REFLECTING ON AND IN ACTION
AND
A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ACTION

Althea W. Truman, PhD

515 Global Communications College, Department of English Language and Culture,
Konyang University, 119 Daehak-ro, Nonsan, Chungnam, South Korea 320-711
Email: altheatrm@aol.com. Office: 041-730-5367. Mobile: 010-4094-5919.

Abstract

This study responds to the question of whether practitioners of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) are engaging in reflective practice as set forth by thinkers Dewey and Schön in their pioneering and subsequent years dating back to 1933, 1983 and later. The author shares personal experience as a new foreign language professor and provides information from a questionnaire survey of 230 English language learners in a South Korean university. Whereas the personal experience facilitates insight into how the new teacher may likely evolve into reflective practice, the questionnaire in itself is a resource of Reflec¬tion-for-Action because it is action that follows from Reflection-On-Action and Reflection-In-Action, and the responses become an impetus for further action. The study is therefore useful for understanding the three reflective actions and for distinguishing reflection-for-action while demonstrating an evolving and cyclical nature of reflective practice.

Keywords: Reflective Practice; Teaching English To Speakers Of Other Languages (TESOL); Evolving Reflection; English as a Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

Introduction

This study responds to the question of wheth-er practitioners of
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) are engaging in reflective practice (Farrell, 2012). Farrell follows from the lineage of conceptu-alities of pioneers Dewey (1933) and
Schön (1983; 1990), and their contemporaries, Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985), and Brookfield (1995), as he explains that reflective practice is multifaceted because it is characterized by Reflection-On-Action, Reflection-In-Action, and Reflection-For-Action. Re-flection-on-action is characteristic of Dewey's (1933) well-disciplined, purposeful, and methodical study of experiences and beliefs that result in professional de-velopment and personal growth. Reflection-in-action and reflection-for-action are characteristic of Schön's (1983; 1990) support of Dewey's beliefs and Schön's extension of the analysis that argues for reflective practice as a practitioner's perceptive knowledge dur-ing actual teaching and the strategic following-up on that knowledge. As Farrell further explains, reflec-tion-for-action, which is characterized as both reflec-tion-on-action and reflection-in-action, could lead the practitioner to take additional action.

Following from the lineage of the literature, Boud et al. (1985)'s reflexive model, structured by experience, reflection, and results, and particularly emphasizing emotion, could become a reality for the new teacher upon entering the foreign language class-room as a professor and the native language classroom as a student. Dewey's (1933) capture of the emotional involvement in reflective practice resonates on the emotional structure of Boud et al's model as it has done on the researcher's emotional conditions and confirms that a practitioner's emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and emotional competence (Goldman, 1997) in the TESOL classroom could be highly reflective of reflective practice.

Moreover, Brookfield's (1995) reflective ap-proach could especially connect with a new teacher's experiences in both the foreign language and native language learning environments. The new teacher could look through Brookfield's four lenses to deter-mine successful reflection, as in the case of the re-searcher. Through one lens, the researcher looks with Brookfield and sees the teacher's exclusive autobiog-raphy as a teacher and learner. Through another lens, they see the teacher in self-reflection and personal

teaching perceptions. Through the next lens, they see student- perspectives and feedback as well as feedback from observation of colleagues. Finally, they look through the lens of the literature that provides alternatives to a given situation.

In addition to Boud et al. (1985) and Brookfield (1985), there are other critical educational theorists, Habermas (1970; 1971), Mezirow (1990), and van Manen (1977), who have given recognition to the pioneer thinkers and have continued the analysis of reflective practice in a manner that makes strong argument for the prevalence of Dewey's (1933) and Schön's (1983; 1990) reflection-on-action, reflection-in-action, and reflection-for-action in TESOL. Whereas there seemed to be no interest in a monologic asocial process of reflection in Dewey's approach (Ruth-Sahd, 2003), especially when he underlines open-mindedness, there is argument by Habermas (1970; 1971) for socio-psychological underpinnings that confirms reflective practice to being dialogic, and quite understandably, does not only center on the individual. It is not then surprising that Habermas (1971) also conceives that reflective practice is not void of political or academic influences. In the researcher's experience, cultural influences can work individually, yet largely influence politicking in the academic environment. And so it is highly reasonable to believe that reflective practice is and can undoubtedly become a reality for even a new teacher, in a new role, in a new professional environment as a TESOL professor in a foreign country.

This paper therefore reflects on reflective practice. The researcher shares TESOL and other professional experiences and provides insight into how the new teacher may likely evolve into a reflective practitioner. The questionnaire inquiry particularly centers on reflection-for-action as the researcher combines it with observation, personal communication, and experience for objective inquiry and extension on reflection for TESOL action.

Evolving into Reflective Practice: A Question of Intentionality

Reflective practice is said to be intentional and purposeful (Dewey, 1933; Farrell 2012), yet Schön (1990) argues for periods of sub-consciousness. The teacher may subconsciously know that something is occurring internally, within the teacher, and also externally, within the classroom, but just cannot articulate it. It is therefore important to note that although intentionality is a critical tenet of reflective practice,

there is or there could exist an evolving or insulation period of reflectivity. For instance, the professor/researcher's presence in two Korean classrooms was intrinsically and extrinsically motivated but by no means connected to student-centered performances or outcomes. The professor was not seeking to be sympathetic or empathetic to students in the English classroom, especially because of the perceived low student-interest in English and its corresponding cultural tenets. The general assumption was that students had no real interest in learning English, or learning from its cultural contents, or even being curious about the global exposure it afforded. Students appeared to be in English classrooms because of the duty that has been placed upon them by the curriculum. Some student-behaviors would even lead the professor to believe that students did not even care to honor their parents' sacrifice through making a strong and dedicated effort to learn and use English and recognize its value in their academic achievement, in keeping with the Asian psychology of learning (Ku, 2012).

Interestingly, a professor's exposure to the native language classroom could evolve into quite a difference in English classrooms. The researcher's exposure to Korean classrooms made for a self-corrective approach in the absence of knowledge-based TESOL reflective practice. In Korean classrooms, the professor was the student, and the teachers' personal behaviors and professional practices greatly affected personal interests, learning, and the use of Korean. It especially affected the motivation processes in learning and learning a foreign language, as suggestive of Pintrich (2003). The positive and negative influences in the Korean classrooms transferred into changes in emotional and personal behavioral approaches. An admirable personality trait of a Korean teacher evoked a personal desire in the English professor to be calmer and gentler, so much so, that some level of transference seemed to have occurred.

Although the professor brings an inherent passion into professional practice, that transference permitted a calmer, gentler and cultural personality that effected a certain kind of classroom-warmth and affection that were not even within the focal points. The unintentional, unexpected, but identifiable and highly welcomed outcome may constitute an evolving process in reflective practice. Quite reasonably, there could be a period of incubation, and particularly in the researcher's experience, a level of transference, in the absence of full-circle intentionality and knowledge-based reflective practice.

Reflective Practice and Culture

The new teacher in a foreign country could develop as a reflective practitioner through learning the local culture and becoming culturally competent. In the researcher's TESOL experience, the reflective practitioner would be culturally competent. Learning the local language facilitates learning the culture, and learning the culture facilitates the critical reflexivity that is required for cultural competence, as suggestive of Furlong and Wright (2011) and Walker and Sonn (2010). As also suggestive of Jeffrey (2006), cultural competence bears cognitive, affective, and practical traits. These three-dimensional characteristics permit culturally congruent practices that enhance learning and promote personal and professional self-efficacy. Included in congruent practices is the duty of a safe learning environment. Quite noticeably, a safe environment constitutes a culturally safe environment. A teacher's deportment, methods of teaching, and especially, approaches to classroom management should reflect cultural norms, so that there is an etic-emic approach to teaching and learning that involves Student Approaches to Learning (SAL) and emphasize learning inclusive of socio-cultural qualities (Ku, 2012).

Cultural awareness and competence could evoke the required sympathy and empathy for foreign language learners. Feelings of sympathy and empathy seemed to have been naturally evoked from the English professor's learning challenges, especially cultural challenges, in the Korean classrooms. Because classroom practices had been perceived as deviating from cultural norms, one Korean teacher had been perceived as engaging in unacceptable behavior. That deviation and its elicited negative outcome speak to the criticality of culture in its awareness and competence to learning outcomes. It lends to the professor's conceptualization that awareness does not only mean knowing an expected behavior, but also having the ability to recognize a breach in that behavior. More importantly, it prompts further conceptualization that cultural competence is not just being culturally aware, but also indulging in the expected behavior at all times, and not some of the times. This conceptualization adds to, or, further explains Camphina-Bacote's (2002) model of cultural competence that incorporates cultural encounters, cultural knowledge, cultural skill, cultural awareness, and cultural desire. The desire for learning the culture would facilitate cultural openness and lead to questioning of assumptions, attitudes, and behaviors as each student becomes continuously envisioned in the professor's place as a foreign-language learner. The desire and questioning bear an increasing curiosity that includes the students' feelings and thought processes.

Mezirow (1998) suggests that reflective practice occurs when there is critical focus on beliefs for assessment of soundness, prejudice, and restrictiveness, and Osterman and Kottkamp (2004) indicate that in educational pedagogy, reflective practice refers to a steady focus on critical incidents from person's life world. It is an effort to bring about learning and create change in a given situation and setting through exclusion of pre-suppositions and beliefs. These conceptualizations confirm to Brookfield's (1995) summation that human experience is critical to reflective practice and lends to the notion of evolving into reflective practice as human experience recognizably emerges as a great teacher in the TESOL practice of a new teacher.

Reflection-on-Action

A teacher could be reflecting-on-action when acting upon deep conviction and personal experience in the TESOL classroom. The teacher is not afraid to go against the status quo. Evidently, the new teacher must be confident in practice and carry strength in independence, so that thought processes result in decision making, and those decisions are then transferred into practice as Schön (1990) encourages. Tradition and authoritative constraints would not have a stronghold on the practice, and experiential learning occurs as Dewey (1933) conceptualizes and with which Schön (1983) agrees. Schön strengthens this conceptualization in his suggestion that all educational problems cannot be solved with one old-aged solution. The practice is then embodied in personal theory (Cummings, 2009) which also confirms to Schön's (1983) argument for epistemology of practice.

Being a learner of the native language evoked curiosity in the professor's English classroom. There had especially been an underlying feeling that knowledge and use of Korean by both professor and students would boost rapport and improve learning-outcomes. But because professional interactions and the general consensus would be so starkly set against the use of the native language in English classrooms (Jones 2009), the professor would first suppress that initial feeling and the subsequent urge to engage in that practice. However, Korean classroom experiences precipitated the use of Korean in English classrooms. Higher level proficiency students were matched with lower levels to explain concepts and interpret lectures in the na-

tive language. Dialogue and writing in the native language mediated thought-process and expression. Student feed-back and teacher-reinforcement on the use of Korean confirmed the professor's belief and allows for student-centered practice that facilitates bonding, team-spiritedness, clarity, easy comprehension, retention, and progression. It opens up communication that facilitates trust and group coherence. Students are no longer timid, quiet and passive members of the classroom. They are not only noticeably responding but interacting with both the professor and classmates.

These positive outcomes facilitated a heightened sense of efficacy and deep conviction in the professor for more independent function as experiential learning became a prominent teacher and enabled the connecting of theories of reflective practice to TESOL. Traditional and authoritative constraints swiftly became no-comfort zones in the professor's practice since authority, tradition, and impulse are not characteristically consistent with reflective practice (Dewey, 1933; Farrell, 2012). The practice becomes even more substantiated by a synthesis of native language concepts of Ostrow and Chan (2012) who support Stapa and Majid (2009) and Pappamihiel's (2002) arguments for the use of the native language in foreign language classrooms. Ostrow and Chan's native-language theory points to the criticality of the native language in student-success and strengthens Stapa and Majid, and Pappamihiel's advocacy for the native language as an enabler for second-language acquisition. Furthermore, Dewey (1933; 1998) advocates for reflective thinking that involves continued and deliberate thoughtfulness of any belief or knowledge within its substantiated context or bases and even upon additional inferences that could be drawn. The professor had begun to deliberately obtain that which was believed to be lacking and so worked towards acquiring objectives while grasping that which seemed distant. The practice has become marked by the professor's purposeful recognition and solving of educational problems, improvement of teaching through developing and applying theories, and ultimately becoming professionally developed by these characteristics of reflective practice (Dewey, 1933; Schön, 1990).

Reflection-on-action is also exercised through conscious class-to-class assessment as in the professor/researcher's experience, and as substantiated by Schön (1983; 1990). Such professional practice involves harmonious involvement of expected learning outcomes, teaching-learning activities, and assessment tasks. There is consideration and assessment of performances of both professor and students at the end of each class, and that consideration includes unique or complex circumstances as well as attitude, mood, emotions, and emotional control. There is adjustment of the professor's behavior and approach, if necessary, for the next class, as well as consideration for and finding solutions for anticipated problems in the other classes. At the end of the day, there is also analysis and assessment of performances, and the subsequent seeking of knowledge and expertise from experienced colleagues, yet not taking their advice as TESOL gospel, but seeking out evidence and student-based approaches while also relying on intuition, learning, and experience applicable to individual students and individual or unique circumstances. However, collaborative interactions with the professor and colleagues have sometimes permitted identification of practice areas that require attention or show potential for development.

Schön (1983; 1990) substantiates such professional practice in his articulations that professionals encounter unique and complex situations in their everyday practice that cannot be effectively addressed by routine technical approaches, but by returning to a situation, and deliberately thinking it through, to determine that which needs to be done, or, that which needs to be done differently. Dewey (1933) advocates intellectualizing the situation as a problem that needs to be solved. Hence, the teacher engages in reflection-on-action through practice and learning from personal experience. Smith (2010) supports that trend following from Schön's (1983; 1990) advocacy for reflective practice founded in an epistemology. The epistemology is embedded in the "I" experience and question: What do I do to enhance my practice? Whitehead (2000) also substantiates such practice by explaining that the epistemology of practice in the discipline of education is legitimized by the "I" in four distinctive characteristics.

Reflection-In-Action

The teacher who thinks-on-the-feet is reflecting-in-action. The teacher could be spontaneous, but the objective of the action could be intentional and purposeful (Dewey, 1933). Those behaviors speak to spontaneity relative to teachable moments, engaging in reflection-during-action, or reflecting while engaging in practice (Schön, 1983; 1990). The teacher must therefore be curious enough to become a researcher in the classroom. If he/she would intentionally put beliefs or assumptions to the test, or allow spontaneity by putting feelings into action, and then purpose-

fully observe and record the responses, reaction and outcomes, that teacher could become engaged in evidenced-based and student-centered practice that procures positive changes in the teaching-learning experience. For instance, the professor/researcher addressed a student in a class of 25 students by another student's name. With great annoyance and contempt, she yelled, "I am not Alisha! I'm Alana!" She continued the onslaught verbally and nonverbally as the entire class bathed in shock and horror stared at her and eventually at the professor. The class was expecting participation in an activity and was totally unprepared for the hostile outburst. The professor sensed the tensing of the students, then felt, recognized, and interpreted personal emotions, and quickly decided to subdue the rising emotion and hold a calming composure, so as to nip that disruptive behavior in the bud and reinforce classroom respect. The professor chose to respond and not react, especially because of a sensing that the hostility must cease as swiftly as it had swept over the classroom.

Influenced by emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and emotional competence (Goldman, 1997), the professor's response influenced those of the disruptive student, as well as the other students, and guided behaviors to the desired effect. With a broad smile and pleasant composure, the professor mimicked some of the student's body language and native accent, and questionably responded, "Oh really? You're not Alisha?" The class erupted into loud laughter and giggles. It should be noted that giggling in the Korean culture represents embarrassment. The shock dissipated, but with a questioning composure, the professor focused on her. She got the message, her shoulders drooped, she bowed her head, the other students whispered to her in Korean, and with apologetic eyes and voice, she said, "I'm sorry professor, I'm really sorry." As the lesson continued, it was so ironic that this student had to address her classmates by their names but fumbled as she did not even know the names of the two students sitting next to her. The professor was again in disbelief and rhetorically asked, "You don't know the names of the persons sitting next to you? She giggled as the rest of the class and bowed her head. As the lesson progressed, a few of the other students also failed to remember names or did not know the names of other students, especially English names. The professor then grasp the opportunity to explain that on a daily basis, TESOL involves an average of three classes of about 33 students with similar facial structures and bodily features, and that it is not easy to attach similar names to similar features and remember each of their names at all times. They showed indulgence. The empathy-sympathy exchange facilitated reinforcement for the practice of using names to reinforce respect and encourage camaraderie.

Drawing from Schön (1983),Yanow and Tsouskas (2009) posit that openness to surprise is a critical element in reflection-in-action, and Taylor (2010) found that when he did not permit himself to be surprised, he failed to engage in not just genuine inquiry but genuine self-inquiry of the moment. He became angry, judgmental and argumental rather than allowed himself to be surprised and allow the surprise to be the center of the moment. He had to be "the teacher"; he had to be in control; but he found that had he been surprised in addition to not being angry, there would have been genuine inquiry. More interestingly, he found that had he been surprised by his own anger, there might have been genuine self-reflexivity; or had he been surprised at his negative judgments of the students, he would have been more positively reflective.

Reflection-in-action is also necessary in the absence of high student-interest, motivation, and effort, and speaks to the professor/researcher's practice which revealed a shared experience in some Japanese universities. Japanese teachers, who sought to build a professional TESOL identity, found that low-level student- interest and motivation, as well as failure to expend the required efforts for required performances were counterproductive in TESOL. Such student-attitude and behavior could negatively affect teacher-evaluation and professional development (Nagatomo, 2011). In the professor/researcher's class of Early Special Education majors, participation and interaction had been poor. On one particular day, lack of effort was so pronounced that the professor intuitively decided to put aside the lesson-plan and teach an action-packed song during the first session of class. Coordination was required, and together, the students worked on perfecting voice and action. Upon reflective analysis of the professor's thought process and intentionality that provoked the action, as well as the impact of the action, as substantiated by Osterman and Kottkamp (2004), the resounding questions came to mind, what did you hope to achieve? Was it accomplished? The professor's goal was to stimulate interest and motivation, encourage participation and interaction through team spiritedness, and particularly, to overcome a perceived social-distance that involves psycho-physical or relational and physical distancing (Bogardgus, 1947) occurring between students of differing interest, proficiency, and social-economic lev-

els. At that moment of the shift from the lesson plan, intuition prevailed, especially because of the consciousness of those highly connected or disconnected moments when the professor experiences surprise, anxiety, and even failure, as shared by educational theorists, Bailey, Saparito, Kressel, Christensen, and Hooijberg, et al.(1997) and Brookfield (1995). After that learning experience that involved teachable moments, the professor would walk into that classroom many times, from semester to semester, and the whole class would erupt with that action-packed song and would buy the professor's favorite beverage, especially when they teamed-up to request an English movie because of highly satisfactory performances.

Consistent with Schön's (1990) reflection-in-action, the teacher can enter into the role of researcher in the context of practice. Teachable moments and intuitive teaching and learning activities including feedback, corrective and receptive feedback, and reinforcement result in marked functioning. In many ways, these practices could be independent of empirical studies, so that the practice is not bound to a certain theory which is dependent on a specified outcome. In that manner, the teacher-researcher enhances professional learning by acquiring the ability to produce new theories from newly presented classroom cases, by researching into decisions, and then transforming them into practice. Basically, the practice could largely become an experiment, with the inquiry as the implementation process, as in the professor/researcher's TESOL practice.

Reflection-For-Action: The Questionnaire

Whereas Nagatomo (2011) has recorded low-social-economic status and low educational level as some reasons for low interest, motivation, and effort, there is a general belief that affective states bear greatest influence on learning outcomes at the Korean university relative to the study. The professor wanted to know if students in the English classrooms were experiencing affective states such as liking the teacher but disliking the methodology. The professor was also curious about student's perception of deviant cultural practices and feelings of frustration, decreased motivation, low retention, and other learning outcomes similar to those experienced by the professor in the Korean classrooms. Because there has been that sensing and experiencing of some effects of affective states on students' personal behavior, classroom behavior, and learning outcomes, the professor would become particularly curious about their feelings. Although rewarding shouts of, "I love you professor," would fill the air from time to time, the professor wanted to find out if the students like English, if they like, rather than fear teachers, and if they like their classroom experiences. The professor needed to have clear knowledge and acquire clear understanding of the true feelings of these learners about learning English and about their shared experience, so as to confirm and/or remove assumptions and beliefs that could lead to new, improved and effective student-centered attitudes and practices inclusive of high motivation, retention, and proficiency.

The Inquiry and Research Question

Evolving from the curiosity of students' feelings is the research question: What feelings do students have about their English-learning experience? That evoked curiosity became the impetus for gathering objective data through observation, personal communication, journaling, and the use of the questionnaire. Schön (1991) advocates for effective practice and suggests that educators become effective through reflecting on and in their own inquiries and using their reflective contents to strategize learning experiences for others. The inquiry has therefore followed from reflection-for-action through observation, journaling, personal communication and interactions, a questionnaire, descriptive analysis, and narrative.

The Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire comprises 10 questions. The questions elicit responses on students' feelings on five categories, 1- feelings about English; 2- feelings about English class; 3- feelings about their desire to study English; 4- feelings about the English teacher; and 5- feelings about test scores. Based on the researcher's interactions and other experiences with students, TESOL professors and other teaching professionals, responses are expected to reveal affective states and motivation. Response to the first category is expected to indicate affective state as well as motivation. The second category is expected to indicate favorability of the methodology, teaching-learning activities and outcomes. The third category is likely to reinforce the first category on whether motivation is intrinsic or extrinsic, and additionally, indicate the value of studying English relative to the student's major. The fourth category is expected to reveal favorability of the methodology, as well as the professor's personality and classroom management styles. The fifth category is expected to reveal the general feelings on test scores.

Implementation and Respondents

English language professors from each class allowed the students to complete the questionnaire before they started their lessons at that time. Students were advised about confidentiality and asked not to write their names or place any identifying content on the questionnaire. At the same time, professors completed a teacher's questionnaire. Professors collected the completed questionnaire and placed them in the researcher's private locker. The researcher followed the same procedures. Respondents were asked to circle yes or no for their responses and write comments in the provided space so as to encourage open-ended expressions. Students from 12 English classes responded to the questionnaire, and the 12 classes are close to maximum representation of the TESOL student-population at the university. Students were from varying majors, varying levels of English proficiency, and varying years in university education.

Results

Table 1 below indicates the number (N) of students who responded to the questionnaire along with the five categories, the number of students who like and do not like English, their teacher, the class, and their test scores. The table also indicates the corresponding percentage of students who like or do not like each of the five categories. The responses to each category from all but one respondent are given below. One student completed a questionnaire intended for teachers, and that response has been voided. Korean teachers teach English too, but only one respondent indicated that he/she had both an English and a Korean teacher.

Table 1

Table 1 shows the responses of English learners from 12 classes in a South Korean university. The respondents are of mixed majors and university years.

All Majors
*N = 230

*N = 230	Categories	Number of Students	Students Like		Number of Students	Students Don't Like	
		Like	Percentage		Don't Like	Percentage	
1	Like English	152	66%		78	34%	
2	Like English Class	192	83%		38	17%	
3	Want to Study English	193	84%		37	16%	
4	Like English Teacher	213	93%		17	7%	
5	Like Test Score	92	40%		138	60%	

*N = Number of students

Table 1 indicates that on the one hand, 66 % or 152 of 230 responding students like English. Even higher, 83% or 192 of 230 students like their English class, and 84% or 193 of 230 students want to study English. Quite interestingly, 93% or 213 of 230 students like their English teacher, but only 40% or 92 of 230 students like their test scores. On the other hand, 34% or 78 of 230 students do not like English; 17% or 38 of 230 students do not like English class; 16% or 37 of 230 students do not want to study English; 7% or 17 of 230 students do not like the English Teacher; and 60% or 138 of 230 students do not like test scores.

Table 2

Table 2 shows the responses of English Language and Culture majors.

English Language and Culture Majors
*N = 25

	Categories	Number of Students	Students Like		Number of Students	Students Don't Like	
		Like	Percentage		Don't Like	Percentage	
1	Like English	24	96%		1	4%	
2	English Class	23	92%		2	8%	
3	Want to Study Eng.	24	96%		1	4%	
4	Like Eng. Teacher	25	100%		0	0%	
5	*Like Eng. Test Score*	*10*	*40%*		*15*	*60%*	

*N = Number of respondents in the class of English majors.

Table 2 responses indicate that 96% or 24 of 25 students like English; 92% or 23 of 25 students like their English class; 96% or 24 of 25 students want to study English; 100% or 25 of 25 students like their English teacher; and 40% or 10 of 25 students like their test scores. However, 4% or 1 of 25 students does not like English; 8% or 2 of 25 students do not like the English class; 4% or 1 of 25 students does not want to study English; 100% or 25 of 25 students like the English teacher; and 60% or 15 of 25 students do not like their test scores.

Table 3

Table three shows the responses of Early Childhood Education majors.

Early Childhood Education*N = 21

	Categories	Number of Students	Students Like		Number of Students	Students Don't Like	
		Like	Percentage		Don't Like	Percentage	
1	**Like English**	8	38%		13	62%	
2	**English Class**	16	76%		5	24%	
3	**Want to Study Eng.**	16	76%		5	24%	
4	**Like Eng. Teacher**	18	86%		3	14%	
5	*Like Eng. Test Score*	*11*	*52%*		*10*	*48%*	

*N = Number of students the class of Early Childhood Education majors.

In a class of Early Childhood Education majors, a number of 21 (N= 21) students responded to the questionnaire. Of the 21 students, 38 % or 8 students like English; 76% or 16 students like English class; 76% or 16 students want to study English; 86% or 18 students like the English teacher; 52% or 11 students like their test scores. Conversely, 62% or 13 students do not like English; 24% or 5 students do not like English class; 24% or 5 students do not want to study English; 14% or 3 students do not like the teacher; 48% or 10 students do not like scores.

Discussion

Tables 1, 2 and 3 reflect the feelings of Korean learners of English in a Korean university. The data in Table 1 suggest that the majority of respondents like their overall English-classroom experience but for test scores. Another interpretation of the data is that only 66% of 230 respondents like English. But interestingly, between 83% and 93% like the class, want to study English, and like their teachers. Whereas 83% like the class and 84% want to study English, 93%, the highest majority of respondents, like the teacher.

Compared to the other categories, liking test scores is noticeably different. Only 40 % of respondents liked their test scores. However, that indication could be influenced by varying factors. To begin with, not liking the test score does not mean that the score is low or that the student received a failing score. It means exactly what it says, that the student just does not like the score. Some students are not happy with scores below 95, even when test performances are poor. When an English language course is an elective, many students fail to give it the required attention or treat it with similar importance as a major course, especially during examination periods. Moreover, many students refer to their final grade when asked about test scores. If they do not like the final grade because it is below the A+ which necessitates scholarships, they may not differentiate and respond in the negative when asked about test scores.

Whereas Nagatomo (2011) believes that reasons such as low-social-economic status, low educa-

tional level, and low learning ability are responsible for the Japanese students' low interest and lack of substantial effort, it is conceivable that at this South Korean university, students' motivational levels could also vary at differing times and under differing circumstances, and could therefore result in differing learning outcomes. Dialogue with Korean teachers revealed that they entered the teaching profession because of variables such as poor financial resources and national test scores. Teaching was the only career path that was available based on their economic status, or the only profession in which they perceived survival. The perceived desire to be a teacher and then an English teacher was not perceivably intrinsically motivated. At the time, they were being certified to become English teachers. The observed desire to learn English and fulfill certification requirements could not be matched to the observed high desire to become certified. The highest observed motivation was linked to the one-month study in a US territory.

In contrast to Nagatomo's (2011) findings of low learning ability, the researcher found that the teacher's role in empowering each student to learn permits adjustments in the teaching methodology and allows for additional individualized consideration through extracurricular activities, so as to ensure improved clarity, easy comprehension, retention, and progression. In the researcher's practice, the role of the professor in TESOL is to be a tutor and a coach who takes an intellectual posture yet engages the whole person so that students can intellectually and emotionally be involved in the learning process. It is believed that learning occurs best when students are guided by or guided into intellectual as well as affective activities that allow them to explore experiences that lead to new understanding, learning, and appreciation for new knowledge. Emphasis is placed on stimulating curiosity and facilitating new understanding, knowledge and appreciation relative to each student and each group of students. In so doing, the role bears a holistic approach to learning that involves the socio-cultural-economic background, and relativity and value of English to student-background and goals. The approach leads students into self-scrutiny, recognizing opportunities, setting and achieving goals, identifying and fulfilling requirements, and overcoming fears that may be psychologically, academically, culturally, or socio-economically motivated or inclined.

The professor identifies students with effective and less effective self-regulatory learning skills through observation and dialogue, and uses the information to guide them into recognizing and enhancing self-regulatory strategies such as critical thinking, elaboration and metacognitive activities that enhance attention, memory, working memory, and intentionality. Students are guided and encouraged into adapting their cognitions, motivations, and behaviors to improve learning outcomes through relative reading exercises, case studies, movies, group discussion, and assimilations. The task-based strategy allows them to collaboratively analyze problem situations and recognize strategic issues in learning. They identify motivational and other influences on their learning outcomes, and formulate effective action plans. Extension activities include individualized rapport with the professor to help each student identify and internalize motivational factors in their learning. There is focus on the value of learning English, on the level of interest, and on the importance and value of the lessons and associated tasks. Students develop personalized action plans for learning enhancement in keeping with Schunk (2005, p. 87) who concludes that "Students with greater personal interest in a topic and those who view the activity as important or useful are more likely to use adaptive self-regulatory strategies." A synthesis of theories on regulation and learning (Pinrich, 2000; 2003; Schunk, 2005) indicates that motivation is linked to self-regulation which is linked to self-efficacy. Highly regulated efficacious students have reported high self-efficacy (Schunk), and Pinrich's Self-Regulatory Model emphasizes the criticality of motivation in all aspects of academic self-regulation.

In English Conversation classes, students are guided into pairs or groups to think about, share, discuss, write, present, compare or role-play on topics, such as future plans, unusual jobs, working and living in different countries, interests, routine, making good first impressions, everyday problems, and societal influences. Students actively participate, and the classroom is full of chatter as they like the freedom to interact and share among themselves with the necessary professor-input, guidance, and classroom management. In one lesson, they focus on collocations in daily life and learn about contrasting lifestyles of two people in different countries. They learn about the lifestyles of people in other countries, and that knowledge facilitates cultural awareness as well as motivates them to think about, share and discuss their daily lives and future plans. In another lesson, students learn to describe their families and to compare them with a typical family in their parents' time. They also role-play behaviors to suggest whether pets and friends can be family members. In these lessons, stu-

dents especially think about and discuss their socialization processes while recognizing societal changes and influences that present different opportunities for them. They learn and use every-day English that includes idioms and other social expressions useful for initiating and continuing conversations while they learn to personalize topics and extract relevant information to make informed social, academic, and career decisions. The holistic approach facilitates socio-psycho-academic empowerment.

The data in Table 2 above surprisingly indicate that in the class of English majors, one student does not like English; one student does not want to study English; and 2 students do not like English class. The question arises as to why are they still enrolled as English majors? It is interesting to note that after the questionnaire was completed, dialogue with an English major revealed frustration. She does not want to major in English but does so because of a lack of self-efficacy for other majors. She even demonstrated a lack of self-efficacy for career paths that require English proficiency. She said, "I don't really want to study English." I replied, "But you're an English major?" She said, "I know, but I can't do anything else. I feel I'm not good at any other thing." Unfortunately, she was at the end of her junior year, and the researcher did not have the opportunity to teach her in the classrooms or speak with her before. Changed behavior would have been a welcome outcome as many other students who change from negative to positive attitudes and outcomes and say, *"I thought I couldn't do it..." "I thought I couldn't make it in your class, but I'm glad I stayed…"*

Through whole class and individualized reading and comprehension exercises, video, group discussion and feedback, the researcher guides students in understanding that it is not the degree that critically matters but the knowledge they acquire and the ability to use that knowledge intelligently. Students especially like the participatory and active learning activities such as video, assimilations, and follow-up discussion from which they develop critical thinking skills and confidence as they learn to question contents, freely express their opinions, and feel involved and respected. However, there is argument from Brookfield (1995) suggesting that although educational practitioners agree that discussion is an effective pedagogical tool, when reflectively and critically challenged, the practice may allow interplay of societal dynamics and provide a stage for some students to be dominant. Relying on the merits of this argument, the researcher encourages reflective feedback whereby both the professor and students learn to work against those external elements that work against intended learning outcomes. Students appreciate feedback activities and report any feeling of dominance, so there is reflectivity geared at preventing replication of societal power dynamics and inequalities in the classroom.

English Language and Culture, International Trade and Finance, and Global Business Administration majors are especially guided in understanding the reality of English in their professions and career paths through course work that is culturally diverse oriented. They learn the essentially of English in an interdependent world of advancement and competition. When students fully grasp that learning English provides insight into global behaviors and requirements that facilitate academic advancement and employability enhancement for national and international opportunities, their changed attitudes are reflected in increased class participation, improved quality of assignments, and raised curiosity for international affairs. As such, sustainable learning takes precedence in the researcher's teaching and learning goals. There is much focus on meaningful every-day learning that comes with intentionality and due diligence, interaction, practice, and communication that stimulate curiosity and creativity. Students come to understand that sustainable learning is lifetime and not just test-passing learning.

In the English classroom, lifetime learning means learning something new every day, whether it may be a new word, a new phrase, a new technique or a new concept. Such learning is guided by retention and motivation that lead to progression and proficiency. The goal is to guide students in understanding that if they set goals for meaningful-learning every day, they would be taking responsibility for their learning and would progress along the path that leads to their success. Note-taking and journaling are two of the researcher's techniques for facilitating intentional learning. Students learn to reflect so that they identify, create, share and use knowledge. They record and connect previous and new knowledge from lessons. Journaling in itself is a reflective practice. It is reflective writing. They engage in reflective learning by recording learning paths and outcomes as they identify both error and improvement. Journaling permits teacher-student feedback and personalized interactions that allow for receptivity, adjustment, correction, encouragement, and motivation so that students could hone, develop, and continue to develop English acquisition skills.

Affective states of both teacher and learner are

critical in the researcher's teaching and learning environment, and through dialogue that bears influential patterns of professional and institutional behaviors, story-telling, and reading exercises, the professor likes to guide students in understanding that the study of English is a creative process, and whereas they should have fun while learning, they should not miss the seriousness or critical interconnectivity of English and achieving their personal, academic, and career goals. More importantly, students are lead into understanding that English language learning is relative to the psychology of Asian learning in which students must recognize education as demanding and rigorous and does not necessarily have to be always pleasurable or inherently appealing (Ku, 2012). Across academic majors, guidance and instruction, students are encouraged to take responsibility for their learning and success through influential dialogue, habitual professional patterns of behavior and emotionality.

In Table 3 above, the responses show that in a class of Early Childhood Education majors, a number of 21 (N = 21) students responded to the questionnaire. These respondents were in a College English class for the four-skills-acquisition, reading, writing, listening and speaking. Of the 21 students, 13 do not like English. Although 62% of those students do not like English, 76% like the class; 76% want to study English, and more interestingly, 86% like the teacher. It is reasonable to believe that the three categories may greatly influence learning-outcomes, and so the cyclical nature of reflective practice becomes even more demonstrated as the results of the questionnaire lead to additional action centered on reflective actions to sustain and improve practice and learning outcomes. The results could be used to sustain reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action as the professor could become increasingly reflective after and during performances by focusing on both teacher and student-moods and emotions during inner and outer classroom interactions and take more action to improve the likeability of all categories of the questionnaire. It also leads to reflection-for-action and further action as it evokes further curiosity and study as to whether which of the categories bears greatest influence on learner-outcomes that include motivation, retention, progression, and achievement.

Limitation and Strength

The questionnaire was distributed to students before the beginning of class. Students were advised not to use any identifying markers such as

their names, student number, or any other identifying information on the questionnaires. The professor simultaneously filled out an instructor's questionnaire and presence might have lent to the seriousness of the task. Students were given ample time and not allowed to interact but individually and voluntarily completed the questionnaire so that their responses are self-reflective. The varying individual responses on each questionnaire also speak to the likely honesty and reduction of teacher-influence, if any, on responses. Additionally, the study speaks to generalizability because reflective practice is applicable to professions other than educators and also to educators other than those in TESOL.

Implications

Analysis of the trend of responses has implications for assumptions. It speaks to removal of overt and covert assumptions concerning student-affective states towards learning English. The high percentage of dislike for test scores may have implications for instructional designs or practices, and moreover, for changes in student-attitudes and administrative policies. Implications may rest on student-recognition of the responsibility for their personal learning and achievement. An institutional policy change, after the study has been conducted, is the incorporation of proficiency leveling requested by professors. The leveling strategy is still a work in progress, but it is a response to professors' concerns and a strategic focus on teaching and learning outcomes in TESOL at the university. Another inquiry is worth being conducted with students to determine which of the five categories most influence TESOL learner-outcomes and to what extent at that university.

Conclusion

Reflective practice permits this professor/researcher to elucidate strong assumptions and deep feelings that underscore the TESOL experience. This finding supports Smith (2010) findings in reflection for school education and Weber's (2003) beliefs for the reflective researcher. Reflection allows examination and analysis of critical incidences in a manner that permits teaching-learning enhancement for the professor. This enquiry has permitted the professor to analyze and connect intuitions, theories and practices for creation of new and improved knowledge and strategies in English language acquisition as Schön conceptualizes (1987a & b) and as Smith (2010) ex-

periences in school education. The professor's TE-SOL practice has certainly allowed for entrance into the role of researcher while engaging in intuitive and thinking-on-the feet-practices and following through with strategic planning, observation, and objective data gathering, and so confirms to Dewey (1933) and (Schön, 1983) expectations. This inquiry permitted creativity in the study of TESOL practice in that the professor could have asked questions and integrated personal experience in teaching, learning and solving TESOL problems. Personal second-language learning experience has also played a major role in establishing a reflective TESOL practice that has the potential for continued, improved and sustainable efficiency and effectiveness in practice as experienced by Smith (2010) and substantiated by Whitehead (1989) in reflection in school practice.

The questionnaire responses have provided valuable information. The information could be used meaningfully to make reflective and informed decisions about lesson plans and instruction; class room management; discipline and expectations; best practices; test data, and the ultimate improved and sustainable learner-outcomes. It allows for more constructive learning opportunities, and opportunities that would result in intuitive and evidenced-based practice, learner-motivation, memory, improvement, and achievement. It also allows professional growth and development that reflect the cyclical nature of reflective practice. As such, a new teacher could acquire the ability to enhance knowledge, add information to the TESOL field, and as Dewey (1933) believes, grow and professionally develop because experiential learning is critical in acquiring knowledge.

References

Bailey, J. R., Saparito, P., Kressel, K., Christensen, E., & Hooijberg, R. (1997). A model for reflective pedagogy. *Journal of Educational Management, 21*(2), 155-167.

Boud, D., Keogh, R., & Walker, D. (1985). *Reflection: Turning experience into learning.* London, UK: Kogan Page.

Bogardus, E. S. (1947). Measurement of personal-group relations, *Sociometry,* 10(4), 306-311.

Brookfield, S. D. (1995). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process* (2nd ed.). New York: Heath & Company.

Dewey, J. (1998). *How we think.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Farrell, T.S.C. (2012). Reflecting on reflective practice: Revisiting Dewey and Schön. *TESOL Journal,* 3(1), 7-16.

Furlong, M., & Wright, J. (2011). Promoting critical awareness and critiquing cultural competence: Towards disrupting received professional knowledge. *Australian Social Work,* 64(1), 38-54.

Goleman, D. (1997). *Emotional intelligence.* New York, NY: Bantam Books.

Jeffreys, M. R. (2006). *Teaching cultural competence in nursing and health care*. New York: Springer.

Jones, L (2009). *Let's Talk 1(2nd ed.). Teacher's manual.* Hong Kong, China: Golden Cup.

Ku, B. (2012). What the West can learn from the East: *Asian perspectives on the psychology of learning and motivation. Asian American Journal of Psychology,* 3(2) 128-130.

Nagatomo, D. H. (2011). The impact of "imagination of students" in the development of the professional identity of four Japanese teachers of English in Japanese higher education. *Asian EFL Journal. Professional Teaching Articles, CEBU*(51), 63-75.

Osterman, K. F., & Kottkamp, R. (2004). *Reflective practice for educators: Professional development to improve student learning* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Ostro, J. & Chan, L.C.N. (2012). I'm a poet? International doctoral students at a U.S. university participate in a creative writing workshop. *TESOL Journal* 3(1), 48-64.

Pappamihiel, N. E. (2002). Using the first language in second language instruction. If, when, why and how much? *TESL-EJ,*5(4). Retrieved from http://www.tesl-ej.org

Pintrich, P. R. (2000). *The role of goal orientation in self-regulated learning*. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, and M Zeidner (Eds.), Handbook of self-regulation (pp. 451-502). San Diego: Academic.

Pintrich, P. R. (2003). A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 95*, 667-686.

Salovey, P. & Mayer, J.D. (1990). Emotional Intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*, 9, 185-211.

Schön, D. (1991). *The reflective turn: Case studies in and on education practice*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Schön, D. (1990). *Educating the reflective practitioner. San Francisco*: Jossey-Bass.

Schön, D. (1987a). *Donald Schön's Presentation "Educating the Reflective Practitioner" to the 1987 meeting of the American Educational Research Association* (Educating the Reflective Practitioner, pp. 1-10). Retrieved from http://educ.queensu.ca/~ar/Schön87.htm

Schön, D. (1987b). *Educating the professional reflective practitioner: Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schön, D. (1983). T*he reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action.* New York, NY: Basic Books.

Schunk, D. H. (2005). Self-regulated learning: The educational legacy of Paul R. Pintrich. *Educational Psychologist,* 40, 85-94.

Smith, C.A. (2010). Using reflective practice to study school leadership. Dissertation: Rowan University.

Stapa, S. H., & Majid, A. H. A. (2009). The use of first language in developing ideas in second language writing. *European Journal of Social Sciences,* 7(4), 41–47.

Taylor, S. (2010). Negative judgments: Reflections on teaching reflective practice. *Organization and Management Journal,* 7(1), 5-12.

Walker, R., & Sonn, C. (2010). *Working as a culturally competent mental health practitioner. In N. Purdie, P. Dudgeon & R. Walker (Eds.), Working together: Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander mental health and wellbeing principles and practice* (pp. 157-180). Canberra: Commonwealth Department of Health and Ageing.

Weber, R. (2003). The reflexive researcher. *MIS Quarterly*, 27(4), v-xiv.

Whitehead, J. (2000). How do I improve my practice? Creating and legitimating an epistemology of practice. *Reflective Practice,*1(1), 41-52.

Whitehead, J. (1989). Creating a living educational theory from questions of the kind, How do I improve my practice? *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 19(1), 41-52.

Yanow, D., & Tsoukas, H. (2009). What is reflection-in-action? A phenomenological account. *Journal of Management Studies,* 46(8): 1339–1364.