



## Turkish EFL instructors' feared selves while speaking English in different contexts

İsmail Hakkı Mirici<sup>a 1</sup> , Şeyda Sarı<sup>b</sup> 

<sup>a</sup> Hacettepe University, Turkey

<sup>b</sup> Selçuk University, Turkey

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### Abstract

This study aimed to scrutinize whether Turkish EFL instructors have feared selves while teaching English in their classes, while speaking in front of public, and in their relationships with their students and colleagues. The participants comprised a total number of 38 Turkish EFL instructors at Selçuk University, Konya and PhD candidates at Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey in 2015-2016 academic year. The participants were selected via purposive sampling model on voluntary basis. The data were collected using a questionnaire consisting of 37 items and 5 sub dimensions based on a 5-point Likert scale. The results showed that the participant EFL instructors whose ages were in between 31-35 and between 36-40; and those whose ages were 40+ showed significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ). The participant instructors whose ages were 40+ had lower score of feared self in FLT (Mean=1.30). The results also revealed that feared self in FLT scores were 1.87 in age groups of between 20-30 but at the age of 40 or above their feared self in FLT dramatically decreased.

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**Keywords:** Turkish EFL instructors; feared selves; teaching English; speaking in front of public

## 1. Introduction

A person's self-concept has traditionally been seen as the summary of the individual's self-knowledge related to how the person views him/ herself at present which includes the possible selves. Carver (1994) emphasise that possible selves as representing the individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming. Markus & Nurius, (1986) denote a unique self-dimension in that they refer to future rather than current self states. Furthermore, while the self-concept is usually assumed to concern information derived from the individual's past experiences, Markus and Nurius's notion of possible selves concerns how people conceptualise their as, yet unrealised potential, and as such, it also draws on hopes, wishes and fantasies. In this sense, possible selves act as 'future self-guides', reflecting a dynamic, forward-pointing conception that can explain

<sup>1</sup> Corresponding author.

E-mail address: seydasari@hotmail.co.uk

how someone is moved from the present toward the future. At the heart of this movement is the complex interplay of current and imaginative self-identities and its impact on purposive behaviour (Yowell, 2002).

Self-concept and its formation is one of the research areas, which mainly deals with psychology. The findings involving individual characteristics, abilities, knowledge, attitudes and values are also important for education. The term is often characterized as a relatively stable individual's idea of itself and how the individual sees himself (Hartl & Hartlová, 2004). Self-concept is a multi-component, integrated construct that includes and is "the result of" self-knowledge based essentially on a social, personal and situational, the successes or failures in any field of life. It is highly dependent on information provided by the environment. Self-concept can be understood as an account of what an individual is able, to whom it belongs. Above all, it includes basic generalization associated with, properties, social norms, skills, knowledge, values, attitudes and social role, all based on what the subject is characterized and evaluated. In particular characteristics about profiling themselves.

According to Epstein, (1982) Self-concept could simply be defined as what a person thinks of oneself. Epstein, (1982) also discusses that Self-concept is an integral construct that incorporates all the experience of individual self. It is believed that self-concept regulates and directs individual's behaviors and activities (Musek, 1986). Earlier models hold that self-concept is a general construct, but recently self-concept has been understood as the multidimensional construct whose aspects are inter-related. According to Marsh and Shavelson (1986), self-concept has hierarchical structure. At the highest level of the structure there is the most stable part, general self-concept, built through integration of two main aspects from the first lower level – academic and non-academic self-concept. In academic domain it could be differed aspects concerned with different academic domains in education and in non-academic domain it could be differed social, emotional and physical self-concepts. At the bottom, there are less stable specific elements that are more dependent on the situation.

Self-concept has a dynamic nature: it starts in childhood and is structured along the different stages of life and development stages (Freitas, 2009). Freitas, (2009) considers that the most significant changes and a more precise expression of self-concept occur in adolescence.

The self-concept is significant because it explains many other psychological variables and it is an indicator of adjustment to life and emotional well-being (Klassen, Perry, & Frenzel, 2012). It reflects the self-construction perception of their image on others and how others judge them. Individuals with a positive self-concept have a positive perception of themselves and consider others in a less threatening way, i.e., they have the best coping strategies, feeling better about themselves and others.

Santos (2009) states that self-concept has a strong influence on everyday life, since it is useful in evaluating expressions of inappropriate behaviour, allowing human behaviour to be predicted and to know the idea an individual has of himself.

It is understood that the self-concept as perception of oneself formed through the experience with the environment and influenced mainly by the environment and the significant others. (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton in Blatný & Plháková, 2003) Balcar (1991) claims that through self-concept people create a picture of themselves, that is important, sometimes appropriate, and sometimes faraway. The topic self-concept, is also described by Ulrichová (2013). He adds that the picture of Me –(Self) is created and developed in interaction of the individual and the world based on experience. And Higgins, (1987) adds that a high self-concept fosters a better sense of self-efficacy, enhancing learning strategies that facilitate information processing. A.G. Greenwald (1980) uses two terms jointly as Declarative Knowledge about the world and about oneself (effectance), and Procedural Knowledge, so-called application strategies that reflect beneficence of a learner (educant).

## 2. Some Selected Theories of Self

### 2.1. Possible Selves Theory

Since its appearance in the mid-1980s, possible-selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986) has generated a tremendous amount of research activity and interest due, in part, to the theory's intuitive appeal, and its ability to integrate cognitive and motivational views of self and regulation (Dunkel & Kerpelman, 2006; Rossiter, 2007). Possible selves are believed to become motivators of action (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Hopes and expectations are believed to be accompanied by action plans to achieve these goals. The concept of possible selves has been used to examine a variety of different phenomena and behaviors, including identity formation (Dunkel & Anthis, 2001), self-esteem and self-worth (Knox, Funk, Elliot, & Bush, 1998), academic performance (Fraser & Eccles, 1995a; Leonardi, Syngollitou, & Kiosseoglou, 1998; Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004), health-related behaviors (Aloise-Young, Hennigan, & Leong, 2001), and delinquency (Oyserman & Markus, 1990a; Oyserman & Saltz, 1993), as well as gender and age-related differences (Anthis, Dunkel, & Anderson, 2004; Cross & Markus, 1991; Fraser & Eccles, 1995b; Knox, Funk, Elliot, & Bush, 2000). Additionally, Oyserman and Markus (1990a) determined domains of possible selves concerning life experiences such as education (Destin & Oyserman, 2009), employment (Lee & Oyserman, 2009; Robinson, Davis, & Merra, 2003), chronic illness (Sutherland & Morley, 2008) and old age (Hoppman, Gerstorff, Smith, & Klumb, 2007).

According to the theory of possible selves proposed by Markus and Nurius (1986), motivation is largely triggered by one's future self-concept. Possible selves "represent specific, individually significant hopes, fears, and fantasies" (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954) arising from the interactions of one's past and current selves. These personalized representations, however, are not a single and uniform concept, but are diverse and multifaceted. Not only can they represent various ideal selves that one would like to become and could become, but they also include feared selves that one is afraid of becoming. Such various selves have the potential to function differently depending on the salience and centrality of a particular self in one's mind. For example, for some people, it could be a certain desired self-image that motivates them to set a goal and strategize to achieve it, but for others, it could be feared possible selves that serve as a motive—people work hard not only to achieve their goals, but also to avoid their feared outcomes (Higgins, 1987, 2012; Markus & Nurius, 1986). Although there are various ways possible selves influence individual's mind, in general, they function as an ideal or preventative motive, guiding one's action and behavior. Markus and Nurius held that possible selves serve two important functions pertaining to the direction of current behaviour. First, possible selves provide information needed to evaluate actions in the present. Future-oriented selves represent what one would like to become (i.e. hoped-for selves) and what one wants to avoid (i.e. feared selves). As such, they act as 'behavioural blueprints' (Robinson and Davis 2001,) or roadmaps (Oyserman et al. 2004) that inform and guide judgments about present behaviours. These judgments are made in light of whether actions move the individual toward or away from the target outcome (Frazier and Hooker 2006). Second, possible selves also exert a motivational influence (Stahan and Wilson 2006). Individuals with foresight of what they want to become may be more likely to persevere in pursuing their goals and aspirations. When an individual considers their possible self (e.g. I hope to become an effective teacher), the future becomes the 'primary motivational space' (Nuttin 1984, 54) for acting to achieve goals and avoid undesirable outcomes.

According to Markus and Nurius (1986) Possible Selves are ideas of individuals about what they would like or may fear becoming, and as a conceptual bridge between cognition and motivation. In this regard, Erikson (2007) underlines those aspects of Possible Selves, which could affect the future, suggesting that they should be regarded as influential on future situations. The concept of Possible Self contains important aspects of Working Self (Markus, & Nurius, 1986) such as: future planning, expectations,

hopes, fears. These aspects are used to activate strategies to meet their own ambitions (Oyserman, & Fryberg, 2006; Oyserman, Bybee, & Terry, 2006; Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004). Moreover, they argue that the coding system of what we think we are and what we can, we want, we are afraid of becoming is the Self as a true “hourglass identity”, the promoter center of goals and individual projects.

Underlying most of these research efforts have been two main questions: (a) what social and personal factors give rise to specific kinds of possible selves; and more recently (b) in what manner do possible selves influence the regulation of behavior? In most cases, the researchers addressing these questions are looking for ways of improving and influencing outcomes for individuals during transition periods in their lives. Like the work in the area of possible selves, teacher identity has also been a source of considerable research interest. Much of the teacher identity work has progressed independent of considerations of more psychologically oriented theories of identity development, and recently, there has been a call to consider more closely these theories so as to provide an empirical impetus formoving the field of inquiry forward (Rodgers & Scott, 2008). Possible-selves theory seems to be a particularly good fit for examining the developing teacher identities of the newest teacherse student teachers engaged in their final teaching practicum, and newly graduated teachers during their first year of teaching. Both groups consist of individuals at varying points during the important phase of transition from student to teacher, and as such, possible-selves theory provides a theoretical framework for examining future-oriented, identity relevant, goal-directed thinking in the present, and the salience of that thinking for regulating behavior to reach a future state.

The body of literature on teacher development often reflects an interest in using identity as a bell whether for understanding the press of contextual influences (Flores and Day 2006). In many ways, early research on teacher possible selves mirrors this interest. For example, Fletcher (2000) utilised possible selves theory to study the emergence of teacher identity in the context of mentoring relationships between the university supervisors and student teachers. Using qualitative data derived from interviews, she described how possible selves emerged from relationships and could be used to direct and gauge the effectiveness of teacher preparation programmes. Similarly, Conway and Clark (2003) examined changes in the possible selves of teacher interns over time as a barometer of their progress through Fuller’s stages of concern (Fuller and Bown 1975). By examining the contents of interviews and journals, Conway and Clark found that self-focused concerns, expressed as both hopes and fears about being a specific kind of teacher (e.g. fun, laid back, caring, alone, unprepared), were prevalent throughout the internship. Over time, however, new teachers’ focuses tended to shift from one of survival to one of self-development. More recently, Hamman et al. (2010) explored the dimensions of career-related possible selves of new teachers. In that study, student teachers and new teachers completing their first year of employment were asked to describe both the teacher they expected to be, and wanted to avoid becoming, in the next school year. Findings from this study revealed four broad categories of possible selves (i.e. professional qualities, interpersonal relations in school, classroom management, instruction). Like Conway and Clark (2003) the authors found that student teachers tended to be more focused on the tasks associated with day-to-day teaching (i.e. those represented by in-school interpersonal relations with colleagues and students, classroom management, and instruction categories). On the other hand, first-year teachers tended to incorporate more professional qualities into their teacher possible selves. These works point to the viability of applying possible selves theory in the context of teacher preparation and development, and these contributions are all the more important as a growing number of teacher educators and researchers are beginning to explore new teachers’ perceptions of future events (e.g. Wilke and Losh 2008), and describing how those perceptions influence their reflection for action and the impact each has on future teaching behaviours (Urzua and Vasquez 2008).

To summarise; Markus and Nurius (1986: 954) distinguished between three main types of possible selves: (1) ‘ideal selves that we would very much like to become’, (2) ‘selves that we could become’, and (3) ‘selves we are afraid of becoming’. In one sense, this description can be seen as merely a synonym of the generic term ‘possible self’ (because ‘possible’ is what ‘we can become’), which was surely not the authors’ intention. So, it is more likely that these selves refer to ‘expected’ or ‘likely’ selves (Carver et al. , 1994). The two key components of Higgins’s (1987) self theory are the ideal self and the ought self . As seen above, Markus and Nurius (1986) also mention these concepts, but Higgins used them as precisely defined technical terms in his more general theory of motivation and self-regulation. An important difference between Higgins’s and Markus and Nurius’s conceptualisations of the future-oriented self dimensions is that while the latter authors talk about multiple possible selves, including, for example, more than one ideal self, Higgins talks about a single ideal and a single ought self for each individual, viewing these as composite self-guides that sum up all the relevant attributes. However, he also accepts (e.g. Higgins, 1987, 1996) that there are several other types of self-representations beyond the ideal or ought self concepts. Thus, possible selves can be seen, according to Markus and Ruvolo (1989: 217), as the result of the various motivational factors (e.g. expectancies, attributions, value beliefs) ‘that is psychologically experienced and that is a durable aspect of consciousness’.

A several representations of self are a part of the cognitive aspects of the self-concept. They include:

- actual and ought self (Higgins, 1987) representing personal beliefs who a child, pupil (educant) is and who he/she should be like;
- desired and undesired self (Ogilvie, 1987) representing confrontation of positive and negative ideals;
- possible selves (Markus, & Nurius, 1986) representing diverse ideas about who the educant might be (and in what kind of conditions);
- real and ideal self (Rogers, 1951) representing beliefs about the current form of self and ideal form (it means something, the educant could tend to be).

## 2.2. *Actual Self*

Actual self is the representation of the attributes that you believe you actually possess, or that you believe others believe you possess. The "actual self" is a person's basic self-concept. It is one's perception of their own attributes such as intelligence, athleticism, attractiveness, etc..

## 2.3. *Ideal Self*

The ideal self is the positive future reference for the actual self. It is not only a positive vision of self drawing on hopes and dreams, but is also an affective experience of the individual in that desired future state. This ideal self contains the properties that an individual would ideally like to possess and aspires to attain. The Ideal Self is also the vision of an individual, and an image of themselves in the future and is shaped by core identity, desired legacy, dreams, and aspirations. It is a deeply personal image drawn by individuals and kept in a safe place within their hearts. Ideal selves are the people which is seen when eyes are closed. The Ideal Self is the person unconsciously talked out loud when dreaming and the person with whom deepest passions and desires are shared. Ogilvie (1987) states that Ideal self is the representation of the attributes that someone would like to, ideally possess (a representation of someone's hopes, aspirations, or wishes ) and moreover The "ideal-self" is what usually motivates

individuals to change, improve and achieve. The ideal self-regulatory system focuses on the presence or absence of positive outcomes. If looked at teachers' perspectives and learning environment Ideal L2 Self, which is the L2-specific facet of one's 'ideal self' is if the person we would like to become, speaks an L2, the 'ideal L2 self' is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves. Traditional integrative and internalised instrumental motives would typically belong to this component. The ideal or hoped-for selves might include 'the successful self, the creative self, the rich self, the thin self, or the loved and admired self'.

#### 2.4. *Ought to Self*

Unlike the ideal self, the ought self refers to the mental and experiential representation of the traits one believes one should, or ought to, possess (Higgins, 1987), based on someone else's view of their duties, obligations, and responsibilities. By many researchers it is defined as the language teachers representation of her/his responsibilities and obligations with regard to her work (Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei & Ema Ushioda, 2013: 182-184; Kubanyiova, 2012:58). The value of ought selves is unique in representing either positive or negative reference points in contrast to the actual self (Higgins, 1996), yet the primary distinction between the ideal and ought selves is that the latter is based on extrinsic expectations that are other-derived (Pizzolato, 2003) and may not be particularly appealing. The *ought* self-regulatory system focuses on the presence or absence of negative outcomes. The Ought Self, on the other hand, is the green eyed monster of our Ideal Self. It is who others want people to be or to achieve and often pushes them to towards Negative Emotional Attractor (NEA). If looked at teachers' perspectives and learning environment Ought-to L2 Self, which concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes. This dimension corresponds to Higgins's ought self and thus to the more extrinsic (i.e. less internalised) types of instrumental motives.

#### 2.5. *Feared Self*

Similarly, feared possible selves are believed to represent failures to achieve important goals; thus, individuals are motivated to avoid these possibilities.

The fear of foreign languages in general called as 'xenoglossophobia' or 'xenolinguaphobia' (Demirezen, 2015).

The converse of the ideal self is the feared self (Ogilvie, 1987), which serves as a negative future reference for the actual self, and represents the undesired facets of the self in the future. Images that comprise the feared self are those that an individual want to avoid at all costs yet fears becoming (Carver et al., 1994).

How the self is represented has been the subject of several social psychological theories Carver et al. (1999) developed a questionnaire measure that assessed discrepancies between the actual and feared self. The feared self consists of a set of attributes the person wants not to become but is concerned about possibly becoming (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Oyserman & Markus, 1990). According to Ogilvie (1987) It is argued that feared self-structure is more experience-based and less conceptual than the ideal and ought self, and is a more embedded standard against which one judges one's current level of well-being. No specific hypotheses are emphasized regarding the consequences of being close to the feared self in terms of type of affect (that is dysphoria versus agitation) but it is theoretically understood to be related to unspecified negative affect and life dissatisfaction (Ogilvie, 1987). The notion of the feared self is particularly appealing because it relates to Rachman's (1997) idea that obsessional individuals believe that deep down they have unacceptable aspects to their identity. This may be manifested either in the discrepancy between their actual and feared selves or in the nature of the attributes that define their

feared self. Oyserman and Markus (1990) argued that a desired possible self will have maximal motivational effectiveness when it is offset or balanced by a counteracting feared possible self in the same domain. Indeed, focusing on what would happen if the original intention failed has often been seen in motivational psychology as a powerful source of energy to keep us going (Dornyei, 2001a) – in academia, for example, it is often not the imagined success of a paper that makes us get down to writing it but rather the fear of missing the deadline. Thus, according to Oyserman and Markus (1990), for best effect the negative consequences of not achieving a desired end-state need to be elaborated and be cognitively available to individuals. In an educational intervention study, Oyserman et al. (2006) demonstrated that positive self-guides and their negative counterparts are not simply inverse factors but have distinct impacts on the students' self-regulatory behaviour: learners with academically focused desired future selves spent more time doing homework and were less disruptive and more engaged in classroom activities, whereas feared possible selves resulted in fewer school absences. This suggests that the most effective condition for future self-guides is a balanced combination of pairs of countervailing selves; in Higgins's paradigm this would suggest a balanced combination of the ideal and the ought selves, which is related to the question of the harmony between the selves mentioned above.

Zentner and Renaud (2007) the feared selves could be 'the alone self, the depressed self, the incompetent self, the alcoholic self, the unemployed self, or the bag lady self' and in a negative way, the feared self also regulates behaviour by guiding the individual away from something. Most studies examining possible selves have assessed either the motivational impact of positive, expected selves (Aloise-Young et al., 2001) or balance among various possible selves irrespective of a specific domain (i.e., by matching positively valenced and negatively valenced possible selves in the same categories; Oyserman & Markus, 1990a, 1990b; Oyserman & Saltz, 1993). By matching positively valenced possible selves with negatively valenced possible selves in the same domains, researchers obtain a general calculation of factors that individuals both hope for (on the positive end) and fear (on the negative end).

Feared possible selves may influence behavior differently than positive expected selves. Feared possible selves do not seem to be accompanied by the action plans that are associated with positive expected selves (Erikson, 2007; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Oyserman et al., 2004; Oyserman & Markus, 1990a, 1990b; Oyserman & Saltz, 1993). Therefore, the question remains as to how fear may impact behavior.

If looked from the educational perspectives Demirezen (2015) points to lack of professional foreign language self-efficacy, denotes that perceived obligations and responsibilities in relation to ideal teacher self and ought-to language teacher self are not lived up to because of inadequate vocational education and training experiences.

## *2.6. Professional Self*

Professional teacher self, which is proposed here as a new term, is a possible L2 self. It is related with advanced L2 acquisition and performance abilities and the necessary engagement to maintain them (Byrnes, 2012). It has been mentioned that the teachers responsible for teaching are required to have some competences upon fulfilling their responsibilities (Gordon, 2010). The leading of these is to gain professional self-efficacy. When the conditions of teaching profession are considered, the teachers should struggle with different conditions and cope with different problems. The belief of professional self is essential upon coping with these situations (Bandura, 1997). Professional Self is one of the fundamental concepts revealed by Bandura (1997) as the social learning theoretician and suggested to be efficient upon behavior. According to Bandura, the belief of professional self is the belief of an individual towards practicing the capacity into a given behavior or behaviors (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 1995). Professional Self- is a product, a result of individuals' judgments related to what they can do using their own skills, a perception of their own self related to their capacity and ability of

achieving a specific activity, and their own belief, judgment (Zentner and Renaud, 2007). This judgment creates a great effect upon teacher's intra-class behaviors, instructional planning, practicing, evaluation, and motivation (Adu & Olantundun, 2007; Akiri & Ugborugbo, 2009; Allinder, 1995; Hoy & Spero, 2005; Woolfolk, Rosoff & Hoy, 1990). Because professional self-efficacy perception of teachers proves their own capacity or the ability of actualizing their own courses successfully (Ashton, 1984).

The teacher's professional self-concept and self-esteem are studied by many authors, and viewed as the teacher's generalized image or implicit theory of himself/herself as a professional (Klassen, Perry, & Frenzel, 2012). The teacher's perception of himself/herself as a communicator has an important role to play in his/her self-concept since teaching cannot be effective without high-quality pedagogical communication (Patrick, Kaplan, Ryan, 2011; Reyes, Brackett, Rivers, White, & Salovey, 2012; Südkamp, Kaiser, & Möller, 2012; Kunter, Klusmann, Baumert, Richter, Voss, & Hachfeld, 2013).

The effectiveness of professional communication with pupils is influenced by the level of teachers' communicative culture (Kunter, Klusmann, Baumert, Richter, Voss, & Hachfeld, 2013), which consists of two components: internal (teacher's communicative competences) and external (modes of teacher's behavior in different pedagogical situations). In this regard, teachers' professional self-concept can be explored based on their evaluation of themselves as communicators in two aspects: the teachers' perception of their own communicative competences and the image of their own communicative behavior

### 3. Self-Discrepancy Theory

Motivational aspect of the self-concept associates with the development of self, which becomes the supreme regulator of behavior. Motivation as a part of the self-concept can be conceptualized through self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1991), and self-mastery concept (e.g. Bandura, 1997). Self-discrepancy theory is based on the concept of self-guides, which Higgins refers to the life standards. They belong to the content of an ideal and desired self.

Discrepancy of partial areas of Self and perspectives Self is linked in coherence by following: Discrepancy between one's own actual self and personally formed ideal self – leads to the absence of positive judgements of oneself, depressive emotions and frustration. Discrepancy between one's own actual self and ideal self from the standpoint of a significant other person – provokes depressive emotions – e.g. despondency, shame; fear of the loss of love and respect of others. A discrepancy between one's own actual self and one's own formulation of ought self -results in negative judgements of oneself and susceptibility to states of agitation – feelings of guilt, constraint, self-contempt; feelings of moral insufficiency. Discrepancy between one's own actual self and ought self from the standpoint of a significant other - leads to states of agitation – e.g. anxiety, feelings of threat; fear of punishment. (Higgins, 1987; Blatný & Plhánková, 2003).

“I'd ideally be a brave, spontaneous and impulsive person, but I ought to be a practical, sensible and reliable person”.

Self-discrepancy has been previously referred to as conflict or inconsistency between different aspects or perceptions of the self (e.g., Higgins, Bond, Klein, & Strauman, 1986). Higgins (1987) described a number of different, internal dimensions of the self that create internal conflict. The three basic domains of the self are: (a) the actual self, a representation of the attributes that you or another believe you possess; (b) the ideal self, a representation of the attributes that you would ideally possess (i.e., a representation of someone's hopes, aspirations, or wishes for you); and (c) the ought self, a representation of the attributes that someone (yourself or another) believes you should or ought to possess (including your sense of duty, obligations, or responsibilities) (Higgins, 1987). Self-discrepancies are generally assessed using the Self Discrepancies Questionnaire (SDQ; Higgins, Klein,



& Strauman, 1985), which involves asking participants to list attributes of their actual, ideal, and ought selves, and quantifying the discrepancies by determining matches and mismatches.

#### 4. Research Questions

The main research question of the study is “Do Turkish EFL instructors have feared selves while speaking English in different contexts?”. Based on this main research question, the sub-research questions can be stated as follows:

1. What is the reliability rate of feared self in FLT scale?
2. Are there any significant differences between the ages/years of experiences of participants in terms of their;
  - a. educational backgrounds?
  - b. their personalities?
  - c. their feared self?

#### 5. Method of the Study

The study aimed to reveal whether Turkish EFL instructors have feared selves or not in terms of personality, relations, educational background, efficiency in profession and burnout. In the study quantitative research design was adopted. The details are as follows:

##### 5.1. Setting and Participants

The study was carried out at two state universities in Konya and Ankara, Turkey in 2015-2016 academic year. In the study 38 instructors, %81.6 (31 females), %18.4 (7 males) took part. The participants were selected via purposive sampling model on voluntary basis, and illustrated in Table 1 below.

**Table 1.** Descriptive Statistics of the participants.

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Category</i>	<i>Frequency (n)</i>	<i>Percentage (%)</i>
Age	20-25 Years Old	7	18.4
	26-30 Years Old	13	34.2
	31-35 Years Old	12	31.6
	36-40 Years Old	3	7.9
	40 Above Years Old	3	7.9
Gender	Female	31	81.6
	Male	7	18.4
Marital Status	Married	18	47.4
	Single	20	52.6
Educational Background	Undergraduate	5	13.2
	Masters	28	73.7
	PhD	5	13.2
Years of Experience	1-5 Years	18	47.4
	6-10 Years	14	36.8
	11-15 Years	2	5.3
	16-20 Years	4	10.5
Economy	Low	3	8.1
	Medium	33	89.2
	High	1	2.7
Job	Yes	36	94.7
	No	2	5.3

## 5.2. Gathering and Analysis of Data

The researcher administered the Feared Self in FLT Scale consisting of 5 sub dimensions and 37 items including 7 demographic questions (see Appendix 1). The researchers developed a questionnaire of 37 items including 7 demographic questions benefiting from the literature, and other related questionnaires. 5 sub dimensions were included in the questionnaire, which were the features of feared self in language as Personality, burnout, efficiency in profession, educational background and relations. Before designing the questionnaire suggestions were taken from 2 experts from Psychological Guidance and Counselling department, from 1 expert from statistics department, from one native speaker for a proof reading and from 2 Assoc. Prof. Dr s from English Language Teaching Department. These suggestions were carefully taken into account by adding or changing some items while designing the questionnaire.

Feared Self in FLT questionnaire consisted of 5 sub dimensions and 37 items including 7 demographic questions. Because the 6th question which is ‘how do you describe your economic situation?’ is answered as medium by all participants, this question wasn’t taken into account. And 23rd question was a reverse question. Sub dimensions consisted of Educational Background with 6 questions, Relations with 6 questions, Personality with 6 questions, Efficiency Profession with 7 questions and Burnout with 5 questions. In these items, a five-point Likert scale with values ranging from “1= strongly disagree” to “5= strongly agree” was used. The statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 22, which is a comprehensive computer program benefited from researchers to gain accurate results. The items in the questionnaire were examined for reliability and the Cronbach’s alpha of reliability was measured at 0.93. Statistics related to questionnaire, sub dimensions and demographics were presented as Frequency, Percent, Mean and Standard Deviation.

This result showed that Feared Self in FLT Questionnaire was highly reliable because conventionally it is interpreted that if the Cronbach’s alpha is between the scales below, the instrument is labelled as follows:

If the Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) is between

- $0.00 \leq \alpha < 0.40$ , the instrument is not reliable.
- $0.40 \leq \alpha < 0.60$ , the instrument has a low reliability.
- $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$ , the instrument is reliable.
- $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$ , the instrument is highly reliable. (Kalaycı, 2005)

## 6. Findings and Discussion

To determine whether there is a significant difference between years of experiences ages of participants in terms of sub dimensions which are educational background, relations, personality, efficiency in profession and burnout. One Way ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis tests are conducted. To identify which groups had significant differences Mann Whitney U test and Tukey HSD test are conducted.  $P < 0.05$  is used to determine the significant difference.

Findings based on the sub-research question 1: *What is the reliability rate of feared self in FLT scale?*

**Table 2.** Results of Cronbach's Alfa Reliability Test

<i>Questionnaire and Sub-dimensions</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>
Educational Background Sub-dimension	0.816
Relations Sub-dimension	0.751
Personality Sub-dimension	0.776
Efficiency in Profession Sub-dimension	0.812
Burnout Sub-dimension	0.870
Feared Self in FLT Questionnaire	0.930

Statistical Analysis related to the questionnaire and sub dimensions and reliability analysis /Cronbach's Alpha ) are presented in Table 2. The items in the questionnaire were examined for reliability and the Cronbach's alpha of reliability was measured at .0.93.

Findings based on the sub-research question 2.a: *Are there any significant difference between ages of participants in terms of their educational backgrounds?*

**Table 3.** Results of *Kruskal Wallis* Age & Experience in terms of Educational Background

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Category</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Test</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	20-25 Years Old	7	2.00	<b>40,0%</b>	2.00	8.473	0.076
	26-30 Years Old	13	2.23	<b>44,6%</b>	2.00		
	31-35 Years Old	12	2.18	<b>43,6%</b>	2.00		
	36-40 Years Old	3	2.50	<b>50,0%</b>	2.50		
	40 Above Years Old	3	1.22	<b>24,4%</b>	1.16		
Years of Experience	1-5 Years	18	2.25	<b>45,0%</b>	2.00	3.411	0.332
	6-10 Years	14	2.10	<b>42,0%</b>	2.00		
	11-15 Years	2	2.00	<b>40,0%</b>	2.00		
	16-20 Years	4	1.54	<b>30,8%</b>	1.33		

Kruskal Wallis Test was conducted to find out whether there are significant differences between age (*Chi -Square*=8.473,  $p=0.076>0.05$ ) and years of experiences (*Chi-Square*3.411=,  $p=0.332>0.05$ ) of the participants in terms of the sub-dimension, educational background. According to the results obtained; age and years of experiences don't Show any meaningful differences in terms of educational background.

Findings based on the sub-research question 2.b: *Are there any significant difference between ages of participants in terms of their personalities?*

**Table 4.** Results of *Kruskal Wallis* Age & Experience in terms of Personality

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Category</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Test</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Karşılaştırma</i>
Age	(a)20-25	7	1.83	<b>36,6%</b>	1.83	12.789	0.012*	(e)
	(b)26-30	13	1.55	<b>31,0%</b>	1.50			(c)
	(c)31-35	12	2.04	<b>40,8%</b>	1.91			(b)(e)

	(d)36-40	3	2.05	<b>41,0%</b>	2.00			(e)
	(e)40 Above	3	1.16	<b>23,2%</b>	1.00			(a)(c)(d)
Years of Experience	1-5 Years	18	1.82	<b>36,4%</b>	1.66	2.620	0.404	
	6-10 Years	14	1.76	<b>35,2%</b>	1.75			
	11-15 Years	2	2.00	<b>40,0%</b>	2.00			
	16-20 Years	4	1.41	<b>28,2%</b>	1.25			

According to the results of Kruskal Wallis Test conducted to determine whether there are significant differences between ages and experience years of the participants in terms of the sub-dimension personality or not, from the statistical analysis it is found that there is a significant difference between ages of the participants in terms of their personalities ( $Chi-Square=12.789, p=0.012<0.05$ ). To determine which groups are different from each other specifically Mann Whitney U test is conducted.

According to the results of Mann Whitney U Test participants' whose ages are in between 20-25, 26-30, 31-35 and 36-40 show significant different whose ages are 40 or above ( $p<0.05$ ). Personality means score of the participants whose ages are 40 or above are lower than other groups ( $mean.=1.16, Med.=1$ ). Moreover participants' whose ages are in between 26-30 and participants' whose ages are in between 31-35 show significant difference ( $p<0.05$ ). However; from the statistical analysis it is found that there is not a significant difference between experience years of the participants in terms of their personalities ( $Chi Square=2.620, p=0.404>0.05$ ).

Findings based on the sub-research question 2.c: *Are there any significant difference between ages of participants in terms of their feared self?*

**Table 5.** Results of One Way ANOVA Age & Experience in terms of Feared Self in FLT Questionnaire

Variable	Category	n	Mean	Percentage	Test	P	Karşılaştırma
Age	(a)20-25 Years Old	7	1.87	<b>37,4%</b>	2.815	0.041*	(e)
	(b)26-30 Years Old	13	1.87	<b>37,4%</b>			
	(c)31-35 Years Old	12	2.06	<b>41,2%</b>			
	(d)36-40 Years Old	3	2.25	<b>45,0%</b>			
	(e)40 Above Years Old	3	1.30	<b>26,0%</b>			
Years of Experience	1-5 Years	18	1.97	<b>39,4%</b>	1.038	0.388	
	6-10 Years	14	1.92	<b>38,4%</b>			
	11-15 Years	2	2.05	<b>41,0%</b>			
	16-20 Years	4	1.56	<b>31,2%</b>			

According to the results of One Way ANOVA conducted to determine whether there are significant differences between ages and experience years of the participants or not, from the statistical analysis it is found that there is no significant difference between experience years of the participants in terms of feared self in FLT questionnaire ( $F=1.038, p=0.388>0.05$ ). However; from the statistical analysis it is found that there is a significant difference between ages of the participants in terms of the feared self in FLT questionnaire ( $F=2.815, p=0.041<0.05$ ). To determine which groups are different from each other specifically Tukey HSD comparison test is conducted. According to the results of Tukey HSD, the participants whose ages are in between 31-35 and between 36-40 participants whose ages are 40 or

above between show significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ). Participants whose ages are 40 or above have lower score of feared self in FLT ( $Mean = 1.30$ ). Feared Self in FLT scores as 1.87 in ages between 20–30 which are the first years of participants' experiences in profession and increased in the upcoming years but at the age of 40 or above their feared self in FLT decreased so much.

## 7. Conclusions

MacIntyre (2009) is right when he points out that the notion of 'self' is one of the most frequently \_ and most diversely used concepts in psychology. A cursory scan of the PSYCHINFO database they conducted revealed more than 75,000 articles with 'self' in their titles and a very long list of self-related concepts used in the literature (e.g. self-esteem, self-concept, self-determination, etc.). Similarly, Higgins (1996: 1062) also concluded that 'Psychologists are fascinated with the "self". It headlines more psychological variables than any other concept.' While there is indeed a confusing plethora of self-related issues, from a motivational point of view one area of self-research stands out with its relevance: the study of possible selves and future self-guides. The emergence of this subfield has been a direct consequence of the success of personality trait psychology in defining the major and stable dimensions of personality (e.g. the Big Five model; Dornyei, 2005)

A profitable direction for future studies in this area would be to investigate the longitudinal shifts in centrality, strength and combinatory patterns of possible language teacher selves (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994) Additionally, investigating distinctive features of possible language teacher selves by establishing just what constitutes a particular future teacher self-guide may also go a long way in advancing coherence and significance in future research in this area. Finally, it is crucial to keep a few key points in mind. First extrapolating from Dörnyei's (2005) L2 premise (p. 30), It is estimated that language teacher possible selves are at the heart of motivated teacher behavior, future research that extends the findings and implications of the complexity of possible language teacher selves and their role in motivating behavior will be beneficial. A second factor making results difficult to apply broadly is the small sample size of many studies related with specifically on language teachers'/instructors' feared selves.

## 8. Ethics Committee Approval

The author(s) confirm(s) that the study does not need ethics committee approval according to the research integrity rules in their country (Date of Confirmation: 21.01.2021).

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## Türk EFL Öğretim Elemanlarının Farklı Bağlamlarda İngilizce Konuşurken Korktukları Benlikleri

### Özet

Bu çalışma, Türk EFL öğretim elemanlarının İngilizce öğretirken, toplum önünde konuşurken, öğrenciler ve meslektaşları ile ilişkilerinde kendilerinden korkup korkmadıklarını incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Katılımcılar, 2015-2016 eğitim-öğretim yılında Selçuk Üniversitesi, Konya'da toplam 38 Türk EFL öğretim görevlisi ve Ankara Hacettepe Üniversitesi'nde doktora adayından oluşmuştur. Katılımcılar, gönüllülük esasına göre amaçlı örnekleme modeli ile seçilmiştir. Veriler, 5'li Likert ölçeğine dayalı olarak 37 madde ve 5 alt boyuttan oluşan anket kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Sonuçlar 31-35 yaş arası ve 36-40 yaş arası katılımcı EFL öğretmenlerinin; yaşları 40+ olanlar anlamlı farklılık gösterdi ( $p < 0.05$ ). FLT'de 40+ yaş grubu öğretmenlerin korkulan benlik puanları daha düşüktü (Ort. = 1.30). Sonuçlar ayrıca FLT puanlarında korkulan benliğin 20-30 yaş gruplarında 1.87 olduğunu, ancak 40 yaş ve üzerinde FLT'de korkulan benliklerinin dramatik olarak azaldığını ortaya koydu.

*Anahtar sözcükler:* Türk EFL öğretim elemanları, korkulan benlikler, İngilizce öğretme, toplum önünde konuşma

### AUTHOR BIODATA

Ismail Hakki Mirici is a full-time Professor at Hacettepe University, He has been lecturing at universities for about 35 years. His fields of interests are English Language Teaching, Teacher Training and Curriculum and Instruction.

Seyda Sari is an instructor at Selcuk university. She received her Ph.D. from the field of ELT. Her research interests cover English language teaching, teacher training, teaching learners with learning disabilities