THT Journal

The Journal of Teachers Helping Teachers

Volume 1, Issue 1
Fall, 2013

A journal dedicated to exploring and promoting best practices in language education

The Journal of the Teachers Helping Teachers (THT) Special Interest Group

Edited by
Brent Jones & Richard Silver

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With the cooperation of Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT)

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Dedication Page

To Bill Balsamo

Teachers Helping Teachers Founder (1943-2008)

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Message from the THT Coordinator

The journal you are reading is, in a sense, a metaphor for THT as an ongoing program. While this is THT's first journal, it grows out of the 6 previous volumes of proceedings, published from 2006 to 2011. The original idea for a proceedings, developed by Brent Jones and Richard Silver, was to give the Japan based participants in the various THT events a publication opportunity. However, as participants were expanding their topics and adding the insights they had obtained from the attendees of our THT events, the notion of a proceedings, generated from the workshop, seemed too restrictive and did not do justice to the range of manuscripts that were being submitted.

The reasons for this help us see the growth and future possibilities for THT. A growing number of participants have been developing ties to the attendees and continuing to work with them throughout the year. Furthermore, the encounters that our mostly Japan-based delegates have had with various aspects of our host locations have encouraged them to develop research topics that are not strictly connected with what they have presented, but reflect a longer engagement with the locations.

I mentioned that the journal can be taken as a metaphor, because as the notion of what THT's publication mission is has evolved and grown, our relationships with the organizations that help us organize THT events has deepened and the move from a proceedings to a journal mirrors that growth and energy.

This year, another welcome development has been that we are now getting local participants to present, both as individuals and co-presenters, at our THT events and the journal will provide a way for them to follow up their presentations with publication. This journal supports one of my main goals as coordinator, which is to to make the THT programs a 50/50 partnership, where we both give and receive and I am truly grateful to Brent and Richard for all their work on this aspect of THT.

In closing, I'd like to emphasize that with this journal, we have more opportunities to connect with our THT locations. If you are interested in helping us in any way, please feel free to contact me at thtjalt@gmail.com.

Sincerely
Joseph Tomei
Coordinator, Teacher Helping Teachers (THT)
JALT Special Interest Group

Message from THT Journal Editors

Since its inception in 2004, THT has grown as a group and a concept. While staying true to its grassroots beginnings, THT has become more established and well-known over the past nine years. Evidence of this can be seen in its established visits to Bangladesh, Kyrgyzstan, Laos, the Philippines, and Vietnam, and its status as a Special Interest Group under the umbrella of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT).

Since 2006, THT has produced a yearly Proceedings, a printed account that both showcased the work of its members and served as a record of what had been done in the previous twelve months. Since 2011, all submissions have been blind peer reviewed, which has allowed contributors to get valuable feedback on their paper and review their writing, and then published either as a "feature" or a "forum" article. Once this process became established it became clear to us that we had outgrown the idea of a proceedings. Thus, this year we are very proud to present the inaugural THT Journal – officially The Journal of Teachers Helping Teachers. This replaces the previous proceedings but we hope you will agree that it contains the same blend of theory and practice, all of which we feel could be valuable for language teachers whether in Japan or further afield.

All the papers contained here have been double blind peer reviewed. We have opted for a slightly smaller paper size but retained the division of papers into two sections: "Feature Articles" and "Forum: Perspectives and Reviews". We have also kept the price the same, and all proceeds from the sale of this journal will support the work of THT. In time all the articles contained here will appear on-line and be accessible, as are all previous editions of the Proceedings, via the THT Website (www.tht-japan.org).

We are very grateful for the support of the coordinator of THT, Joe Tomei, and our team of reviewers and proofreaders who have been brilliant at providing constructive feedback for the authors in a timely manner. We would like to thank the authors for their hard work as well.

Please enjoy reading the THT Journal, Volume 1, Issue 1.

Warmest Regards,

Brent Jones & Richard Silver
Editors, THT Journal

Feature Articles

Learning Environment Analysis

Marian Wang
Kobe University

Abstract - Research practitioners should develop a systematic understanding of the social and organizational context within which learning unfolds to see if changes must be made to foster more powerful learning environments. A preliminary analysis of the School of Languages and Communication (SOLAC) at Kobe University demonstrated that SOLAC's mission, goals, structure, and governance were aligned with the university's vision of creating a world-class institution. The purpose of this paper is to identify a learning issue, apply theoretical and practical tools to the organizational analysis, identify factors that influence the development of foreign language learning environments at SOLAC, and evaluate and analyze the issue. The final analysis will show how coherence within SOLAC and its positioning in Kobe University's vision will facilitate constructive institutional responses to address the learning issue.

Learning Issue: Striving for Wisdom Inquiry in Language Learning

Foreign language teaching in Japan in middle school and high school generally follows the grammar-translation method of stressing accuracy, vocabulary acquisition, direct translation, and grammar rules (Fotos, 1998; Koike & Tanaka, 1995). It is usually at universities where many Japanese learners, particularly learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), are exposed to communicative language teaching (CLT) practices that target fluency. At times, it may be difficult for EFL learners to cope with the change in teaching methods, from a passive teacher-fronted learning setting to a more active group-oriented learning setting (Taguchi & Naganuma, 2006). Although Matsuura, Chiba, and Hilderbrandt (2001) claim that Japanese EFL learners favor teacher-fronted language classes, Furuhata's study (1999) found that they actually preferred more innovative approaches to language teaching. Nonetheless, EFL teachers at higher education institutions in Japan might benefit from realizing that Japanese language learners may not feel comfortable with CLT practices and should familiarize themselves with how the grammar translation method, according to Hino (1988), has hindered the emergence of interactive learning environments necessary for foreign language learning. Miller (1995) recommends that EFL instructors, namely non-Japanese EFL instructors, adopt Japanese-friendly language teaching approaches that factor cultural norms into their CLT practices. This implies that EFL educators at Japanese higher education institutions should acknowledge that Japanese learners' passive learning behaviors will impact learning environments and should carefully craft safe learning environments that will give EFL learners opportunities to communicate actively in a foreign language. Once learners become accustomed to learning foreign languages in communicative ways, they will be able to move along the spectrum ranging from knowledge-acquisition, knowing about languages, to wisdom inquiry – a process that identifies problems of living, proposes and assesses possible solutions, compartmentalizes the problems, and connects basic and specialized problem solving (Maxwell, 2007, p. 102).

Organizational Analysis and Learning Environment

One of SOLAC's aims is to develop foreign language courses and study tours for Kobe University students who will be able to compete in the global economy (Kobe University, 2013). As language learning is perceived as a catalyst for global learning and awareness, SOLAC teachers are expected to manage learning environments that will contribute to the achievement of global learning outcomes. What are the requirements of a powerful language learning environment, assuming CLT practices (Savignon, 1991) that increase linguistic competence through social interaction?

Learning Spaces for Language Learning

The physical learning environment – learning spaces – must be designed for communicative language learning. Ideally, learning spaces should be able to be reconfigured according to teacher and learner preferences of teaching and learning. Hunley and Schaller (2006) found that physical structures must be versatile enough to account for a variety of learning styles in an engaged learning environment that can accommodate group, pair or individual work, virtual or non-virtual learning, and formal or informal learning.

Unfortunately, in older, established higher education institutions in Japan, the classroom layout resembles a typical lecture hall with immovable chairs and a podium at the front, suitable for the grammar-translation method of language learning. At SOLAC, there have been attempts to construct classrooms for teachers who expect learners to work in groups, engage in discussions, and become more active language learners. Recently, one classroom was renovated with movable chairs placed around eight large tables with wheels. It may come as no surprise that this is the most popular classroom, booked by SOLAC teachers who would rather have students, teachers, furniture, and high-tech equipment be mobile. There is also the Language HUB (www.solac.kobe-u.ac.jp/index-e.html), with modular sofas and other movable furniture, which allows Kobe University students to drop in and converse informally in foreign languages with teaching assistants from various countries as well as the SOLAC teacher on duty.

Before embarking on future projects to refurbish learning spaces, Bennett's (2007) framework about learning spaces may elucidate how physical learning spaces could be modified to enhance SOLAC's learning environment. Bennett analyzes how learning spaces can be designed while considering virtual learning, student productivity in studying, individual or group studying requirements, management of knowledge, teacher-student interaction outside of the classroom, and enriching educational experiences. He believes that, ultimately, spaces must be tailored to the unique learning culture of a higher education institution. At SOLAC, although the majority of teachers rely on CLT practices, there are teachers who prefer teacher-fronted classrooms. Therefore, it would be an overstatement to say that CLT is practiced by all SOLAC teachers. Furthermore, there are teachers who rely heavily on technology and those who avoid technology when possible. What is perhaps not an exaggeration would be to say that faculty members hope that their language learners will become more interested in foreign languages and global

cultures by taking SOLAC courses. As for Bennett's six questions, the final question that asks how learning spaces could enrich educational experiences would be most applicable to SOLAC's mission. SOLAC, with its recent development in creating physical spaces such as the Language HUB and a classroom with mobile furniture, is altering learning spaces to stimulate deeper learning experiences that rely less on formal teacher-fronted classroom settings to more informal language learning settings where group work and free conversations may ensue. If SOLAC continues along this path of breaking away from traditional teacher-fronted classroom design and incorporating other forms of learning spaces, it may let language teachers who adhere to CLT principles work in settings that do no compromise their teaching styles.

Bennett's (2007) first question asks what it is about learning spaces that drives institutions to create traditional classrooms instead of virtual classrooms. At SOLAC, virtual learning or more specifically, technology and language teaching, has been frequently discussed. Johnson (2006) observes that buying gadgets or setting up classrooms with modern technology is only the first step of creating technology-friendly classrooms. A crucial step, frequently overlooked, is to have maintenance and support systems that make learning spaces operate effectively and efficiently for instructors and learners. Before buying equipment – the latest being iPads – SOLAC needs to ask why such equipment is needed, who will manage and support the equipment, and how it can make sure that the equipment will help achieve SOLAC's mission of language learning to solve global living problems. At the very least, faculty members who decide to use classrooms with high-tech equipment should be able to teach without worrying about inadequate or nonexistent maintenance and support systems of technological equipment. Devoid of maintenance or support systems and faculty buy-in of the necessity of high-tech learning environments, SOLAC will not have "well-used" or "well-supported" spaces (Johnson, 2006) that foster deep language learning.

Awareness-raising Approaches

Having workable learning spaces is but one factor that influences language learning environments at SOLAC. Another factor that should be explored would be professional development programs as SOLAC expands its course offering and teaching staff due to Kobe University's Vision 2015 of global excellence (Kobe University, 2013). Ho (2000) and Trigwell and Prosser (2004) offer frameworks that, if applied to SOLAC, could point to areas where staff members can collaborate towards reaching its goals of providing interactive and meaningful language learning experiences to learners. All in all, SOLAC teachers are cooperative but do not have many formal opportunities to share their teaching beliefs and principles. As language teachers are given flexibility in curriculum design, teaching methods, and assessment practices, it is difficult to know without dialogue or classroom observations if there are gaps between how teachers teach and how they would like to or should teach. Ho's (2000) conceptual change approach to staff development model is a 10-step program beginning with raising awareness of teaching methodologies, looking at alternatives through case studies, and applying what was learned in the program to a lesson and sharing with others what was learned from the program. She believes in professional change that is not imposed but cultivated through

awareness-raising practices. Trigwell and Prosser's (2004) Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI) – a survey consisting of 16 items filled out by instructors to find out how their teaching styles impact the learning of students – could be taken at the preliminary stages of the awareness-raising program. The overall aim of such a program would be ongoing communication among faculty members who strive to work in professional settings that are open to discussing teaching philosophies and furthering language learning beyond knowledge acquisition.

Ho's (2000) program for faculty development could be incorporated in SOLAC classes where students can follow a similar approach to raise their awareness of how to become active language learners. In principle, SOLAC faculty view language teaching differently from content-driven lectures, which would explain SOLAC's investment in language spaces and equipment for interactive and group learning. There is also tacit agreement among faculty members that by the time Japanese university students enter university, they have become disenchanted by the grammar-translation method, burned out from studying for university entrance examinations, and lack motivation to learn foreign languages. Some faculty members believe that they should encourage their learners to have a more positive attitude towards foreign language learning. Therefore, many language teachers try to increase their students' motivation by raising student awareness that knowing about language (e.g., grammar rules) benefited them in passing university examinations but has not equipped them with the language skills necessary for solving problems of living in the global society; hence, the distinction between knowledge acquisition and wisdom inquiry must be highlighted to learners.

One way that SOLAC teachers motivate Japanese language learners to become active learners is by inviting non-native speakers from countries other than Japan or professionals who work at international companies or organizations into the language classroom. Japanese university students can be inspired to study foreign languages when they are able to imagine their ideal L2 selves (Yashima, 2009) as individuals who can use foreign languages with people from other cultures. In other words, teaching faculty can become "brokers" (Wenger, 2000) by finding new communities of practice within larger communities for their students to join. By bringing in other non-native speakers of English to the classroom, students may be able to emulate new role models who might resemble their ideal L2 selves (Wang & Nowlan, 2011). Professionals who share their experience working in international companies or organizations may heighten students' instrumental motivation in using foreign languages in their future careers. Some SOLAC teachers, recognizing that Japanese female university graduates are excluded from getting career-track positions designated for their male counterparts (Brinton, 1988, 1989), bring in speakers so that female learners, considered illegitimate members of society (Burt, 1998), can "borrow" from other social networks. Thus, the professional responsibilities of SOLAC teachers include raising students' human capital (what they know) and social capital (who they know) by giving them opportunities to widen their social networks. In this way, students will be able to experience positive psychological capital that goes beyond human and social capital, thereby reaching the ultimate goal of society where they can live with optimism, hope, resilience, and confidence (Luthans, Luthans, &

Luthans, 2004, p. 46).

The reality, however, remains that Japanese university students are limited to using English with their Japanese classmates, a setting that makes them feel embarrassed or ashamed to practice their foreign language skills. Wang and Bean (2010) showed that most Japanese university students can eventually overcome their fear of speaking English to their peers in classrooms that have strict English-only policies. In English-only classes, students discovered that speaking English is a habit that must be developed over time; the more they practiced speaking English with their peers, the less self-conscious they became about using English with them. Some SOLAC language teachers have adopted English-only policies in the classroom or at the very least, refrain from speaking Japanese to their students. In summary, at SOLAC, faculty members monitor classroom environments so that students can communicate in English with their Japanese peers, non-native speakers of English from countries other than Japan, and visitors from international companies and organizations.

Study Tours: Experiential Learning and Collaborative Research

Wisdom inquiry is viewed as laying the foundation for powerful learning environments that may extend beyond the classroom (Steffes, 2004). SOLAC arranges experiential learning experiences such as study tours to America, Australia, Austria, China, France, and New Zealand for students to apply what they have learned in the classroom to real contexts (Kobe University, n.d.). Kolb's four stages of the cycle of experiential learning, beginning with concrete experiences, progresses to observation and reflection, formation of abstract concepts and generalizations, and lastly, to testing the abstract concepts and generalizations in new situations (Kolb, 1984). Although his ideas have been criticized for focusing primarily on cognitive factors that oversimplify learning (Lähteenmäki, Toivonen, & Mattila, 2001, p. 116), experiential learning theory can be used to analyze SOLAC's learning environment in how it arranges study tours and allows teaching staff to conduct research projects based on the students' study abroad experiences.

Last summer, I accompanied approximately 40 Kobe University students on a short summer tour of "experiencing America" by living with a host family and attending language courses at the University of Washington in Seattle. As my primary role was to help with the initial stages of the students' transition into America, students were expected to inform me or another coordinator about problems concerning their host families and language courses. More often than not, students had preconceived abstract concepts and generalizations about America, especially in how they expected their host family to behave towards them. Kolb's experiential learning theory assumes that experiences lead to hypotheses but for these students, they began testing preconceived hypotheses upon arrival to America, indicating that the hypotheses were being tested simultaneously with experiences. Certainly, there were hypotheses formed and tested after experiences; however, in the initial stages of adjustment to America, there was an overlapping of the four stages of experiential learning.

Students who went on study tours were encouraged to reflect – one of the steps in Kolb's

cycle of experiential learning – in journals, blogs, emails, and on Facebook. When students participated in faculty research projects before, during and after their study tour, synergies were created between teachers and students and across faculty members in research, information-sharing, and reflection. König, Diehl, Tscherning and Helming (2013) recommend involving students in interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary research projects. The study tours enabled SOLAC faculty to research the longitudinal changes in deep learning that may occur in students who were equally curious about the research findings that could corroborate their expectations of improvement in their learning. Due to the success of the study tours in facilitating collaborative research projects among staff and with Kobe University students, SOLAC hopes that the study tours will continue to raise student cooperation and faculty coordination in research projects.

Analysis and Evaluation of Learning Issue – Wisdom Inquiry

This paper began with a brief description of SOLAC striving for wisdom inquiry in language teaching and learning. Institutions that espouse wisdom inquiry can generate powerful learning environments but what exactly is "powerful" about wisdom inquiry? Knowledge acquisition may obstruct wisdom inquiry in higher education institutions if according to Bauman (2003) information overload hinders the probability of stakeholders being able to locate socially-relevant topics (p. 25). The positive effects of wisdom inquiry can be felt when all stakeholders of higher education are acting collectively to transform society through social policies that inspire new ways of living in a global community. All of this may sound overly optimistic, but for SOLAC, language teaching, learning and research are one of the bedrocks of an imminent and foreseeable globally-integrated Japan – a mission that is supported by Kobe University's Vision 2015 of global excellence and funding from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) to offer more English classes to students who aspire to participate in university-wide exchange programs.

SOLAC's Future

SOLAC recognizes that it must stay committed to designing more learning spaces for interactive learning, building more awareness-raising opportunities for faculty and students, and expanding its study tour programs for experiential learning and collaborative research; nevertheless, wisdom inquiry presumes that problems of living are organic and stakeholders must be allowed multiple entry points towards problem solving (Maxwell, 2007). If SOLAC is to invest in its future, it must confront any challenges that may arise in research and pedagogical strategies, diversity and equality, and social integration. Like any higher education institution, it must constantly revisit its mission to prevent it from becoming what Wenger (2000) calls, a learning entity that learns not to learn (p. 230).

What are the most important factors that will impact SOLAC's future and how can SOLAC address these issues? First, as SOLAC embarks on a journey of global excellence with Kobe University and MEXT, it must analyze the political environment in which it is operating. Established in 2003, SOLAC supports courses offered by the Institution of the Promotion of Higher Education in the College of General Education

(Kobe University, 2013, p. 40). SOLAC is a not a department of Kobe University – it is a "Common Use Facility" that responds to the foreign language needs of Kobe University students from various faculties who frequently see passing foreign language courses as a means towards accumulating enough credits to graduate. For SOLAC students, especially in required English courses, wisdom inquiry as a learning goal may not be logistically feasible when teachers must teach 40 students in a classroom once a week for 15 weeks. All of this may be disheartening for EFL teachers at SOLAC who would like their courses to influence their students' desire to solve global problems.

SOLAC's current project of increasing the number of English courses offered to students who want to study abroad is a step towards addressing its learning issue of wisdom inquiry. Instead of providing English courses to Kobe University students who view English courses as easy credits, SOLAC should reorient its course offering to students who are motivated to study foreign languages and cultures. Furthermore, it should try to design a variety of courses that are not only skills driven (e.g., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) but also content driven, with wisdom inquiry embedded in the learning process. The study tours could combine language proficiency goals with social goals that can be reached through field work, similar to what students in the Faculty of Intercultural Studies are doing on their internships as volunteer teachers of Japanese or working for nongovernmental organizations in developing countries such as Ghana, the Philippines, Cambodia, and Nepal. Moreover, SOLAC faculty could work with students on research projects that revolve around problem solving concerning global issues. Thus, the possibilities of collaboration across teaching faculty and students might be infinite when wisdom inquiry becomes the means of achieving SOLAC's overall aims and goals.

Conclusion

SOLAC is aligned with Kobe University's goal of becoming a world class institution by identifying wisdom inquiry as indispensable for students to experience powerful learning environments. Wisdom inquiry in teaching, learning, and research could be promoted if SOLAC continues to invest in learning spaces for communicative language teaching practices, awareness-raising approaches for staff and students, experiential learning study tours with social and collaborative research aims, and content courses for motivated students. SOLAC's future hinges on its ability to sustain and enhance powerful learning environments through wisdom inquiry in the classroom and beyond. With a focus on global problem solving, SOLAC is a key player in Kobe University's Vision 2015 of becoming a higher education institution of global excellence in research, education, contribution to society, and university management. It is hoped that other higher education institutions with similar global missions will be able to foster learning environments that incorporate wisdom inquiry within their institutional goals of learning, teaching, and research practices.

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Biographical Statement

Marian Wang is Associate Professor at the School of Languages and Communication (SOLAC) at Kobe University. She has taught at Kwansei Gakuin in Japan and the International Trade Institute in Taiwan. She has worked at international organizations including the World Trade Organization in Geneva, UNICEF in Paris, Oxfam America, Catholic Relief Services in Macedonia, and Partners for Democratic Change. She holds an M.A. in Law and Diplomacy from the Fletcher School at Tufts University and an M.A. in TESOL from the Monterey Institute of International Studies.

What's in a Wiki for Me? How a Wiki can be used to Enhance a Language Learning Classroom and Student Collaboration

Simon Thomas
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Abstract – Research literature illustrates that Wikis can be an effective tool in positively facilitating constructivist learning, enabling collaboration, empowering, and increasing levels of communication and interaction between students, both in and out of the classroom.
This empirical, cross-cultural study identifies students' subjective reactions and responsiveness to the use of a Wiki in research guided by a qualitative, phenomenological research methodology framework. It reveals that the Wiki positively facilitated the building of stronger group relationships and enabled students to collaborate, support and assist each other in online language learning projects in and out of the classroom. It also illustrates a Wiki to be a valuable program support tool for students to independently preview and review lessons and gain access to class materials and teacher recommended web-based learning materials wherever they can connect to the Internet.
Requiring no technical expertise to create, a Wiki can also provide teachers with a class management tool with a means of creating an additional open communication channel with their students to inform and deliver whilst also providing opportunities to monitor and assist students' development and progress as they work. Presenting background literature to the use of Wikis in language learning education, this paper describes how a Wiki was used in the context of this study. Through providing examples of students' collaboration in language learning projects that illustrate how students' second language writing improved, this paper can assist teachers in making an informed decision whether or not a Wiki is a tool that they would want to employ in their classroom.

Why a Wiki?

A large variety of online tools are available for teachers to use in their classes and with their students. Written as a descriptive account of the use of one of these tools (i.e. Wikis), this paper is not meant to provide a comparison with alternative online tools but will illustrate how a Wiki was used within the context of an English language classroom in a university in Japan.

Literature shows that Wikis can enable teachers to facilitate positive student to peer networks, increased learning opportunities and enhanced classroom management. As a Wiki can be created at no cost, in very little time, and requires only basic knowledge of word processing skills to use, edit and develop its pages it is accessible to teachers with no technical expertise, and to students. It can be used in any of the following situations:

1. In computer assisted language learning classrooms where the teacher and students have use of Internet-enabled computer terminals, laptops or tablets

2. In classrooms where the teacher has the sole Internet-enabled computer and a projector and students have access to Internet-enabled computer/tablet facilities or mobile devices on campus or in their homes
3. In classrooms where networked computers/tablets/other Internet-enabled mobile devices are not available, but are available to teachers and students elsewhere on campus, or in their own homes

The context of use in this research focuses on and describes how a Wiki was used in the first of these three situations. However, in the Discussion and Conclusion section of this paper how a Wiki could be used in the second and third situations will also be briefly described, although this teacher does not have firsthand experience with either of these.

As this paper will illustrate, a Wiki can facilitate a number of different benefits to both teachers and students. These include, but are not limited to:

1. supporting classroom management activities such as publishing resources/ materials and lesson plans,
2. offering authentic writing practice opportunities in dedicated online spaces for diaries, reviews, reflections, brainstorming, reports and projects,
3. actively engaging students in reading, writing, correcting and editing their own, and collaborating or commenting on their peers' Wiki pages independent of time and space,
4. enabling collaboration, teamwork and computer skills to develop alongside language skills,
5. incorporating multimedia content and links to teacher recommended materials and language learning sites, and,
6. being kept password protected to specific user groups or made available to a wider audience through email invitation.

Further details and descriptions on educational uses, forms, methods and ideas of how a Wiki can be integrated into schools and classrooms are offered at DOTS (see Using wikis for language education, 2008), Duffy and Bruns (2006), Mader (2006a, 2006b), and Tonkin (2005). A wide number of descriptions within these resources show that a Wiki can complement and support both language teaching and learning with a focus on any of the four language skills, or the teaching of other subjects.

Assigned an Internet-networked computer assisted language learning (CALL) classroom, this teacher wanted to employ an online tool that could fulfill three purposes, whilst also being easily usable and accepted by students. These three purposes were:

> *Firstly*, to act as a classroom management support tool to hold program and classroom information and inform students of weekly classroom goals and activities,
>
> *Secondly*, to provide a dedicated online material distribution and reference

tool where students could also find teacher recommended learning and practice resources relevant to, and suitable for the goals of each class, and,

Thirdly, to provide an online learning space for students to connect with a language learning purpose both in and out of class to prepare for, collaborate on and deliver written preparation for in class speaking and discussion activities.

This paper will first illustrate some of the literature both supporting and criticizing the use of Wikis in education and language learning, before describing how a Wiki was used in a networked language learning classroom in Japan with these three purposes in mind. Students' qualitative reactions to the use of the Wiki will then be provided highlighting their perceptions of the advantages and disadvantages of its use. These student reactions will show that a Wiki's inherent features provided benefits to the management of the class, the provision of language learning materials and the collaborative language learning process despite it receiving minor criticism, and so the Wiki met the three purposes it was employed for.

Wiki

Facilitated by the development of Web 2.0, Wiki technology has enabled online communities to create, develop, share and collaborate in the production of online, open network content. As a series of socially-constructed, interconnected, nonlinear web pages with an open editing interface, a Wiki can become a private, password restricted website providing spaces where ideas can be created and developed, and where second language projects containing text, pictures, audio and video can be showcased. Wikis have enabled socially dynamic, collaborative environments and communities to form based on the fundamental trends of users and community, openness and open data, networked services and new dimensions (Dodds, 2008). Lund (2008) supports these notions by describing Wikis as able to advance social creation of knowledge through sharing, consistent with a group of *netizens*, or networked group of learners (Ebersbach & Glazer, 2004; Godwin-Jones, 2003). This ability to form knowledge building communities of practice (Jonassen, Beck & Wilson, 1999) is a key element of Wikis, and this social constructivism can facilitate learning and language use amongst students.

Wikis and Constructivist Theories of Learning

Theories of knowledge building and constructivism, originally developed by Paiget (1953), center around the experiences of, and interaction between networked groups of individuals who collaborate in order to create meaning and understanding in any given situation. The construction of knowledge, which occurs through processes of accommodation and assimilation with the environment means that learning can become a shared and social experience. Social constructivism, highlighted by Vygotsky's (1978) theory of Zones of Proximal Development (ZPD), draws attention to the differences between what learners can do with, and without help, and the potential learning that can be achieved through peer collaboration and negotiation. Not limited to only the human aspect of collaboration and negotiation, the ZPD also concerns the exploration, creation,

research, editing and active learning that goes on, and is influenced by the environment around learners and in which they operate. This suggests that the intervention of cultural tools or artifacts, such as Wikis, could also influence and aid interaction and higher mental functions within learners. Jonassen, Peck and Wilson (1999) describe environments and technologies that allow learners to be engaged in meaningful learning, knowledge construction, conversation, articulation, collaboration, authenticity, and reflection as moving towards theories of technology enhanced constructivist learning.

Kaufman (2004) supports the virtues that the use of inquiry-orientated, constructivist-based and constructivist compatible digital technologies can have on the expansion and enabling of language learning opportunities through collaboration. He writes that when the Internet and online environments, such as a Wiki, are integrated into a curriculum, they assist in bringing real world problem solving issues into the classroom for deliberation, and extend student capabilities and contexts for social interaction. Lavin and Claro (2005), Scordias, Jaradat and Hoagland (2009) and Yates (2008) stress, however, that in the Wiki environment, this constructivist learning and language acquisition is only properly achieved with the appropriate combination of task, instructional design and facilitating instructor.

Wikis in Education and Language Learning

Used in education, Wikis have taken traditional and CALL classrooms, instructors, materials, class activities, learners and their projects onto the World Wide Web, providing a dedicated space for its users and adding a new dimension to learning through Internet-enabled devices. Effective use of a Wiki requires very little technical skill or training (Mason & Rennie, 2008) and can be created in a very short space of time, requiring only a little initial planning into how it will be used by the teacher and students. Other planning might include how the pathways through the Wiki pages will be constructed and branch out from the front page. The ease of creation and use allowing users to focus on generating and working with the content, information and other users is a highly positive factor for teachers with little technological training or experience. A Wiki can be quickly set up and initiated for use with one or several classes of students to supply content or to create spaces for learners to generate their own content, or, in another scenario, for a community of teachers to initiate and facilitate collaborative professional development.

Elgort, Smith and Toland (2008) and Robertson (2008) illustrate Wikis as a good online resource guide and tool for students, with its strengths being its ease of use and collaborative aspects. Creation of Wiki pages and use of Wiki tools in the collaborative finding, shaping and sharing of knowledge (Reinhold, 2006) is described as stimulating the development of learner autonomy, learner identity, emancipation (Ebersbach & Glazer, 2004), online social networking, peer-to-peer dialogue (Warschauer, Turbee & Roberts, 1996), and the fostering of social ties (Auger, Raitman & Zhou, 2006). This is able to increase benefits in learner motivation and language learning (Swain, Brooks & Tocalli-Beller, 2002) and can empower students to find their own voice (Minocha & Roberts, 2008). It is described by Scordias, Jaradat and Hoagland (2009) as providing

learners with interactive, student driven, differentiated learning through visualization, simulation and interaction, moving towards the strengthening of student learning.

Specifically within EFL teaching, Wikis have been used predominantly with writing programs (Anzai, 2008a; Chao & Huang, 2007; Kovacic, Bubas & Zlatovic, n.d.; Lund, 2008; Turgut, 2009; Wang, Lu, Yang, Hu, Chiou, Chiang & Hsu, 2005). As a collaborative writing tool, a Wiki maximizes the ability to continuously reflect, review, publish and observe cumulative written results as they unfold in the production process. This allows students greater benefit from the collaboration and cooperation in sharing and building ideas and language ideas, skills and awareness within the Wiki (Fountain, 2005; Lamb, 2004; Lund, 2008). The unlimited access to course materials and the freedom afforded to students to access, edit and contribute to the knowledge that is created by a geographically distributed group working together in spaces and time convenient to the individual users provided by its web-based status were similarly seen as some of the strengths that a Wiki can add to the teaching of writing (Lamb, 2004; Turgut, 2009). Anzai (2008a) reports that the motivational aspect of technology enhanced learning was a strong influence within her learners who thought that utilizing a Wiki as an online tool was interesting and an innovative idea. Kovacic, Bubas, and Zlatovic (n.d.) also identify a Wiki as equipping learners with transferable language and computer skills necessary for continued academic and professional work.

Criticisms of the Use of Wikis in Education

Despite the strengths that the use of a Wiki can bring to education and language learning, it is not without opposition. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2003) perceive that when a Wiki is used as a writing tool and learners are placed face-to-face with technology in the classroom rather than with their peers, the person-to-person/face-to-face interaction, which leads to the strengthened social ties in and out of the classroom described by Auger, et al. (2006), is lost. However, used by students as a tool out of the classroom to assist in preparing for in class speaking and discussion activities through writing activities, a Wiki is able to support students by allowing collaboration and cooperation in sharing and building ideas to take place online while not losing face-to-face interaction.

In spite of ease of use being described as one of Wiki's benefits, Mason and Rennie (2008) and Robertson (2008) claim that the web-like design can cause difficulties for second language students when learning to use a Wiki and navigate around and through the necessary pages and instructions, especially if they are written in the target language. Young (2002) describes that students may feel over-burdened with learning pressure due to the amount of new vocabulary that they may encounter in Wiki pages and this may cause adverse effects in learning motivations. Durndell and Haag (2002) perceive learners' personal and subjective efficacy with web-based tools, attitudes towards their use and time spent using the Internet to be associated with levels of anxiety in learning to use tools such as Wikis.

Another common concern about Wiki use is that content created by one user could be easily edited by others (Auger et al., 2006; Robertson, 2008). This was expressed in the

EFL context by Lund (2008) and Turgut (2009), whose students expressed concern about *netiquette* issues related to less proficient group members having editing powers over work created by others. Rollinson (2005) suggests that peer support and interaction can be unprofitable due to the lack of trust in accuracy, sincerity and specificity of comments. However, a Wiki's ability to revert to previously created content and reject any undesirable changes that are made is a move towards reducing these concerns. A Wiki administrator can also receive emails containing detailed records of all changes made on the Wiki by registered users, which can similarly minimize any anxiety about editing abilities of students and original content being lost.

Context of this Study and Participants

In order to increase utilization of a technology-enhanced networked classroom with fixed computer terminals and fulfill the three purposes outlined at the start of this paper for an English language program with a focus on oral communication, a Wiki was employed in two classes with a total of fifty-two second-year students with mixed ability English proficiency, in their once a week, 90-minute class. In this class a textbook was not used. Materials leading into and setting the scene for classroom projects came from the World Wide Web, as did listening, pronunciation and reading language development and support activities. The Wiki therefore formed the connection between the face to face interaction and speaking activities, the Web-based language development and practice activities, and the written and collaboration activities designed to prepare for the speaking and face to face interactions.

Written entirely in English, the Wiki provided the web accessible functions of:

1. acting as an administrative tool to inform students of course purpose, goals, semester syllabus and grading information,
2. containing instructions for weekly classroom and homework activities including written and digitally recorded oral examples of tasks to be completed and documents that were needed,
3. providing URL links to websites to be used in class activities and homework that students could use to develop language skills and help them complete projects,
4. providing class pages for notices to be posted and each learner with a homepage where an online identity was created,
5. providing spaces where learners could create the collaborative projects leading to oral English production required as part of the semester's syllabus,
6. allowing learners to add comments and suggestions to the class page and other students' homepages and projects as part of a collaborative, constructivist forum.

The curriculum required that students interact and engage with each other outside of class in the Wiki environment in order to complete class projects. How often students were to do this in each project was not stipulated. To engage and interact outside of class over the course of the program students had to (1) navigate the English language Wiki, (2) create new pages, and (3) create, edit and upload text, audio files, pictures and comments on the themes of the projects. Instructions and demonstrations to help students use the Wiki and

complete these actions were given in class, with time given over for student practice. Students were also shown a Wiki embedded instructional video that they could refer to throughout the year.

Class projects typically worked towards oral production of English in the form of a short individual or group presentation, discussion or task. Two examples of work produced by collaborative student groups will be illustrated in the research findings. Each project required active interaction, negotiation and collaboration. Support from group or class members was also required to assist in the exploration, creation, research and editing of ideas, as well as preparation of oral activities to support and challenge learner thinking. This technology-enhanced, constructivist learning resulted in the construction of knowledge that may not have been possible for students alone. In class and homework assignments students were directed to complete their own preparations within a specific period of time. Following this, group and class members were directed to access others' preparation and to edit or add to this preparation to help improve grammar, vocabulary, ideas and expressions. Each time a student accessed the Wiki to work on their own projects, or collaborate with other students, the teacher was sent an email showing what changes to each page had been made. Teachers were then able to add encouraging comments on these changes or assist a student in any way necessary before the next class.

There are many online Wiki providers available to choose from and the Wiki Matrix website (http://www.wikimatrix.org/) can provide detailed specifications and comparisons of a large number of these. Of these providers, only two – Pbworks and Wikispaces – have been used by this teacher with different online communities of practice. These two providers offer very similar mobile device friendly, educational Wiki packages with the most apparent difference between them being the initial look and design of the web page template. Both providers offer free and paid packages depending on the number of students the Wiki will be used with, the needs of the site administrator, and, amongst a number of available features each provider offers "what you see is what you get" (WYSIWYG) editing. WYSIWYG editing allows the creation and formatting of text, images, tables, files and links that are created on the screen using a toolbar similar to that found in Microsoft Word. This means that technical layout commands do not need to be used. Of the two recommended Wiki providers, Pbworks (www.pbworks.com) was chosen for use with these classes because this teacher had had greater previous experience with it and was more familiar with its set up, layout and workings. Appendix 1 provides a brief comparison overview of some of the key features of both Pbworks and Wikispaces taken from the Wiki Matrix website.

Research Aims

The literature on the use of Wikis in education and language learning has illustrated a number of both positive and negative attitudes and affects. It was not the aim of this empirical research study to impose these literature informed ideas onto the student research participants or to learn whether and to what extent they agreed or disagreed. Instead, through the research methodology employed, this research aimed to uncover the

students' subjective views of the Wiki as an administrative and language learning tool in this English program. This research was carried out to ascertain whether Wikis could be a tool suitable for the three desired purposes, was accepted by students and could be used in successive years.

Research Question

What are students' thoughts and opinions towards the use of a Wiki as an online administrative and classroom tool in an EFL setting, and what particular issues affect or concern the students most about the use of the Wiki?

Research Methodology

Through this study this teacher was interested in understanding the meaning the students place on their interaction with the Wiki, then representing their experiences. Investigating the subjective meanings and understandings that individual students have created about this environment is not suited to quantitative methodologies and methods, which are characterized by "an objective positivist search for singular truths" that rely on "hypotheses, variables and statistics" generally on a large scale and without depth (O'Leary, 2010, p. 105). Instead, this investigation is better suited to qualitative research methodologies and methods which are able to generate data for thematic exploration.

In order to describe and understand the meaning placed on the Wiki from the perspectives of the students and to reduce individual experiences to a description of the basic essence of that experience and a deep understanding (Creswell, 2007; Gray, 2009; O'Leary, 2010) a phenomenological research methodology is best suited to this study. This methodology was chosen because, as Croker (2009) explains, this "can help teachers be more aware of their students' language learning experiences, or help language program administrators more sensitively structure courses" (p. 15).

Research methods associated with phenomenological studies are often described as, but not limited to observation, rich description of text produced by the group of individuals/participants, and interview (Creswell, 2007; Gray, 2009; O'Leary, 2010). Within this study, observation and description of text would have provided a representation of how students interact with and collaborate within the Wiki. Individual or focus group interviews would also have provided a description and understanding of the learners' experiences using the Wiki. However, the issue of cross-cultural research and translation forced reconsideration of the method of interview. In then end, an online qualitative survey was adopted to produce student-created text.

This method was chosen because of the issues that surround translation in cross-cultural research, as documented by Andrews (1995), Biribili (2000), Regimi, Naidoo and Pilkington (2010), Temple (1997) and Temple and Edwards (2002). Cross-cultural synchronous interviews can cause difficulties resulting from the fact that "almost any utterance in any language carries with it a set of assumptions, feelings, and values that the speaker may or may not be aware of but that the field worker, as an outsider, usually is not" (Philips, 1960, cited in Biribili, 2000, p. 5). The use of a translator is one method

to overcome these difficulties. However a translator can influence the informant, the communicative process and the translation with his/her own ideas (Kluckhohn, 1945, cited in Phillips, 1960).

An alternative option to the use of a translator is to carry out research in the learners' second language. This however, also carries with it problems (Andrews, 1995). Second language learners may not be able to convey their true thoughts, feelings and opinions in the target language and attempting an investigation in the learners' L2 may yield limited results restricted to the participants L2 proficiency levels. Added to this, there is also the pressure and anxiety that may be felt by participants when asked to take part in research in their L2. This may make them unwilling to participate (Andrews, 1995).

To reduce these limitations Brislin (1970) suggests the recruitment of at least two bilingual people into a cross-cultural research process, and the use of text which can reduce one translator's influence and effect on synchronous communicative process. One bilingual person should provide forward translation from the source language to the target language, and another to back translate. This text based method allows comparisons of accuracy and equivalence to be made between both versions and discrepancies to be negotiated (cited in Regimi, Naidoo & Pilkington, 2010).

Brislin's suggestions were adopted and to reduce the effect a translator can exert on the synchronous communication process while still collecting the qualitative data associated with phenomenological research it was decided to use the method of qualitative survey in the form of open-ended questions. Not reducing the need for the services of a translator this method allows the asynchronous translation and validation of translation by a second translator to be carried out.

Data Collection

A short open-ended survey and outline of ethical considerations (Gray, 2009) was compiled, translated into Japanese and then back translated with the assistance of two native Japanese speaking English teachers to confirm comparisons of accuracy. Questions asked students for their comments and reactions to using the Wiki in four areas:

1. As a classroom management tool in a language learning program,
2. As a tool to assist in their study and development of English,
3. As a tool to assist group collaboration in using English to complete class projects, and
4. About the Wiki's ease of use.

A URL link to the Survey Monkey survey was placed into the Wiki and during the final class of the second semester, while the teacher was not present, students (N = 52) completed the survey anonymously in Japanese. The results were translated and back translated to confirm accuracy. The data collected from this survey supported by two examples of students' work completed in the Wiki during a class project is illustrated in

the following section.

Data Results

Using a Wiki as a Classroom Management Tool in a Language Learning Program

In terms of use as a classroom management tool, 47 of the 52 students replied positively to the use of the Wiki in the English program. Students' qualitative responses highlighted that the most meaningful and often used features of the Wiki in this respect were the detailed weekly plans of lesson goals, descriptions and examples of activities to attain these goals and the instructions for prescribed homework.

Students' responses highlighted the use of the Wiki as a preview tool to enable preparation to be completed for future classes. Illustrative comments included: "I can find out what I'm going to learn in that week's class and I can find out the purpose for learning" (Comment 11); "Before each class I can find out what I'm going to learn and also prepare" (Comment 24). The Wiki therefore enabled students to come to class with an awareness of the content and the activities that they would be asked to complete. This gave them time to prepare for the class with topics, ideas and vocabulary that they might need.

Also strongly featuring in students' comments was the ability of the Wiki to allow them to review activities they had taken part in after they had left the classroom: "I can review and check at home what I did in class" (Comment 5); "I can use it after each lesson or to remember the lessons that we did" (Comment 36). Comments also indicated that the Wiki was used after classes as a review tool to assist students in clarifying teacher's in-class instructions: "If I can't understand in class I can check what we did again and have more time to understand", (Comment 18); "If I couldn't hear what the teacher said I can check the Wiki later" (Comment 43). Used in this way, the Wiki enhanced the language exchange between the teacher and students allowing students to use their reading skills to support their listening skills to either confirm what they had heard in class, or to add new information.

One feature that was found particularly useful by students was the ability to clarify homework assignments and instructions that were given in class: "I can review the details of the lessons and check each lesson's homework easily" (Comment 13); "It's easy to understand what the homework is and when I'm absent I can check what the homework was" (Comment 38); "I don't need to ask friends to tell me the homework because I can check on the Wiki" (Comment 41). These comments illustrate that posting homework instructions on the Wiki allowed students to be more confident in their knowledge of what they should do, and how they should complete homework assignments and projects.

The online availability of the grading criteria and rubrics that would be used to assign grades for each project also featured in students comments illustrated by the following: "When I start my project I can see how I will get my grade so I know what I need to do" (Comment 23); "I want to get a high grade so I check how to get a high score and then do my work" (Comment 27). Students showed that online access to the grading criteria and

rubrics that they could access from their homes or from University when they had time to work on class assignments motivated them to produce higher standards of work in order to achieve higher grades in their assessments.

That this content was available online was also seen as a benefit, as students found materials and activities readily available in their homes and on campus. The usefulness of this online access was a recurring theme throughout student comments for all questions. Students did not comment on the access they had to other program and syllabus information that had been provided in week one of each semester. This indicated that the availability of weekly class and homework content, and grading information for preview and review purposes was what most concerned and benefited them.

Using Wiki as a Tool to Assist in the Study and Development of English

As a tool to assist the students in the program goal of language learning, in their comments 50 of 52 students identified the Wiki as aiding them both on the individual or group levels as seen in the following themes.

The content of the Wiki being in English meant that exposure to the target language was seen as unavoidable for many students and this was an incentive for the learning or comprehension of English language instructions, descriptions of activities and activity examples on the Wiki in order to complete class activities and tasks. On the individual level students were of the opinion that "Because it is all in English, I have to read it even if I don't want to" (Comment 5), and this meant, "I have to learn because I have to know what to do" (Comment 17).

One of the features of the Wiki is that it provided students with URL links to internet-based websites that can be used to gain knowledge, practice and improve skills that can be transferred into the classroom and homework activities. The students saw these links as useful. "There are some links to sites helping us how to improve English skills and the English which is used on the sties is easy to understand so we can continue easily" (Comment 1). These links to other language learning and practice websites also added an entertainment factor that was seen as a distraction from learning as seen illustrated by the following comment: "I'm not so good at English but using the Internet I can have fun" (Comment 19). This enabled students to both practice English skills that would benefit them in their classrooms activities and tasks but also to see web-based English activities and games as not study.

Using Wiki as a Collaborative Language Learning Tool

When viewed as a collaboration and sharing tool in the language learning process, the Wiki was important for many students as it allowed them to share information and work together as a group. "If I don't understand by myself then I can work together with my group to solve the problem" (Comment 9). The collaboration and discussion opportunities that arose from this meant that, "We can exchange many opinions in our groups and study English in a way that is easy to understand" (Comment 20). This not only reinforced the language-learning feature of the Wiki but also brought personal

benefits to the students as "Cooperating and working together makes groups relationships stronger and we can get the English skills too" (Comment 12).

The online accessibility and ability to work together asynchronously and geographically distanced featured in comments and further supported the usefulness of the Wiki as a classroom tool. Responses such as "I can do the assignments anytime and also share them in the group" (Comment 3) and "Even if we can't see each other we can work together at different times on the Internet" (Comment 8) were illustrative of this feature. Additionally, this also acted as a motivational incentive because the Wiki allowed each student to check what his or her peers were doing and had done: "I can check the other students' pages so it will help" (Comment 24). "I can see how other students are doing the homework" (Comment 7). "I think it is smoother to do it by myself but if there are other ideas that I can read it is a good way to learn" (Comment 18). From the number of student comments, this ability of the Wiki to increase students' exposure to further examples and uses of the target language created by their fellow students seemed to be highly valued.

As expressed in the description and context of this study, an example of students' collaborative work using the Wiki will now be given. These examples of students' work show preparation for a project to orally describe and discuss an aspect of Osaka Prefecture University that interested them. Two examples will be shown. Each example will first illustrate an individual student's original preparation, including the ideas contributed by class/group members which are shown in a different font and in parenthesis. In the original Wiki these contributed ideas were identified by different colors making them easier to distinguish. Following a review of the contributed ideas and the independent choice and use of online language practice websites, the original student had the chance to revise their work, either choosing to include or ignore suggestions that had been made by their class and group members. The revisions that were made are shown below the original ideas.

Example 1
Student's original preparation on the topic of the university library including suggestions and editions by three group members.

> OPU library consists (consists of) 4 floors and has a numerous collection (collections) (~~a~~ numerous collections) of books and magazines and papers and videos (books, magazines, papers and videos). OPU students can use it (~~it~~ library) (the library) when they write a report and paper and if people (from) outside university we can use (~~outside university we can use~~ who are not student use) a card we (~~we~~

they) can use it (too). Let's go (on) library tour. At front is (the) library gate. When you go to (the) library and use it if you want to enter inside building (~~if you want to enter inside building~~) you must show (your) students (student's) identification or use a card. On first floor is (the) counter. When you want to use or return books you (must) (should) go (to the) counter. OPU librarians are so kind that you will (can) use (library) so comfortably.

Four group members

Hitomi – Times New Roman

Asuka – Comic Sans

Yuka – Century Gothic

Miwa – American Typewriter

Student's original work revised

OPU library consists of 4 floors and has numerous collections of books, magazines, papers and videos. OPU students can use the library when they write a report and paper and if people from outside who are not student use a card they can use it too. Let's go on Library tour. At front is the library gate. When you go to the library and use it you must show your student's identification or use a card. On first floor is the counter. When you want to use or return books you must go to the counter. OPU librarians are so kind that you can use library so comfortably.

Example 2.

Student's original preparation on the topic of where and what to eat at the university including suggestions and editions by two group members

There are many places where we (~~we~~ students) (can) eat lunch (~~lunch~~ meals) at OPU such as (the) student dinning hall, (the) terrace, Shrike (next to the lake) and (in) classrooms. (The) Student dining hall is located near center part (~~center part~~ Co op) and (is) most popular restaurant in OPU. It offers us (~~us~~ students) many kinds of foods such as noodles, rice ball dishes, curry and rice and so on. Because there are many foods you are at a loss (~~you are at a loss~~ it takes time to choose) which food to choose (~~choose~~ eat) and you will stay there for a (long) while so I recommend teshoku which has a main dish and a side dish plus rice and a miso soup. Teshoku is variable (~~variable~~ different) from day to day. (The) Student dining hall is self service style. You take your tray, choose dishes you like (~~like~~ want to eat) and carry those (~~those~~ your food) to your table.

Three group members

Makoto – Times New Roman

Junji – Comic Sans

Yuji – Century Gothic

Student's original work revised

There are many places where students can eat lunch and meals at OPU such as the student dining hall, the terrace, Shrike, next to the lake and in classrooms. The student dining hall is located near Co op in the center of OPU and is most popular restaurant in OPU. It offers students many kinds of foods such as noodles, rice ball dishes, curry and rice and so on. Because there are many foods it takes time to choose which food to eat and you will stay there for a long while so I recommend teshoku which has a main dish and a side dish plus rice and a miso soup.

> Teshoku is different from day to day. The student dining hall is self service style. You take your tray, choose dishes you want to eat and carry your food to your table.

As can be seen from these two examples of work the original preparation and the revised work have a number of changes that have been influenced by group members' suggestions and the student's self-reflection on these suggestions. While some suggestions were taken on board by the original writer, others were not and this was at the original writer's discretion. There are areas of language in the revised work that could still be improved. However, these examples show how students could improve their language ability and how the Wiki enabled this through networking groups of students to collaborate and negotiate language and meaning asynchronously through reflection without the aid of an instructor.

When asked to comment on the use of Wiki as a tool to assist group collaboration in the completion of class projects, such as in the two examples that have been shown, students saw the Wiki as a positive feature. A large number of students commented on the helpfulness of the suggestions they had received from their group members and the ability to both give and receive suggestions while not being face-to-face in the classroom. Illustrative comments included, "My group can give me good suggestions to improve my ideas and my English" (Comment 12); "I could receive ideas that I didn't think of and it helped me to understand more" (Comment 19); "Even though I didn't see my group members we could help each other and give our ideas" (Comment 35).

Specifically referring to the assistance that this exercise provided in language learning, students suggested that the Wiki's collaborative ability enabled them to see mistakes they had made. "My group pointed out my English mistakes and this helped me to write a better report the second time" (Comment 9); "I could find out that my group can give me help if my teacher is not there" (Comment 17). There were no comments made about the reliability of the suggestions that group members had made implying that, if a suggestion had been made it was valued and worth consideration rather than dismissal.

The ability to work together in groups on the Wiki and to ask students to support each other in their project preparations also had some benefits on relationships within the group. Students commented that "Co-operating and working together makes group relationships stronger and we can get English skills too" (Comment 26); "I could get to know my classmates more by working together to help each other" (Comment 43).

The Students' Criticisms of Using Wikis

The students that reported on the negative factors of the Wiki were in the minority. The concerns of these students were based on issues of low-level English abilities affecting their capability to understand the Wiki content ("There are some people who can't understand if everything is in English," Comment 7), proficiency with using the

technology ("I'm not good at using computers so it is difficult to study," Comment 18; "I don't understand so much how to use it," Comment 3) and the need to rely on the technology to use the Wiki ("If there is a problem with the computer then we can't use it," Comment 11). Other singular negative comments realized the inessential need of the Wiki ("Without the Wiki we can still study English," Comment 13) and that use of CALL classrooms could reduce the amount of personal interaction and communicative language development that could take place in the class ("If each student is facing a computer it is difficult to talk" Comment 14).

Despite the large number of students who had positive views of using the Wiki, a large number expressed that the Wiki was not easy to use. It was a concern that there was too much information on too many pages and it was all written in English. Learning to navigate around the Wiki was the leading point of concern in many comments. For example, "From the beginning I didn't know where everything was because it was all written in English" (Comment 5); "It is all written in English so sometimes it is difficult to understand" (Comment 20); and "I didn't know where to look because there is too much information" (Comment 9).

In spite of these constructive criticisms, a small group of students identified the Wiki as something that could become easier to navigate around with time and practice. Comments indicative of this included, "The structure of the site is systematized so it is easy to understand and the English is not so difficult" (Comment 2); "From the beginning I really didn't know how to use it but after using it many times I can remember." (Comment 5); "It is colorful and everything is easy to understand but takes a long time to understand because everything is in English." (Comment 8); and "After getting used to using it, it became convenient" (Comment 1).

Discussion and Conclusion

After using a Wiki as a classroom management tool and an aid to language learning and second language project completion, students have identified Wiki as bringing a range of positive benefits to an EFL program, despite also identifying several challenges. These benefits confirm themes identified in the literature, specifically in the context of an English language learning technology enhanced classroom in Japan. Further to these themes, additional advantages to the use of Wiki have also been identified.

Although students recognized that English could still be learnt without the Wiki's online technology-enhancement, as revealed in the literature, the online Wiki resource was widely accepted as strong support to the program and to class activities. Turgut (2009) had identified Wikis as enabling access to course materials and students agreed that this online accessibility, increasing the time/place access to class instructions, examples of activities, resources and materials, and space to develop student projects both on campus and at their own homes was the biggest benefit. Specifically identified as the most valuable assistance was the Wiki's ability to allow students to preview and review instructional materials that were introduced in class to confirm and enhance understanding of the second language and their learning.

As Young (2002) suggests, the burden of pressure to learn due to the amount of new vocabulary on the Wiki was present. However, there was a feeling that some students saw this as a motivating challenge to learning as it was unavoidable in the process of working to successfully complete the EFL program (see also Anzai, 2008a). Among other students, the advantage of being able to collaborate on the Wiki was highly regarded as support to learning as it brought learners together in a stronger community. This worked because offline and online they shared comprehension and understanding of the instructional materials and information contained in the Wiki in order to complete class tasks. This confirms Auger et al.'s (2006) view that a Wiki is able to foster social ties within learners. Independent learning facilitated by the online status of the Wiki was also seen as beneficial, allowing students to work in a time and space suitable to them, yet still contribute to the group effort. No concern was expressed with regards to the quality of peer editing as it was by Auger, Raitman and Zhou (2006), Lund (2008), Robertson (2008) and Turgut (2009). On the contrary, students saw benefits in receiving help from group members in their English language projects, which contrasts with Rollinson's (2005) suggestion of the unprofitability of peer support. From a language teacher's perspective, students' first original draft preparations and the second revised draft, including changes suggested by peers, show a improvement in language use influenced by this peer support. This identifies Wikis as capable of creating an online community of language learners able to construct knowledge, share, collaborate, reflect and develop ideas and learning.

The Wiki was seen as a challenge to use for some students for a number of reasons; namely the number of pages, the amount of information all in English and ease of access as had been discussed by Mason and Rennie (2008) and Robertson (2008). What the literature did not identify, however, and something that a number of students did recognize, was that despite these challenges a Wiki can be seen as something that students could become accustomed to navigating and using, providing it is well organized and they have time available to learn how to navigate the pages.

The context of this paper describes how a Wiki was used in a classroom with Internet-enabled computers provided to students, with time allowed in class for practice and assistance in using the Wiki. This teacher also considers that a Wiki could be used easily in other contexts, including:

1. in a classroom where the teacher has the sole Internet-enabled computer linked to a projector and students have access to Internet-enabled computer/tablet facilities or mobile devices on campus or in their homes, and

2. classrooms where networked computers/tablets/other Internet-enabled mobile devices are not available, but are available to teachers and students on campus, or in their own homes

In both of these situations the teacher will need to be able to describe and demonstrate to

students how to access and navigate through the Wiki pages, and how to create and edit text and upload files as needed. This could be achieved either by projecting the Wiki for the class to see through demonstration, making photocopies of screen shots of the Wiki with instructions, by instructional video made by the instructor using screen shots and a program such as Windows Movie Maker or iMovie, or simply by clearly written, step by step instructions. With clear instructions and time to assist technologically weaker students in using the Wiki, teachers are able to bring its collaborative features into language learning and use.

This study has recognized that in the context of the research, Wikis can offer a suitable online platform with a number of benefits in the classroom and out of it. For language teachers, a Wiki can offer a classroom management tool to support classroom activities, and provide an online space where instructions, materials, examples of tasks and projects, and recommended website links can be placed for students to use. A Wiki is able to offer students a classroom activity and homework preview/review tool that can be accessed both from students' homes and from campus. A Wiki also provides a collaborative forum that can enable students to support each other in their language learning and use and strengthen learners' relationships. It is therefore concluded that a Wiki is a beneficial tool for teachers and students in a language learning classroom.

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Biographical Statement

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Appendix – Comparison Chart

A brief comparison overview of some of the key features of two Wikis previously used by this teacher taken from the wikimatrix website (http://www.wikimatrix.org/)

	Pbworks	Wikispaces
General Features		
URL	pbworks.com	www.wikispaces.com
Cost	Free & premium options available	Free & premium options available
Hosting Features		
Storage	No limit	2GB - Unlimited
Bandwidth	No limit	No limit set
Branding	Yes	Yes
Own Domain	Yes	Yes
Advertising Allowed	Yes	Yes
Security/Anti Spam		
Page Permissions	Yes	Yes
Page Access Control Lists	Yes	Yes
Development Support		
Support Forum	getsatisfaction.com	www.wikispaces.com
Common Features		
Preview Pages	Yes	Yes
Change Summary	Yes	Yes
Page History	Yes	Yes
Page Revisions	Unlimited	Unlimited
Special Features		
Unicode Support	Yes	Yes
Languages	Not localized	8 languages available
Email Notifications	Yes	Yes
Page Comments	Threaded	Discussion pages
Wiki Search	Full text	Full text
Links		
Free Links	Yes	Yes
Backlinks	Yes	Yes
Interwiki	Yes	Yes
Sisterwiki	Yes	Yes
Image links	Yes	Yes

	Pbworks	Wikispaces
Usability		
Section Editing	Plugin	Yes
Page Templates	Yes	Yes
Toolbar	Yes	Yes
WYSIWYG Editing	Yes	Yes
Statistics		
Recent Changes	Yes	Yes
Least/Most Popular	Yes	Yes
Recent Visitors	Yes	No
Analysis	Optional	Yes

Output		
HTML	HTML 4	XHTML 1.0 Transitional
CSS Stylesheets	Yes	Yes
Printer Friendly	Print CSS	Print View
Mobile Friendly	Yes	Yes
Themes & Skins	Yes	Yes
RSS Feeds	Yes	Yes
HTML Export	Yes	Yes
PDF Export	Yes	Yes
Media & Files		
File Attachments	Yes	Yes
Media Revisions	Yes	Yes
Embedded Flash	Yes	Yes
Embedded Video	Yes	Yes
Image Editing	Yes	No
SVG Editing	Yes	No
Mindmap Editing	Contents	Filenames only
Extras		
Calendar	Yes	Plugin
Image Galleries	Yes	Plugin
Forums	Plugin	Yes
Blogs	Optional	No

Accuracy Error Maps and the Corrective Feedback Process in an Academic Writing Course

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Abstract - This study considers how error maps can enhance teacher feedback on written assignments. A three-year study was undertaken to test whether academic writing accuracy error maps help students develop the ability to self-correct autonomously, improve teacher feedback, and foster greater student uptake. The results suggest error maps can improve the ability of students to self-correct autonomously, refine teacher feedback, and enhance student understanding of teacher corrections and comments when used in conjunction with common process writing approaches in an academic writing course. In doing so, the study may provide an important focus for additional research into developing the ability of students to improve their accurate use of English when working on written coursework. It concludes with suggestions on how to integrate error maps into an existing academic writing course.

Introduction

Autonomy is a difficult term to define because it can become confused with what is perceived to be self-instruction. The literature on autonomous learning struggles with such a definition as well. Researchers on the topic question whether autonomy is a capability or whether it is a performance. Some consider whether learners take responsibility for their own language acquisition or whether they take control of their own language acquisition (Benson 2001). However, there is wide-ranging agreement that learners who are autonomous clearly are familiar with the purpose of their course work. They also take greater responsibility in their own learning. Finally, they participate in evaluating their own learning and how useful such learning is (Holec 1981, Little 1991).

Corrective feedback is mostly associated with the work of Lyster and Ranta (1997) in which they define corrective feedback as a meaning system that emphasizes teacher and student negotiation of form, either oral or written. Corrective feedback can be categorized as follows: explicit correction, recasts, and the negotiation of form. Previous categories included elicitation, metalinguistic cues, clarification requests, and repetitions (Lyster, 1998b). Elicitation, metalinguistic cues, clarification requests, and repetitions have been consolidated for both recasts and explicit correction provides correct forms to the learner. Recasts do so implicitly, while explicit correction does so explicitly. The negotiation of form does not provide the correct form to the learner. It does, however, help facilitate the learner or peer repair. Lyster (1998b) found that teachers would rather use the negotiation of form to correct lexical errors, and recasts to correct phonological and grammatical errors. To summarize, corrective feedback is described as the provision of negative evidence or positive evidence for erroneous utterances (oral and written), which encourages learners' repair involving accuracy and precision, and not merely comprehensibility. According to Lyster and Ranta (1997) explicit corrections are defined

as when the teacher notifies a student of an erroneous form pointing out where and how the language learner spoke incorrectly. Recasts are defined as a teacher's rephrasing of a student's utterance so that the error is spoken back to the student in real time in its correct grammatical form and or meaning. Negotiation of form is defined as corrective feedback that encourages the learner to self-repair. It involves accuracy and precision and it does not only focus on comprehensibility (Lyster and Ranta 1997).

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition of uptake refers to learners' observable immediate response to the corrective feedback in utterances. In sum, learner uptake is defined as a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback, and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

More pertinent to this study is whether corrective feedback is useful to identify accuracy errors in writing. Some researchers have found it to be effective. Fatham and Whalley (1990) examined feedback on form versus feedback on content and found both were equally effective in helping students develop autonomy over their writing, enhance teacher feedback, and strengthen student uptake. Ahswell (2000) found strong support for the use of corrective feedback to develop student awareness of accuracy errors.

The author of the current study coined the term 'error maps'. A portion of the error map appears below in Figure 1 (see appendix 1 for an error map used in the study). Error maps are charts that list grammar error forms in the left margin and writing assignments across the top margin. In the remaining portion of the page is space for the student or teacher to mark academic accuracy writing errors for an individual pupil. The most compelling benefit of using the chart is, as the name suggests, learners map their own individual accuracy errors, which enables learners to develop autonomous control over their own learning and writing. It is a convenient tool to support teachers' comments and markings on student papers. Students slowly reveal a compelling map of their academic writing accuracy strengths and weaknesses over time, as during a semester or full academic school year.

Error Type	DT1a	WA1	WA2	DT1b	DT2a	WA3	WA4	DT2b
Commas								
Subject-verb agreement								
Fragments								

Figure 1. A portion of an error map.

In the present study, the focus is on a typical EFL/additional language academic writing course context. The present study aims to compare the results with those of Ashwell (2000) and Fatham and Whalley (1990), studies that illustrated corrective feedback developed the ability of students to self-correct autonomously, enhance teacher feedback,

and improve student uptake. The research questions posed in the study are as follows:

> *Is corrective feedback provided on error maps an effective means to assist student awareness of writing errors?*
>
> *Is corrective feedback from error maps useful in developing autonomy in academic writing courses?*
>
> *Do error maps act as a useful method in the corrective feedback process to develop autonomy, enhance teacher feedback, and improve student uptake of academic accuracy writing errors?*

Participants

The data were collected from an advanced level class (TOEFL scores ranging from 450 to over 550) of EFL students. The participants for this study were all 2nd year students who were enrolled in a special program of study in which the students studied English in order to participate in study abroad programs, with an end goal of earning two degrees, one degree from the participants home country university and another degree from an institution outside of the participants home country. The participants for this study were three advanced level classes over a period of three years, Group A (2010), Group B (2011), and Group C (2012). Group A had an enrollment of 24 students. Group B had an enrollment of 20 students, and Group C had an enrollment of 20 students. The students' data were gathered from the teacher (the researcher of the study) and the students' own written coursework. The participants' ages ranged from 19 to 23. They were all Japanese nationals. Most of the students came from the Kansai area in Japan; a few came from as far away as Okinawa and Akita, Japan. All of them were enrolled in the course because they wanted to earn dual degrees and wanted an opportunity to study abroad. Most of them had learned English in their home country for 7 to 10 years from junior high school to the time they enrolled in the course for this study. The participants in this study clearly had a strong need to develop native-like academic writing skills to complete their educational goals at colleges and universities overseas.

Method

Three different post hoc treatments comprise the method used in the study as described by Brown and Forsythe's post hoc procedure. This is a modification of the Scheffe test (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003). According to the authors mentioned above, such an analysis is useful for situations with heterogeneity of variance, as in this case where three classes from three different school years comprise the informants used in the study.

One treatment was given to each group throughout the academic school year. First (see figure 2 for the process used in the study), Group A had accuracy errors underlined. Group B had accuracy errors underlined and notated with a number system that corresponded to the notations in the writing handbook used in the course. Group C had accuracy errors underlined as well as notated with the same number system as Group B.
Second, Group A completed error maps at the end of each term over the course of the

academic school year for a total of two times in one academic school year. Group B completed error maps at the end of each term over the course of the academic school year. Group C completed error maps at the end of each written assignment on the day the marked and graded assignments were returned to the participants.

Finally, each group was given a writing portfolio assignment due at the end of each term. As part of the assignment, participants were directed to describe their accuracy errors[1] based on teacher feedback and error maps in a preface. It was this data that was used as the basis of comparisons between students in different classes to reveal how well the participants learned to understand their individual accuracy errors.

For all groups, a modified process approach to writing was used (refer to figure 2). In addition, the researcher logged accuracy errors on error maps throughout the school year for each student enrolled in the course. Participants in the study logged accuracy errors on error maps. In addition, students wrote which accuracy errors were made throughout the school year in writing portfolio assignments. These comments appeared in the preface of the writing portfolio assignment.

The researcher then compared this data to error maps kept by the researcher. Finally, the researcher used the distribution of responses from the participants that matched those of the researcher to measure whether or not the students learned which accuracy errors they had made throughout the school year.

The accuracy error types used in the present study were limited to errors that were easily identifiable as one error type, such as subject-verb agreement, verb tense, commonly confused words, punctuation, spelling, word use, run ons, apostrophes, and fragments, avoiding errors which are commonly regarded as difficult to categorize, like misplaced and dangling modifiers, commas, coordination and subordination, and parallelism due to the fact these errors cannot be as clearly defined as only a comma error or as only a coordination error. Grammatical terminology used in the study follows those used in the assigned writing handbook (Hacker and Sommers, 2012).

Results

The results will analyze participant responses to error maps and writing portfolio assignments, compared with the researcher's error maps and comparative analysis of writing portfolio responses to the researcher's error maps. In the first portion of the Results section, the author will describe accuracy rates for each treatment group.

Table 1 shows the accuracy of responses for all groups compared to error maps kept by the researcher, which serve as the base level of 100% accuracy in the Error Map and Writing Portfolio categories. Average total percent scores were calculated adding error map and writing portfolio percentages. These were then divided by two hundred because

[1] From here on, "error" refers to errors in grammatical accuracy.

error map and writing portfolio percentages were calculated each at 100%.

Table 1. Accuracy of Responses

Group	Error Map (%)	Writing Portfolio Preface (%)	Average Total (%)
A	26	12	19
B	52	39	46
C	87	78	83

Group A's average accuracy rate compared to the researchers was only 19%. The treatment employed with this group suggests Group A's students sense of their writing errors were minimally impacted. The students use of teacher corrective feedback is quite low due to the treatment method employed by the researcher. The treatment required students to become self-aware of their academic writing accuracy errors. Group A had even lower accuracy levels in their writing portfolio reflections at just 12%. Students did not appear to gain a sense of how to self-correct their academic writing accuracy errors, and the treatment failed to have any significant impact on their uptake over their academic writing accuracy errors as evident in error map accuracy rate of 26%.

Group B's average rate compared to the researchers is stronger than A's at 46%. Group B appears to have gained a minimal sense of autonomy over their academic writing accuracy errors with error map accuracy rate of 52%. Corrective feedback made a minimal impact on their sense of understanding academic writing accuracy errors based on the average total percent score of 46%. Uptake was minimal as well for this group looking at their accuracy percentage rates for their writing portfolio reflections at 39%. The treatment for this group appears to have been minimally effective at best.

Lastly, Group C appears to have benefited more than Groups A and B. Group C's average accuracy rate compared to the researcher's is significantly higher than both prior treatment groups at 83%. The students appear to have gained a strong sense to self-correct autonomously over their academic writing accuracy errors based on this outcome. Corrective feedback treatment the students received clearly was more effective than Group A and B's with error map accuracy rate of 87%. Uptake was significantly higher for this group looking at their accuracy percentage rates for their writing portfolio reflections at 78%. This seems to strongly suggest uptake was greater for this group. Group C's average total percent accuracy of 83% is statistically significant, and such an outcome is reflective of an effective treatment undertaken in the present study.

Discussion

This study aimed to investigate whether written corrective feedback and academic writing accuracy error maps help students develop autonomy, improve teacher feedback, and foster greater student uptake.

Addressing the first assumption, whether corrective feedback is an effective means to assist student awareness of academic accuracy writing errors, the findings for Group C

strongly suggest the treatment used for this group, and how that treatment impacted the corrective feedback for this group on student papers support the results of this study in which Group C had significantly higher accuracy rates on their error maps and writing portfolio work than did Group A and B. Using such methods in an academic writing course should enable students to fully take advantage of written corrective feedback on their written work when coupled with the host of other process approach to writing methods used in this study's treatment for Group C. Corrective feedback alone did not provide students with sufficient knowledge of their academic writing accuracy errors, as was the outcome of the study for Groups A and B due to the treatment offered to these groups.

In order to fully take advantage of written corrective feedback, the researcher suggests students need to use error maps in a manner that fosters the following three aspects: immediacy, relevance, and process. Error maps need to be used as soon as possible after a written assignment to enable students to process teacher written corrective feedback on their written work. Students need opportunities to understand the relevance of such written corrective feedback. One method for enabling relevance of written corrective feedback is to use error maps, and combine those results with diagnostic tests results logged on error maps, written corrective feedback on papers logged on error maps, and additional form-focused instruction that is targeted to students academic accuracy error strengths and weaknesses as reflected on each students error map. Finally, students need to be given opportunities to recycle all of the relevant information in order to fully develop autonomous control over their academic writing accuracy errors. Using the methods mentioned above will enable such recycling to take place. Using these methods, according to the results of the present study, should enable students to take full advantage of written corrective feedback on their papers.

The second assumption considers whether corrective feedback is necessary to develop autonomy in academic writing courses. The results for Groups A and B suggests the treatment employed in the study provided the students with little effective feedback to develop their awareness of their academic writing accuracy errors, so the participants in the study failed to develop a sense of how to self-correct errors. Groups A and B accuracy percentages on their error maps and writing portfolio preface assignments were far below what would be considered an effective treatment, or method to use in academic writing courses, since students showed no improvement in the ability to understand which academic accuracy writing errors they made. Therefore, it can be assumed that the use of effective methods of corrective feedback is necessary to develop autonomy in an academic writing course. For example, Group C's treatment provided this group of students with effective written corrective feedback that built autonomous knowledge awareness of their academic writing accuracy errors. Based on the outcomes in this study, use of the correct type of feedback coupled with error maps, as part of the corrective feedback process, can develop the ability to correct work autonomously, and the research carried out by Ahswell (2000) and Fatham and Whalley (1990) found similar results. This was the case with the results for Group C shown on their accuracy percentages for error maps and writing portfolio preface assignments. The results for

Group C strongly support the use of written corrective feedback together with the use of error maps in academic writing courses to develop autonomous knowledge students have of their academic writing accuracy errors. Any writing course at the university or secondary level could benefit from these methods due to the convincing outcomes in the present study, especially when looking at results for treatment group C.

The third and final assumption considers whether or not error maps serve as an additional useful method in the corrective feedback process to develop autonomy, enhance teacher feedback, and improve student uptake of academic accuracy writing errors. Autonomy has been addressed in the previous discussion, yet it is important to understand Group C's treatment developed the abilities of students in this cohort to self-correct autonomously their academic writing accuracy errors; providing great strides in fostering independent knowledge of particular accuracy errors. Rather than covering grammar randomly for a class, the instructor can assist each student in discovering their own particular accuracy strengths and weaknesses, which is a far superior instructional approach than just covering grammar topics in a linear method in class, or as homework in a writing course. Teacher feedback then becomes far more targeted to each individual student's needs. Error maps appear to be the key step in the feedback process to develop such autonomous outcomes in academic writing courses. Uptake of such teacher feedback for Group C is far superior to either Group A or B. Based on student accuracy outcomes on error map data and writing portfolio assignments, Group C benefited from teacher feedback far greater than either Groups A and B. Here again, error maps help to improve communication between student and teacher. Student uptake outcomes were far greater than the other two groups. Finally, error maps assisted students in their processes of acquiring knowledge of their academic writing accuracy errors, completing the feedback process.

Procedure

How can error maps be incorporated into an existing writing course? I use error maps in all of my writing courses. Advanced students as well as intermediate students can easily understand the corrective feedback process when error maps are used. Students can learn to use these if the teacher designs the error map to fit the language skills of students they wish to use the error map with. For example, grammar categories are flexible. The teacher can choose language their students are familiar with. I chose the terms in the error map in Appendix 1 since they match the terms used in the writing handbook used in my current courses. I use Rules for Writers 7th Edition published by Bedford/St. Martin's. I use this handbook with advanced students. Another flexible component of the error map is the writing assignments the teacher can include on the error map. I include diagnostic tests labeled as DT1, etc. Then I include all writing assignments, excluding a research paper and writing portfolio, students will do by the end of the school year labeled as WA1, etc. Additional diagnostic tests are included as well since these can help students to quantify additional accuracy problems they might have. It helps to build on teacher directed feedback. I have found these useful to sell the students on the idea that the feedback on their error maps as well as that given on their papers is relevant since they correlate. They can also help students judge whether they are making improvements.

I have found an effective way to introduce error maps to a new class is to have students take a diagnostic test early in the term. I use Bedford/St. Martin's Exercise Central (http://bcs.bedfordstmartins.com/exercisecentral/). I like this diagnostic test since the results are immediate and the students can print the results. Students then match errors on the diagnostic test to their error maps. This process helps students quickly identify the benefits of using error maps. It also helps to introduce the error map to the class. When the students receive their first written assignment back with corrective feedback comments from the instructor, they can easily fill out their error maps. The above procedures explain Step 1 found in Figure 2.

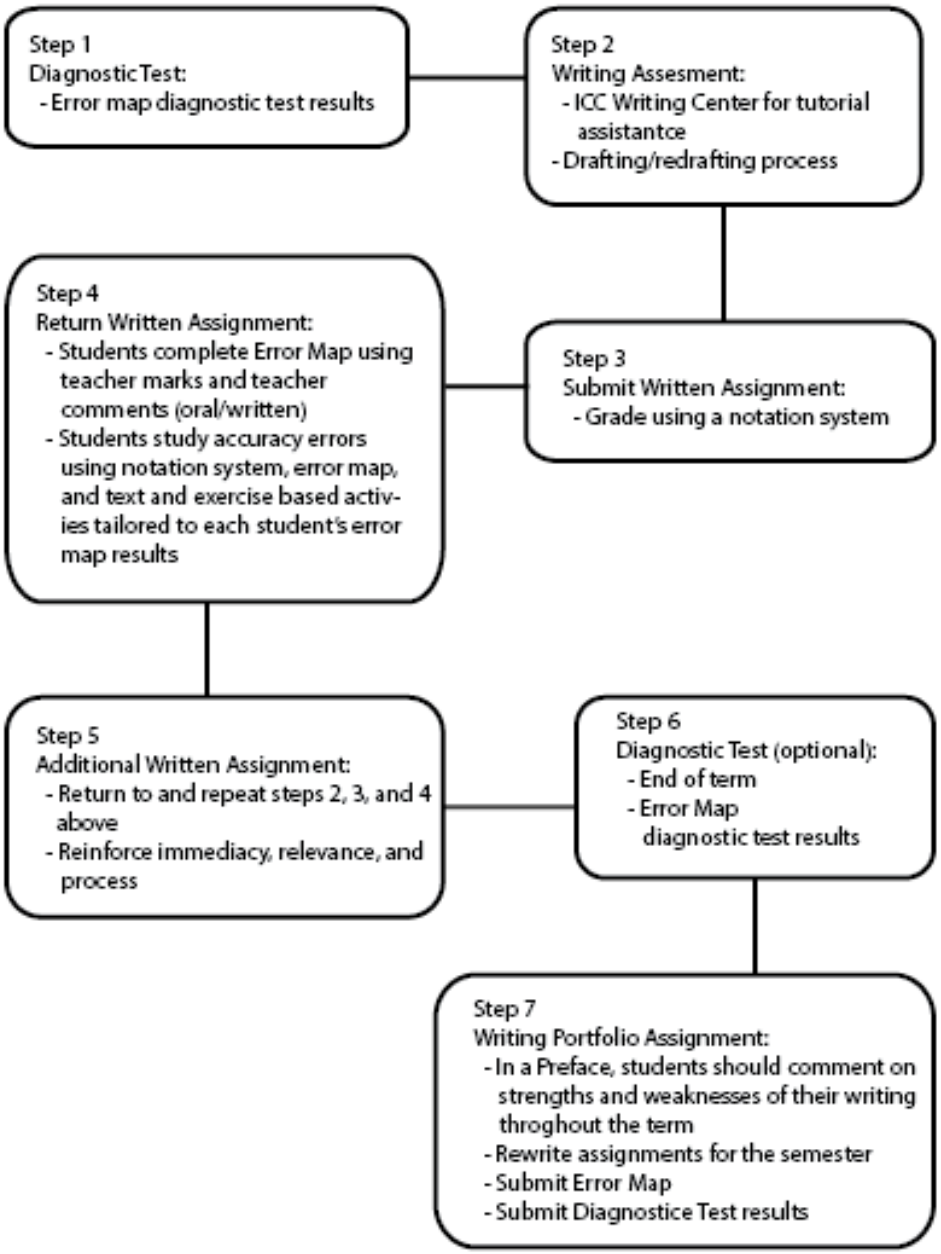

Fig. 2. Corrective Feedback Process

Step 2 centers around a slightly altered approach to traditional process writing methods. Students are given a writing assignment. In advanced courses students are encouraged to draft and redraft papers using a writing center available to them. Intermediate students are given class time to work on drafts as well as encouraged to use the writing center.

Step 3 in the process involves simply having students hand in final drafts for grading. Utmost care needs to be given to marking and grading the papers since the students are required to pay close attention to teacher provided corrective feedback to complete the error map when the paper is returned. I use a notation system to avoid problems of ambiguity. The handbook for the course uses a numbering system to identify sections of the textbook. This numbering system allows students to self-identify teacher markings on their papers. It helps tremendously with avoiding confusion over the most carefully crafted teacher feedback on written assignments.

Step 4 allows students to switch on the corrective feedback the teacher has given on their papers because this step involves marking the error map. I give class time to start the process. This allows students to ask questions if confused on how to mark the error map, or to clarify teacher comments they may not be able to decipher. Typically, the full process of marking the error map is completed at home.

Step 5 involves practice. Students are given additional writing assignments. The writing process repeats itself for Steps 2-4. One additional instructional outcome in Step 5 is when students begin to recognize individual grammar strengths and weaknesses from their error map marks. I provide classroom time for students to study these grammar weaknesses using the companion Web site to the handbook used in the course. In addition to this class time that focuses on individual instruction, students are given reading assignments from the handbook that cover additional grammar, clarity, punctuation, mechanics, and ESL/EFL challenges with writing in the English language.

Step 6 involves another diagnostic test for the reasons mentioned previously. This is an optional step you may wish to consider dependent on the length of the term and the curricular goals and objectives established.

Step 7 is the wrap up. This step helps to close the circle. It lets the teacher know if students have truly grasped the information provided to them throughout the term or school year. I have students do a writing portfolio in which all previous writing assignments need to be rewritten for discourse and accuracy. The accuracy component is dependent on error map tick marks as well as the corrective feedback provided on the original assignments. Completed error maps must be included in the portfolio. In addition, all copies of diagnostic test results must be included in the portfolio. I ask for these two items to assist with the uptake of error map marks and corrective feedback given to students throughout the term. The most relevant portion of the portfolio assignment to the error map is the preface students are required to write. The preface asks

students to comment on strengths and weaknesses of their writing throughout the term. This enables students to fully grasp the markings on their error maps as well as consider corrective feedback provided on student papers. The hope is to fully close the circle that was initiated at the beginning of the term.

Conclusion

The present study was inspired by the works of Ahswell (2000) and Fatham and Whalley (1990) to investigate whether corrective feedback is an effective means to assist students to become more aware of academic writing accuracy errors and develop autonomy. An additional method used in the corrective feedback process in this study is the error map. Although this study found similarities and differences with the previous studies, corrective feedback was shown to develop student awareness of academic writing accuracy errors, but the use of error maps provided a dramatic improvement over using corrective feedback alone. The present study indicates that error maps, as part of a process approach to writing and corrective feedback, are an effective means to assist students to become more aware of academic writing accuracy errors and develop autonomy. It seems to offer grounds for further research as to which variables, corrective feedback or error maps alone, lead to greater differences in the groups studied.

With regard to the limitations of the study, first, the class level used in the study was an advanced level class in which the students had great incentives to improve their academic writing accuracy in order to earn the right to participate in study abroad programs. It may be premature to claim that the findings in this study could apply to other L2/additional language university level writing courses. Second, the research results might have been more reliable if there had been a second coder who, in addition to the researcher, kept error maps for the three groups in the study. However, one was not available for a period of three years due to limited resources. Lastly, the study might have benefited if more introspective data from the researcher and students had been collected to further account for the findings.

Nonetheless, the results of the current study were unique in many interesting aspects. In this particular language learning context, error maps were effective in developing autonomy, enhancing teacher feedback, and heightening student uptake. Group C responses on error maps and in the preface of the writing portfolio assignment had such an improved accuracy response ratio compared to Groups A and B that the researcher is extremely hopeful further studies can reveal similar outcomes. Grosofsky, Payne, and Campbell (1994) have argued that participants remember items that they have generated in response to some kind of cues better than the items that have just been presented to them. Grammar instruction may serve a purpose in writing courses, but the tailored feedback error maps certainly seem to take huge leaps forward in helping learners individually become aware of academic writing accuracy errors. As these researchers reveal that learner response to corrective feedback seems helpful in language learning, the researcher hopes the next phase of academic writing and accuracy research will explore the relationship between error maps and its contribution to academic writing accuracy development.

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Biographical Statement

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Appendix 1 - Error Map

Error Type	DT1a	WA1	WA2	DT1b	DT2a	WA3	WA4	DT2b
Misplaced and dangling modifiers								
Commas								
Other punctuation								
Verb problems								
Adjectives and adverbs								

Spelling								
Subject-verb agreement								
Commonly confused words								
Apostrophes								
Capitalization								
Coordination and subordination								
Parallelism								
Quotation marks								
Pronouns								
Word use								
ESL								
Run ons								
Fragments								

Designing Significant Language Learning Experiences

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Introduction

This paper highlights the work of L. Dee Fink (2003) in the area of Significant Learning Experiences (SLEs), with an emphasis on pedagogical implications for language teachers. Specifically, we introduce how Fink's conceptual and procedural tools have been used to develop a short-term, overseas study tour for first and second-year undergraduates in Japan. We start with a short introduction to Fink's work, and then outline the study tour with reference to each stage of his Integrated Course Design framework. We conclude with initial results from a qualitative study of journal entries and reports written by study tour partipants. It is hoped that this paper will provide language educators with a few additional items for their instructional strategy toolbox.

Significant Learning Experiences

"How can I create courses that provide significant learning experiences for my students?" Starting from this fundamental question for all teachers, instructional consultant L. Dee Fink draws on important existing ideas and best practices in teaching, adds some new ideas, and shows how these can be combined in ways that result in powerful learning experiences for learners. He urges teachers to set aside the content-centered approach, so prevalent in formal educational settings, and adopt a learning-centered approach that asks "What kinds of learning will be significant for students, and how can I create a course that will result in that kind of learning?" Although most of Fink's work deals with college teaching, his conceptual and procedural tools are useful in a broad range of educational contexts, including language teaching. So, what are these conceptual and procedural tools?

A Taxonomy of Significant Learning

The centerpiece of the SLE theory is an attempt to update and broaden Benjamin Bloom's taxonomy of learning (1956) to accommodate new kinds of learning (e.g. learning how to learn, leadership and interpersonal skills, ethics, communication skills, character, tolerance, and the ability to adapt to change). In constructing this new taxonomy (Fig. 1), Fink (2003) defines learning in terms of change (i.e. for learning to occur, there has to be some kind of change in the learner). Fink stresses that each kind of learning is related to the other kinds of learning (Fig. 2), and that when a teacher finds a way to help students achieve one kind of learning, this can enhance student achievement in other kinds of learning.

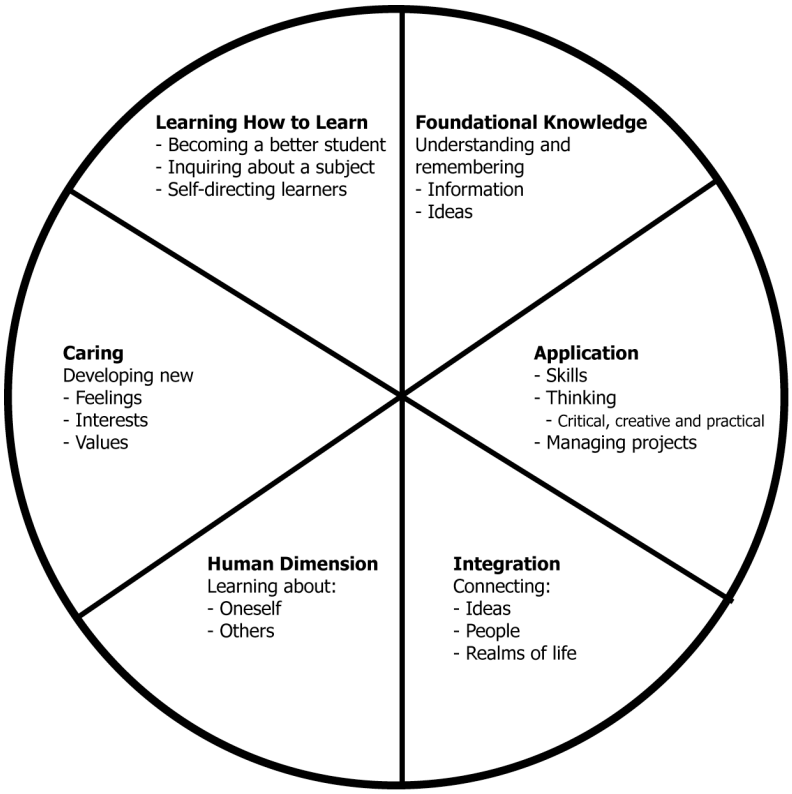

Fig. 1. Taxonomy of Significant Learning (Fink, 2003)

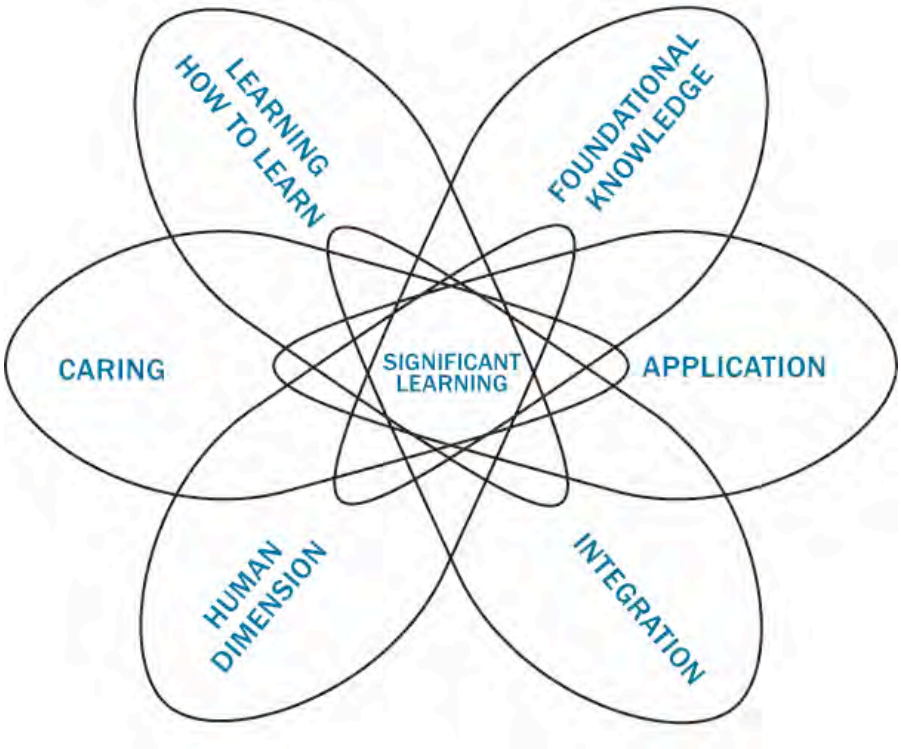

Fig. 2. Interactive Nature of Significant Learning (Fink, 2003)

Two major implications mentioned by Fink (2003) are that (1) learning goals for a course should include but go beyond content mastery, and (2) if teachers use a combination of significant learning goals, it will be possible to create interaction effects and synergy that greatly enhance achievement of significant learning by students. This taxonomy also accommodates both general and specific learning goals. This will be discussed more when we look at course design for the study tour.

Integrated Course Design

Drawing on work in the field of instructional design, Fink (2003) introduces a new model of course design that is relational, not linear, and that has the following benefits:

Simple: It is relatively easy for teachers to remember the basic model.
Holistic: It unpacks and reveals the complexity that exists in effective course design.
Practical: It identifies what one needs to do in the course design process.
Integrative: It shows the interactive relationships among the key components of a course.
Normative: It provides specific criteria for determining whether a given course design is good or not.

Table 1 outlines the twelve steps of integrated course design proposed by Fink.

Table 1: The Twelve Steps of Integrated Course Design (Fink, 2003)

Initial Phase: BUILD STRONG PRIMARY COMPONENTS.
1. Identify important *situational factors*.
2. Identify important *learning goals*.
3. Formulate appropriate *feedback and assessment procedures*.
4. Select effective *teaching and learning activities*.
5. Make sure the primary components are *integrated*.
Intermediate Phase: ASSEMBLE THE COMPONENTS INTO A COHERENT WHOLE.
6. Create a thematic *structure for the course*.
7. Select or create a *teaching strategy*.
8. Integrate the course structure and the instructional strategy to create an *overall scheme of learning activities*.
Final Phase: FINISH IMPORTANT REMAINING TASKS
9. Develop the *grading system*.
10. Debug the *possible problems*.
11. Write the course *syllabus*.

12. Plan an *evaluation* of the course and of your teaching.

Backward Design and Forward Assessment
Citing the work of Grant Wiggins (1998), Fink highlights the importance of considering feedback and assessment earlier in the instrucional design process. In short, these are the considerations that will help teachers better identify what teaching and learning activities are needed.

Backward Design - What is important now and years after the course? What should students do in the course to succeed?

Forward Assessment - Imagine students in a situation where they would use the knowledge and/or skills. Focus the learning on realistic meaningful tasks.

So, how do these ideas inform us? In the next section, I will outline the development of a study tour based on the Integrated Course Design model.

Philippines Study Tour
I began developing the Philippines Study Tour in 2009 as an elective intersession fieldwork course. I got the idea for this study tour during a visit to the Philippines in August 2008 with Teachers Helping Teachers (THT). One of our hosts in the Philippines was BUKID Foundation, who organized a series of workshops and training activities for THT delegates on the island of Mindoro. It was during this trip, that I learned of the indigenous Mangyans. I began discussing the possibility of taking students to the Philippines with BUKID organizers Amelita Matsushita, April Alcazar and Rosalinda Valenton. With their assurance that they could accommodate groups of students from Japan, I began designing the course. My curriculum proposal to the faculty at our school included twenty hours of pre-departure work, forty hours of fieldwork in the Philippines, and twenty hours of follow up. The fieldwork portion would include work with the children in a Mangyan village on the island of Mindoro as well as at shelters for former street children in Manila. Opportunities for interaction with college-aged students in the Philippines would also be included.

I then began going through each phase of Fink's Integrated Course Design model. For brevities' sake, I have gleaned the most important points from my course design notes.

Initial Phase: Building Strong Primary Components

1. WHERE ARE YOU?
Size up the situational factors.
- Specific context: Anywhere between five and fifteen students, access to lots of background information during pre-departure, flexible classroom arrangement in Japan but various constraints/limitations in the Philippines.
- General context: Students are 1st or 2nd year undergraduates in a school of

management. Students will have completed at least one year of content-based English courses (e.g. Global Challenges, American Studies), and have studied introductory level economics and management.
- Nature of the subject: This fieldwork is intended to help students understand basic economic and management principles, develop English language communication skills, and gain exposure to liberal arts thinking. Some community work included.
- Student characteristics: Again, basic understanding of economics and management concepts and principles. Basic English language proficiency, but no clear motives or goals for learning. Still making the transition from high school.
- Teacher characteristics: Educational background in history, language education and instructional design. Some knowledge of basic economic concepts such as purchasing power parity, cost-benefit analysis, etc. Some experience with both domestic and overseas volunteer activities. Twenty-five years of experience teaching English in Japan and other parts of Asia.
- Special pedagogical challenge: Limited control of language input. Dependent on hosts for almost everything. Limited resources during fieldwork portion of the study tour.

2. WHERE DO YOU WANT TO GO?
The underlying objective is to promote growth in each of the learning domains discussed in Bloom (1956), e.g. cognitive, affective, interpersonal and psychomotor. The different types of learning in Fink's taxonomy will also be targeted.
- Foundational knowledge: Deeper understanding of key economic and management principles and concepts, especially as related to developing countries and the management of NGOs. Deeper understanding and acceptance of cultural diversity.
- Application: Project management skills (for each phase of the course), thinking skills (especially problem solving and critical thinking about their own culture and preconceptions), and all four language skills.
- Integration: Connecting ideas, information, etc. from their various courses and past experiences.
- Human dimension: Learning more about their own prejudices and preconceptions. Learning about different social groups in the Philippines. Deeper understanding of self as language learner and life-long learner.
- Caring: Changes in feelings, interest and values about Asian neighbors. Increase interest in and motivation to study English.
- Learning how to learn: Increased autonomy and self-reliance as language learner and life-long learner.

3. HOW WILL THE STUDENTS AND YOU KNOW IF THEY GET THERE?
-The main forms of feedback and assessment will be entries in a daily journal, regular meetings (both individual and group) with advisor, a final debriefing session, report and presentation. As each student has their own driving question for the study tour, other individualized forms of assessment can be developed as needed.

4. HOW ARE YOU GOING TO GET THERE?
Select or develop learning activities that reflect the principles of active learning.

- The main goal is to provide authentic learning activities (Appendix 1) in line with best practices in project-based learning (PBL) and service learning (see, for example, Jones, 2012).
- Students will acquire the knowledge and skills through work on both an individual research project and a group project. For the individual project, students will decide a "driving question" related to their recent studies and personal interests, do background research, prepare surveys or other instruments to gather data during the fieldwork portion, gather data, interpret these data and write up their findings. For the group project, students will:

> . . . research background information on the Philippines, the NGOs we will be working with, and the indigenous Mangyan,
> . . . compile their findings in a pre-departure manual,
> . . . apprentice with the advisor and BUKID Foundation to prepare and deliver educational and hygiene programs for Mangyan children,
> . . . visit shelters for street children in Manila, interview staff, and conduct educational and cultural activities for children at these shelters,
> . . . keep a daily journal to record observations and impressions,
> . . . interview college students, teachers and other individuals in the Philippines about topics related to their studies at school (e.g. economics, business, social issues),
> . . . conduct a debriefing session upon returning to Japan,
> . . . review their daily journal and other notes and compile findings in a final report,
> . . . peer-review their colleagues reports,
> . . . present their observations and impressions for an audience of peers and faculty members at their home institution.

5. WHO AND WHAT CAN HELP?

For background research, students can use the CIA World Factbook and World Bank Country Profiles. Another valuable resource during the pre-departure phase will be other students who have participated in the study tour in previous years. During the fieldwork phase, BUKID Foundation will be our main resource, including their network of friends and acquaintances (including students, teachers, business people, NGOs). The student organization AIESEC is another resource both in Japan and in the Philippines.

Intermediate Phase: Assembling the Components into a Dynamic, Coherent Whole

For this phase of course design, I again turned to resources in the field of PBL and service learning. Specifically, the work of Larmer and Mergendoller (2010) and Buck Institute on PBL, and Catherine Berger Kaye (2010) on service learning, provided useful frameworks. This section again contains a condensed form of my planning.

6. WHAT ARE THE MAJOR TOPICS IN THIS COURSE?

The main themes for the study tour will be project-management, cultural diversity, quality of life, cost-benefit analysis and purchasing power parity. These themes do not fit

nicely into a linear structure and will likely be touched upon throughout the study tour.

7. WHAT WILL THE STUDENTS NEED TO DO?
The overall instructional approach resembles service learning in nature. The five stages of service learning (Kaye, 2010) are included in Appendix 2. Other learning activities and instructional strategies can be summarized as follows:
Pre-departure - mini lectures on topics related to the Philippines (e.g. general overview, economics, politics), the Mangyan, our host institutions, and economics (purchasing power parity, cost-benefit analysis), independent learning, and peer teaching
Fieldwork - Socratic dialog, experiential learning, reflective writing, mini lectures, and apprenticeship learning
Follow up - debriefing, peer teaching

8. WHAT IS THE OVERALL SCHEME OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES
Again, the study tour is divided into clear phases: pre-departure, fieldwork, follow up. The overall scheme is somewhat dependent on our hosts in the Philippines, especially during the fieldwork portion of the study tour. The overall plan looks something like this.

Pre-Departure
We will start with a general orientation and introduction to the program. Students will then read reports written by former participants. This will be followed by background research, that will be summarized and compiled in a pre-departure manual. The rest of the time will be spent on preparing lessons, stories, activities and games for children in the Philippines, and working on the individual research project (e.g. preparing surveys or interview questions).

Fieldwork
The main activities will be conducting the activities and training sessions for children in the Mangyan village and at shelters for street children in Manila. Additionally, students will interview NGO workers about management practices, working conditions, challenges and rewards. Individual research will also be pursued.

Follow up
Debriefing sessions in which individuals and groups meet with the advisor and reflect on the overall experience and specific activities and events. These sessions will be recorded, and students can use these recordings for structuring and compiling their final reports and presentation.

Final Phase: Taking Care of Important Details

9. HOW ARE YOU GOING TO GRADE?
Students will be assessed on the depth of their engagement in the project and mastery of the various objectives. Specifically, students will be graded on their preparation of educational materials and the departure manual (10%), level of participation, including willingness to ask questions and get out of their comfort zone (10%), quality of their

daily journal entries (20%), their individual research project (30%), and their final presentation (30%).

10. WHAT COULD GO WRONG?
Conditions and circumstances in the Philippines are the biggest concern. We will need to remain flexible and open to changes in the schedule, etc. Interactions with children in the Philippines are also highly unpredictable. The advisor will need to monitor the activities prepared by participants and be ready to assist them if needed. At the same time, it is important to let students fail sometimes. Another area of concern is whether or not students will have adequate time to write in their journals. Providing students with digital voice recorders would be one solution.

11. LET STUDENTS KNOW WHAT YOU ARE PLANNING.
The syllabus for this class is an expanded version of the outline included in the proposal paperwork. These documents have not been included in this report.

12. HOW WILL YOU KNOW HOW THE COURSE IS GOING? HOW IT WENT?
The main formative assessment tools will be the daily journal and meetings (individual and group). The main summative assessment tools will be the debriefing session, final report and presentation. In the next section, I will present an initial analysis of student journals and final reports.

Qualitative Look at Journal and Report Entries
Analysis of student journals and final reports uncovered evidence of learning in three of the four learning domains: cognitive, affective, and interpersonal. Learning in the psychomotor domain was not investigated, and is thus not discussed in this report. There was also clear evidence of growth in terms of cultural diversity awareness. For brevity sake, I will concentrate my discussion on comments from the three first-year participants in the 2011 study tour. Many of the ideas and impressions in these excerpts also appeared in reports written in Japanese.

The first entries come from the final report of a male, first-year student. In the following excerpt, we see hints at cognitive and interpersonal growth as well as increased understanding of cultural diversity.

> *During the tour, we were with some THT members. Mr. Bill Mboutsiadis was the instructor from University of Toronto. (Now, he teaches in Meisei University in Tokyo.) He was very interesting. He liked dance and song. He taught us some dances and songs. I talked him about CUBE and studying abroad. I will go to New York State University at Buffalo this August, and Toronto is near Buffalo, so he told me something about Buffalo. Also he always tried to learn something despite he came Philippines as a teacher. I learned the importance of learning. I met Ms. Megumi (She didn't tell us her full name). She published some books about TOEFL and studying abroad, so she gave me some advises about these things. I met Dr. Wanner who was the*

professor in Tohoku University. I had a time to work with him, but I didn't have so much time to talk with him. Finally, I had a lot of chance to talk with Mr. Jones. Actually, I had not had chance to talk with him in CUBE, because he taught in Management program, and I belonged to Study Abroad program, so I had never taken his class. However, during the trip I talked him a lot and got to know something about him and CUBE. It was my big pleasure. (2011, Male, 1st Year)

The learning theories that first come to mind when reading the above comments are cognitive apprenticeship and situated cognition (see, for example, Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989).

In this next excerpt, we have anecdotal evidence of the cognitive dissonance experienced by this student. At the same time, the near-peer role modeling reported on here has powerful implications for instructors or advisors.

Day 4 (2/20), we met AIESEC from University of the Philippines (UP) students . . . For me, to meet them was one of the biggest purposes of this study tour. UP is one of the top universities in Southeastern Asia. Therefore, I thought it would be a great opportunity to talk with higher level students. Also, I wanted to know students outside of Japan before I will go to Buffalo (From this August, I will go to University at Buffalo for a year), so I was glad to meet them. They presented what is AIESEC and what they do. My first impression was their English level is very high. I knew English is bigger in Philippines than that of Japan. English is their second official language. However, their age was almost same as me. I was kind of shocked that there were big difference of English level between me and people of my generation. For a second impression, AIESEC is a great organization. As it is mentioned in overview, AIESEC supports student's internship. These are not only business field, also social field and policy field. I got really interested in this organization. During the trip, I talked a lot with AIESEC trainees from Japan, Junya who was Waseda University student and Chihiro who was Kwansei Gakuin (KG) student. Unlike us, they came to the Philippines alone and stayed for 2 months. They had stayed in Banilad, the village didn't have electricity and gas, for 8 days. I think they had high motivation, they always thought about how to solve the problems they faced to, and they spoke to people in there. In contrast, we, CUBE students relied on Mr. Jones. We learned a lot of things in Philippines, but we had much time for fun. Of course, fun is important, but I thought two of them, Junya and Chihiro tried to learn more. I thought more CUBE students should go overseas and getting experiences like them. We study English and think about social problem. However, the number of students who go overseas is not high. I think more students should see the real situation. (2011, Male, 1st Year)

In this next excerpt, the student reports on a new perspective of the teaching/learning

interaction, as well as recognition and regret about their own past actions.

> *Only a few children got interest in my class, but most of them didn't. Some children definitely didn't listen to me, others slept during the class. I was disappointed, but these circumstances are often happened in Japan as well. My major is not educational study, so it was first time to teach something for children. I hadn't known the feeling of teachers. I thought the work of teachers is very difficult, because it is not easy to control the children. Actually, I had done such things since I was junior high school student. Now I want to apologize for all teachers who tried to teach me something. Anyway, it was good opportunity for me. (2011, Male, 1st Year)*

Reflecting on the difficulties of managing an NGO, the student offers advice.

> *Without much enough money, how do children go to school? Basically, they can go to school with the help from Bukid Foundation, the no government organization for saving people in Banilad. Bukid focuses on education, so they now help a lot of children. The major way of helping children is; what we call, "Foster Parent System". There are 53 foster parents in Japan. They pay 12 thousand yen for a year to let children in Banilad go to school. So, the best way to make a better situation is to increase Foster Parents, but there are some problems. Because there were no business managers or accountants in Bukid Foundation, foster parents have no way to see the way of using money. It is not clear for them to which way the money is used for. To make it clear, Bukid should publish financial statements. (2011, Male, 1st Year)*

The student then compares the different models for NGOs working with street children.

> *Day 9, we visited Virlanie, the no government organization in Manila. The difference between the House of Refuge and Virlanie was that the latter was much bigger organization than the former. Virlanie has 12 shelters for children to live. Also, the generation of the children was wider. When we visited one of the shelters, I met 17-year-old girl. In another shelter, I saw a lot of children who looked around 5 years old. Also, the main office of the organization looked nice. There were many workers with many computers, and the place was very clean. In contrast, in the House of Refuge, they had only one shelter, and the age of children was from 5 to 12, and there were a few workers with the small office. (2011, Male, 1st Year)*

We see in this final excerpt reflections on the different plights of street children and the Mangyans.

> *When I played with children in the one of the shelters of Virlanie, I also felt children are sadder than children in Banilad. There is the answer. Children in Banilad had their parents, while children in the House of Refuge and*

Virlanie didn't. I felt the importance of parents. (2011, Male, 1st Year)

The following excerpts are from the report and daily journal of a first-year female student. Again, we see hints of the cognitive dissonance experienced by students as well as self-reflection.

> *I was surprised when I visited House of Refuge for the first time. I couldn't imagine they don't have parents because I seemed they were happy. I was surprised again when we draw dreams with children. They have a clear dream. For example, "I want to be a scientist. Because there are a lot of sick person, so I will make new and wonderful medicines for the future." Karlo has this dream."I want to be scientist and make robots!" Angelo said. I think this is more serious than Japanese children of same age have. I want their dreams come true. I was moved by them. Moreover I feel ashamed because I don't have big and clear dream like them. As long as I make an effort, I will be able to be scientist, be flight attendant, and doctors, whatever I want to be because I have a good circumstance to study. I was motivated by meeting children in House of Refuge. (2011, Female, 1st Year)*

This student goes on to report on her surprise at the academic level of students in the Philippines as well as English language ability. She goes on to reflect on Japan's educational system, displaying a deepened sense of cultural diversity.

> *We met AISEC members on day 4. They are U.P. students. U.P is the most smartest university in Philippines. They like chatting and making joke but they are so clever. They can change their mind soon. They lectured us about AIESEC. I was shocked because of their skill. Not only how to presentation but also they can speak English like native speaker. It is natural that they can speak English. I almost cried. Why can they speak English? Why can't we speak English? Through we have second language same as Philippines. I should make an effort to speak English. Japan should introduce new educational system. (2011, Female, 1st Year)*

In this next excerpt, we again see evidence of cognitive apprenticeship and growth in the interpersonal and affective domains.

> *I want to say thank you to THT. They taught us sincerely and listened our voice and advised. What they say will prove useful. Bill said us "you don't care about you are not good at speaking English. Practice again and again, you can speak English before long. You don't have to be afraid about making mistakes." He cheered me up. THT members are good at treating children. I want to be teacher like them. (2011, Female, 1st Year)*

Back to cultural diversity, we see also in this excerpt growth in the affective domain.

I get a lot of things from Mangyan. They are poor but they live. Japan is rich. We can do for them. There are big difference between rich person and poor person in Philippine. Disparity in wealth is bigger than Japan. This problem is not easy to solve. But I love Mangyan children, I want help them. I don't forget them. (2011, Female, 1st Year)

We can see in this next excerpt how moved this student was by our visit to the shelters for street children and her interaction with the children.

Virlanie office was big and clean. Three were a lot of social worker than I thought. I heard their wage is low. I think they like children. I was nervous before I visited Virlanie. Because there were children about my age. But they talked with me a lot. I couldn't believe they were street children because they were ordinary children. Some of them have a handicap but I didn't care about that. When we taught Japanese song, the boy who wear glasses write down the words of song in his notebook. I was moved. They are interested in a lot of things. They know about Japan. I was happy. I got along with the girl who has long black hear. She is like my sister. She told me about her past. She is always around me. She hold my arms. I love her but I must go home. I was so sad. I want Philippines people to think more about children. Don't think it is natural things to abandon children. It is strange thing. To solve this problem, Philippines have to be rich country. I know it can't solve by only moral, but I hope the problem vanish. (2011, Female, 1st Year)

Finally, this student recognizes the importance of reflection.

We experienced a lot of thing. But we must not only experience. We should reflect experiences Mr. Jones said. I want to know more about Philippines or other developing country. I want to say thank you to everyone. (2011, Female, 1st Year)

The third student is a first-year female student in a study abroad preparation program. This first excerpt hints at an increased understanding of cultural diversity and shock at the contrast between the two countries.

I found a lot of points which were different from Japan in Philippines. The most surprising thing for me was traffic. To put it plainly, it was so messy that I wondered if this country has orderly traffic rules (actually, they have traffic rules) . . . it was usual to see three people or sometimes four people riding on a motorcycle, to see some people standing and walking on the carriage ways, and to see many cars muscling in between other cars. I thought it was miracle not to be involved in, or look at any traffic accidents. To mention other traffic features, it is common to use the Jeepney, which is a kind of bus, when we move with about 10~20 people like us. There were fewer traffic lights or crosswalks in Philippines than in Japan, traffic was very heavy, and road

condition was not good, so cars were always bumpy. When I came back to Japan and got on the airport limousine, I had a feeling like I came to the world of tomorrow. Other trivial things I found in Philippines were that people in Philippines did not walk with their dogs unlike Japan, and dogs in Philippines were free like cats in Japan . . . I think that the best thing I found was that people in Philippines had much more facial expressions and reactions than Japanese, so they seemed very cute. This can say not only for Filipino, but also for people in other countries expect for Japan. (2011, Female, 1st Year)

We see in the following excerpt a conceptual struggle between pre-conceived ideas and a first-hand view. Notice also the references to future direction and purpose.

Though I have no definitive reasons, I have been interested in NGO, but I have never got engaged in it so far. I had first opportunities . . . , and we visited two NGO facilities; House of Refuge and Virlanie in this PST. These two facilities are for protection of street children. Children in these facilities were cute, pure and innocent, and workers loved children very much. Before I visited there, I had a prejudice that it is difficult to interact with them because they don't like people, especially adults so much. However I knew it was wrong, because actually these children were really easier to approach to, and to make friends with than I had thought. They looked like children who live in comfort, but after the moment, I found they were too huggy like a baby, and I thought actually they were really starving for love. I thought life without love from their parents was so lonely that we cannot imagine. I don't know why they were abandoned, neglected, and I don't know why their parents can do such a terrible thing, though all children are innocent and pure. The worker told us that their parents could not be given good educations, and they didn't have enough money to grow their children, but I thought if they can't, they should not have a baby. I felt I love children again, and I want to engage in these jobs which are concerned with children all over the world for the future. (2011, Female, 1st Year)

Many students commented on the disparity in living conditions. In this excerpt, this student reflects on a story she heard from a student who spent a longer time living with the Mangyan in Banilad. She also questions the notion of help/assistance.

We visited the Mangyan village, which was poor and undeveloped part of Mindoro Island. The life in this region was really different from other parts of Philippines as well as Japan. They had no electricity, gas, good restroom, and shower, and people in this village wore tattered clothes and beach shoes, or no shoes. It was hard for us to live in such a place even in a day, but I think that's not to say that we could have experience of their real life. That's because we could have breakfast, lunch, and dinner in a day, but our friend, who had visited this village for a week before we visited, said "children in

this village ate foods only once in a day, and she was always hungry last time she visited. Also, I heard a shocking story from her; when she ate meal, she was full, so she told children that she gave them the rest of food, but they rejected. However, the moment she left the place, they crowded around the food. I couldn't see such a realistic situation. On the other hand, I found many good things in this area. The first was that they had real natural; the air was really clean, and we could see so beautiful stars that we can't see in Japan. The second thing was that children were very pure, and they were great singers in spite of no music player. I don't know I can say such a thing because I didn't have experience of their real life, and because I live much better life than theirs in Japan. However, I have a question about help for them; that mean "do they really need help?" I thought if they can't live longer because of the poverty or their lives, then we should help them, so I asked the teacher, who comes to this village to educate children from below the mountain, the average lifetime in that area. Then, he answered that they live to age 90~100, and the old man, who passed away most recently, was 102 years old, and he said it was because they don't eat any salty foods. I think it has other many reasons, for example, no electricity makes them wake up and go to bed with sun, so they must not suffer from some lifestyle-related disease because of disorderly life like Japan, and the life with only natural materials, not agent is really good for their health. Also, I think that once people are used to a convenient life, it will be difficult for them to return to former inconvenient life just as us, Japanese. Before I went to Philippines, I had deeply thought that to require convenience too much, and to be used to it brought about a lot of problems of environment, resources, foods, people's health and more. I realized that we can live in not convenient places in Mangyan, so I thought we should not desire such a convenience life again. Actually, they should be given more food and a few lights if they really need it, but to give them too much things will not be good for them, because they will lose something good, and I think they don't need to be like us. I thought that children who are starving for love, without family was more serious problem than children who are with family, but poor. (2011, Female, 1st Year)

She also reflects on the convenience in her own life and that of other Japanese. We have another example of increased understanding of cultural diversity.

A reoccurring theme in student journals and reports was the glaring gap between rich and poor. This student writes:

The most surprising thing I realized in Philippines was the gap between the rich and poor. There is this gap even in Japan, but it's not so big that we rarely see with our own eyes. This gap in Philippines was really big. When I visited Mrs. April's house, I thought they were really rich people in this country, because they had big house, their own Jeepney, and many

housekeepers (three drivers, two woman for children, two houseboys, and some cooks). Also, I thought our host mother was rich, because things in her house looked expensive, she always wore many accessories, she and her one daughter were dentists, the other daughter was a birth attendant, and her son was a national banker. However, Professor Jones told me that they were middle class in Philippines, and real high level people in Philippines were above the clouds. When I heard that, I was really surprised and shocked, because I also saw many poor people in Philippines. When we turned aside from main roads, we could see like a slum even in Metro Manila, people in this area wore shabby clothes and lived in like a tent, and our host mother said that it was dangerous to pass this street in night even by cars. We saw a lot of people who panhandled when we got on the Jeepney and were in the restaurant. Also, this country had many street children. I didn't see people above the clouds, but when I went to Makati and saw many brand shops, buildings, and illuminations like Japan, I thought these people lived in this area. It was really big gap between middle class and poor, the gap between poor and really high level people would be so big that I could not imagine. I wondered it was not good thing to have such a big gap in the same country. (2011, Female, 1st Year)

In this excerpt, this student reflects on the sensitivity of Japanese and the importance of English for cross cultural interactions and exchange.

I noticed many things that I could not notice in Japan throughout this Study Tour. The first thing is about Japanese people. I thought Japanese was too sensitive about various things. For example, we got on the cars with standing, and these cars passed big roads, when we participated in the parade in Calapan. If it was Japan, we could not do such a thing, because many people will say "it is dangerous! You should get off the car right now!" and police officers will stop it. Also, we were not good feeling even if we could not take a good shower. This sensitivity is sometimes good, but sometimes bad. The second thing is about Japanese cartoon culture. When I got on the car as a parade, a boy spoke to me about "NARUTO", which is Japanese cartoon, and I was surprised that Japanese cartoon was so famous in Philippines. I didn't know about cartoons or animation, so I could not talk about this topic with him. I have heard that Japanese cartoon is so popular and famous all over the world many times, but it was first time to find out the hard way about it, and I need to know more about cartoons as Japanese before I go to study abroad. The third thing is about English. I noticed the importance of English throughout this tour again. I have thought English is one of the tools which enable us to interact with people in other various countries, so I have wanted to speak in English, but I never had experience such a situation. However, during this tour, we communicated with Filipino in English. I thought it was convenient and really great thing, because they usually speak in Tagalog, while we speak in Japanese, so if each of us can't speak and listen to English

at all, we had no way to communicate with Filipino, and I gained less things. I reconfirmed the importance of learning English, and I need to study hard to communicate with people more smoothly, because people whom we interacted could speak more fluent English than us. Also, I found the importance of dance and music. I have heard the word, "music has no border." many times, and I realized it again during this tour. Some easy dances attracted children's strong attentions, and it made exciting moods. It was not only for children, but also for us, in my case, when we interacted with AIESEC members, they taught us a king of dance or call, and we did it together. At the moment, I felt that the walls between us were broken, and we broke the ice at once. Also, I was impressed the song which some children in Mangyan sang for us. I thought it was available to have some dances or songs to show them, when we interact with foreigner people. (2011, Female, 1st Year)

We also see here the student's realization of the importance of music in cross cultural encounters.

In the following excerpt, the student offers advice for future participants. Again, hinting at increased awareness of cultural diversity.

I have some advice for people who will attend this Study Tour next year. The first thing is that it is better to study Tagalog language even a little. I had shallow idea that I didn't need to study Tagalog because people in Philippines can speak English before I went to. Then it was right, and we could communicate with almost all people in Philippines in English. However, small children couldn't, so when we asked them "what is your dream?", some of them could not understand this meaning, and could not answered this question. Also, when children managed to tell me something in Tagalog, but I could not understand it, I was frustrated, and I really regretted that I didn't study Tagalog at all. The second thing is that it is better to practice some easy dances, and songs. Children in Philippines were very good dancers and singers, and they showed us it, but we were confused because we didn't have things like that, so we could not show anything in return. (2011, Female, 1st Year)

In this final excerpt, we see ample evidence of cognitive apprenticeship, situated learning, and growth in the interpersonal and affective domains.

I got many good things and thought about many things throughout this experience. The first good thing was that I had more friends who could talk seriously about profound topics. Before the study tour, I rarely had talked with many of the members except for Kazuma, but now I have more friends in this member. It is great thing for me, because I'm not good at breaking the ice with new friends, and it takes very long time for me to talk about profound

topics with them. It was really good opportunity to talk about world's poverty problem, what we should do, and other serious topics with friends. Also, I got a lot of good stimulation from THT. I was impressed by Bill's way to attract children's attentions, the aggressiveness of Mrs. Megumi which I could not think as Japanese, and these similar things. However, only when we visited Mangyan, I wondered whether it was good or not to visit with many people, especially with some professors. That was because we could not have experience of their real life. We were given normal meals because we visited there with many people, especially professors. If I really want to experience real life, I need to visit such a place alone or with a few people. However, I heard that we cannot enter this village without permission of the leader of this village, I think there are many such places all over the world. If I go there privately, it will be difficult to be given permissions, so I don't know which is better. Finally, my purposes, which was to watch the situation and children in Philippines with my own eyes, and to think what I want to do and what I should do was achieved, but it was just first time for me. Honestly, my strongest thought is that I want to watch more terrible areas with my eyes during, at the same time, I want to build more knowledge about poverty, and other similar things, and think about the way to solve during university days. I'm really grateful for all people who made me have such a valuable and precious experience. (2011, Female, 1st Year)

Lessons Learned

The lessons I learned through these study tours are almost too numerable to mention. As a teacher, I have long been intrigued by service learning as an instructional strategy. The study tours to the Philippines have confirmed my feeling that these types of learning experiences are a powerful pedagogic tool and provide opportunities for significant learning. Specifically, these experiences offer rich situated learning opportunities, and bring into play many of the motivational elements that are lacking in the classroom (e.g. self efficacy, relevancy, satisfaction and other promoters of intrinsic motivation).

My initial review of student journals and final reports were slightly disappointing in that many of the entries were similar across students and dealt with superficial aspects of the learning experience (e.g. surprise at the city environment in Manila and apparent economic gap, frustration with limited English language abilities, smiles on Mangyan children's faces despite the oppressing poverty). Further readings however uncovered clear evidence of learning in the various learning domains. Some of this learning was related to our goals/objectives for the study tour, while other examples were completely unrelated to our preparations and/or focus. In the former category, we could find references to purchasing power parity (PPP), cost-benefit analysis, and project management. At the same time, as educators, we need to keep in mind that many unexpected learning opportunities will arise during this type of activity and actively embrace those opportunities.

As mentioned above, a gap in expectations, i.e. what students expected before going and

what they encountered, appeared several times in the journals and reports. The pedagogical implications are that we should work with students to clarify what their expectations and preconceptions are before the fieldwork portion of the project. Several students commented on the shock they received in their interactions with students in the Philippines. This shock was related to the stark differences between students in these two countries. Comments included the dedication Filipino students have to their studies. Also, the level of English mastery was mentioned more than once. In most of these reports, students mentioned increased motivation in terms of their general studies, as well as English language and communication.

Several students also mentioned that this experience brought into focus how much they and their contemporaries in Japan take things for granted. This is not really a lesson learned, but does provide another teachable moment. During the reflection stage of the project, we can guide students' attention to this issue and have them elaborate further on these ideas and the implications.

Excerpts from the journals and reports also hinted at personal growth in the interpersonal domain. Several students expressed empathy for Mangyan children in Banilad and street children at the shelters in Manila. At the same time, several students highlighted in their writing the cooperation and collaboration with other participants, Filipino students, THT delegates, and volunteers working with the various NGOs. One female student expressed her determination to more fully appreciate the people around her: parents, teachers, and friends.

These study tours have been a rewarding experience for both the students and myself. The level of engagement by the students was a strong reminder of the motivational benefits of engaging students in meaningful activities. The main areas of growth and learning for our students were: (a) a better general understanding of the Philippines as an Asian neighbor, including society, culture, and economics, (b) an introduction to the plight of one specific group of indigenous people in the Philippines, including a look at daily life and hardships in a representative village, (c) practice with planning, organizing and delivering instructional activities, (d) development of research and interviewing skills, (e) a better general understanding of the management and operation of non-governmental organizations of varying sizes and complexity, and (f) development of presentation skills and practice giving presentations to a variety of audiences.

Advice

Having conducted these study tours over four years, my advice can be summarized as follows:

- take advantage of the pre-departure stage to learn more about the students and their individual interests (this will help identify what will be motivating for each student)
- provide guidance and structure regarding project management during the pre-departure stage (without a structured, goal-oriented plan, students will likely squander this time and thus not be in a position to make best use of the fieldwork phase)

- require students to have a driving question (this will help focus attention and provide an engine for learning)
- limit the use of iPhones and other electronic devises (students with these devices will likely miss many learning and interaction opportunities)
- encourage students to ask questions (at a minimum, keep "why" in the foreground)
- actively search out opportunities to interact with others (this is where the unexpected learning will occur)
- require students to keep a daily journal to record observations, impressions, questions, etc. (this makes writing the follow-up reports easier)
- spend adequate time debriefing students during the follow-up phase (this reflection helps ensure signicant learning experiences)

Conclusion

I have had some misgivings about taking first-year students and questioned the value of the experience for students lacking in maturity. So far, we have had two students who participated in the study tour on two consecutive years (one student in 2010 and 2011, another in 2011 and 2012). Reports written by these two students after the second experience suggest a deeper level of engagement and preparedness for learning from the experience.

When embarking on this project, I had certain expectations and a fair amount of trepidation. Four years into this project, I can honestly say that the learning outcomes for students (even first-year students) have been beyond expectations. The majority of students have approached the project earnestly and accomplished the goals we set for ourselves. At the same time, several students have gone beyond what was expected and pushed the boundaries of the project. Students have investigated unrelated issues and followed up with projects and investigations for other classes after returning to Japan.

Student reports highlight learning that can be linked to several theories of learning. One intriguing result was the deeper level of learning that was expressed in writings by the two students who had participated a second time. A better understanding of this phenomenon will require further investigation.

There are of course areas for improvement. I will stress to future groups the importance of time management during the preparation stage, and schedule more time for everyone to gather before and after the fieldwork part of the project. Students also need to take more initiative in preparing and conducting the activities for children, and not rely on the teachers so much. For future study tours, I will require students to leave their electronic devices behind. There were several times during the 2011 study tour when I felt students were missing a big part of the overseas experience because their attention was locked into the iPhones (listening to Japanese music and looking at photos/videos of friends in Japan). The adjustments we made in pairing students up with Filipino students for 2012 was a big improvement, and increased opportunities for students on both sides to deepen their understanding of cultural diversity.

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Online Resources

Buck Institute for Education (BIE) - http://www.bie.org

CIA World Factbook - www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/index.html

Project Based Learning: The Online Resource for PBL - http://pbl-online.org/About/whatisPBL.htm

World Bank Country Profiles - http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/country-profiles

Biographical Statement

Brent A. Jones has taught ESL/EFL in Hawaii and Japan since 1987. He is currently teaching for Konan University, Hirao School of Management and is the Director of Language Programs. His major research interests are L2 learning motivation, extensive reading, curriculum development, materials development and instructional design.

Appendix 1 - Characteristics of Authentic Learning Activities

Adapted from Reeves, T. C., Herrington, J., & Oliver, R. (2002). Authentic activity as a model for web-based learning. 2002 Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA, USA.

Real-world relevance: Activities match as nearly as possible the real-world tasks of professionals in practice rather than decontextualized or classroom-based tasks.

Ill-defined: Activities require students to define the tasks and subtasks needed to complete the activity.

Complex, sustained tasks: Activities are completed in days, weeks, and months rather than minutes or hours. They require significant investment of time and intellectual resources.

Multiple perspectives: Provides the opportunity for students to examine the task from different perspectives using a variety of resources, and separate relevant from irrelevant information.

Collaborative: Collaboration is integral and required for task completion.

Value laden: Provide the opportunity to reflect and involve students' beliefs and values.

Interdisciplinary: Activities encourage interdisciplinary perspectives and enable learners to play diverse roles and build expertise that is applicable beyond a single well-defined field or domain.

Authentically assessed: Assessment is seamlessly integrated with learning in a manner that reflects how quality is judged in the real world.

Authentic products: Authentic activities create polished products valuable in their own right rather than as preparation for something else.

Multiple possible outcomes: Activities allow a range and diversity of outcomes open to multiple solutions of an original nature, rather than a single correct response obtained by the application of predefined rules and procedures.

Appendix 2 - The Five Stages of Service Learning (Source: Kaye, 2010)

Inventory and Investigation
Using interviewing and other means of social analysis, students:
• catalog the interests, skills, and talents of their peers and partners
• identify a need
• analyze the underlying problem
• establish a baseline of the need
• begin to accumulate partners

Preparation and Planning
With guidance from their teacher, students:
• draw upon previously acquired skills and knowledge
• acquire new information through varied, engaging means and methods
• collaborate with community partners
• develop a plan that encourages responsibility
• recognize the integration of service and learning
• become ready to provide meaningful service

• articulate roles and responsibilities of all involved
• define realistic parameters for implementation

Action
Through direct service, indirect service, research, advocacy, or a combination of these approaches, students take action that:
• has value, purpose, and meaning
• uses previously learned and newly acquired academic skills and knowledge
• offers unique learning experiences
• has real consequences
• offers a safe environment to learn, to make mistakes, and to succeed

Reflection
During systematic reflection, the teacher or students guide the process using various modalities, such as role play, discussion, and journal writing. Participating students:
• describe what happened
• examine the difference made
• discuss thoughts and feelings
• place experience in a larger context
• consider project improvements
• generate ideas
• identify questions
• encourage comments from partners and recipients
• receive feedback

Demonstration
Students showcase what and how they have learned, along with demonstrating skills, insights, and outcomes of service provided to an outside group. Students may:
• report to peers, faculty, parents, and/or community members
• write articles or letters to local newspapers regarding issues of public concern
• create a publication or Web site that helps others learn from students' experiences
• make presentations and performances
• create displays of public art with murals or photography

Forum: Perspectives and Reviews

Creating Effective ESP Programs for Future Employment in Tourism

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Abstract - Tourism, an important aspect of GDP, could contribute up to 9.2% of global employment by 2020. International tourists as well as tourism related businesses in Asia have increased since 2000. This expansion has created new job opportunities for employees, but tourism employees must be able to communicate appropriately; communication skills influence a guest's post-holiday memories of their vacation experience. Therefore, English language teachers and ESL, EFL, and EIL (English as an International Language) program administrators need to create effective ESP programs for future employment in tourism. Survey work relating to English education and ability are important in pinpointing specific problem areas in English ability. Surveys should be carried out and results analyzed in order to be used by administrators in creating the most effective ESP programs for future tourism employment.

Introduction

Since the early part of 2000, world tourism has become an essential component of the total GDP in many countries. Tourism is forecast to contribute up to 9.2% of worldwide GDP by 2020; furthermore, it will most likely contribute up to 9.6% of global employment in the services sector in the same period (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2011). Many markets have been created in tourism of late; eco-tourism, cultural tourism, and adventure tourism are three important tourism markets in the 21st century. All tourism destinations require hospitality services businesses, such as guesthouses, hotels, and restaurants, to be located within a reasonable perimeter of the particular attraction. Such tourism businesses create many new job opportunities for young members of the labor force. However, the labor force must be able to communicate appropriately and effectively since communication is one factor that could influence guests' post-holiday memories of their travel experiences. Communication across country lines and borders, otherwise known as intercultural communication, requires an understanding of cultural nuances and an awareness of sensitive aspects of a particular culture. Personal facets, such as emotions, anxieties, and positive and negative attitudes, should all be noticed, acknowledged, and responded to adequately. Inappropriate gestures, harsh language, lack of eye contact (or too much), invasion of physical space, and incorrect touching should also be avoided so as not to create a negative communicative situation which may further exacerbate already existent problems.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the important elements that comprise an effective English for Specific Purposes (ESP) program for future employment in the tourism industry. Section one examines tourism in the country of the author's study: Cambodia. Section two shows resulting data from one of the author's studies in Cambodia, while section three reviews the background of ESP, and includes a definition. Section four explains the author's ESP program approach, as well as the elements of a successful ESP

program in tourism. Section five explores the importance of surveys in gauging employees' needs. Section six shows elements of designing an effective questionnaire, and section seven concludes. Finally, section eight includes ideas for further research.

Tourism in Cambodia

Thailand has been enjoying a hearty tourism industry since the 1970's. After the remaining Indochina region opened diplomatic relations, interest in Vietnam, Cambodia, and more recently Myanmar, has blossomed. As a result, tourists have filled Asian streets, making Indochina a popular tourist destination much like the ever-popular Thailand. It wasn't until the late 1990s that Cambodia, after normalizing diplomatic relations with the west, began to enjoy tourism receipts to the much-touted Angkor Wat and its gateway city, Siem Reap. Tourism has been a large portion of GDP to Cambodia, and an attractor of foreign direct investment (FDI) to the service sector of the economy. Table 1 shows tourism data between 2002 and 2010, to Siem Reap International Airport by purpose of visit.

Table 1. Travelers to Siem Reap International Airport (2002-2010)

Year	Tourism	Business	Other
2002	195,776	2,670	4,345
2003	178,638	2,848	4,812
2004	297,279	2,746	9,348
2005	426,807	2,821	10,497
2006	591,474	2,778	5,423
2007	751,537	5,699	4,015
2008	656,776	7,063	4,665
2009	574,571	4,720	4,693
2010	704,254	4,658	3,760

Source: Cambodia Ministry of Tourism, 2010

Table 2. Cambodia Visitor Arrivals (1999-2011)

Year	Total Number of Tourists	Percent of Change (%)	Average Length of Stay (days)	Hotel Occupancy (%)	Tourism Receipts (US $million)
1999	367,743	27.02	5.50	44.00	190
2000	466,365	26.82	5.50	45.00	228
2001	604,919	29.71	5.50	48.00	304
2002	786,524	30.02	5.80	50.00	379
2003	701,014	-10.87	5.50	50.00	347
2004	1,055,202	50.53	6.30	52.00	578
2005	1,421,615	34.72	6.30	52.00	832
2006	1,700,041	19.59	6.50	54.79	1,049
2007	2,015,128	18.53	6.50	54.79	1,400
2008	2,125,465	5.48	6.65	62.68	1,595
2009	2,161,577	1.70	6.45	63.57	1,561
2010	2,508,289	16.04	6.45	65.74	1,786
2011	2,881,862	14.90	6.50	66.15	1,912

Source: Cambodia Ministry of Tourism, 2011

The total number of tourists to Cambodia grew slightly more than 7 times between 1999 and 2011, while tourism receipts increased about 10 times between 1999 and 2011 (Table 2). As a result, new hotels, guesthouses, and restaurants were constructed, making

tourism a bona-fide industry that had the potential to offer future employment. The average length of stay increased between 1999 and 2011 as well, showing that Cambodia now has a reputation of offering luxurious and affordable accommodations with easy access to sightseeing activities.

Results of a 2012 survey in Siem Reap, Cambodia

The author has completed three surveys within the tourism industry in Siem Reap to investigate the question of English proficiency, employment, and income. The first survey was preliminary, primarily to gather background social and educational information of tourism employees and was completed in 2008. The next survey, finished in 2010, yielded various socio-economic data and included an English proficiency assessment. The survey in 2012 was yet designed and administered even more seriously, and contained an incremented, easy to quantify English assessment speaking test created numerically by the author (Table 3).

Table 3. The Author's English Speaking Assessment Test

0	No or little ability - can't communicate at all
1	Low Beginner - can only understand and use familiar everyday expressions
2	High Beginner - can understand and use expressions within everyday relevance
3	Low Intermediate - can understand many things, can produce but with many mistakes
4	High Intermediate - can understand and produce ideas but with lower confidence
5	Advanced - can understand everything and produce fluently and confidently

Based on the results of the 2012 survey, it was found that travelers used native English or English as an International Language (EIL) while traveling there. Figure 1 shows that 77% of the total respondents in the survey stated to have daily contact with native English or EIL speakers; 14% stated that native or EIL visited three times per week, and 9% visited once per month.

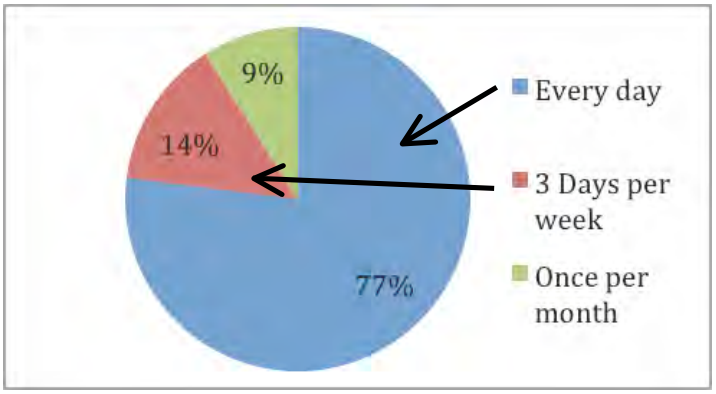

Fig 1. Frequency of Native and EIL Speaker Visits (Created from survey data, 2012)

The frequency of EIL visits has made English a job requirement, and English has become a stepping-stone to better jobs and higher salaries, as seen in Fig. 2; the ability to communicate in English is essential in practically every job. Fig. 2 illustrates that management trainees, waiters/waitresses, cashiers, and cooks all must have communicative ability in English to get job opportunities.

Fig. 2. Job Advertisement with Requirements (Photo taken by author, 2007)

Unfortunately, there are no set speaking employment requirements for English in Cambodia, nor are there English assessment test requirements. English speaking requirements are essentially mapped out by the business owner and are applied on a business needs basis. In fact, a further data search by the author for Cambodian standardized tests scores on the TOIEC and TOEFL found that they are rarely taken due to the expense and logistic problems. However, most respondents from the 2012 survey stated that they had initial job interviews, and many of their interviews were conducted entirely in English. In addition, many business owners interviewed stated that English is an extremely important factor in giving employees new jobs.

Fig. 3 shows that the need for English is quite high, as they must use it fluently in day to day tourism situations. From this data it can be seen that 56% must use English fluently in their jobs; 18% have to use it to explain things in detail, and 16% have to use it to assist visitors only. There appears to be a positive relationship between English proficiency, income, and employment in tourism in the example of Siem Reap.

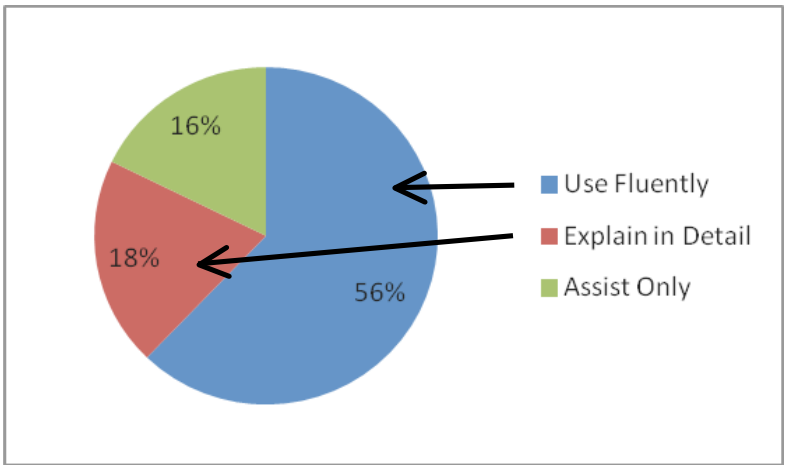

Fig. 3. Needs of English (Created from survey data, 2012)

In order to statistically analyze English background data, the particular variables were chosen to examine with certain statistical measures. The variables included years of English study, hours of English study, English proficiency income data, years on the job, and previous salary. To examine minute differences in each resulting value, the author calculated the means and standard deviations. Mean is essentially the average value, while standard deviation (SD) shows how close the values are gathered around the mean. Unfortunately, both mean and SD are very sensitive to outliers, or data far above or below the mean; outliers can change the data values upon calculation. We can, however, arrive at general conclusions regarding the data. Table 4 shows mean income values have a clear order from lowest to highest: (1) souvenir shops, (2) restaurants, (3) guesthouses, (4) hotels, and (5) travel agencies. SD of income in each business is quite high, which tells us the order of means might not necessarily be factual (Table 5). In other values, however, SD is lower, and closer to the mean. These values may be truer. For example, souvenir shop employees had the lowest English proficiency, fewest years of general education, and fewest years of English education according to our means, and had low SD which shows the means are probably close to the real situation. Most souvenir shop and restaurant employees, on a scale of 0 (no ability) to 5 (advanced ability), had an average level of in the low range of 2 (high beginner) and could only communicate on a rudimentary level. This indicates they could only use words relating to price, or answer basic questions regarding food in single words only. During interviews it was also evident that other English fluency skills, such as writing, were lower as well. Restaurant employees used English a great deal each month, but their English proficiency levels were not much higher, nor were their salaries. Guesthouses were unique because employees had quite low salaries, but the survey found that they spent quite a lot of money (US $15) each month studying English, which is quite a lot for Cambodians. They also had more years in school and more years of English education than staff of souvenir shops and restaurants. Interestingly, according to data they had the most hours of English study per week in school at almost 6 hours, and had quite low SD which tells us the mean is somewhat accurate. Guesthouse employees had a higher average English proficiency level of 2.9. This may be because guesthouse employees sometimes act as concierge, front staff, waiter, and bartender all in one.

Table 4. Means, Tourism Labor Force (2012)

Type of Business	Income (US$)	English level	Total School (years)	English $/mo (US$)	Total Years of English	Hours of English per week	Years on the Job	Previous Salary (US$)	Usage of English days/mo
Souvenir	$77	2.0	9.9	$9	1.8	3.1	3.7	$33	24.21
Restaurant	$81	2.3	10.9	$7	2.1	3.4	2.5	$30	23.60
Guest houses	$82	2.9	12.9	$15	3.2	5.9	2.4	$41	25.47
Hotels	$116	3.5	13.6	$11	3.3	4.0	1.9	$32	28.55
Travel Agencies	$158	3.3	13.0	$11	3.7	4.6	2.3	$57	25.72

Source: Calculated based on survey data, 2012

Hotel staff made second from highest salaries per month, at a mean of US $116 with high SD for income, but other SD values are quite low, such as English proficiency levels, total English education, and hours of English study per week. Therefore we can say with certainty that average English proficiency level in hotels was around 3.5, that years of English education was 3.3 years, and that usage of English was around 29 days per month. Hotel employees had quiet proficient English skills due to the fact that they must communicate with guests about such things as check-in procedures, hotel amenities, restaurant locations, and room problems, but their total hours of English study per week was actually lower than that of guesthouses. Travel agency employees made the highest salaries per month on average at US $158 (with high SD), and had high English proficiency levels at 3.3, slightly lower than that of hotels. They could communicate on a deeper level, and explain things in more detail, often times with ease in clear English. This is because employees in travel agencies must carry out tasks such as communicating with other travel agents overseas, booking reservations by phone or Internet, and planning intricate sightseeing itineraries.

Table 5. Standard Deviation, Tourism Labor Force (2012)

Type of Business	Income	English Level	Total School (years)	English $/mo	Total Years of English	Hours of English per week	Years on the Job	Previous Salary	Usage of English days/mo
Souvenir	29.62	1.08	2.97	25.05	1.79	3.24	3.08	58.13	10.47
Restaurant	25.97	0.93	2.56	9.08	1.21	2.70	1.77	46.13	10.47
Guest houses	37.92	1.04	2.69	29.26	2.11	4.17	3.65	48.46	8.93
Hotels	39.22	1.06	2.59	10.73	1.88	2.50	1.30	48.86	5.63
Travel Agencies	54.93	1.04	2.58	10.12	3.11	2.47	2.07	78.02	8.82

Source: Calculated based on survey data, 2012

From the high standard deviation in the analysis of our data, we can conclude that income, total money spent on English per month, and previous salary in all businesses is difficult to pinpoint due to the variety of situations. The one thing we know is that the income is not good, and that it is probably around the mean values, as is the previous salary. One other thing we know is that employees definitely spent money each month on English study, but whether or not this contributed to either English proficiency or income

is difficult to say statistically due to some high SD values. Other resulting values with low SD hint at more certainty other results. English level, total schooling, total years of English education, and working years, for example, are close to the central line, resulting in truer mean values. Knowing that souvenir shop and restaurant employees lack certain fluency skills, and as a result have low salaries, for example, can help teachers and administrators develop programs that help employees elevate their skills. This, in turn, could help young employees in tourism reach higher paying jobs such as hotel front staff or concierge, or to get jobs in travel agencies, the highest paying jobs in the survey.

Background of ESP

The field of ESP has been gaining prominence since the 1960's with the advent of training manuals for export products coming from various countries. Recently many universities are offering MA courses in ESP, and many journals exist related to ESP. In order to clarify to the reader what is meant by the term ESP, a brief definition described by Anthony (1997) will now be offered. Many people define ESP as English for any purpose that can be specified, such as English for Engineering, English for Medicine, English for Nursing, etc. Dudley-Evans (cited in Anthony, 1997), however, has set out to create a more distinct definition of ESP. Dudley-Evans' definition contains absolute as well as variable characteristics as discussed in the following outline. The definition of ESP taken from Dudley-Evans is as follows:

ESP contains Absolute Characteristics in which:

1. ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners.
2. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves.
3. ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

It also contains Variable Characteristics where:

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines.
2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English.
3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level.
4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.
5. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems.

The definition above can help teachers and administrators create effective teaching in relation to certain specific learner needs. In Dudley's definition, ESP is not specifically related to one subject area, nor is it geared towards any particular age group. Rather, ESP is best seen as a teaching "approach." In fact, Hutchinson (1987) states that the learner's reasons for learning are the base of all decisions regarding method and content in a particular program. In this paper, the goal is to offer guidelines for creating ESP programs specifically for tourism, an area in which learners' reasons are already clear.

After viewing the above guidelines we see that such a goal of creating effective tourism English programs is within reach if they are structured appropriately. In the next section, concrete effective methods for creating ESP programs in tourism will be discussed.

ESP Program Approach

In order to fulfill the needs of current or potential tourism personnel, ESL/EFL/EIL administrators need to focus on elements that make effective ESP tourism programs. Such elements include training in both broad and specific skills. In tourism businesses in developing countries, communicative competency rather than grammatical knowledge is perhaps more effective for skills enhancement, as most employees use English for tourism-specific communication.

Elements of an Effective ESP Program in Tourism are as follows:

(1) Tourism related vocabulary
(2) Tourism situational role-play practice
(3) Extensive reading on related topics such as ecology, culture, and human behavior
(4) English language fluency training
(5) Effective interpersonal and intercultural communication skill training
(6) Integrated skill building

An example of effective ESP is the internship. In many hospitality training schools and programs, students intern directly in hospitality businesses, such as hotels. They receive hands-on training in the field of tourism, and can learn business procedures and also methods of effective communication. Some students also work part time in hospitality to earn money, but while doing so they also learn. Many tourism schools include hands-on training in such skills as food service, food preparation, cleaning and room preparation, physical check-in procedures, and the like. It was found in Cambodia, that very few schools offer true to life communication training specifically for tourism, something the author believes would be highly beneficial to young Cambodians entering the job market. For example, mangers could learn how to "empower" their staff, and in-turn, staff learn how to "empower" the customer for an enjoyable stay and increase the possibility of return visits, not just to receive immediate financial benefit.

The Importance of Surveys

Survey research work is very important especially in three areas: (1) political, (2) economic, and (3) social. Surveys are one aspect a program developer may overlook when creating ESP programs. In this case of creating effective English and ESP programs, social questionnaires are incredibly useful in assessing needs. If effective questionnaires are written with an appropriate goal in mind, and quality interviews are held, many important results can be found. Statistical analysis can offer more definite proof of real situations, and can also help further categorize needs. Knowing that native and EIL speakers visit tourism-related establishments during activities daily, and realizing that 56% of tourist industry employees must speak English fluently, ESL administrators should focus on the development of certain English communication skills for those working in tourism. Teachers and administrators must first know what English communicative needs are present in tourism businesses. After collecting data in Siem

Reap, and examining data, it was found that certain shortcomings in present English communication skills were evident, as shown in the previous tables; however, we would only come to this conclusion after conducting interviews and analyzing the results. For this reason, we know that completing effective surveys are of utmost importance. Before a survey is conducted, an appropriate questionnaire must be designed. In the next section, elements of an effective questionnaire are presented.

Elements of an Effective Questionnaire

Good questionnaires should contain questions on social conditions, such as age, marital status, living situations, etc. This can help us understand the true and realistic situations employees face. It must then focus on other crucial issues such as background education, work-life, and future expectations. In the case of English, it must focus on English education background such as years and hours of English study. With this information, program administrators can pinpoint needs more effectively. They can provide very specific training in English language and intercultural communication skills. They can also provide businesses with the background necessary to maintain a full and thriving hospitality business.

Conclusion

In this paper, based on survey results, we have seen that English proficiency is necessary in tourism in the developing country of Cambodia. The results include:

(1) 77% of respondents stated that native and EIL speakers visit establishments every day.

(2) Entry level positions, as well as higher level positions, require fluency in English.

(3) 56% of respondents stated they must use fluent English every day for communication.

A logical next step would be to find what grammatical and communicative competency skills are lacking, such as incorrect verb usage or inability to explain thoroughly, and create ESP programs aimed at alleviating these problems. However, programs must be both interactive and supporive, while also focusing on intercultural communication for service. This would enable young tourism workers to get better jobs and higher incomes in the vibrant and ever-expanding world of tourism.

Further Research

In order to fully establish an effective ESP program in tourism that focuses on building skills, a preliminary short intensive course could be designed using the criteria mentioned under the section, ESP Program Approach. First, a survey is completed aimed at gathering background information of tourism employees in areas such as education background, income, and English proficiency. At this point, the survey is analyzed and a preliminary course created with the shortcomings and needs in mind. The course could be designed for a duration of time such as one hour per day, three times per week for two months. Before the course begins, the participants could complete pre-course questionnaires indicating what communication skills they want and need to develop specifically for tourism jobs. During the course, the researcher takes notes and observes the program elements during the administration of the course. After completion of the

course, the participants complete post course questionnaires detailing what was useful and appropriate for them. The teacher also writes a report examining what worked and what did not. In this manner, the course conception could be further examined and analyzed for appropriateness and effectiveness. This would allow program administrators to create the most effective ESP program possible for future employment in tourism.

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Biographical Statement

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DIY Volunteering in Phnom Penh

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Abstract - Opportunities to teach English or Japanese classes as a volunteer or help local teachers in developing countries exist in Japan, particularly via organizations like Teaching Helping Teachers, but taking advantage of those opportunities is not as simple as it may appear. Scheduling conflicts, for example, can rule out many otherwise promising possibilities. Sometimes a "do-it-yourself" approach may be the best option. This paper describes the lessons one teacher learned while designing a solo program with a local school in Phnom Penh, Cambodia.

For some time, I had been wanting to participate in a program associated with Teachers Helping Teachers (THT) but just hadn't been able to fit one in my schedule. The Vietnam program, for example, sounded great, but it was right in the middle of the semester in June. (I'm a university instructor.) The programs in Bangladesh and Kyrgyzstan were in September, a better time, but I always seemed to have a special class or an important meeting or two during just the wrong week. For a while, the Lao program looked like a possibility, as its dates were technically flexible, but the best opportunities there were in late January and February—right in the heart of entrance exam season.

It was starting to get a little frustrating. Finally, I decided I was going to have to organize something myself. But where? And how?

Several years ago, while on a conference trip to Cambodia, I had stopped by an NGO school in Phnom Penh that my wife had discovered online. At the time, this school, International Cambodia NGO, offered language and computer skills classes to (mostly) poor students originally from the provinces. I ended up teaching English for a day as a volunteer. It was a very rewarding experience, one I ended up writing about (Foss, 2008). I wondered if it would be possible to return there for a longer period this time and do something more substantial—a sort of do-it-yourself THT-esque program. I decided to find out. Lesson #1 in DIY volunteering: Mine past experiences.

In 2007, when I had visited it, International Cambodia NGO had been run in part by a Japanese NPO. Now it seemed to be independent, and with its own website. However, none of the links seemed to work. Was the school even still running, or was it just one more ghost on the internet? I was about to give up when I discovered a blog, written in Japanese, by one of the staff at the school. I contacted her via a comment on one of her posts, and that opened up a channel of communication with the school. Lesson #2: If the front door is locked, look for a back door.

Happily, the school seemed very interested in hosting me. As had been the case six years ago, while Japanese volunteers occasionally turned up, native-English or near-native-

English volunteers virtually never spent any time at the school. We negotiated some mutually acceptable dates, and they sent me an official invitation. During a week in March, I would teach two workshops for teachers, special English classes for students, and assist in selected regular classes.

Now I had to figure out what I was going to do. It's hard to judge from afar what learners in foreign contexts really need or how to be of the most use as an educator. I'd visited International Cambodia NGO before and knew a little about the environment there and the type of student that attended (for more, again see Foss, 2008), but I didn't know much else. The last thing I wanted to do was 'parachute in' as the foreign 'expert' and teach inappropriate material or give impractical advice. The stereotype of the well-meaning but ineffective and unintentionally demanding and selfish volunteer was one I wanted to avoid becoming at all costs.

This turned out to be harder than I thought. Lesson #3: Stereotypes exist for a reason. Although I spent several months emailing back and forth with the staff, it was difficult to find out just what they wanted or needed from a volunteer teacher. Communication was slow; a reply to an email could take a week or more. Answers to queries, particularly concerning what I might teach, were often vague or unhelpful (if invariably pleasant). I found myself feeling irritated about this at one point, thinking, *I'm trying to help them!* I then realized that I was already more than halfway to that stereotype of the volunteer described above. If anyone was causing problems here, it was me. First, all my questions were in English, which was not the first or even second language of my contact person; she was doing her best. Second, although the school was no doubt interested in my help, any preparatory work on their part was going to disrupt their normal routine, which is always difficult. Related to this, although I didn't know it at the time, many of the teachers and staff had other jobs outside of the school; they weren't necessarily there every day and they didn't have a lot of time for extras, no matter how interested they might be in them. Finally, and I didn't know this at the time either, the school's policy concerning volunteers was to give them the freedom to teach as they liked. They were naturally doing the same with me. Later, rereading my email correspondence with my contact person, I discovered that she had tried to tell me this but I had not understood. Lesson #4: It's not them, it's you.

I did manage to do a few things right. I had the bright idea to send two plans for a week-long program and let the school pick the one they liked. They did, and they even made a flyer in Khmer advertising my visit. I scheduled my teacher workshops for the end of the week, thinking (correctly) that my experiences with the students would help me fine-tune my presentation. (I was only able to teach one workshop in the end, but the knowledge I gained in the week leading up to it was invaluable.) Knowing that the school's resources were limited, I prepared what I thought would be a sufficient number of copies of all the materials I planned to use. On my last visit, there had been few whiteboard pens and no erasers; I purchased both, and enough so that I could leave some as a donation when I left. I made travel arrangements and guesthouse reservations. I was excited; I had high hopes for success.

In the end, I thought I could call it that—a success—but with the following caveat, which is also Lesson #5: It never happens as you expect. The school itself was essentially the same as I remembered it, which helped, but my previous visit had been too brief to enable me to really understand it. For example, I didn't know enough about when students studied there. I made a timetable for my special classes that had me teaching mostly in the late morning and early afternoon, not realizing that these were the least convenient times for the most of the students. The school had approved my plan...but this was in accord with their aforementioned hands-off policy. I ended up working with far fewer students than I might otherwise have, simply because of scheduling.

I also ended up not using most of the materials I had prepared. Even though I had been to the school before, I still misjudged what it was I should teach. First, many of my lesson plans involved communicative activities that more-or-less required students to move around. I expected that these kinds of activities might be new to some of the students and that they might be hesitant to try them. What I didn't expect was that it would be so hard for them to physically move. In each classroom at International Cambodia NGO, there are no individual desks and chairs, only long tables and benches that are very close together and fill up almost all of the available space. Getting the students up and out of their seats was so difficult as to not be worth doing. Second, many of the lessons I had prepared built upon each other. This turned out to be unworkable as well, as at least half of the students I saw every day were different. At International Cambodia NGO, students come only when they have the time, energy, and/or money. (My lessons were free, but the typical class costs 500 Cambodian riels per hour—about 12 yen.) In addition, in every class I taught, there were students who left 15 minutes early or arrived 30 minutes late. It was no use trying to change this; I was the one who had to change. Finally, and most importantly, the students had more pressing language needs than those I had designed lessons to address. Pronunciation, for example, turned out to be a serious problem, much more than I had expected. It's hard to do communicative activities when students can't understand each other in English; in many cases, *I* could hardly understand them. The *Ps* many students spoke sounded just like their *Bs* or *Ds*; the same was true of *Os* and *Rs*. I ended up spending a great deal of time on minimal pairs and spelling activities, things I would have never considered doing beforehand.

Working with the teachers also did not turn out as I expected. I had hoped to simply observe several classes in order to get a better idea of how I could be of the most use. This never happened. The teachers, quite naturally from their perspective, saw me as a resource that was available for only a limited time. They wanted me to help them right from the start, and never mind that I had no idea what their teaching style was or what they had planned for the day. Some classes I had planned to observe I actually taught almost in their entirety. Lesson #6: Be ready for anything!

Despite these surprises (perhaps even, in some cases, because of them), almost everything I did was well-received. It was such a novelty for the students to listen to a native speaker that they seemed willing to forgive all of my clumsy mistakes. And, like

good students everywhere, it didn't take them long to figure out how to get what they needed from their instructor. As for the teachers, my best moments with them ended up being private ones, discussing teaching methods or fine points of grammar together in the teacher's room. Lesson #7: Sometimes the most important thing is just to show up.

The question now is: What next? I hope to go back to Phnom Penh and International Cambodia NGO. The next time will be even better, I'm sure. (Lesson #8: It takes time.) I hope to persuade others to visit this interesting school as well. In many respects, International Cambodia NGO is the perfect destination for Japan-based teachers interested in volunteering or helping others in developing countries. Instructors can teach English or Japanese classes and workshops of their own design, help Cambodian teachers conduct regular classes, and volunteer more or less at their own convenience. The school's website (links working now, hopefully) can be found in the appendix to this article, but if you contact them, please don't forget Lessons #9 and 10: Be flexible and respectful. You may have a lot to offer, but it's their school. In fact, despite the title of this article, where volunteering is concerned, DIY is not really the best term to employ. You have to do it together, not do it yourself.

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Biographical Statement

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Appendix

International Cambodia NGO website: http://internationalcambodiango.org/home.html

What Every EFL Teacher Should Know: A Review of a Book by Paul Nation

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Abstract - In What Should Every EFL Teacher Know? Paul Nation (2013a) provides a very practical resource for teachers in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts. Along with brief summaries of the relevant research, Nation puts forth his stance that teachers spend too much time teaching and that their job is more appropriately to plan a course, train learners, test and monitor, and finally teach. The execution of balanced learning opportunities is presented in the principle of four strands (1) meaning-focused input, (2) meaning-focused output, (3) language-focused learning, and (4) fluency development.

The chapters in the book focus on how to teach *language skills* (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), how to teach *aspects of language* (pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse), how to design lessons and courses, as well as how to solve teaching problems. This paper provides a review of the book and its practical activities and strategies, and offers a critical comment on areas that were unaddressed.

Quite frequently, a claim is made concerning the disconnect between investigations and studies conducted by researchers and the practical applications needed by teachers in the classroom. In *What Should Every EFL Teacher Know?* Paul Nation (2013a) synthesizes some of the relevant research on the most pressing issues faced by foreign language teachers. Nation draws upon his 40 years of experience in teacher training as well as studies in the areas of teaching and learning vocabulary, language teaching methodology, and curriculum development to present this "How to…" guide for teaching practice.

This title is a companion to his earlier one, *What Should Every ESL Teacher Know?* (Nation, 2013b), available free as an electronic book. In creating two complimentary, but different titles, Nation has recognized that the context faced by EFL teachers and learners is vastly different. Three principal areas distinguishing EFL from ESL teaching contexts are said to be (1) often a lack of motivation and low achievement for learners in compulsory foreign language courses, (2) no clear learning need beyond test scores which are not communicative needs, and (3) the absence of the target language for input opportunities beyond the classroom where materials designed for ESL environments may be too difficult (p. 7).

The core principle underpinning this title is Nation's (2007) four-strands model which suggests that a well-balanced language course needs to "provide a balance of opportunities for learning across the four strands of (1) meaning-focused input, (2) meaning-focused output, (3) language-focused learning, and (4) fluency development" (p. 6). From this initial premise, in 17 chapters, Nation asks and answers the questions on what teachers should do, how to teach the various skills and components of language, as well as how to plan, deal with problems, and pursue professional development.

Each chapter is clearly laid out, (as a book of practice for teachers should be), with a box previewing the main idea of the chapter, useful tables as visuals supporting the written text together with some greyscale highlighting, and a chapter summary titled "What Should You Learn From This Chapter?" The final page of each chapter includes a modest list of further readings that are referenced in the chapter, links to some online web resources, and a brief action plan for teachers. These "Things to Do" sections could be followed up on in self-study or be included as part of a pre-service teacher training course. The structure of the book and its itemized Table of Contents also make it very accessible as a resource for novice and more experienced teachers to dip into and review around an area of interest, lesson plan focus, or classroom problem.

At the end of the book, six appendices are used to provide examples of survival vocabulary, classroom words, and worksheet examples for some of the activities discussed. Most notably however, in similar fashion to the mid-frequency vocabulary reader project Nation is working on (to create graded reading materials in the 4,000-8,000 word vocabulary frequency range), the Index on p. 232 notes that the vocabulary in this volume has been controlled with only 138 word families of technical words appearing outside the 4,000-word level. This decision to control the vocabulary level, made simpler now with corpus resources and word profiling software such as AntWordProfiler (Anthony, n.d.), makes the book very approachable for non-native English speaking teachers in the target EFL contexts.

In Chapter 1, *What Should an English Teacher Do?* Nation identifies that the teacher "can be the most important person in the learners' language learning" and that "what the teacher does and how the teacher sees their role" (p. 9) are central to fostering learning opportunities. Following his narrow definition of teaching "where the teacher is the source of the information and the focus of attention," (p. 9) Nation makes the astute observation, already experienced by many EFL students, that teachers "tend to teach too much" (p. 10). By this Nation means spending too much time on direct instruction as their conceptualization of teaching via transmission (personal communication, April 6, 2013). As a principal thesis for the book, Nation calls for more balanced opportunities for learning by outlining and reframing the four main jobs of an English teacher as (1) to plan and run a well-balanced course, (2) to train learners in helpful learning and communication strategies, (3) to test and monitor learners to find out both what they know and how they are developing, and finally (4) to teach. Nation draws on vocabulary frequency and coverage data to support his notion of four strands. *Meaning-focused input* through listening and reading requires materials at the right level for the learners where the focus can then be on the message. This *right level* in reading is suggested to be where no more than two words in 100 are unfamiliar to the learner. *Meaning-focused output* requires communicating messages in speech and writing. *Fluency development* is noted to exist across all four skills and is focused on language already known, together with some time pressure to push more rapid processing. *Language-focused learning* is where many of the elements of traditional teaching are situated in terms of instruction and deliberate learning of language features and learning strategies. A balanced approach

suggests dedicating about 25% of the time to each of these strands over a reasonable period of study. On page 14, Nation also highlights the 20 most useful language teaching techniques matched with their relevant strand (see Appendix). These activities are typically targeted for teenage and older learners but with some changes can also be relevant for young learners. Twenty additional language teaching techniques, offering a memory or competition challenge and requiring little preparation and few technical resources, are listed in Chapter 11. The first chapter ends with the top five improvements a teacher can make to a language course or course book:

(1) Add an extensive reading program
(2) Add a fluency development strand
(3) Add meaning-focused problem solving activities for listening and speaking
(4) Add extensive listening activities
(5) Encourage and train leaners to do deliberate vocabulary learning from word cards

Chapter 2 looks at how to teach both listening and speaking, since speaking activities and practice invariably also involve listeners and opportunities for listening. Language learners first need to memorize basic transactional and interactional survival vocabulary, as well as useful expressions for the classroom, and then become fluent in using these. Nation also observes that it is important for speakers to speak a lot rather than only a little while focused on accuracy. He cautions that immediate correction of spoken output can discourage speakers and suggests that common errors can be taught to the class. The strategy of word card learning and training for spaced repetition is first introduced in this chapter, along with other speaking and listening activities across the four strands. The examples of outcomes from problem solving activities (e.g., suggest, choose, rank, decide, locate, and arrange) given in this chapter are expanded upon in Chapter 3 by looking at the additional features of challenges or restrictions and procedures facilitating repetition. Ensuring the speaking activities are designed at the level of the learners can be enhanced by preparing the learners for the activity and providing support during it.

Chapter 4 titled *How Do You Teach Reading?* identifies the three types of reading as (1) *extensive reading* of a lot of material that is learner level appropriate, (2) *intensive reading* of more difficult material for content knowledge and contextualized vocabulary study, and (3) reading easy materials for improved reading speed and comprehension as *reading fluency*. The chapter highlights the steps and focus points for instruction in the three types of reading and also cautions that in intensive reading while "the easiest way to make today's text understandable is to translate it into the first language… this will have very little effect on the understanding of tomorrow's text on a different topic" (p. 59). Also noted is how reading can be integrated with other skills through linked skills activities which allow for more time-on-task with the same reading text input. These linked skills activities provide a lead in to teaching writing, the topic of Chapter 5. Following the first writing lessons of copying, using substitution tables, and dictation, students should be introduced to the steps in the writing process. Designing writing activities that support the writer and promote language development are both major headings in this chapter. Guidelines for giving feedback on writing wrap up Chapter 5,

along with the salient observation that "the amount of writing that learners do is not limited by the amount of writing that the teacher can mark" (p. 79).

Chapter 6 looks at teaching pronunciation and spelling as *aspects of language*. Along with fluency practice, deliberate attention is needed in teaching through explanations of articulatory phonetics and with models or feedback for consciousness-raising and learning by noticing the aspects of phonetics in particular words, pronunciation features, or single sounds. This chapter explains that understanding the concept of *phonemic awareness* – that separate sounds form words and that words can be broken into separate sounds, as well as the *alphabetic principle* – how letters of the alphabet represent sounds, are both important for learning to read with sound-spellings correspondences – *phonics*.

In Chapter 7, Nation condenses his significant work on vocabulary into 13 pages with a focus for teaching, via the four strands, of vocabulary at the correct frequency level for input, through output, in deliberate study, and in activities to develop fluency. Drawing from vocabulary coverage studies, it is identified that the most appropriate materials for students to learn are the top 2,000 high frequency words and the 570 word families from the Academic Word List. This chapter also includes brief explanations of the most important vocabulary learning strategies using word cards, studying prefixes and suffixes as word parts, and using dictionaries effectively. One more suggested strategy, guessing word meanings from context, argued against by Grabe (2009) as a vocabulary strategy while at the same time promoted as an effective technique used by strategic readers, indicates how much more there is to know about implicit and explicit language learning. For more on teaching vocabulary strategies and vocabulary levels and vocabulary size tests see Nation (2008), or check his website.

Chapter 8, on teaching grammar, explains that most grammar will be learned incidentally through meaning-focused use of the language. Deliberate attention to the high frequency features of grammar can, however, speed up learning through noticing and awareness of useful phrases or sentences and common errors. Time-on-task in producing the language in speech and writing is also critical for grammatical development. The basic distinctions between spoken and written discourse as well as how texts are presented and organized are taken up in Chapter 9. Given that a whole chapter is dedicated to discourse, following the ones on vocabulary and grammar, it is somewhat odd that in a chapter focused on how to teach no mention is made of *content words* that carry meaning or *function words* which contribute to the structure of the language (see Schmitt, 2000, p. 73).

Teaching English for special purposes (ESP) is addressed in Chapter 10 by looking at several key issues in the form of questions. The curriculum for ESP is closely linked to uncovering what the learners need to learn through a needs analysis, the particular language use and discourse of the subject, as well as specialized vocabulary. The technical vocabulary in ESP (made up of words known only to those familiar with the subject or words closely related in meaning to the common use) needs to be learned together with the subject contents and not as decontextualized lists. Nation also questions whether learners even need ESP. He proposes that general communication proficiency

may be better to focus on where motivation is low or if English is not really needed for subject knowledge, such as where content is available in the first language or as translations. This runs contrary to generally held beliefs in ESP (see Harding, 2007, pp. 6-13) and Nation's own assertion (p. 125) that as the international language, English is needed to keep up to date on developments and readings in the disciplines and to communicate at conferences and via the internet. However, Nation rationalizes his stance with vocabulary coverage data, noting the time it would take to achieve proficiency. He also proposes solutions (currently relatively unexplored in Japan) such as making English courses optional, requiring a proficiency requirement to enter specific courses, or to limit the assessments in courses to more modest or different goals by proficiency levels (p. 127). With testing having been pointed out in the opening chapter as one of the jobs of a language teacher, assessments are looked at further in Chapter 12, *How Do You Test Your Learners?* The contents touch briefly on the aspects of reliability, validity, and practicality while introducing examples of achievement test methods for the different skills and overall proficiency tests

Chapter 13 looks at planning lessons using the four strands, while building opportunities for repetition by using the same material in multiple ways. The steps for seven different activities are outlined. Some teachers of young adults and college learners of low motivation may disagree with Nation's statement that lessons "should begin with an activity which gets the learners working quietly and settles them down" (p. 165) preferring to address the guidelines and applications to increase learners' motivation (p. 203, Table 15.2) by getting learners to be active from the outset of the lesson. One element missing from the dated references for activities in the chapter on planning lessons and the more up to date one on planning language courses is the idea of blended learning (see Hockly & Clanfield, 2010 for a practical guide to blended courses). At nearly 20 pages, Chapter 14 is the longest with its main idea that it is beneficial to follow a model of language curriculum design when planning a course. Four important assumptions about teaching and learning are revealed here: (1) spaced repeated meetings are needed, (2) language learning is largely subconscious and develops from meaning-focused input, output, and use, (3) teaching can speed up learning but most learning occurs without teaching, and (4) a balance of opportunities is needed. An eight-part graphic of the curriculum design process is elaborated upon in detail (for more on the curriculum design model see Nation, 2000; Nation & Macalister, 2010). This chapter also touches on the advantages and disadvantages of content-based instruction as well as course book selection.

Chapter 15 introduces a set of teaching problems including large classes, varying proficiency levels, use of the L1 in class, providing feedback, and dealing with learners who have low motivation and may not do homework. Many lists of suggestions are provided to address these problems with Nation's summary that usually a range of solutions are needed to address complex issues. Chapter 16 goes on to look at how a class can be controlled with good lessons, good relationships, and effective class management (p. 208). Chapter 17 suggests ways teachers can improve upon their knowledge and skills through academic study, with observation and reflection, by

sharing with other teachers, and via conference attendance. Although the book is targeted to novice teachers, it is unfortunate that the call to write for publication was not included as part of professional development (see Hyland, 2012 for an approachable overview to publishing for novice authors). This closing chapter does revisit the premise that teachers teach too much and that their most important job is to plan a well-balanced course along with restating the most useful changes a teacher can make in their course.

Learning to use a foreign language is known to require many types of knowledge. *What Should Every EFL Teacher Know?* (2013a) is an excellent, accessible volume to support teachers in foreign language contexts in developing courses and lessons that address language skills and parts of the language system. The core premise in this practical book is how opportunities for learning can be fostered through a balanced curriculum focused on input and output strands. Nation successively combines a brief review of the relevant research along with his own extensive experience to create a very useful guide for teachers and their mission to help learners develop, while all the while teaching less.

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Biographical Statement

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also conducted teacher training with THT in Bangladesh (2007) and Kyrgyzstan (2011), and at NELTA in Nepal and CamTESOL in Cambodia.

Appendix - The 20 most useful language teaching techniques

Skill	***Technique***	***Strand***
Listening	Listening to stories	Meaning-focused input
	Read and listen	Meaning-focused input
	Dictation	Language-focused learning
Speaking	Problem solving	Meaning-focused output
	Pair conversation	Meaning-focused output
	Prepared talks	Meaning-focused output
	Same or different (pronunciation)	Language-focused learning
	Identifying (pronunciation)	Language-focused learning
	4 / 3 / 2	Fluency development
Reading	Extensive reading	Meaning-focused input
	Paired reading	Meaning-focused input
	Intensive reading	Language-focused learning
	Speed reading	Fluency development
Writing	Writing with feedback	Meaning-focused output
	Information transfer	Meaning-focused output
	Substitution tables	Language-focused learning
	10 minute writing	Fluency development
General purpose	Linked skills	Meaning-focused strands
	Issue logs	Meaning-focused strands
	Words cards	Language-focused learning

(Nation, 2013a, p. 14)

Appreciative Inquiry for Language Teachers and Learners

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> *"Appreciative Inquiry is the cooperative, coevolutionary search for the best in people, their organizations, and the world around them. It involves systematic discovery of what gives life to an organization or community when it is most effective and most capable in economic, ecological, and human terms. AI involves the art and practice of asking questions that strengthen a system's capacity to heighten positive potential." (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005, p. 8).*

Introduction

Tired of the typical problem-solving, brain (or blame) storming sessions? You are not alone. This paper outlines an Appreciative Inquiry (AI) project taught in English for students studying economics and business administration at a private university in western Japan. As the opening quote above highlights, AI is concerned with identifying what is working in an organization (i.e. a positive core) and building on these affirmative elements. As readers will notice, this is a paradigm shift from the approach taken in most organizations. My own interest in AI developed out of research I was doing on positive psychology and change management as related to instructional design and educational technology. Specifically, the work of Jonathan Haidt (2006) and Martin Seligman (2002, 2011) gave me a fresh perspective on psychology in general and educational psychology in particular. The work John P. Kotter (2002) influenced my views on approaches to change management, while Lewis (2011) brought together ideas from all of these works and provided concrete examples of how AI can and has been applied in work settings. Recognizing the need for a fresh approach to organizational challenges in our own department, I plunged right in by submitting a proposal for the Appreciative Inquiry Project. After securing approval, the project was announced and eight brave souls registered for the Fall, 2012 semester. This paper starts with a brief introduction to the overall program these students are studying in, together with where this AI project fits within that curriculum. Using the course outline as a road map, we then go through specific details of how the project was conducted, and conclude with lessons learned.

Overview

The project introduced in this article is taught as part of a curriculum developed for undergraduate students studying management in a hybrid, economics/business administration program at a private university in western Japan. In brief, students start with foundational classes in these two disciplines as well as related areas of study (e.g. finance, marketing). At the same time, they take three semesters of required content-based English classes (five 90-minute classes a week in semesters 1 & 2, four 90-minute classes a week in semester 3). The overall program has an emphasis on project-based learning (PBL) as well as English communication skills, with a healthy dose of liberal arts thrown in for good measure. From the fourth semester on, students proceed to advanced courses, and at the same time enroll in projects in one or more of the following streams: (1) public management, (2) business leadership, and (3) global contribution. At

least two of these projects per semester are offered in English for students with acceptable grades in their required English classes. The AI Project was offered in English and developed to cover all three streams. The project consisted of fifteen weekly meetings of three hours and an additional ninety minutes of fieldwork each week. Students received six credits for successfully completing the project.

Appreciative Inquiry Project

The main goal of the AI project was to familiarize students with the theory and practice of change management within the field of organizational development, specifically the AI framework. Students were challenged to identify a target change-management initiative (affirmative topic choice), adapt or develop a protocol to conduct each phase of AI, and finally report on the procedure and outcomes. In terms of learning outcomes, students were expected to demonstrate skills related to group work, project management, interviewing, data collection/analysis, and presentation of findings. Class meetings were conducted in English, and students were expected to work in the target language in all of their group work. The concepts of change management and AI were presented through readings, seminars and workshops. The core readings came from Cooperrider, Whitney & Stavros (2008), specifically the three introductory chapters to AI and chapters on each of the four phases in the 4D cycle (*Discover, Dream, Develop, Destiny*). The focus of seminars and lectures was foundational knowledge of AI, including background and approaches to each phase of the 4D cycle. The overall schedule was as follows:

Weeks 1 – 3: What is Appreciative Inquiry? Identifying Change Management Projects
Weeks 4 – 10: Fieldwork and Appreciative Inquiry Methodology
Weeks 11 – 15: Bringing it all together, presentation of findings, self-reflection

Weeks 1 – 3: What is Appreciative Inquiry? Identifying Change Management Projects

To provide students with some theoretical background, we assigned readings and prepared lectures that highlighted the development of AI as an innovative approach to action research, and the move away from a logical positivist framework toward a socio-rationalist framework (Bushe, 1995) in action research. Different readings were assigned to three groups of 3 or 4 students. Students would read individually and then come together as a group to discuss main themes/ideas and prepare a one-page briefing sheet (convergent task). The following week, each member of these groups would join a different group and lead a discussion based on their briefing sheet, as well as listen and discuss what others had read (divergent task). Early on, we focused attention on affirmative topic choice and began generating a class list of possible change management endeavors. By the third meeting, we had discussed the various options and identified two targets for change management that students wished to pursue: the year-long foundational literacy (*kiso literacy*) course all students in our program are required to take, and the English O-Zone (a self-access English study space at the school).

Weeks 4 – 10: Fieldwork and Appreciative Inquiry Methodology

During this part of the course, we spent part of our class meetings studying or reviewing one of the phases of the 4D cycle and applying these ideas to our two AI initiatives. Five

students were working on the *kiso literacy* course, and three students comprised the English O-Zone group. Following is a rough breakdown of what was highlighted/pursued in each phase:

Discovery - Both groups started by identifying key stakeholders, crafting engaging affirmative questions about peak experiences and high points, and developing an Appreciative Interview Guide. After several practice rounds of interviews with classmates, both groups scheduled and conducted interviews with key stakeholders (students, teachers & administrators). The main challenge for students during this phase was to keep the focus of interviews on the positives. Most people are not accustomed to these types of interviews and drift back to fault or problem finding. Sample affirmative questions can be found in the Appendix.

Dream - During this phase, students designed and conducted World Café (Brown & Isaacs, 2005) events, with the aim of collecting ideas and finding inspiration for subsequent phases and to build excitement and momentum to keep the initiative rolling. The reason for choosing World Café as the format for this stage was that two of the students in class had previous experience with World Café events and could share their experiences and help with implementation. Most of the participants in these sessions were stakeholders that were interviewed during the Discovery phase. The *kiso literacy* group asked participants to bring one guest on World Café day, which significantly boosted participation.

Design - Students were then challenged to synthesize the findings from the Discovery (*"the best of what is"*) and Dream (*"what might be"*) phases of the project, and craft provocative propositions (sometimes called possibility propositions). The idea here was to find a way(s) to gain widespread recognition of the positive core, strengthen the collective mental picture of future possibilities, build momentum and ensure sustainability. The *kiso literacy* group found inspiration in the original mission statement for the department, specifically that students will, "*learn on their own and in cooperation with others*" and to "*think and act on their own judgment.*" The English O-Zone group decided on a theme of "*English O-Zone as a place for foreign exchange within CUBE,*" and that the slogan "*for students, by students*" would be a rallying cry to redirect daily actions.

Destiny - Because of the limits of the 15-week semester, the instructor asked both groups to focus in this phase on getting the results/findings of their work out to as many people as possible. Both groups prepared a written report and presentation in both Japanese and English. They then considered how best to disseminate this information. These activities are discussed further in the following section.

Weeks 11 – 15: Bringing it all together, presentation of findings, self-reflection
Students were asked to review the main ideas and themes we discussed in earlier meetings while preparing their reports and presentations. The *kiso literacy* group uploaded their report and video presentation to the school's course management system

for all department faculty, students and staff. In addition, they formally presented their findings to the faculty curriculum committee which was working on curriculum change proposals for the 2013 school year and beyond. The English O-Zone group submitted their report to the administration office and English O-Zone Assistants (fellow students working in the English O-Zone). Additionally, they arranged a lunch-time meeting to present their findings to stakeholders.

Lessons Learned

Throughout each phase of the project, students needed reminding and encouragement to work on project management skills and keep good documentation. The main tools for promoting this were a classroom project folder and course Moodle page. Both groups successfully completed the project, but there were a few bumps along the way. Specifically, the English O-Zone team struggled to create the enthusiasm and momentum that the *kiso literacy* group did. Having fewer members of the group (3 as compared to 5) seems to have been the biggest influence for this. Also, whereas all students are required to take *kiso literacy*, not everyone is involved or interested in the English O-Zone. The most striking example of the disparity between the groups was the World Café events. Whereas the *kiso literacy* group was able to gather twenty plus participants and create a positive, affirmative atmosphere, the English O-Zone event was attended by only eleven stakeholders, two of these being the organizers (one student missed the event because of job hunting activities). Although this team was able to get some useful ideas for their initiative, an affirmative, upbeat atmosphere was not achieved.

Conclusion

Overall, the project did achieve its goal of familiarizing students with the theory and practice of AI. The two groups experienced different challenges but were able to achieve the learning outcomes of developing skills related to group work, project management, interviewing, data collection/analysis, and presentation of findings. Students were evaluated on (1) how well they demonstrated an understanding of the concepts of change management and AI, (2) their contributions to each phase of the team project, (3) a final presentation, and (4) a final project reflection paper. In terms of target-language use, several students commented in their reflection papers on the difficulty of maintaining English as the working language of meetings, but also mentioned that doing so had helped them in terms of both language proficiency and confidence. The convergent and divergent tasks were also commented on as being challenging but effective. From the instructor's point of view, these tasks worked well and provided a means of monitoring student understanding. As mentioned above, the World Cafe events were not well attended, which limited their effectiveness. In future AI projects, we will need to find ways to boost attendance at these events. Overall, the AI project helped to nudge our institution away from the common deficit-based approach toward a more positive approach to change.

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Biographical Statement

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Appendix - Affirmative Interview Questions

Kiso Literacy - (1) give an example of a time in kiso literacy class when students worked well together as a team, (2) tell about a time in kiso literacy class when you had feelings of personal achievement, (3) what are some activities in kiso literacy class that you felt were most meaningful or worthwhile, (4) what contributions did you make to the class, (5) give examples of things you learned in kiso literacy that helped you in other classes, (6) any other opinions about the kiso literacy class.

English O-Zone - (1) when was the first time you felt confidence to use English in your life, (2) what and when was your life giving experience during your time in the O-Zone, (3) what do you hope the O-Zone will become three years from now.

Reflective Teaching as a Way of Professional Development

Mizuka Tsukamoto

Abstract - Many professional development programmes have incorporated reflection due to its effectiveness and importance. However, not many teachers seem to continue to reflect on their teaching, in terms of adopting the formal process. This paper discusses the theoretical background of reflective teaching, including its definition, purpose, contents and methods, and suggests how teachers could incorporate reflections in their teaching.

Introduction

Professional development programmes encourage participants to reflect on their own teaching after their teaching practicum and have often incorporated reflection in such programmes. As a result, a host of definitions and methods of *reflection* have been introduced and various discussions have taken place on what constitutes reflection and how best to approach it. Although the interpretations are diverse, all agree that reflection is an essential component in both such programmes and teachers' careers. Even though its importance is recognized, in-service teachers do not generally reflect on their teaching. When teachers think about improving their classroom practices, they tend to look to incorporating new teaching ideas, techniques or sometimes technology. While all of these may lead to improvement, there is still room to look at what lies below; the teachers themselves.

In conducting a reflective practice workshop at THT seminar at Bishkek University, Kyrgystan, it was clear that none of the local teachers, teaching at the tertiary level, had reflected on their teaching after teaching classes, nor were they familiar with the concept of reflection. The reason for not reflecting on their teaching, besides their unfamiliarity with the concept, was unanimous; they feel they are overloaded with preparing for classes they teach and that they have no time to think about classes they have finished teaching. Pointing out that these were lost opportunities, the workshop proceeded with the attendees reflecting on classes that they had taught in the previous semester.

This paper revisits the literature on reflective teaching and suggests ways that teachers could incorporate reflections as an approach to professional development.

What is Reflection in Teaching?

As explained by Brockbank and McGill (2007) and Moon (2000), defining the concept of reflection has not been easy. However, one common aspect of all definitions is that the process of reflection involves learning, which allows an individual to look back at a particular action and to consider a change. Reflective teaching became a popular aspect of teacher development in the early 1980s (Bartlett, 1990, p. 202), though it can be traced back to commentaries made by Dewey (1933, as cited in Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p. 8), who referred to teachers as reflective practitioners and as professionals who could be active in developing curriculums and reforming education (Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p. 8).

Throughout the history of reflective teaching, there have been different definitions of the term, *reflective teaching*. Cruickshank (1981) sees it as a way to make the teacher become aware of one's own good habits and to develop techniques as the crucial means for teachers to improve their teaching practices. Gore (1987), also referring to the earlier work of Zeichner (1981, as cited in Gore, 1987, p. 34), asserts that Zeichner and Liston (1996) have a different perspective. They define a reflective teacher as one who "*assesses the origins, purposes and consequences of his or her work at all levels*" (p. 12). They go further into the *critical dimension* (p. 20), which corresponds to what Bartlett (1990) states as reflection being more than *thinking* (p. 204).

Furthermore, Dewey (1933, as cited in Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p.8) defines reflective action as that which involves active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or practice in light of the reasons that support it and the further consequences to which it leads. Dewey sees reflection as a holistic way of meeting and responding to problems, a way of being as a teacher. In addition, reflective action is also a process that involves more than logical and rational problem-solving processes (Dewey, 1933, as cited in Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p. 8). In other words, reflection is not only a process within an individual regarding her thoughts after practice but also a process involving others in thinking about the practice through discussions. In the case of teacher development programmes, discussions through receiving feedback from those who observed the teaching practices could be considered an equivalent.

Thus, Dewey (1933) and Zeichner and Liston (1995) see reflective teaching as improving teaching through individual recollection of past experience and evaluation of that experience. Rather than receiving a direct comment on one's practice from another person, it is effective in that one has the opportunity to recollect the practice and to self-evaluate it. This gives them the chance to become more aware and be responsible for its consequences. As the concept *reflection* has multiple definitions and interpretations, it is crucial that the meaning of reflection be clarified in any teacher education programme.

Purposes of Reflections

Numerous researchers have characterised reflection as crucial (Farrell, 2004, 2007; Richards, 2004). Having time to reflect on their own teaching gives teachers opportunities to think about their actions during their lessons, their consequences, and the effectiveness of their interactions with their students.

Reflections on teaching are beneficial for not only pre-service teachers but also in-service teachers. As Scrivener (2005) notes, it becomes difficult for the experienced teachers to take risks and to try something different; therefore, one way to improve teaching would be to increase awareness of what the teachers currently do and also to have an openness for possible changes in their teaching. Reflecting on teaching enables teachers to think about what happened in the lesson and to be aware of how they felt or how the students reacted. This could lead to modification in the following lesson. Thus, reflection may enable changes and improvements in the way teachers conduct lessons.

Schön (1983, 1987) and Wallace (1991, cited in Freeman & Richards, 1996) among others, indicate that though participants can be *coached* in this ability, professional development is most effectively generated autonomously. Lee (2005) notes that the central goal of reflective teacher education is to develop teachers' reasoning about why they employ certain instructional strategies and how they can improve their teaching so that it will have a positive effect on students. Reflection engages teachers in a direct and meaningful way and honours the experience they already have. Leather and Popovic (2008) state that reflection is a tool that will help participants, including those in professional development programmes, examine their practice critically and make rational and practical judgments about what to do in particular circumstances. For the purposes stated above, it is important for teachers to have time to reflect on their teaching.

Reflection on the Positive vs. Negative

Though reflecting on one's teaching does not necessarily imply reflecting on the negatives, things that did not go well or as planned in the classroom, we tend to dwell on them, rather than what went well. Francis (1995, as cited in Farrell, 2008) notes that teachers find it easier to recall negative incidents more quickly and spontaneously than to recall positive incidents. This reflection on the negative incidents may lead to "*phenomenon of impostership.*" Brookfield (1995) explains that teachers often feel like imposters and that they feel they do not deserve to be taken seriously by the students. Teachers realising the errors that they had made in the past causes this phenomenon of impostership. This is however, a crucial process as it is impossible to reflect on teaching without becoming aware of their own practice in the classroom, whether they were successful or not. Brockbank and McGill (2007) write that it is only after something has been *named*, we can become aware of what we have not been able to see (p.77). On the other hand, Boud and Walker (1998) mention that it is not productive to set aside a time for reflection, with regards to the balance of action and reflection. This may be true in the sense that spending too much time could lead to losing self-confidence due to the phenomenon of impostership.

Reflecting on what did or did not work in the classroom provides teachers with a general idea of the lesson; however, they need to go beyond focusing on the negative incidents in order to aim for a better lesson. They would need to become critical of their own actions.

Methods for Self-reflection

There are a number of ways teachers reflect on their teaching. One is the use of journal writing (Farrell, 2008, Lee, 2007, Richards & Lockhart, 1994), which enables teachers to think deeply about their practices. However, this can be time-consuming and may lack objectivity. In addition, there is no guarantee that one will get something out of writing a reflection.

Alternatively, teachers could make a checklist beforehand and use it for reflection after teaching. Though this will enable a teacher to cut down time on reflection, it is rather

questionable whether this can be considered a reflection. Boud and Walker (1998) mention "*recipe following*" as one of the problems of reflection (p.193). This recipe following could be interpreted as making a checklist and ticking each box after teaching. Checklists surely enables one to think about what happened, however, does it enable one to go beyond ticking the box? This may depend on the person's awareness, and could be effective when teachers do not do it too thoughtlessly or mechanically.

Reflection through Interaction with Peers

Though self-reflection, as in writing journals, may be common, reflection is not only a process within an individual but it could also involve others. Having *helpers* such as colleagues would enable one to have a dialogue. Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger and Tarule (1986, as cited in Brockbank & McGill, 2007, p. 67) assert, "*really* talking requires careful listening." In order for the reflection through dialogue with another to be successful, it is crucial that the listener is able to listen and to ask relevant questions so that the reflection is effective and is not disturbed or misled.

As another method of reflecting, a community could be formed. An informally-formed group to conduct critical reflection meets one of the three criteria for "*community of practice*" described in Wenger (2006) (i.e. *shared domain of interest*). In the *community*, peripheral participation is considered crucial as it expands the questions raised leads the others to think more. The model explained by Atherton (2011) shows that the novice is in the periphery and the "*master*" in the centre (see Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 2005). With more experience, the novice would participate more actively and move towards the centre.

Critical reflection and "*community of practice*" may be considered as a process of developing the ability to critically reflect. The novice could be asked questions to enable deeper thoughts. There is a question of whether asking oneself more questions or finding answers is important in reflection. Being able to ask oneself more questions and being asked more questions are more important as they encourage one to think more. This would be a process and experience gained in "*community of practice*" as it is "*mastery-oriented*" (Markus & Nurius, 1986) rather than focusing on the performance. Performance in this case would mean the outcome of reflection. When focused on the outcome, one tends to pay less attention to the process they are taking. In addition, Elliott and Dweck (1988) state that of the two kinds of goals, performance oriented and learning oriented, the latter enables individuals to seek to increase their ability to master new tasks.

Brookfield (2002) refers to some case studies found that in teacher reflection groups, participants found that talking to colleagues about problems they have in common increased their chances of stumbling across interpretations that fit what is happening in a particular situation (Berkey, R; Curtis, T; Minnick, F; Zietlow, K; Campbell, D. & Kirshner, B. W, 1990; Miller, 1990; Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993, as cited in Brookfield, 2002, p. 34). This may have happened because the teacher reflection groups may have pursued an outcome, to reach one common idea rather than on valuing the process of the reflection.

Considering the different characteristics of each method, it is important that both pre-service and in-service teachers who are unfamiliar with reflective teaching are informed of such diverse methods.

Conclusion

In order to revisit the importance of reflective teaching, this paper has looked at how the past research has defined reflection, the purpose and some methods. Though the process of reflection may not necessarily be pleasant and could lead one to lose self-confidence in teaching, it is a crucial process in professional development. Though self-reflection by journal writing is the most common method, reflection could also take place through interaction with peers, in which case trust would be a prerequisite. As teaching is a profession that has no single answer or an end, having a "*mastery-orientation*" mindset and being able to question oneself would be crucial.

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Biographical Statement

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Learner Autonomy: Activities to Put Students First (workshop)

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Abstract - The idea of autonomy is often presumed to mean students taking control of their own learning. However, the word control does not suggest liberation, and it may be better to conceive of a self-directed learner who is freed from constraints. The workshop considered social processes, learner identity and relationships, and alternative ways of looking at the world. Within the unique context of the classroom, is it possible for instructors to negotiate the syllabus and learning with their students? The workshop examined ways for teachers to relinquish control, and the kinds of activities that put students first. Hand-outs included suggestions for those attending to take away and experiment with in their own teaching situations.

Background

This paper describes a workshop on the topic of learner autonomy, conducted as part of a seminar on *Significant Learning Experiences* at Bishkek Humanities University (BHU) in Kyrgyzstan which ran from September 12th - 14th, 2012. The THT Kyrgyz seminars have the purpose of professional development, targeted at the local context and audience, and explore a different theme each year. The overwhelming majority of participants live and work in the capital Bishkek itself, the bulk of them being university language teachers at BHU or else BHU students who are aspiring to become teachers. BHU encourages participants from other universities in Bishkek to participate in the seminar, with the result that about a dozen colleges of further education are represented in the sessions. There have been instances where students as young as 18 and retired lecturers have taken part in workshops together. While the largest ethnic group represented is Kyrgyz (though for historical reasons tending to use Russian predominantly in academia), there are also others of Russian extraction who continue to speak Russian as their first language (L1), plus Turkic Uighurs (Uighur-speaking Moslems now mainly concentrated across the border from Kyrgyzstan in western China) and Chinese-speaking Dungha Moslems. The workshops largely attempt to offer insights into hotly debated areas in language teaching which participants, starved of access to professional development and teaching seminars, are likely to find fresh and stimulating. *Significant Learning Experiences* marked an attempt to reflect on personal teaching narratives, and to take important lessons from them to apply immediately in individual teaching situations.

Organisation of the Workshop

Participants were invited to consider three areas which would form the overarching framework for the workshop session: firstly, the question of a working definition of learner autonomy to use; secondly, the desirability or perceived need to encourage learner autonomy in a range of working environments; and thirdly, practical ways for the participants to foster greater autonomy amongst their learners. Given the limited scope and time pressures inherent in conducting one 60-minute workshop on the topic, the

decision was made at the planning stage to distribute materials which adhered to some best practices found in the literature on learner autonomy, and furthermore were those that had been found to work over a number of years. A particular time management issue was to introduce the materials, swiftly explain the rationale behind using them, and demonstrate them in action with the participants. This would allow them to make use of what they had learnt.

Knowledge of the Field

As a starting-point for discussion, the workshop leader introduced some criticisms of educational policymakers by Cummins (as cited in Gibbons, 2002) who have largely failed to encourage inquiry, creativity, cooperation, or identification of student talents. They have also tended to ignore equality, peace, or social justice as desirable educational outcomes. Head (2006) similarly decries the attempt by policymakers in Japan to reform the education system in their 2002 Strategic Plan to Create Japanese Speakers with English Abilities. The plan revealed little in the way of consultation with students or teachers during the reform process. Hence from Cummins (2002) can be derived the need to have learners develop their potential, while from Head (2006) it can be seen that asking learners what they wish to do may be a more accurate predictor of success than telling them what to do.

Workshop Question (1) - What do you think learner autonomy is? What kinds of social processes are involved?

When the questions were posed, participant teams were able to put some general ideas on the board which the leader added to. In particular, Holec's (1981) definition concerned '*the ability to take charge of one's learning*', while Benson & Voller (1997) later refined the definition with a number of alternative suggestions, including: situations where learners study entirely on their own; a set of skills to be learnt and applied in self-directed learning; an inborn capacity (which is frequently beaten down by institutional education); learners taking responsibility for their own learning; and the issue of rights, with learners determining the direction of their own learning.

Some participants took this to mean that autonomy existed outside the idea of education as a social process, while others felt it vindicated the idea of the learner as a social animal.

Workshop Question (2) - Why would you encourage learner autonomy in your teaching? How might it affect learner identity and relationships?

The next step was to consider how learner autonomy might be adapted to participants' own teaching contexts, and to predict the impact on their learners. We considered the attributes of autonomous learners (e.g. Wenden, 1998), such as tending to have an awareness of their own learning styles and strategies, taking an active approach to learning tasks, embracing risk-taking, showing a willingness to communicate in the second language (L2) (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1998), and being adept at making predictions and guessing, besides having a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language.

Among other points, participants mentioned motivation, needs analysis, and the need to teach strategies. The leader suggested the need to question some assumptions of implicit teaching and to instruct explicitly at times, to not shy away from giving direction or focus especially when learners required clarification of new language. By arming learners with L2 metalanguage, or the technical terms needed to talk about language, they would be better able to work by themselves and in groups using the L2. Hence we established that learner autonomy should be viewed as a positive commitment to learning that possesses an active force, rather than merely a passive relinquishing of teacher authority and hoping that learning takes place.

Workshop Question (3) - How do you (or would you) encourage learner autonomy in your teaching? Which ways of looking at the world might be fostered?
The last question concerned ways to implement learner autonomy in a variety of local and specific educational contexts. One idea put forward was to give learners a say over their own learning, by listening to what learners have to say regarding their context, purpose, and motivation.

Suggestions for activities and outcomes that might foster autonomous learners included (i) peer teaching and jigsaw tasks, (ii) cooperative learning and self or peer assessment, (iii) differentiation of learner outcomes and contexts, (iv) ePortfolios to document learning and reflection, (v) teacher and student relationships offering students the challenge of pushing themselves with enough support to succeed, such as where the learners work closely with the instructor and learn by doing in a similar way (sometimes called apprenticeship learning), and (vi) online and visual support, especially connecting learning inside and outside the classroom.

Activity A: the CEFRs

Level A1 Goal-setting and Self-assessment Checklist: Writing	Next Goal	*	**	***
I can fill in a simple form or questionnaire with my personal details (e.g., date of birth, address, nationality).				
I can write a greeting card or simple postcard.				
I can write simple phrases and sentences about myself (e.g., where I live, how many brothers and sisters I have).				
I can write a short simple note or message (e.g., to tell somebody where I am or where we are to meet).				

Source: Council of Europe (2011). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. Council of Europe.

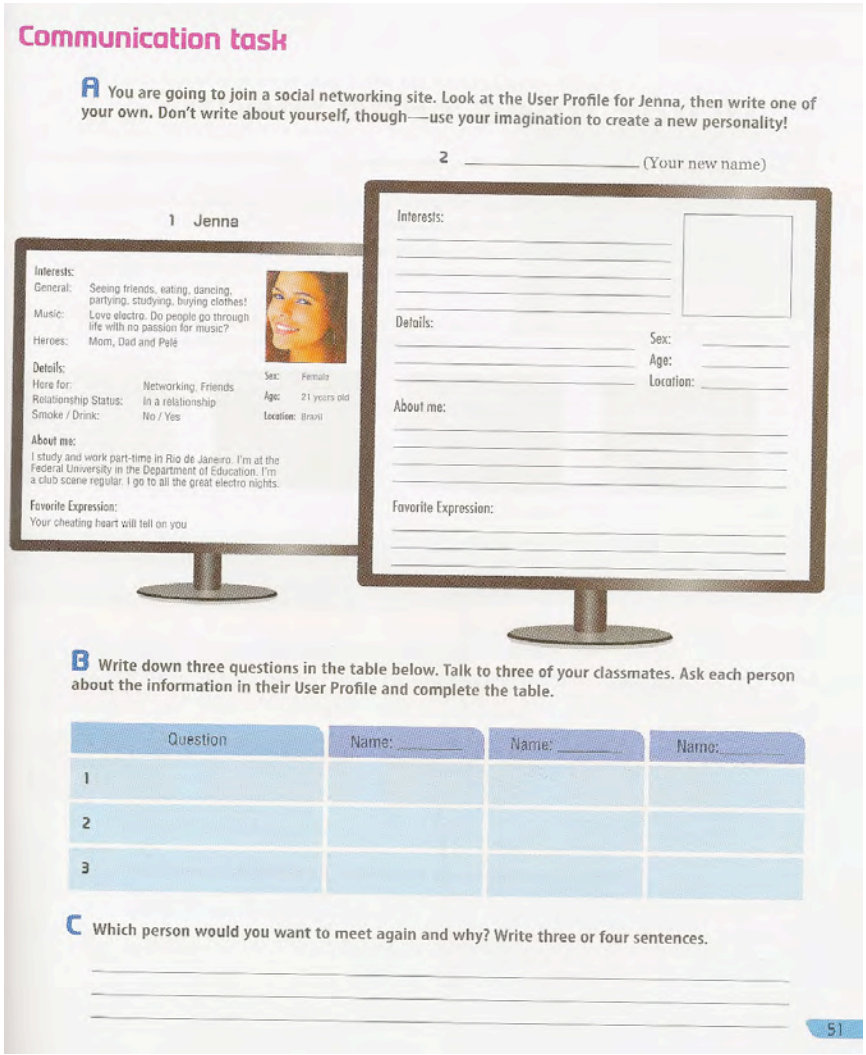
Rationale
Making use of can-do statements and self-assessments where the learner is the focus, and assessment, standards and performance are put to one side. Learner abilities, potential, and purpose take on a central role. This kind of activity, common in some other fields,

can be used more in mainstream language education.

Explanation
Students notice what they can do now, what they aspire to do, and complete an end of course assessment to measure what they can do after explicit instruction. The activity answers some of the criticisms raised by Cummins (2002) through its focus on identifying student talents.

Demonstration
The leader worked through part of one CEFR self-assessment with workshop participants.

Activity B: iZone 2



Communication task

A You are going to join a social networking site. Look at the User Profile for Jenna, then write one of your own. Don't write about yourself, though—use your imagination to create a new personality!

1 Jenna

Interests:
General: Seeing friends, eating, dancing, partying, studying, buying clothes!
Music: Love electro. Do people go through life with no passion for music?
Heroes: Mom, Dad and Pelé

Details:
Here for: Networking, Friends
Relationship Status: In a relationship
Smoke / Drink: No / Yes

Sex: Female
Age: 21 years old
Location: Brazil

About me:
I study and work part-time in Rio de Janeiro. I'm at the Federal University in the Department of Education. I'm a club scene regular. I go to all the great electro nights.

Favorite Expression:
Your cheating heart will tell on you

2 _____ (Your new name)

Interests:

Details:
Sex:
Age:
Location:

About me:

Favorite Expression:

B Write down three questions in the table below. Talk to three of your classmates. Ask each person about the information in their User Profile and complete the table.

Question	Name:	Name:	Name:
1			
2			
3			

C Which person would you want to meet again and why? Write three or four sentences.

51

Todd And Palmer (2010. iZone 2 (copyright: Pearson Education Asia Limited)

Rationale
This is an example of a textbook exercise which might commonly be used in language classes. This particular one has a number of real world applications, being modelled on an online social networking environment. Textbooks are easy to criticise, but they do not necessarily conflict with the goals of autonomous learning, and if used selectively and skillfully books can provide a springboard for greater awareness amongst language learners.

Explanation
Unlike many comparable exercises, the one presented here takes account of varied contexts (the beliefs and world knowledge of the learners), and it provides for differentiated outcomes. To return to Cummins (2002), it encourages inquiry (into imagined selves), creativity (of new potential personalities), cooperation (among group members who genuinely want to know about each others' User Profiles), and identification of student talents (in their personal interests, information about themselves, and their favourite English expressions).

Demonstration
A model of the User Profile text type is provided on the page. An enormous amount of language is generated by the writers, which ought to be meaningful to them. The focus on what each learner can do with language to communicate their personal feelings and interests is empowering. The emphasis on making questions also goes against the common tendency of commercial textbooks to provide identical questions for everyone to answer. A close analysis of the page, including questions about the choices the textbook authors made, can be highly illuminating.

Discussion
The exercise was conceived in part due to the demands of participants in previous THT seminars for sessions to make greater use of the online world. BHU itself as yet has no wi-fi, though students and teachers all have internet access via their mobile phones, and social networking is now commonplace amongst the residents of Bishkek. Such an exercise as this taken from blended learning course materials has applications and implications for learner autonomy beyond the confines of the four walls of the classroom. It lends itself to learner agency in terms of selection of activities from a menu of options, individual pace, and where, when and how much to study. Associated networking activities (such as *Second Life* and *Facebook*) create new communities of learning in the target language outside the control of the instructor, with the learner negotiating what to do with their peers. It is a step away from a factory model of education - students working in lockstep with an instructor to come up with the same or similar answers to a limited range of questions with prepared answers - which is still common in many classrooms, yet the task can still be accomplished with a pen and paper in any class.

Summary
Participants were encouraged to reflect on the workshop. Materials were not offered as a

panacea for autonomy, but did help to raise awareness about the kinds of activities and the mix of activities in class that lend themselves to types of behaviour and learning. There are no easy answers to bigger questions about when and where putting students first might or might not be desirable, or when and where it might be misapplied. For example, classroom observations of Kyrgyz teachers have shown that they are highly respected as the fount of knowledge. Participants were cautioned to experiment with the ideas presented in the session by managing change with sufficient set-up, support and scaffolding. There was a high level of interest and lively discussion on the topic, hence it is anticipated that future workshop sessions may want to build on this brief overview of learner autonomy.

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Submitting to The Journal of Teachers Helping Teachers, 2014

We are now inviting submissions for Volume 2 of the Teachers Helping Teachers Journal, an anonymously peer-reviewed journal comprising research articles, reports and lesson plans. The date for publication is 1st October 2014 so that authors can collect their complimentary copies at the JALT National Conference and copies can be sold to support the work of the SIG. Please note that this invitation is not restricted to people who have been part of a THT event this year. We welcome submissions of materials concerned with all aspects of language education. Submissions of a practical nature (including lesson plans, activity ideas etc.) are particularly welcomed.

The journal will be divided into:
Feature Articles (more than 2000 words with a well-constructed theoretical base) and ***Forum: Perspectives and Reviews*** (less than 2000 words, largely based on opinion and/or experience).
If you are unsure of the status of your submission, or want advice, please contact us.

Style Guidelines
-Papers should be submitted as an attachment by email to both of the addresses at the bottom of this page.
-Word documents (Times New Roman, 12 point) are preferred.
-Submissions should basically follow APA style, but authors are strongly advised to look at the most recent issue (Volume 1) of the journal for the correct style (see http://tht-japan.org/proceedings/). Please note that an abstract is also required, while footnotes are strongly discouraged.
-Titles should be divided into a maximum of three levels.

When submitting please include:
(a) email contact details and a postal address, (b) affiliation, (c) the name and date of the THT event if you attended one, and (d) a biographical statement (max. 100 words).

The editors will acknowledge receipt of all submissions. Submissions are subject to a blind peer-review process by at least two anonymous reviewers after which the editors will make their decision known to the authors by email. Authors should hear back from the editors around the middle of July.

Deadlines
Deadline for emailing an intent to submit a paper (please include a provisional title and subject area): Saturday 15th March 2014 Deadline for submitting full paper for peer review: Thursday 15th May 2014.

Kind regards,
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Co-Editors, The Journal of Teachers Helping Teachers

Feature Articles

Forum: Perspectives and Reviews