The Relationship between Reflective Teaching, Willingness to Communicate (WTC), and Intrinsic Motivation of Iranian Advanced Learners

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Abstract: The present study aimed at examining the relationship between reflective teaching, willingness to communicate (WTC), intrinsic motivation and language proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. To address the objectives of the study a correlational and a quasi-experimental design were adopted. As for the correlational phase of the study, initially 20 teachers and 240 EFL advanced learners were identified. Then, the questionnaires were distributed among them. The reflective teaching questionnaire was distributed among the teachers and the WTC along with the intrinsic motivation questionnaires were given to the learners to be filled out. In order to obtain the proficiency scores of the participants, a TOEFL was administered to the 240 advanced learners. As for the experimental phase of the study, initially, two teachers, a reflective teacher and a non-reflective teacher, were selected based on the results of reflective teaching questionnaire. Following that, 60 participants who had been chosen based on the normal curve and standard deviation were divided randomly into two groups, i.e. an experimental and a control group. The experimental group was taught by the reflective teacher. No tangible reflective actions were adopted by the teacher in this group. Finally, both groups sat for the PET exam the results of which were used to explore the impact of reflective teaching on the proficiency level of the participants. The results of data analysis indicated that there was a significantly positive relationship between reflective teaching, willingness to communicate and intrinsic motivation as well as proficiency test scores of the participants.

Keywords: willingness to communicate, reflective teaching, intrinsic motivation.

1. INTRODUCTION

Reflective teaching takes account of the thoughtful nature of teachers’ work. Aiming at shedding light on reflective teaching, studies on teacher training have provided evidence supporting the contributions of such a type of teaching. Attention now is on the way teachers think about their job. Reflective practice was characterized by Farrell (1999) as a practice which can provide the teachers with an opportunity to put their tentative ideas concerning teaching to test for the purpose of making their teaching practice more effective. In this study we tried to find answer to the following research questions:

Q1: Is there any significant relationship between reflective teaching and Willingness to Communicate?

H0: There is no significant relationship between reflective teaching and Willingness to Communicate.

AH: There is a significant relationship between reflective teaching and Willingness to Communicate.

Q2: Is there any significant relationship between reflective teaching and intrinsic motivation?

H0: There is no significant relationship between reflective teaching and intrinsic motivation.

AH: There is a significant relationship between reflective teaching and intrinsic motivation.
2. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Speaking in a Foreign Language

Bygate (1987) believes that speaking skill is associated with two branches of motor-perceptive skill and interaction skills. The former is about the sound and structure of the language and the latter belongs to linguistic choices to communicate successfully.

A review of the literature on speaking shows two main approaches to defining this construct: 1- top-down approach 2- bottom-up approach. Elaborating on bottom-up position, Bygate (1987) asserts that the traditional approach to speaking defined speaking as the utterance of auditory signals to produce differential verbal reactions in the listener. Accordingly, it put emphasis on motor perceptive skills. In the same veins, speaking was considered as putting together sounds systematically to yield meaningful utterances by drawing on principles specific to language. Audio-lingualism made extensive use of this approach. As for teaching speaking, the bottom-up approach insists on beginning with the smallest unit-sounds and going on with mastery of vocabulary and eventually discourse (Cornbleet & Carter, 2001).

As a matter of fact, the main downside of this approach is that it turns a blind eye on the interactions and social aspects involved in speaking, confining speaking only to its psychomotor aspects. In addition, working with this approach, teachers cannot make sure that learners will apply what they have learned in the classroom to the outside real life situation. To address this shortcoming, Bygate (1998) supported using a definition of speaking in terms of the social and interaction skills used for engaging in communication. This approach to speaking is called top-down speaking. Drawing on this approach, Eckard and Kearny (1981) as well as Florez (1999) characterized speaking as a mutual process in which ideas, information, and emotions are communicated. According to this approach, as a result of cooperation between two or more speakers who share the time and physical context, the spoken texts are produced. The advocates of top-down approach assert that from the outset, learners should be encouraged to engage in spoken discourse instead of teaching them how to utter correct sentences. “Thanks to this approach, the learners will gradually pick up the smaller units and then longer units” (Nunan, 1989, p. 32).

2.2. Teaching Speaking

The successful key of teaching in speaking skill “is the way teachers organize and respond to students’ work” (Harmer, 1983, p. 275). According to Kasper (2001), within the context of foreign language learning, learners can only practice speaking what they feel comfortable in the classroom and have limited access to real-life conversations. The solution is the use of tasks which is in keeping with the hypotheses accounting for acquisition of foreign language. For example, Output hypotheses put forward by Swain (1985) maintains that tasks use can develop second language in both FL and SL. Swain asserted that learners can test their own language-related hypotheses by producing language (output). As a result of this process, they can gain control over the language and internalize the linguistic knowledge. Consequently, the production of output in tasks is a derivative of the language learning process; instead it is considered a step in the process (Adams, 2003).

Another theoretical development providing rationale for making use of tasks in foreign language classrooms was "interaction hypothesis" proposed by Long (1996). Achieving mutual comprehension through negotiation of meaning is the main theme raised by this hypothesis. Attempts to gain mutual comprehension entails the application of many strategies including demanding the speaker to confirm the content of the message or asking him/her to give more clarifications. This type of negotiation is claimed to enhance L2/FL knowledge. In the same veins, tasks are assumed to provide the learners with an opportunity to engage with discourse, improving their communicative competence (Ellis, 2003; McCarthy & Carter, 2001).

Another theory supporting the application of tasks for learning how to communicate is socio-cultural theory proposed by Vygotsky. This theory holds that tasks develop internally by learners being engaged in the verbal interaction contextualized in the performance of the tasks, leading to the facilitation of language acquisition.

2.3. Advantages of using Tasks in Teaching Speaking

Essentially, communicative tasks are conducted by the learners in order to figure out the meaning of those aspects of communicative tasks that are unfamiliar as well as to establish the procedures
required for accomplishing task goals. This will enhance the acquisition of language (Courtney, 1996; Finch, 1999 & Lee, 2000).

The studies conducted by Ur (1996) show that the extent to which learners talk in a limited timeframe of the classroom increases through engaging in group work and pair activities. In addition, these activities decrease students' unwillingness to talk as they become more motivated to speak. Moreover, due to their diversity, tasks including role plays and drama can provide the learners with chances to participate in various speech events and communicative contexts. These tasks give the learners chances to rehearse an extensive set of sociolinguistic skills learners need to use in situations outside the classroom (Kasper, 2001; Ellis, 2003). In addition, learners' discourse competence will improve as their skills at producing coherent, fluent flows of speech will enhance through participating in the tasks (Sayer, 2005; Slimani-Rolls, 2005).

2.4. Willingness to Communicate

Burgoon (1976, p. 60) defined the unwillingness to communicate construct as a global communication construct that represents the predisposition of “a chronic tendency to avoid and/or devalue oral communication”. Burgoon (1976) considered two factors including approach-avoidance and reward, respectively, to determine the tendency a person has to participate in communication and whether an individual believes that the communication is rewarding or not.

The concept of WTC was first introduced by McCroskey and Richmond in 1985 while the effectiveness of WTC in the field of second language learning was proposed by MacIntyre et al. (1998). They believe that WTC is something that is related and limited to certain occasions and situations rather than being a characteristic (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

Grounded in the studies of Philips on reticence (1965, 1968), the ongoing construct of willingness to communicate has come out from the endeavors of Burgoon (1976) on the concept of unwillingness to communicate and also from Mortensen et al. (1977) efforts on predispositions toward behavior as well as McCroskey and Richmonds' (1982) and the concept chiefly has its focus on the construct of shyness.

Three main avenues of research gave rise to WTC (Matsuoka & Evans, 2005). They are unwillingness to communicate (Burgoon, 1976); predisposition toward verbal behavior (Mortenson, Arntson, & Lustig, 1977; as cited in McCroskey & Baer, 1985); and shyness (McCroskey & Richmond, 1982). All ofthese researcheshad one outstanding weakness which was the inability to operationalize what they had postulated (McCroskey & Baer, 1985).

In the literature, two orientations toward the study in the field of WTC can be observed. The first orientation focuses more on a trait-like predisposition for WTC; although, later studies focuses more on the situational construct for WTC (Kang, 2005); nevertheless, WTC is considered as being adual characteristic construct (Cao & Philp, 2006), namely trait-like WTC and situational WTC, and they should be assumed as complementary and studied together (MacIntyre, Babin, & Clement, 1999).

Mortensen et al.’s (1977) research advanced the investigation of predisposition feature of communication behavior one step further. The researchers found that the amount of communication for an individual across various communication settings was consistent. Hence, they named this consistency predisposition toward verbal behavior. They developed the predisposition toward the verbal behavior scale and employed the scale to evaluate the global predisposition characteristics.

The third work concerning the conceptualization of initial concept of WTC was McCroskey and Richmond’s (1982) research on shyness. Leary (1983) suggested that shyness is a construct named social anxiety that is formed of internally experienced discomfort and externally observable behavior. McCroskey and Richmond defined shyness as “the tendency to be timid, reserved, and most specifically, talk less” (p. 460). This shyness scale was employed to quantify the amount of talk, which individuals in average are engaged in. The results of the research indicated that the shyness measurement scale can be assumed as a valid predictor of the communication behavior as far as the amount of talk is considered.

Gender and age are two variables that have been concluded to have an effect on WTC. MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, and Donovan (2002) investigated the influence of age and gender on WTC and other
variables such as apprehension, perceived competence, and L2 motivation among junior high school L2 French immersion students in Canada. 268 students, including 96 males and 188 females from grades 7 to 9 aged between 11 and 16, took part in the study. The results from the self-report data showed obvious variations in each variable across the grade levels, and variances based on gender were considerable in WTC and communication apprehension. The students’ L2 WTC, perceived competence, and the frequency of communication in French rose from grades 7 to 8 and stayed stable between grades 8 and 9; however, L2 motivation between grades 7 and 8 reduced and the students’ communication apprehension level stayed stable across the three grades.

Clement and MacIntyre (2003) believe that WTC in a second language was influenced by the interaction between L2 confidence and L2 norms within the context of intergroup communication. Hence, in conditions where a proficient learner is unwilling to communicate, high motivation for learning and high anxiety about communicating may appear to have a direct influence on L2 use (MacIntyre, 2007).

In another study, MacIntyre et al. (2001) examined the role of social support and language learning orientations on students’ WTC in a second language. The results show that social support particularly from friends can significantly influence WTC outside the classroom but it plays less important role in the classroom context.

### 2.5. Reflective Teaching

In recent years, educators have devoted a great deal of their attention to the notion of reflection and the expansion of reflective practice. The idea of reflective teaching was first initiated by Dewey (1933) who believed that, “teachers are not just passive curriculum implementers, but they can also play an active role in curriculum design and educational reform” (p. 49). He suggested that teaching needs to be a process comprising the following components: Hypothesizing, investigation, reasoning, testing and evaluation.

Reflective action, in fact is, “the dynamic, continuous and in-depth consideration of any belief or any form of expertise and knowledge by drawing on the grounds that reinforce it (Dewey, 1933, p. 9, cited in Jay & Johnson, 2002, p. 74).

These components will lead to adaptations and modification, if needed, leading to a teaching method which will take account of the class dynamics. This is what today has come to be named “reflective teaching”.

Bartlett (1990) also defined reflective teaching as follows: reflection points to a practice in which the individual recalls, considers, and evaluates an experience often in relation to a broader purpose. In fact, reflection is a response to the past experiences and is to do with conscious recall and examination of the experience as a foundation for evaluation and decision-making, and as a basis for planning and action.

Ma et al. (2011) proposes that reflective teaching can be seen as a process that can facilitate teaching, learning and understanding and which plays a key role in the professional development a teacher. The importance of reflective teaching is well elaborated by many scholars. Reflective teaching has the helps make teachers more initiative and responsible in following the practical rationality by the means of examining teaching and learning activities, taking more intelligent actions and forming a deeper understanding of teaching, which eventually help their professional knowledge and ability.

Wallace (1996) argues that “teachers occasionally get engaged in informally evaluating different angles of their professional knowledge”(p. 292). He calls this type of thinking about one's teaching as “informal reflection” (p. 13).

The significance of continuous and professional development of language teachers has been emphasized by many authors in second language teaching. Some researchers have recommended engagement in organized activities as a tool for increasing reflective practice. For example, Parrott (1993) argues that to make room for reflection, it's better to make use of tasks which teachers can work on collaboratively.

Parrott appears to draw on the reflective model of Wallace (1991), though Wallace emphasizes more on the training of pre-service teachers, while Parrott has his attention more on professional growth of serving teachers. He makes a point that developing professional competence entails teachers examining their own assumptions regarding the nature of language and of learning and teaching.
Much like Parrott, Wajnryb (1992) considers the use of observation tasks as a means to improve professional development. Wajnryb concentrates on the notion of “the reflective practitioner” used by Schon (1983) in relation to teaching. A reflective teacher, according to him, is as a person who finds more facts in regard to their own teaching by attempting to evaluating the processes of teaching and learning in their own and others' classrooms.

According to Choy (2012, p.169), “teacher reflection can be thought of as taking necessary steps to analyze and articulate problems before taking action”. This makes it possible for more constructive action to taken rather than applying a fast solution (Boody, 2008). The challenge is to have the ability show in action what is taught in the classroom. Many teachers are unable to link their teaching to what they are actually practicing and vice versa (Rudd, et al., 2000).

2.6. Models/Frameworks of Reflection and Reflective Teaching

A review of literature on the models of reflection and reflective teaching shows a variety of models. Below, some of these models and frameworks will be discussed. Zeichner and Liston (1996) put forward a reflection model which consists of reflection stages rather than reflection content. This model includes the following 5 dimensions: 1) Fast reflection that is usually personal and private. In this kind of reflection, teachers engage in reflective practices quickly and automatically as they are doing an act. 2) repair that “is considered as reflection-in-action, but in this case, the individual experiences a quick pause for thought,” 3) review that “is interpersonal and can occur at any time in or after the teacher’s work day,” 4) research during which “the teachers’ thoughts and observation grow more systematically and deeply centered on particular issues. Stanley (1998) presented a framework entitled ‘framework for teachers’ with five stages. In stage one, which he called, ‘engaging with reflection,’ Stanley expounds on teachers’ awareness of reflection, pointing out that “When basic personal, professional, and contextual factors are stable and teachers are curious about learning the process of reflecting on their teaching, they can engage with reflection” (p. 686).

To Stanley (1998), such an experience should certainly be reinforced by continuous engagement and sticking to the reflective practice. In stage two i.e. ‘thinking reflectively,’ Stanley believes that “most teachers first reaction to reflection is merely to evoke a classroom setting and explain what occurred and how they felt about this experience” (p. 686). In stage three, called ‘using reflection,’ he argued that “By the time teachers have gained awareness concerning what reflection is and how they can think reflectively, it can be used as a tool.”

According to Stanley (1998, p. 687) “generally, acquiring any new skill needs a stage of experimentation concerning observing how reflection can unfold and when and with whom it can be done”. In this stage, teachers seek to identify and figure out the actions that are consistent with their context. In stage four, called ‘sustaining reflection,’ Stanley points to various challenges teachers face while attempting to rehearse reflection. He talks about both critical and affective factors involving in reflective teaching that might impede teacher reflectivity. Lastly, in the fifth stage called ‘practicing reflection,’ Stanley explains about the practical dimensions of reflective teaching as an inevitable component of teacher reflectivity.

2.7. Motivation

Given various positive reasons for learning a second language, learners tend to perceive things in a different way. L2 teachers always seek to find ways to make their students interested in learning target language. To this end, they resort to many tricks and techniques (e.g. reward) to motivate the learners.

According to Ryan and Deci (2000, p. 54) “To be motivated means to be moved to do something. A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated”. However, motivation is not considered as a monolithic concept. That is, there are different types of motivation influenced by various internal and external factors.

Along the same lines, there have been many motivation theories till now in the language learning field. Robert Gardner is thought to have established the most influential motivation theory (Dörnyei, 2001a). Gardner (1985, p. 10) suggests that motivation to acquire a foreign language is a mixture of factors including effort, desire and a positive attitude toward the language under consideration.
A review of research shows that the term "motivation" has been defined in different ways. In Gardner’s view (1985), to be motivated, the learner has to have something to look forward to, a reason related to a goal. Gardner (1985, p. 10) gave the following definition of motivation: “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language”. He argues that motivation involves answering the question “Why does an organism behave as it does? “According to Brown (1994, p. 152), “motivation is commonly thought of as an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action”.

In the context of L2 learning, this goal involves acquiring a foreign language. Learners need to be focused on and guided by a purpose i.e. learning second language. The learner’s motivation for L2 may vary from achieving a sense of success, accomplish other’s expectations or managing to be employed thanks to their command of the target language.

2.8. Intrinsic/Extrinsic Motivation

Dörnyei (1998) proposed the dual concept of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation involves a type of motivation that drives the learner to participate in a task or an activity because he/she enjoys taking part in that. The intrinsically motivated learners engage in learning process as they seek to achieve a kind of goal which is both inspiring and satisfying to them.

In contrast, an extrinsically motivated individual conducts an activity or task to reach some instrumental end, such as getting higher score or receiving rewards. The extrinsically motivated individuals are encouraged by external motives to accomplish a goal. Avoiding the punishment can serve as an extrinsic motivation as well.

2.9. Motivation and L2 Learning

Most language teachers believe that motivation is a key factor for success in language learning. There is no doubt that motivation is a potent force in language acquisition (Ellis, 1994). All effective language learning environments have an unquestionable dependence to the existence of intrinsic motivation in language learners.

Learning a second language appears to be a multi-dimensional ability that transcends linguistic and cognitive capacity of the student. As Kramsch (2001) argues, learning another language is not like learning math or other subjects. It tends to entail the linguistic and cognitive capacities of the learner as well as the social, historical, emotional, cultural, moral sense of self as a subject. Many factors have the potential to change the motivation level of the learners.

Dörnyei (1994a) conceptualized a general outline of L2 motivation. The outline includes three levels: the Language Level, the Learner Level, and the Learning Situation Level. Dörnyei (1994a) asserts that the Language Level is the most general level of the construct. The Language Level concentrates on orientations and motives related to various aspects of the L2, i.e., the culture that it puts across, the community in which it is spoken, and the possible benefits of proficiency in it. Together, these motives produce the basic learning goals. The Learner Level is the second level of this construct. It entails a complicated set of effects and cognitions which creates personal traits. There are two motivational components at this level, need for accomplishment and self-confidence. The third level is the Learning Situation Level, which is shaped by intrinsic and extrinsic motives and motivational conditions in relation to three areas. In this level, there are three principle types of motivational sources.

In Self-Determination Theory (SDT) Deci and Ryan (1985) made a distinction between various types of motivation on the basis of the different reasons or goals that produces an action. The most basic distinction is between intrinsic motivation, which refers to an action because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation, which refers to an action because it produces a separable result. More than three decades of research have demonstrated that the quality of experience and performance can produce different results when one is behaving for intrinsic versus extrinsic motives.

Krashen (2002) hypothesizes the ‘affective filter’ that includes various psychological factors, such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence, which can strongly improve or inhibit second language learning. An input rich learning condition is required where the learners are relaxed, motivated and self-confident in learning the second language successfully. Krashen (2002) believes that highly motivated students with self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are well
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prepared in achieving second language acquisition. In Dornyei’s view (2001), both external and internal factors that learners encounter during the process of language learning can be a source in labeling the motivation an evolving construct. There have been plenty of studies that prove the changeability of motivation.

3. THE STUDY

The present study aimed at investigating the relationship between reflective teaching, willingness to communicate and intrinsic motivation of the Iranian EFL learners.

3.1. Design of the Study

The present study is correlational and quasi-experimental at the same time. As for the correlational part this study investigates the relationship between reflective teaching and willingness to communicate and intrinsic motivation.

3.2. Participants

There were three groups of participants in the present study:

- Twenty teachers: 20 teachers were chosen randomly from among 60 teachers teaching at different institutes in Tehran. There were 11 male and 9 female teachers. Since experience is an important factor in reflective teaching care was taken to select those teachers who had between 2 to 4 years of teaching experience. The age range of these teachers was from 22 to 34.

- Some 240 advanced learners of English were the second group of participants in this study. They were all male learners and were chosen randomly from among 625 advanced learners studying at different English institutes in Tehran. Their age ranged from 18 to 32.

- Some 60 intermediate learners of English participated in the experimental part of the study. Initially, the number of participants were 90 male students studying at Intermediate level at a language school in Tehran. These subjects were studying in 6 classes which were chosen randomly from among 12 such classes. The range of their age was between 16 and 30. All of the participants were studying English at intermediate proficiency level. They were mainly high school and university students studying English for the purposes of finding better jobs or pursuing their studies abroad.

3.3. Instruments

Three instruments were used in the present study a discussion of which follows:

3.3.1. Reflective Teaching Questionnaire

The instrument used for measuring reflective teaching in this study was a reflective teaching questionnaire devised by Akbari, Behzadpour and Dadvand (2010). The questionnaire includes 42 items on a five-point Likert scale, consisting of five options of never, rarely, sometimes, often, and always, which has been devised based on six elements which are Practical, Cognitive, learner, Metacognitive, Critical, and Moral aspects of teaching. This questionnaire was chosen for the purposes of this study because it was developed for measuring teachers’ reflection in the context of Iran and enjoys a high reliability of 0.90 as a measuring instrument for teacher reflectivity (Akbari et al., 2010).

3.3.2. Intrinsic Motivation Questionnaire

This questionnaire is based on the self-determination theory, comprising three sections related to intrinsic motivation. It has three sub parts which measures: (a) Intrinsic Motivation Knowledge, (b) Intrinsic Motivation Accomplishment and (c) Intrinsic Motivation Stimulation. IM-Knowledge is the motivation for learning an L2 for the feelings associated with exploring new ideas and developing knowledge. IM Accomplishment refers to the sensations related to the attempt to master a task or to achieve a goal. IM-Stimulation is related to motivation based simply on the sensations stimulated by performing the task, such as aesthetic appreciation, fun or excitement. The questionnaire consisted of thirty items with each ten items focusing on one of the above-mentioned constructs. Students were
asked to show their agreement or disagreement with the items of the questionnaire in a five-point scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree).

3.3.3. WTC Questionnaire

This questionnaire was devised by MacIntyre et al (2001) to measure the learners' willingness to communicate. The questionnaire consists of 20 items on a Likert scale and the students were required to respond to the items in twenty minutes. They were asked to state how willing they were to initiate and continue a conversation in each situation (from 0 to 100%).

3.4. Procedures

The procedure of the present study falls into two phases including the experimental phase and the correlational phase:

3.4.1. The Experimental Phase

Initially, two teachers – a reflective teacher and a non-reflective teacher were selected based on the results of reflective teaching questionnaire. The subjects of the experimental phase of the study were initially ninety adult intermediate EFL learners in one of the language academies of Tehran. They were studying in 6 classes chosen out of 10 such classes. Out of these 90 subjects 60 were selected based on the scores of PET administered to the subjects. To this end, only those participants whose scores fell under the normal curve that is one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected for the purposes of the current study. Following that, these sixty subjects were divided randomly into two groups i.e. an experimental and a control group.

The next stage unfolded as follows:

The experimental group was taught by the reflective teacher. During this class, the teacher drew upon the principles of reflective teaching offered by Kumaravadivelu (2006) who asserts that reflective action consists of many elements, involving an individual’s willingness to be curious and assertive in order to increase self-awareness, self-knowledge, and new understandings of the world in which we live and work. The teacher analyzed the possible problems on the spot and addressed the issue accordingly. This required the researcher to explain the new approach to teaching beforehand so as to make the teacher ready for it. The teacher drew on both reflection in teaching and reflection on teaching. She took her time constantly to reflect on all lessons that she was required to teach. She wrote down her thoughts after each lesson to monitor her own development and the effectiveness of her teaching. For example, she reflected on the organization and presentation, as well as interaction among the learners while paying attention to the reactions, successes, and any obvious confusion that the students exhibited.

The control group was taught by the unreflective teacher. No tangible reflective actions were adopted by the teacher in this group. Finally, both groups sat for the PET exam again the results of which were used to explore the impact of reflective teaching on the proficiency level of the participants.

3.4.2. The Correlational Phase

Initially 20 teachers and 240 EFL advanced learners as described in section 3.2 were identified. Then the questionnaires were distributed among them. The reflective teaching questionnaire was distributed among the teachers and the WTC and intrinsic motivation questionnaires were given to the learners to be filled out. Before completing the questionnaires a brief explanation was given to the learners on how to fill it. To this end, comprehension and instruction check questions were employed to remove any ambiguities and assure that learners were on the right track. In order to obtain the proficiency scores of the participants a TOEFL was administered to the 240 advanced learners.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Testing the Hypotheses

To investigate the first three hypotheses of the study it deemed necessary to establish the normality assumption of different sets of data available. The normality assumption needs to be met since if this assumption is violated the data should be analyzed through non-parametric tests. On the other hand, if the data meet the normality assumption, it can be analyzed drawing on the parametric tests (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). To this end, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was run on the four data sets collected for the purposes of the study. Tables 4.1 and 4.2 display the descriptive statistics and One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test results of the analysis, respectively.
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Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the Reflective teaching, Willingness to Communicate, TOEFL and Intrinsic Motivation Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reflective Teaching Scores</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>148.7000</td>
<td>22.40794</td>
<td>112.00</td>
<td>198.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to Communicate Scores</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>62.0208</td>
<td>12.05304</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>99.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL Scores</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>61.3292</td>
<td>10.13817</td>
<td>44.00</td>
<td>86.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation Scores</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>86.9417</td>
<td>32.32570</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>147.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for establishing the Normality Assumption of the Four Data sets Collected in the Correlational Phase of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reflective Teaching Scores</th>
<th>Willingness to Communicate Scores</th>
<th>TOEFL Scores</th>
<th>Intrinsic Motivation Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Parameters^a,b</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>148.7000</td>
<td>62.0208</td>
<td>61.3292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>22.40794</td>
<td>12.05304</td>
<td>10.13817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Extreme Differences</td>
<td>Absolute</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>1.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>1.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>-.068</td>
<td>-.086</td>
<td>-.079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</td>
<td>.469</td>
<td>2.541</td>
<td>2.510</td>
<td>4.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.980</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>.330</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

As it is noticed in Table 4.2 the significance levels are all above 0.05 indicating that all the data sets of the study in the correlational phase are normally distributed. Having established the normality assumption, the researcher employed the Pearson correlation Coefficient formula which is a parametric test to investigate the first three hypotheses formulated for the correlational phase of the study.

4.1.1. Testing the First Hypotheses

The first null hypothesis of the present study as there is no significant relationship between reflective teaching and WTC was investigated by running Pearson correlation coefficient on the scores of the WTC questionnaire and the reflective teaching scores. Table 4.3 demonstrates the results of this analysis.

Table 3. Pearson Correlation Coefficient Results of the Reflective Teaching and WTC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reflective Teaching Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reflective Teaching Scores</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to Communicate Scores</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation .545**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) .003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N 240</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As Table 4.3 shows there is a significant correlation between reflective teaching and WTC (r = .545, p = .003 < 0.01). Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a positive and significant relationship between WTC and reflective teaching. Therefore, the first null hypothesis of the study is rejected.

4.1.2. Testing the Second Hypotheses

The second null hypothesis of the current study as there is no significant relationship between reflective teaching and intrinsic motivation was explored by running Pearson correlation coefficient on the scores of the intrinsic motivation questionnaire and the reflective teaching scores. Table 4.4 demonstrates the results of this analysis.
**Table 4.** Pearson Correlation Coefficient Results of the Reflective Teaching and Intrinsic Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reflective Teaching Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reflective Teaching Scores</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation: 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation Scores</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation: .314*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As it is shown in Table 4.4 a significant and positive correlation was found between reflective teaching and intrinsic motivation ($r = .314$, $p = .042 < .05$). Thus, the second null hypothesis of the study is rejected as well.

The results of data analysis in this study indicated that:

- There is a positive and significant relationship between reflective teaching and WTC.
- There is a positive and significant relationship between reflective teaching and proficiency test scores.

**5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

The present study sought to explore the relationship between reflective teaching, willingness to communicate and intrinsic motivation of the Iranian EFL learners. As motivation is one of the most important concepts in psychology and language education, which is commonly used to explain learners’ success and failure in learning (Dörnyei, 2009), it cannot be neglected as an important element related to critical thinking. The current study and its findings are in keeping with Littlejohn (1997, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997) who contended that the role of the curriculum and classroom practice in promoting WTC and motivation should be taken more seriously. In the current study it was revealed that reflective teaching is effective in enhancing the proficiency level of the participants. One of the possible explanations for this result could be the fact that when teachers are involved in reflective practice they pay more attention to the process of their teaching and as a result can help students learn more independently and thoughtfully. Put it other way, when a teacher is thinking about her own practice in the classroom and considers reflection as an important aspect of her job, she will inevitably transfer this way of thinking and doing things to the learners which in turn will result in improving learner autonomy and consequently better proficiency gains.

The findings also give support for the arguments of Benson (2000), Brown (1994), Dickinson (1995), Holec (1981) and Little woods (1999), who have stated that intrinsic motivation will be fostered if we give the second language learners an amount of freedom to the extent that they can think critically for their own course of learning. In other words, in the current study the improvement in proficiency level due to reflective teaching practiced, might have in one way or another impacted the motivation level of the learners’ positively. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), intrinsic motivation stems from the organism’s need to be competent and self-determining. Perception of competence and perception of control are apparently distinct but not easily separated. If a learner perceives himself as being a highly competent thinker in a learning situation, then the opportunities to take control of that situation will be meaningful to him. Moreover, in order to experience a feeling of competence, it is necessary to feel responsible for the actions and outcomes that demonstrate competence (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Another possible explanation for the relationship between intrinsic motivation and reflective teaching in this study could be found in what Dornyei (2001, p. 26) mentions as “the best motivational intervention is simply to improve the quality of our teaching”. Reflective teaching practice can be, therefore, seen as a factor which has increased the quality of teaching and subsequently the intrinsic motivation level of the learners and finally their proficiency gains.

Evidently, one of the main factors which teachers need to take into account while dealing with learners in the language teaching enterprise is motivation. Most language teachers believe that motivation is a key factor for success in language learning. There is no doubt that motivation is a potent force in language acquisition (Ellis, 1994). There have been plenty of studies that prove the
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changeability of motivation. As an important factor, the way teachers teach can contribute to motivation according to the results of the current study. That is reflective teaching has brought about a change in the motivation level of the participants.

According to the findings of this study, using reflective teaching is effective on proficiency level, which simply means teachers should try to adopt a reflective way of practice so as to help the learners improve their intrinsic motivation and consequently their gains in language learning.

Teacher trainers may devise and plan courses through which teacher trainees become familiar with how to adopt a reflective way of teaching that best helps student improve their intrinsic motivation and WTC.

Last but not least, there could be some sessions where both teachers and students participate so they get familiar with what reflective teaching and intrinsic motivation as well as WTC and proficiency are and how they work together.

REFERENCES


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