students learn English because it is a compulsory part of the school curriculum. Hence, students may not be motivated to learn the language. This third point is also confirmed by Chen (2018) who point out that students tend to be particularly vulnerable to demotivation when it comes to learning EFL as a compulsory subject.

As English is a mandatory subject at secondary schools and that the students are obligated to learn it, their motivation to study remain to be questioned, given the fact that they live in an environment in which they are not required to acquire the English language (Marcellino, 2015). According to Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) motivation to learn is acquired through classroom experiences such as direct instruction, modelling, and interaction with EFL teachers. Larenas, Hernandez, and Navarrete (2015) pointed out that EFL teachers' role is essential, as they are professionals who can better describe and interpret the conditions in which the teaching and learning processes take place at schools. Likewise, Sulisworo, Nasir,

and Maryani (2017) pointed out that one vital factor generally discussed in relation to the quality of education is the teachers.

2.3 Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) is the practice of linguistically educating those for whom English is not their native language (Griffith, in Stainton, 2018). In most cases in Indonesia, English subject is taught by non-native English-speaking teachers who were mostly educated in Indonesia (Qoyyimah, 2015). In order to be a teacher of EFL in Indonesia, the candidates have to attend a teacher education programme in an English Language Education Department. In this programme, candidates or pre-service teachers should have completed courses related to English language, linguistics, English literature, and pedagogy, which includes teaching methods and educational psychology. During the four years, pre-service teachers should also take courses related to civics and the state's ideology. Before completing the programme, they should complete teaching internship at either public or private schools. The length of their internship at the schools varies, but typically, the programme is conducted in one semester (Yumarnamto, 2017).

Having completed the English language teaching programme, EFL teachers are supposedly able to teach the language effectively. They also need to have good language proficiency and know the role of content knowledge (Rinantanti, Rahman, Atmowardoyo, & Bin-Tahir, 2017). As non-native English speakers, English teachers in Indonesia are supposed to be the source of language input for learners (Irmayani & Rachmajanti, 2017), as their knowledge have the most significant effect on students' achievement and success (Saleh & Yusof, 2015).

A study carried out by Musthafa and Hamied (2014), attempted to explore essential roles of the EFL teachers. In this study, Musthafa and Hamied distributed questionnaires to 55 activists of TEFLIN (The Association of Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia). The 55 activists represent Indonesia's teachers of Junior and Senior High Schools from secondary school level. The results led to three major roles of teachers that have been and should remain constant: (1) teachers of EFL serve as a model for their students to observe and learn from; (2) EFL teachers structure learning activities so that their students learn English optimally both inside and outside classrooms; and (3) teachers of EFL provide continuous and consistent supports so that their students learn English independently.

Since achieving independence in 1945, Indonesia's educational system has undergone frequent curriculum reforms to address emerging agendas. These reforms continue to change with the competing demands and challenges of the twenty first century. Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) face particular challenges in terms of how they might cope with changes in the flurry of curricular reforms and still stay true to their professional principles (Qoyyimah, 2015). A number of studies have found that English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia tends to be problematic (e.g. Marcellino, 2015; Mudra, 2018; Qoyyimah, 2015; Zein, 2016). The implementation of ELT still provides a question mark on the quality of English language teaching itself (Wahyunengsih, 2018).

It has been so long that the teaching of English in Indonesia is considered as failing in developing learners' competence in the target language (Lengkanawati, 2015). Songbatumis (2017) reported various challenges in teaching English in Indonesia. Those challenges are teachers' limited teaching knowledge and development, shortage of training, limited mastery of teaching methods,

unfamiliarity to ICT, and lack of professional development. Rosmaladewi (2017), also found some issues in TEFL: limited availability of teaching materials; large class size; limited allocation of time; and inappropriate teaching methods.

Teaching a foreign language can be challenging to some people in terms of the form of writing, pronunciation, and grammatical rules that are different from the native language spoken from birth (Hidayati, 2018). According to Mangali and Hamdan (2015), since English was first taught, there have been problems in the teaching of English as a foreign language in Indonesia. The obvious factors that contribute to the ongoing problem in English teaching in Indonesia are the constant changes of curriculum and approaches, large classes and teachers with poor English proficiency. In fact, the problematic issue among EFL teachers was found by Gustine (2018), whereby teachers, in his study, show lack of knowledge on critical literacy as a methodological approach to teach English. In addition, Hendryanti and Kusmayanti (2018) revealed that teachers' pronunciation problems and monotonous teaching strategies were also perceived as issues, as reported by their students. In terms of internal factor, Kuswandono (2014) revealed that most of the teachers, who participated in his study, seem to lack intrinsic motivation to English education.

In response to teaching challenges in the classrooms, many researchers addressed suggestions to the government to improve its educational policies (e.g. Renandya, Hamied, & Nurkamto, 2018; Utami & Prestridge, 2018). Yumarnamto (2017) stated that the government and policy makers are often to be blamed for the failure of teaching English in secondary schools. Rosmaladewi (2017), for instance, suggested that government should provide a variety of teaching materials that can assist teachers and students in teaching and learning. Mistar (2014) also acknowledged that English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia is not yet

successful, due to great challenges in ELT. For this reason, effort to improve quality of English teaching is highly recommended, particularly for the improvement of the professionalism of EFL teachers.

The improvement of teacher professional development is one recommendation that is frequently suggested by many researchers (e.g. Abduh & Rosmaladewi, 2018; Gil-Flores, Rodríguez-Santero, & Torres-Gordillo, 2017; Musthafa & Hamied, 2014; Vanderlinde, Aesaert, & van Braak, 2014; Widiati, Suryati, & Hayati, 2018). This is because professional development has become a major part of most educational reforms around the globe (Rahman, 2016). An important question continually faced by governments across the world is how they should increase the quality of their teaching force (Kusumawardhani, 2017).

Similarly, In Indonesia, the government has made a clear commitment by passing a constitutional mandate to allocate at least 20% of the annual state expenditure for teacher education (Muamaroh, 2018; Soebari & Aldridge, 2016). The next section elaborates types of programmes that have been implemented by the government.

2.4. The Indonesian Government Endeavours to Improve Teacher Quality in Teaching English Language

Along with the strengthening position of English as a language for international communication, English language has become increasingly important (Cahyono & Widiati, 2015). Yet, learning of the English language is considered, by Indonesian students, to be one of the most difficult subjects in schools (Indrajati, in Soebari & Aldridge, 2016). In response to this, the government has been trying to develop the English language curriculum in order to cater to the needs of Indonesian society.

Teachers, for example, have been trained through pre-service and in-service programmes to achieve good quality teaching, as well as, developing learning materials in the form of textbooks or through online access. In brief, much effort has been devoted to improve English language teachers' capacity and students' knowledge (Yulia, 2013). As part of the government's commitment to improving the quality of English language teaching, professional development for teachers has been provided through various projects (Soebari & Aldridge, 2016).

Zein (2016) elaborated that there are three government-based training institutions whose primary responsibility is providing in-service training to teachers, namely: The Center for Development and Empowerment of Language Teachers and Education Personnel (*Pusat Pelatihan and Pendidikan Personel Bahasa*); The Center of Training and Development of Language Teachers (*Pusat Pelatihan dan Pendidikan Guru Bahasa*); and The Center of Human Resources Development and Educational Quality Assurance (*Lembaga Penjaminan Mutu Pendidikan*). These institutions provide training services to teachers through programmes such as short training for teachers, distance training programmes, training for teachers in remote areas and Eastern Indonesia, assessment for language teachers, training for writing research papers, training for teachers in non-formal education, seminars and workshops.

Additionally, besides the programmes mentioned above, the government has been implementing a teacher certification programme to improve teachers' quality and competency in their teaching practices (Hakim, Tunas, & Rubini, 2018). This programme has been introduced by Indonesian government since 2007, and it has become one of the largest certification programmes in the world. This is because the government has been generating huge fiscal and administrative commitments for the

programme (Kusumawardhani, 2017). Since its first implementation, this programme has certified approximately a million teachers (Abdullah, 2015). Teachers with a minimum of a bachelor's degree and a permanent employee status could enter the certification programme. Even though participation is voluntary, all Indonesian teachers were willing to participate for the high incentive given. In this regard, certified teachers received one hundred percent pay raise over their base salary (Kusumawardhani, 2017).

De Ree, Muralidharan, Pradhan, and Rogers (2015) explained that teacher certification process in Indonesia was initially meant to include a high-standards external assessment of teachers' subject knowledge and pedagogical practices. The programme includes an extensive skill-upgrading component for teachers who did not meet the standards. In this regard, teachers who did not reach the standards must undertake, up to, a year of additional training and tests. However, teacher associations opposed the high-standards certification exams that were originally planned. Thus, by the time the final law and regulations were negotiated through the political and policymaking process, the quality-improvement stipulations had been highly diluted. They were replaced with a much weaker certification requirement that simply required teachers to submit a portfolio of their teaching materials and achievements. Those who did not pass the portfolio evaluation only need to participate an additional training of two weeks to attain the certification.

Nevertheless, relatively little is known whether the programme, indeed, advances the quality of the teachers (Abdullah, 2015). Hence, research on teacher quality improvement from professional development programmes has gained considerable interest among researchers from various parts of the world, including Indonesia (e.g. Rahman, Abdurrahman, Kadaryanto, & Rusminto, 2015; Rosser &

Fahmi, 2018). De Ree, et al. (2015), for instance, used a large-scale randomized experiment across a representative sample of Indonesian schools that accelerated this doubling of pay for teachers. De Ree and colleagues found that the doubling of pay significantly improved teacher satisfaction with their income, yet led to no improvements in measures of teacher efforts, and had no impact on student learning outcomes as well. Amin and Saukah (2015) also found that even though all the teachers were already certified, they did not show significant improvement in their teaching practices.

Other researchers, Haryanto, Mukminin, Murboyono, Muazza, and Ekatina (2016) investigated senior high school students' perception towards their certified English teachers related to teachers' personal, pedagogical, social, and professional competences. The findings of the questionnaire analysis showed that most of students responded positively towards the competences (personal, pedagogical, social, and professional competences) of the teachers. For the four competences, more than half of the students gave their positive responses towards the teachers through the questionnaires. This finding, then, was verified through focus group discussions that yielded some negative responses from students on the personal and professional competences of the teachers. The negative responses were given on the teachers in terms of discipline such as the teachers sometimes come late to the class, and do not attend the class several times. On professional competence, one of the three certified English teachers earned negative responses in terms of the use of media in learning process.

Many studies, that focused on problematic issues in language teaching practices, commonly recommended the government to improve the educational programmes (e.g. Sikki, Rahman, Hamra, & Noni, 2013; Sulisworo, Nasir, &

Maryani, 2017). Although, the government has worked hard to implement several programmes to improve teachers' quality as has been reported in several studies (i.e. the teacher certification programme), the programmes did not significantly improve teachers' classroom practices. Now, the question is, what other factors can support teachers in improving their teaching practices?

2.5. What Makes a Good Teacher?

Teachers play an important role in educational activities. Poor quality of education is largely determined by teacher quality standards (Maba, Perdata, & Astawa, 2017). Hence, teachers have become the center of attention for policy makers and researchers. This is because teachers matter (Biesta, 2015), and have a powerful, long-lasting influence on their students. They directly affect how students learn, what they learn, how much they learn, and the ways in which they interact with one another and the world around them (Stronge, 2018). According to Sulisworo, Nasir, and Maryani (2017), a good teacher is one who has a positive effect on student learning and development. Grosemans, Boon, Verclairen, Dochy, and Kyndt (2015) stated that teachers are commonly considered lifelong learners as they are required to keep learning due to constant changes in the current society that impact the teaching and learning activities in classrooms.

Every good teacher wants to change the world for the better. At a minimum, teachers want to leave students more curious, smarter, more knowledgeable, and more skillful than before they taught their students. As a result, students increase their knowledge, deepen their understanding, build new skills, broaden their perspectives, and enhance their self-confidence. On the other side, teaching can also work in the opposite way, for example, by confirming students' belief that going to

school is pointless, boring, or a waste of time (Brookfield, 2017) which caused by many factors such as discouraging classroom activities. In this sense, the way students perceive the schools can be influenced by many factors, including the teachers.

Broadly speaking, teachers who keep learning to improve their teaching are driven by intrinsic motivation. This is because intrinsically motivated activities are enjoyable because they satisfy deep psychological needs to feel competent and autonomous, which in turn promote productive classroom activities with students (Bieg, Backes, & Mittag, 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2016). Kim and Cho (2014), likewise, argued that teachers with intrinsic motivation tend to engage in teaching because they enjoy it and they get satisfaction from doing so.

Van den Bergh, Ros, and Beijaard (2015) pointed out that teachers' goals, in the workplace, are usually more focused on the achievement and well-being of their students than on their own learning. Albion and Tondeur (2018), likewise, suggested that teachers must be empowered to practise their profession by orchestrating resources and activities to match educational provision to students' needs. A study, carried out by Hartono (2016), revealed that teachers improve professionally by asking feedback from the students to develop their methods of teaching. One of the teachers elaborated that he often asked his students' concerns by asking the students' needs. As he listened to the students' voices, he attempted to improve his teaching materials and methods. Another teacher also acknowledged that to improve her teaching, she asked for feedback from her students. She explained, "after the semester is over, I have my students fill out a questionnaire to see what I lack in my teaching, either my attitude or my performance in teaching" (p.74).

Besides asking for feedback from students, many teachers proactively seek various programmes. Irmawati, Widiati, and Cahyono (2017), for instance, has revealed the ways Indonesian English teachers develop their teaching practices. Those activities include joining teacher association forum, attending seminars and workshops, making use of the internet, having informal discussion with colleagues at the same school, joining ELT courses, reading relevant sources, doing research and team teaching. With that, as stated by Abdullah (2015), teachers would improve the academic performance of their students, particularly, if they continue to put into practice the acquired pedagogical and professional skills and knowledge in their classroom.

Asking feedback from students and proactively seeking professional development programmes are just a few examples of teachers' efforts to improve their teaching practices. The key questions are why do some teachers proactively undertake various ways to improve their teaching quality, while others do not?

Recently, Appova and Arbaugh (2018) carried out a study about teachers' motivation to continuously learn to support their professional growth. What Appova and Arbaugh found from their study is that teachers had internalized images of 'perfect' teachers/teaching and constantly compared themselves with these images as a part of their reflections on practice. The images of less-than-optimal teaching that teachers perceived in their classrooms versus the images of perfect teaching that teachers wanted to see in their classrooms, motivated them to seek professional learning to help reach the desired levels of 'perfection' in their teaching.

What Appova and Arbaugh (2018) found about teachers' internalized-images of 'perfect' teachers is closely related to the theory employed in this present study: possible selves.

2.6 Possible Selves

Human beings have always been interested in the interpretation of themselves (Hattie, 2014). Likewise, philosophers and psychologists have long been interested in understanding the nature of 'self' (Heatherton, Krendi, Macrae, Kelly, 2007).

In contemporary psychology, 'self' is generally conceptualized as a set of cognitive representations reflecting a person's personality traits, organized by linkages, across representations created by personal experience or biography (Owens & Samblanet, 2013). There are two key consensus features of the self: (1) an organized dynamic cognitive-affective motivated action system; and (2) an interpersonal self-construction system (Leary & Tangney, 2011). These keys are rooted into human reflexivity, that is the ability to view oneself as an object capable of being not just apprehended, but also labelled, categorized, evaluated, and manipulated. In the literature, the fundamental aspect of the self, is known as self-concept (Owens & Samblanet, 2013).

Self-concept is an individual's mental picture of him/herself. It is a collection of beliefs about one's own nature, unique qualities, typical behaviour, and self-perception (Weiten, Dunn, & Hamener, 2012). This self-concept incorporates the individual's location in the social structure, and also how it is affected by it. In other words, self-concept is a social creation moulded by a person's interactions with others, his/her past and ongoing affiliations and experiences within and across social context and institutional affiliation (Owens & Samblanet, 2013). In short, a person's self concept is like the summary of the individual's self-knowledge related to how the person views him/herself at present (Dornyei, 2009).

Although much of the research about the self concerns the self as it exists in the present, there is an important body of research that concerns the self as it might be, or could be in the future (Morawiak, Gutral, Cypryańska, & Nezlek, 2018). As the self-concept is formed by our interaction with past and actual experiences, it is common sense if it also makes prediction about our future that guides motivation in order to achieve it or away from it, which is theoretically known as 'possible selves'.

Each individual has both positive images of the selves he/she desires and expects to become, as well as negative images of the selves he/she wishes to avoid becoming (Lee & Oyserman, 2012). Possible selves are the future oriented component of a multifaceted self-concept (Oyserman & Fryberg, 2006). This theory provides information about the mental representations of one's aspirations and fears; they are personalized goal representations of the self in desired or undesired future end states (Markus & Ruvolo, 1989).

The concept of 'possible selves' is introduced by Markus and Nurius (1986) to complement the conception of knowledge that refers to how we think about ourselves and our future. Besides future-oriented self-concept, it also describes the importance and dynamics of self-relevance (Hamman et al., 2010). In other words, possible selves comprise the self-knowledge that is the most vulnerable and responsive to changes in the environment. They are first elements of the self-concept to absorb and reveal such changes. As representations of potential, possible selves will be particularly sensitive to those situations that communicate new or inconsistent information about the self. A poor grade for an exam, for instance, will not permanently challenge an individual's enduring sense of self as "intelligent" or "hard working," but it will give temporary substance to a possible self as a "drop-out" or an

"academic failure." Activation of these possible selves will influence the individual's current behaviour (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Moreover, possible selves can change as a consequence of the individual's awareness of the distance between actual condition and future desires (Henry, 2015).

The novelty of the possible self-concept lies in how people conceptualize their potential, which draws on hopes, wishes, and plausible fantasies. In this sense, possible selves act as 'self-guides', reflecting a dynamic, forward-pointing conception that can explain how someone is moved from the present towards the future (Dornyei, 2009). Besides forward-pointing conception, past achievements and other behavioural outcomes associated with possible selves may also become potential self representations stored in long-term memory ready to be activated at another time and in another setting (Hamman et al., 2013).

Lee and Oyserman (2013) elaborated individual and contextual factors that influence development of possible selves into: (1) past experiences, either success or failure in certain domains, that clearly influence one's beliefs about the relevance or attainability to articulate strategies to work on; (2) social context, such as others' expectations, historical and socio-political contexts; (3) developmental context, which reflects developmentally relevant self-task.

In addition, possible selves serve important adaptive functions as they do not only provide standards for evaluating the present self, but they also provide powerful incentives that serve to organize, energize, and direct action around their pursuit and acquisition (Ruvolo & Markus, 1992). In other words, Oyserman, Bybee, Terry and Johnson (2004) termed self-regulatory possible selves that can represent a self-defining goal and include specific behavioural strategies for pursuing the goal.

This self-regulation evokes to reduce the discrepancies between individual's actual self and his/her imagined-future self (i.e. either desired goals or undesired consequences). Without self-regulation, the discrepancies between these 'self-sates' can induce negative outcomes. As a matter of fact, Ferguson, Hefen and Laursen (2010), who studied adolescent psychological and academic adjustment, found that discrepancies between adolescents perceived actual and desired selves reduce self-esteem and increase depressive system.

2.7   Self-Discrepancy

Considering the site of discrepancies, there is a theory that specifically explains possible self mechanism that motivates the self-regulation. That theory termed as 'self-discrepancy' (Higgins, 1987), which makes specific predictions about the kinds of emotions someone is likely to experience when she/he fulfils or fails to live up to distinct self-guides. This theory comprises an 'actual self' (individual's current self-concept), an 'ideal self' (the self for which individual hope), and the 'ought self' (the obligatory self).

According to Higgins (in Kubanyiova, 2007), the principal tenet of self-discrepancy theory is that the perceived discrepancy between one's actual self and one's ideal or ought self, is associated with negative affective responses which are distinctive for each type of discrepancy. Hence, a person within these self states (i.e. actual self to ideal or ought self), likely initiates distinctive self-regulatory strategies with the aim to reduce the discrepancy. Therefore, if the discrepancy occurs between actual and ideal self, it will be guided by focusing the effort to attain the positive attributes of the ideal self. Whereas, if the discrepancy occurs between actual and

ought selves, it is likely to prompt strategies aimed at avoiding the negative consequences if ought self is not attained.

2.8   L2 Motivational Self System

Having proliferated in psychology domain for more than two decades, possible selves theory then attracted other researchers in applied linguistics domain. Dornyei (2005), who also applied Higgins's (1987) concepts of 'ideal self' and 'ought self', conceptualizes second/foreign language learner's self-motivation termed 'L2 motivational self-system'. This model views motivation as a function of the language learners' vision of their desired future language selves.

The L2 motivational self system is made up of three components to distinguish learner's inclination in acquiring second/foreign language: (1) Ideal L2 self, which represents individual's aspiration for becoming fluent in L2; (2) Ought-to L2 self, which concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid negative outcomes; and (3) L2 learning experience, which concerns situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (Dornyei, 2009).

In Dornyei's 'L2 motivational self system' context, 'ideal self' describes self representation of an individual with the internalized instrumental impulse to learn the language, as the desire to reduce discrepancy between his/her actual and future self. Thus, a person with internal motives (e.g. a passion to learn English) tends to exert perseverance as his/her inclination to achieve certain future self-images (e.g. being a teacher of English). Ought-to self, on the other hand, is more extrinsic types of instrumental motives. This component represents individuals who learn language to

meet external expectations (e.g. learn English to pass the exam, as it is a compulsory subject).

Lamb's (2007) study, pertaining to learners' L2 self in Indonesia, has revealed the existence of ideal and ought-to selves among EFL students. In his study, he reported that learners with ideal L2 self, appeared to sustain their efforts to learn and developed an ability to regulate their motivation in the face of threats and challenges. On the contrary, learners who have strong ought-to L2 selves appear to be motivated more by fear of what might happen if they do not learn English (i.e. fail in the exam). Besides, they also appear to be more easily discouraged by L2 learning experiences and are reluctant to take advantage of opportunities to use English during the interview. The pattern of ought-to L2 self was also found in Kikuchi (2015) who point out that EFL learners have shown that they experience demotivation mainly due to the requirement to learn English as a compulsory subject.

Back in Lamb's (2007) study, during the two periods of being taught by different teachers, learners acknowledged that their motivation to participate in class had declined during their second year because of their feelings toward their teacher. In addition, focal learners' complaints seemed to express a sense of exclusion, of not being part of a harmonious social group, either because they could not understand what was going on in class or because the teacher's behaviour was alienating. One of the learners, for instance, complained in his final interview that he no longer enjoyed English lessons (i.e. "in year 1, I could understand but in this class I cannot."). Likewise, other learners explained that her classmates do not like English because they dislike the teacher, as he does not explain about the lesson. Conversely, another learner was more positive with his current English class, as he admitted that he

preferred his current teacher because she always comes to class, did not get angry, and enjoyed a joke or two.

In short, Lamb's study above asserted the salient leverage of ideal and ought-to selves on learners' behaviour towards learning English during the two class periods. Whereby, a new circumstance (i.e. new class scene with a different teacher) lead them to negotiate their self-concept by tracking previous event that impact their current motivation to either reach positive goals or prevent negative consequences. That being said, if new circumstances can affect learners' possible selves, then what about that particular circumstance their teachers face? Does it also affect their possible selves? Why did those teachers behave the way they do? Why did some teachers diligently attend the class, did not easily lose temper and enjoy the class, while some others did not? These questions remain uninvestigated in Lamb's study.

2.9   Possible Language Teacher Self

Considering the teachers' possible selves, Kubanyiova (2007, 2009) recently formulated 'possible language teacher self' concept, which in accordance with 'possible selves' theory, as well as 'L2 motivational self system' and 'self-discrepancy' theory. This concept embraces the personalised and socially constructed language teachers' cognitive representations, of their ideal and ought-to selves in relation to their work as language teachers.

The concept of 'possible language teacher self' is constructed by Kubanyiova (2007) based on her research, by forging the link among teacher cognition and teacher motivation. This research attempted to help language teachers to create motivation learning environment, in which all learners can thrive.

During her research, Kubanyiova (2006, 2007, 2009) conducted a specially-designed 20-hour teacher development (TD) course entitled 'creating a motivating learning environment'. In this TD course, she involved self-selected eight in-service EFL teachers in Slovakia, to examine the interplay between their' self-concept and conceptual change. In other word s, the research was intended to explore the impact of conducted TD course on conceptual change among those participated teachers. This TD course content focused on strategies for creating a conducive psychological climate in the L2 classroom. It is because her main research goals centres primarily on the 'self' rather than the subject matter, the educational process, or the students. In which she termed it as 'ego-related motives'.

The TD course included four 5-hour input sessions for nine months, which consist of interactive mini-lecture, practical activities, case studies, and data-based activities followed-up with reflections and discussions. As a result, however, this longitudinal mixed-methods study came into conclusion that the TD course failed in its goal to promote significant change in teaching practice that would make a difference for the students. This result was indicated from her quantitative data of the students' perceptions of their classroom environment, that showed no improvement during the research project.

Based on the research findings, Kubanyiova (2006) generated possible reasons of why such change in teaching practice did not occur despite the apparent commitment of the research participants in the TD course. She explained that either the TD course was of insufficient quality, thus being unable to inspire the research participants, or various course-related, individual and/or external factors that hindered their learning and/or prevented them from implementing new practices.

Nonetheless, in spite the negative outcomes from the TD input, Kubanyiova (2009) pointed out some promising tendencies from her qualitative data of several research participants. In this case, she explored three main thematic strands: the participants profiles (i.e. their language learning and teaching history, motivation to enter the teaching profession, personal history and beliefs about language education), observed lessons, and TD course-related issues.

The in-depth exploration of Kubanyiova's (2009) participants' motivation to pursue teaching career, revealed two major incentives. The first concerned the participants' positive attitude towards the subject matter (i.e. desire to improve English proficiency) found to be primary motives for them to pursue an EFL teaching career. The second one was related to teachers' more general psychological needs (i.e. fulfilling their striving for recognition, appreciation, respect and authority), which do not typically feature in teacher motivation frameworks. Whereas, the teachers' motivation to teach as prominent factor in teaching career (i.e. the desire to facilitate students' learning) did not seem to be central in the research participants' motivational composites.

Based on this qualitative data, Kubanyiova (2009) found one of the key findings that led her to the proportion of 'ideal language teacher self'. This 'ideal self' concept plays pivotal role in teacher conceptual change and offers a powerful theoretical framework for understanding not only why teachers choose their career, but also why they engage in specific classroom practices. This was indicated by one of the participants' tendency to reduce discrepancy between her previous language teacher self (i.e. uncertain of her expertise in facilitating student learning) and her ideal language teacher self (i.e. confident language teacher). Consequently, the

participant felt more confident after joining the project as she did it for her ego-related goals of being valued and appreciated.

Besides ego-related or internal motives, Kubanyiova (2009) also revealed external motives among the research participants, whereby some language teachers' work is driven by different type of incentive, such as the effort to comply with outside expectations or a desire to avoid dreaded disaster. Moreover, their classroom behaviour is not so much a representation of their normal routines during the observation, but rather their attempt to display what they believe are desirable and sought-after practices. These externally-defined images led Kubanyiova to another proportion of 'ought-to language teacher self' as a representation of language teacher who is mostly motivated by extrinsic incentives and her/his vision of negative consequences.

One of her participants, who reflect ought-to self, was projecting temporary response to the project's requirements and was associated with the feelings of frustration and even anger when it was difficult to reconcile with other competing responsibilities (i.e. merely deliver fun classroom activities during the observation). Likewise, participant's students were quite aware that when the researcher was there as an observer, their lessons were markedly different from their regular ones.

After all, Kubanyiova (2009) suggested that the reform input will effective in motivating behaviour and promoting change, only to the extent to which its basic premise had been incorporated into the teachers' relevant possible teaching selves (i.e. entailed the importance of teachers' to facilitate students' learning). In other words, if the course content did not match the participants' future identity goals, the discrepancy was not induced by the TD input, resulting in reduced possibility for conceptual change. Compared with the significant influence of their ideal selves, TD-

related ought-to-selves were rather short-lived and of limited impact on the teachers' sustained change.

Similar study carried out by Soebari and Aldridge (2016) in Indonesia which involved junior high school English classes in Indonesia. The findings of this study suggest that the professional development of teachers in Indonesia should take into consideration contextual factors that might serve to impede the translation of programme ideas into the classroom setting. Therefore, programme developers might consider how teacher professional development can be linked to what classroom teachers perceive their needs to be.

2.10   The Ideal and Ought-to Selves among EFL Teachers

Since its appearance in the language teacher domain, the concept of 'possible language teacher self' has enticed curiosity of other researchers to delve deeper into it. Hiver (2013), for instance, explored the roles that ideal and ought-to language teacher selves play in professional development choices. He also examined which of these two types dominate the teachers' working self-concept and their choices to seek out Continuing Teacher Development (CTD) in Korea.

In short, his case study findings confirm that each type of possible language teacher selves plays an integral role in initiating and sustaining in-service EFL teachers' motivation to engage in CTD. Based on his findings, Hiver (2013) demonstrates two key motivational patterns of the participants' possible language teacher selves that emerged in CTD. These keys are: (1) teachers were either guided by a central need to repair perceived inadequacies of the self, or to enhance the self, which represent 'ideal self'; and (2) teachers who adhered to normative obligations,

that represent 'ought-to self', was found to be the least significant in driving choices for teacher development.

Another study that employed possible selves theory on EFL teachers, was carried out by Kumazawa (2013). She applied interpretive inquiry into the teaching motivation of four novice EFL teachers in Japan. The narrative analysis of the interview data reveals that the conflict between the young teachers' different possible selves negatively affected their motivation in their early days of teaching. At the same time, in the period of transition from student to teacher, the beginning teachers often show that their self-concept is a very dynamic entity that is negotiated and reconstructed through interacting with the new environment, as well as through exercising their own sense of reflexivity.

In brief, Kumazawa' study has made valuable contributions in addressing issues encountered by novice teachers. As a matter of fact, research overwhelmingly predicts, that 50 percent of new teachers will not be teaching after three to five years in the profession, even more alarming statistic states that 17 percent of new teachers will not even last one year (Glasgow & Hicks, 2003). With that being said, if novice teachers' possible selves negatively affected their motivation in their early days of teaching, then what about those senior teachers, who have been teaching for decades? Are they consistently stable in their school practices? Are they invulnerable enough in facing challenges that insistently descend against them?

Kubanyiova (2006, 2007, 2009) and Hiver (2013) are two of many other researchers who attempted to address the questions above by incorporating teacher development programmes. As a result, both researchers came up with the same conclusion that the key role in promoting change and motivating behaviour, lies on a central need to repair perceived inadequacies of the self, or to enhance the self. In

relation to this fact, Meltzer (2012) stated that teachers are generally self-directed, and the need to feel the goal will have personal effect on them and/or their working environment. Any knowledge learned must be transferable to the classroom and, ideally, help teachers feel directly responsible for their own success in helping students achieve.

Furthermore, like any other profession, teaching has its own unique set of challenges. Many of these challenges exist because teaching and learning are rooted in the human dimension. That means that we do not always act rationally, even when it might be in our best interests to do. Likewise, schools are not rational institutions; they are neither designed nor run with the efficiency and effectiveness that would be desired. In addition, there are so many other challenges teachers often face, such as lack of resources, overcrowded classes, unmotivated students, including unsupportive colleagues, insensitive administrators, and so on (Kottler & Zehm, 2000).

Besides the challenges mentioned above, there is another challenge that come in turns at rapid pace, known as Information Communication Technology (ICT). In which numerous teachers believe; if they ignore it, it will go away (Meltzer, 2012). In other words, the use of ICT in educational practices (particularly in TEFL) presents a number of unique challenges, including major shifts in technical and pedagogical knowledge and skill areas across a combination of roles (Hubbard & Levy, 2006), and the ability to orient students to new ways of accessing target language learning opportunities (White & Ding, 2009).

2.11 Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in TEFL

English has become the primary language in most ICT devices. Assuming factors such as the function of English language or its active promotion, English has now

become the most important language to be learned (Yulia, 2014). In recent times of a rapid growth of ICT, people are now able to communicate, gather information, learn anything including English language a lot more easier, as Byster (2014) recently wrote "we can communicate with people in a nanosecond using slick devices that we carry around in our pocket, and we can conduct extensive and comprehensive research today by letting our fingertips do the walking online as we use search engines like Google" (p.30).

Consequently, ICT cannot be separable from human life in this century. It has been integrated into all aspects of life (Rahmawati, 2018). ICT has become an important part of most organizations, businesses, and economies (Zhang & Aikman, 2007) including pedagogical practices. As an emerging trend, it is a powerful tool in facilitating teaching and learning when it is properly employed (i.e. Chen, 2008; Inayati & Emaliana, 2017). In this regard, ICT can be a major driver for realizing the objectives of inquiry-based education as it enables students to access information independently, acquire new research skills and work in teams across classrooms, schools, and even across the world (Rizvi, Bianco, Wang, Hay, Barron, & Khan, 2017). The internet and World Wide Web, for instance, have opened up more possibilities for innovative approaches to instructional practices that so far rely almost exclusively on traditional or face-to-face classroom sessions (Djiwandono, 2015). Moreover, ICT also offers students plenty of opportunities for development and learning such as using the network to search for information, write papers or do research, or learn new concepts and notions (Piciarelli, 2017).

In teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), ICT is highlighted as effective for learning and teaching by affording access and exposure to authentic language materials, communication opportunities, instant and individualized

feedback (Røkenes & Krumsvik, 2016). Recently, Bai, Mo, Zhang, Boswell, and Rozelle (2016) conducted a clustered randomized controlled trial which involved 6304 fifth grade students in English language classes. In this research, Bai, Mo, Zhang, Boswell, and Rozelle designed new programmes that attempt to utilize ICT to improve English learning. The results showed that there are significant differences in programme impacts depending on whether ICT programme is integrated into teacher's classroom activities. In this regard, students in the sample schools benefited from the ICT programme most when teachers integrated it into their teaching and provided instructions to guide students in using its materials. When the ICT programme was not integrated into the teaching programme, however, there was no improvement in student English scores.

Nevertheless, despite many compelling benefits that ICT can offer, the presence of ICT facilities in schools continue to be limited; and even where the physical machines are accessible, they are too often used in ways that fail to take advantage of their potentials (Coppola & Elmore, 2004). According to Korte and Hüsing (2006), teachers who are not using new technology such as computers in the classroom are still of the opinion that ICT use has no benefits or unclear benefits.

In Indonesian context, the role of ICT, as teaching and learning media, is a major resource to be implemented in the school system. This is because computer or other ICT devices enable both teachers and students to be more productive (Rusma, Riyana & Kurniawan, 2011). ICT can provide students with authenticity, curiosity, and creativity in learning. Using ICT can also motivate students to learn more because of the interesting display provided by ICT in the teaching and learning process (Budiman, 2018). This is because the context of the teaching of English in Indonesia is unique, leading to differences in the ease to access English language

resources. Those with great difficulty in accessing the resources have been and will be left behind by those without any or with little difficulty. Thus, ICT will certainly help in easing those in remote areas (Madya, 2015).

Nonetheless, data from Musfah (2012) showed that there are merely 40 percent in high schools, and 30 percent in middle schools facilitated with computer lab. Considering the lack of computer facilities in their schools, in the early 2009, the Indonesian educational ministry assumed that teachers should be more productive if each of them has a laptop. However, this assumption remains doubted as in reality, despite having laptops, teachers still have low productivity for educational purposes. Indeed, Ertmer and Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2010) pointed out that the increased access to ICTs, including participation in one-to-one laptop programs, has resulted in more use of ICTs, but it has not resulted in significant changes in teaching practices.

Consequently, abundant research has been carried out to identify factors that prevent teachers from using ICT in their teaching practices.

2.12 Factors that Influence Teachers to Use ICT in Teaching

Information communication technology (ICT) covers all technologies used for the handling and communication of information and their use, specifically in teaching and learning process. For example, desktops, smartphones, projectors, digital recording equipment, software applications, multimedia resources, information systems, intranet, internet, tablets, or personal computers provide a great deal of opportunities, as well as challenges in teaching and learning practices (Lawrence & Tar, 2018). Despite the extensive benefits those ICT tools can offer for educational practices, many teachers still face numerous issues in their implementations (Nagy & Habók, 2018).

The literature reveals several factors associated with teachers' decisions to use ICT in the classroom (Chuang, Weng, & Huang, 2015). Attitudes towards ICT, age, gender, technical support, knowledge, skills, and competence mostly reported by researchers who attempted to explore the factors behind teachers' use of ICT (e.g. Prestridge, 2012; Silviyanti and Yusuf, 2015; Almerich, Orellana, Suárez-Rodríguez, & Díaz-García, 2016; Lawrence & Tar, 2018).

Lin, Huang, and Chen (2014), for instance, found several factors that inhibit teachers from implementing ICT in teaching. Those factors are (1) insufficient support and insufficient time for developing ICT-driven pedagogy and activities; (2) age, which influences teachers' confidence in their use of ICT; and (3) gender, which influences their willingness to spend time working on ICT. Similarly, Nikolopoulou & Gialamas (2016) also revealed significant influences of gender in ICT implementation in teaching practices. In this regard, male teachers were found to be more confident than female teachers in using ICT.

Male and female factors, however, were not consistently found by some other researchers. In fact, several studies concluded that gender was seen to have no influence on ICT use among teachers (e.g. Baydas & Goktas, 2016; Wong, Teo, & Russo, 2013). Besides gender, research findings about attitudes towards ICT use were also varied. Valtonen, Kukkonen, Kontkanen, Sormunen, Dillon, and Sointu (2015), for instance, reported that there were no differences in teachers' attitudes and intentions towards the use of ICT for teaching and learning.

Nonetheless, several studies have shown that teachers' attitudes towards ICT use can influence teachers' use of ICT. In this sense, teachers' attitudes towards ICT relate to whether or not the use of ICT in class improves student learning outcomes (Drossel, Eickelmann, & Gerick, 2017). Other factors such as teacher self-efficacy,

perceived ease of use, and perceived usefulness of using ICT were also claimed as aspects that affected teachers' intention to use ICT in teaching practices (Joo, Park, & Lim, 2018).

Findings of a study carried out by Sadaf, Newby, and Ertmer (2016) provide evidence that teachers tend to use ICT when they have technical support, have high self-efficacy, and perceive that ICT tools can facilitate students to learn. Similarly, Mirzajani, Mahmud, Ayub, and Wong (2016) revealed that adequate support from administrators, directives to teachers to use ICT, appropriate ICT skills and knowledge as well as adequate resources were important factors that influenced the use of ICT in the classroom. Findings of their study also showed that insufficient technical support discouraged teachers from using ICT in teaching, while increasing adequate equipment and technical support in schools encouraged teachers in this respect.

Lawrence and Tar (2018) who explored barriers that resulted in ICT resources being underutilised in the classrooms, found lack of technical support as one of the barriers. In their study, one of the teachers reported that her colleagues did not want to use computers in their classes because they were not sure where to turn for help when something goes wrong while using computers. In this regard, Lawrence and Tar suggested that without good technical support in the classroom, teachers would be reluctant to use and integrate ICT into their teaching activities.

Hinostroza (2018), likewise, reported that many teachers lack ICT skills needed to make effective use of these tools, which in turn, limit their potential impact, thus can have negative consequences for students' learning. Likewise, in Becta's survey (2004), many teacher respondents identified their lack of confidence as the barrier. They are particularly afraid of entering the classroom with limited

knowledge in the area of ICT. It was argued "that lack of confidence and experience with technology influence teachers' motivation to use ICT in the classroom" (Bingimlas, 2009, p.238). The probable explanation, of why teachers are afraid of entering the classroom with limited ICT knowledge, is that current students who often adapt to such technology quickly and are considered to master the technological devices better than adults (Ferrero, 2000). This is because students of today have not known a life without ICT. It has been an integral part of their existence, in many cases for the whole of their lives (Nickson, 2018).

Beggs (in Bingimlas, 2009), asserted that teachers' "fear of failure" and lack of confidence, has been found to be the reasons that inhibit teachers' use of ICT in teaching. Additionally, Balanskat, Blamire and Kefala (2006) found that limitations in teachers' ICT knowledge makes them feel anxious about using ICT in the classroom and thus not confident in using it in their teaching. Likewise, Jones (2004) concluded his study with the statement: "many teachers who do not consider themselves to be well skilled in using ICT feel anxious about using it in front of a class of children who perhaps know more than they do" (p. 7). Consequently, even though teachers felt that there are more than enough ICT tools available, they did not believe that they are being supported, guided, or rewarded for integrating ICT into their teaching (Schoepp, 2005).

In response to the issues discussed above, many parties (i.e. government, educators, schools, researchers and other initiatives) have executed various efforts to encourage teachers to use ICT in school practices, such as through books (e.g. Bitter & Legacy, 2009; Coppola & Elmore, 2004; Meltzer, 2012; Roblyer, 2006; Mukhtar & Iskandar, 2010), training provided by schools and government, and research with certain teacher development input embedded within (e.g. Hampel & Stickler, 2005;

White & Ding, 2009). These offered solutions, however, would not be effective without the inner motives of teachers to be proactively involved in implementing lessons well. Moreover, if teachers' vision is not aligned with others' expectations, those realisations above might be redundant.

As this case has already occurred in Kubanyiova's (2006, 2007) research, in which her teacher professional development input has failed to meet the expectation (i.e. creating motivating conditions for students' learning), which, in no way tapped into future goals of most research participants. It turns out that facilitating students' learning was not a central part of the teachers' future vision of themselves. Hence, Kubanyiova (2009) explained that people are motivated to reach a condition in which their actual selves match those future desired selves that are personally relevant to them. Thus, there was no ground in which dissonance could be induced by her reform input; and therefore, the possibility of development was significantly reduced.

2.13 Connecting Link between Teacher's Possible Self and Language Teaching through Technology

Following what Kubanyiova has found in her research, as well as in initiating novel ways in language teaching through technology, White and Ding (2009) carried out a longitudinal qualitative study of experienced teachers, by involving the teachers in a collaborative teacher learning programme (i.e. e-learning autonomy project). This study was bounded by a broad framework allowing teachers to choose a technology (e.g. virtual learning environment, podcast, and multimedia), and to configure it in ways they could explore further in their teaching.

The key to this project was to identify how innovations in technology impacted participants' collective and individual identities and professional autonomy. Here, White and Ding (2009) examined the subjective and inter-subjective experiences of the teachers over a period of nine months, as well as explored the internal world of the teachers' selves associated with a re-envisioning of what it means to be a language teacher.

Through the study, White and Ding (2009) found a diverse motive among those teachers participating the project. A common perspective by participants was that they were motivated to avoid being seen as a teacher with limited range of skills, who had not been kept up-to-date, which is represented as an ought-to self orientation. Yet, some other participants saw e-language teaching as a way of realising their ideal selves. Additionally, the combination of ideal and ought-to self orientations was also common in the reports of some participants.

Among 23 participants involved in the project, White and Ding (2009) took a closer look at one of them, named Lena (pseudonym) as individual case study. This choice was made, based on the clear personal vision of her ideal teacher self as a distance language teacher, in which she articulated at the start of the project as being someone who could provide students with authentic online learning opportunities that are engaging and interactive. As she perceived technology as offering possibilities to realise her ideal self.

White and Ding (2009) reported that Lena's motivation to engage with workplace teacher learning can be base understood through the lens of her ideal teacher self. Through Lena, they have insight into how her ideal teacher self was a powerful motivator in enhancing her interactions with her collaborative learning counterpart during the project. It was also a powerful motivator in leading to

ultimately to seeing herself as a teacher, for whom technology is essential in enabling her to relate her self to language teaching. Interestingly, at the end of the project, she acknowledged by referring not to herself but to her students, which confirms that their students are central to her ideal teacher self.

At the heart of White and Ding's (2009) study, lies the teacher self as socially constituted, dynamic, evolving representations of not just the individual self but for others, and of what it may possible to be or become. And based on their findings, White and Ding draw a conclusion that it was the teacher self which acted as a catalyst for the nature and degree of teacher involvement in the teacher learning opportunities, with teachers evidently motivated by ideal and/or ought-to self orientations. Ideal self dimension concerns with personal growth in way of satisfying professional relationship with students, while ought-to self is concerned with inclination to avoid being seen as outdated, as a way of protecting a career. And it was found in some cases that participants, who were guided by their ought-to selves, have minimal involvement during the e-language teaching project.

The findings discussed above, seem to have revealed the answer to why teachers behave the way they do. Through the lens of possible selves theory, Kubanyiova (2006, 2007, 2009), Hiver (2013), White and Ding (2009) have flashed glimpses of light to the issues inherited in Lamb's (2007, 2012, 2013) studies (i.e. EFL teachers). In particular, White and Ding's study has made supplementary contributions to the study of language teachers' possible selves by incorporating novel TD programmes through technology.

Nonetheless, White and Ding's (2009) study seems limited to certain features: they merely focused on the impact of TD input of online language teaching, and the participants' tendency who enrolled in the project. That means, this study is

only limited to distance language teaching domain within the special designed-project that might have affected the research samples. Whereas, the real challenges that teachers prominently encounter in recent times and onwards are not only the online teaching per se, but beyond those virtual classroom bounds. That is, real classroom engagement with the existing ICT tools and current ICT-literate students, that inevitably affect their real work routine, are somehow challenging and even daunting.

2.14   The Use of ICT among EFL Teachers in Indonesia

Information and Communications Technology (ICT) offers innovative tools for restructuring teaching and learning processes in preparing students for the 21st century skills (Haji, Moluayonge, & Park, 2017). In integrating ICT in schools, teachers play a significant role as they are the ones who directly deal with students and classroom activities (Uluyol & Şahin, 2016). The role of teachers is a very strong influence on the quality of teaching practices. In an era when societies and technologies are changing rapidly, both the nature of the appropriate education and teaching and learning practices are also changing rapidly. Hence, if teachers contribute to the ongoing transformation of societies by transforming education through the use of technologies, they will need to engage in personal transformation through ongoing learning (Albion & Tondeur, 2018).

In the era of information communication and technology, language teachers face significant challenges in responding to the pace of technological and educational change and incorporating ICT development in classroom practices (Allen & Berggren, 2016). Broadly speaking, communication is the major premise of learning any languages including English (e.g. Baejeong, 2008; Dornyei, 2013; Swathi,

2014). However, in most cases in Indonesia, English is only used in the English classroom setting, which is often mixed with Bahasa Indonesia or other local languages. As Mustafa (2001) revealed English is seldom used in classroom as the teachers tend to use Bahasa Indonesia to carry out their English lessons in the classroom - except, when greeting students before the sessions get started, and when they get dismissed.

Hence, English is becoming scarce in daily conversations. Indeed, Panggabean (2015) emphasized that Indonesian speaking learners of English spend very little time using and thinking in English because they are dependent on classroom learning activities that may occur twice a week, each of which lasts for one hour. Moreover, Lamb (2007) reported that the students reluctance from speaking English outside classroom, because their friends would think them arrogant, and that others readily mocked anyone who tried to speak English in public. Similarly, Haidara (2016) reported that most of EFL students think that people may laugh at them if they mispronounce some words. Also, many students expressed that speaking English outside the classroom is a style of people who just like to show off.

Marcellino (2015) also found similar pattern in his study. He revealed at least three primary reasons for why students tend to be passive in class and only respond to the teacher questions when asked. First, the students previous trainings do not expose this sort of interactive learning model to them. Second, their cultural values and beliefs somehow do not encourage them to challenge neither their teachers nor their classmates as it may somewhat indicate that they are showing off. Third, the survey shows that teachers' command in English is relatively poor, lack of vocabulary, expressions, as well as mastery of grammar. Hence, both teachers and

students speak Indonesian most of the time in class settings, as using English makes students feel uncomfortable while interacting with people.

As a result, Lamb (2013) revealed that students, in Indonesia, who are highly motivated in learning English (i.e. guided by their ideal L2 selves) are more likely to learn English through social network using either mobile phone or in internet cafe, or even through television. Lamb explained that the students had become much more deliberate and autonomous in using technology to support their language learning. It is also revealed in Fauzi's (2018) study which concluded that EFL teachers, who participated in his study, are of the opinion that mobile technology can accelerate students' English language learning abilities.

Speaking of learner autonomy as an important capacity for students' learning success, Warni, Asiz, and Febriawan (2018) carried out a study to examine Indonesian students' experiences in using technology in learning English outside the classroom. The findings of their study indicate that the use of technology to learn English outside the classroom has encouraged the development of learner autonomy which includes aspects of learning motivation, metacognitive awareness, self-confidence and social skills. This study is expected to help English teachers improve their students' English proficiency by using various information and communication technology. Likewise, Lamb's (2013) study suggested that spreading mobile technologies offer hope for improved outcomes in the future.

The rapid spread of digital technology and the internet potentially provides global youth with multiple opportunities for self-initiated, intrinsically motivating use of English, from general search-engine information-seeking, through digital gaming, watching of films and YouTube pop videos, international communication via social media or participation in online forums, to the use of language study apps

(Lamb & Arisandy, 2019). Consequently, in the advent of multimedia computing and the internet, the role of ICT in language instruction has now become an important issue confronting large numbers of language teachers and researchers throughout the world (Beatty, 2003).

Bacescu (2014), who recently studied the ICT use in foreign language instruction, reported that the use of ICT in school and in the educational processes contribute to a great extent in improving student results. Bacescu elaborated two reasons: firstly, it is because ICT adapts the learning needs of students and teaching needs of teachers; and secondly, the use of ICT in schools creates a new, innovative approach of teaching, learning and assessment activities.

However, in the ICT implementation among teachers in Indonesia, Sari (2012) reported that there are still many teachers having difficulties to access ICT and lack of knowledge, experience, literacy and awareness of the ICT potential for teaching and learning process. Additionally, Yusri and Goodwin (2013) revealed that teacher related factors, such as competence and attitude, are more significant barriers to successful integration of ICT in teaching and learning in Indonesia, than factors associated with technology, such as hardware and infrastructure issues. Nhu, Keong, and Wah (2018) revealed three issues in implementing ICT among teachers. Firstly, the teachers had low ICT competency, which led to their lack of self confidence in using ICT as well as low effect in their teaching with the use of ICT. Secondly, it was the limited ICT availability at the schools that hindered the use of ICT, and thirdly, is the lack of ICT supports.

Moreover, teachers in Indonesia must teach 24 hours a week (Sukarana, Dantes, Dantes, 2015). It means that the teachers should spend 4 hours and 80 minutes each day in classroom apart from preparing lesson plan, materials and other

school side obligations such as homeroom teacher, principal and school club advisor. This time constraint, which is revealed by Mustafa (2001), is a reason that practically precludes the teachers to provide well-design, meaningful exercises. Let alone, when it comes to providing material using new technology that requires additional time to complete. That being said, time constraint seems to be the factor that inhibits teachers to utilize ICT, which eventually lead them lack competence and skill.

Nevertheless, among teachers who reluctant to use ICT, there are still some of them who actively using it in their teaching. Recently, Silviyanti and Yusuf (2015) attempted to identify EFL teachers' perceptions on the use of ICT in their teaching. The result of this study demonstrated that; from 42 EFL teachers, 31 of them were actively use ICT, as they believe that ICT makes learning enjoyable, interesting, and effective. Despite facing some problems relating to ICT use in classroom activities (i.e. technical problems and cost), these highly motivated ICT users did not inhibit them in using ICT in teaching.

On the other hand, the rest of teachers (non-ICT users) still prefer the traditional ways of teaching, even though they are aware that the use of ICT is becoming more essential nowadays. They also believe that implementing ICT needs much effort. They find themselves incapable of doing it, despite trainings that have been given to some teachers. Those trainings were still insufficient and even scarce for teachers, mainly in the rural areas (Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2015). Bandung, Gani, Tanuwidjaja, and Sembiring (2015) found that there are many challenges in implementing ICT in rural areas. Those challenges include electrical resources, networking, application software systems, human resources, hardware system, and risk management.

As deciphered earlier in previous chapters, educational government in Indonesia has utilized ICT training and technical support in periods (Perbawaningsih, 2013). It is also admitted by Darusman (2012, in Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2015), that trainings and technological provision such as internet, computer, projectors, video players and many more have been actually provided to educational institutions. Even though this utilization mostly benefited the urban areas, with fast evolution of ICT, it is not possible that ICT could reach rural areas sooner. Indeed, Lamb (2012) acknowledged that the rapid expansion of information technology and the internet through rural Indonesia, in the coming decade, dramatically increases the potential exposure in ICT implementation. It is because Lamb found several highly motivated EFL learners in rural area use ICT devices to learn English.

In consideration of what Silviyanti and Yusuf (2015) have found, that even though ICT is accessible, and all teachers acknowledge the benefits of it, not all teachers use it in their classroom practices. Furthermore, skill, competence, attitude, and time constraint are some factors that inhibit teachers to use ICT (e.g. Kafyulilo, Fisser & Voogt, 2016; Raman & Yamat; 2014). However, there are still some of EFL teachers that highly motivated in using ICT, and, are invulnerable from such challenges (i.e. technical problems, time constraint, cost). Moreover, Silviyanti and Yusuf (2015) asserted that both ICT users and non-users were driven by whether or not they believe ICT can bring advantages to their classroom practices.

These facts are in line with Angers and Machtmes (2005), who pointed out that the way teachers view their role, personal beliefs and concerns, will influence the way they teach with technology. Likewise, some other researchers suggested that teachers' belief influences how they use technology in the classroom (e.g. Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Haney, Lmnpe; Hermans, Tondeur. van Braak, & Valcke,

2008; Tondeur, van Braak, Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2017). In this case, those teachers, who believe that ICT can be used to enhance lessons, are more likely to adopt ICT confidently. Otherwise, they tend to block the implementation of ICT. This self belief system is psychologically known as self-concept, in which Owens and Samblanet (2013) defined as how people envisage and perceive their selves.

Turning to regional boundaries alluded by Silviyanti & Yusuf (2015) above, rural areas have less advantage in both ICT utilization (e.g. Li & Ranieri, 2013) and EFL teaching/learning (e.g. Coleman, 2011; Lamb, 2007, 2012). However, Lamb (2007, 2012, 2013) have proven that rural disadvantages, in ICT use, did not inhibit EFL learners to thrive to reach their ideal future selves concept, which Lee and Oyserman (2012) asserted that future oriented self-concept accommodated in possible selves theory.

With that being said, these facts arouse inquiry that addresses the EFL teachers, pertaining to their possible selves and the use of ICT in rural and urban Indonesia. The following table summarizes the elaboration of this chapter.

Table 2.1

Summary of Literature Review

What has been done	Gap	Filling the gap
EFL learners' selves (Lamb, 2007, 2012, 2013)	Remains issues on EFL teachers	EFL teachers' selves
The dynamic of novice EFL teachers' possible selves from pre-service phase to in-service phase. (Kumazawa, 2013)	Focused on novice EFL teachers.	Experienced-teachers' possible selves before the use of ICT - during the use of ICT
Teacher's possible selves in e-language teaching through Teacher Development (TD) programme. (White & Ding, 2009)	Focused on: 1. e-language teaching 2. the impact of TD project 3. the teachers' inclination participating the project.	EFL teachers' use of ICT in educational activities through daily work routines.
EFL teachers' conceptual change through motivational TD project. (Kubanyiova, 2007)	Focused on: 1. the impact of TD project 2. the teachers' inclination participating the project.	
Possible language teacher selves in Professional Development (PD) choices (Hiver, 2013)	Focused on professional development choices	The use of ICT in TEFL
Teachers' use of ICT in teaching (e.g. Prestridge, 2012; Silviyanti and Yusuf, 2015; Kafyulilo, Fisser & Voogt, 2016; Raman & Yamat; 2013)	Revealed following factors affecting the teachers' use of ICT: attitudes, skill, competence, knowledge, technical support, gender, age, and time.	Proposing 'possible selves' as another factor that affecting teachers in using ICT in education (particularly in TEFL).

<div align="center">

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

</div>

3.1   Introduction

The purpose of this study is to form a better understanding of EFL teachers' possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self) and their use of ICT in TEFL. In this study, the researcher explored the EFL teachers' possible selves and their use of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in TEFL. Particularly, this study examines how teachers' possible selves (ought-to & ideal) in each setting (urban & rural) influence the use of ICT in teaching EFL.

This chapter describes the sampling procedure, participants, and setting. Besides describing the instruments, design of the study and procedures used to collect and analyse the data. The study specifically addressed the following research questions:

Table 3.1

Research Questions and Data Sources

Research questions	Data sources
1. How do EFL teachers in urban setting perceive their possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current ICT use in teaching practices?	- Individual interview with the teachers - Focus group interview with the teachers' students - Classroom observations
2. How do EFL teachers in rural setting perceive their possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current ICT use in teaching practices?	
3. How do EFL teachers' possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self) in urban setting influence their use of ICT in TEFL?	- Individual interview with the teachers - Focus group interview with the teachers' students
4. How do EFL teachers' possible selves (ideal self	

| and ought-to self) in rural setting influence their use of ICT in TEFL? | ● Classroom observations
● Documents |

3.2   Research Design

Research is the process of making claims and then refining or abandoning some of them for other claims more strongly warranted (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Whereas, research design is a plan and a procedure for the research that spans the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2009). This present study used qualitative multiple case study approach as it allows researcher to better understand the phenomenon being studied. The following sections furtherly discuss the rationale behind the chosen research design.

3.2.1   Rationale for Using Qualitative Approaches

In contrast to quantitative research, which takes apart a phenomenon to examine component parts, qualitative research can reveal how all parts work together to form a whole (Merriam, 2001).

Prior to current qualitative-based study, the researcher has conducted a preliminary study with quantitative approach in South Sulawesi, Indonesia. This study aimed at identifying the possible selves (ideal self; ought-to self; and feared-self) among EFL teachers in rural (N=102) and urban areas (N=100). Another objective was to explore the use of ICT on each category of teachers' possible selves.

The data collection instruments consist of questionnaires about teachers' possible selves and their ICT use. In order to explore teachers' use of ICT, the teachers were asked to scale the frequency of using ICT tools (e.g. computers, internet). The items were assessed on a scale ranging from one to five ("daily"=5; "2

or 3 times a week"=4; "once a week"=3; "once a month"=2; "never"=1).

In order to reach the second objective of this study, the participants were required to complete a questionnaire about their possible selves. The questionnaire was aimed to identify the possible selves category (ideal self or ought-to self) that was more dominant in their working self-concept. According to Vernon (2004), the common way researchers code possible selves for research is by simply counting the number of positive possible selves and negative possible selves in a given domain.

In this preliminary study, the participants responded to 36 Likert-type statements (adapted from Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Hamman, Gosselin, Romano, & Bunuan, 2010). The items were of a 6-point Likert scale (1, strongly disagree and 6, strongly agree). The items were designed to identify which type of possible selves was more dominant within each teacher (i.e. Ideal self or ought-to self). Sample items are "I teach English because I enjoy teaching" and "I do not particularly like the process of teaching English, and I do it only because it is part of my responsibilities." (reverse coded). The mean scores of each participant was ranged from: 1 – 4.5 (ought-to self); and 4.6 – 6 (ideal-self).

Before analysing the data, the reliability coefficients were computed in Cronbach's Alpha. The value of the scales given in Table 3.2 indicated a high level of reliability based on George and Mallery (2003): "_ > .9 – Excellent, _ > .8 – Good, _ > .7 – Acceptable, _ > .6 – Questionable, _ > .5 – Poor, and_ < .5 – Unacceptable" (p. 231). The total variances of the scales given in Table 3 is based on the factor analysis that demonstrated the validity for measuring the scales.

Table 3.2

Reliability Coefficients and Total Variances of the Scales

Scale	Reliability coefficients in Cronbach's Alpha	% of the Variance
Teachers' possible selves	0.83	59.89
Teachers' use of ICT	0.71	63.40

The analysis applied descriptive statistics, using SPSS software, to describe and summarize the properties of data collected from the participants (Gay & Mills, 2015). Additionally, Mann-Whitney U Tests were used to see the comparison between mean scores. As Blaikie (2003) suggested, Mann-Whitney U Test is appropriate with ordinal-level variables. It is used when members of two categories can be ranked in terms of their scores on the same variables and it is the most powerful of the non-parametric tests because it makes use of most of the information in the data.

Subsequently, the quantitative data analysis revealed that teachers, who dominated with their ideal selves, were more in rural (73.8%) than in urban areas (59.0%). On the other hand, the ought-to selves teachers were less in rural (26.2%) than in urban areas (41.0%), as shown in figure 3.1. However, the researcher did not find any teacher, among the respondents in both areas, who were dominated by feared-self. Thus, feared-self was excluded from this study.
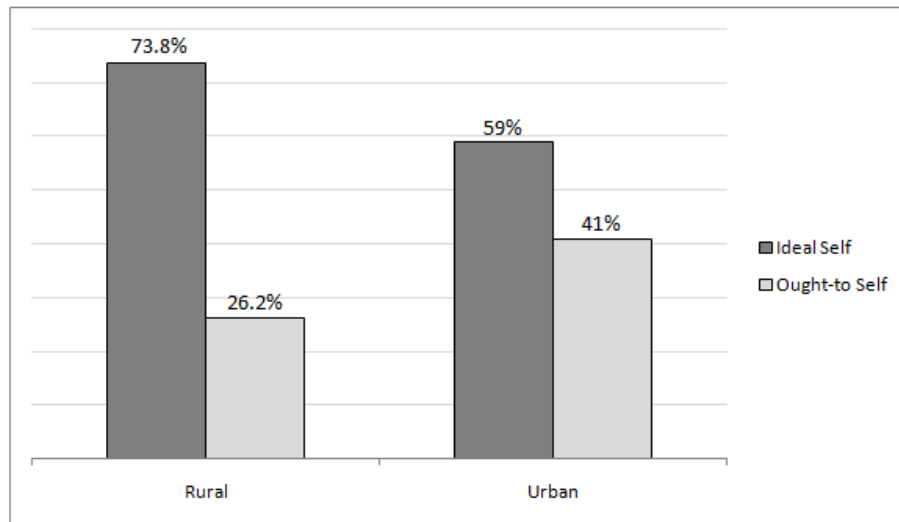
Figure 3.1. Percentage of teachers with dominant ideal self and ought-to self within rural and urban areas

Furthermore, in terms of the use of ICT among EFL teachers, the researcher found that teachers, in rural area, spend at least once a week using ICT. Teachers in urban areas spend at least once a month using ICT tools. In the other words, as illustrated in Figure 3.2, the use of ICT among teachers, in rural areas, is more frequent than those in urban area. However, in terms of teachers' possible selves (ideal and ought-to selves), the researcher found no significant difference of frequency in dealing with ICT among ideal and ought-to selves of teachers.
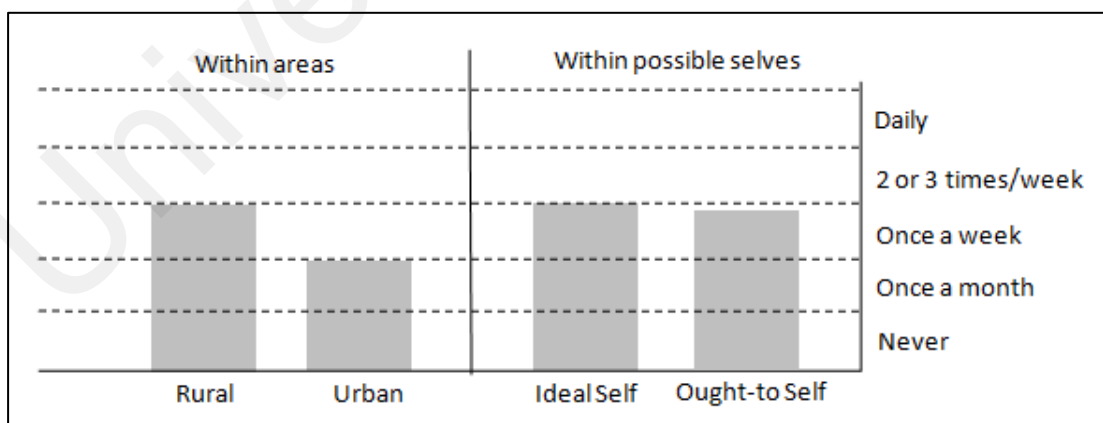
Figure 3.2. The frequency of ICT use among teachers within areas and possible selves

In short, these preliminary study findings have identified dissimilar amount of ideal and ought-to selves among EFL teachers in both areas, and the frequency on their use of ICT in educational practices. However, these quantitative data could not reveal deeper understanding of why and how teachers' possible selves and their use of ICT were distinct in such a way.

Hence, qualitative research is the most appropriate approach to understand the difference between ideal and ought-to selves and the use of ICT among the teachers. Merriam (2002) believed that qualitative approach uncovers the meaning a situation has for those involved or delineate process such how things happen.

Yin (2011), in addition, elaborated five features of qualitative research. First, qualitative research studies the meaning of people's lives, under real-world conditions. Second, qualitative research represents the views and perspectives of the people as participants in a study. Capturing their perspectives may be a major purpose of a qualitative study. Third, qualitative research covers contextual conditions within which people's lives take place. In many ways, these contextual conditions may strongly influence all human events. Fourth, qualitative research contributes insights into existing or emerging concepts that may help to explain human social behaviour. Fifth, qualitative research strives to use multiple sources of evidence rather than relying on a single source alone.

This present study employed possible selves theory, in which, environmental conditions become one of the key variables in understanding teachers' possible selves. In this study, the data were collected in natural settings, where participants lived and did their teaching routines. The researcher strived to collect, integrate, and present data from a variety of sources of evidence such as interview transcripts, recorded videos of classroom observations, fieldnotes and documents. The diversity of

the participants is likely to warrant the use of interviews, observations and the inspection of documents.

Furthermore, in this study, the researcher entered the site where the participants performed their everyday roles as teachers by observing their classroom routines and gathering information through open-ended interviews relating to their possible selves as EFL teacher and learner including their use of ICT in educational activities. Thus, the events and ideas emerging from this study could represent the meanings given to real-life events by the people – students – taught by the participants (teachers), not the values, pre-conceptions, or meanings held by the researcher.

3.2.2   Multiple-Case Studies

In doing research with qualitative approach, there are five types commonly found in the education field, namely the basic qualitative study, ethnography, phenomenology, grounded theory, and case study. These types share the essential characteristics of qualitative research, but they can be distinguished from each other (Merriam, 2001).

In order to determine which type of qualitative method suits this present study, the researcher considered the following preliminary study results: (1) schools in rural area were more dominated by teachers with ideal self. Schools in urban areas on the other hand were more dominated by teachers with ought-to self; (2) ICT was significantly used more often by teachers in rural areas compared to those in the urban area; nevertheless (3), the use of ICT in the urban area was statistically dominated by teachers with ought-to self. In contrast, the ICT use in rural areas was dominated by teachers with ideal self.

Consequently, the results above evoked the researcher to explore teachers' possible selves and their use of ICT in TEFL. This is because case study, as pointed out by Yin (2003), is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

In order to explore each category of possible selves (i.e. ideal self and ought-to self), and ICT use in TEFL, multiple case studies were used in this research. This is because possible selves are malleable towards environmental cues. They can be altered over time and situations. Thus, by involving more than one case, this study would be able to provide a broader explanation about how each category of possible selves plays within the participants, particularly, when dealing with ICT use in educational practices, particularly in TEFL.

In some fields, multiple-case studies have been considered a different "methodology" from single-case studies (Yin, 2003). Multiple-case studies, which also termed as 'collective' case study by Stake (1995), involve collecting and analysing data from several cases, and can be distinguished from the single case study that may have subunits or subcases embedded within (Merriam, 2001). One of the purposes of this type of study was for comparative reasons, so that the results of the two or more cases could be compared or contrasted, and for enhancing generalizability, the additional sites would involve some diversity in order to provide some range for observations (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009).

In this study, EFL teachers' possible selves and their use of ICT in TEFL within urban and rural settings were the cases being studied. Thus, the EFL teachers with their possible selves (ideal self and ought to-self), were the main participants

and the main unit of analysis of the study. Two sites were used for this study and the site selection was based on the purposeful sampling method.

These particular sites were selected to enable the researcher to obtain rich data on teachers' possible selves and their use of ICT in TEFL. The sites allowed the researcher to understand the similarities and differences between participants in urban and rural settings related to their use of ICT in TEFL. Thus, based on the rationales above, this study explored four individual cases: two cases in urban setting and two others in rural setting. Each setting represented both categories of possible selves (i.e. ideal self and ought-to self).

3.3   Context of the Study

Indonesia is the largest archipelagic country in the world consisting of 17,504 islands spanning over 3000 miles from east to west. Hence, Indonesia has a large diverse population embracing different ways of life, ethnic identities, religions, and languages. Such diversity has produced a more complex national educational system than other countries (Qoyyimah, 2015). The school education systems in this country is one of the largest in the world, serving over 50 million students across 34 provinces and more than 500 districts (De Ree, Muralidharan, Pradhan, & Rogers, 2015).

Schooling levels, in Indonesia, are divided into three: the primary level, which comprises six years at primary school; the early secondary level, which comprises three years at junior high school; and the late secondary level, which comprises three years at senior high school. This present study took place in urban and rural secondary schools where the participants did their daily teaching routines.

Two participants taught in the same school in a rural area. The other two teachers taught in different schools within the same urban area.

The schools, where the participants taught, were equipped with ICT facilities. However, the school in rural area were facilitated with limited ICT facilities (e.g. no electricity in most classrooms, one computer laboratory, and four LCD projectors). While the schools in the urban area were facilitated with more ICT tools than in the urban school (e.g. four computer laboratories, two language laboratories, and twenty-five LCD projectors).

Throughout the study, the researcher attempted to see how teachers' possible selves relate to their use of ICT in educational practices. During the data collection, the participants in each area were dominated with one of the categories of possible selves (i.e. ideal self or ought-to self). The ideal self or ought-to self, within the participants, were identified based on the preliminary study results. The participants, in this present study, were selected through several steps of selection processes, which will be explain in the next session.

In order to study ideal self and ought-to self within the teachers, the researcher referred to Hamman's et al. (2010) characteristics of teachers' possible selves. According to Hamman et al. (2010) each category of teachers' possible selves can be distinguished based on teachers' interpersonal relationships, classroom management, and instructional strategies. Furthermore, with the dominance of ideal self or ought-to self within the participants, the researcher went to their schools to see how each category of possible selves influence their teaching practices, particularly, when it came to ICT use in TEFL.

3.4   Selection of Sites and Participants

This study entailed a multiple-case study approach, which mainly aimed at understanding teachers' possible selves and how these relate to their use of ICT in TEFL. The sampling method of this study was purposeful sampling, which enabled the researcher to have in-depth understanding of how ideal and ought-to selves of EFL teachers influence their use of ICT in the teaching and learning process.

Purposeful sampling is based on the assumption that the researcher wanted to discover, understand, and gain insight; and therefore, the researcher must select a sample from which the most can be learned (Merriam, 2001). The researcher selected the sampling for several kinds of purposes: to achieve representativeness; to enable comparisons to be made; to focus on specific and unique issues or cases; and to generate theory through the gradual accumulation of data from different sources (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Patton (1990) argued that "the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth" (p.169).

The sites of this study were placed in urban and rural settings in South Sulawesi, Indonesia. The urban setting was in Makassar, the capital city of South Sulawesi with a total 194 middle schools and about two to five EFL teachers in each school. Whereas the rural setting was in Pangkajene, one of the regencies in South Sulawesi, with a total 56 middle schools, and about one to three EFL teachers in each school. However, some teachers taught in more than one school.

Table 3.3

Process of Selecting the Cases

The selection steps	Ideal selves (n)		Ought-to selves (n)	
1. Total number of respondents	135		68	
2. Areas	<u>urban</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>urban</u>	<u>Rural</u>
	59	76	41	27
3. Experienced-teachers (>15 years)	29	22	12	7
4. Have past traditional teaching experiences and were available to participate in the study	1	1	1	1

The selection of the participants was based on the preliminary study results explained earlier. From 203 respondents in both areas, as shown on Table 3.3 above, I filtered them based on their years of experience in traditional teaching practices. Then, I classified them based on their possible selves categories (Ideal self & ought-to self). From here, I selected one teacher from each possible selves category and area, who have the longest years teaching experiences and were available for the data collection (see table 3.2). According to Creswell (2009), researcher must not choose more than four cases. This is because the more cases studied the greater the tendency to sacrifice depth of interpretation. Thus, the researcher in this study chose four cases. The selected cases were Mia, Budi, Sarah and Firman (pseudonyms).

3.5   The Cases

The main criterion for participant selection was based on their possible selves, thus two EFL teachers (ideal selves), and two EFL teachers (ought-to selves) were selected from each site. In this sense, the ideal language teacher self is defined as an individual which constitutes identity goals and aspirations of the language teacher,

that is, involves the self which he/she would ideally like to attain. The ought-to language teacher self is defined as an individual which refers to the language teacher's cognitive representations of his/her responsibilities and obligation, as well as normative pressures of the school rules and norms (Kubanyiova, 2009).

The other criterion was the year of teaching experience with respondents from those having experience in the past traditional teaching practices. Thus, the comparison between their possible selves before and during the use of ICT could be made. According to Sampurno (2015) Senior teachers are those who have teaching experience for 15 years and above. They have teaching experience in traditional classroom setting (e.g. using blackboard and chalk during instruction).

By considering the criterion above, four participants were selected. Each participant represents a different case: (1) Mia, a senior EFL teacher with ideal self within urban setting; (2) Firman, a senior EFL teacher with ought-to self within urban setting; (3) Budi, a senior EFL teacher with ideal self within rural setting; and (4) Sarah, a senior EFL teacher with ought-to self within rural setting.

Table 3.4

Basic Data of the Four Cases

Feature	Ideal selves		Ought-to selves	
	Mia	Budi	Firman	Sarah
Gender	Female	Male	Male	Female
Qualification	Master	Degree	Master	Degree
Begin teaching (year)	2000	1991	1991	1991
Start using ICT (year)	2005	2000	1998	2009
Age range (years old)	41 - 45	46 – 50	46 – 50	46 – 50
School posted	Junior high school	Junior high school	Senior high school	Junior high
Area	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural

3.6 Process of the Fieldwork

Fieldwork is the way most qualitative researchers collect the data. The researcher went to where the people as subjects or informants were being studied. The researcher spent time with them in their territory, such as in their schools and their homes. These were the natural settings, where subjects did what they normally do. Therefore, in order to gain access, getting permission to conduct the study was the first concern to face in the fieldwork (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

As illustrated in Figure 3.3, the researcher proceeded with several required-steps before approaching the participants in this study. Starting from the first requirement, the researcher applied for permission to conduct the study from several layers of gatekeepers. Once permission has obtained, the researcher was then able to enter the site and to approach the selected teachers for their participation. Before starting data collection, permission must have been obtained from the schools as well, where the teachers teach, by passing the letter of approval from the ministry.

After obtaining permission from the gatekeepers, the data from each case were collected sequentially. In order to start collecting the data, the researcher firstly explained to the selected participants the objectives of the study and the researcher's role, including the confidentiality of all information obtained from the participants. Besides having teaching experiences for more than 15 years, the researcher also asked the prospective participants whether they have been through conventional teaching practices where their teaching practices were merely equipped with traditional teaching tools such as blackboard and paper-based teaching and learning resources.

Prior to collecting data from each participant, the researcher went to urban school A to approach two eligible EFL teachers who have participated in the preliminary study. However, both teachers refused to participate in this present study. The researcher went to urban school B and approach two teachers. Unfortunately, only one of them agreed to participate. Hence, the researcher went to urban school C and finally met an EFL teacher who signed the consent form for this study. Whereas, in the rural area, there were also two EFL teachers agree to fully involved in this present study.

The data were collected in the urban and rural secondary schools which involved EFL teachers as participants, and their students as non-participant informants. The researcher began with individual interviews with the teachers about their teaching experience from the beginning of their career as teachers. Next, the researcher observed teachers' classroom activities that were video-recorded under participants' permission. Afterwards, the researcher did second individual interviews with participants about their classroom activities and teaching experience using ICT tools. The teachers' students were also involved in the data collection through focus group interviews (see Table 3.4, page 96). In this study the teachers' students were asked about their teachers (participants) teaching practices. Through these focus group interviews, the researcher expected to gain supplementary information that could help reach trustworthiness of the data gathered from individual interviews and classroom observations. Here, the researcher asked several questions about their teacher's classroom practices to make sure participants' answers aligned with their students answers about their classroom practices.

Having collected all data, the researcher reflected on the work process, data and the findings from the researcher's observation, interviews and document analysis. Lastly, the researcher analysed all the data from the four cases.
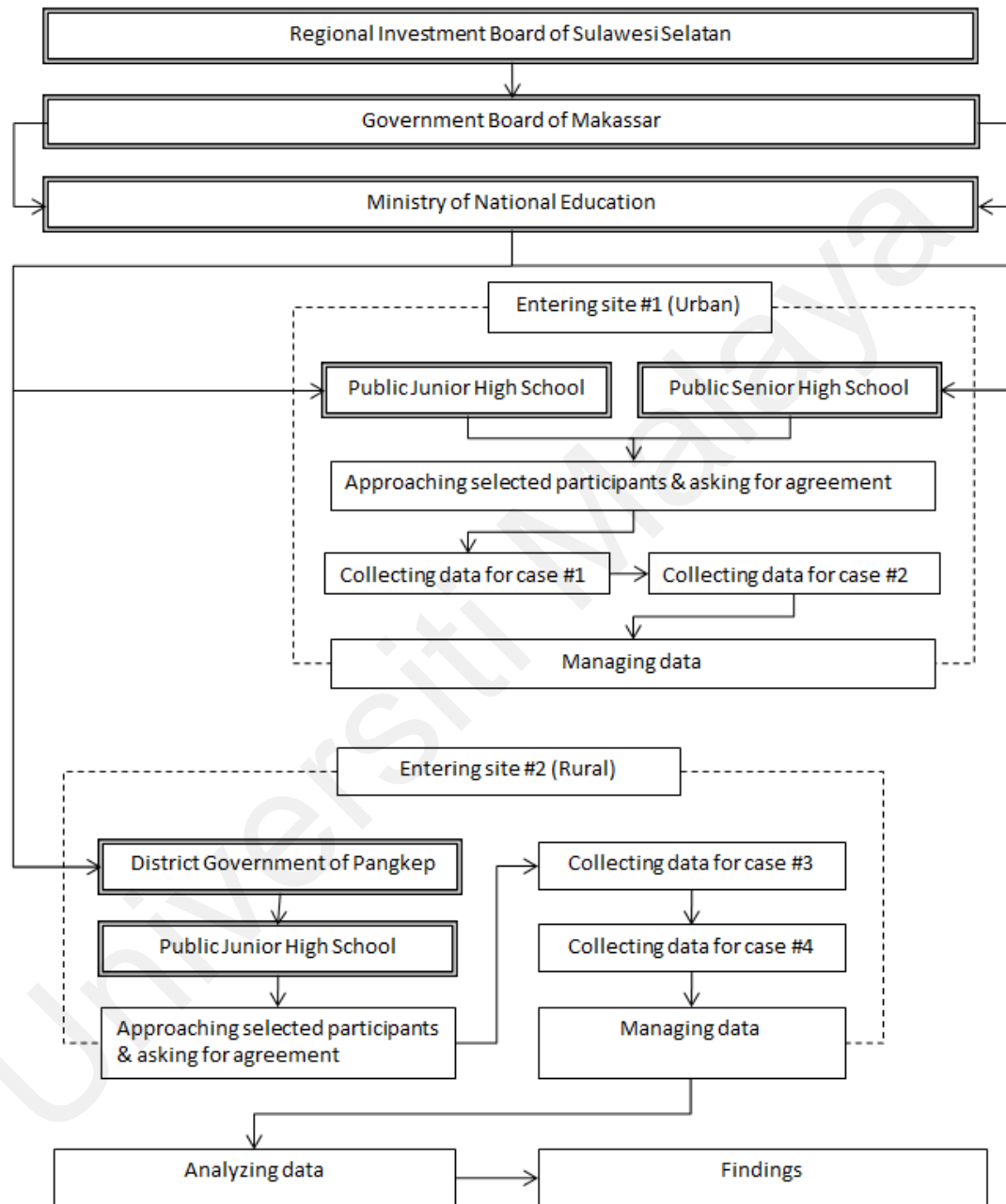
Figure 3.3. Work process of the Fieldwork.

3.7 Sources of Data

In this study, the researcher wanted to look at how these particular possible selves (ideal self & ought-to self) of EFL teachers in urban and rural settings interrelated to the use of ICT in TEFL. This study involved investigation and exploration of the teachers' teaching and learning process including students' perceptions of their teachers and the course/class.

To address the research questions of this study, the researcher considered interviews, observation and document analysis as the most suitable methods in collecting the needed data for the study. The following sections explain the data collection procedures of this study.

3.7.1 Interview

This study aimed at better understanding of possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self) and the EFL teachers' use of ICT in TEFL within rural and urban settings. The self is a product of an individual's personal memories, and possible selves are hypothetical images about her/his future (Strahan & Wilson, 2006). Since the researcher could not observe the past and future perspective; therefore, interview was necessary to obtain information about the participants' expected future, and past events that were impossible to replicate or to observe (Merriam, 2001).

In addition, the interview also enabled the researcher to find out what is in and on the participant's mind, and to obtain how they perceived ICT in educational activities. As Hesse-Biber, Nagy, and Leavy (2010) stated that interview allows researchers to seek knowledge from the participant's point of view, and to understand meaning from the perspective of those being interviewed.

In this study, the researcher conducted informal/semi structured-interviews with open-ended questions (Merriam, 2001). The interviews were guided by certain planned-topics and followed up by questions according to the responses of each informant (Berg and Lune, 2014). In this case, I encouraged the participants to talk about the area of interest and then probe questions that require an explanation, by picking up on the topics and issues the participants initiate, as Bogdan and Biklen (2007) stated "Good interviews are those where the subjects are at ease and talk freely about their points of view" (p.104).

During the data collection, I conducted two face-to-face interview sessions to each participant in his/her school. These interview sessions were audiotaped for transcription purposes. The first session, conducted before observations, covered several relevant topics to address research questions one and two (i.e. teachers' possible selves during their past conventional teaching practices). Those topics included academic background and teaching experiences in early career.

The second session, conducted after observations, covered topic about participants' teaching experiences during ICT implementation in their schools. This topic aimed to address research questions one and two (i.e. their possible selves during ICT use in their teaching practices), and research questions three and four (i.e. how do EFL teachers' possible selves in urban and rural setting influence their use of ICT in TEFL?).

Besides interviewing teachers as the participants, I also conducted focus group interviews with the participants' students, as non-participant informants, regarding their perception toward their teacher in the EFL teaching and learning process (Appendix 7). This interview aimed at collecting data about teachers' actual selves and their teaching practice as reflection of their use of ICT in TEFL. This

interview aimed to address research questions one and two (i.e. teachers' possible selves during ICT use in their teaching practices), and research questions three and four about the influence of teachers' possible selves on their use of ICT in TEFL.

3.7.2 Observation

Besides interviews, observations were also the primary data sources in this present study (i.e. Merriam, 2001). This is because observation captured a variety of activities that range from: hanging around in the setting; getting to know people; and learning the routines to using strict time sampling, and to record actions and interactions (Marshall & Rossman, 2011).

In order to scope which particular things to observe, I started by focusing on the following six elements (Merriam, 2001) in the beginning of the study:

1. The typical setting, in terms of school, classroom, audio and visual aids – if any – and other objects, resources.

2. The participants, which described their role and the relevant characteristics of the participants.

3. Activities and interaction, concerning to classroom activities that the participants engage in.

4. Conversation, in terms of the content both verbal and nonverbal that will be auditory and visually recorded.

5. Subtle factors, which less obvious but perhaps as important to the observation such as what does not happen – especially if it ought to have happened, and informal or unplanned activities.

6. The researcher's own behaviour, concerning the thoughts of researcher have about what was going on which was expressed into written comment and note.

Teachers' possible selves and their use of ICT were reflected in teachers' behaviour, particularly in classroom activities. Thus, to see how participants express their role as teachers, I conducted three classroom observations to each participant. It was also obtained to investigate teachers' effort towards ICT in teaching and learning process.

During the classroom observation, the researcher paid attention to how teacher's possible selves (ideal self or ought-to self) reflected in teacher's classroom practices (e.g. classroom management, instructional strategies, interpersonal relationship with students, and professional qualities). Besides, the researcher also paid attention to teacher's use of ICT in classroom practices (e.g. what devices she/he used and how she/he used it).

In doing observation, somehow, the phenomenon being observed is influenced by the presence of the observer, which is also known as observer paradox (i.e. Shanmuganathan, 2005). In this context, during the observation, participants' classroom behaviour might not be so much a representation of their normal routines. To anticipate this shortcoming, the researcher conducted: (1) focus group interviews with the participants' students by asking whether their teachers' classroom practices during observations were similar to their normal routines; (2) data triangulation between classroom observations and individual interviews about the participants classroom practices; and (3) three times classroom observation for each participant to see patterns within their classroom practices.

3.7.3 Video Recordings

In qualitative research, video recording was a reliable technology that enables researchers to record naturally occurring activities as they arise in ordinary habitats, such as the home, the workplace or the classroom (Heath, Hindmarsh, and Luff, 2010). This video recording provided researchers with permanent revisable documentation from the field that could serve both a source of data collection to be used in research or evaluation or as a historical record (Rosenstein, 2002).

In this present study, I used a video recorder to capture the events during classroom observation. The main objectives of the classroom observations were to record: teachers' instructional strategies, interpersonal relationship, classroom management, and their use of ICT. Thus, videotaping teachers' classroom practices were undertaken for documentation purposes, since several events might occur at a time, which could be missed by the observer.

3.7.4 Field Notes

What was written down or mechanically recorded from a period of observation became the raw data which are analogous to the interview transcript (Merriam, 2001). These field notes were the written account of what the researcher heard, saw, experienced, and thought in the course of collecting and reflecting on the data in qualitative study (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

According to McMillan (2012), field notes consist of two kinds of information: (1) descriptive, which aims to use pictures, words, drawings, and maps that capture the details of what has occurred; and (2) reflective, which includes researcher speculations, feelings, interpretations, ideas, hunches, and impression. These reflections comprise thoughts about emerging themes and patterns, thoughts

about methodological issues, considerations of ethical concerns, and introspective discussions about researcher opinions, attitudes, and prejudices.

In this study, the researcher took notes about any thought and prejudice towards what she saw and heard during the teachers' classroom practices. Here, the researcher also drew teachers' classroom arrangement that could reflects teachers' classroom management, instructional strategies and their use of ICT in classroom activities, particularly in TEFL.

3.7.5 Documents

Documents were reliable sources of data concerning a person's attitudes, beliefs and views of the world (Merriam, 2001). In this study, the researcher collected materials that teachers use in the classroom. She collected any worksheet, reading, lesson plan, or other materials used in the class over the course of the last month of the school year. These documents were used to supplement data from the interviews and classroom observations. The course documents were collected in an attempt to understand the teachers' use of ICT.

Table 3.5

Summary of Data Collection

Data collection techniques	Mia	Firman	Budi	Sarah
Individual interview with the participants (teachers)	Interview 1 Topic: teaching experiences in earlier career. Date: 27 April 2015 Duration: 32 minutes	Interview 1 Topic: teaching experiences in earlier career. Date: 13 May 2015 Duration: 35 minutes	Interview 1 Topic: teaching experiences in earlier career. Date: 22 May 2015 Duration: 26 minutes	Interview 1 Topic: teaching experiences in earlier career. Date: 23 May 2015 Duration: 30 minutes

	Interview 2 Topic: teaching experiences during the ICT use in education. Date: 11 May 2015 Duration: 29 minutes	Interview 2 Topic: teaching experiences during the ICT use in education. Date: 26 May 2015 Duration: 30 minutes	Interview 2 Topic: teaching experiences during the ICT use in education. Date: 22 May 2015 Duration: 31 minutes	Interview 2 Topic: teaching experiences during the ICT use in education. Date: 23 May 2015 Duration: 23 minutes
Focus group interview with participants' students Topic: - Teacher's competence and teaching styles - Teacher's rapport and commitment - Students' attitudes towards class/course	Group 1 Date: 27 April 2015 Duration: 8 minutes Group 2 Date: 27 April 2015 Duration: 8 minutes Group 3 Date: 11 May 2015 Duration: 6 minutes Group 4 Date: 11 May 2015 Duration: 5 minutes Group 5 Date: 11 May 2015 Duration: 6 minutes Group 6 Date: 11 May 2015 Duration: 6 minutes	Group 1 Date: 15 May 2015 Duration: 9 minutes Group 2 Date: 15 May 2015 Duration: 7 minutes Group 3 Date: 15 May 2015 Duration: 5 minutes Group 4 Date: 15 May 2015 Duration: 4 minutes Group 5 Date: 15 May 2015 Duration: 4 minutes	Group 1 Date: 22 May 2015 Duration: 5 minutes Group 2 Date: 22 May 2015 Duration: 5 minutes Group 3 Date: 22 May 2015 Duration: 6 minutes	Group 1 Date: 21 May 2015 Duration: 9 minutes Group 2 Date: 21 May 2015 Duration: 7 minutes Group 3 Date: 23 May 2015 Duration: 5 minutes Group 4 Date: 23 May 2015 Duration: 5 minutes
Classroom observation	Class 1 Topic: Junk food Activities: Group presentation, discussion.	Class 1 Topic: Profession Classroom type: meeting hall Activities:	Class 1 Topic: Notice Classroom type: conventional Activities:	Class 1 Topic: Traffic signs Classroom type:

	Classroom type: conventional Date: 27 April 2015 Duration: 90 minutes Class 2 Topic: Junk food Classroom type: conventional Activities: Group presentation, dictation. Date: 6 May 2015 Duration: 90 minutes Class 3 Topic: Tag questions Classroom type: conventional Activities: peer teaching, group discussion Date: 11 May 2015 Duration: 90 minutes	listening comprehension, group discussion Date: 12 May 2015 Duration: 90 minutes Class 2 Topic: Profession Classroom type: meeting hall Activities: listening comprehension, group discussion Date: 13 May 2015 Duration: 90 minutes Class 3 Topic: previous lessons review Classroom type: conventional Activities: group discussion Date: 15 May 2015 Duration: 45 minutes	interactive quiz, group discussion Date: 21 May 2015 Duration: 90 minutes Class 2 Topic: Family members Classroom type: computer lab. Activities: presentation, games, group discussion. Date: 22 May 2015 Duration: 90 minutes Class 3 Topic: Notice Classroom type: computer lab. Activities: Quiz, group discussion, conversation practice. Date: 22 May 2015 Duration: 90 minutes	conventional Activities: material explanation, individual tasks. Date: 21 May 2015 Duration: 90 minutes Class 2 Topic: Instructions Classroom type: conventional Activities: Reviewing and evaluating previous lessons Date: 22 May 2015 Duration: 90 minutes Class 3 Topic: Traffic signs Classroom type: conventional Activities: material explanation, individual tasks. Date: 23 May 2015 Duration: 90 minutes
Document collection (collected during the period of data collection, 11 to 23 May 2015)	1. Lesson plan 2. Syllabus 3. Samples of students' works	Lesson plan	1. Lesson plan 2. PowerPoint slides of classroom materials 3. Worksheets	1. Lesson plan 2. Students' attendance list 3. Samples of students' works

3.8   Researcher's Role

In a qualitative research, the researcher is the primary instrument for gathering and analysing data and, as such, can respond to the situation by maximizing opportunities for collecting and producing meaningful information (Merriam, 2001). The role of the researcher, as the primary data collection instrument, necessitates the identification of personal values, assumptions and biases at the outset of the study (Creswell, 2009).

In order to clarify the potential duality or multiplicity of meanings, emic perspective attempted to capture participants' indigenous meaning of real-world events. In contrast, an etic perspective represented the same set of real-world events from the external perspective or the researcher (Yin, 2011), qualitative research attempted to understand and to make sense of phenomenon from the participants' perspective (Merriam, 2002). In this study, I attempted to understand meaning of the participants' perception on ICT use in TEFL.

In this context, the researcher aimed to be reflexive about her role and the influence of her beliefs and behaviours on the research process, by striving to avoid obvious, conscious or systematic bias and to be neutral as possible in the collection, interpretation and presentation of data (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholas, & Ormston, 2013). Lastly, the researcher analysed all the data from the four cases.

3.9   Data Analysis

In multiple case studies, the analysis was performed in two stages: within each case and across the cases (Stake, 1995). A primary goal of within-case analysis was to describe, understand, and explain what has happened in a single, bounded context--

the case or site (Miles, Huberman, & Seldana, 2014). Once the analysis of each case has completed, cross-case analysis began.

A qualitative, inductive, multicase study sought to build abstractions across cases. Even though the details of specific cases may vary, the researcher attempted to build a general explanation that fits the individual cases (Yin, 2008). As cross-case analysis aimed to enhance generalizability or transferability to other context and to deepen understanding and explanation (Miles et al., 2014).

3.10   Trustworthiness

As qualitative inquiry involved a variety of dissimilar research paradigms, different perspectives could be found regarding how to critically appraise the rigor of qualitative research. Regardless of one's perspective, however, there is a general agreement that one key issue in evaluating the rigor of qualitative research is trustworthiness (Rubin & Babbie, 2009).

In order to establish authenticity and trustworthiness of the study, I employed the following strategies, based on Merriam (2009):

1.   Data triangulation, where observation and fieldnotes, interview, and document analysis were triangulated to confirm the emerging findings.

2.   Member check, in terms of taking data and tentative interpretations back to the people from whom they were derived and asking, them if the results were plausible.

3.   Long-term observation, by observing the same phenomenon at the research site repeatedly such as gathering data over a period of time in order to increase the validity of the findings.

4. Peer review, by asking colleagues or any individuals who were considered as experts to comment on the findings as they emerge.

5. Researcher's bias, by clarifying the researcher's assumptions, worldview, and theoretical orientation at the outset of the study through reflexivity.
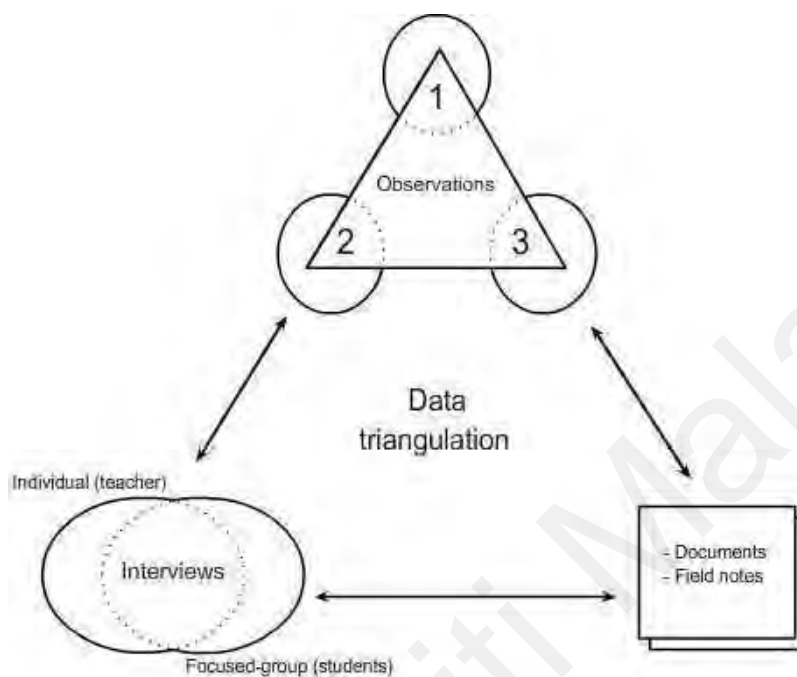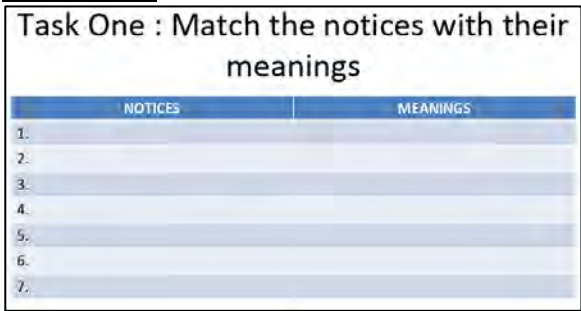
Figure 3.4. Data triangulation

In this study, the data triangulation involved comparing and cross-checking the consistency of information derived at different times by different means within qualitative methods (Patton, 2002). Each case, in this study, consisted of: (1) three classroom observations to see salient and consistent patterns that reflect participant's possible self and ICT use; (2) individual interview with the participant and focused-group with participant's students; (3) participant's documents (i.e. lesson plan and/or teaching materials) and researcher's notes during the data collection. For member check, the researcher distributed interview transcripts to participants to make sure that the transcriptions were accurate (Appendix 16). For peer review, the researcher

asked a colleague to read the findings of this study, and allowed him to give critical comments. Another way was by sending an article to peer-reviewed journals for publication.

Table 3.6

Sample of Data Triangulation

Code	Themes & Definition	Excerpts/episodes/entries
VarRs	Instructional strategies Traits that pertain to the use of strategies, the focus of instruction, or instructional process.	Individual interviews: "*Kadang pake LKS.. Lembar Kerja Siswa, kemudian pake gambar-gambar, kemudian pake chart.. kayak ada kata-kata itu.. chart.. vocab.* "(INT.BUD.1, 120-121) "*Biasanya.. bikin sendiri, biasanya juga beli. Biasa bikin sendiri biasa beli.*" (INT.BUD.1, 125-126) Focus group: *Buku cetak* *Dari luar* *Dari luar* *Selalu ambil dari luar dih* *Iye kak* (FG, 27-56) Observation: He has prepared the material (printed it) in several yellow sheets with full of notice with in English that he pass them to each group to work on along with the meaning of each notice inside the envelop (NOTE.OBS.1, 11-14) Documents: (DOC.Ppt, S.4) "*Layout dan dekorasi yang membuat tampilan teks lebih menarik.*" (DOC.LP,Part.C)

3.11   Ethical Considerations

The standard data collection techniques of interviewing and of observation in qualitative research present their own ethical dilemmas (Merriam, 2001). Thus, ethics should be a primary concern rather than an afterthought, and researchers should reflect on issues throughout the research process (Creswell, 2008). As such, during the interview, the respondents might felt their privacy has been invaded, they may be embarrassed by certain questions, and they might told things they had never intended to reveal (Merriam, 2001).

Consequently, in this study, the researcher contacted the teachers to invite them to participate. After teachers have agreed, I passed the informed consent form that explained the specific condition and requirements of the study. This form acknowledged that participants' rights would be protected during data collection (Creswell, 2009). The real names of the participants and schools would not been used in this study to protect their privacy.

3.12   Organizing the Data

In this study, the data consisted of: 1) interview transcripts; 2) classroom observation notes; 3) video recording of classroom observation; 4) documents (teachers' materials/ lesson plans). There were approximately 6 hours of interviews (4 hours with teachers and 2 hours with their students); 23 hours of classroom observations; 12 field notes; and documents (teachers' teaching materials, students' worksheets, and lesson plans).
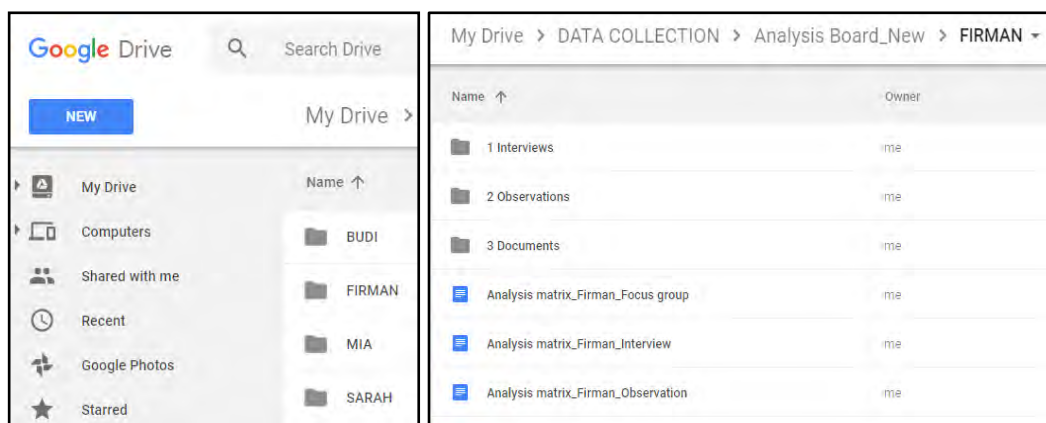
Figure 3.5. Organizing data using Google Drive

The interviews were transcribed immediately, by the researcher, after each interview. During the process of transcription, the researcher played and listened to the recorded interviews repeatedly to ensure all interviews have been transcribed properly. Afterwards, the transcriptions were sent to the participants to ensure accuracy and transparency. For the field notes from the observations, the researcher played the video recording and compared it with the notes taken during the observations. In order to organize the data, the researcher initially attempted to use *Nvivo*. However, after importing the data into the software and organizing the data in such a way, the researcher felt distant with the data. Thus, the researcher figured out alternative tools to get the feel of the data conveniently (i.e. Google Drive and Microsoft Word).

Having all the data collected, the data were checked repeatedly until the researcher identified particular information that could answer the research questions. In order to identify the answers from the data, the researcher paid attention to teachers' motivational behaviours which is part of possible selves features. As Markus and Ruvolo (1993) point out that specificity of possible selves should be important in how effective they are at motivation behaviour. The more elaborated the possible selves, the more motivationally effective it can be expected to be because

rehearsing the outcome and the steps needed to get to that outcome should organize and energize and individual to move toward that goal.

Each category of possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self) generates different tendencies. As discussed earlier, ideal self constitutes identity goals and aspirations that involves the self who they ideally like to attain. Whereas ought-to self refers to cognitive representations of responsibilities and obligations with regards to teachers' work (Kubanyiova, 2009). In order to distinguish ideal self and ought-to self within the teachers, the researcher identified theoretical proportion of possible selves based on previous research (i.e. Hamman et al., 2010; Kubanyiova, 2007; Markus and Ruvolo, 1993; Vernon, 2004).

3.13   Analysing the Data

Analysis is laid on the foundation of our understanding about how the world works, what makes it what it is; and how we, as human beings, can understand and learn about the world and especially about the world of people (Bazeley, 2013). In qualitative data analysis, the researcher created classification by chunking the data into smaller units which are commonly termed as codes (Bernard, Wutich, & Ryan, 2017). Figure 3.6 portrays the process of data analysis.

Codes were labels that assign symbolic meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study. Thus, the researcher could quickly find, pull out, and cluster the segment relating to particular research questions, hypotheses, constructs, or themes (Miles, Huberman & Seldana, 2014). Different kinds of codes were used to help researcher to focus and to develop ideas (Bazeley, 2013), and to see new connections and alternative ways of framing and interpreting a text or situation (Maxwell & Miller, 2008). In this study, I coded the data based on

the essential information of the employed-theories and the ICT implementation among the cases.
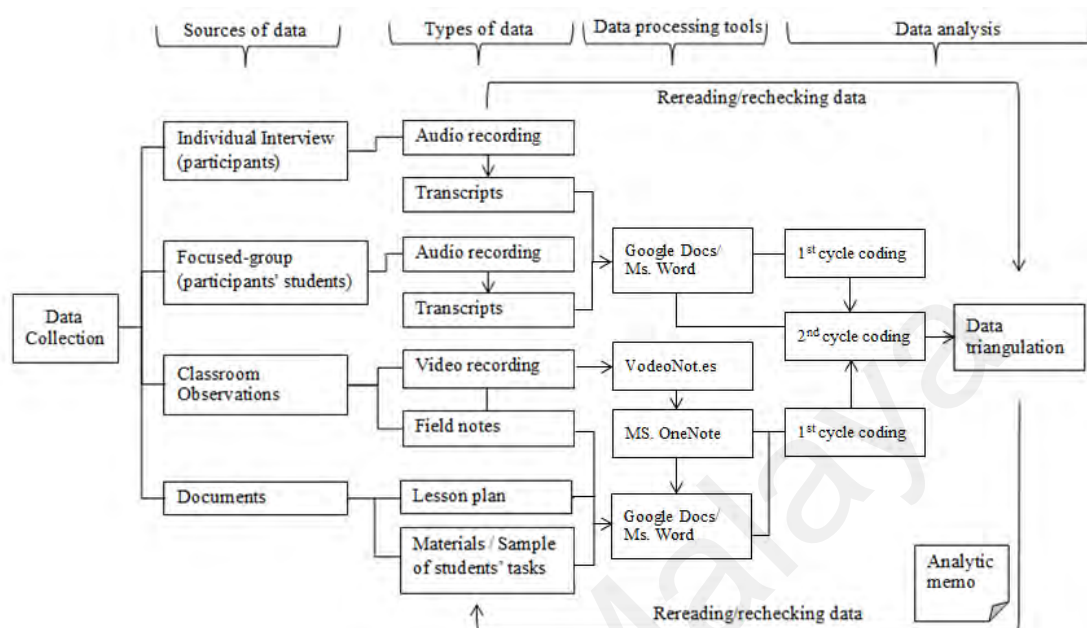
Figure 3.6. The process of data analysis

In order to scope and analyse the particular information from the data, I followed data analysis procedure suggested by Miles, Huberman and Seldana (2014), which began with: (1) first cycle coding, which was initially assigned to the data chunks; (2) second cycle or pattern codes, that generally worked with the resulting first cycle codes themselves (Seldana, 2013); (3) jottings, which equated to "analytic sticky note" which similar to a piece of writing that could literally fit onto the space of a small square piece of paper (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 2011); and (4) analytic memo, which was a brief or extended narrative that documents the researcher's reflections and thinking process about the data (Miles et al., 2014).

In order to work with the coding process, commonly "researchers have Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) programs for their unique approaches to data analysis. Even basic Microsoft Office programs such

as Word and Excel are sufficient for most matrix and network display" (Miles et al., 2014, p.108). These everyday Microsoft Office applications could assist the analysis with sorting and indexing text (Bazeley, 2013). In this study, I used Google Docs, Microsoft Word, and Microsoft Excel.
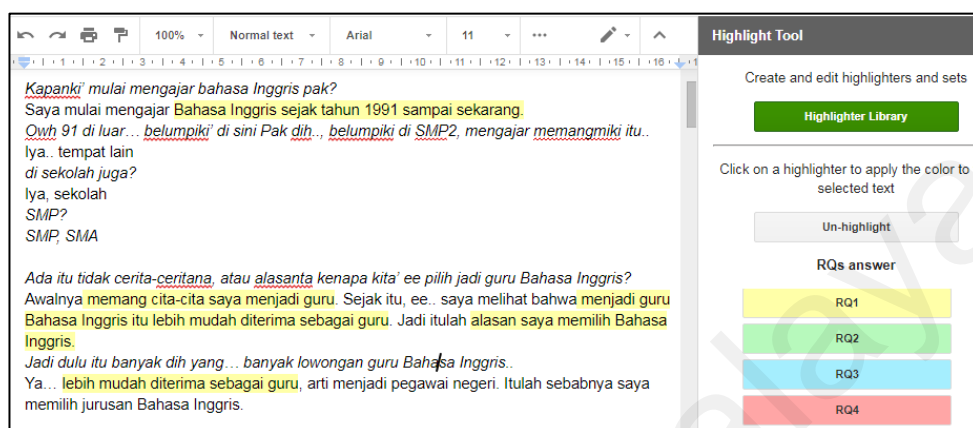
Figure 3.7. First cycle coding

In coding the data in Google Docs, I used several 'add-on' features. For first cycle coding, I used Highlight Tool. This feature allowed me to classify the data referred to the research questions. As shown in Figure 3.7. I started the first cycle by highlighting chunk of data that relates to the research question. After classifying all data, as shown in Figure 3.8, I extracted the highlighted themes into matrix for within case analysis and started coding.

#	RQ	Excerpt (Data source)	Open coding	Axial coding	Selective coding	themes	Category
1	1	Saya mulai mengajar Bahasa Inggris sejak tahun 1991 (INT.BUD.1, 1)	Teach since 1991	>20 years of teaching experience	Senior	Teaching periods	Conventional teaching
2	1	Belum ada ee.. komputer, belum ada (INT.BUD.1, 113)	ICT unavailable	Prior to ICT use	Manual	Instructional strategies	
3	1	memang cita-cita saya menjadi guru (INT.BUD.1, 11)	Determined to become a teacher	Reasons for becoming a teacher	Love teaching	Passion	Traits
8	1	guru itu harus membuat perencanaan pembelajaran sebelum mengajar (INT.BUD.1, 34)	Preparing lesson plan	Planning before teaching	Organized	Professional qualities	
9	1	harus mengajar sesuai dengan keahlian atau jurusannya (INT.BUD.1, 35)	Teaching based on expertise	Being professional	Commitment		
10	1	diharapkan masuk mengajar sebelum ada perencanaan pembelajaran (INT.BUD.1, 63-64)	The importance of lesson plan	Planning before teaching			
11	1	Justru itu yang harus. Penting sekali (INT.BUD.1, 66-67)	The importance of lesson plan				

Figure 3.8. Second cycle coding (within case analysis)

I started second cycle coding by classifying the excerpts into open coding. Next step was to classify open coding into axial coding. In this step the data were reorganized by looking at how larger pieces of data fit, group, and cluster together (i.e. Allen, 2017; Babbie, 2014). Afterwards, the researcher reread all codes along with the excerpts to see what was thought to be the core that explains the behaviour or concern of the participant, which was classified into selective coding. The next step was to classify group selective codes into particular themes.

To conduct cross case analysis, I created another matrix using Microsoft Excel. This matrix, as shown in Figure 3.9, would help the researcher to find similarities and differences among the cases by including coding results from within case analysis of each participant which comprised categories, themes, selective codes and line number of each code. To access files of within case analysis, I put hyperlink on all participants' name (first row). This hyperlink would ease the researcher to check/look at the details of each code.

No	Categories	Themes	#	BUDI SC	#	MIA SC	#	FIRMAN SC	#	SARAH SC
2	Traits	Passion	3	Love teaching	6	Love English subject	7	Focosed on teaching	6	Love English subject
					7	Love English subject				
		Professional qualities	4	Organized	29	Avoidance/obligation based	18	Luved up to obligation		
			5	Commitment	34	LP is imperative	31	LP hepls teacher keep on track		
			71	Organized	75	Willing to learn new things	46	Blaming policy for studs low motivation		
			97	Lifelong learner						
			140	Passionate						
		Classroom management	18	Monitoring students activities	40	Identifying studs from attendan	36	Can't identify all studs	35	Giving assignment to handle slow learner
			19	Proactive, considerate	41	Assessment based on a daily pe	37	Assessing studs' skill & behaviour	36	Giving assignment to handle slow learner
			21	Constructive approach	42	Assessing studs from attendanc	38	Physical punishment to misbehav	37	Letting the slow comer in
			23	Commitment	46	Managed to handle misbehaved	39	Physical punishment to misbehave	38	Checklist for assignment submission
			25	Constructive approach	47	Suds were difficult to handle	40	Giving advice	39	Discipline
			78	Monitoring students activities	48	Giving advice as needed			40	Giving assigment as replacement for her al
			80	Collaborating with GC	55	Peer teaching for slow tearner				
			88	Understanding studs character	56	Peer teaching for slow tearner				
			91	Tolerant	57	Reminder for late comers				
			93	Tolerant, fair	58	Checklist for assignment submission				
			94	Commitment	60	Teach next days to replace her absent				
			110	Penalty to disruptive studs	61	Rarely miss class				
			111	somewhat on time						
			112	Commitment						

Figure 3.9. Second cycle coding (cross case analysis)

For audio and visual data analysis, I used VideoNot.es and Microsoft OneNote. VideoNot.es is an open-source online application for taking notes from video. The note was automatically synchronized with the relevant part of the video. This

application enabled the user to watch video and to take notes at the same time by keeping the shortcut to play/pause video while writing notes (VideoNot.es, 2013). I used this application (i.e. VideoNot.es) to write the sequence of event and activities in the classroom.
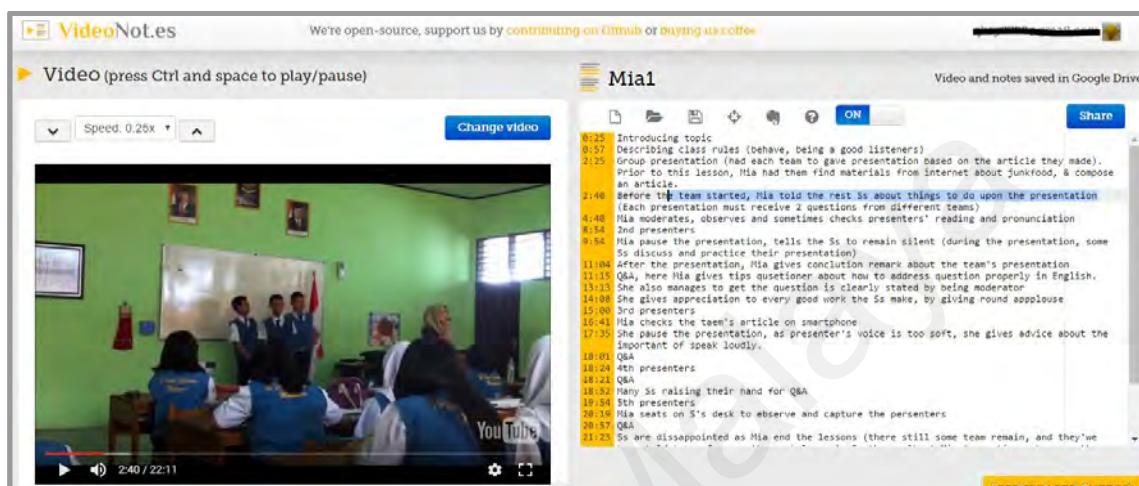
Figure 3.10. Audio visual data transcription using VideoNet.es

As shown in Figure 3.10, I used Microsoft OneNote to find particular events that reflect teachers' use of ICT and their possible selves characteristic features (e.g. instructional strategies and classroom management).
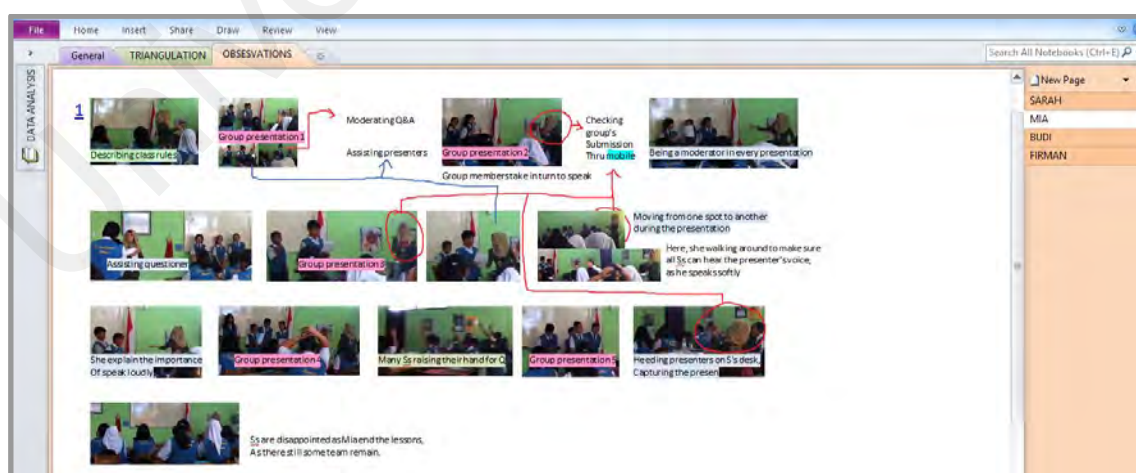
Figure 3.11. Audio visual data analysis using Microsoft OneNote

3.14 Data Synthesis

Synthesis is the process of pulling everything together - that is: (a) how the research questions were answered by the findings, (b) to what extent the findings emanating from data collection methods could be interpreted in the same way; (c) how the findings related to the literature; and (d) how the findings related to the researcher's prior assumptions about the study (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). In order to synthesize the data, the researcher identified patterns by finding the similarity or differences from the themes within individual case and across cases. From there, the researcher drew description for answering the research questions.

In the research questions 1 and 2, the researcher attempted to find out teachers' possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current ICT use in teaching practices. The objective of these research questions was to find out whether or not ICT implementation might trigger the participants' possible selves changes. Here, the researcher examined the data analysis from interviews section one to identify teachers' possible selves dominant (Table 4.7). If teachers' possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current ICT use in teaching practices are different (e.g. ought-to self in early career & ideal self during the period of ICT use), the researcher explored the data analysis from interviews to identify the factor behind teachers' possible selves changes (Table 4.10).

In order to provide further explanation about the distinction of ideal self and ought-to self among the participants, the researcher examined the data analysis from the interviews and observations. Here, the researcher focused on these particular themes: motives of pursuing an EFL teaching career, classroom management,

instructional strategies, interpersonal relationship, professional qualities, and workload.

For research questions 3 and 4, the researcher attempted to examine how teachers' possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self), in urban and rural areas, influence their use of ICT in teaching practices. Here, the researcher explored the data analysis from interviews section two, focus group, observations and document. The themes that provide information for research questions 3 and 4 are professional qualities, ICT use, ICT in school, ICT training, and ICT challenges/barriers. Taking a closer look into these themes enabled the researcher to identify ICT use patterns among ideal self and ought-to self within each participant.

Having the findings, the researcher compared and contrasted them with the issues discussed in the literature review. Here, the researcher evaluated the findings with the previous research gaps pertaining to experienced EFL teachers, possible selves, and teachers' use of ICT in TEFL. With that, the researcher developed various implications to the body of knowledge and practices in teachers' possible selves and ICT use in educational practices. Finally, the researcher formulated the conclusion and recommendations for further research.

3.15   Conclusion

In summary, this chapter has discussed the methodology of current research, featuring research design, rationale for using qualitative approaches with multiple case studies, participants' selection, data collection and analysis. The next chapter elaborates findings within case to cross cases.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

4.1   Introduction

In this chapter, I firstly present the data analysis case by case, then continue to the cross-case analysis. According to Miles, Huberman and Seldana (2014), a primary goal of within case analysis is to describe, understand, and explain what has happened in a single, bounded context -the "case" or site, whereas cross-case analysis is to enhance transferability to other context and to deepen understanding and explanation. These multiple cases help the researcher find salient cases to strengthen/develop a theory, built through examination of similarities and differences across cases.

In this study, the main purpose of these multiple cases was to focus on an in-depth examination of four EFL teachers' possible selves and their use of ICT in TEFL. This study particularly aims to see whether their possible selves have something to do with the existence of ICT in TEFL, and to see the influence of their possible selves in using ICT in TEFL. To achieve the objectives above, the study is guided by the following research questions:

1. How do EFL teachers in urban setting perceive their possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current ICT use in teaching practices?

2. How do EFL teachers in rural setting perceive their possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current ICT use in teaching practices?

3. How do EFL teachers' possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self) in urban setting influence their use of ICT in TEFL?

4. How do EFL teachers' possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self) in rural setting influence their use of ICT in TEFL?

4.2   Within Case Analysis

In the following within-case analysis, I elaborate each case into five parts (as shown in table 4.1). In the end of each case, I highlight the salient features of participant's possible selves and their use of ICT in educational practices.

Table 4.1

Content of Within-Case Analysis

Part	Feature	Data sources
1	Background	Individual interview Section 1 and 2
2	Participant's teaching experience on conventional teaching practices	Individual interview Section 1
3	Participant's experiences using ICT	Individual interview Section 2 Documents
4	Participant's classroom practices	Observations Individual interviews Focus group interviews Documents
5	Participant's possible selves and their use of ICT	Interviews Observations Documents

4.2.1   Mia

4.2.1.1 Background

Mia is an EFL teacher in a public junior high school. The school in which Mia teaches is located in the capital city of Southern Sulawesi. Mia has been passionate in

learning English since she was an adolescent and took some English courses outside her school routine. Prior to her teaching career in school, she taught EFL while in college. During data collection, she was in her fifteenth year of teaching EFL and has been teaching in current urban high school for ten years. In this school, Mia teaches sixteen hours per week, divided into six classes with approximately thirty to thirty-six students per class (i.e. student age 12 to 15 years old).

4.2.1.2 Mia's past experiences on conventional teaching practices

Prior to teaching in the urban area, Mia began her teaching career in a rural high school in 2000. This school was located about a hundred thousand miles away from the capital city of Southern Sulawesi. In this school, Mia taught four to five classes per week with the duration of two hours for each meeting. Besides teaching EFL, she was also a homeroom teacher in which she was responsible to guide, assess and monitor including fill student's book report at the end of each semester.

The inhabitants in this district communicate with each other using their own local language (i.e. *Bahasa Bugis*). This local language has its own unique vocabularies, accent, and even alphabet. Although the local language was not applied for instruction in classroom, the EFL students whom Mia taught, however, was influenced by their mother tongue. Moreover, most of the students were less motivated to learn English. Some students frequently skip classes, as they did not see any value in learning the subject. Mia admitted that most of her students rejected to practise speaking English in classroom, as they perceived speaking in English as unimportant. She even stated that the students sometimes answered her questions using their local language, as she said during her interview:

> "… they (the students) did not like English subject because they were living in a village. They said "why I have to learn English? I will never go abroad or anywhere else" …. many of them were misbehave during my class, when I asked them question in English, they answered it in their local language..."
>
> (MIA2 – 292-299)

Consequently, Mia rarely did speaking activity in classroom, instead, she mostly did listening and writing by referring on the existing resources and aids (i.e. textbooks and blackboard). During her teaching period in this school, she mostly used blackboard as teaching aid without any electronic support like tape, television or computer. This is because the school condition was unsupported with any required facility. The following excerpt shows Mia's description about the school condition.

> Mia: "It was still manual… I still used chalk…ya... chalk."
>
> (MIA1 – 106-107)

> Interviewer: "Any ICT facility available?"
>
> Mia: "Well, we did have ICT-based activities in the curriculum, but… it was impossible to implement, we did not have the facility, we did not even have electricity."
>
> (MIA1 – 191-193)

Despite the curriculum including ICT-based language teaching, the classroom itself had no electricity. Thus, when it comes to listening activity, for instance, Mia merely read some texts for students to listen. Furthermore, she also pasted pictures on the blackboard or used flashcards as additional aids.

4.2.1.3 Mia's experiences using ICT

Having experiences teaching in rural school, Mia believed that the district, where she worked, was an inappropriate destination for her career as an EFL teacher. Thus, she arranged to move to another school in the city. After spending five years teaching in

rural school, she continued her teaching career in the capital city of South Sulawesi. She acknowledged she aspired to teach in the city. She stated that:

> "… I have been planning to teach in this city, so I arranged to move here (urban school)..."

<div align="right">(MIA1 – 19-21)</div>

By the time she began working at her school (urban area) at the end of 2005, Mia was quite shocked with all facilities that the school provided (e.g. LCD projector in each classroom, computer labs, and regular ICT-related workshop to all teachers in the school). Mia acknowledged that the LCD facilities and ICT training were part of the government programs known as *Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional* (RSBI) or bilingual school. The educational ministry chose the school, where Mia teaches, as one of the Indonesia's international standard schools. Coleman (2009) explained that schools in Indonesia that applied for RSBI have been granted special status and additional funding to enable them to work towards achieving international quality.

Indonesia is one country amongst the ASEAN members that permits students' foreign language study from an early age or in secondary school through RSBI programme (Bin Tahir, 2017). Since the RSBI was implemented, all teachers including non EFL teachers, in the school, were required to use English as instructional language in classroom. Hence, they were sent to English courses every weekend. Besides English requirement, the teachers were also required to have ICT competencies and skills.

In order to improve teachers' ICT competence and skill, the school accommodated ICT training every Saturday. There was an ICT team recruited to train the teachers. The team was also assigned for troubleshooting during ICT

implementation in classroom. Thus, whenever teachers faced technical problem with ICT devices in school, the team member would be there to help them.

As one of the teachers in this school, Mia felt excited with the ICT training and facilities. Hence, besides attending the training, she bought laptop and learned to use ICT on her own. The transition from traditional classroom in rural setting to ICT-based classroom in urban area had astonished Mia. The non-electricity classroom with blackboard, which she used to deal with, has shifted into high end classroom with whiteboard and LCD projector. The following excerpt is Mia's expression about the significance transition she encountered.

> "I was so shocked, but I did not feel overwhelmed with this demand. For me it was a challenge and I felt grateful that I have opportunity to upgrade my knowledge and to gain new skills… I felt so excited that I am able to learn how to use computer and internet."

(MIA2 – 54-56)

Mia admitted that before moving to the current school, she did not know anything at all about ICT. Nonetheless, once the school introduced ICT to her, she bought laptop and practiced what she had learnt from the workshop (i.e. how to type, store data, use word processing program, and browse internet). For Mia, the existence of ICT in school was very helpful. Using ICT has facilitated her and students during classroom activities. Students were also enthusiastic about the visual aids, as they made it easier for them to understand the lessons.
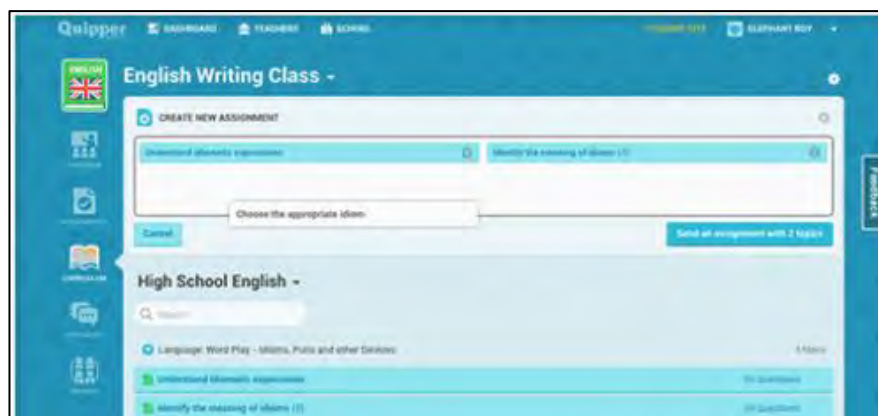
Figure 4.1. Uploading materials/assignment using Quipper School

The school also provided an e-learning platform, named *Quipper School*, as an online communication platform for teachers and their students. Through this platform, students were able to download materials and submit their assignment online. Teachers were able to upload their materials and evaluate their students' works on this platform too. The following table shows how and why Mia used particular ICT tools in educational practices.

Table 4.2

Mia's Use of ICT in TEFL

ICT tools	Specific uses
Mobile phone	Access to dictionary
	Viewing students' submission
	Communicating with students outside classroom
CMS (Quipper school)	Assignment post and submission
Ms Word	Lesson plan, material development
Internet	Searching for supplementary materials

However, as RSBI programme lasted for only seven years, the ICT-based classroom activities slowed down. Mia reported that most LCD projectors turned defective, and only few remained good. Thus, whenever teachers need to use one in the classroom, they would carry it from the school office, and it took some time to prepare the equipment (e.g. laptop, terminal, and cables). Hence, most teachers, including Mia, reverted to conventional classroom practices.

Nevertheless, Mia still actively used e-learning to facilitate students in doing homework and other assignment. Besides, she occasionally used mobile phone in the classroom to ease students for searching additional resources about the ongoing lesson. Likewise, her students acknowledged that they mostly used internet in the classroom. Through mobile phone, they frequently find topic and resources for group discussion or to complete assignments in the classroom.

4.2.1.4 Mia's classroom practices

During the data collection, I observed the classroom three times. This observation aimed to see how participants' possible selves are reflected in their teaching, and also to see how they use ICT in their teaching.

Observation 1, 27 April 2015, classroom A

On my first observation of Mia's class, the classroom activity was group presentation. Each group consists of at least three students, and they took turns to speak in front of the class about the related topic. The content of presentation was provided by the students themselves. The students gathered related information from the internet, and then composed within the group. When each group presented, Mia inspected the group's article through her mobile phone, which has been submitted

online by the group. She also circulated the class during the presentation to make sure that the rest of the students were paying attention. After the group finished their presentation, Mia allows students to pose questions to the group.
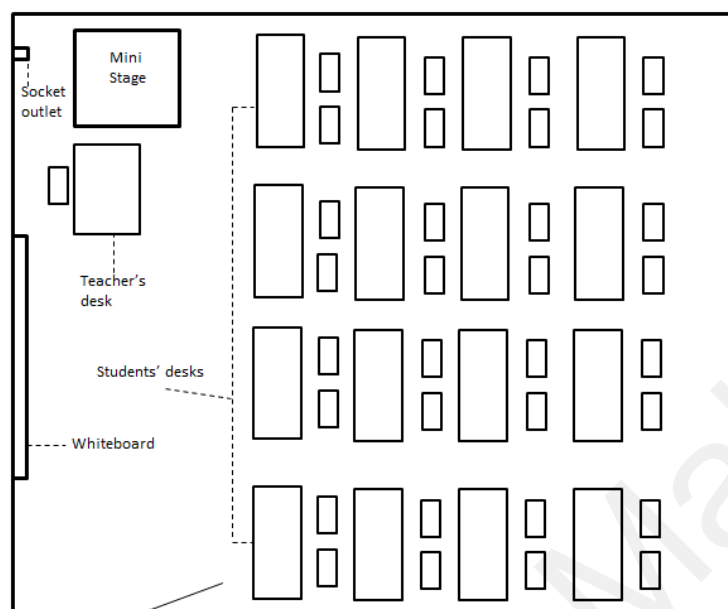
Figure 4.2. Mia's classroom arrangement during observation 1

Mia conceded that the school prohibited students from bringing mobile phones, as they commonly become a source of distraction during lessons. However, the students were still able to bring mobile phones, when their teacher allowed them to use it as part of classroom activities. When I asked her if there were any other ICT tools she used during class, such as projecting PowerPoint slides through LCD, she answered:

> "So far, I never ask them to use PowerPoint. I don't think it is necessary to use PowerPoint for presentation. For me their English speaking is the most important than what they show on the slide. I don't care whether the content they deliver is right or wrong, my focus is their English speaking."

(MIA2 – 309-315)

Observation 2, 6 May 2015, classroom B

The second class (class B), that I observed, has similar activities as the previous one (i.e. group presentation about junk food). However, when Mia asked the students whether they are ready or not for the presentation, most students answered "No". Mia then complained "You always say 'No' every time I ask you to be ready for any given task." One of the students responded that he and his classmates thought that day was an exam day. Mia affirmed that students must present today without any excuses. She, then, explained the presentation rule as what she did in the previous class.

Apart from the presentation in this class, Mia did not ask students to voluntarily ask questions to the presenter. Instead, she posed questions after each presentation, and students had to write the answers based on the content of presentation. In this sense, Mia demonstrated listening comprehension and writing practices for the students.

During the lesson, there were some students who did not pay attention to her explanation. I noticed two students, who sat at the back, with their head on the table. Another student was playing with her mobile phone, and some others were chatting and whispering to each other.
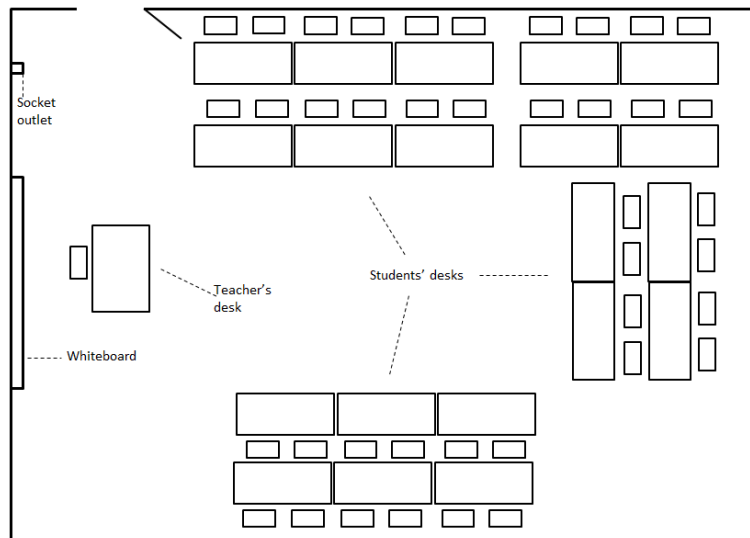
Figure 4.3. Mia's classroom arrangement during observation 2

After the class ended, Mia stated that this school classified the students based on their academic achievement. Class A consisted of students who have higher performance. Additionally, Mia stated that class A schedule for English subject was in the morning, when the students were still fresh and were more ready to learn. Class B schedule was in the afternoon, and most of them were already tired and were less productive in class. Thus, for Mia, it was plausible if some of her students in class B were less attentive during the lesson. Moreover, she asserted that:

> "... in each class I teach, either class A or class B or any other, there must be three types of students or more. Those types are the disruptive, the diligent, and the smartest… and each type has its own degree such as from the most diligent to the laziest one. And as an experienced teacher, I have already known how to act on these types of students."
>
> (MIA2 – 268-275)

What Mia said, really aligned with what she did during the classroom practices. The task that she gave and how they approach them was quite different. Take the question and answer session for instance; in class A, most students were very keen to study.

None of them even said they were not ready for the presentation. I even noticed, when Mia ended the class, the students sulked and shouted "again Ma'am", as there were still some groups who have not presented. Therefore, it was easier for Mia to ask them to voluntarily ask question. In fact, I caught some students raised their hand during the question and answer session. Meanwhile, most students in class B were less enthusiastic to study hard, let alone the lesson was scheduled in the last hours where students were tired and less focused. Thus, it was not a good idea for Mia to have them voluntarily ask question, because none of them would raise their hand.

Observation 3, 11 May 2015, Classroom A

The third classroom observation was carried out in class A. The activity was peer tutoring and group discussion about previous lessons. Here, Mia divided the students into several groups and asked students, who have already understood the lesson, to get into each group as a peer tutor. During the discussion, teacher did not do that much, but walked around and observed the group. Sometimes she approached the group who had something to ask and provided feedback or responses.

Overall, the classes were enjoyable. The students were having fun during the class and they were really engaged with the classroom activities that were often interspersed with jokes and laughter. During the class, Mia mostly stood up and walked around the room. She also, occasionally, sat on the student's chair while listening to the presentation. During the presentation, she frequently restated presenters' words/phrases and asked the rest students to translate them into *Bahasa* to make sure they understood the content. She also corrected students' pronunciation while they were speaking to avoid the same errors in the future. Again, she always

complimented and asked students to give a round of applause to those who performed well.

When the students made some noise, she asked them to remain silent. I caught her once holding a ruler and attempting to threaten the students but in a quite amusing way. When students spoke softly, she asked the rest of the students "Did you hear, everyone?" and the students answered "Nooo.." and she told students about the benefit of speaking louder in front of an audience "If you speak louder, your audience will pay attention to you." She always wanted to make sure that the presenter would speak loud and clear, thus the rest students would understand.
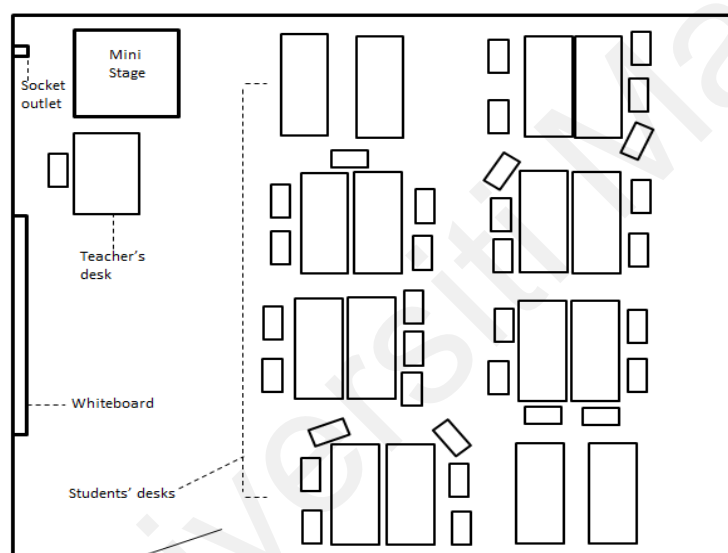
Figure 4.4. Mia's classroom arrangement during observation 3

4.2.1.5 Mia's possible selves and her use of ICT in TEFL

Possible selves are potential powerful bridge between one's mental representations and actual behaviour (Kubanyiova, 2007). One of the typical possible selves theories that provide information about mechanisms of motivating behaviour is Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory, which introduced 'ideal self' and 'ought self', and it is this theory that has recently been embraced by Dornyei's (2005, 2009) L2

motivational self-system and Kubanyiova's (2007, 2009) possible language teacher self.

Before going further into Mia's ICT use in educational practices. It is necessary to start exploring Mia's possible selves as EFL teacher. In this section, I will begin with describing Mia's reason for choosing teaching as a career.

Yuwono and Harbon (2010) believe that "the reasons for choosing a career impact how someone views the profession and how one is committed" (p.150). This study indicates that Mia joined EFL teaching career because she loves the English subject. In L2 Motivational Self-System theory (Dornyei, 2009), a person who is passionate about learn a second/foreign language, belongs to Ideal L2 Self category. This Ideal L2 Self represents one's high motivational drive to achieve certain positive end that requires L2 mastery (e.g. Lamb, 2007, 2013). She recounted:

> "I love English since I was a kid. Although I went to accounting study programme during my high school, my English was … I used to join English courses, then took diploma and degree in English education..."

> (MIA1 – 26-32)

In pursuing an EFL teaching as a career, she had ideal expectations that her students would enjoy learning the language as she does. However, during her early career as an EFL teacher in a rural school, she encountered unsupportive environment (i.e. students' unwillingness to learn English), which, in turn, decimated her ideal self-image and negatively affected her motivation. Thus, when it comes to classroom activities, she merely followed the teaching routine without proactively taking any supplementary effort. In this sense, she was mostly driven by ought-to self as a teacher, which underlines "cognitive representations of responsibilities and obligations with regard to one's work" (Kubanyiova, 2009, p.316).

Nonetheless, as she realized that the school environment did not suit her desires, she migrated to urban school, where she believed was a relevant place to teach EFL. In fact, as what she expected, most students in her current urban school were highly interested in learning English. This supporting school environment then aroused her passion in EFL. She turned to be an active EFL teacher. Hence, not only did she follow teaching routines, she also took some extra efforts to make the lessons more interesting, as admitted by her students:

> Student A: "Besides using textbooks, she usually creates her own materials"
>
> Student B: "She is creative. She always comes up with different activities"

(MIA-S, 31-32; 67-68)

In this sense, during her teaching period in urban school, Mia was mostly driven by her 'ideal self'. This self-state was supported by her keenness to learn new things (i.e. ICT in TEFL) to improve her teaching and learning experiences with her students. Previous researchers (i.e. Hiver, 2013; White & Ding, 2009), have found that teachers who were predominant with ideal selves tend to be proactive learners for their personal and professional growth.

Mia was keen to learn using ICT, as she was aware of how students of this age are very attached to technology. She stated:

> "...students are really comfortable and enjoy learning by using ICT. It also eases teacher's work because we no longer need to rewrite the materials on whiteboard. We only need to project it instead."

(MIA2 – 47-50)

Nevertheless, despite her enthusiasm to learn new things in technology, Mia was decisively selective in integrating ICT in her classroom activities. As explained earlier (Observation 1), she preferred to apply conventional activities like allowing

students to present their group tasks orally without visual aids like PowerPoint. This is because Mia wanted to assess her students' English speaking skill no matter how inaccurate the content they might deliver. It indicates that Mia more focused on cultivating students' productivity in using English other than ICT.

4.2.2 Budi

4.2.2.1 Background

The school, where Budi currently teaches, is located in a rural area in Southern Sulawesi, and is facilitated with one computer lab with fifteen units of personal computers. The classroom itself is equipped with whiteboard, information board, desks and electrical outlet. Budi has been an EFL teacher in a rural junior high school since 1998. Being a teacher is a career that Budi wanted since he was young. Besides teaching in school, he also teaches EFL in an informal school and in an open university.

4.2.2.2 Budi's Past Experiences on Conventional Teaching Practices

Budi began his teaching career in 1991 and taught in several high schools. He taught English in high schools every day from morning to noon, and continues teaching English several days a week in the afternoon. In school, he taught students from age twelve to eighteen years old (i.e. 40 to 45 students each class). In managing a large class, he occasionally divided it into several groups and grouped disruptive students together. He carried out speaking activities through role play, question and answer sessions, and assignments. Back then, information technology like computer and internet did not exist in his school and areas where he lived, thus he merely relied on

textbooks and worksheets. Oftentimes, to vary his class activities, he provided external resources such as posters, charts, and flashcards.

As with any classroom, there would always be students with challenging behaviours. He admitted that, he used to teach one or more disruptive or misbehaved students in every class he taught. To overcome this, he normally guided his students personally whether during or after class. He prefers giving constructive instruction with positive and motivational approaches and resisted punishing his students. For him, scolding, yelling, hitting, or any other punishment will discourage students from learning. He believes that classroom activities should be held in tranquil and encouraging atmosphere to reach positive teaching and learning practices. He stated that:

> "I have no courage to give physical or verbal punishment to my students. For me, during class, we should be calm, happy, so.. students do not feel tensed."

> (BUD1, 145-151)

Instead of giving destructive punishment, Budi gave additional assignments to those who broke class rules. He also managed to keep in touch with his students by allowing his students to approach him outside classroom for any inquiry about each lesson.

4.2.2.3 Budi's Experiences Using ICT

Budi started using ICT tools since 2000 (i.e. personal computer). It was the same year when computer lab was firstly established in his school to facilitate ICT subject. Back then, he was a novice ICT user and did not really know a lot about its use.

Thus, in figuring out more about ICT, he actively joined seminars, workshops, and training related to ICT implementation in educational practices. He listed:

> "I have taken computer courses about Microsoft Word in 2008, and workshop on creating ICT-based teaching materials in 2009. I also have participated training about ICT utilization in 2008. Everything else… I learn through my colleagues."

> (BUD2, 78-81)

He also proactively learned from his colleagues. He started learning word processing programs (i.e. Microsoft Word and Excel) for preparing lesson plans, teaching materials and doing class assessment. As he explained:

> "I normally do class assessment using computer… using Excel, so it is easier. I also like searching teaching resources from internet. Sometimes, I prepare my teaching material using PowerPoint. Also… I usually send my materials to students via email. Then, communicate with my students via Facebook."

> (BUD2 – 53-57)

He also used to utilize Overhead Projector (OHP) to present his materials in classroom. But when LCD projector was introduced, he then switched to LCD projector to project his materials using Microsoft PowerPoint. He found LCD projectors are more efficient because he no longer need to print his materials and copy them onto transparent foils. For him, an LCD projector does not lead to additional cost for printing and copying, and it is portable and lighter, thus a lot easier to carry.

> "OHP made me exhausted. I wasted so much money on it. If I misprinted, i have redo it again.. and again. LCD is more practical because I can easily edit my content. It is also portable." (BUD2 – 118-123)

Besides tools like LCD projectors, he used internet to search supplementary teaching materials, and communicate with his colleagues and students through email and

social network. For Budi, internet helps him to manage his time and to deal with extra classes in an open university during weekend. When I asked him whether that extra classes overwhelmed him, he answered:

"Everything is running well." (BUD2 – 163)

For Budi, ICT is very useful for EFL teaching and learning. It can be used as media and sources in teaching and learning. He sees great potential in ICT for education. However, in some cases, Budi taught in classrooms that were not compatible with ICT use. So he prepared printed materials, by improving and recreating the students' workbook content, and pasted them around classroom for students to work interactively. He likes to vary his classroom activities to not bore his students and to sustain their interest to learn. Although he is an active user of ICT, he admitted that he did not depend on it, as for him using conventional tools such as book, pen, paper and blackboard is still worthwhile in today's class. He focused on making the classroom activities interesting and encouraging students to learn with or without ICT.

Table 4.3

Budi's use of ICT in TEFL

ICT tools	Specific uses
Ms Word	Preparing materials/lesson plan
Ms Excel	Assessing students
Ms PowerPoint & LCD projector	Displaying lessons
Internet/search engine	Searching for materials
Internet/email	Students' work submission
Internet/Social network	Communicating with students

4.2.2.4 Budi's Classroom Practices

Observation 1, 21 May 2015, regular classroom

During my first observation of Budi's class, the first impression that I had was cheerfulness. Both teacher and students were comfortable and at ease. Budi started the class by checking students' attendance and used humour. Budi then introduced the day's topic (i.e. notices: short message forms), which has been discussed in the previous lesson and divided the students into several groups. He named each group using animal names and made labels on sheets before placing them on each group's desk. Budi explained to his students about the group activity flow and passed a worksheet and an envelope to each group (Appendix 13). Inside the envelope are several small pieces of paper with the meaning of notices, while the worksheet contained notices in English. The group task was to match the English notices with the meaning in *Bahasa*. They were asked to paste them on the worksheet. Here, Budi has also provided glue for each group.
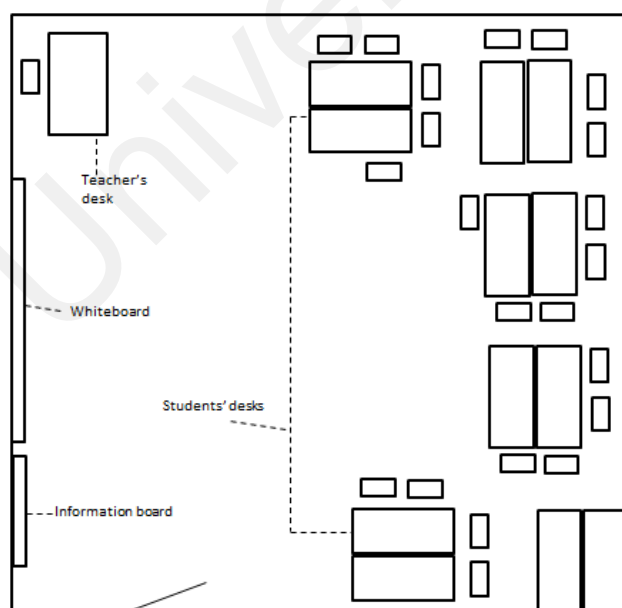
Figure 4.5. Budi's classroom arrangement during observation 1

Once the group has completed the task, Budi had them paste the worksheet on the whiteboard and ask them to read it. Afterwards, he pasted the notice list with correct answers next to the whiteboard and asked each group to check their work. After checking all works, he asked the group to write down where they would commonly find those particular notices. Lastly, he evaluated all groups' work orally, asked them what they have learned, gave them homework, and ended the class.

Observation 2, 22 May 2015, Computer Lab

For the second observation, the lesson was carried out at a computer lab. Budi only utilized his laptop and LCD projector, while students were seated at desks which arranged in two rows facing each other in the middle of the room. The class arrangement is illustrated in Figure 4.5 below.
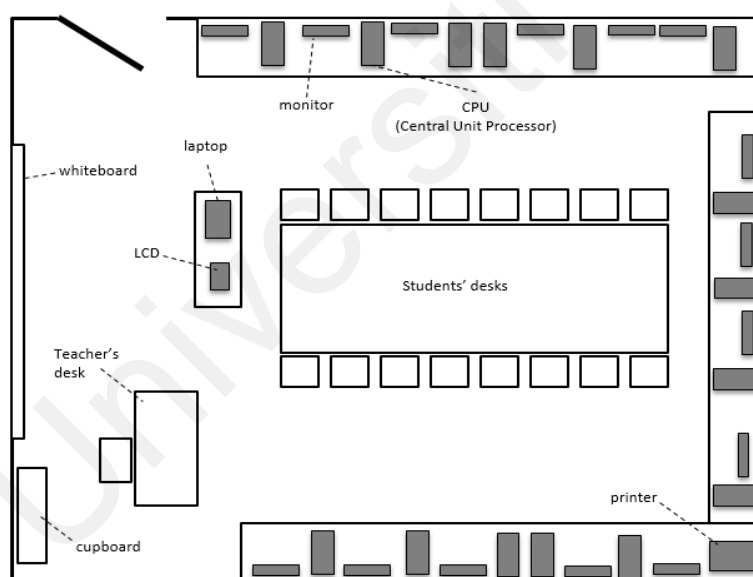
Figure 4.6. Budi's classroom arrangement during observation 2

He introduced the day's topic (Family members) and displayed a song lyric, he wrote himself, about family. He then sang the song and asked students to sing along with him. After the singing session, he displayed another slide with a list of family

members. He read the list and asked students to translate it into Bahasa orally. The next slide, he displayed, was about family members in general. He asked students to mention the specific members accordingly (e.g. parents consist of? Father and mother).
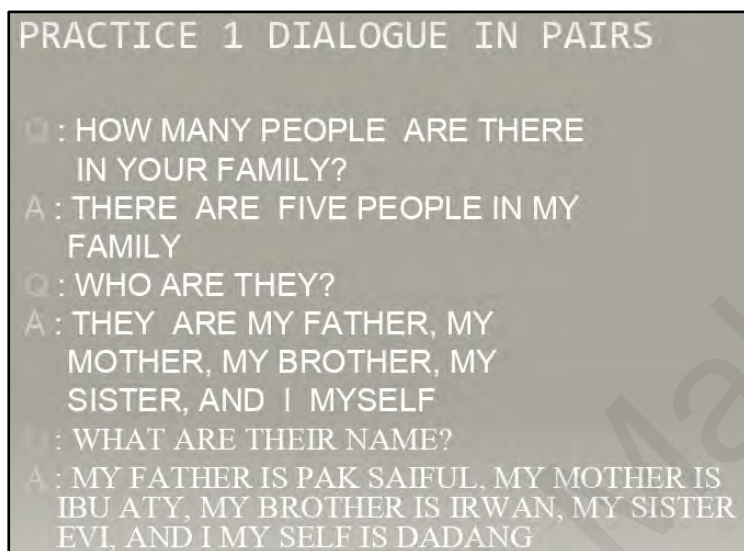
Figure 4.7. Sample of Budi's PowerPoint slides (data source: document)

Next, he displayed dialogues about family and asked students to practice them in pairs by customizing the script according to their own family members. Lastly, after practicing, he asked several pairs of students to practice the dialogue in front of the class (As shown in Figure 4.7). Here, students seem had some fun. They occasionally laughed at their amusing friends who acted funny while practicing the dialogues. Overall, the class was fun and enjoyable. All students seemed to enjoy the activities. I noticed every time his students finished performing any task or activity, Budi always asks their students to give applause, which indicate that he always managed to appreciate what his students have done.

Observation 3, 22 May 2015, Computer Lab

On the third observation, the class took place at the same place (i.e. computer lab) but with a different sitting arrangement for group discussion, as shown in figure 4.2 above. The group activities were similar to the class that I observed in the first place; with the same topic (i.e. notice). However, Budi ran the activity slightly different, whereby each group matched meaning of notices, displayed through LCD, by writing it down on worksheets.
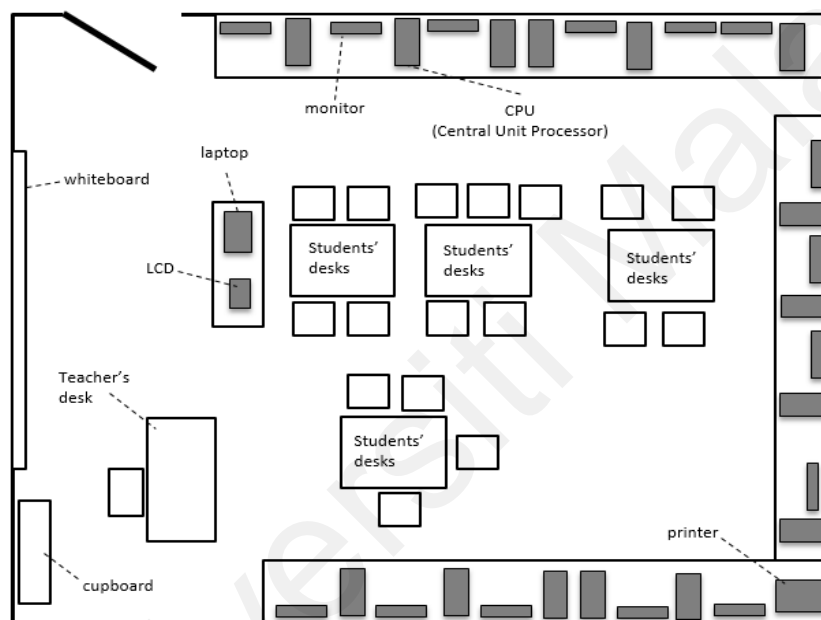
Figure 4.8. Budi's classroom arrangement during observation 3

Once all groups completed the task, Budi read the list of English notices and asked students to read their answers loudly. Afterwards, he asked the groups to write down where they would usually find those particular notices. Then, he asked one member from each group to present their work. However, none of them was willing to do it. Budi then initiated by asking all students to raise their hand and simultaneously point to one of their group mates to present the work. Here, students found this activity

amusing as they had to choose a friend. Those who had the most fingers pointing to him/her were inevitably chosen to represent his/her group to present the work.

Having done all the class activities, Budi asked the students about things that they have learned that day and then gave them homework. He ended the class, by asking them to write down at least three notices that they could find at home. In this class, students behaved well and had fun. Budi even acknowledged the students before they left the classroom in an orderly manner.

Overall, how Budi delivered classroom activities supports what he said during the interview. One aspect of Budi's classroom that consistently showed up during observation was that he appreciated what students' did and always evaluated what his students have learnt before he ended the class. Budi did not appear frustrated and did not scream or yell at students. In terms of the use of ICT, Budi appeared comfortable using ICT tools. He actively used ICT either to present his classroom activity by using laptop and LCD projector or to produce his materials/handouts for the students.

4.2.2.5 Budi's possible selves and his use of ICT in TEFL

Based on the interview, it indicates that 'becoming a teacher' was Budi's core reason for choosing the teaching career. Whereas 'EFL subject' was his secondary concern, as he stated:

> "I have been aspired to become a teacher since I was young… I figured that being an EFL teacher was the easier way to get the job. So that is the reason why I chose English."

(BUD1 – 11-16)

Considering the motive behind the choice of teaching as a profession is valuable, as it enables an understanding of teachers' behavioural properties (Erten, 2014). In other words, the enjoyment and/or boredom people experience when doing certain activities may be closely related to their initial motivational make up (Williams & Burden, in Erten, 2014). In 'possible selves' theory, it is affirmed that when individuals think about or visualize themselves achieving what they want to become, they may experience positive emotion and thus may become energized and motivated to persevere in pursuing a goal (Vernon, 2004).

In Budi's case, the desire of becoming a teacher seems to be the ultimate drive to profoundly engage in educational career. In this regard, even though EFL was not Budi's main purpose to teach, he turned out to be an active, and yet, a fluent English speaker during his classroom practices. He, moreover, appeared to be enthusiastic dealing with his students by constantly brought the lessons into more dynamic and interesting manner. Accordingly, it can be inferred that Budi was mostly driven by his ideal self. This 'ideal self' highlights intrinsic motivational behaviour that represents passion for teaching.

Budi's passion in teaching was reflected during the interview and classroom observation. He constantly looked confident and comfortable in every lesson. He also invariably brought various activities that made the students excited. He admitted that his vision for class is to make fun and exciting lessons. Hence, he always managed to come up with diverse activities that he gathered from various sources, as he explained:

> "The main reference is the textbook, and supplemented with external references, from other books, or other field of study, and from internet."

> (BUD2 – 218-219)

Additionally, the following quotes come from his students during the focus group interview, expressing how they think about Budi as a teacher:

Student A: "He always brings new materials";
Student B: "The lesson is fun. It is easy to understand"
Student C: "He also always makes us laugh."

(BUD-S, 22; 113; 128)

Budi admitted that the use of ICT is very helpful in facilitating him to find teaching resources, as well as in stimulating students to learn. For him, ICT made his teaching became more efficient and attractive. Nonetheless, using ICT in classroom was not always easy for Budi. He frequently confronted technical issues when implementing ICT. As he stated:

"Often times, the internet access turns very slow. Sometimes, the computers have technical problems. I also have difficulties in using new ICT tools."

(BUD2 – 64-66)

Despite many obstacles he encountered in integrating ICT into his lesson, he did not feel the limit to explore any possibility for enriching his classroom practices. In fact, he actively participates in several professional development programmes or just by learning from colleagues and even from his students. He admitted that he did not hesitate asking his students about ICT use. As he acknowledged:

"I never feel ashamed asking my students to teach me about technology. I even feel more comfortable asking help from students than from my colleagues because my students are very handily to walk me through utilizing technology."

(BUD2 – 336-337)

In White and Ding's (2009) study, it is concluded that "the ideal teacher self-perspective offers a paradigm for understanding how experienced language teachers engage with new learning and teaching domain." (p.346). In this current study, it can be assumed that the view of Budi's ideal teacher self was reflected from his determination to enhance his classroom practices. His teaching enthusiastic appeared since his early career (throughout the interview). He was strongly determined to maintain positive and encouraging classroom practices.

When he was firstly introduced with ICT, he saw the potential of how ICT able to help him evoke students' learning engagement. Thus, he strived to learn it anywhere and from anyone regardless his/her age or status, such as learning from his students.

Nevertheless, although he admitted the benefits of ICT in making the lessons more exciting, he did not use ICT in every lesson. He opined that attractive lessons can be done in many ways, even without using ICT, as he asserted during the interview:

> "Sometimes, when the classroom inadequate for ICT use, I always have alternatives like preparing handouts for my students or doing other things… I use ICT but I don't depend on it. So.. teachers have to be creative lah."

(BUD2 – 234-241)

Despite his keenness to integrate ICT in his teaching, he did not dependent on ICT. The attractive classroom activities seem his prominent objective in teaching. Whereas ICT, is just a tool to support his attractive lessons. Therefore, whenever ICT is not applicable in particular classroom, he was still able to maintain fun activities in a conventional way.

4.2.3 Firman

4.2.3.1 Background

Firman is an EFL teacher in a public senior high school, located in the capital city of Southern Sulawesi, Indonesia. He began teaching English since he was a college student in 1991 and has started teaching in the current school since 1996. He chose to become an EFL teacher because he perceived that teaching EFL has a good future prospect. During data collection, he was in his 24th year of teaching English, and has been holding another role as a deputy principal of the school.

4.2.3.2 Firman's Past Experiences on Conventional Teaching Practices

Firman began teaching in the current school since 1996. Back then, he was a full-time teacher in school without any administrative duties. Besides having a regular teaching schedule, he was also active in the English club for students. He established the English club along with the principal. This club was intended to provide an additional platform for students who have high interest to learn EFL after school hours. As he reflected:

> "I and my colleague established an English club. I collaborated with the principal back then. We conducted the students to learn English after school."

(FIR1 – 67-69)

Firman admitted that this English club was the only extra task he did outside his regular classes. He merely taught English without any administrative duties, thus it was easy for him to get the job done. He added:

> "Back in the day, the curriculum was not as complicated as today's.
> The textbook also was not that thick and practical, so we could
> complete the whole chapters on time." (FIR1, 88-91)

In preparing his lesson, Firman actively prepared all lesson plans manually (i.e. handwriting) by regularly referring to textbooks. The classroom activities were mostly reading, writing, and conversation practices. He solely relied on blackboard as a teaching aid.

Despite the ease he could find in teaching, Firman complained that the class size back then was too large. He said that there were approximately 40 students in one classroom, and it was hard for him to handle the students. Thus, sometimes he would just explain the lesson without making sure that all students understood. Another problem he faced was the students' challenging behaviour. He frequently lost his temper to misbehaving students, and punished them physically. But he admits that he always feels sorry after punishing his students. He realizes that it was not the right thing to do. As he acknowledged:

> "Back then, I was still a new teacher, and I did not like seeing my
> students playing around while I am teaching. Those students were
> very naughty, so I hit them in classroom… I hit them. But
> afterwards, I felt sorry for myself doing such a thing."

> (FIR1 – 193-197)

Having a good relationship with students, seems difficult for Firman. He found that most students felt hesitant to approach him outside the classroom. The following excerpt is his statement about his interpersonal relationship with his students.

> Interviewer: "Did they (students) frequently approach you outside
> classroom for asking questions about the lessons?"
>
> Firman: "No.. no.. no…back then, only like one or two students
> showed up. But mostly no... mostly no, even until now. When
> having problem, they (students) tended to keep it, and I think that's

how students these days, even since long time ago. They just go to
school, attend the class, and go home, that is it."

4.2.3.3 Firman's Experiences Using ICT

Firman began using ICT in his school in 1998. He was responsible for taking care of a computer-based language laboratory. He was also one of the trainers who taught his colleagues and students to use computers. He was appointed by the school to attend any professional development programmes run by the central government. He explained:

> "I have attended workshops in Bandung and Jakarta in 1998. At that
> time, the government had just distributed language lab. I was the
> only one who able to use the lab because I had specifically learnt
> how to use it."

As time went by, and the laboratory turned obsolete, the school provided a new laboratory. However, since the old laboratory has been replaced, Firman has never used laboratory facility anymore. For him, the current language laboratory is complicated to master, thus he does not use it. He feels reluctant to learn using it.

> "That lab is actually good, but it is quite fragile, so I never get inside,
> I do not know how to use the master console unit… I do not master it,
> so I am not interested to use the lab."

In the early 2000, the school began to provide LCD projectors and internet for academic and administrative purposes. These new facilities inflicted positive responses from the teachers including Firman. He opined:

"This technology has a big influence to the students because it can motivate them…. They can easily grasp the lesson through the projected pictures."

(FIR2 – 20-23)

However, like most ICT devices, they only lasted for few years. They became defective and only a few remain functional. Firman also complained that preparing ICT for teaching is time consuming:

"The thing is, when we want to use ICT, we automatically have to make a lot preparation, and it takes long time to prepare."

(FIR2 – 33-36)

With a heavy workload each day in school, he could not find time for preparing ICT-based lessons. The following table summarizes Firman's use of ICT in educational practices.

Table 4.4

Firman's Use of ICT in TEFL

ICT tools	Specific uses
Ms Word	Preparing materials/lesson plan
Ms Excel	Displaying lessons
Multimedia (mp3 player & speaker)	Listening comprehension
Ms PowerPoint & LCD projector	Displaying lessons

4.2.3.4 Firman's Classroom Practices

Observation 1, 12 May 2015, school hall

It took me about an hour waiting for my first observation in Firman's class. He was preparing the ICT tools for the class, held in a hall used for teachers' meeting and special events. When I asked him why he did not use the regular classroom, he

answered that this hall is equipped with ICT tools. When I entered the hall, I spotted a mounted LCD projector in the middle of the ceiling; a screen beside the whiteboard; and three speakers around the hall's corner. Firman's laptop was placed in the front desk along with a desk microphone.
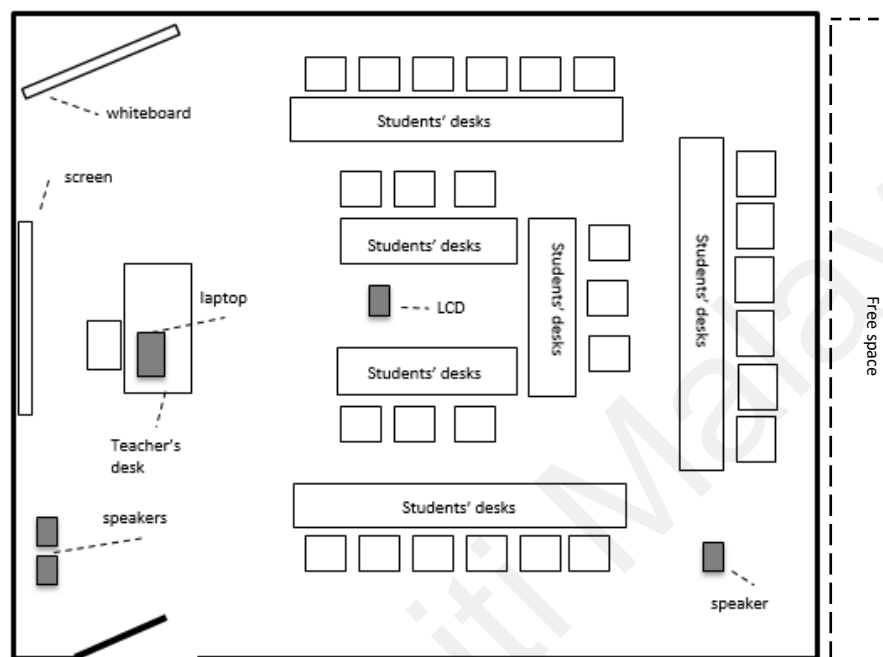
Figure 4.9. Firman's classroom setting (observation 1 and 2)

There was no student in the hall when I came in. I saw that Firman was still busy connecting several cables from his laptop to the station. Once settled, he walked out the door and called his students to come in from the opposite building. After a while, the students appeared one by one from the door and took their seats. The desks were arranged in double half circles facing the front. I noticed some students were gazing around the room like they had just entered the hall for the first time. I even heard a student said "Wow, cool."

By using microphone, Firman started his listening lesson by explaining the topic, and distributed filling-the-blank worksheets to the students. Firman displayed

the missing words/phrases through LCD projector. He read the words and asked students to translate them orally into Bahasa. Then, he played the audio and had the students complete the text while listening to the audio. When the audio stopped playing, Firman checked students' work orally by mentioning the number and allowing students to answer.

Having reviewed the listening comprehension activity, Firman divided the students into several groups, and discussed the text. He was mostly sitting on his desk during the group discussion. Some group members, occasionally, approached him to ask certain things related to the task.

Observation 2, 13 May 2015, school hall

On my second observation, the class used the same room and went through the same activity, but with a different group of students. Firman checked the students' attendance before starting the class. Afterwards, he explained the class topic, distributed worksheets and played the audio. The classroom activities were the same as the previous ones.

Observation 3, 15 May 2015, regular classroom

For the third observation, the classroom was more conventional with tools like a whiteboard. The students' desks were arranged in four rows facing the front. Here, Firman divided the students into several groups and gave them a task to work with. He told his students that he was busy that day and could not be with them. Thus, he only gave them a task to complete and left the classroom.

In this class, Firman allowed me to do a focus group interview with the students. So, I pulled six chairs in the front, arranged them in a circle and called five

students in turn for the focus group. During the interview, all students' answers have things in common. They all complained that Firman always comes late to the class. They reported that Firman has a big administrative duty in school as a deputy principal, so he is always busy and sometimes misses the class without notification. As one of them said:

> "Often times, he comes in when we are packing our bags and ready to go home."

<div align="right">(FIR-S – 172, 175)</div>

Besides coming late and missing his class, Firman's students also complained about the classroom activities. Some of the students, mumbled:

> Student A: "I feel bored doing translation all the time."
>
> Student B: "I wish we could have other activities rather than translating."

<div align="right">(FIR-S – 287, 290)</div>

Translating and finding new words were the most frequently answers when I asked them about their EFL classroom activities with Firman. Some students wished to have more activities like those carried out during the classroom observation (i.e. listening comprehension using ICT tools), as they admitted that it was the first time for them doing such an activity.
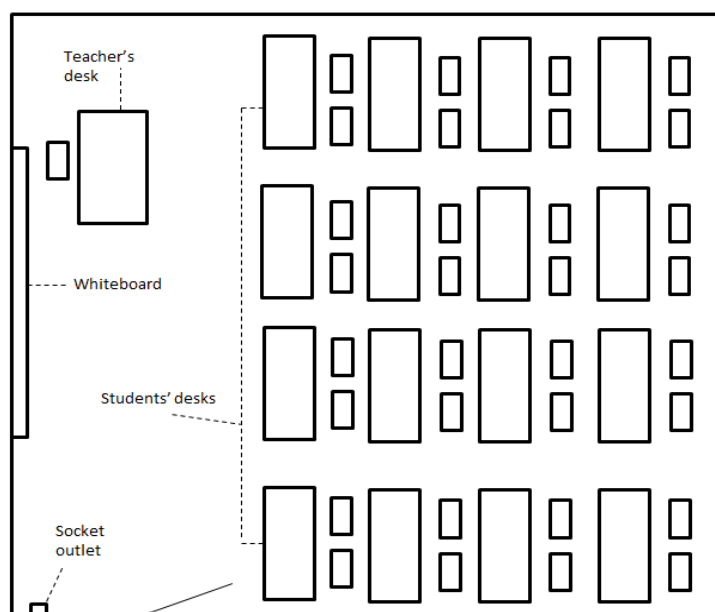
Figure 4.10. Firman's classroom setting during observation 3

4.2.3.5 Firman's Possible Selves and His Use of ICT in TEFL

"Teaching would undoubtedly be a more attractive job if it was only ideal selves that teachers pursued in their work. This is, unfortunately, rarely the case, since the reality of teaching job brings with numerous external pressures, demands and requirements" (Kubanyiova, 2009: p.321). When a teacher is no longer driven by his/her ideal self, and yet strives to manage fulfilling his teaching routine, he/she is more likely guided by external motives or ought-to self (e.g. Kubanyiova, 2009).

Throughout the interviews and observations, Firman prominently showed his ought-to self as a teacher. As he admitted:

> "These Days, I have so many things to do outside my teaching, so I am no longer focus on teaching my students, not anymore…."
>
> (FIR1 – 120-122)

One of the evidences of Firman's ought-to teacher self was shown during the third classroom observation, where he could not completely attend the class due to administrative duties he was dealing with. Likewise, he also lacked preparation on the previous lessons that it took him too long to prepare just before the class started. Additionally, many students, whom Firman teaches, complained about his monotonous classroom instructions. They stated:

> Student A: "It is boring, because we translate all the time."
>
> Student B: "He (Firman) should vary the lessons, like doing other activities such as games…"
>
> Student C: "The lessons are always the same… translating."
>
> (FIR-S – 287; 290; 315)

During the observation, he integrated ICT into instruction; however, as admitted by his students, he only used the ICT devices once, which on the classroom observation. This is because Firman normally runs his lessons in regular classroom with conventional teaching tools. According to Kubanyiova (2007), any traces in classroom discourse that suggests departure from routine, during classroom observation, belongs to 'ought-to self' proportion.

Although Firman is good in dealing with ICT devices, it does not seem to confirm that good ICT competence lead to ICT use in regular basis. That is to say, the rationale beyond the lack of ICT use in classroom activities, despite having good ICT knowledge and competence, lies on Firman's ought-to self as a teacher. In order to describe further about the activated ought-to self in Firman's case, it is necessary here to explain 'ought-to self' from the literature.

Unlike ideal self that focuses on hopes and wishes, ought-to self, according to Higgins et al. (1994), focuses on sense of duty and obligation. In L2 Motivational

Self-System, according to Kim (2009), ought-to self reflects a less-internalized type of instrumental disposition. In L2 learner's case, it reflects the situation where learners feel pressured to learn L2 in order to avoid the negative consequences of not learning it (e.g. learners feel that they should or ought to possess at least a minimum level of English proficiency). In this sense, ought-to self is triggered by external motives for fulfilling obligation with the least extent of expectation.

In Firman's case, attending the class seems to be his fulfilling standard regardless punctuality and dynamic classroom activities. Even though his job as a teacher is not only about classroom discourse, with the overwhelmed administrative duties that he focused the most, he could not find balance between his role as a deputy principal and his role as a teacher. As a result, when he attends the class, he tends to deliver similar activities (i.e. translating and finding new words).

Therefore, when he undertook lessons that require extra time and endeavour, such as incorporating ICT tools into classroom, he tends to set them aside. Unless, if ICT can diminish his time and effort (i.e. copying lesson plan), then ICT use would be good solution for him.

In this case, since having administrative duties in school, Firman was no longer focus on teaching his students. He admitted that he frequently copied and pasted lesson plans from internet and colleagues, as he has not enough time to prepare them by himself. He also always came late, and even missed the class. As admitted by his students:

> Student A: "He (Firman) always comes late and even misses the class."
>
> Student C: "Yeah, he always busy."

Student B: "We always see him around school during class hour, but he did not attend the class."

<div align="right">(FIR-S – 199; 201; 208)</div>

His students also complained about the classroom activities Firman delivered. The students grumbled that he always gives them the same tasks (i.e. finding new words and translating). They feel bored with the same tasks. They also complained about Firman's frequent absence. Thus, oftentimes, whenever Firman misses the class, the students would do nothing until the period is over.

4.2.4 Sarah

4.2.4.1 Background

Sarah likes learning English since she was a student in high school. She chose to become an EFL teacher because she likes the English Language subject. She began her teaching career in 1991. She teaches in current school since 2009. The school district in which Sarah teaches is located in a rural area in Southern Sulawesi, along with another participant, Budi. This school has two computer laboratories, one language laboratory, four LCD projectors, three radio/tapes and speakers. The classroom itself is facilitated with conventional classroom equipment such as whiteboard and desks. Each student's desk had been placed into forward facing row with two students in each desk. Sarah's desk was set off into a corner facing her students. Sarah teaches in this similar classroom arrangement throughout the classroom observations.

4.2.4.2 Sarah's Past Experiences on Conventional Teaching Practices

Besides teaching in class during school hours, she also used to teach EFL in the afternoon. She taught large classes with 40 and more students in one classroom. However, she admits that the students were easy to manage.

> "The students were very diligent back then. They also had full respect to their teachers. Whenever I gave them task to work on, all of them directly did it accordingly."
>
> (SRH1 – 101-106)

She had no significant difficulty in handling large classes, because the students were diligent and obeyed her. Reading and memorizing vocabularies were the classroom activities that she mostly had the students do. Students read while standing beside the teacher for memorizing activity, then wrote down on the blackboard all vocabularies that they have memorized. As for teaching resources, she merely relied on textbooks, while for teaching media, she used 'realia' such as trees outside the classroom. When having questions relating to the subject, students did not hesitate to approach her outside the classroom, and she also welcomes students doing so.

> Interviewer: "Did students often approach you for asking about lessons outside classroom?"
>
> Sarah: "Ya.. always.. Always… back in the day, they always came to me after class for asking questions".
>
> (SRH1 – 148-149)

Besides giving tasks from textbooks, Sarah also had her students do their task on worksheets. However, she did not really correct those who answered the questions incorrectly. For her, the important thing is the students complete their work.

4.2.4.3 Sarah's Experiences Using ICT

Sarah began using ICT tool since she had a laptop in 2009. She had been trained to use ICT by the school trainers. She used ICT mostly for browsing and typing on word processing program like Microsoft Word. She stated:

> "I only use Google. Sometimes I also type and print some tasks for my students… ya.. that's it.. Google and typing…"
>
> (SRH2 – 44-50)

When I asked her about other software like PowerPoint, she responded that she has never used other software because she did not know how to use them. She admitted that she usually learned computer applications from her colleagues and her son. However, after learning, she soon forgot it. She acknowledged:

> "I used to learn using computer, but I forgot it easily, so I do not know how to use those software, I am too old to learn it. So sometimes when I want to print any material, I just have my son do it for me."
>
> (SRH2 – 84-93)

Regardless of her incompetence in using ICT, she admitted the benefit of ICT and what it can offer in the classroom. Her students were also excited whenever she asked them to find materials from internet. She was still willing to learn if she had opportunities to do so. She concerned with how ICT would enable students to find information easier and faster than she does. Somehow, she explained something in classroom that contradicted with the current facts found by her students.

Table 4.5

Sarah's use of ICT in TEFL

ICT tools	Specific uses
Internet/search engine	Searching for material resources
Ms Word	Preparing assignment
Smartphone	Dictionary

4.2.4.4 Sarah's Classroom Practices

Observation 1, 21 May 2015, classroom A

On my first observation, Sarah's class was conducted in a conventional classroom, furnished with solely whiteboard and desks. Students' desks were arranged in four rows facing the front with each desk occupied by two students. Teacher's desk was placed next to the whiteboard facing the students. Behind the teacher's desk, a small blackboard hung on the wall with several sheets of notices pasted on it. Next to the blackboard was a socket outlet. As shown in Figure 4.11.

At the beginning of the class activities, Sarah asked students to voluntarily draw the traffic signs on the whiteboard along with the meaning in English. The traffic signs topic was based on the textbook which has been discussed in the previous lesson. After having students draw signs on the whiteboard, Sarah pointed each sign on whiteboard and said "This is the sign that you find when you go to school, on the way." She then translated it into Bahasa and gave a brief explanation about each sign.
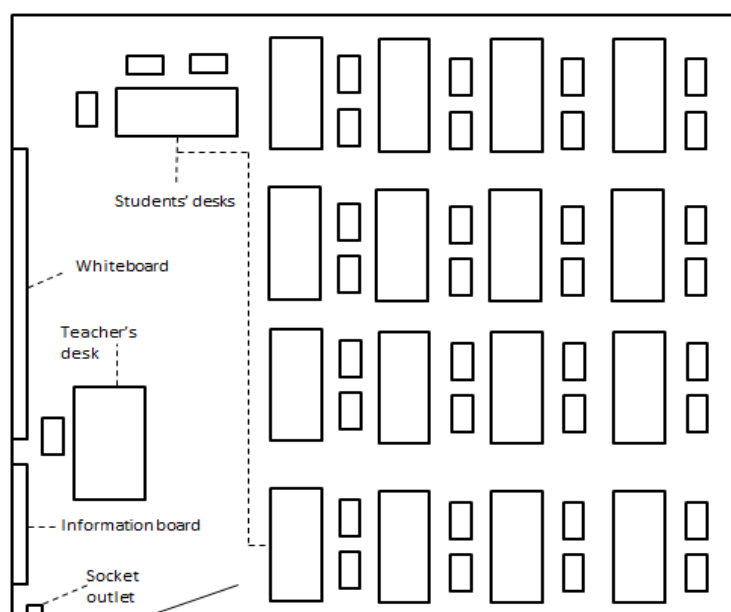
Figure 4.11. Sarah's classroom arrangement during observation 1

Sarah referred to a textbook and asked the students to draw nine signs that they usually find on the road. After explaining what to do, she sternly asked students to confirm whether they understand what they were going to do. While students were working on their task, Sarah checked the students' attendance by calling out their names one by one; those whose name was called raised their hand and responded "present Ma'am."

After completing the student's attendance, Sarah moved around the class to see how students were doing their work. After a few minutes, she asked students to draw on the whiteboard what they have done and to write the meaning. Lastly, she pointed the sign one by one and asked them to shout the meaning in English before translating into Bahasa.

Overall, the class atmosphere was quite intense. Nothing much happened during the class. When using English, she was quite aware of my existence, thus she tried to speak well. Additionally, the way she communicated with their students was

rigid and unfriendly. I noticed the students looked calm and obeyed every instruction their teacher made without any cheer or excitement.

Observation 2, 22 May 2015, classroom B

The second observation was conducted in a different classroom with similar furnishing and sitting arrangement (i.e. four rows of students' desks facing whiteboard and teacher's desk). Sarah started the activity by reviewing previous lessons about instruction. She asked several students to voluntarily write down instructions on the whiteboard. Meanwhile, three latecomers walked in and passed by the teacher impolitely. Sarah shouted at them "Where have you been?" and they answered "As usual" and headed to their desk without even stopping or looking at the teacher. Sarah scolded them for not being polite.
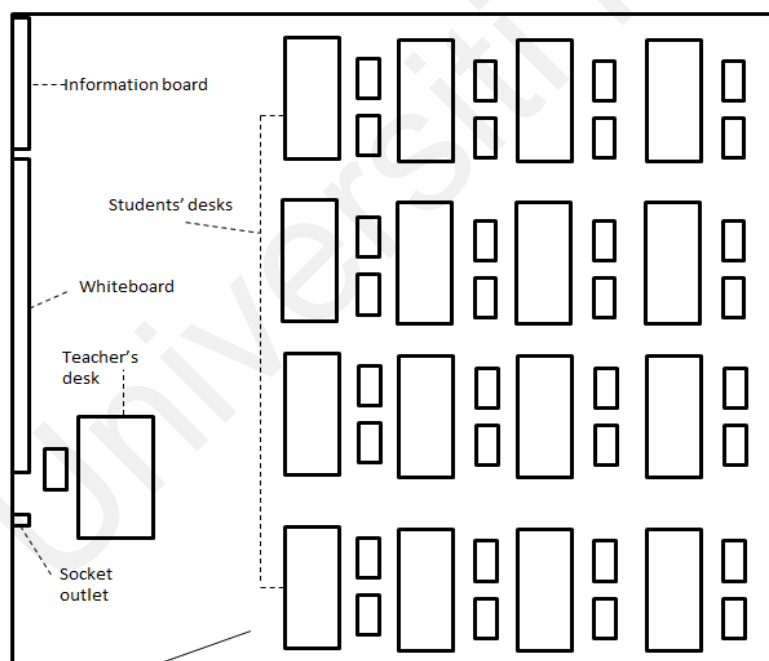
Figure 4.12. Sarah's classroom arrangement during observation 2

After having students write down sentences on the whiteboard. Sarah gave an instruction "Close your book!" and asked students to do so. She then referred to the

textbook and had students read a text aloud. She continued by reviewing another previous lesson (i.e. sign), and asked students the meaning of sign in *Bahasa*. A student answered incorrectly. Sarah responded "That's sing, not sign." Some students attempted to answer, but remained incorrect, until, a student answered it correctly. Sarah then asked some of them to write it down on the whiteboard and gave a task to all students to complete in their book by following instructions from the textbook.

In this class, although Sarah's behaviour has no different from the previous class, the class was less intense. I still caught some cheerfulness and students' giggles throughout the class. They seem accustomed to Sarah's teaching styles that were often with anger.

Observation 3, 23 May 2015, classroom C

On the third observation, the class was held in a classroom with similar furnishing and sitting arrangement. Sarah started by describing that day's topic (i.e. traffic signs), and asked students to open their textbook to the related topic. She asked students to identify the signs in the textbook, and then had them find the meaning from a dictionary. However, only a few students have brought a dictionary. So, a couple of students initiated to collect some dictionaries from the library and passed them to those without one. Meanwhile, Sarah pasted several traffic sign pictures on the whiteboard, pointed the pictures one by one and asked students to define them orally. Afterwards, she gave an explanation about each sign, and then asked students' confirmation whether they understood the lessons.
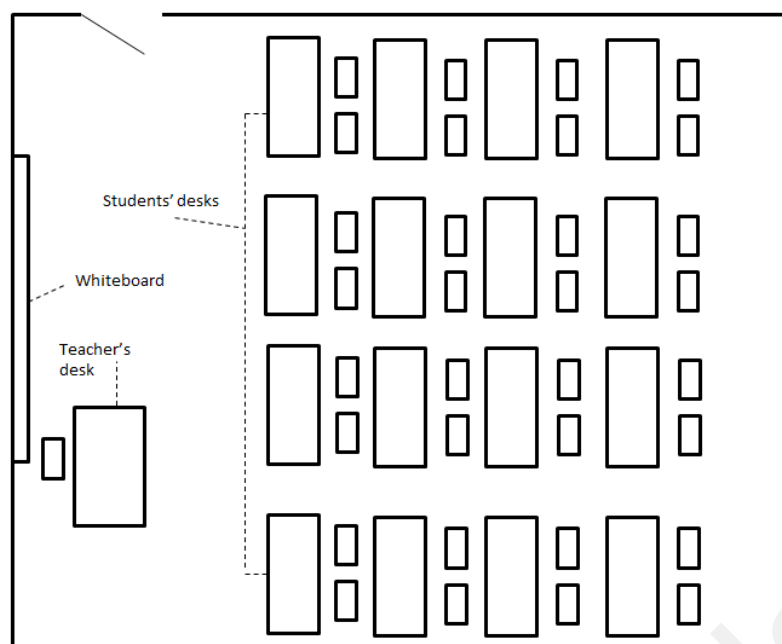
Figure 4.13. Sarah's classroom arrangement during observation 3

Sarah then gave a task by referring to the textbook and by explaining what to do. She, again, asked students whether they understood or not. Subsequently, she wrote an example of things students should do correctly. She then checked students' attendance and walked around the class. She found some students who did not do the task correctly. The students said that they did not understand the task. So, Sarah explained it madly, and then she asked angrily, "Who else does not understand? Raise your hand! Raise your hand and ask!" However, none of them raised their hand. Sarah continued, "I told you, I always tell you to bring dictionary in every lesson. How can you become smart if you do not bring your dictionary?" She then remained silent and sat still at her desk for quite a while before walking again around the class.

Subsequently, she asked students to voluntarily write down their answers on the whiteboard, but none of them were willing to try. They seem scare and looked tense. She then said "It is okey if you make mistakes, because you are learning. If

you were smart, why you have to study then?" It took some time, before one of them approached Sarah and wrote down an answer on the whiteboard. Afterwards, she asked students to pay attention to what their friend has written. Sarah read it aloud and said that it was a good answer. She asked the rest of the students whether they answered it that way. None of them responded. She then evaluated students' work orally and asked them to finish the task.

Overall, although Sarah was constantly fierce in every lesson, the students tensed did not appeared in each class. She acted the way she did, as she wanted to get her students pay attention to her instruction during the class. In terms of ICT implementation, she did not integrate any ICT tools into her instruction. Sarah merely displayed some posters that her son has printed for her the night before the class. She also let her students to feel free using ICT tools to do their assignment.

4.2.4.5 Sarah's Possible Selves and Her Uses of ICT in TEFL

Sarah was a vigorous teacher in the beginning of her career. The students respected her. Yet, they did not feel hesitate to approach Sarah outside classroom for enquiries related to the lessons. In teaching, she used to refer to several textbooks, and used realia as media (e.g. real tree outside classroom). In Hamman, et al. (2010), it is listed that teachers who have good relationship with students and always vary their teaching are mostly guided with their ideal selves.

However, when she began dealing with misbehaviour students, who mostly dislike her lessons, she became less enthusiastic to teach. She stated:

"They (students) are not interested in learning English." (SRH2 - 207)

She complained about her role as an EFL teacher. Most of her students have no interest in learning English. She often scolded her students and explained the lesson in a strict manner. One example, during the class observation, several students did not understand what they had been told to do. Even though after Sarah explained the materials many times, they still did not understand. These students' behaviours inflicted Sarah's tension, as it happened over time in her classes, and none of them willing to ask question. Sarah commented:

> "Sometimes, when I have given them explanation once, twice, until three times, and they still do the same thing, I just let it go… because I am tired."

<div align="right">(SRH2 – 263-266)</div>

Besides the students' unwanted behaviours, Sarah also complained about her extra duty as a homeroom teacher. She felt overwhelmed with this additional responsibility. As she said during the interview:

> ".. I feel overwhelmed, because I have to focus on many problems. We always to be blamed for every single problem these thirty students have. Even more, those students are so rebellious. I really hope... I am no longer assigned for this role (homeroom teacher) in the future,"

<div align="right">(SRH2 – 156-160)</div>

With contradictory circumstances she encountered, Sarah only followed the teaching routine. Her existing workload has drained a lot of her energy. Thus, she felt reluctant to invest extra efforts for her teaching practices, let alone learning new things like ICT tools. Therefore, when there is a need to incorporate technology into teaching, she preferred to outsource someone else to do it for her. In this sense, Sarah became dominated by her ought-to self, as her vigour and passion for her work has been decreased.

4.3   Cross Cases Analysis

An important reason for doing multiple case studies is to examine how the phenomenon performs in different environments (Stake, 2006). Accordingly, this part presents the analysis across the four cases.

In this study, I selected four participants who guided with ideal self and ought-to self. Two participants teach in urban area, and the other two teach in rural area. The rationale behind this regional divide is to see the influence of their possible selves to their role as EFL teachers and their ICT use in TEFL. As what has been discussed in the earlier chapter that urban areas have huge benefit in both EFL teaching/learning and ICT use comparing to rural areas. While 'possible selves' are claimed as powerful motivators, as they provide a clear and self-personalized goal to strive for, despite being thwarted with any obstacle (e.g. Lamb, 2007, 2012, 2013).

This cross-case analysis addresses the research objectives of this study. In each part, I include examples from each case to give a sense of how each participant share commonalities and divergences across cases.

4.3.1   The Dynamic of Teachers' Possible Selves

EFL teachers, who have been teaching for more than decades, have been undoubtedly dealing with several changes of students, curriculum, and school environment. These changes inevitably affect their working routines. Some teachers can easily adapt themselves to those changes and are able to maintain their teaching profession well. Some other, however, are vulnerable enough that they are not capable to uphold what they should ideally do as teachers. In this study, 'possible selves' theory is employed as the lens to spot how the alteration of certain circumstance affects teacher's educational practices.

Table 4.6

Participants' Possible Selves from Early Teaching to Current Teaching Period

Features	Mia	Budi	Sarah	Firman
Start teaching (year)	2000	1991	1991	1991
Possible selves in early teaching	Ought-to self	Ideal self	Ideal self	Ideal self
Start using ICT (year)	2005	2000	2009	1998
Possible selves during data collection	Ideal self	Ideal self	Ought-to self	Ought-to self

Three participants in this study (i.e. Firman, Sarah, and Mia), have shown different rationales behind the shift of their possible selves. Firman, who taught in urban school, noted:

> "Since I have amount of responsibilities outside classroom, mainly my current role as deputy principal, I am no longer focus on facilitating my students".

> (FIR1 – 120-121)

In the early years of Firman's teaching career, he admitted that he was a proactive EFL teacher. He solely focused on teaching EFL, and he even established English club to facilitate his students in learning English outside classroom. However, his vigour in teaching faded once he had administrative duties in school.

Another participant, Sarah, who was also a vigorous teacher in her early career, turned to be unmotivated teacher when she started facing misbehaves students. Sarah admitted that she could be easier deal with her students back in the day, as she said:

> "Back then, my students were very diligent and obedient. But now things change. Most students now do not want to listen and are very disruptive."

> (SRH1 – 92-94)

In these cases, both Firman and Sarah were mostly guided by their ought-to selves, as their enthusiasm to teach have been decreased. As it turned out, they merely viewed their teaching routine as an obligation to get done.

As Sarah and Firman's possible selves shifted from ideal selves to ought-to selves, Mia's possible selves, has been altered otherwise. Mia was an ought-to teacher self oriented when teaching in a rural school. It is indicated that, her salient ought-to self was activated since she dealt with misbehaved and demotivated EFL students. When she moved to an urban school, she was dominated by her ideal self, as she began to deal with highly motivated EFL students. In this regard, the type of students that she wished to teach had been synchronized with the reality she encountered.

Nevertheless, despite her joy as an EFL teacher in an urban school, Mia faced challenging situations in her teaching career. Accordingly, her possible self as a teacher became more unstable. In this case, Mia speculated that every teacher in Indonesia is required to teach 24 hours a week.

Most teachers who teach in public schools, in Indonesia, were assigned teaching schedules by the school principal. In most cases, the amount of assigned schedules was equal for each teacher in the school regardless 24 hours teaching credit from the government. Thus, when the teacher's teaching credit did not meet the credit, and yet willing to receive allowance, they must find other classes to teach. Since Mia's teaching credit in the current school was insufficient. Thus, she inevitably sought extra classes to teach in another school, which she found hard to fulfil. Mia disclosed:

"If our teaching hours do not reach 24 hours, we will not get allowance. So, I teach in another school to only meet that requirement, and I honestly do not do my best in that school. My target is to reach 24 hours teaching credit, that is it".

(MIA1 – 156-160)

This evidence indicates that possible selves not only can alter overtime but can also alter over situations at the same period of time and in the same domain. In other words, Mia's ideal self as a teacher was only dominant in her main school (school A). When she taught in another school (school B), her working self-concept switched to ought-to self. This is because in school B, she was mostly driven by external motivation, which results in minimum effort in making classroom practices more meaningful.

That being said, the ups and downs among teachers towards challenges, that they consistently faced, affected their possible selves. This is because, as pointed out by Markus & Nurius (1986), "possible selves comprise self-knowledge that is most vulnerable and responsive to changes in the environment. They are the first elements of the self-concept to absorb and reveal such changes. As representations of potential, possible selves will thus be particularly sensitive to those situations that communicate new or inconsistent information about the self." (p.956).

The vulnerability of teachers' possible selves, however, did not occur to Budi (an EFL teacher who teaches in one roof with another participant, Sarah). Unlike Sarah, who already got tired with her students' challenging behaviour, Budi showed his ideal teacher self consistently in his early teaching career and his current teaching period. Budi, who has been obsessed being a teacher since he was young, asserted exhilarating classroom to get his students engaged with the classroom activities. He was also open-minded to every challenge and alteration that occurred in his working

environment. Likewise, whenever he has problem or need to learn something new, he did not hesitate to ask for help or assistance from anyone, including from his students.

The distinction between the ideal and ought-to selves may not be immediately obvious but can be inferred from a combination of data sources examining how teachers talk about their work in different contexts, the degree of specificity with which teachers describe their various goals and motivation, and how these seem to be reflected in their classroom discourse and instructional practices (Kubanyiova, 2007).

Additionally, Hamman et al. (2010) pointed out that the largest proportions of possible selves reported by teachers tended to cluster in some categories (i.e. instructional strategies, classroom management, interpersonal relationship, and professional qualities). Therefore, the following sub-themes will enclose more explanation on how ideal and ought-to selves distinct from each other.

4.3.2 Instructional Strategies

Classroom can be organized or disorganized. Better quality instruction is structured around appropriate content, materials and methods, and interaction patterns. The thoughtfully structured classroom is one in which students engage in meaningful tasks. Matching of instructional tasks with all the interacting variables in a classroom, however, is not easy because of the differences in student ability and potential for learning (Moore, 2014).

The term 'Instructional strategies' is generally defined as techniques that teachers use to: (1) motivate students and help them focus attention; (2) organize information for understanding and remembering; and (3) monitor and assess learning (Alberta, 2015). Most teachers have their own methods to get students engaged in

learning, keep them on task, create useful classroom interaction, and enhance their knowledge and skills. Some teachers undertake various ways in order to motivate their students and to get them out of boredom. Mia, for instance, is one of the teachers who did various kinds of activities to keep her students motivated to learn. In fact, during the focus group interview, her students admitted that they feel excited with the lesson because Mia always came up with different kind of classroom activities such as games and quizzes. As her students said:

Student A: "She always has creative ideas."

Student B: "She likes varying the activities in each meeting, so we can easily understand the lesson".

(MIA-S – 31-33)

Various classroom activities were also performed by Budi (the rural school teacher). Budi even tended to perform same lesson in different ways with different classes. On the other hand, his colleague, Sarah, was more likely to carry out one topic in similar strategies such as explaining the lesson, giving task, and asking several students to write their answer on the whiteboard. Firman, even more, performed monotonous strategies by consistently having students find new words and translate them. Most of his students even complaint with the lessons, as one of them snitched:

"It is so boring. We have been translating all the time". (FIR-S – 287)

Both teachers (Sarah and Firman) also have things in common in delivering their lesson in classroom. Unlike other participants (who like to stand up and walk around the class during instruction), Sarah and Firman were mostly sitting at the desk and were less enthusiastic giving instruction. They also have less constructive communication with students. Sarah even frequently fumed at her students, mainly

when the students did not understand her explanation, which, in turn, caused tense among students.

Table 4.7

Summary of Instructional Strategies between Ideal Selves and Ought-to Selves

Mia and Budi (ideal selves)	Sarah and Firman (ought-to selves)
Always try out new strategies	Always use the same strategies
Constructive communication with students	Less enthusiastic dealing with students
Always walk around class during the lessons	Mostly sit at desk
More interactive classroom activities	

4.3.3   Classroom Management

The term "classroom management" has been defined in many different ways, depending on which of its aspects one focuses on (Ming-tak & Wai-shing, 2008). In the Glossary of Education Reform (2014), classroom management refers to the wide variety of skills and techniques that teachers use to keep students organized, orderly, focused, attentive, on task, and academically productive during a class. When classroom-management strategies are executed effectively, teachers minimize the behaviours that impede learning for both individual students and groups of students, while maximizing the behaviours that facilitate or enhance learning.

According to Burden (2017), classroom management involves teacher actions to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation. An effective classroom manager handles these areas of responsibility: (1) select a philosophical model of classroom

management and discipline; (2) organize the physical environment; (3) manage student behaviour; (4) create a respectful, supportive learning environment; (5) manage and facilitate instruction; and (6) promote classroom safety and wellness.

In teacher 'possible selves' domain, classroom management is defined as selves that pertain to how teacher conducts or orchestrates the matter of discipline, student behaviour or classroom procedures, which include how teachers react to disruptive students (Hamman et al., 2010). In this study, Sarah, the ought-to self-guided teacher, has her own way in keeping her students stay on track with the lesson. She was more likely to be strict and fierce to students. She even did not hesitate yelling at students whenever they misbehave in classroom. She justified:

> "Students these days are very different from the students back then. They are now very naughty."

(SRH2 – 92-93)

Her colleague, Budi, in a contrary, perceived that the students these days are easy-going. He felt comfortable dealing with his students. Budi's teaching style was obviously spotted during the observation, where he could easily blend with the students. He even frequently brought laughter during the lesson that inflicted cheerfulness among the students. He emphasized that bringing laughter and cheerfulness in classroom at evoking students' vigorous in classroom, as he noted:

> "I always want to make them enthusiast attending my class." (BUD1 – 230)

Meanwhile, Mia, the urban school teacher, did not really take the misbehaviour students very seriously. She quite understood why some students acted that way. As she said:

"Sometimes there are like three students do not listen, giggle each other and doing other stuff while I am giving instruction, but it is not a big deal, they are just kids who somehow seek for attention."

In order stop the students' misbehaviour, Mia merely called their names and asked them to stop or approached them and tapped their shoulders. They appeared to behave after being warned. Another urban school teacher, Firman, has his own way to treat misbehave students. He oftentimes found himself hit the students when he lost his temper. He also gave low mark to those who disrespected him.

In a matter of discipline, most of the participants managed to commit with their teaching schedule, except for Firman. His students acknowledged that Firman's time has been sabotaged with his other roles in school, thus he always came late and even missed the class. Another teacher, Sarah, occasionally came late and missed the class, as admitted by her students, but she sometimes managed to find another teacher to replace her or gave students assignments. Whereas, both Budi and Mia rarely missed their classes or came late.

Table 4.8

Summary of Classroom Management between Ideal Selves and Ought-to Selves

Mia and Budi (ideal selves)	Sarah and Firman (ought-to selves)
Always attend the class on time	Often come late, even miss the class
Always bring laughter	Have no sense of humour
More patient with disruptive students	Discipline students

4.3.4 Interpersonal Relationship

Another feature that distinguishes ideal self and ought-to self is the teacher's interpersonal relationship with their students. In Hamman et al. (2010), interpersonal relationships in teacher possible selves defines as selves that reflect a quality or characteristics that relates to interaction with persons or group within school.

What have been found in this study is that, teachers with ideal selves (Mia and Budi) have positive relationship with their students. Budi, for instance, had positive social and uplifting learning environments in his educational practices. He always smiled and brought humour in classroom, which, in turn, promoted students' joy and engagement with the lessons. The following excerpt is Budi's statement about interpersonal relationship with his students:

> "We (Budi and his students) are.. like.. close each other. The relationship with teacher and students now is so informal. They (students) do not hesitate ask questions, I also do not hesitate."
> (BUD2 – 256 - 258)

Frymier and Houser (2000) pointed out that, when teachers and students move beyond the formal/student roles and begin to see each other as individuals (interpersonal relationships form), individuals will treat one another with great respect and will develop trust. Students, in turn, become easier to ask risky question. Because commonly, students avoid asking questions as they fear being seen as stupid. But when a trusting and caring relationship occur between teachers and students, a safe learning environment is created.

Concurrently, the strong interpersonal relationship among teacher and students, also promotes teacher's willingness to open space for students' voice. In other words, besides affecting students to ask questions without hesitation, teachers also become more open to learn from their students. For example, in this study, Budi

admitted that he always asked their students about ICT. He embraced his lack of

capability to utilize ICT, and yet has a willingness to learn from his students. As he

acknowledged:

> "Sometimes these kids learn faster than me. Personally, I always want
> to know… want to learn, and I am not embarrassed asking anyone.
> Everyone is my teacher, whether he is student or else. Everyone is my
> teacher."

> (BUD2 – 325 -327)

Indication of valuing students' voice also occurred in Mia's case. The following

excerpt is Mia's students comment about their discretion to provide feedback in

classroom:

> Student A: "Sometimes she asks for suggestion. If there is any mistake
> (lesson or explanation), we often give correction."

> Student B: "Sometimes she asks for our feedback, so that we can
> understand it (the lesson) easier."

> Student C: "Yes, we usually express our opinion…"

> (MIA-S – 108-109; 113; 118)

Besides having freedom to give feedback, the students also did not feel hesitate

approach her outside classroom. Her students even admitted that they often approach

Mia to ask for advice for their personal problems. As her students said:

> Student A: "We often go to her office to ask some questions."

> Student B: "Ya, we ask her. None of us afraid."

> Student C: "She is a good companion to confide."

> (MIA-S – 151-152; 160; 163)

Moreover, just like Budi, Mia also has a strong interpersonal relationship with her

students, even with their parents. During the data collection, I caught her had an

intimate conversation with her student's mother just before we began the interview. When we were about to start the interview, she, indeed, confirmed that she has a close relationship with her students' parents.

According to Frymier and Houser (2000), the relationship that develops between teachers and students influence students' learning both directly and indirectly. In addition, as noted by Wentzel (2010), "the nature and quality of students' relationships with their teachers play a critical and central role in motivating and engaging students to learn." (p.75). As a matter of fact, in this study, the teachers who build stronger relationship with their students (Mia and Budi), promote stronger motivational and engaging classroom activities. Both Mia and Budi have stronger interpersonal relationship with students, comparing to other teachers (Firman and Sarah), who have moderate interpersonal relationship with their students.

Firman, the ought-to teacher self oriented, appeared to have a lack communication with his students. As reported by his students, Firman always came late or missed the class without notification. He was mostly busy with his administrative duties. The following are the students' answers when I asked them about their frequency of seeing Firman outside classroom:

Student A: "Well… he is busy."

Student B: "Never."

Student C: "No… never."

Student D: "He is busy."

Student E: "His office is like checkroom for students' mobile phone."

Interviewer: "So you usually go there then?"

Student E: "Ya, but just to take my mobile phone. He always there,
but does not attend the class."

(FIR-S – 130-140)

What students said above is confirmed by Firman. He acknowledged that students rarely approached him outside classroom. He also admitted that he has difficulty dealing with students. As he said:

> "Until now, building relationship with students is not easy…. Their character… you know."

<div align="right">(FIR1 – 184-185)</div>

As what have been described earlier, Firman tended to lose his temper when dealing with misbehaved students. He spontaneously gave them physical punishment, even though he always tried to avoid doing so. The following is Firman's statement about his reaction to misbehaved students:

> "As the time goes by, I try not to do it again… violence against students. Instead, I give them advice… giving advice…. Sometimes, I also like… not like hitting them, but pinch them… but just a little pinch. So, they are not feeling like being hit. But it hurts. So, that is how I do it. It hurts… sometimes it causes tears."

<div align="right">(FIR1 – 202-206)</div>

During the interview, he demonstrated how he warned students in classroom:

> "I do not want, if I speak here and you also speak there. So be quiet!"

<div align="right">(FIR1 – 207-208)</div>

Inclination to discipline students was also found in Sarah's case. Nonetheless, she did not do any physical punishment to students. Instead, she did it verbally such as yelling at students or having them sitting in front of the class. She stated:

Sarah: "I usually pause my discourse first, and then scold them [laugh]."

Interviewer: "What is your solution when students did not do their homework?"

Sarah: "Normally, just like what I used to do, have them finish their homework in front of the class. So, they do not seat with their students on the desk. They sit there... in front, on the floor."

(SRH2 – 215; 268-271)

Accordingly, the relationship among them appeared to be unchained outside classroom. Indeed, when I asked Sarah about her students' frequency of seeing her outside classroom, she answered:

"Hmm.. ya, but only like two percent." (SRH2 – 256)

Although there might be many factors behind students' hesitation to approach their teacher outside classroom, from the possible selves perspective, a teacher who mostly dominated by ought-to self tends to have moderate, even poor, quality in maintaining relationship with students (e.g. Hamman et al., 2010).

Interestingly, Sarah was not the only EFL teacher who taught in rural school with unmotivated students. Budi was also an EFL teacher in rural setting, who, in fact, taught under the same roof with Sarah. The question is how come these two teachers, who teach in similar school and face similar type of students, have a contrast interpersonal relationship with the students? Their possible selves might answer this question. In this case, Sarah was dominated with her ought-to self, while Budi was dominated his ideal self. Now, another question raises: how come these two teachers (Sarah and Budi) dominated with different possible selves? The next following part attempts to answer this question.

4.3.5 Professional qualities

In Hamman et al. (2010), professional quality is defined as "selves that pertain to characteristics or qualities that are expected of a professional teacher." (p.1359). In the literature, there are different ways of considering the qualities of the ideal teacher (i.e. Buckler & Castle, 2014). But before going further, let us start with participants' initial motives to pursue teaching career. As many scholars agree that the motives behind individual's choice for becoming a teacher influence his/her commitment in maintaining professional qualities (e.g. Erten, 2014; Yuwono & Harbon, 2010).

The following table shows participants' motives in choosing EFL teaching career, and their working self-concept in early career and the current teaching period.

Table 4.9

Participants' Motives in Choosing EFL Teaching Career and Their Possible Selves

Features	Urban		Rural	
	Mia	Firman	Sarah	Budi
Motives in pursuing EFL teaching career	Like English subject	Job security	Like English subject	Determination to become a teacher
Salient possible selves in early career	Ought-to self	Ideal self	Ideal self	Ideal self
Salient possible selves during the data collection	Ideal self	Ought-to self	Ought-to self	Ideal self
Indicated causes of participants' possible selves changes	Students' high interest in learning English	Workload on administrative duties	Misbehaved students / Students' lack of interest to English subject	

Extracts	"My students enjoy learning English."	"I am so busy with my administrative duties."	"My students dislike English subject."	"I love teaching."

As what is shown in the Table above, Firman's reason for choosing an EFL teaching career is job security. The following is Firman's statement during the interview:

> "I initially went to study geography. But then I passed in English department at another institution. So, I chose to switch my major to English because it has a bigger job opportunity."

> (FIR1 – 11-15)

According to Kottler and Zehm (2000), "a teacher who treats teaching as merely a job, is more likely to view him/herself as technician and simply see teaching as a way to make a living." (p.133). For Bastick (2000), focusing on the benefits of teaching or other external rewards is considered as extrinsic motives. In addition, according to Bomia, Beluzo, Demeester, Elander, Johnson and Sheldon (1997), extrinsic motives refer to "outside sources or values that influence a person to act. Example of these outside sources are rewards; positive and negative outcomes; comfort and discomfort. As long as this external source provides the sufficient incentives or conditions, action can take place." (p.4). In 'possible selves' theory, as elaborated by Dornyei (2009), extrinsic motives similar to ought-to self drives.

In this case, when Firman started his teaching career, he could focus on teaching his students, as teaching was the only work he did in school. However, when he began having other workload in school, as deputy principal, he did not focus on teaching anymore. This is because he values his administrative duties more than his teaching.

Accordingly, even though Firman was no longer focusing on teaching, he still has a job to be done and is still able to make a living. This seems to make sense of Firman's reason for focusing more on his administrative duties over his teaching. Nevertheless, as teaching is still part of his obligations, he managed to keep attending his classes despite being late.

Table 4.9 above shows that Mia and Sarah decided to become EFL teachers because of their love of English. Interestingly, they both have similar complaints when their working self-concept shifted to ought-to self. The following excerpts illustrate Mia and Sarah's dissatisfaction towards their students in rural setting:

Interviewer: "Was there any student you could not handle back then?"

Mia: "So many…. Firstly, because they do not like English very much, because they are living in a village."

<div align="right">(MIA1 – 291-293)</div>

Interviewer: "Is there any student you cannot handle?"

Sarah: "So many [laugh]"

Interviewer: "Why is that?"

Sarah: "You know… they do not… they do not want to learn English."

<div align="right">(SRH2 – 202-209)</div>

Both Mia and Sarah's statements above portray the difficulties of teaching EFL in rural areas. Consequently, as reported by Mia and Sarah, the students' unwillingness to learn English results in students' misbehaviour in classroom, which, in turn, reduced Mia and Sarah's motivation to teach. Based on this evidence, it is assumed that both teachers had similar expectations in their teaching career. They both expected that their students would love learning English as they do.

Mia and Sarah's expectation seemed to come from their initial motive to become EFL teachers (the love of English). This is because Budi, who taught in the same school as Sarah, did not experience the same issue. Budi remained vigorous to teach English to students, who, indeed, enjoyed his lessons. Thus, it is plausible to assume that different initial motives could cause different expectations and results. In this case, Budi had a different motive for pursuing EFL teaching career that was 'becoming a teacher'. His core love is the profession, while the subject comes next.

According to Bastick (2000), pursuing a teaching career by focusing on teaching as an interesting and important profession is considered as intrinsic motives. In possible selves, as pointed out by White and Ding (2009), intrinsic motives or interest belongs to teachers who are mostly dominated by their ideal selves. Accordingly, as reported by previous researchers (e.g. Hiver 2013; White & Ding, 2009) teachers who are driven by ideal selves are more likely to sustain their willingness to improve their educational practices, in which Budi enjoyed doing.

In addition, Kottler and Zehm (2000) describe those passionate committed teachers, who absolutely love what they do, and have made their profession an integrated part of their lifestyle. Thus, they are constantly searching for more effective ways to reach their students, to master content and methods of their craft.

The kind of teacher, described by Kottler and Zehm (2000) above, is represented most in Budi's case. The following excerpt shows Budi's passion in teaching.

> Interviewer: "So you are now a lecturer, a manager of computer lab, and a teacher. Do you feel overwhelmed with these roles?"
>
> Budi: "No… Not at all, because I teach in university on Sunday. I teach 24 hours a week… and.. that lab, I just have responsibility about the equipment and cleanliness. I do not need to be there all the time."

(BUD2 – 153-160)

Another characteristic that distinguishes ideal selves and ought-to selves among the participants is their willingness to learn new things. Whereby, teachers who had an ideal teacher self, as the most prominent element in their working self-concept, are more likely proactive in undertaking continuing teacher development (e.g. Hiver, 2013; White & Ding, 2009). In this study, it is indicated that Budi and Mia have stronger willingness to learn new things, compared to Firman and Sarah. In other words, Mia and Budi appeared to be more active in improving their professional practices, which is mostly related to ICT use education. Interestingly, both Mia and Budi did not implement ICT arbitrarily. They tended to incorporate ICT by identifying students' needs and the value of their students' language learning experiences. The following part will discuss more about participants' ICT use in their educational practices.

4.3.6 ICT Use in TEFL

All teachers in this study shared similar opinion about the use of ICT in TEFL. They all agreed that using ICT can motivate students to learn and can enhance the learning experience. However, when it comes to teaching practice, not all of them actively used ICT tools.

4.3.6.1 Sarah and Firman's Use of ICT

Sarah, for instance, rarely used ICT in classroom. Even though Sarah has been trained to use ICT, she was more comfortable doing the conventional way of teaching by incorporating textbooks and whiteboard. She complained that she quickly forgets what she has just learned, as she admitted:

> "If someone taught me (computer) today, I could no longer recall it tomorrow".
>
> <div align="right">(SRH2 – 84-85)</div>

Therefore, whenever she was required to incorporate ICT (such as during the classroom observation), she preferred to outsource someone else. As she confessed:

> "I asked my son to help me prepare my materials using computer and printer. I also frequently give my students homework to search particular words on Google and ask them to submit the printed copy. Sometimes, I ask them to bring their mobile phone to use it as dictionary".
>
> <div align="right">(SRH2 – 93; 109-110; 238-239)</div>

In this sense, Sarah tended to be a passive user of ICT, as she was more likely to have someone else used ICT for her pedagogical activities.

Firman, on the other hand, has been an active user of ICT since 1998. He even used to teach computer to his colleagues. He also used to be the head of computer lab. Even more, during the data collection, he still could easily access the ICT facilities in school such as computer lab, language lab, and school hall equipped with ICT devices. Unfortunately, he merely used the ICT during my research observation. His students admitted that he normally teaches in regular classroom with conventional teaching and learning practices. What he did in the hall with ICT devices, during the observation, was a premier experience for his students.

Firman admitted that using ICT devices in teaching is not his favourite things to do in school. This is due to the limited time he has, as it took long time for him to prepare. Even when it comes to material preparation such as lesson plan, he mostly copied and pasted it from others, as he confesses:

"I cannot deny that I always copy and paste lesson plans from others".

<div align="right">(FIR1 – 131-132)</div>

Since having a role as a deputy principal and responsibilities for the school's facilities and infrastructure, he had less time for his lessons in classroom. Therefore, he was not into facilitating his students anymore, let alone preparing the good materials using ICT devices.

4.3.6.2 Budi and Mia's Use of ICT

Using ICT in TEFL is, however, not always time consuming to all teachers. Budi, for instance, acknowledged that using ICT could save his time. As he explained:

> "Back in the day, it took sometimes for me to search and prepare my materials. Now, as internet comes, it is a lot easier to search for new materials. I no longer need to write long paragraph on whiteboard repeatedly, as I can make it on PowerPoint all at once. I also find it easier to manage my classes' assessment using Excel, send assignments through email, and communicate with my students via Facebook. So, with these ICT things, I can save my energy and use my time efficiently".

<div align="right">(BUD2 – 111-114; 54-58)</div>

Budi's explanation was evident during the classroom observation, where he projected PowerPoint materials through LCD projector. However, Budi did not use ICT devices in every class. During my first observation, for instance, he merely distributed printed materials to her students. He opines:

> "I don't really depend on ICT. Some classrooms, like this class, are not supported with ICT. And I always have alternative when ICT is not possibly used in my class".

<div align="right">(BUD2 – 240-244)</div>

Beside Budi, Mia also share similar point of view. When I asked her why she prefers having the students do presentation without visual aids like PowerPoint, she responded:

> "So far, I never ask my students to present using PowerPoint. For me, presentation is all about speaking. I don't care whether the content they deliver is accurate or not, the point is their language".

> (MIA2 – 309-310)

Mia opined that even though ICT is useful in educational activities, but not all activities are necessarily aided with ICT. However, in terms of materials storage and students' tasks management, Mia preferred to deal with Learning Management System (LMS) - *Quipper School* which allowed her students to access the lessons outside classroom. As she said:

> "This *Quipper School* is very helpful for us. I can easily upload the tasks, thus my students only need to access and submit their tasks wherever and whenever they are".

> (MIA2 – 85-88)

Besides LMS, Mia frequently used smartphone in classroom. For her, smartphone is the most practical ICT device that allowed her to track students' work efficiently. It was shown during the observation, where she oftentimes scrolled her smartphone screen to check students' digital submission. I also noticed some students used their smartphone during the class. When I asked Mia about the use of smartphone in classroom, she responded:

> "Actually this school does not allow students to bring their smartphone, except when their teacher asks them to do so. I usually ask them to bring it, thus they can easily search for material about certain topic to work on".

> (MIA2 – 139-141)

The matrix below summarizes how each participant uses ICT in TEFL. As shown in *Figure 4.14,* computer software like *Microsoft Word* was the most frequently used computer programmes among all participants for preparing their teaching materials and lesson plans. *Microsoft Excel* and *PowerPoint,* on the other hand, were only used by Firman to display his material and by Budi as a platform for assessing students' performance and developing and displaying materials.

In order to search for supplementary materials online, Mia, Budi and Sarah used search engine like *Google.* E-mail and social networks such as *Facebook* were mostly used by Budi for communication with students, uploading assignments or materials, and monitoring students' work. Unlike Budi, Mia used Learning Management System (LMS) called *Quipper School* to upload materials and as a platform for tasks submission by her students. Smartphones were also used by Mia as online reference during her classroom practices and to keep in touch with her students outside the classroom. Sarah, on the other hand, did not use smartphone as a reference during classroom practices. Instead, she used electronic dictionary that allowed her students to translate *Bahasa* to English language and vice versa.

	Ms Word		Ms Excel		Ms P.Point		Search Engine		Email		Social Network		Smart Phone		LMS	
Preparing materials/lesson plan	M	B				B										
	S	F														
Creating/developing materials	M	B				B										
	S															
Communicating with students									B			B	M		M	
Uploading tasks/materials									B						M	
Students' works submission									B						M	
Displaying lesson/materials						B										
	F		F		F											
Searching for materials							M	B								
							S									
Assessing students				B												
Monitoring students' work									B				M		M	
Dictionary													M			
													S			

M	Mia	Ideal selves
B	Budi	
S	Sarah	Ought-to selves
F	Firman	

Figure 4.14. Matrix of participants' use of ICT in TEFL

4.3.7 Teachers' Possible Selves and Their Use of ICT in TEFL

Having analysed the data within and cross cases, this present study revealed that ICT use in TEFL did not influence teachers' possible selves (RQ 1 and 2), while teachers' possible selves influenced their use of ICT in TEFL (RQ 3 and 4). The following table shows how participants' possible selves influenced their use of ICT in TEFL.

Table 4.10

Participants' Possible Selves and Their Use of ICT in TEFL

Teachers'possible selves	Ideal self		Ought-to self	
	Budi (rural)	Mia (urban)	Firman (urban)	Sarah (rural)
ICT use in TEFL	Active user	Selective user	Non-active user	Non-active user
Description	Using ICT to motivate students	Using ICT, only when it can bring positive learning experiences	Using ICT only when he is required to use it.	Outsourcing someone else to produce ICT-based materials
Extracts	"I like using ICT, but I do not depend on it."	"I only use UCT when it's necessary."	"I have no time to prepare ICT-based lessons."	"I am too old to learn new technology."

As shown in Table 4.10 above, Budi, the ideal self oriented teacher, would utilize the ICT facilities to enhance English learning experiences in his classroom. It appears that his love for teaching led him to do anything that could motivate his students to learn English, even when he could not utilize ICT in any particular classroom. Yet, he was still able to maintain classroom activities that boost his students' learning experiences by using paper-based materials and whiteboard. This is because for him, interesting classroom activities can be done even without ICT use.

Another ideal self oriented teacher, Mia, used ICT in the classroom as a way to run the lesson efficiently such as using smartphone as an online dictionary and material references. She also used Learning Management System (LMS) to upload materials and assignment. This platform also allowed her students to view their homework and submit it online, thus students did not have to spend money for printing and could submit their work anywhere and anytime before meeting deadline.

However, when ICT tools did not really bring meaningful values to her classroom practices, she preferred to teach conventionally such as doing presentation without using any visual aids like PowerPoint and LCD projector. For her, presentation is like an English speaking practice, thus, it is better to focus on what the students say instead of looking at their slides.

Based on the data analysis and the elaboration above, it appears that both ideal self oriented teachers have identical value in utilizing ICT. It indicates that Budi's core objective in teaching is to facilitate fun and attractive classroom activities, and he used ICT tools to achieve that objective. Yet, he did not depend on ICT all the time as for him attractive lessons can be done with or without ICT use, while Mia's core objective is to run EFL lessons efficiently. Thus, when it comes to ICT use, she tended to be selective. She merely used ICT when it could bring meaningful EFL classroom experiences. Otherwise, she did her lessons manually. In short, both ideal self oriented teachers used ICT but did not rely on it completely.

Let us now turn to ought-to self oriented teachers, Firman and Sarah. As descibed previously in section 4.3.6.1, Firman has been an active user of ICT since his early career as a teacher. Not only did he use ICT tools, he also taught computer to his colleagues. This indicates that he has expertise in ICT. However, his expertise did not promote ICT use in his classroom practices, as he admitted that using ICT devices in teaching is time consuming. This is because he no longer had time to prepare meaningful ICT-based lessons. Unless, if he was required to use it such as during the classroom obvervation for this present study. He also used ICT when it could help him get through the lessons such as copying lesson plans from his colleagues, as he has other administrative duties to fulfil.

Sarah, another ought-to self oriented teacher, rarely used ICT for classroom practices. She felt more comfortable with traditional teaching practices by utilizing whiteboard, textbooks, and other manual teaching tools. Therefore, when she was required to use ICT in classroom practices, such as during the classroom observations, she preferred to outsource someone else such as asking her son to type and print materials, and giving tasks to her students like listing certain vocabularies from internet. She felt demotivated to learn new technology skills, as she assumed that she was too old to learn a new technology.

What can be concluded from both cases of ought-to self oriented teachers above, is that both teachers merely used ICT in teaching when they were required to use it. As a result, their use of ICT tended to live up to someone else's expectation instead of focusing on the learning value that their students could gain.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter presents discussion, implications and limitations of the study, recommendations for further study, and conclusion. The implications of this study will potentially provide greater understanding of the importance of teachers' awareness of their possible selves change. This will influence their behaviour and at the leading edge, to supplement additional contributions in both fields (i.e. possible selves theory; the use ICT in TEFL).

5.1   Revisiting the Research Questions

Before going further, it is essential to reflect on the research questions that guide this study. The first section of this chapter attempts to elaborate the answer from each research question, which has been drawn from the findings in chapter four.

It is important to note that the initial objective of research questions 1 and 2 is to find out whether or not ICT implementation might trigger the participants' possible selves changes. However, the data analysis did not find this tendency. Their possible selves alteration was triggered by other factors instead. The following answers (from RQ 1 to RQ 2) explain the participants' possible selves from his early career until the period of data collection.

Research Question 1: How do EFL teachers in urban setting perceive their possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current use of ICT in teaching practices?

In this study, Mia and Firman are the participants who teach in urban setting. However, Mia started her career as a teacher in a rural school and moved to urban school in the next five years. Whereas, Firman has been teaching in the same school since his first year of teaching until the data collection was undertaken.

Based on the data analysis, Firman was an ideal self-oriented teacher during his first-year career. It started to appear from how he cared about improving his students' English skill by organizing extra EFL classes after school. He was also very active in taking professional development programmes and sharing his knowledge with his colleagues.

However, since Firman's role in school expanded his administrative duties, he became more focused on taking care of the school than facilitating his students to learn. As a result, he frequently missed his classes. Whenever he attended his classes, he tended to deliver the same methods (i.e. finding new words and translation). His motivation to teach was weakened and his attention in school has switched to his administrative duties. In this case, Firman's possible self as a teacher has altered to ought-to self.

Mia, on the other hand, was dominated by her ought-to self when she started teaching in a rural school. This is because during her teaching period in a rural area, she used to teach students who dislike her lessons. Most of her students lacked motivation to learn English, as they solely used their local language on a daily basis.

In fact, they did not see any value in learning English. Thus, Mia's students always used to make fun of her during the lesson like answering Mia's questions with their local language. These students' misbehaviour at school, in turn, made Mia frustrated. Thus, she merely attended the classes without doing extra effort to enhance students' learning experiences.

After spending five years in a rural school, Mia had moved to urban area and started teaching in one of the most elite high schools. This school was occupied by students who excel in various subjects including English. Hence, Mia could easily teach the students, as they were highly motivated to learning English. This positive school environment enhances Mia's motivation to teach. She became more creative in her lessons, such as, by actively finding external resources to maintain the fun learning and teaching experiences in her classroom. In this sense, Mia became mostly guided by her ideal self as a teacher.

However, in some cases, Mia was also guided by her ought-to self, as she felt overwhelmed to teach in another school. As discussed in the previous chapter, her teaching hours in the main school did not reach the teaching credit, in which the government assigned all teachers to fulfil in order to receive extra allowance. This is what Mia found hard to do. Nevertheless, she still managed to do so, as she wanted to receive the allowance. In this case, she is mostly driven by her external motivation that she did not teach as best as what she could in her main school.

Research Question 2: How do EFL teachers in rural setting perceive their possible selves from their past conventional teaching practices to the current use of ICT in teaching practices?

Budi and Sarah teach in the same school in a rural area. They were ideal selves oriented during their past conventional teaching practices. However, during the data collection, Sarah was an ought-to self dominant, while Budi's working self-concept remained the same. Budi was a passionate teacher since his first-year career. He seems to be an enthusiastic person when dealing with students. He enjoyed his classes and always came up with various classroom activities. Based on the interview and classroom observation, he was constantly making learning fun as a reflection of his love for teaching.

Unlike Budi, Sarah's working self-concept was unstable. She was a highly motivated teacher in the beginning of her career. The students respected her. Yet, her motivation to teach waned since she began dealing with students who mostly dislike English subject. Accordingly, she only followed the teaching routine without willingness to invest extra effort to make the lessons more meaningful. This shows that she is only able to teach motivated students.

Research Question 3: How do EFL teachers' possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self) in urban setting influence their use of ICT in TEFL?

Mia and Firman teach in different schools in the same city. Both schools are considered elite public schools in that city. The schools are equipped with decent ICT facilities such as computer laboratories, multimedia/language laboratories, and LCD projectors.

In terms of ICT competence and skill, Firman has been using and teaching ICT to his colleagues and students since 1998, whereas Mia just started learning and using ICT in 2005. Mia is equipped with basic ICT skills such as operating word processing programmes (i.e. Microsoft Word and PowerPoint), and browsing web pages, and using content management system (i.e. *Quipper School*). Firman is equipped with advanced ICT skills such as operating word processing programmes and using language laboratory. Not only did Firman learn ICT, he taught ICT to his colleagues and students.

Nevertheless, when it comes to an ICT integrated approach in the classroom, Mia was more active than Firman. Firman rarely used ICT in the classroom. For him, ICT integration in classroom seems to be a time-consuming job. This is because he was more focused on his administrative duties in the school rather than delivering his lessons in the classroom. Thus, he felt reluctant to spend more time preparing meaningful lessons.

Mia, on the other hand, actively used ICT in the classroom. She used ICT as she considered it a way to run the lessons efficiently. Yet, she was very selective about choosing which ICT tools to bring an effective way to her teaching and learning. In this sense, she used ICT but did not rely on it completely.

Research Question 4: How do EFL teachers' possible selves (ideal self and ought-to self) in rural setting influence their use of ICT in TEFL?

The rural school, where Budi and Sarah teach, was equipped with two computer laboratories, three units of radio/tape, and four units of LCD projectors. Those facilities, however, remain unutilized by most teachers in that school. Sarah, an

ought-to self oriented teacher for instance, she rarely used ICT for classroom practices. Alternatively, she mostly had her students use ICT such as browsing internet for homework, and using digital dictionary in classroom. She felt demotivated to learn new technology skills. She assumed that her age was the cause of her inability to learn new things like ICT.

Budi, on the other hand, would utilize the ICT facilities and his own ICT devices. Moreover, although his age range was similar to Sarah, he did not take age as an excuse. He was rather keen on using ICT yet did not really depend on it. The attractive classroom activities seem to be his prominent objective in teaching, as ICT itself is just a tool to support these attractive lessons. Therefore, whenever ICT could not be utilized in any particular classroom, he was still able to maintain fun activities in a conventional way. He opined that attractive lessons can be done in many ways, even without the use of ICT.

5.2   Bridging the Gap of the Previous Research

In chapter 2, I have reviewed previous research pertaining to possible selves, EFL teaching and learning, and use of ICT in educational practices. Throughout the review, I raised some issues from the studies. This present study attempts to fill the previous research gaps (see page 50 for the summary of literature review). The following parts of this section will discuss the previous studies along with the findings of this present study.

5.2.1 EFL Learners' Motivational Self System versus EFL Teachers' Possible Selves

The topic of this present study was initiated based on some issues which appeared in the literature. One of them came from Lamb's (2007, 2012, 2013) studies in Indonesia. As discussed earlier in chapters 1 and 2, Lamb's (2007) study aimed to characterize students' motivation to learn English over the first 20 months of formal study in school. He reported that EFL students' motivation at high school, Indonesia, ebbed and flowed based on who taught them in school (their teachers). Lamb also found that there were still some students who remain motivated to learn English and managed to learn English outside school.

In Lamb's (2012) study, he explored the highly motivated EFL students by employing 'L2 motivational self system' (Dornyei, 2009) theory. Here, Lamb categorized those highly motivated students as ideal L2 self dominant. While, students who half-heartedly learned English in school (to solely avoid bad grades) were considered as ought-to L2 self dominant. Lamb (2012) also compared the urban - rural divide in English language acquisition among learners. In his study, he pointed out that students' motivation was found to be similar in strength and character in the two urban settings but significantly different in the rural setting.

Similarly, this present study found the regional difference in EFL teaching and learning process. In this regard, students in rural area were less motivated to learn English than those in urban area. The reason for students' lack of motivation in rural area, was that, they used their local language on a daily basis to interact each other. Thus, they did not see any value in learning English.

This present study also found that the lack of motivation to learn English among students, in rural area, influenced their behaviour in the classroom. They used to misbehave during the lessons, which, in turn, weakened the teachers' motivation, as this happened to Sarah and Mia during her teaching period in rural schools. The unwanted students' behaviours, however, did not negatively affect all teachers' motivation in rural schools. This appeared to Budi, whose working self-concept was dominated by ideal self.

Interestingly, Lamb's (2007, 2012, 2013) studies also found the same inclination in students. In reverse, he reported that although teachers' behaviour in classroom influence students' motivation to learn English, there were still some students who were not affected by the teachers' behaviour. This is because the students were driven by their 'ideal L2 self'.

Accordingly, as revealed in this present study and Lamb's (2007, 2012, 2013) studies, the ideal selves oriented teachers and students are more likely able to maintain their self-regulation in order to reach what they ideally wanted to achieve. As a result, they undertake any effort they can make despite facing some challenges. Nevertheless, if the ideal self oriented teachers' motivation is stable, why did Sarah who was initially driven by ideal self, turned to ought-to self once she faced misbehaving students? Why was Budi's ideal self not affected by students' misbehaviour?

As discussed earlier in Chapter 4, Budi and Sarah have different motives in pursuing teaching as a career. Sarah pursued teaching as a career for her love of English, while Budi chose to be a teacher for his love of the teaching profession. It is common sense that the love of subject associates with intrinsic motive, which means that the teachers who love the subject have a passion to teach it. However, in some

cases, loving the subject does not always mean loving 'to teach' the subject. As a matter of fact, Hiver (2013) reported that EFL teachers, whose teaching motives for their love of English, were not driven by an underlying goal to help students to thrive. Instead, their decisions for continuously learning were mostly driven by their goals to improve their English language proficiency.

This answers why teachers, whose core motive for the love of the subject, have a lack commitment to teach. Indeed, in this present study, Sarah's unstable motivation was also found in Mia's case. In this case Mia's motivation waned once she faced misbehaving students. In addition, although Mia was dominated by her ideal self during the data collection, her working self-concept remained unstable. Unlike Budi who was enthusiastic teaching in more than one school, Mia did not enjoy having extra classes outside her main school. It appears that the initial motives of becoming a teacher play an important role in maintaining motivation to teach.

5.2.2   EFL Teachers' Motives in Pursuing Teaching as a Career

According to De Cooman, De Gieter, Pepermans, Du Bois, Caers, and Jegers (2007), a motive is defined as an outcome that has become desirable for a given individual. Whatever motives that an individual have, in pursuing or doing something, influence the paths people take in order to attain specific goals that are socially valued (Evans, in Jungert, Alm, & Thornberg, 2014).

Generally, someone who choose teacher as profession experiences two problematic motivation opposing each other. First, spiritual calling to serve for society and humanity is one dominant aspect in this case. Second as the opposite, the motivation as teacher is to get income as realistic needs of life to continue his existence (Sulisworo, Nasir, & Maryani, 2017). Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus

(2014) assumed that the motivation for becoming a teacher is related to engagement in and commitment to the profession.

In chapter 2, I have discussed Kubanyiova's (2006, 2007, 2009) research pertaining to EFL teachers' development through the lenses of possible selves theory. Briefly, during her research, she conducted a 20-hour professional development programme to improve teachers' motivational teaching practices. However, the programme failed to meet the goals. Accordingly, Kubanyiova (2007) figured out the factors behind the failure. She explored participants' language learning and teaching history, motivation to enter teaching profession, and personal history and beliefs about language education.

Subsequently, Kubanyiova (2007) revealed that the primary motives for the participants to become EFL teachers was their love of the subject matter. The second was their need to attain recognition, appreciation, respect, and authority. Whereas, the prominent motive in teaching career (i.e. motivation to teach or facilitating students to learn) did not seem to be the participants' central motives. The participants' motives turned out to be the reason for the professional development programme failed to improve teachers' motivational teaching practices. This is because the participants' personal goals did not align with the programmes' goals.

What has been found by Kubanyiova (2007), is also found in this present study. As indicated previously in Chapter 4, participants' motives, to pursue teaching as a career, appear to be the pivotal drive to maintain their professional qualities.

Another question is, if this present study found students' behaviour can influence teachers' motivation, then what is the factor of teachers' behaviour found by Lamb (2007) which result in students' lack of motivation? The possible explanation to answer this question is that there are some factors behind teachers'

negative behaviour in classroom. One of the factors can be the teachers' non-academic workload, which has been revealed in this present study (i.e. Firman case), and in Kumazawa's (2013) study (will be discussed in the following section).

5.2.3 Novice Teachers' Possible Selves versus Experienced-Teachers' Possible Selves

In 2013, Kumazawa explored four novice EFL teachers in Japan during the first two years of service to examine the relationship between the teachers' occupational motivation and their self-concept in light of possible selves theory. Kumazawa found that the four teachers had ideal teacher self images during their pre-service stages. Their goals were diverse. Yet, they commonly expressed their ambitious goals in an eloquent tone. All showed signs of fresh enthusiasm for teaching.

However, when the four young teachers actually started to work, their ambitious goals met with harsh reality of secondary school teaching. Their in-service teacher selves in the first stage confronted conflicts that quickly led to the weakened effects of their ideal self images and thus negatively affected their motivation. Their tensions came from extensive duties of the schools and negative behaviour of the students. These factors prevented them from pursuing their ideal self images. Accordingly, one of them decided to quit teaching, two of them asked their principals to release them from club duties, and another one reconstructed her initial goals from focusing on improving students' English to disciplining the students (Kumazawa, 2013).

The cases of the four teachers in Japan, reported by Kumazawa (2013), offer some insights into the issue of teacher motivation relevant to the broader international context such as in United States (e.g. Hamman et al., 2013; Kim &

Chao, 2014), in China (e.g. Xu, 2013; Yuan & Zang, 2017), in Canada (e.g. Fernet, Chanal, & Guay, 2017), and in Turkey (Dalioglu & Adiguzel, 2016). In United States, for instance, Kim and Chao (2014) reported that novice teachers feel overwhelmed or frustrated when they find significant discrepancies between what they envisioned as student teachers and what they are actually experiencing during their first year of professional teaching.

Indeed, Hines (2015) reports that one of five teachers, in *United* States, will leave the profession in the first year. That number grows to three of five teachers during the first years. Hines explains that there are numerous stories why teachers leave. One of the stories is that the job may not have been what the educator had idealized. Other factors might be the lack of motivated students, school violence, or long hours of grading and planning that consume one's "life". Those factors that force teachers to abandon their chosen paths, unfortunately, continue to grow.

Previous research, that employed possible selves theory, has demonstrated how novice teachers' working circumstance prevented them from pursuing their ideal self images (e.g. Hamman, 2013; Kumazawa, 2013). For example, when the teacher had a difficult time just to get naughty teenage boys under control, this teacher's lofty ideal self image became hardly achievable (i.e. Kumazawa, 2013). This present study, likewise, reveals similar inclination among the experienced-teachers. In this regard, teacher's initial ideal self surrendered to ought-to self when she began facing misbehaved students.

Many years ago, Smith and Freund (2002) carried out a study about the dynamic interplay of possible selves content in relation to new challenges associated with changes in life circumstance. They attempted to understand the role of future-oriented motivational systems in the maintenance of well-being in very old age.

Smith and Freund pointed out that some self images were stable whereas others were added and deleted over time. Their findings suggested that changes in objective life circumstances play an important role in the dynamics and functioning of possible selves.

In relation to what Smith and Freund (2002) have found, this present study also revealed divergent tendencies in possible selves across lifespan. The changes of participants' possible selves were also influenced by the changes in life circumstance. In Firman's case, for instance, he showed his care for students in his earlier career by running an English meeting club to supplement the students' EFL learning experiences. Yet, as his work circumstance shifted to the school infrastructure, his career orientation became more focused on maintaining the school instead of facilitating his students to learn. In this case, his possible selves as an EFL teacher shifted from ideal self to ought-to self.

Besides changing overtime, this study also revealed that possible selves can change over situations at the same period of time. In this case, a teacher, driven by her ideal self in her main school appeared to be very comfortable with her main school and received positive response from her students. However, in some point, she was also externally imposed by an additional teaching schedule in another school that she must fulfil to meet her teaching credit. According to Dornyei (2005), the extrinsic incentive motives or the less internalised forms of motivation are equivalent to motivation that guided with ought-to self.

Taken together, the changes of possible selves, do not only occur among pre-service and novice teachers, it also occurs among experienced-teachers. This present study reveals that the changes of experienced-teachers' possible selves affect their motivation and classroom practices. In this regard, teachers with dominant ideal

selves appear to have higher motivation in teaching than those with dominant ought-to selves.

Furthermore, in Kumazawa's (2013) study, it was revealed that the conflict between teachers' ideal selves and their job reality can cause them to quit their job. The tendency to "quit", is also found in this study. However, the teacher did not completely leave their career (i.e. Mia's case), but only left her school in the rural area and moved to an urban school. The other teachers, however, remained teaching in the same schools (i.e. Sarah and Firman's cases). Yet, they half-heartedly teach their students, which can also mean that they have less passion for teaching. In other words, they keep doing their teaching routine with less efforts to make the lessons more meaningful.

It might seem fine if the teachers stay with their teaching career despite being dominated by their ought-to selves. Nonetheless, as what have been found in this present study, the ought-to selves dominant, among the teachers, cause boredom and fear on students' learning experiences. The following part will discuss more on how experienced-teachers' possible selves influence their daily teaching routine.

5.3 The Inclination of Teachers' Possible Selves in Daily Teaching Routines

5.3.1 Classroom Management

As what has been described in Chapter 4, each teacher's possible selves category (i.e. ideal self & ought-to self) generates different classroom management. Teachers, who were mostly driven by their ideal selves, were more committed with their teaching and more patient in facing disruptive students, while those who are mostly driven by ought-to selves easily lose control with disruptive students and were less committed with their teaching schedules.

The inclination that occurred with the teachers who are mostly guided by ought-to selves, is the result of incongruence between their ideals and the reality they can not tolerate. Unlike the ideal selves guided teachers, whose working reality aligns with their expectation, the ought-to self oriented teacher, like Sarah, was demoralized with her students who were mostly uninterested with the subject she teaches. Besides, she also felt overwhelmed with her side obligation as homeroom teacher. As a result, her heavy workload made it difficult for her to manage her time. This tendency also occurred in Firman's case (another ought-to self oriented teacher). In this case, Firman felt overwhelmed with his huge duties in school. Thus, he has not enough time for his classes, nor has enough space to relax which led him to become more sensitive dealing with disruptive students.

Another study about teachers' possible selves, carried out by Kumazawa (2013), also shows similar tendencies of dilemmas from the extensive range of duties. Kumazawa reports that the most salient and frequently mentioned conflict was between the teachers' ideal and ought-to selves. Above all, tensions coming from the extensive range of duties prevented the teachers from pursuing their ideal self images. One of Kumazawa's participants confessed that her motivation had decreased under such pressure and expressed her dissatisfaction about her job. As a result of these psychological sufferings, the duties physically bound the teachers' lives, leaving them little time to prepare for their classes, to study for better teaching ideas and methods, and much less time to relax and refresh themselves to regain energy for the next day.

5.3.2   Interpersonal Relationship with Students

Interpersonal relationships between teachers and students are important determinants for students' motivation and engagement (Bieg, Backes, & Mittag, 2011; Wentzel, 2016). In this sense, good interpersonal relationships between a teacher and students can enhance student motivation and result in a productive classroom environment; conversely, a poor interpersonal relationship often reflects a decline in students' motivation for learning (Maulana, Opdenakker, & Bosker, 2014).

According to Frazier and Hooker (2006) possible selves reflect both intra- and inter-personal influences and the interaction among the self and community. More importantly, possible selves are embedded within the ecology (i.e. the reciprocal relationship between the organism and its environment) of the individual. In terms of teachers' interpersonal behaviour, Misbah, Gulikers, Maulana and Mulder (2015) point out that teachers use various communication strategies while teaching their students in the classroom. Some teachers might try to be friendly to their students, while others keep a distance. The study carried out by Soebari and Aldridge (2016) also revealed that tended to be more engaged because their teachers were friendly.

The data from this study show that participants guided by ideal selves have more positive interpersonal relationship with their students. They are more communicative and friendlier with their students. Besides, they also have a sense of humour which leads to a positive atmosphere in the classroom. Roffey (2004) emphasises that humour can be a great way of generating a positive classroom atmosphere. It can enhance interpersonal relationships and a feeling of belonging. Similarly, Mudra (2018) also stated that the use of humour is a great solution for the

learners who have low ability and lack of motivation in learning English. Humour entertains the learners' mind and direct them to the lesson simultaneously.

Kottler and Zehm (2005), additionally, point out that teachers who value humour, who tolerate laughter and fun in their classrooms, are perceived by students as being more interesting and relevant than those who appear grim and humourless. What the scholars state above, are proven in this study. Both ideal selves-guided teachers always bring humour in their class. This is because positive emotion is seen to have a core role in people who are guided by their ideal selves (i.e. Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). Those ought-to selves-guided teachers were mostly less enthusiastic during classroom activities and are more likely to generate tense as they appear grim in classrooms.

5.3.3 Creativity and Motivational Teaching and Learning Practices

In this study, participants who were mostly guided by their ideal selves appeared to be more creative in their classroom practices. They like coming up with various ideas for their classroom activities and are able to motivate their students to engage and enjoy the lessons. While other participants who were driven by ought-to selves, appeared to perform similar classroom activities and have monotonous ways in delivering their lessons. As a result, their students became less motivated and even bored with the lessons.

According to Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006), the ideal self is the core mechanism for self-regulation and intrinsic motivation. It is an evolving, motivational core within the self, focusing a person's desires and hope, aspirations and dreams, purpose and calling. In teaching domain, Susanto (2018) states that motivations are key factors in the success of teaching at all stages of education.

Hence, the teachers play a pivotal role in providing and encouraging that motivation in the learning and teaching environment. In addition, Dornyei (2011) points out that, ideally, teaching has always been associated with the internal desire to educate people, to impact knowledge and values, and to advance a community or a whole nation.

Moreover, Hennessey (2015), reports that hundreds of empirical studies have shown that an intrinsic motivational orientation is a crucial component of the creative process, which also lead to deeper, more long-lasting learning. Susanto (2018), similarly reports that paying attention to the role of motivation in teaching process and developing, enforcing, and strengthening it, can be some effective and helpful factor in the process of learning language. Indeed, as revealed in Hiver's (2013) study, ideal selves become the most prominent element in teachers' drive to engage in long-lasting learning. Similarly, this present study also reveals that teachers who had ideal selves were motivated to continuously learn to maintain and improve their classroom practices, mainly, when it comes to ICT use in TEFL.

5.3.4   Regional Divide in EFL Teaching and Learning

Indonesia is a multilingual country with various local languages and foreign languages (Rini, 2014). The national language, *Bahasa* Indonesia, unifies the various ethnic groups with different languages and cultural backgrounds which serves as an official language at the national level. To equip Indonesians with an ability to communicate at the international level, English is the first foreign language that officially taught in secondary schools (Braine, 2014).

As English becomes the language for international communication, more people use English for various purposes (Jayanti & Norahmi, 2015). Hence, English

language teaching and learning become very marketable at all levels of education (Yulia, 2013). Nevertheless, English language teaching and learning in Indonesia is confronted by particular conditions and challenges (i.e. Sulistiyo, 2016). The rapid growth in linguistically diverse students in rural areas is now a mainstream issue and yet many EFL teachers in rural areas feel unprepared to work productively with their students (Shim, 2013). Kang and Liang (2018) point out that EFL teachers are far from sufficient in rural schools, and thus students are in a more disadvantageous position compared to their peers in the urban area.

Indeed, Songbatumis (2017) also agree that teaching English as a foreign language is challenging task, particularly when it is done in places where English serves a very limited purpose, such as in rural areas. The challenges in EFL teaching and learning in rural areas found in several studies (e.g. Liaw, 2017; Ximena Bonilla & Cruz-Arcila, 2014). Wreikat, Kabilan, and Abdullah (2014), for instance, revealed that majority of schools in rural areas lacked necessary resources, indicating a serious problem that hinders English teaching and learning.

Similarly, Ximena Bonilla and Cruz-Arcila (2014) point out that foreign language teachers in rural areas express that they undergo a lack of resources that is also linked to the limitations they may have when trying to teach English. Mudra (2018) identified that there are many kinds of obstacles experienced by the EFL teachers teaching English in rural schools. The first challenge is classroom management which proves that teaching English is not an easy task for teachers, particularly in managing their classrooms and controlling over their learners. Managing EFL classrooms is influenced by learners' noises, chats, and lack of attention.

Besides problematic issues encountered by teachers, English language is also difficult for students to learn. Hidayati (2018) stated that EFL students often reported that they were frustrated because they kept forgetting the new words, could not understand their teacher, and very nervous to speak in front of others, which indicates as language anxiety. Huang (2016) found EFL teaching and learning issues in rural areas such as low English proficiency, communication problems and lack of learning motivation among EFL students. This is similar to Samaranayake (2016) who found that a majority of students from rural schools demonstrate limited or low proficiency level in English. On the other hand, as what Ahmed (2017) reported, when it comes to improving students' English language performance, students in urban schools performed better than students in rural schools.

In rural schools in Indonesia, the obstacles of teaching English include teachers' control over the classroom, teachers' difficulties in finding learning materials or resources, teaching aids or media, teaching methods, learners' English skills, choice of language use, slow internet connectivity, learners' motivation, evaluation technique, and parents' support (Mudra, 2018). Lamb (2012) likewise acknowledged that none of the rural parents, who participated in his study, were able to articulate the particular ways in which competence in English would help their children, nor did they express views on optimal ways of learning. Although they urged their children to study hard and provided resources for their studies, they were not proactive in facilitating their children to learn.

This present study, similarly, found problematic issues in EFL teaching and learning practices in rural areas. Two EFL teachers who were guided by the ought-to self, in this study, acknowledged that rural schools were not conducive places to teach English. This is because most people use their local language on a daily basis,

as well as, in a formal setting such as in school, business, commerce, or convention. Thus, students in rural areas lack motivation to learn English, as they did not see values in learning the language. On the contrary, EFL teachers in urban areas acknowledged that they did not encounter serious problems with facilitating students to learn English as most of them are highly motivated to learn English. These findings confirmed what Iskandar (2015) found in his study that schools located in cities and suburban areas relatively do not encounter as many problems in English language teaching and learning.

Nevertheless, when we see EFL teaching and learning in teachers' possible selves perspective, this present study revealed that a teacher who is guided by his ideal self, in a rural school, tended to use ICT devices to make the lessons become better.

5.3.5   EFL Teaching and Learning Using ICT

Foreign language teachers are both learners and teachers at the same time. Therefore, foreign language teachers are often considered as one of the best examples of successful committed advanced learners (Demizeren & Ozonder, 2016). In order to learn a foreign language, learners are more likely dependent on a relevant environment or high motivation. This is because most people, who live in non-English speaking countries, rarely use English in daily conversation, especially those who live in rural areas. Huang (2016) reported that more than 50% of students, in rural areas, lacked motivation to learn English. The communities they live in did not rely on English as a main medium for communication. Hence, they lacked integrative motivation for advancement.

Therefore, people who are determined to learn English, tend to take extra efforts such as attending English tuition, learning through books, or using ICT tools. Indeed, ICT becomes the most popular platform to learn English. Lamb (2012, 2013) found this indication, where highly motivated EFL mostly use ICT to learn English. Many other researchers, in fact, suggest that using ICT can improve EFL learners' learning outcomes and can increase EFL learners' engagement (e.g. Arslan & Sahin-Kizil, 2010; Hsu, Wang, & Comac, 2008; Lizasoain & Becchi, 2014). Al-Munawwarah (2015), for instance, reported that the use of ICT is recommended to be applied for teachers in teaching English as a foreign language. This is because ICT can be an effective supplementary material to make the learning process more appealing for the students.

The role of technology has undergone a rapid development in many English Language Teaching (ELT) contexts worldwide (Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2015). This is because integrating ICT in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) methodology class enables the students get more experience, knowledge and understanding (Tristiana & Rosyida, 2018). The power of the ICT for EFL learning is no longer in question. The EFL learners who are able to access ICT will be offered with more learning activities such as online reading, online conversations, and online games. They will experience some activities as if they are in a real English community (Mudra, 2018).

Consequently, EFL teachers are most frequently recommended to use ICT in their educational practices. There is a wealth of literature that discusses the benefits of using ICT in ELT, such as blogging (e.g. Asmawi & Mohd Jaladin, 2015; Hamuddin & Dahler, 2018; Vurdien, 2013), Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) (e.g. Khezrlou & Ellis, 2017; Mei, Brown, & Teo, 2017), Mobile Assisted

Language Learning (MALL) (e.g. Hsu, 2013; Nielson, 2017), not to mention, online resources from texts, pictures, audio to videos that can be retrieved in a millisecond for free. It has been reported by Tristiana and Rosyida (2018) that more than eighty percent of students responded that they felt more motivated in learning TEFL materials by using ICT.

Evidently, abundance computer and mobile applications have been developed to support English language teaching. Nevertheless, in some cases, those ICT tools remain absent in teachers' classroom practices. This present study, for instance, found EFL classroom activities without any implementation of ICT device despite being surrounded by such facilities in the school. It is indicated that, the factors behind the absence of ICT use in classroom, are not solely for negative reasons, but for positive reasons as well.

As this present study has revealed, each teacher has his/her own reasons for teaching with or without ICT use in classroom such as in the case of 'ideal selves' oriented teachers (Mia and Budi). In this regard, even though Mia and Budi were active ICT users, they both used ICT differently. They also did not constantly use ICT in educational practices. For example, Budi had his students use LCD projector and PowerPoint to do presentations. Mia, by contrast, preferred her students to do presentations without any visual aids. A probable explanation for this, might be that, Budi used visual aids to attract students' classroom engagement, as most students in his school (rural area) lacked motivation to learn English. Whereas for Mia, using visual aids to attract students' attention was not necessary since most students (in the urban school) were highly motivated to learn English.

Nevertheless, this present study also revealed 'ought-to selves' inclination of EFL classroom practices with or without ICT use. For example, in Firman's case, the

use of ICT in his classroom practices was solely demonstrated to meet observer's expectations during the data collection. In this sense, he repeatedly used similar ICT devices with the same lessons and strategies during the first two observations. While during the third observation, he did not use ICT and did not fully attend the class as he had administrative demands to work on. The tendency of half-hearted involvement during the research project is also found by White and Ding (2009), where teachers who are motivated by an 'ought-to self' had minimal involvement with the e-learning training programme. This inclination, of half-hearted involvement, indicates external drive to merely meet someone else's expectation. Kubanyiova (2007) points out that external motivated possible self refers to ought-to self category.

Additionally, in this present study, the minimal use of ICT in classroom practices for avoidance tendencies was revealed in another ought-to self orientated teacher, Sarah. In this case, Sarah prefers undertaking her lesson in a conventional way by merely depending on whiteboard and textbooks. This is because, for Sarah, ICT is very difficult to learn. She was concerned about making technical mistakes in front of her students whom she thought know better than she does. Moreover, using ICT in the classroom required her to take extra efforts, as she did not normally use it in her teaching routine.

Thus far, it has been discussed that most studies in the field of ICT use in teaching, particularly in EFL teaching and learning, have only focused on the benefit of using ICT. Thus, when teachers do not use ICT, the teachers tend to be assumed as technophobic (e.g. Marcial & Rendal, 2014) which tend to be connotated as a deviated attitude. In other words, the absence of ICT in classroom practices hampers successful teaching and learning.

This present study, however, has revealed that the absence of ICT in educational practices does not always adverse the teaching and learning process. Likewise, the existence of ICT did not always bring significant benefits into students' learning experiences. In fact, Vrasidas and Glass (2005) report that there is inconsistent evidence whether ICT can improve conventional teaching and learning. The following section will discuss the inconsistent findings about factors behind ICT use in education.

5.4 Inconsistent Findings from Previous Research about Factors behind Teachers' Use of ICT in Teaching

The use of ICT plays a pivotal role in broadening access to information from all over the globe (Potnis, 2015). Recent developments in information and communication technologies have brought significant changes in many aspects of our daily lives, as well as in the field of education. These developments have an impact on teachers, students, and schools particularly in teaching and learning process (Semerci & Aydın, 2018). Many parties believe that the use of ICT in classroom practices has been one of the best solutions for teachers to make teaching and learning processes more interesting, effective and efficient (e.g. Elmunsyah, 2012; Meltzer, 2012; Samuel & Bakar, 2006). Yet, the ICT integration remains absent in teachers' classrooms. In fact, many studies found some teachers still refusing to use ICT. Hence, many researchers are intrigued to figure out factors behind teachers' reluctance in using ICT (i.e. Lin, Huang, & Chen, 2014).

Subsequently, factors such as negative attitudes towards ICT, lack of technical support, time, access, age and competence have been identified as barriers to ICT use in education (e.g. Kopcha, 2012; Petko, 2012; Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2015).

However, these factors appear to be inconsistent across the previous research findings. The following parts will further discuss each factor revealed in the previous research.

5.4.1   Teachers' Attitudes towards ICT Use

In general, attitudes can be defined as an element that guides an individual's behaviour, integrity and consistency in the feelings, thoughts and behaviours of an object (Tavsancil, in Semerci & Aydın, 2018). While attitude towards ICT refers to the teachers' general feeling of favourable or unfavourable for the use of ICT in teaching and learning process (Lawrence & Tar, 2018).

A common line of research during the last decades has focused on teachers' attitudes towards ICT use in teaching (Salem & Mohammadzadeh, 2018). Many scholars hold the view that teachers' attitudes towards ICT influence their use of ICT. In this sense, teachers who have positive attitudes towards ICT tend to implement ICT in their classroom, while those who have negative attitudes appear to be the least users of ICT (e.g. Baek, Zhang, & Yun, 2017; Sang, Valcke, van Braak, & Tondeur, 2010; Teo & Noyes, 2011; van Braak, Tondeur, & Valcke, 2004; Wang, Guo, Hu, & Gu, 2017).

Chiu and Churchill (2015), for instance, found that teachers would use ICT devices, as they held positive attitude. Rodliyah (2018), similarly, pointed out the same conclusion. She found that teachers were self-motivated to use ICT in their English lessons due to their interests and positive attitudes towards ICT. Nair, Rahim, Setia, Husin, Sabapathy, Mohamad, and Huda (2012) also concluded that teachers' attitudes influence the ICT use among teachers in the classroom. Sipilia

(2010), likewise, point out that teachers' attitudes towards the use of ICTs in schools are significant factors in determining how technology is used in schools.

On the other hand, other scholars reported that although teachers have positive attitudes towards ICT, the implementation of ICT in classroom remains absent (e.g. Aydin, 2013; Chikasa et al., 2014; Koppi et al., 2008; Perbawaningsih, 2013; Raman & Yamat, 2014). Ndibalema (2014), for instance, found that teachers have positive attitudes towards the use of ICT as a pedagogical tool, but they did not integrate it in their teaching effectively. Likewise, Kamilah and Anugerahwati (2017) point out that although teachers have positive attitudes, they did not implement ICT in their teaching. This is caused by their lack of ICT competence and pedagogical knowledge. In fact, many of the teachers are aware of their lack but unwilling to improve their teaching practices.

This present study, likewise, reveals that all four participants have positive attitudes and showed their interest towards ICT. They all acknowledge the existence of ICT and its benefit in educational activities. Yet, only two of them remain active in using ICT in classrooms. Additionally, Kamilah and Anugerahwati (2017) found inconsistency between the teacher's attitudes towards the integration of ICT in TEFL. Kamila and Anugerahwati reported that even though teachers have positive views towards ICT use in TEFL, they did not use ICT in their teaching practices.

Other findings in Indonesia come from a study by Silviyanti and Yusuf (2015). Their study suggests that even though teachers are aware that the use of ICT is becoming more essential nowadays, their motivation to use ICT remains low. Silviyanti and Yusuf report that the teachers' barriers from using ICT were rooted from the lack of training and support. Similarly, Aydin (2013) reported that although teachers have positive attitudes towards ICT integration, the teachers still did not use

ICT due to their little competence and skill. Thus, they experienced difficulties using the software programmes, and that they suffered from a lack of technical support. In recent study carried out by Rodliyah (2018) also reported that event though teachers have positive attitudes and able to use ICT, they still lack ICT competence that somehow hinder them to use ICT tools in teaching.

With that being said, if teachers already have competence, skill and technical supports, do they use ICT in educational practices? The following part attempts to answer the question.

5.4.2 ICT Competence and Technical Supports

It is a common sense that using ICT in educational activities requires two main aspects: the practical knowledge and the technical supports. Without these two aspects, the integration of ICT would not be exist. Concurrently, a number of scholars claim the importance of ICT competence and technical supports to promote ICT use in educational practices (e.g. Buabeng-Andoh & Totimeh, 2013; Røkenes & Krumsvik, 2014). Almerich, Orellana, Suárez-Rodríguez, & Díaz-García (2016), for instance point out that teachers' competences are a key variable to integrate ICT into the teaching process.

According to Lawrence and Tar (2018), the integration of ICT into teaching and learning is, somehow, complex. The integration of ICT with various internal applications used in teaching and learning increases the level of complexity by several orders of magnitude; such complexities inhibit teachers from adopting and integrating ICT. Thus, ICT competence is an important requirement for teachers to have. Indeed, Sipila (2014) suggests that teachers, who have advanced ICT competence, use ICT in classroom frequently.

Unfortunately, there is inconsistency in the literature about ICT competence and facilities in promoting ICT integration (e.g. Petko, 2012; Syvänen, Mäkiniemi, Syrjä, Heikkilä-Tammi & Viteli, 2016). Talvid (2014), for instance, found the hesitance among teachers in using ICT despite years of experience with laptops in the classrooms, extensive training and coaching. In addition, Lawrence and Tar (2018) found that providing teachers with excellent ICT facilities may not influence them to use it in their teaching. Similarly, Semerci and Aydın (2018) also revealed that there is no significant difference between teachers' ICT experience and their willingness to use ICT. Kafyulilo, Fisser, and Voogt (2016) also reported that although teachers have gained knowledge and skills through professional development programmes and were positive about ICT use in teaching, only some teachers continued the use of ICT in teaching practices.

This present study, in fact, reveals that technical support is not the main factor that promotes teachers to use ICT. Even though teachers were surrounded by ICT devices in their schools, and have adequate ICT competence, they still implement a traditional way to teach. In this study, there are two kind of tendencies behind the absence of ICT use among the participants regardless of their ICT competence and technical supports. The first tendency is by focusing on the value of students' learning experiences. This inclination was found in teachers with dominant ideal selves. For example, Mia declined to use ICT for presentation as she wanted to focus on students' English speaking skill instead of the content the students presented.

The second tendency is a resistance from investing extra efforts on ICT use which appeared in teachers with dominant ought-to selves. For example, in Firman's case, he tended to do similar lessons since his passion in teaching has been drained.

Thus, he had lack of motivation to attempt different kind of strategies in classroom by using ICT. This is because, as elaborated by Dornyei (2009), ought-to self is a representation of someone else's sense of duties, obligations or moral responsibilities, and which therefore may bear little resemblance to one's own desires or wishes.

5.4.3 Age

Some studies concluded that younger teachers are better than senior teachers in terms of ICT integration in school (e.g. Jones, 2004; Kiridis, Drossos, & Tsakiridou, 2006; Prensky, 2001). Samad, Wahab, Othman, and Ali (2016), for example, found that new teachers tend to use ICT software and equipment more as compared to experienced teachers. Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, and Davis (2003), likewise, point out that older teachers are less likely to use ICT in teaching practices. O'bannon & Thomas (2014) also found that older teachers were less likely to own ICT tools and were less enthusiastic about the ICT features.

However, Mueller, Wood, Willoughby, Ross, and Specht (2008) suggest that teachers at all stages of their career were equally able to integrate ICT into their classroom. Additionally, Prestridge (2012), found her research participant who is close to retirement age, and another participant who has been teaching for over 10 years, present themselves as both competent with ICT and interested in using ICT in their classrooms. Prestridge reported that the senior teachers, who use ICT in teaching, are driven by the need to ensure that his students are computer literate, in both their technical and critical literacy skills. Similarly, Quan-Haase, Martin and Schreurs (2016) pointed out that when seniors are presented with technologies that are beneficial to their way of life, they tend to adopt them more readily.

What the previous researchers found above (e.g. Prestridge, 2012; Quan-Haase et al., 2016) is also found in this present study, whereby senior teachers, who have been teaching for more than two decades, were actively using ICT in their classroom practices. Echoing what this present study found, recent study carried out by Gil-Flores, Rodríguez-Santero and Torres-Gordillo (2017) did not find significant relationship between age and ICT use in teaching. Likewise, Kamilah and Anugerahwati (2017) found that age is not be a true determiner for an EFL teacher's use of ICT in teaching. Based on their findings, Kamilah and Anugerahwati reported that it is not completely true that the older teachers will integrate lesser technology into their teaching practice, and they are less competent than the younger teachers. Rather, it has something to do with teachers' willingness to learn more and do improve their skills.

Nevertheless, the reason for not using ICT because of the age factor was indeed, indicated in this study. Based on the findings of this present study, not all senior teachers were active users of ICT. One of the non-active users of ICT (Sarah) perceived that she had difficulties learning to use ICT because of her old age (age range 46-50). One question that needs to be asked, if age is one of the factors behind ICT use in education, why were the other senior teachers, in this study, able to use ICT in their classroom practices?

To the best of my knowledge, Sarah's resistance to learn ICT is not because of her age, but because of her self-concept. As Owen and Samblanet (2013) believed that self-concept is a social creation molded by a person's interactions with others. In this sense, her self-concept was more likely formed by negative past experiences in using ICT that brought her into conclusion that she is old and cannot learn new things like ICT.

Chen (2012), likewise, emphasized that most senior people have a hard time learning new things, but it is not because of their age. It is because they make the conscious decision to stop learning even though they may not realize it. In the other words, they come to believe that they are too old to learn. In terms of ICT use, Akçayır, Dündar, and Akçayır (2016) concluded that age should not be considered a determining factor for whether or not an individual able to use ICT. Those who invest sufficient time, effort to learn, and earn the requisite experience would be able to use ICT regardless of their age.

Let us set aside the senior people for a while. How about a ten-year-old child who is repetitively told by her parents or teachers that "she is stupid". If this child accepted that negative suggestion from others, he would form a self-concept that he is stupid. Hence, whenever he is given a task that challenges his cognition, he would refuse to do it, because he already has this self-concept that he is stupid and cannot undertake a challenging task.

This is also true to senior people who think that they are old enough to learn new things like technology. It seems to make sense, because most people believe that our brain capability to receive and digest new information become weaker and weaker as we get older. Botwinick (2013) pointed out that there is a recurrent notion that advancing age is associated with a relative inability to learn new things, not so much because of a reduced learning capacity, but because of prior learning which persists even when no longer effective. Botwinick opines that the more incompatible the new is with the old, the more the elderly are presumed to be at a disadvantage.

As a matter of fact, in recent years, there are some evidences to suggest that human's ability to learn new things can happen whether early or late in life. This is because there are one hundred billion nerve cells that connect to one another through

synapses; that at least 200 new nerve cells are created in the memory region alone each day, all through life. In other words, the brain is in a state of constant change (Prehn & Fredens, 2011). By definition, we can learn new things, like technology, no matter what our age.

5.4.4   Regional Divide in ICT Use in Teaching

In the past two decades, ICT has progressively acquired a prominent role in teaching and learning. Most countries have made huge public investments in the purchase and maintenance of ICT related educational devices. As a result, the majority of developed countries have reached high rates of school ICT access (Comi, Argentin, Gui, Origo, & Pagani, 2017). However, there are persistent and growing differences in ICT infrastructure between urban and rural areas (Salemink, Strijker, & Bosworth, 2017). Rahimpour and Kiani (2015) stated that urban participants had a better performance in ICT use compared to rural participants. Li and Ranieri (2013), likewise, reported that rural areas are considerably more likely to report lower levels of ICT access than urban areas. Sampath and Shiva (2018) also point out that the use of ICT in rural schools was only 20.66 percent, and the use of ICT in urban schools was 96.7 percent. This shows that the percentage of ICT use in rural settings is much less compared to ICT use in urban settings.

Although internet and broadband penetration have increased, and the digital divide issue has become less significant, rural areas continue to be at a persistent digital disadvantage when compared to their urban counterparts (Park, 2017). Some of the factors are technical supports (lack of internet access, electricity) and human resources (skills, competence, and knowledge) (i.e. Park & Kim, 2015; Phahlamohlaka & Lotriet, 2018; Stern, Adams, & Elsasser, 2009).

In the educational setting, rural districts have unique challenges relative to their adoption of ICT in classrooms (Al-Maagbeth, 2015; Salmasi, Boyandi, Alavinia, 2015; Sundeen & Sundeen, 2013). Khumalo, Molepo, and Mji (2015), likewise, reported that rural educators painted a bleak picture regarding lack of ICT facilities in schools. Tripathi, Singh & Kumar (2012) state that some of the reasons for the lack of ICT implementation in rural areas are electricity, communication, transportation and lack of knowledge about new technology. Hence, ICT was not used in schools to educate learners due to the absence of facility such as computer.

In Indonesia, the implementation of ICT in educational practices is mostly based in big cities, whereas in small cities and rural areas, the utilization of ICT in schools is still limited in schools (i.e. Maulida & Lo, 2013; Rachmawati, 2017). A recent study carried out by Mudra (2018) showed that unavailability of proper aids or media was a more serious challenge for teaching EFL in rural schools. Integration of ICT as teaching and learning media has not been widely practised in many rural schools. The absence of ICT might cause learners to be left behind and to be distant from comprehensive and disseminated information.

In fact, in this present study, the schools in urban setting were equipped with more and better ICT facilities than in the rural setting. The urban schools are equipped with multi computer laboratories, language laboratories, multimedia aids, easier and faster internet connection, whereas rural schools are merely equipped with one computer laboratory and have intermittent electricity connection.

However, in terms of the teachers' possible selves (i.e. ideal self and ought-to self), an ideal self oriented teacher, in rural school, is surprisingly the most active user of ICT among the participants. Even though the school lacked ICT resources, the teacher (Budi) managed to utilize ICT by using his own laptop. He used ICT as

he was driven to improve his students' enthusiasm to learn English. The plausible reason for this was because students in rural areas lacked motivation to learn English. It is indicated that ICT is a great platform to stimulate students' engagement in classrooms. Indeed, during the classroom observation, Budi's students were really engaged with the lessons and enjoyed the classroom activities, particularly with the presence of ICT.

On the other hand, the ought-to self oriented teacher (Firman), who teaches in urban schools with adequate ICT facilities, rarely used ICT in educational practices. He preferred to implement traditional classroom activities instead. This is because using ICT in classrooms seizes a lot of his time, as he tended to invest his time more for his administrative duties. How Budi used ICT in TEFL in a rural setting has become realization by Salemink, Strijker, & Bosworth (2017), who point out that rural communities are most in need of improved ICT supports to compensate for their remoteness, yet they are least connected and included.

5.4.5 Teachers' Beliefs on ICT Use in Teaching

There is a growing body of research literature suggesting that the beliefs that teachers hold directly affect their use of ICT (e.g. Budiman, 2018; Kim et al., 2013; Tondeur, van Braak, Ertmer, & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2017). In this case, teachers with more traditional beliefs will implement more traditional or "low-level" ICT uses, whereas teachers with more constructivist beliefs will implement more "high-level" ICT uses (Roehrig et al., in Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010).

In this case, experienced-teachers are likely to have strong pedagogical beliefs built from their previous experiences in the classroom (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010). Knowing other teachers who use blogs in their practice, for

instance, does not mean that a teacher will believe that blogs are beneficial tool for use in their classroom. This is because beliefs are formed by non-consensus, and stem from affective and emotive evaluations as well as personal experiences (Prestridge, 2012).

For some reasons, the experienced-teachers have started their career with traditional teaching practices, and it has been working well with their students. In Hargreaves's (2005) study, one young teacher described how older teachers just hate changes. This young teacher stated that "the way senior teachers teach has successfully done for twenty years, that is why they keep going in the same old way". Another teacher in Hargreaves's study stated that senior teachers seemed to have "no interest in the technical side at all" of changes such as ICT-based instruction and preferred to stick with their routines.

However, what Hargreaves (2005) reported in his study, does not consistently occurred to all senior teachers. In fact, this present study has found a senior teacher who has eagerness to integrate ICT into his instruction. Mueller et al., (2008) and Prestidge (2012) have also found similar indication of ICT use among senior/experienced-teachers, which has discussed earlier.

Many researchers, recently, relate this case (i.e. ICT use/refusal among experienced-teachers) with teachers' beliefs system (e.g. Ertmer et al., 2012; Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Kim, Kim, Lee, Spector, & DeMeester, 2013; Ottenbreit-Leftwich et al., 2010; Prestridge, 2012). They concluded that teacher beliefs, among other factors, influenced their technology integration practices (Kim et al., 2013).

As a result, teachers with strong beliefs, of traditional teaching instruction, are more likely to persist in their attempts to integrate ICT (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-

Leftwich, 2010; Ottenbreit-Leftwich et al., 2010). On the other hand, teachers with strong beliefs of ICT use, to meet their specific educational purposes, are more likely to use ICT even when barriers existed (Snoeyink & Ertmer, 2002).

The reason is because beliefs have strong impact in influencing behaviour (Nespor, in Prestridge, 2012). Teachers' behaviour does not change without changes in beliefs (Ng, Nicholas, & Williams, 2010). Yet, some researchers remain to question "how to change a belief?" (Prestridge, 2012), as what we believe about ourselves relates to our past experiences, which are resistant to change (Ertmer, 2005; Prestridge, 2012).

If we see 'beliefs' from a psychological perspective, an organized collection of beliefs about ourselves is known as self-concept. These beliefs, also called self-schemas, are developed from past experiences and are concerned with one's personality traits, abilities, physical features, values, goals, and social roles (Campbell, Assanand, & DiPaula, 2000). People have self-schemas on dimensions that are important to them, including both strengths and weaknesses (Weiten & Lloyd, 2006). Thus, self-schemas are believed to result from efforts to organize, summarize, or explain one's own behaviour in particular domains, or along a particular dimension (Markus, in Libby & Eibach, 2007).

In this case, how the previous researchers (e.g. Ertmer et al., 2012; Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Kim, Kim, Lee, Spector, & DeMeester, 2013; Ottenbreit-Leftwich et al., 2010; Prestridge, 2012) interpreted the teachers' beliefs towards ICT use in education, merely focused on the perspective of 'self-concept', in which, according to Neisser (in Libby & Eibach, 2007), is built from experiences that influence the way we interpret, organize, communicate, and remember information, that led to our current behaviour.

What the researchers above missed, is that "our behaviour is directed not only by cognitive representations of the way we think of ourselves at the moment, based upon past experiences, but also by representations of what we might become" (Burger, 2008: p.434). These ideas, of what people may become, are described well in possible selves theory as a type of self knowledge pertaining to how individuals think about their potential and about their future that influence their current behaviour (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

5.4.6 Why Teachers do not Act on their Beliefs when It Comes to ICT Integration?

Of late, ICT growth has become more and more overwhelming. Most ICT developers or manufacturers tend to build products with promising benefits that extremely make our activities effortless. Take digital dictionaries, for instance, that have been overwhelmingly available on smartphones application stores to facilitate language learners. These digital dictionaries (e.g. smartphone applications) have made the hardcover version stands still and remains dusty on a bookshelf. We no longer need to spend more time to search for meaning of words. All we have to do is tap our fingertips or mention the words using the voice recognition feature. In terms of size and weight, digital dictionary is more likely to win language learners' heart. Let alone, with the extra features such as the pronunciation of words.

These digital dictionaries, and their benefits, are just a tiny example of why ICT has been claimed a powerful tool in facilitating educational activities. Hence, many parties (e.g. government, schools, and scholars) have been working hand in hand to encourage teachers to use ICT in their classroom practices. Yet, as reported

in several studies, there are still some teachers who feel reluctant to use ICT in their classroom.

For example, Kopcha (2012), pointed out that there is an apparent gap between the amount of technology available in today's classrooms and teachers' use of technology for instructional purposes. Kim et al. (2013), likewise, reported that even though all teachers have received ICTs, professional development workshops, and technical and pedagogical assistance, the levels of teachers' ICT use were not at par. Tallvid (2016) discovered five patterns in the explanations for teachers reluctance from implementing ICT in teaching: lack of technical competence, not worth the effort, insufficient material, diminishing control and lack of time.

Kim et al. (2013) explained that after teachers attended a professional development training together, acquired necessary knowledge and skills with confidence, and are convinced to use their interactive whiteboard, yet, the teachers used ICT devices differently. For example, as reported by Hall (in Kim et al., 2013), some teachers use an interactive whiteboard only to project content while others use the board to support interactive student inquiry processes. Kim et al. (2013) argued that using an interactive whiteboard just to present information without any interaction has no real pedagogical advantages over traditional whiteboards. These researchers wondered why they use their interactive whiteboard differently?

Kim et al. (2013) attempted to answer the question above by investigating teachers' beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning. However, they acknowledged that "some other researchers argue that teachers do not always act on their beliefs when it comes to ICT integration. Even when teachers have appropriate beliefs, they may still not integrate technology in effective, efficient, and engaging ways." (p.83).

Accordingly, Kim et al. (2013) suggested that future studies should examine teachers' actions that are not grounded in beliefs. Also, they suggested researchers to investigate changes in beliefs over time along with changes in technology integration practices, and to better understand the dynamics of belief and practices when it comes to ICT use among teachers.

In response to the studies by Kim et al. (2013) and by other researchers, who investigated teachers' beliefs on ICT use (e.g. Prestridge, 2012; Ertmer et al., 2012), this present study revealed what Kim et al. were concerned about. It is not teachers' beliefs that play an important role in determining teachers' use of ICT, but it is their possible selves.

5.5 Change is Possible in Possible Selves

Besides representing future self, possible selves are also derived from representations of the self in the past. They are different and separable from the current or now selves, yet are intimately connected to them (Markus & Nurius, 1986). For example, past failures may make it harder to articulate both what successes would look like in a particular domain and which strategies are likely to be effective. Past success, on the other hand, may make it easier to articulate both what successes would look like and which steps are needed to attain desired possible self (Lee & Oyserman, 2012). This can explain why teachers who have strong beliefs about traditional teaching tend to refuse ICT use in education.

Many authors view the 'self' as a key component in understanding an individual's goal setting and goal striving. Some researchers use terms 'ideal self' or 'possible self' when talking about a person's aspirations and striving (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2005). In this case, goals are formed as part of the constructing

component of possible selves. A desired-possible self, for instance, may provide individuals with a coherent vision of type of person they most want to become. Thus, as they try to move towards becoming certain desired self, they may construct a series of situational goals in order to move the self forward, towards the possible self end goal (Vernon, 2004).

In the teaching career domain, when a new pedagogical approach or tool is presented, teachers make value judgments about whether that approach or tool is relevant to their goals. The more valuable they judge an approach or tool to be, the more likely they are to use it. This is particularly true to ICT use in teaching (Zhao, Pugh, Sheldon, & Byers, 2002). As what have been found in this study, a participant refused to incorporate ICT for students' presentation, as she was more focused on improving students' English communication skill rather than their presentation content.

With that being said, teachers' beliefs and behaviours towards ICT in education are not only driven from their past experiences, but also guided by what kind of teacher that they aspire to be, or in short, their possible selves. That means that "change is possible", because, unlike past-selves that cannot possibly change, possible selves are malleable and can be altered by intervention. This is because possible selves are interconnected with future self images and are able to change.

5.6   Theoretical Implication of Teachers' Possible Selves and Their Use of ICT in TEFL

5.6.1   Self System in Regulating Behaviour

Possible selves were initially characterized as constituents of a dynamic self-system with implications for behaviour (Hoyle & Sherrill, 2006). A vast amount of psychological research supports the claim that the self provides a principle organizing function in human behaviour (Rhodewalt & Peterson, 2008). A unique aspect of human behaviour is the ability to regulate and control thoughts and actions, which is commonly referred to as self-regulation (Heatherton et al., 2007).

Self-regulation is broadly defined as those actions directed at modifying a system's present state or activity and which are necessary either because that state (or activity) is diverting from a previously set goal or because the goal itself needs to be changed (Demetriou, 2005). The self-regulation process starts when a social cue signals or events are self-relevant. This may include a variety of situations and events and usually involves the behaviour of other people who are more or less important to the individual (Rhodewalt & Peterson, 2008).

Although moment-to-moment experience might be dominated by people's experience of themselves in the present, they readily conjure images of themselves from the past and imagine themselves in the future. Moreover, these past selves, and the imagined future selves to which they often give rise, are consequential components of the self-system that likely plays a key role in the ongoing behaviour (Hoyle & Sherrill, 2006).

5.6.2   The Self Regulatory System among Teachers

In the realm of education, self-regulatory skills have been found to be associated with the students' achievement and motivation. Since research has indicated student self-regulatory behaviours to be critical for academic achievement, it is plausible that the teacher self-regulatory behaviours would positively influence teacher educational practices as well (i.e. Ghanizadeh, 2011). In this sense, it is commonly agreed that self-regulated learners seek to accomplish academic goals strategically and manage to overcome obstacles they encounter (Randi & Corno, 2005). This is because the enjoyment during learning tasks is associated with more interest and effort in learning. All of these indicate positive appraisals of the learning task, which would support self-regulation in learning (i.e. Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, & Perry, 2002).

In teacher self regulatory system, especially when confronted with challenges, some teachers seem to be out of control and find it difficult to set and enforce limits on people's demands of them. They are often discouraged and demoralized, sometimes even embittered. Other teachers seem to find ways to take things in stride, to immunize themselves against the inevitable undesired elements that inhibit schools. They do not only manage challenges that others find daunting, but even flourish because of them (Kottler & Zehm, 2005).

The question is, how is it that two teachers who do pretty much the same job, sharing identical responsibilities and working with the same population of students, can react differently to what they have experienced? As discussed earlier, this present study also found the same inclination, where two teachers, who teach in the same school, react differently towards misbehaving students. It is revealed that both

teachers were dominated by different types of possible selves. One was dominated by ideal self, while another one was dominated by ought-to self.

These two types of working self-concepts (ideal self and ought-to self) appear to generate a different self regulatory system. In this sense, ideal self tends to undertake action to meet a different level of standards than the ought-to self does. According to Vohs and Schmeichel (2007), standards are ideals, norms, obligations, or other guidelines that represent the end goal that people seek to meet when they engage in self-regulation. Vohs and Schmeichel explained that when a person becomes aware of a standard that he/she wants to meet, an assessment is done to check whether the goal is currently being met. If it is, no self-regulation is needed. If the standard is not being met, then there is a discrepancy that needs to be closed and therefore self-regulation is needed.

5.6.3 Teachers' Self System in ICT Integration

Oosterwegel and Oppenheimer (1993) believed that "the dynamic of the self-system is a result of individual motives and environmental influences" (p.33). As discussed earlier, teachers tend to have different reactions towards any challenge they face in their working realms. Their reactions are based upon their self-concepts, their possible selves (imagined future selves) and their current situation. Tiggelaar (2007) pointed out that our behaviour is active, planned, conscious, and driven by our intention (our plans for the future). At the same time, our behaviour is reactive, unconscious, and is largely driven by direct circumstances; by the situation in which we find ourselves at a given time.

To better understand teachers' possible selves and their use of ICT in TEFL, this study suggests that ICT use in TEFL did not influence teachers' possible selves. However, teachers' possible selves can influence their use of ICT in TEFL. In this sense, the teacher's ideas towards ICT use are influenced by his/her self-concept and situation, which, in turn, lead to a projection of him/her future self (ideal or ought-to). This projection generates promotion or prevention motives that finally lead to self-regulation or behaviour. This is because when we imagine our future self, the images or vision we create will undoubtedly link to our current self-concept about what is true and possible.

Furthermore, this present study also employed two categories that define possible selves in particular (i.e. ideal selves and ought-to selves). In this context, ideal self belongs to a teacher who intrinsically uses ICT with an aim to bring meaningful learning experiences. Teachers who belong to this category are selective in using ICT for their classroom practices. They only use particular ICT tools that can bring a significant value into their students' learning experiences. Ought-to self, on the other hand, belongs to teachers who use ICT only when they are assigned to use it, or take the benefits of ICT to merely pass through the lesson, without targeting a meaningful lesson. In this sense, when teachers lose their passion in teaching, they tend to use ICT as a shortcut to get through the lesson without considering making the lesson more meaningful.

Thus far, this present study has extended possible selves theory into ICT use in teaching which is defined as individual's ideas of how ICT is perceived and interpreted in facilitating educational practices, particularly in teaching English as a foreign language.

5.7 Practical Implications of the Study

This study has involved experienced-teachers to study their possible selves and their use of ICT in education. It is considered to extend earlier studies that raised issues about teachers' reluctant in using ICT in classroom practices, which mostly occurred among senior teachers (e.g. Samad, Wahab, Othman, & Ali, 2016). However, in the near future, the reluctance in ICT use can possibly occur in younger or novice teachers, due to the constant and rapid growth of ICT.

5.7.1 Implications for Teachers Possible Selves

"We need visions and images of the future that spark hope and action, or else we perish." (Prehn & Fredens, 2011: p.98). This quote represents how possible selves should become the key consideration when it comes to teacher education and professional development programmes. In this regard, the theory should be included in the curriculum of pre-service teacher programmes (e.g. Hamman, et al., 2013; Kumazawa, 2013). Likewise, the professional development programme's goals should be relevant to participants' possible selves as teachers (i.e. Hiver, 2013; Kubanyiova, 2007).

It is commonly believed that teachers' professional development is identical with teacher change (e.g. Guskey, 2002; Romi, Salkovsky, & Lewis, 2016). In possible selves domain, Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) proposed that the ideal self is the driver of intentional change in one's behaviour, emotions, perceptions, and attitudes. They explain that the ideal self serves a mechanism linked to self-regulation; it helps to organize the will to change and direct it, with positive affect from within the person. Deep positive effect creates an affective tone of the specific cognitive processes that take place in the formulation and nourishment of the ideal

self. The result harnesses the will or drives for self direction, intentional change, and desired future accomplishments, or in selected cases provide the energy to maintain and sustain current ideal states in life and work.

Admittedly, maintaining ideal self is somehow uneasy for teachers. This is because "the harsh reality of the place where teachers work may be somewhat different." (Bucker & Castle, 2014: p.270). Kottler and Zehm (2005) listed a number of following sources of teachers' common conflicts: (1) *What others do to teachers*, such as difficult students, incompetent administrators, unsupportive colleagues or family, and conflicted school policy; (2) *What a teacher does to him/herself*, such as his/her own fears of failure, self-doubts, insecurities, and negative attitudes.

Interestingly, it is the second source above that teachers are in a position to do the most about. Teachers cannot make the administrator change his/her behaviour. They are not in a position to alter the economic realities of district budget or school resources. They have little control over things like the schedule, workload, and class size. They cannot even choose the students they prefer to teach (Kottler & Zehm, 2005). Mangali and Hamdan (2015) explained that most of the time, teachers stand on their own foot when it comes to implementing educational policy. In other words, they should be able to design and adapt the material with teaching technique, method and form of assessment. A teacher must develop his/her own curriculum; adapt techniques and methods to meet the demands and needs based on their own potentials. Those demands considered as a burden by many teachers. The changing of the academic atmosphere and the guidelines provided by the government is challenging for many teachers in Indonesia.

Consequently, as reported by Nhu, Keong, and Wah (2018), 100% teachers, who feel stressed in their teaching as they could not run their classroom activities successfully and effectively in class, seemed to have no power of decision making in their teaching. Instead, they had to follow what the school policy and relevant authorities required them to do. Nhu, Keong, and Wah revealed two factors that made the teachers feel stressed in their teaching. The first one was lack of supporting staffs, and the second was the curriculum with too many contents and oversized classes.

Therefore, rather than dwelling on what teachers cannot do much about, they assuredly can deal with the problems they create for themselves (Kottler & Zehm, 2005). By introducing possible selves theory into teachers' professional development programme, they can build self awareness on how their possible selves can influence their behaviour.

Self-awareness, a common goal of adult education and career transition, includes awareness of gaps between who one is and who one wants to be. Raising self-awareness can be upsetting, as well as motivating (Phillips & Silvia, 2005), but providing positive, affirming information can reduce defensiveness, increase receptiveness to negative information, and facilitate its integration into the self-concepts (Schwinghammer, Stapel, & Blanton, 2006). It means that people can manage risks better, engage in planful foresight and become increasingly adaptable. Adult educators are in a strong position to help this process (Rossiter, 2003).

5.7.2 Implications for ICT Use in TEFL

There is wide agreement that teacher professional development is a necessary element in educational change, especially for the more effective application of ICT to enhance teaching and learning (Tondeur, Forkosh-Baruch, Prestridge, Albion, & Edirisinghe, 2016). In terms of ICT use in TEFL, this present study offers implications for teacher education and professional development by including 'possible selves' into the programmes. Tondeur, van Braak, Ertmer and Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2017) recently, suggest that teachers' concern about ''good'' education should be a critical dimension in professional development programmes that support teachers learning about ICT integration in a meaningful way. As Kamilah and Anugerahwati (2017) revealed that not all ICT integrations in classroom can enhance teaching and learning process.

Ertmer, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, Sadik, Sendurur and Sendurur (2012) suggested that one of the key successes of teachers' use of ICT is based on the relevance and possible impact that technology can have on students' learning. By employing possible selves theory, teachers can build their self awareness of how their self-concepts and their response to a situation can influence their possible selves and lead to a different way of ICT integration. In this sense, ICT use can generate either significant or insignificant learning outcomes based on how and why teachers use it in the first place.

Accordingly, "a teacher should be striving to adapt to different situations, take opportunities when they emerge and look for the most appropriate strategy for the situation" (Bucker & Castle, 2014: p.270). This is because we are in charge of what we think inside our head and how we choose to look at the situation we

encounter (Kottler & Zehm, 2005). Psychologically speaking, the self is not a passive, indifferent, or unresponsive entity. Rather, the self is active, involved, and responsive, intentionally engaging in volitional process to change, alter, or modify its thoughts, feelings, responses, and behaviours (Baumeister & Vohs, 2003). This explains why our possible selves is malleable.

Consequently, it is plausible to argue that those ICT factors, discussed earlier (e.g. competence, technical support, and time), are merely external excuses that hamper teachers from using ICT in educational practices. It is the self-concept and possible selves that play critical roles in response to a prevailing situation. That is to say, whatever self-concept that activated in the face of a situation, it will affect the emotion and appraisal towards the situation, then direct to possible selves, which, in turn, generate goal-directed behaviours or self-regulation.

5.7.3 Implications for Teachers' Role in Anticipating ICT Overuse in Educational Practices

A growing number of studies have overwhelmingly suggested that ICT use can bring positive impact in teaching and learning process (e.g. Azmi, 2017; Lawrence & Tar, 2018; Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2015). It can be true if we use it properly. Using ICT too much, however, does not really mean that we use it, but more so, it uses us. Overusing ICT in educational process can negatively impact the teaching and learning process. To date, most people, especially young people or students, are so attached to ICT devices. Anshari, Almunawar, Shahrill, Wicaksono, and Huda (2017), state that distraction, dependency, lacking hands on skills, and the reduce quality of face-to-face interaction are potential problems that can occur when implementing ICT in teaching.

There is a growing body of research showing exposure to an abundance of technology harms a young person's development (e.g. Barnett, 2016). When students are distracted from schoolwork by machines or programs, their academic learning suffers. There is more to good education than mechanical presentation, even when that presentation uses all kinds of eye-and-ear-catching accompaniments (Nelson, Palonsky, & McCarthy, 2007). Teachers who guided with ideal self understand this. This has been found in this study, where a teacher refused to use PowerPoint for student presentation as she focused more on students' English speaking skill.

In the New York Times article, Richtel (2012) reported a survey by the Pew Internet Project, which was done in conjunction with the College Board and the National Writing Project, 75 percent of 2,462 teachers surveyed said that ICT use had a mostly positive impact on student research skills. They said ICT tools had made students more self-sufficient researchers. However, nearly 90 percent said that digital technologies were creating an easily distracted generation with short attention spans.

The downside of ICT use in educational activities has been also reported by some researchers. Chu (2014), for instance, reports that the performance of students using ICT, known to be "effective," might be disappointing or may even negatively affect the students' learning achievements. Patterson & Patterson (2017), likewise, suggest that ICT use worsens student academic outcomes. Students who are induced to use ICT in class perform significantly worse and students who are influenced not to use ICT perform significantly better.

The findings from studies above can be plausible, especially for those who were born surrounded with ubiquitous ICT devices. Here is why, in this age, it is common to see toddlers given an iPad by their parents to calm them down. By the

time they grow up to preteens, teenagers, and young adults they would be busy with their smartphones and all online resources, games and other types of entertainment. They do their homework on their laptops and smartphones. Yet, they constantly check their smartphones every moment for whatever that make them feel addicted. In fact, as cited by Barnett (2016), a survey of 1,500 parents by Opinium found that on average, UK children had a phone by age seven, an iPad by age eight, and a smart phone by age ten. Additionally, Connor (2017) reported Harley Street rehab clinic specialist - Mandy Saligari - who told parents and teachers, at the recent education conference in London, that ICT tools like smartphones can be just as addictive for vulnerable teens as alcohol and drugs.

In the early chapter, I have elaborated how EFL students, in Lamb's study (2007, 2012, 2013), gain the benefit of learning English using ICT devices. This EFL context, however, excludes ICT overuses since the students use ICT for positive purposes. In other words, they use ICT as an alternative platform to learn English in a non-English environment. Besides, something notable to take note that the reason why students use ICT is because of their teachers' discouraging behaviour. In line with this present study, discouraging teachers are categorized here as ought-to selves oriented. While teachers who do encouraging classroom, practices are more likely guided by their ideal selves as teachers. Lamb (2007) also found similar inclination where some students were motivated to learn English taught by teachers who always come to class and did not get angry over a joke or two, which represent the characteristics of the ideal teacher self.

That is to say, it is the teachers who play the important role in teaching and learning processes. ICT is just an additional tool to support the educational practices. In fact, this present study has shown how teachers (who were guided by ideal selves)

managed to control ICT use in their classroom. They merely used ICT when it is necessary. Otherwise, they delivered the lessons conventionally while still able to create motivational and engaging classroom activities. This is because they are aware that bringing positive learning outcomes does not always come from ICT use. As Nelson, Palonsky, and McCarthy (2007) stated "good teachers, and not machines or devices, are the key to good education." (p.329).

5.8 Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

There are several limitations to this study. First, this study only involved EFL teachers. It is suggested that this concept also can involve other subject areas. Second, the study did not evaluate how teachers' possible selves affect students' learning outcome. Thus, future research should address this concern. Lastly, it is unfortunate that during the data collection, the participants chose what they wanted to share. Thus, the documents they share vary.

5.9 Conclusion

Based on the findings, this study suggests that ICT use in TEFL did not influence teachers' possible selves. However, teachers' possible selves can influence their use of ICT in TEFL. Furthermore, the study shows that teachers, who guided with ideal selves, are prominently focused on facilitating their students' learning and help them to thrive on subjects they teach. Thus, when they are introduced to a new educational approach, like ICT, they tend to filter which would work and which might not work in their classroom. Whereas teachers guided by ought-to selves, tend to focus on their other interest but their classes. This is, in some cases, caused by conflict between their expectation and circumstances. Consequently, they solely see teaching as an

obligation to fulfil. Therefore, when they deal with ICT, they tend to see it in a different perspective, and use it in different way as well. Just like what I found in this study, where ought-to self-guided teacher uses ICT to merely pass through the lesson without even bringing significant advantages to students' learning.

Consequently, it is imperative to assimilate how and why teachers use ICT in their educational practices, so that teachers do not merely perceive ICT use as a way to be seen as up-to-date teachers, and, somehow, feel guilty or ashamed when they do not use ICT. It is also imperative to know that not all ICT use can bring success in learning, because it is not about the use of ICT, but it is about how and why teachers use it.

As a final thought, I believe that most teachers always want to do their best for their students. However, doing the best does not mean to deal with ICT all the time. As Bill Gates puts it "Technology is just a tool. In terms of getting the kids working together and motivating them, the teacher is the most important."

REFERENCES

Abduh, A., & Rosmaladewi. (2018). Sustainable professional development programs for English teachers: A case study in South Sulawesi, Indonesia. In S. Madya, F. A. Hamied, W. A. Renandya, C. Coombe, & Y. Basthomi (Eds.), *ELT in Asia in the Digital Era: Global Citizenship and Identity* (pp. 31-36). London, UK: Routledge.

Abdullah, U. (2015). *Learning through teacher professional training: English teacher certification program in Indonesia* (Doctoral dissertation). Education Teaching and Learning, The Ohio State University, USA. Retrieved from https://etd.ohiolink.edu/pg_10?0::NO:10:P10_ACCESSION_NUM:osu14277 20572

Akçayır, M., Dündar, H., & Akçayır, G. (2016). What makes you a digital native? Is it enough to be born after 1980? *Computers in Human Behavior*, 60, 435-440.

Adnan, Z. (2016). Upgrading EFL teachers' Quality through an Online Mentoring System, An Innovative In-Service Training Model: The Case of Indonesia. *Humaniora*, 30(2), 158-166.

Agustina, E., & Cahyono, B. Y. (2017). Perceptions of Indonesian teachers and students on the use of Quipper School as an online platform for extended EFL learning. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(4), 794-800.

Ahmed, N. (2017). Vocabulary enhancement of female ESL learners through short stories: a rural/urban perspective. *LLT Journal: A Journal on Language and Language Teaching*, *20*(2), 133-138.

Alberta Leaning (2015). *Health and life skills guide to implementation (K–9): instructional strategies*. Retrieved from https://education.alberta.ca/media/482311/is.pdf

Albion, P. R., & Tondeur, J. (2018). Information and communication technology and education: Meaningful change through teacher agency. In J. Voogt, G. Knezek, R. Christensen, & K.-W. Lai (Eds.), *Second Handbook of Information Technology in Primary and Secondary Education* (pp. 381-396). Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Albirini, A. (2006). Teachers' attitudes toward information and communication technologies: The case of Syrian EFL teachers. *Computers & Education, 47*(4), 373-398.

Alfian, M. W., & Rossetto, M. (2016). Publishing Higher Degree Research. *In Language learning strategy use by prospective English language teachers in Indonesia* (pp. 93): Brill | Sense.

Al-Hazmi, S. (2017). Current issues in English language education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Modern Languages*, 17(1), 129-150.

Alkamel, M. A. A. & Chouthaiwale, S. S. (2018). The use of ICT tools in English language teaching and learning: a literature review. *Journal of English Language and Literature*. 5(2), 29-33.

Allen, C. & Berggren, J. (2016). Digital literacy and sustainability – a field study in EFL teacher development. In S. Papadima-Sophocleous, L. Bradley, & S. Thouesny (Eds.) *CALL Communities and Culture – Short Papers from EUROCALL* (pp.14-19). Dublin, Ireland: Research Publishing.Net

Allen, M. (2017). *The SAGE encyclopaedia of communication research methods*. Thousand Oak, CA: Sage.

Al-Maagbeh, I. F. (2015). The effectiveness of devising an ICT program in developing efficiency classroom management of EFL teachers' in rural basic schools at Al-Karak directorate-Jordan. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, 5(10), 120-137.

Almerich, G., Orellana, N., Suárez-Rodríguez, J., & Díaz-García, I. (2016). Teachers' information and communication technology competences: A structural approach. *Computers & Education*, 100, 110-125.

Al-Munawwarah, S. F. (2015). Teachers' perceptions on the Use of ICT in Indonesian EFL Learning Context. *English Review: Journal of English Education*, 3(1), 70-80.

Amin, M., & Saukah, A. (2015). Factors contributing to EFL teachers' professional development in Indonesia. *Excellence in Higher Education*, 6(1&2), 12-20.

Amir, M. (2018). Language learning strategies used by junior high school EFL learners. *LLT Journal: A Journal on Language and Language Teaching*, 21(1), 94-103.

Anas, I., & Musdariah, A. (2018). Being an e-teacher: Preparing the ESL teacher to teach English with technology. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics*, 3(1), 41-56.

Andreani, W., & Dewi, U. P. (2017). English teaching in post-colonialism discourse: EFL students' perception toward English and native English teachers in Indonesia. *Advanced Science Letters*, 23(2), 1193-1196.

Angers, J. & Machtmes, K. L. (2005). An ethnographic-case study of beliefs, context factors, and practices of teachers integrating technology. *The Qualitative Report*, 10(4), 771-794.

Anshari, M., Almunawar, M. N., Shahrill, M., Wicaksono, D. K., & Huda, M. (2017). Smartphones usage in the classrooms: Learning aid or interference? *Education and Information Technologies*, 22(6), 3063-3079.

Appova, A., & Arbaugh, F. (2018). Teachers' motivation to learn: implications for supporting professional growth. *Professional Development in Education*, 44(1), 5-21.

Arslan, R. S. & Sahin-Kızıl, A. (2010). How can the use of blog software facilitate the writing process of English language learners? *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 23(3), 183–197.

Asmawi, A. and Mohd Jaladin, R.A. (2015). Enhancing pre-service TESL teachers and trainee counsellors' collaborative reflective practice for professional development through blogs. In Gaol, F.L. and Hutagalung, F. (Eds). *The Role of Service in the Tourism & Hospitality Industry* (pp. 145-151). New York: Routledge.

Awada, G., & Ghaith, G. (2014). Impact of Using the WebQuest Technological Model on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Writing Achievement and Apprehension. *Arab World English Journal,* 1, 81-93.

Aydin, S. (2013). Teachers' perceptions about the use of computers in EFL teaching and learning: The case of Turkey. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 26(3), 214-233.

Aziz, E. A. (2003). Indonesian English: what's del tuh? *TEFLIN Journal*, 14(1), 140-148.

Azmi, N. (2017). The Benefits of Using ICT in the EFL Classroom: From Perceived Utility to Potential Challenges. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 7(1), 111.

Babbie, E. (2014). *Social Research Counts* (1st ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Bacescu, M. C. (2014). The relationship between ICT and foreign language skills' training. *E-learning & Software for Education.* 1(4), 421-426.

Baejeong-og. (2008). Integrating grammar teaching into a syllabus comprising communicative activities with both fluency and accuracy emphasized. *Language Science Research*, 46, 101-125.

Baek, Y., Zhang, H., & Yun, S. (2017). Teachers' attitudes toward mobile learning in Korea. *TOJET*, 16(1).

Baghaei, S., & Riasati, M. J. (2015). An investigation into the relationship between teachers' creativity and students' academic achievement: A case study of Iran EFL context. *Journal of Studies in Learning and Teaching English*, 4(2), 021-032.

Bai, Y., Mo, D., Zhang, L., Boswell, M., & Rozelle, S. (2016). The impact of integrating ICT with teaching: Evidence from a randomized controlled trial in rural schools in China. *Computers & Education*, 96, 1-14.

Bajrami, L., & Ismaili, M. (2016). The role of video materials in EFL classrooms. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 502-506. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.068

Balanskat, A., Blamire, R., & Kefala. S. (2006). A review of studies of ICT impact on schools in Europe. *European Schoolnet*. Retrieved from http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/unpan/unpan037334.pdf

Bandung, Y., Gani, A. M., Tanuwidjaja, H. C., & Sembiring, J. (2015). *The challenges of delivering multimedia-based learning services in rural areas*. Paper presented at the 2015 International Conference on Information Technology Systems and Innovation (ICITSI).

Bandura, A. (1978). The self-system in reciprocal determinism. *American Psychologist*, 33(4), 344.

Barnett, A. (2016, July 29). Children own their first mobile phone aged seven – and browse internet at five [Blog post]. Retrieved from https://inews.co.uk/essentials/news/ technology/children-first-mobile-phone-aged-seven-browse-internet-five/

Bastick, T. (2000). Why teacher trainees choose the teaching profession: Comparing trainees in metropolitan and developing countries. *International Review of Education*, 46(3), 343-349.

Baumeister, R. F. (1999). Self-concept, self-esteem, and identity. In V. J. Derlega, B. A. Winstead, & W. H. Jones (Eds.). *Nelson-Hall series in psychology. Personality: Contemporary theory and research* (pp. 339-375). Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Baumeister, R. F., & Vohs, K. D. (2003). Self-regulation and the executive function of the self. *Handbook of Self and Identity*, 1, 197-217.

Baydas, O., & Goktas, Y. (2016). Influential factors on preservice teachers' intentions to use ICT in future lessons. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 56, 170-178.

Bazeley, P. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis: Practical strategies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Beatty, K. (2003). *Teaching and researching computer-assisted language learning*. Great Britain: Pearson Education Limited.

Becta (2004). *A review of the research literature on barriers to the uptake of ICT by teachers*. UK: Becta.

Benade, L. (2015). Teachers' critical reflective practice in the context of twenty-first century learning. *Open Review of Educational Research*, 2(1), 42-54.

Berrg, B. L & Lune, H. (2014). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (8th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Bernard, H. R., Wutich, A., & Ryan, G. W. (2017). *Analyzing qualitative data: Systematic approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bieg, S. R., Backes, S., & Mittag, W. (2011). The role of intrinsic motivation for teaching, teachers' care and autonomy support in students' self-determined motivation. *Journal for Educational Research Online/Journal für Bildungsforschung Online*, *3*(1), 122-140.

Biesta, G. (2015). What is education for? On good education, teacher judgement, and educational professionalism. *European Journal of Education*, 50(1), 75-87.

Bin Tahir, S. Z. (2017). Multilingual teaching and learning at Pesantren Schools in Indonesia. *Asian EFL Journal*, 89, 74-94.

Bingimlas, K. A. (2009). Barriers to the successful integration of ICT in teaching and learning environments: A review of the literature. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science & Technology Education*, 5(3), 235-245.

Bitter, G. G., & Legacy, J. M. (2009). *Using technology in the classroom*. Boston, MA: Pearson

Blaikie, N. (2003). *Analyzing quantitative data: From description to explanation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bloomberg, L. D., & Volpe, M. (2016). *Completing your qualitative dissertation: A road map from beginning to end* (3rd ed.). Singapore: Sage Publications.

Boekaerts, M. & Niemivirta, M. (2005). Self-regulated learning: Finding a balance between learning goals and ego-protective goals. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-regulation* (p.417-450). San Diego, CA: Elsevier.

Bomia, L., Beluzo, L., Demeester, D., Elander, K., Johnson, M. & Sheldon, B. (1997). *The impact of teaching strategies on intrinsic motivation*. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED418925.pdf

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2003). *Qualitative research in education: An introduction to theories and methods* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Bogdan, R. C. & Biklen, S. K. (2007). *Qualitative research in education: An introduction to theories and methods* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Boyatzis, R. E., & Akrivou, K. (2006). The ideal self as the driver of intentional change. *Journal of Management Development*, 25(7), 624-642.

Braine, G. (2014). Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in Indonesia. *In Teaching English to the World* (pp. 91-100). New York, NY: Routledge.

Brookfield, S. D. (2017). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.

Buabeng-Andoh, C., & Totimeh, F. (2013). Teachers' implementation of computer technologies in classroom: A Ghanaian perspective. *International Journal of Education and Development using ICT*, *8*(3), 22-34.

Buckler, S., & Castle, P. (2014). *Psychology for teachers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Budiman, A. (2018). EFL Teacher's Belief and Practice on Integrating Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the Classroom. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 20(8), 7-22.

Burden, P. (2017). *Classroom management: Creating a successful K-12 learning community*. Hoboken, JN: John Wiley & Sons.

Byster, M. (2014). *The power of forgetting: Six essential skills to clear out brain clutter and become the sharpest, smartest you*. New York. NY: Brainetics.

Cahyani, H., & Cahyono, B. (2013). Teachers' attitudes and technology use in Indonesian EFL Classrooms. *TEFLIN Journal: A Publication on the Teaching and Learning of English, 23*(2).

Cahyono, B. Y., & Widiati, U. (2015). The teaching of EFL listening in the Indonesian context: The state of the art. *TEFLIN Journal*, 20(2), 194-211.

Campbell, J. D., Assanand, S., & Di Paula, A. (2000). Structural features of the self-concept and adjustment. In A. Tesser, R. B. Felson, & J. M. Suls, (Eds.). *Psychological Perspectives on Self and Identity*. (pp. 67-87). http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/10357-003

Carver, C., Reynolds, S., & Scheier, M. (1994). The possible selves of optimists and pessimists. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 28, 133–141.

Cavus, N., & Ibrahim, D. (2017). Learning English using children's stories in mobile devices. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 48(2), 625-641.

Chandra, J., & Hayati, A. (2018). *Using speaking worksheets in enhancing accuracy in EFL adults' spoken English*. Paper presented at the UICELL Conference Proceeding.

Chandra, V., & Mills, K. A. (2015). Transforming the core business of teaching and learning in classrooms through ICT. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, 24(3), 285-301.

Chan, R. (2012). Why old people have a hard time learning new things [Blog post]. Retrieved from https://www.embracepossibility.com/blog/why-old-people-have-a-hard-time-learning-new-things/

Chen, G., Cheng, W., Chang, T. W., Zheng, X., & Huang, R. (2014). A comparison of reading comprehension across paper, computer screens, and tablets: Does tablet familiarity matter? *Journal of Computers in Education*, *1*(2-3), 213-225.

Chen, Y.-L. (2008). A mixed-method study of EFL teachers' Internet use in language instruction. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(4), 1015-1028.

Chen, C. W.-y. (2018). Developing EFL students' digital empathy through video production. *System*, 77, 50-57. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2018.01.006.

Cheng, H. F., & Dörnyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *International Journal of Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 153-174.

Chikasa, S., Ntuli, M., & Sundarjee, R. (2014). ICT integration in teaching: An uncomfortable zone for teachers: A case of schools in Johannesburg. *Education as Change, 18*(1)*,* 137-150.

Chiu, T. K. F., & Churchill, D. (2015). Adoption of mobile devices in teaching: changes in teacher beliefs, attitudes and anxiety. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 24(2), 317-327. doi:10.1080/10494820.2015.1113709.

Chuang, H. H., Weng, C. Y., & Huang, F. C. (2015). A structure equation model among factors of teachers' technology integration practice and their TPCK. *Computers & Education*, 86, 182-191.

Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language learning*, 44(3), 417-448.

Coleman, H. (2009). *Indonesia's 'international standard schools': What are they for*. Paper presented at the 8th Language and Development Conference, Dhaka.

Coleman, H. (2011). Allocating resources for English: The case of Indonesia's English medium international standard schools. *Dreams and realities: Developing countries and the English language*, 87-111.

Comi, S. L., Argentin, G., Gui, M., Origo, F., & Pagani, L. (2017). Is it the way they use it? Teachers, ICT and student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 56, 24-39.

Connor, L. (2017, June 8). Giving children smartphones is like giving them a 'gram of cocaine', says addiction expert [Blog post]. Retrieved from http://www.standard.co.uk

Coppola, E. M., & Elmore, R. F. (2004). *Powering up: learning to teach with technology*. New York, NY: Columbia University.

Copriady, J. (2015). Self-motivation as a mediator for teachers' readiness in applying ICT in teaching and learning. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 176, 699-708.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: choosing among five approaches*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crompton, H., Burke, D., & Gregory, K. H. (2017). The use of mobile learning in PK-12 education: A systematic review. *Computers & Education*, 110, 51-63.

Curtis, W., Murphy, M., & Shields, S. (2014). *Research and education. Foundations of education studies*. London: Routledge.

Dalioglu, S. T., & Adiguzel, O. C. (2016). Teacher candidates' self-efficacy beliefs and possible selves throughout the teaching practice period in Turkey. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 17(4), 651-661.

Damayanti, I. L. (2017). From storytelling to story writing: the implementation of Reading to Learn (R2L) pedagogy to teach English as a foreign language in Indonesia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 6(2), 232-245.

Delić-Zimić A., Gadžo N. (2018) Implementation of ICT in education. In: Hadžikadić M., Avdaković S. (Eds.). *Advanced Technologies, Systems, and Applications*. Springer, Cham.

Demetriou, A. (2005). Organization and development of self-understanding and self-regulation. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-regulation* (pp. 209-251). San Diego, CA: Elsevier.

Demirezen, M. (2016). Turkish English teachers' professional teacher self as one of the possible selves. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 451-458.

De Cooman, R., De Gieter, S., Pepermans, R., Du Bois, C., Caers, R., & Jegers, M. (2007). Graduate teacher motivation for choosing a job in education. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance*, 7(2), 123-136.

De Ree, J., Muralidharan, K., Pradhan, M., & Rogers, H. (2015). *Double for nothing? Experimental evidence on the impact of an unconditional teacher salary increase on student performance in Indonesia*. Retrieved from https://www.nber.org/papers/w21806

Djiwandono, P. I. (2015). Online instructions: Problems and potentials for the teaching of English in Indonesia. *TEFLIN Journal*, 11(1), 1-21.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei, E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, 36(3), 9-11.

Dörnyei, Z. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed.). London, UK: Pearson.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2009). *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (Vol. 36). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Drossel, K., Eickelmann, B., & Gerick, J. (2017). Predictors of teachers' use of ICT in school–the relevance of school characteristics, teachers' attitudes and teacher collaboration. *Education and Information Technologies*, 22(2), 551-573.

Dunkel, C., & Kerpelman, J. (2006). *Possible selves: Theory, research and applications*. New York, NY: Nova Publishers.

Dwi, S., Ulaya, A., & Emma, S. L. (2017). Physics teachers 'beliefs on ICT integration at secondary school in Indonesia and Philippines. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research (ASSEHR)*. Vol. 109. Retrieved from http://eprints.uad.ac.id/7751/

Elmunsyah, H. (2012). A Study of ICT Infrastructure and access to educational information in the outskirts of Malang. *Acta Didactica Napocensia*, 5(2), 41.

Eslami, Z. R., & Fatahi, A. (2008). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy, English proficiency, and instructional strategies: A study of non-native EFL teachers in Iran. *TESL-EJ*, 11(4), n4.

Emerson, R. M., Fretz, R. I., & Shaw, L. L. (2011). *Writing ethnographic fieldnotes* (2nd ed.). LA: University of Chicago Press.

Erten, İ. H. (2014). Understanding the reasons behind choosing to teach English as a foreign language. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 8(1), 30-44.

Ertmer, P. A. (2005). Teacher pedagogical beliefs: The final frontier in our quest for technology integration? *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 53(4), 25-39.

Ertmer, P. A., & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. T. (2010). Teacher technology change: How knowledge, confidence, beliefs, and culture intersect. *Journal of research on Technology in Education*, *42*(3), 255-284.

Ertmer, P. A., Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. T., Sadik, O., Sendurur, E., & Sendurur, P. (2012). Teacher beliefs and technology integration practices: A critical relationship. *Computers & Education*, 59(2), 423-435.

Fauzi, I. (2018). The impact of mobile gadget in EFL learning: Perceptions of EFL undergraduates. *Globish: An English-Indonesian Journal for English, Education, and Culture*, 6(1).

Fernet, C., Chanal, J., & Guay, F. (2017). What fuels the fire: Job-or task-specific motivation (or both)? On the hierarchical and multidimensional nature of teacher motivation in relation to job burnout. *Work & Stress*, 1-19.

Ferguson, G., Hafen, C., & Laursen, B. (2010). Adolescent psychological and academic adjustment as a function of discrepancies between actual and ideal self- perceptions. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 39 , 1485–1497.

Ferrero, S. (2002). Two generations of teachers differences in attitudes towards ICT. Retrieved from https://www.oerafrica.org/FTPFolder/guyana /CCTI%20CD/CCTI%20CD/ukzncore1b/documents/core1b.Teachers-Generation.pdf

Floriasti, T. W. (2018). *The use of video conference in teaching general English to improve student teachers' awareness in studying*. Paper presented at the 65th TEFLIN International Conference (Vol. 65, No. 01).

Floris, F. D. (2014). Using Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to Enhance Language Teaching & Learning: An Interview with Dr. A. Gumawang Jati. *TEFLIN Journal*, *25*(2).

Fokkens-Bruinsma, M., & Canrinus, E. T. (2014). Motivation for becoming a teacher and engagement with the profession: Evidence from different contexts. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 65-74.

Frazier, L. D., & Hooker, K. (2006). Possible selves in adult development: Linking theory and research. In C. Dunkel & J. Kerpelman (Eds.), *Possible selves: Research and application*, 41-59.

Frymier, A. B., & Houser, M. L. (2000). The teacher-student relationship as an interpersonal relationship. *Communication Education*, 49(3), 207-219.

Gay, L. R., & Mills, G. E. (2015). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications* (11th ed). London: Pearson Education Limited.

George, D., & Mallery, M. (2003). *Using SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon

Ghanizadeh, A. (2011). An investigation into the relationship between self-regulation and critical thinking among Iranian EFL teachers. *The Journal of Technology & Education*, *5*(3), 213-221.

Ghavifekr, S., Razak, A. Z. A., Ghani, M. F. A., Ran, N. Y., Meixi, Y., & Tengyue, Z. (2014). ICT integration in education: Incorporation for teaching & learning improvement. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 2(2), 24-45.

Gil-Flores, J., Rodríguez-Santero, J., & Torres-Gordillo, J. J. (2017). Factors that explain the use of ICT in secondary-education classrooms: The role of teacher characteristics and school infrastructure. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 68, 441-449.

Glasgow, N. A., & Hicks, C, D. (2003). *What successful teachers do: 91 research-based classroom strategies for new and veteran teachers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Grosemans, I., Boon, A., Verclairen, C., Dochy, F., & Kyndt, E. (2015). Informal learning of primary school teachers: Considering the role of teaching experience and school culture. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 47, 151e161. http:// dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2014.12.011

Graddol, D. (2006). *English next* (Vol. 62). London: British Council.

Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and teaching*, 8(3), 381-391.

Gustine, G. G. (2018). A Survey on Critical Literacy as a Pedagogical Approach to Teaching English in Indonesia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7(3), 531-537.

Haidara, Y. (2016). Psychological Factor Affecting English Speaking Performance for the English Learners in Indonesia. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 4(7), 1501-1505.

Haji, S. A., Moluayonge, G. E., & Park, I. (2017). Teachers' Use of Information and Communications Technology in Education: Cameroon Secondary Schools Perspectives. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET*, 16(3), 147-153.

Hakim, L., Tunas, B., & Rubini, B. (2018). Evaluation of the professionalism of teachers accomplishing certification program: Evidence from Bekasi City, Indonesia. *Evaluation*,3(4).

Hamman, D., Coward, F., Johnson, L., Lambert, M., Zhou, L., & Indiatsi, J. (2013). Teacher possible selves: How thinking about the future contributes to the formation of professional identity. *Self and Identity, 12*(3), 307-336.

Hamman, D., Gosselin, K., Romano, J., & Bunuan, R. (2010). Using possible-selves theory to understand the identity development of new teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*(7), 1349-1361.

Hampel, R., & Stickler, U. (2005). New skills for new classrooms: Training tutors to teach languages online. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 18(4), 311-326.

Hamuddin, B. & Dahler. (2018). *Blogs as powerful learning tools: The Perception from EFL students in Riau main island Indonesia*. Paper presented at the IOP

Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science. DOI :10.1088/1755-1315/156/1/012060

Hartono, R. (2016). *Indonesian EFL teachers' perceptions and experiences of professional development* (Master thesis), School of Graduates Studies and Research, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, United States. Retrieved from http://knowledge.library.iup.edu/etd/1346

Haryanto, E., Mukminin, A., Murboyono, R., Muazza, M., & Ekatina, M. (2016). Teacher certification policy: Evidence from students' perception on certified English teachers at one public high school in Jambi Indonesia and policy implications. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, 7(3).

Hasan, A. (2018). The effect of scientific approach on students' English achievement for junior high school level in Riau Province, Indonesia. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 6(2), 123-128.

Hennessey, B. A. (2015). If I were secretary of education: A focus on intrinsic motivation and creativity in the classroom. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts*, 9(2), 187.

Henry, A. (2015). The dynamics of possible selves. In A. Henry, Z. Dörnyei, & P. Macintyre (Eds.), *Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning* (pp. 83-94). Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Hargreaves, A. (2005). Educational change takes ages: Life, career and generational factors in teachers' emotional responses to educational change. *Teaching and teacher Education*, 21(8), 967-983.

Heath, C., Hindmarsh, J., & Luff, P. (2010). *Video in qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Heatherton, T. F., Krendl, A. C., Macrae, C. N., & Kelley, W. M. (2007). A social brain sciences approach to understanding self. In C. Sedikides & S. J. Spencer (Eds.), *The Self*, 4-16.

Hendryanti, R., & Kusmayanti, I. N. (2018). English as a medium of instruction: Issues and challenges for Indonesian university lecturers and students. In S. Madya, F. A. Hamied, W. A. Renandya, C. Coombe, & Y. Basthomi (Eds.). *ELT in Asia in the Digital Era: Global Citizenship and Identity* (pp. 425-432). New York, NY: Routledge.

Henry, A. (2015). The dynamics of possible selves. In Z. Do̊rnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning* (pp. 83–94). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Hermans, R., Tondeur, J., van Braak, J., & Valcke, M. (2008). The impact of primary school teachers' educational beliefs on the classroom use of computers. *Computers & Education*, 51(4), 1499-1509.

Hesse-Biber, Nagy, S., & Leavy, P. (2010). *The practice of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hidayati, T. (2018). student language anxiety in learning English: A survey to non-English major students in rural area. *IJELTAL (Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics)*, 2(2).

Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review, 94*(3)*,* 319.

Hinostroza, J. E. (2018). New Challenges for ICT in education policies in developing countries: The need to account for the widespread use of ICT for teaching and learning outside the school. In I. A. Lubin (Ed.). *ICT-Supported Innovations in Small Countries and Developing Regions* (pp. 99-119). Springer, Cham.

Hismanoglu, M. (2012). Prospective EFL Teachers' Perceptions of ICT Integration: A Study of Distance Higher Education in Turkey. *Educational Technology & Society*, 15(1), 185-196.

Hiver, P. (2013). The interplay of possible language teacher selves in professional development choices. *Language Teaching Research*, 17(2), 210-227.

Hoyle, R. H., & Sherrill, M. R. (2006). Future orientation in the self-system: Possible selves, self-regulation, and behavior. *Journal of personality*, 74(6), 1673-1696.

Hsu, L. (2013). English as a foreign language learners' perception of mobile assisted language learning: a cross-national study. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 26(3), 197-213.

Huang, S. H. (2016). Communicative language teaching: practical difficulties in the rural EFL classrooms in Taiwan. *Journal of Education and Practice, 7*(24), 186-202.

Hubbard, P., & Levy, M. (Eds.). (2006). *Teacher education in CALL* (Vol. 14). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Hussain, Z. (2018). The effects of ICT-based learning on students' vocabulary mastery in junior high schools in Bandung. *International Journal of Education*, 10(2).

Hwang, W. Y., Chen, H. S., Shadiev, R., Huang, R. Y. M., & Chen, C. Y. (2014). Improving English as a foreign language writing in elementary schools using mobile devices in familiar situational contexts. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 27(5), 359-378.

Inayati, D., & Emaliana, I. (2017). The Relationship among pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning, pedagogical beliefs, and beliefs about ICT integration. *Dinamika Ilmu*, 17(1), 83-99.

Intarapanich, C. (2013). Teaching methods, approaches and strategies found in EFL classrooms: A case study in Lao PDR. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 88, 306-311.

Ireland, G. V., & Van Benthuysen, R. (2014). Contemporary issues in EFL education in Myanmar. *Journal of Bunkyo Gakuin University, Department of Foreign Languages*, 14, 151-160.

Irmawati, D. K., Widiati, U., & Cahyono, B. Y. (2017). How do Indonesian professional english teachers develop their pedagogical competence in teaching implementation? *Arab World English Journal*, 8(2), 293-307. Doi: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol8no2.21

Irmayani, I., & Rachmajanti, S. (2017). Lexical features of teacher talk in English classrooms in senior high schools. *Dinamika Ilmu*, 17(1), 59-70.

Iskandar, I. (2015, June). Teachers' attitude towards the implementation of the national standards in school-based EFL curriculum in South Sulawesi primary schools in Indonesia. In *2nd International Conference on Language, Education and Innovation, Phuket, Thailand*.

Januszewski, A., & Molenda, M. (Eds.). (2013). *Educational technology: A definition with commentary*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Javed, M., Juan, W. X., & Nazli, S. (2013). A study of students' assessment in writing skills of the English language. *Online Submission*, 6(2), 129-144.

Jayanti, F. G., & Norahmi, M. (2015). EFL: Revisiting ELT practices in Indonesia. *Journal on English as a Foreign Language*, 4(1), 5-14.

John, A. D., & Arthi, M. (2018). Integration of communicative technologies in English Language Teaching (ELT). *Bodhi International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Science*, 2(1), 38-41.

Jones, C.A. (2001). Teach support: Preparing teachers to use technology. Principal Leadership, vol.1, no. 9, pp. 35-39. Jones, A. (2004). *A Review of the Research Literature on Barriers to the Uptake of ICT by Teachers*. London: Becta.

Joo, Y. J., Park, S., & Lim, E. (2018). Factors influencing preservice teachers' intention to use technology: TPACK, teacher self-efficacy, and technology acceptance model. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society*, 21(3), 48-59.

Jungert, T., Alm, F., & Thornberg, R. (2014). Motives for becoming a teacher and their relations to academic engagement and dropout among student teachers. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 40(2), 173-185.

Kafyulilo, A., Fisser, P., & Voogt, J. (2016). Factors affecting teachers' continuation of technology use in teaching. *Education and Information Technologies*, 21(6), 1535-1554.

Kamilah, N., & Anugerahwati, M. (2017). Factors contributing to teachers' resistence in integrating ICT in EFL classroom in senior high school. *ELLITE: Journal of English Language, Literature, and Teaching*, 1(2).

Kang, Y., & Liang, L. (2018). The effect of EFL teachers' training in rural west China: Evidence from phonics-oriented program. *English Language Teaching*, 11(3), 40-49.

Khezrlou, S., & Ellis, R. (2017). Effects of computer-assisted glosses on EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension in three learning conditions. *System*, 65, 104-116.

Khumalo, B., Molepo, G., & Mji, A. (2015). Perceptions of school principals on the challenges arising from unavailability of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in rural South African schools. *Rethinking Teaching and Learning in the 21st Century*.

Kikuchi, K. (2015). *Demotivation in second language acquisition: Insights from Japan*. Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters.

Kim, C., Kim, M. K., Lee, C., Spector, J. M., & DeMeester, K. (2013). Teacher beliefs and technology integration. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *29*, 76-85.

Kim, H., & Cho, Y. (2014). Pre-service teachers' motivation, sense of teaching efficacy, and expectation of reality shock. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(1), 67-81.

Kim, T. Y. (2009). The socio-cultural interface between ideal self and ought-to self: A case study of two Korean students' ESL motivation. *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, 274-294.

Kopcha, T. J. (2012). Teachers' perceptions of the barriers to technology integration and practices with technology under situated professional development. *Computers & Education*, 59(4), 1109-1121.

Korte, W. B., & Hüsing, T. (2006). Benchmarking access and use of ICT in European schools 2006: Results from head teacher and a classroom teacher surveys in 27 European countries. *Empirica*, 1, 0.

Kottler, J. A., & Zehm, S. J. (2005). On being a teacher: The human dimension (3rd ed), Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Kubanyiova, M. (2006). Developing a motivational teaching practice in EFL teachers in Slovakia: Challenges of promoting teacher change in EFL contexts. *TESL-EJ*, *10*(2), 1-17.

Kubanyiova, M. (2007). *Teacher development in action: An empirically based model of promoting conceptual change in in-service language teachers in Slovakia*.

(Doctoral dissertation). University of Nottingham, Nottingham, United Kingdom.

Kubanyiova, M. (2009). Possible selves in language teacher development. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 314-332). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Kumazawa, M. (2013). Gaps too large: Four novice EFL teachers' self-concept and motivation. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 33,* 45-55.

Kuswandono, P. (2014). University mentors' views on reflective practice in microteaching: Building trust and genuine feedback. *Reflective Practice*, Vol. 15, No. 6, 701–717.

Kusumawardhani, P. N. (2017). Does teacher certification program lead to better quality teachers? Evidence from Indonesia. *Education Economics*, 25(6), 590-618.

Lamb, M. (2013). "Your mum and dad can't teach you!": Constraints on agency among rural learners of English in the developing world. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 34*(1), 14-29.

Lamb, M. (2012). A self system perspective on young adolescents' motivation to learn English in urban and rural settings. *Language Learning, 62*(4), 997-1023. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00719.x

Lamb, M. (2007). The impact of school on EFL learning motivation: An Indonesian case study. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(4), 757-780.

Lamb, M., & Arisandy, F. E. (2019). The impact of online use of English on motivation to learn. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 1-24

Larenas, C. H. D., Hernandez, P. A., & Navarrete, M. O. (2015). A case study on EFL teachers' beliefs about the teaching and learning of English in public education. *Porta Linguarum: Revista internacional de didáctica de las lenguas extranjeras* (23), 171-186.

Larson, K. R. (2014). Critical Pedagogy (ies) for ELT in Indonesia. *TEFLIN Journal*, 25(1), 122-138.

Lawrence, J. E., & Tar, U. A. (2018). Factors that influence teachers' adoption and integration of ICT in teaching/learning process. *Educational Media International*, 55(1), 79-105.

Leary, M. R., & Tangney, J. P. (Eds.). (2011). *Handbook of self and identity*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Lee, S., & Oyserman, D. (2012). *Possible selves theory*. Retrieved from https://dornsife.usc.edu/assets/sites/782/docs/lee_and_oyserman_possible_selves_theory___education.pdf

Leem, J., & Sung, E. (2018). Teachers' beliefs and technology acceptance concerning smart mobile devices for SMART education in South Korea. *British Journal of Educational Technology*. doi:10.1111/bjet.12612

Leitner, G. (2018). World Englishes and second language acquisition: Insights from Southeast Asian Englishes Michael Percillier 2016. Amsterdam: Benjamins. [Varieties of English Around the World G58], x+ 285. *World Englishes*, 37(2), 390-391.

Lengkanawati, N. S. (2015). EFL teachers' competence in the context of English curriculum 2004: Implications for EFL teacher education. *TEFLIN Journal*, 16(1), 79-92.

Li, Y., & Ranieri, M. (2013). Educational and social correlates of the digital divide for rural and urban children: A study on primary school students in a provincial city of China. *Computers & Education, 60*(1)*, 197-209.

Liaw, E.-C. (2017). Teacher efficacy of English teachers in urban and suburban schools. *Teacher Development*, 21(4), 496-510. doi:10.1080/13664530.2017.1308426

Libby, L. K., & Eibach, R. P. (2007). How the self affects and reflects the content and subjective experience of autobiographical Memory. In C. Sedikides & S. J. Spencer (Eds.), *The Self*, 75-91.

Lie, A. (2017). English and Identity in Multicultural: Contexts: Issues, Challenges, and Opportunities. *TEFLIN Journal*, 28(1), 71-92.

Lin, C. Y., Huang, C. K., & Chen, C. H. (2014). Barriers to the adoption of ICT in teaching Chinese as a foreign language in US universities. *ReCALL*,26(01), 100-116.

Lizasoain, A., & Becchi, C. (2014). Evaluation of a rural self-learning English program in Chile. *Enjoy Teaching Journal*, 2(2), 4-18.

Luo, W. H. (2017). Teacher Perceptions of teaching and learning English as a lingua franca in the expanding circle: A study of Taiwan: What are the challenges that teachers might face when integrating ELF instruction into English classes? *English Today*, 33(1), 2-11.

Lubis, M. A, Embi, M. A, Yunus, M. M, Wekke, I. S. & Nordin, N. M. (2009). The application of multicultural education and applying ICT on Pesantren in South Sulawesi, Indonesia. *WSEAS Transactions on Information Science and Applications*, 8(6), 1401-1411.

Maba, W., Perdata, I. B. K., & Astawa, I. N. (2017). Constructing assessment instrument models for teacher's performance, welfare and education quality. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 1(3), 88-96.

Madya, S. (2015). Searching for an appropriate EFL curriculum design for the Indonesian pluralistic society. *TEFLIN* Journal, 18(2), 196-221

Mallick, S. K., & De, K. K. (2018). ICT motivation and its effects on secondary school students: a study. Research Journal of Social Sciences, 9(5).

Mangali, Z., & Hamdan, A. R. B. (2015). The Barriers to Implementing English School Based Curriculum in Indonesia. *International Journal for Innovation Education and Research*, 3(4).

Mangen, A., Walgermo, B. R., & Brønnick, K. (2013). Reading linear texts on paper versus computer screen: Effects on reading comprehension. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *58*, 61-68.

Manurung, K. (2015). Improving the speaking skill using reading contextual internet-based instructional materials in an EFL class in Indonesia. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 176, 44-51.

Marcellino, M. (2015). English language teaching in Indonesia: A continuous challenge in education and cultural diversity. *TEFLIN Journal*, 19(1), 57-69.

Marcial, D. E., & Rendal, J. B. (2014). Are Teachers Technophobic? Measuring Information and Communication Technology Competency among Teacher Educators in Central Visayas, Philippines. *Malaysian Journal of Distance Education*, 16(2), 1-17.

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist, 41*(9)*, 954-969.

Markus, H. R., & Ruvolo, A. (1989). Possible selves: Personalized representations of goals. In L. S. Pervin (Ed.), *Goal concepts in personality and social psychology* (pp. 211–241). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2014). *Designing qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Martinez, J. C. (2017). English language education in Japan, Indonesia and the Philippines: A Survey of Trends, Issues and Challenges. 新潟国際情報大学国際学部紀要= *NUIS Journal of International Studies*, (2), 83-93.

Marzuki, A. G. (2017). Developing speaking skill through oral report in an EFL class in Indonesia. *Al-Ta Lim Journal*, 24(3), 243-254. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15548/jt.v24i3.330.

Masita, M. (2018). The interest of secondary school students in speaking: a study in Makassar. *Educative*: *Journal of English Education and Teaching Innovation*, 2(1), 76-82.

Mat, N. H. D. C., Qodriani, L. U., & Kardiansyah, M. Y. (2018). Malaysian and Indonesian learners: They are judges of how they learn English most effectively in and out of classrooms. *TEKNOSASTIK*, 14(1).

Maulana, R., Opdenakker, M. C., & Bosker, R. (2014). Teacher–student interpersonal relationships do change and affect academic motivation: A multilevel growth curve modelling. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84(3), 459-482.

Maulida, I. F., & Lo, J. (2013). E-learning readiness in senior high school in Banda Aceh, Indonesia. *Journal of Information Technology and Applications*, 7(4), 122-132.

Mauranen, A. (2018). English as a Lingua Franca in Written Discourse. *The TESOL Encyclopaedia of English Language Teaching*, 1-7.

Maxwell, J. A., & Miller, B. A. (2008). Categorizing and connecting strategies in qualitative data analysis. In P. Leavy and S. N. Hesse-Biber (Eds.), *Handbook of emergent methods* (pp. 461-477). New York: Guildford.

McMillan, J. H. (2012). *Educational research: Fundamentals for the consumer* (6th ed.). New York, NY: HarperCollins College Publishers.

Mei, B., Brown, G. T., & Teo, T. (2017). Toward an understanding of preservice English as a foreign language teachers' acceptance of computer-assisted language learning 2.0 in the people's Republic of China. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 0735633117700144.

Meltzer, S. T. (2012). *Step-by-step professional development in technology*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Merriam, S. B. (2001). *Qualitative research and case study application in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (2002). *Qualitative research in practice*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: a guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (2001). *Qualitative research and case study application in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (3rd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Min-tak, H., & Wai-Shing, L. (2008). *Classroom management: Creating a positive learning environment*. Aberdeen, HK: Hong Kong University Press.

Mirzajani, H., Mahmud, R., Fauzi Mohd Ayub, A., & Wong, S. L. (2016). Teachers' acceptance of ICT and its integration in the classroom. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 24(1), 26-40.

Misbah, Z., Gulikers, J., Maulana, R., & Mulder, M. (2015). Teacher interpersonal behaviour and student motivation in competence-based vocational education: Evidence from Indonesia. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 50, 79-89.

Mistar, J. (2014). Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in Indonesia. In G. Braine (Ed.). *Teaching English to the World: History, Curriculum, and Practice* (pp.71-80). New York, NY: Routledge.

Morawiak, A., Gutral, J., Cypryańska, M., & Nezlek, J. (2018). Distinguishing positive and negative self-evaluations in age differences in possible selves. *Social Psychological Bulletin*, 13, e25501.

Moore, K. D., (2014). *Effective Instructional Strategies (4ᵗʰ ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Muamaroh (2018). Teacher efficacy in instructional strategies in classroom among tertiary teachers in Central Java, Indonesia. In S. Madya, F. A. Hamied, W. A. Renandya, C. Coombe, & Y. Basthomi (Eds). *In ELT in Asia in the Digital Era: Global Citizenship and Identity* (pp. 37-44). London, UK: Routledge.

Mudra, H. (2018). Pre-Service EFL Teachers' Experiences in teaching practicum in rural schools in Indonesia. *The Qualitative Report*, *23*(2), 319-344. Retrieved from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol23/iss2/3

Mukhtar & Iskandar (2010). *Desain pembelajaran berbasis teknologi informasi dan komunikasi: sebuah orientasi baru*. Jakarta: Gaung Persada.

Musfah, J. (2012). *Peningkatan kompetensi guru melalui pelatihan dan sumber belajar teori dan praktik*. Jakarta: Kencana Prenada Media Group.

Muslem, A., Yusuf, Y. Q., & Juliana, R. (2018). Perceptions and barriers to ICT use among English teachers in Indonesia. *Teaching English with Technology*, 18(1), 3-23.

Mustafa, F. (2018). How much do high schools contribute to improving students' English proficiency? Seeking alumni's perception in Indonesia. *Asian EFL Journal,* 20(2), 49-61

Mustafa, F., & Kirana, M. (2017). Errors in EFL writing by junior high students in Indonesia. *International Journal*, 6(1), 38-52. DOI: 10.5861/ijrsll.2016.1366

Musthafa, B. (2015). Communicative language teaching in Indonesia: issues of theoretical assumptions and challenges in the classroom practice. *TEFLIN Journal-A publication on the teaching and learning of English, 12(2), 184-193.*

Musthafa, B., & Hamied, F. A. (2014). Conditions for English language learning in Indonesia: What Indonesian teachers of English have attempted to do to enhance students' English learning. In B. Spolsky & K. Sung (Eds.), *Conditions for English Language Teaching and Learning in Asia* (pp. 63 - 76). Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Musthafa, B., & Hamied, F. A. (2014). Teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesian schools in the reform era: What do teachers have to say? *The New English Teacher*, 8(2).

Nagy, J., & Habók, A. (2018). Attitudes and behaviours related to individual and classroom practices: An empirical study of external and internal factors of ICT use. *Libri*, 68(2), 113-123.

Nair, G. K. S., Rahim, R. A., Setia, R., Husin, N., Sabapathy, E., Mohamad, R., & Huda, E. F. N. (2012). ICT and teachers' attitude in English language teaching. *Asian Social Science*, 8(11), 8.

Nasrullah, A. S., & Rahman, A. W. (2018). Good EFL learner's strategy in enhancing English mastery: A case study at Indonesian college students. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 9(3), 55-59.

Nelson, J. L., Palonsky, S. B., & McCarthy, M. R. (2007). *Critical Issues in Education* (6th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Ndibalema, P. (2014). Teachers' attitudes towards the use of Information Communication Technology (ICT) as a pedagogical tool in secondary schools in Tanzania: The case of Kondoa district. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 2(2), 1-16.

Ng, W., Nicholas, H., & Williams, A. (2010). School experience influences on pre-service teachers' evolving beliefs about effective teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(2), 278-289.

Nhu, P. T. T., Keong, T. C., & Wah, L. K. (2018). Exploring teaching English using ICT in Vietnam: The lens of activity theory. *International Journal*, 1(3), 15-29.

Nickson, C. (2018, September 18). How a young generation accepts technology [Blog post]. Retrieved from http://www.atechnologysociety.co.uk/how-young-generation-accepts-technology.html

Nielson, K. B. (2017). Mobile-assisted language learning: Research-based best practices for maximizing learner success. *In Blended Learning: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools, and Applications* (pp. 818-842). IGI Global.

Nikolopoulou, K., & Gialamas, V. (2016). Barriers to ICT use in high schools: Greek teachers' perceptions. *Journal of Computers in Education*, 3(1), 59-75.

O'bannon, B. W., & Thomas, K. (2014). Teacher perceptions of using mobile phones in the classroom: Age matters! *Computers & Education*, 74, 15-25.

Oktaviani, A., & Fauzan, A. (2017). Teachers perceptions about the importance of English for young learners. *Linguistic, English Education and Art (LEEA) Journal*, 1(1), 1-15.

Oosterwegel, A. & Oppenheimer, L. (1993). *The self-system: Developmental changes between and within self-concept*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. T., Glazewski, K. D., Newby, T. J., & Ertmer, P. A. (2010). Teacher value beliefs associated with using technology: Addressing professional and student needs. *Computers & Education*, 55(3), 1321-1335.

Owens, T. J., & Samblanet, S. (2013). Self and Self-Concept. In *Handbook of Social Psychology* (pp. 225-249). Springer Netherlands.

Oyserman, D., Bybee, D., Terry, K., & Hart-Johnson, T. (2004). Possible selves as roadmaps. *Journal of Research in Personality, 38*(2), 130-149.

Oyserman, D., & Fryberg, S. (2006). The possible selves of diverse adolescents: Content and function across gender, race and national origin. In C. Dunkel & J. Kerpelman (Eds.), *Possible selves: Theory, research, and applications*, *2*(4), 17-39.

Oyserman, D., & Markus, H. R. (1990). Possible selves and delinquency. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 59(1), 112.

Ozverir, I., Herrington, J., & Osam, U. V. (2016). Design principles for authentic learning of English as a foreign language. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 47(3), 484-493. doi:10.1111/bjet.12449

Özer, Z. (2018). An investigation of prospective ELT teachers' attitudes towards using computer technologies in foreign language teaching. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 14(1), 328-341.

Park, S. (2017). Digital inequalities in rural Australia: A double jeopardy of remoteness and social exclusion. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 54, 399-407.

Park, S., & Kim, G. (2015). Same access, different uses, and the persistent digital divide between urban and rural internet users. Paper Presented at the 2015 TPRC 43rd Research Conference on Communications, Information and Internet Policy, Washington DC (2015). Sepp. 25–27, 2015. Retrieved from https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2582046

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Method* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). Qualitative evaluation methods. In S. B. Merriam (2001). *Qualitative research and case study application in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Panggabean, H. (2015). Problematic approach to English learning and teaching: A case in Indonesia. *English Language Teaching*, 8(3), p35.

Panggua, S., Wello, B., & Macdonald, D. (2017). self-assessed professional competence of the high school EFL teachers in Toraja Indonesia. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 8(2), 25.

Pearson, G., & Young, A. (2002). *Technically speaking: Why all Americans need to know more about technology*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Pekrun, R., Goetz, T., Titz, W., & Perry, R. P. (2002). Academic emotions in students' self-regulated learning and achievement: A program of qualitative and quantitative research. *Educational Psychologist*, 37, 91–105. doi: 10.1207/S15326985EP3702_4.

Perbawaningsih, Y. (2013). Plus minus of ICT usage in higher education students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 103, 717-724.

Petko, D. (2012). Teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their use of digital media in classrooms: Sharpening the focus of the 'will, skill, tool, model and integrating teachers' constructivist orientations. *Computers & Education*, *58*(4), 1351-1359.

Phahlamohlaka, J., & Lotriet, H. (2018). An investigation into community development imperatives at a rural South African community education center. In S. Krishna & S. Madon (Eds.). *The Digital Challenge: Information Technology in the Development Context: Information Technology in the Development Context*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Phillips, D. C., & Burbules, N. C. (2000). Post positivism and educational research. In J. W. Creswell (2009) *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach*. Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.

Phillips, A. G., & Silvia, P. J. (2005). Self-awareness and the emotional consequences of self-discrepancies. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 31(5), 703-713.

Piciarelli, F. (2017, June 27). Young people and new technologies: What are the positive aspects? [Blog post]. Retrieved from https://www.familyandmedia.eu/en/news/young-people-and-new-technologies-what-are-the-positive-aspects/

Poedjiastutie, D., Akhyar, F., Hidayati, D., & Nurul Gasmi, F. (2018). Does curriculum help students to develop their English competence? A case in Indonesia. *Arab World English Journal* (AWEJ), 9(2).

Potnis, D. D. (2015). Beyond access to information: Understanding the use of information by poor female mobile users in rural India. *The Information Society*, 31(1), 83-93.

Prasetya, D. (2016). An analysis of unit shift in English-Bahasa Indonesia subtitle of the animated movie the Adventures of Tintin: The Secret of the Unicorn Original DVD. *Sastra Inggris-Quill*, 5(3), 251-261.

Prehn, A. & Fredens, K. (2011). *Play your brain: Adopt a musical mindset and change your life and career*. London: Marshall Cavendish International.

Prenksy, M. (2001). Part I: Digital natives, digital immigrants. Part II, do they really think differently? *On the Horizon, 9*(6), 1–6.

Prestridge, S. (2012). The beliefs behind the teacher that influences their ICT practices. *Computers & Education*, 58(1), 449-458.

Prilia, A. I. A. W., Ratminingsih, N. M., & Myartawan, I. P. N. W. (2018). The efficacy of ict-based interactive games in fostering learning outcome of EFL young learners. *Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Undiksha*, 4(2).

Priowirjanto, Djokosumbogo, Prakoso, Mustafa (2008). *Sejarah pengembangan infrastruktur teknologi informasi dan komunikasi, dari jarnet hingga jardiknas menuju ke South East Asian education network (SEA EduNet)*. Paper presented at e-Indonesia Initiative 2008 (eII2008)-Konferensi dan Temu Nasional Teknologi Informasi dan Komunikasi untuk Indonesia, Jakarta.

Qoyyimah, U. (2015). *EFL Teachers' professional dilemmas with moral curriculum reform in Indonesia*. (Doctoral thesis). Queensland University of Technology, Queensland, Australia. Retrieved from https://eprints.qut.edu.au/83676/1/Uswatun_Qoyyimah_Thesis.pdf

Quan-Haase, A., Martin, K., & Schreurs, K. (2016). Interviews with digital seniors: ICT use in the context of everyday life. *Information, Communication & Society*, 19(5), 691-707.

Rachmawati, U. (2017). Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) as EFL teaching and learning media in Indonesia: Opportunity and challenges. *Edulingua: Jurnal Linguistiks Terapan dan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris*, 3(2).

Rahman, A. (2016*). Teacher professional development in Indonesia: The influences of learning activities, teacher characteristics and school conditions* (Master thesis). Educational Research, Assessment and Evaluation, Flinders University, Australia. Retrieved from https://ro.uow.edu.au/theses/4721/

Rahman, B., Abdurrahman, A., Kadaryanto, B., & Rusminto, N. E. (2015). Teacher-based scaffolding as a teacher professional development program in Indonesia. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(11), n11.

Rahimi, M., & Yadollahi, S. (2011). Computer anxiety and ICT integration in English classes among Iranian EFL teachers. *Procedia Computer Science, 3,* 203-209.

Rahimpour, H., & Kiani, G. R. (2015). The difference between rural and urban EFL learners' achievement through different Types of Task. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 2(4), 168-178.

Rahmawati, F. (2018). *Challenges in English learning through information and communication technology*. Paper presented at the international seminar on English Language Teaching and Research (ELTAR). http://eltar.inggrisppsunisma.ac.id/wp-content/uploads/2018/04/34.-Fithriyah-Rahmawati-326-335.pdf

Raman, K., & Yamat, H. (2014) Barriers teachers face in integrating ICT during English lessons: A Case Study. *The Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 11.

Randi, J. & Corno, L. (2005). Teacher innovations in self-regulated learning. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-regulation* (p.651-685). San Diego, CA: Elsevier.

Relmasira, S., Thrupp, R. M., & Hunt, J. (2017). Indonesian teachers' use of the internet for learning. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Information Communication Technologies in Education (ICICTE) 2017*. Retrieved from http://www.icicte.org/ICICTE_2017_Proceedings/8.3_Relmasira_Thrupp_Hunt.pdf

Renandya, W. A., Hamied, F. A., & Nurkamto, J. (2018). English language proficiency in Indonesia: Issues and prospects. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 15(3), 618-629.

Rhodewalt, F. and Peterson, B. (2008). The self and social behavior: The fragile self and interpersonal self-regulation. In F. Rhodewalt (Ed). *Personality and Social Behavior*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Richtel, M. (November, 2012). Technology changing how students learn, teacher say. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/2012/11/01/education/technology-is-changing-how-students-learn-teachers-say.html.

Rinantanti, Y., Rahman, M. A., Atmowardoyo, H., & Bin-Tahir, S. Z. (2017). Perception of senior high school EFL teachers in Papua, Indonesia towards their own competence. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(6), 1181-1189.

Rini, J. E. (2014). English in Indonesia. *Beyond Words*, 2(2), 19-39. Retrieved from http://journal.wima.ac.id/index.php/BW/article/view/591/654

Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. M., & Ormston, R. (Eds.). (2013). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rizvi, F., Bianco, J. L., Wang, C., Hay, T., Barron, R., & Khan, A. (2017). Emerging technologies and the potential and challenges of peer learning of chinese and English in transnational learning spaces. *Melbourne Graduate School of Education (MGSE)*, the University of Melbourne: Australia. Retrieved from https://www.ibo.org/contentassets/a7bc64e18f3a4a5493d4213f648f8b18/peer-learning-full-report.pdf

Rodliyah, R. S. (2018). Vocational school EFL teachers' practices of integrating ICT into English lessons: Teachers' voices. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(2).

Roffey, S. (2005). *The new teacher's survival guide behaviour*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Røkenes, F. M., & Krumsvik, R. J. (2014). Development of student teachers' digital competence in teacher education: A literature review. *Nordic Journal of Digital Literacy*, (04), 250-280.

Røkenes, F. M., & Krumsvik, R. J. (2016). Prepared to teach ESL with ICT? A study of digital competence in Norwegian teacher education. *Computers & Education*, 97, 1-20.

Romi, S., Salkovsky, M., & Lewis, R. (2016). Reasons for aggressive classroom management and directions for change through teachers' professional development programmes. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 42(2), 173-187.

Rosser, A., & Fahmi, M. (2018). The political economy of teacher management reform in Indonesia. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 61, 72-81.

Rouse, C. E. and Krueger, A. B., (2004) "Putting computerized instruction to the test: a randomized evaluation of a "scientifically based"; reading program," *Economics of Education Review, Elsevier*, vol. 23(4), pages 323-338, August.

Rossiter, M. (2007). Possible selves: An adult education perspective. *New directions for adult and continuing education*, 2007(114), 5-15.

Rubin, A., & Babbie, E. (2009). *Essential research methods for social work* (2nd ed). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning .

Rusman, Kurniawan, D., Riyana, C. (2011). *Pembelajaran Berbasis Teknologi Informasi dan Komunikasi: Mengembangkan Profesionalisme Guru*. Jakarta: Rajagrafindo Persada.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2016). Facilitating and hindering motivation, learning, and well-being in schools: Research and observations from self-determination theory. In K. R. Wentzel & D. B. Miele (Eds.), *Handbook on motivation at schools*, (pp. 96-119).

Ryan, S. & Kay, I. (2014). Imagined and possible selves: Stories we tell ourselves about ourselves. In Mercer, S. & Williams, M. (Eds). *Multiple perspectives on the self in SLA* (p: 109-126). Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters.

Rye, S. A. (2009). Negotiating the symbolic power of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT): The spread of Internet-supported distance education. *Information Technology for Development*, 15(1), 17-31.

Sadaf, A., Newby, T. J., & Ertmer, P. A. (2016). An investigation of the factors that influence preservice teachers' intentions and integration of Web 2.0 tools. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 64(1), 37-64.

Safitry, T. S., Mantoro, T., Ayu, M. A., Mayumi, I., Dewanti, R., & Azmeela, S. (2015). Teachers' perspectives and practices in applying technology to enhance learning in the classroom. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (IJET)*, 10(3), 10-14.

Saleh, D., & Yusof, S. B. M. (2015). EFL teachers' knowledge toward their current practices. *Education*, 3(4), 37-42.

Salehi, H., & Salehi, Z. (2012). Integration of ICT in language teaching: Challenges and barriers. In *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on e-Education, e-Business, e-Management and e-Learning (IC4E, 2012), IPEDR* (Vol. 27, pp. 215-219).

Salem, N., & Mohammadzadeh, B. (2018). A Study on the integration of ICT by EFL teachers in Libya. *EURASIA Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, 14(7), 2787-2801.

Salmasi, M., Bonyadi, A., & Alavinia, P. (2015). CALL-assisted enhancement of grammatical accuracy: Iranian EFL learners studying in rural settings. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(4), 765-772.

Samad, R. S. A., Wahab, H. A., Othman, A. J., & Ali, S. K. S. (2016). Teachers' skill and information and communication technology integration in teaching and learning process. *Advanced Science Letters*, 22(8), 2066-2069.

Samaranayake, S. W. (2016). Oral competency of ESL/EFL learners in Sri Lankan rural school context. Sage Open, 6(2). doi:10.1177/2158244016654202

Sampath Kumar, B. T., & Shiva Kumara, S. U. (2018). The digital divide in India: Use and non-use of ICT by rural and urban students. *World Journal of Science, Technology and Sustainable Development*, 15(2), 156-168.

Sampurno, A. (2015, April 30). *Resep memotivasi dan mengelola guru senior* [Blog post]. Retrieved from https://gurukreatif.wordpress.com/2015/04/30/resep-memotivasi-dan-mengelola-guru-senior/

Samuel, R. J. and Bakar, Z. A. (2006) The utilization and integration of ICT tools in promoting English language teaching and learning: Reflections from English

option teachers in Kuala Langat District, Malaysia. *International Journal of Education and Development using ICT*, 2(2). http://ijedict.dec.uwi.edu/viewarticle.php?id5161&layou t5html

Sang, G., Valcke, M., Van Braak, J., & Tondeur, J. (2010). Student teachers' thinking processes and ICT integration: Predictors of prospective teaching behaviors with educational technology. *Computers & Education*, 54(1), 103-112.

Sari, E. R. (2012). Online learning community: a case study of teacher professional development in Indonesia. *Intercultural Education*, 23(1), 63-72.

Saldaña, J. (2015). *The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oak, CA: Sage.

Salemink, K., Strijker, D., & Bosworth, G. (2017). Rural development in the digital age: A systematic literature review on unequal ICT availability, adoption, and use in rural areas. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 54, 360-371.

Schwinghammer, S. A., Stapel, D. A., & Blanton, H. (2006). Different selves have different effects: Self-activation and defensive social comparison. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 32(1), 27-39

Schoepp, K. (2005). Barriers to technology integration in a technology-rich environment. *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Gulf Perspectives, 2*(1), 1-24.

Semerci, A., & Aydın, M. K. (2018). Examining high school teachers' attitudes towards ICT use in education. *International Journal of Progressive Education*, 14(2).

Shanmuganathan, T. (2005). Ethics and the observer's paradox. *RELC Journal*, 36(1), 73-84. doi:10.1177/0033688205053483

Shim, J. M. (2013). Involving the parents of English language learners in a rural area: Focus on the dynamics of teacher-parent interactions. *Rural Educator*, 34(3), 18-26.

Sikki, E. A. A., Rahman, A., Hamra, A., & Noni, N. (2013). The competence of primary school English teachers in Indonesia. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4(11), 139-145.

Silviyanti, T. M., & Yusuf, Y. Q. (2015). EFL teachers' perceptions on using ICT in their teaching: To use or to reject? *Teaching English with Technology*, *15*(4), 29-43.

Sipilä, K. (2014). Educational use of information and communications technology: Teachers' perspective. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, *23*(2), 225-241.

Sipilä, K. (2010). The impact of laptop provision on teacher attitudes towards ICT. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, 19(1), 3-16.

da Silva, A. M. (2014). Upon the prevalence of English on billboard advertisements: analyzing the role of English in Indonesian contexts. *TEFLIN Journal*, 25(1), 33.

Sincero, S. M. (2012). Self-concept theory [Blog post]. Retrieved Nov 15, 2015 from https://explorable.com/self-concept-theory.

Smith, J., & Freund, A. M. (2002). The dynamics of possible selves in old age. *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, *57*(6), P492-P500.

Smith. L. M. (1978). An evolving logic of participant observation, educational geography and other case studies. In S. B. Merriam, *Qualitative research and case study application in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Snoeyink, R., & Ertmer, P. A. (2002). Thrust into technology: How veteran teachers respond. J*ournal of Educational Technology Systems*, 30(1), 85–111.

Soebari, T., & Aldridge, J. M. (2016). Investigating the differential effectiveness of a teacher professional development programme for rural and urban classrooms in Indonesia. *Teacher Development*, 20(5), 701-722.

Son, J. B., Robb, T., & Charismiadji, I. (2011). Computer literacy and competency: A survey of Indonesian teachers of English as a foreign language. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal* (CALL-EJ), 12(1), 26-42.

Songbatumis, A. M. (2017). Challenges in teaching English faced by English teachers at MTsN Taliwang, Indonesia. *Journal of Foreign Languange Teaching and Learning*, 2(2), 54-67.

Stainton, H. (2018). The commodification of English language teaching in tourism: A sustainable solution? *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 25, 123-130. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2017.11.021

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stake, R. E. (2013). *Multiple case study analysis*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Stern, M. J., Adams, A. E., & Elsasser, S. (2009). Digital inequality and place: The effects of technological diffusion on Internet proficiency and usage across rural, suburban, and urban counties. *Sociological Inquiry*, 79(4), 391-417.

Strahan, E. J., & Wilson, A. E. (2006). Temporal comparisons, identity, and motivation: The relation between past, present, and possible future selves. Foreward. In C. Dunkel & J. Kerpelman (Eds.), *Possible selves: Theory, research and applications*, 1-15.

Stronge, J. H. (2018). *Qualities of effective teachers* (3rd ed.). Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Suhartanto, H., & Junus, K. (2014) Prelimina e-learning at high schools in Jakarta-Indonesia. *International Journal of e-Education, e-Business, e-Management and e-Learning*, Vol. 4, No. 2

Sukarana, K., Dantes, N., Dantes, G. R., & ST, M. (2015). Motivasi kerja dan kinerja guru ditinjau dari status sertifikasi pada guru-guru se-kecamatan abang tahun pembelajaran 2013/2014. *Jurnal Pendidikan Dasar*, *5*(1).

Suleiman, A. S., Suleiman, M. S., & Juma, S. A. (2018). Perceptions of information and communication technology: Evidence from secondary schools in Zanzibar. *International Journal of Learning and Development*, 8(2), 102-113.

Sulistiyo, U. (2016). English language teaching and EFL teacher competence in Indonesia. *Proceedings of ISELT FBS Universitas Negeri Padang*, 4(2), 396-406.

Sulisworo, D., Nasir, R., & Maryani, I. (2017). Identification of teachers' problems in Indonesia on facing global community. *International Journal of Research Studies in Education*, 6(2), 81-90.

Sumintono, B., Wibowo, S. A., Mislan, N., & Tiawa, D. H. (2012). Penggunaan teknologi informasi dan komunikasi dalam pengajaran: Survei pada guru-guru sains SMP di Indonesia. *Jurnal Pengajaran MIPA*, 17(1), 122-131.

Sundeen, T. H., & Sundeen, D. M. (2013). Instructional technology for rural schools: Access and acquisition. *Rural Special Education Quarterly*, 32(2), 8.

Suryadarma, D., & Jones, G. W. (Eds.). (2013). *Education in Indonesia*. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.

Susanto, A. (2018). The important role of motivation in foreign language learning: A review. *JUDIKA (Jurnal Pendidikan Unsika)*, 6(1), 50-59. Retrieved from https://journal.unsika.ac.id/index.php/judika/article/view/1158/1016.

Swathi, K. (2014). Communicative language teaching (CLT). *Editorial Board*, *3*(3), 71.

Syatriana, E. (2018). Implementing a design model in teaching writingthrough reflection strategy for Indonesian EFL students. *Asian EFL Journal*, 20(4), 270-274.

Syvänen, A., Mäkiniemi, J. P., Syrjä, S., Heikkilä-Tammi, K., & Viteli, J. (2016). When does the educational use of ICT become a source of technostress for Finnish teachers? *International Journal of Media, Technology and Lifelong Learning*, 12(2), 95-109.

Talebian, S., Mohammadi, H. M., & Rezvanfar, A. (2014). Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in higher education: Advantages, disadvantages, conveniences and limitations of applying e-learning to agricultural students in Iran. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 152, 300-305. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.09.199

Tallvid, M. (2016). Understanding teachers' reluctance to the pedagogical use of ICT in the 1:1 classroom. *Education and Information Technologies*, 21(3), 503-519. doi:10.1007/s10639-014-9335-7

Tambunan, A. R. S., Hamied, F. A., & Sundayana, W. (2018). EFL teachers' motivation and competence in an Indonesian context as assessed within the framework of Maslow's and Herberg's theories. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(1), 68-78.

Tantra, D. K. (2015). Teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia: A *Literature Review*. Lingual, 4(1), 1-9.

Teddlie, C., & Yu, F. (2007). Mixed methods sampling: A typology with examples. *Journal of mixed methods research*, 1(1), 77-100.

Teo, T., & Noyes, J. (2011). An assessment of the influence of perceived enjoyment and attitude on the intention to use technology among pre-service teachers: A structural equation modelling approach. *Computers & Education*, 57(2), 1645-1653.

Teo, T., & Zhou, M. (2017). The influence of teachers' conceptions of teaching and learning on their technology acceptance. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 25(4), 513-527.

The Glossary of Education Reform. (2014). *Classroom management*. Retrieved from https://www.edglossary.org/classroom-management/

Tiggelaar, B. (2007). *Can do: How to achieve real personal change and growth*. London: Marshall Cavendish.

Tiwari, C., & Singh, R. (2018). An assessment of ICT implementation for English language teaching in secondary schools in Bihar. In Tomlinson, B. & Keedwell, A. (Eds). *Managing resources and integrating ICT*, (7), 34-45.

Tondeur, J., Forkosh-Baruch, A., Prestridge, S., Albion, P., & Edirisinghe, S. (2016). Responding to challenges in teacher professional development for ICT integration in education. *Educational Technology and Society*, 19(3), 110-120.

Tondeur, J., van Braak, J., Ertmer, P. A., & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. (2017). Understanding the relationship between teachers' pedagogical beliefs and technology use in education: a systematic review of qualitative evidence. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 65(3), 555-575.

Tripathi, A. M., Singh, A. K., & Kumar, A. (2012). Information and communication technology for rural development. *International Journal on Computer Science and Engineering*, 4(5), 824.

Tristiana, N. E., & Rosyida, E. (2018). Students' Perception on the Integrating of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). *English Education: Jurnal Tadris Bahasa Inggris*, 11(1), 35-44.

Uluyol, Ç., & Şahin, S. (2016). Elementary school teachers' ICT use in the classroom and their motivators for using ICT. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 47(1), 65-75.

Ushioda, E. (2011). Language learning motivation, self and identity: Current theoretical perspectives. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 24*(3)*, 199-210.

Utami, I. L. P., & Prestridge, S. (2018). How English Teachers Learn in Indonesia: Tension between Policy-Driven and Self-Driven Professional Development. *TEFLIN Journal*, 29(2), 245-265.

Valtonen, T., Kukkonen, J., Kontkanen, S., Sormunen, K., Dillon, P., & Sointu, E. (2015). The impact of authentic learning experiences with ICT on pre-service teachers' intentions to use ICT for teaching and learning. *Computers & Education*, 81, 49-58.

van Braak, J., Tondeur, J., & Valcke, M. (2004). Explaining different types of computer use among primary school teachers. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 19(4), 407.

van den Bergh, L., Ros, A., & Beijaard, D. (2015). Teacher learning in the context of a continuing professional development programme: A case study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 47, 142-150.

Vanderlinde, R., Aesaert, K., & van Braak, J. (2014). Institutionalised ICT use in primary education: a multilevel analysis. *Computers & Education*, 72, 1e10. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2013.10.007

Venkatesh, V., Morris, M. G., Davis, M. G., & Davis, F. D. (2003). User acceptance of information technology: toward a unified theory. *MIS Quartely*, 27, 425e478

Vernon, M. K. (2004). *Possible selves and achievement motivation: Measurement and theory*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Pennsylvania State University, PA. Retrieved from ProQuest Information and Learning Database.

VideoNot.es (2013). *The easiest way to take notes synchronized with videos*. Retrived from http://www.videonot.es/

Vohs, K. D. & Schmeichel, B. J. (2007). Self-regulation: How and why people reach (and fail to reach) their goals. In C. Sedikides & S. J. Spencer (Eds.), *The self*, 139-162.

Vrasidas, C., & Glass, G. V (Eds.). (2005). *Preparing teachers to teach with technology*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age.

Vurdien, R. (2013). Enhancing writing skills through blogging in an advanced english as a foreign language class in Spain. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 26(2), 126-143.

Wahyunengsih, W. (2018). Teachers' perspective on the challenges of teaching English for specific purposes in Indonesia. *Journal of English for Academic and Specific Purposes*, 1(1), 22-37.

Wang, F., Guo, R., Hu, M., & Gu, X. (2017). *Investigating the factors influencing the use of ICT in education: a content analysis*. Paper presented at the 2017 International Conference of Educational Innovation through Technology (EITT).

Warni, S., Aziz, T. A., & Febriawan, D. (2018). The use of technology in English as a foreign language learning outside the classroom: an insight into learner autonomy. *LLT Journal: A Journal on Language and Language Teaching*, 21(2), 148-156.

Webb, L., J. Clough, D. O'Reilly, D. Wilmott & G. Witham (2017). The utility and impact of Information Communication Technology (ICT) for pre-registration nurse education: A narrative synthesis systematic review. *Nurse Education Today* 48: 160–171. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2016.10.007.

Weda, S. & Sakti, E. F. (2018). Formal instruction and its effects on the acquisition of English affricate consonants. *Development*, 7(3), 1-13.

Weiten, W., Dunn, D. S., & Hammer, E. Y. (2015). *Psychology applied to modern life: Adjustment in the 21st century*. Stamford: CT: Cengage Learning.

Weiten, W., & Lloyd, M. A. (2006). *Psychology applied to modern life: Adjustment in the 21st century*. Belmont, CA: Thomson Learning.

Wentzel, K. R. (2010). Students' relationships with teachers. In J. L. Meece and J. E. Eccles (Eds.), *Handbook of research on schools, schooling, and human development*, 75-91.

Wentzel, K. R. (2016). Teacher-student relationships. In K. R. Wentzel & D. B. Miele (Eds.) Handbook of motivation at school (2nd ed.), (pp. 211-230). New York, NY: Routledge.

White, C. (2007). Innovation and identity in distance language teaching and learning. *Innovation in Language Teaching and Learning, 1*(1)*,* 97_110.

White, C., & Ding, A. (2009). Identity and self in e-language teaching. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 333-349). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Widiati, U., & Cahyono, B. Y. (2006). The teaching of EFL speaking in the Indonesian context: The state of the art. *Bahasa dan Seni*, 34(2), 269-292.

Widiati, U., Suryati, N., & Hayati, N. (2018). Unravelling the challenges of Indonesian novice teachers of English. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7(3), 621-629.

Wiersma, W., & Jurs, S. G. (2009). *Research methods in education: An introduction*. Boston, MA: Pearson.

Wiyono, S. (2017). The 21st century: The turning point of the English language teaching in Indonesia. *KnE Social Sciences*, 1(3), 303-310.

Wong, K. T., Teo, T., & Russo, S. (2013). Interactive whiteboard acceptance: Applicability of the UTAUT model to student teachers. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 22(1), 1-10.

Wreikat, Y. A., Kabilan, M. K., & Abdullah, A. C. (2014). The rural learning environment and pupils' learning of the English Language. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities*, 22(1).

Wyra, M., & Rossetto, M. (2016). language learning strategy use by prospective English language teachers in Indonesia. *In Publishing Higher Degree Research* (pp. 95-104). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Ximena Bonilla, S., & Cruz-Arcila, F. (2014). Critical socio-cultural elements of the intercultural endeavour of English teaching in Colombian rural areas. *Profile Issues in Teachers Professional Development*, 16(2), 117-133.

Xu, H. (2013). From the imagined to the practiced: A case study on novice EFL teachers' professional identity change in China. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 31,* 79-86.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: design and methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2015). *Qualitative research from start to finish* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Yuan, R., & Zhang, L. J. (2017). Exploring student teachers' motivation change in initial teacher education: A Chinese perspective. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *61*, 142-152.

Yufrizal, H. (2018). The Application Of 4/3/2 Technique To Enhance Speaking Fluency Of EFL Students In Indonesia. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal*, 5(10).

Yulia, Y 2014, *An evaluation of English language teaching programs in Indonesian junior high schools in the Yogyakarta Province* (Doctoral dissertation), Global,

Urban and Social Studies, RMIT University, Australia. Retrieved from http://researchbank.rmit.edu.au/eserv/rmit:160956/Yulia.pdf

Yulia, Y. (2013). Teaching challenges in Indonesia: Motivating students and teachers' classroom language. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 3(1), 1-16.

Yumarnamto, M. (2017). The career path of an Indonesian EFL teacher: A professional capital perspective. *RELC Journal*, 0033688217730141.

Yusri, I. K., & Goodwin, R. (2013). Mobile learning for ICT training: Enhancing ICT skill of teachers in Indonesia. *International Journal of e-Education, e-Business, e-Management and e-Learning*, 3(4), 293-296.

Yusri, Romadloni, A., & Mantasiah, R. (2017) Intercultural approach in foreign language learning to improve students' motivation. *Asian EFL Journal*, 98, 61-73

Yuwono, G. I., & Harbon, L. (2010). English teacher professionalism and professional development: Some common issues in Indonesia. *Asian EFL Journal*, 12(3), 145-163.

Zacharias, N. T. (2003). *A survey of tertiary teachers' beliefs about English language teaching in Indonesia with regard to the role of English as a global language*. (Unpublished master thesis), Institute for English Language Education, Assumption University of Thailand: Bangkok, Thailand.

Zein, M. S. (2017). Elementary English education in Indonesia: Policy developments, current practices, and future prospects: How has Indonesia coped with the demand for teaching English in schools? *English Today*, 33(1), 53-59.

Zein, S. (2016). Factors affecting the professional development of elementary English teachers. *Professional Development in Education*, 42(3), 423-440.

Zein, S. (2016). Pre-service education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia: Policy implications. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 36(sup1), 119-134. DOI: 10.1080/02188791.2014.961899

Zhang, P., & Aikman, S. (2007). Attitudes in ICT acceptance and use. In J. Jacko (Ed.), *Human-Computer Interaction, Part I* (pp. 1021-1030). Syracuse, NY: Springer-Verlag.

Zhang, X. and Y. Ardasheva (2019). Sources of college EFL learners' self-efficacy in the English public speaking domain. *English for Specific Purposes.* 53: 47-59.

Zhao, Y., Pugh, K., Sheldon, S., & Byers, J. (2002). Conditions for classroom technology innovations. *Teachers College Record*, 104, 482-515.

Zimmerman B.J. (2000) Attaining self-regulation: A social cognitive perspective. In Boekaerts M., Pintrich P.R. and Zeidner M., (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-Regulation* (p.13–39). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.