Student-Generated Teaching Suggestions: A Post-Transmission Approach to Localizing Theory in Postgraduate TESOL Teacher-Training Seminars

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Abstract

Many student-teachers in master’s programs in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) desire to learn practical teaching suggestions applicable in their local situations, yet most of their time is spent learning theory with little time spent applying it to local teaching situations, a problem commonly described as the theory/practice gap. While a number of approaches have been proposed to bridge this gap (e.g. Canagarajah, 1999; Kumaravadivelu, 2003), this study reports on an attempt to devise a readily usable technique, and accompanying strategy, that can be used to localize theory in a variety of graduate courses designed for classes of in-service teachers in South Korea comprised of both local Korean teachers and visiting native-English speaking teachers. The technique devised was to ask in-service teacher trainees to generate teaching suggestions for their own classrooms that used the theory covered in readings as a springboard for them to create and develop teaching ideas, and the strategy devised to employ this technique was to ask these participants to post a teaching suggestion to a Moodle forum and discuss it with other class participants. Running over a number of years, this study employs a practitioner research method to assess the value of deploying both the technique and strategy. Data from representative examples of student suggestions as well an open-ended survey on student reactions to generating and discussing their teaching suggestions are provided and qualitatively analyzed. It was found that asking in-service teacher-trainees to generate teaching suggestions equipped some of them with a conceptual mode of reading that regularly considered how to creatively adapt ideas from readings for use in their local teaching environments. The activity also helped some participants to become more reflective practitioners and demonstrated to other teachers the value of a community of practice that reflected on how to adapt the content of readings to their local environments.

1 Introduction

The key to transforming language education … will involve teachers employing strategies to teach … within their own contexts and then sharing their experiences with one another. (Osborn, 2006, p. 29)

Encourage teachers to develop their own pedagogical paradigm for their own teaching contexts on the basis of their critical reflection on the methods used. (Canagarajah, 2002, p. 138).

Student-practitioners often question the practical value of the predominantly theoretical concepts they study in teacher-education courses by asking the simple question: How is this useful to practice? Canagarajah’s (2002) call for teacher educators to encourage teachers to develop their own local approaches provides a way to alleviate teachers’ concerns about the usefulness of theory in their own teaching – develop pedagogical practices applicable to local teaching situations based on critical reflection. In a post-transmission / post-methods age (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, 2006), one in
which no method is seen as the answer to all teaching problems and in which teachers are encouraged to engage in bricolage to develop their own methodological toolkits (Kincheloe, 2001), teacher educators aim to avoid imposing top-down methods on their trainees in local English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching contexts (Canagarajah, 2002). This avoidance of imposing methods is principally due to a belief that experienced teachers are experts of their own teaching domains (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Love, 2012) and that teacher training should lead teacher trainees to “construct their own visions and versions of teaching” (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p. 8). Central to this approach is replacing the notion of a “master-pupil relationship” between professors and student-teachers, in which academics are seen as producers of knowledge and teachers are viewed as consumers of knowledge, with one that “expects teachers to play the role of reflective practitioners who deeply think about the principles, practices and processes of classroom instruction and bring to their task a considerable degree of creativity, artistry, and context sensitivity” (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p. 9).

To better enable teacher-trainees to construct their own visions and versions of teaching, reverse the master-pupil relationship that pervades teacher-training, encourage teachers to incorporate theory into their lessons, encourage teacher-training students to engage in bricolage, and avoid imposing methods on teacher-trainees, the simple task (technique) of having students generate teaching suggestions was devised as well as an accompanying strategy to employ the task. Employing student-generated teaching situations in their own classrooms and seminars is one way teacher-trainers can help student-teacher practitioners adapt theory to their local situations in both center and periphery countries.¹ The purpose of this paper is to present and evaluate student-generated teaching suggestions and the strategy devised to deploy the technique. In this practitioner research study of the technique and strategy, student-teachers were asked to employ this technique and strategy weekly in graduate level TESOL classes. To assess the quality of teaching suggestions, representative samples of teaching suggestions are provided below and qualitatively analyzed as to (a) how they deviated from the literature which informed them, and (b) how they developed the ideas in the original literature to make them more appropriate for their local teaching situations. To determine participant responses to employing this technique and strategy, participants were qualitatively surveyed about how they felt about this approach to (a) developing teaching suggestions (the technique) and (b) sharing teaching suggestions in class for local teaching contexts (the strategy). Before presenting and examining the technique and strategy, the conditions in TESOL training that contribute to and perpetuate the theory/practice gap in some TESOL classes and programs will be described.

2 Cognitive dissonance between textbooks’ usual presentation of material and what students want to learn

While students certainly enter an M.A. TESOL program to advance their careers (Tanghe, 2014), these same teachers usually have teaching experience in teaching English to speakers of other languages and are genuinely interested in improving their teaching. This is especially true for teacher learners who hold TESOL jobs while studying in an M.A. program, whose primary goal is to improve their local teaching efficacy. Consequently, these learner teachers’ desire to obtain helpful teaching advice and/or suggestions that they can directly apply to their own teaching situations (see Faez & Valeo, 2012; Farrell, 2012).

However, many TESOL teacher-training classrooms and programs create cognitive dissonance between (a) what students desire to learn, which is why they enrolled in a graduate TESOL program, and (b) the content of readings and discussions. Faez and Valeo (2012) summarize problems related to the theory-practice gap in their report on novice teacher-trainees’ perceptions of their TESOL courses:

In describing the least useful features of their TESOL programs, participants wrote extensively about theory instruction, ranging from theories of second language acquisition to theoretical linguistics. The respondents seemed to be most concerned when the application of theoretical discussions was not the focus of their lessons. Some commented that “the course needs to be edited for content to include more of the practical aspects of working in teaching,” “I found that the courses were heavy on theory but too
teaching,” and “the different theories were interesting, but not very helpful in the real classroom.” (p. 463)

Motha, Jain, and Tecle (2014) elaborate on the problems of some TESOL programs:

Many teacher education programs focus on the nitty-gritty of languages, on the ways in which words and sounds connect to each other, on linguistic comparisons, on the mechanics of language. Or they focus on teaching methods, on decision making processes, on lists of practical, one-size-fits-all strategies, and on detailed instructions for crafting cookie-cutter lesson plans. While it is important for teacher candidates to understand both the activity and processes of teaching and the structure and workings of languages, such knowledge is almost meaningless unless it is embedded in thoughtful, informed, critically conscious practice. (p. 13)

The cognitive dissonance between the course content and students’ original expectations of what they would gain from a TESOL program can lead to cognitive dissidence, a dissidence betrayed by questions about the relevance of a reading or class discussions vis-à-vis daily teaching life. This perceived dissonance/dissidence is partially caused by the fact that most faculty members feel students at the master's level should be made aware of a wide variety of issues concerning language learning and teaching, such as covered in a standard introduction to TESOL (e.g. Brown, 2014). As many teacher trainees are unaware of teaching options, teacher training should introduce teachers to a vast array of approaches through readings, and other activities, and let them determine best practices in their own contexts (Park, 2012). It is acknowledged that discussing whatever pedagogical, cultural, literary, and political theories contained in a reading are relevant to education can create interesting class discussions that expand students’ knowledge. However, this common practice, particularly when dealing with more obscure theories, can stand at odds with the primary reason many of these student-teachers are attending seminars – to learn more about how to improve their own teaching in their own classrooms. The not-so-hidden assumption on the part of instructors and departmental curriculum planners is that the M.A. program will familiarize students with the important issues and students will go on to apply these theories to local teaching contexts once they enter the teaching practicum component of their course or have obtained a teaching position. The principal problem with this assumption is that teachers are not always trained in how to bridge theory and practice. Tanghe (2014) reports that a survey conducted at her graduate school in Korea revealed that students at her institution most wanted to obtain from their training “critical thinking skills”, which included “synthesizing texts and our own ideas” (p. 61), indicating that these teacher-trainees did not feel adequately prepared by their previous training to autonomously integrate theory and practice, even though many of the participants in her study were certified teachers.

The disconnect between student expectations of what they will learn in an M.A. TESOL course and the material that is often covered by graduate school seminars is further reified in the common format employed by course textbooks in which a chapter is followed by a list of discussion questions or reflections. Readings familiarize student-teachers with learning and teaching issues and options, but they are not enough. Discussion questions at the end of chapters are not being disparaged as they engage students and ask them to reflect on the content of the material. They also help students develop a critical voice that is contrapuntal to established theory as they reflect on how that theory relates to their own teaching lives (Canagarajah, 1999), but they are not enough. What is being disparaged is that often these questions serve primarily to solidify retention of the material covered in a textbook with little attention paid to localizing that knowledge beyond a question or two, and usually from the perspective/outlook of the textbook author rather than the local learner teacher. One respondent in Baecher’s (2012) study of teacher-trainees’ feelings about their TESOL programs encapsulates some of these issues: “At times, the discussions or assignments were not authentic and in tune with what we really face in the field” (p. 585). Kong (2017) notes that Western TESOL programs do not always satisfy the needs of EFL teacher-trainees: “In order to support them when they return to their home countries, in-service teachers from Asian countries can be encouraged to critically reflect on the usefulness of different methodologies in connection to their local teaching settings and the best ways of integrating methodologies that are proposed in teacher education programmes with local teaching methods” (p. 207). Given the current state of many teacher training
programs and textbooks, an approach was needed that rectified student dissatisfaction with the standard approach in M.A. programs in which the content of readings are discussed but few practical teaching suggestions for local contexts are provided. Put otherwise, an approach was needed that bridged the dysfunctional gap between academic theory and local practice (see Ball, 2000; Clarke, 1994; Freeman, 2002), one which explicitly drew from student-practitioners’ knowledge of their local teaching environment(s) (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Motha et al., 2014; Park, 2012).

3 Student-generated teaching suggestions as contrapuntal voices

The approach devised to bridge the theory/practice gap in this study focused on encouraging teachers to appropriate concepts from readings, based on their experiential knowledge, and envision ways to situate these concepts in their local environments. Situating ideas from readings is especially pertinent to periphery teacher training situations, where local issues and teaching factors vary from English as a second language settings, and thereby affect the appropriation of Western-based readings. Canagarajah (1999) mentions the tension at play in periphery countries demands this kind of approach: “In the midst of the conflicting influences from the center and the periphery, local teachers have to adopt creative and critical instructional practices in order to develop pedagogies suitable for their communities” (p. 122). Lin (2004) corroborates: “Teacher educators working outside of North American academic circles need to further contextualize the critical pedagogy theories in their respective local context” (p. 276). The current project encourages teacher trainees to contextualize all cultural practices, critical approaches, and theories, and incorporate them in their teaching practices, not just those from the field of education or TESOL, as it aims to make them consider how to incorporate any material they may encounter in their daily lives into their teaching practice, in a true interdisciplinary approach to education. The solution developed to counter the cognitive dissonance learner-teachers felt between the content of course readings vis-à-vis their teaching situations was to ask them to localize the content of readings using a four-step approach.

1) Critique the weekly readings, or expert/disciplinary knowledge (see Johnson, 2009; Kennedy, 1999) in light of their life and language learning and teaching experiences in current and past environments (see Love, 2012; Johnson, 2009; Kubota & Lin, 2009; Nunan & Choi, 2010), especially in light of their individual craft knowledge, or knowledge of how to achieve results in a local teaching environment (Kennedy, 1999), otherwise known as pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987).

2) Generate a teaching suggestion for each class based on the weekly readings that adapted the content of the readings to their local teaching situation. Learner teachers were asked to reflect on how the content contained in the readings could be used in their teaching contexts. They were further informed that they could focus on any theory, concept or idea in the readings that they thought could be used in their teaching situation(s); mix those ideas as they saw fit; and employ any teaching approach they deemed appropriate for their students or teaching environment. In a nutshell, they were encouraged to extract from the readings any ideas that they could use in their own teaching situations and use them in their own way(s). Many theorists have called for teachers to generate their own pedagogies (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Motha et al., 2014; Park, 2012; Tanghe, 2014), and the simplest way to do that is to ask them to do so directly by generating a teaching suggestion.

3) Post the teaching suggestion to a Moodle forum.

4) Discuss the teaching suggestions posted to the Moodle Forum as a class. Each participant’s teaching suggestion was brought up on a beam projector, and the person who made the teaching suggestion explained it to the class, occasionally deviating from the original post to include additional content that helped the other class participants better understand the suggestion. After the presentation of the teaching suggestion, class participants were free to comment, or not, on the suggestion.
Three key concepts that undergird this approach to moving theory into practice are appropriation (Canagarajah, 1999, 2012), situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991), and dialogic mediation (Johnson, 2009).

Appropriation, a concept used in both the fields of cultural studies (Lee, 2004) and education (Canagarajah, 1999; Pratt, 1991), is the notion that consumers of (foreign and local) media artifacts, used broadly here to include textbooks, do not wholeheartedly accept and embrace those cultural artifacts in their entirety. Rather, they choose aspects of those cultural artifacts to adapt and use in their local environment and ignore or reject other aspects of that same cultural artifact. This is readily seen in the many manifestations of hip hop music throughout the world music scene, which may appropriate some musical and lyrical styles but may not desire to appropriate other elements of American hip hop in their specific cultural localization (Pennycook, 2010). Central to appropriation for TESOL practitioners is that “no method or teaching philosophy can be mandated from outside. We appropriate the new methods in our own way and according to our traditions and needs” (Canagarajah, 2012, p. 265). This process is true for all teachers, not just those in periphery contexts, as it is teachers who ultimately decide what they will use and/or focus on in their own classrooms, not methods, textbooks, or even teacher educators. Even when a teacher uses a required textbook, s/he is always free to critique the contents of that textbook in class (Love, 2013). The fact that a teacher must decide which aspects of a reading are worthy of appropriation before deciding the best way to situate the contents of that reading in her/his own environment illustrates the symbiotic relationship situated learning and appropriation share.

Situated learning, widely employed in TESOL (e.g. Johnson, 2006), is understood in a variety of ways, but “[t]he most common understanding of situated learning … is a form of pedagogy that allows students to make connections between content knowledge and their own lives, or more simply to apply knowledge to their own contexts” (Pederson, 2012, p. 123). In this teacher-centered approach, “the design of teaching methods is placed in the hands of individual teachers, demanding creativity and decision making for situated pedagogical practice, calling for a different form of professionalization” (Canagarajah, 2016, p. 23). Asking students to generate teaching suggestions based on readings makes student-teachers situate the knowledge of the readings in their individual teaching situations (Johnson & Golombek, 2011), and by sharing their suggestions with the class, a community of practice is created for a TESOL community (Canagarajah, 2012; Johnson, 2006; Tavakoli, 2015; Wenger, 1998). As master’s level TESOL student-teachers belong to a variety of communities of practice (individual school, graduate of a particular school, member of a particular society, non-native or native English speaker, qualified or unqualified teacher, possessor of certain years of experience in various contexts, race, home country, etc.), the concept of brokering (Canagarajah, 2012; Wenger, 1998) permeates class discussions. Participants situate their knowledge in dialogue with other participants, who are members of a multitude of other local and international communities, and all participants must dialogically broker knowledge between the various communities in which they participate.

Dialogic mediation aims to develop learner teachers through a prolonged cyclical process, or series of activities, designed to (a) introduce learner teachers to “expert” knowledge, or published knowledge, (b) develop individual understandings in learner teachers by asking them to compare their individual experiential knowledge with “expert” (published) knowledge, and (c) provide opportunities to discuss these understandings, and thereby make these understandings available to conceptual refinement as individual teachers engage in dialogue with peers and a teacher educator (Johnson, 2009). This process is called dialogic mediation because dialogue serves as the principal means for developing teacher learner’s understanding of teaching: internal dialogue occurs between an individual teacher’s experiential knowledge and expert knowledge when s/he reads weekly readings, and external dialogue occurs when this knowledge is verbalized during discussions (Johnson, 2009). From group discussions, an understanding of the local teaching environment may emerge that develops into local expertise (Johnson, 2009). The four-step approach discussed above is a clear example of a dialogic mediation. In making teaching suggestions, learner teachers verbalize their understanding of the best content to appropriate from readings as well as the best way(s) to situate
that appropriated content in their local teaching environment. These understandings are then further refined through a *brokered* discussion with peers and a teacher educator.

To situate this approach in the literature, a number of ways to bridge the theory/practice (or research/pedagogy) gap have already been proposed by TESOL educators (see Richards, 2008; Tavakoli & Howard, 2012), such as building communities of practice (Tavakoli, 2015), employing post-method pedagogy (the principles of particularity, practicality, and possibility; Kumaravadivelu, 2003), examining life histories (Park, 2012), focusing on identity issues in classrooms (Motha et al., 2014; Waller, Wethers, & de Costa, 2017) and providing reflective practice opportunities (Farrell, 2012). The concept of student-generated teaching suggestions draws heavily from many of these concepts, but in practice it is most similar to Tanghe’s (2014) approach of using easy-to-employ *praxis activities* that “can be implemented into teacher education programs at the graduate school level” (p. 54) to help students bridge the theory/practice divide. While Tanghe (2014) uses a variety of *praxis activities* to help her student-teachers employ five overlapping critical pedagogical values (agency, contextualization, dialogic, critical thinking and critical recursiveness), the goal of the current study was to devise one ready-usable technique, and accompanying strategy to deploy it, that could be used in a broad variety of courses to bridge theory and practice. It was hoped that this technique (and strategy) would readily allow the incorporation of many of the insights and techniques that have already been proposed by the theorists mentioned above. The intention was not to displace earlier approaches, but to suggest a technique that could be used in tandem with these approaches and their activities to localize theory, albeit one which could also be used alone.

Concerning the approach to research employed herein, while earlier studies have surveyed what students in TESOL programs would like from their programs (Tanghe, 2014; Tavakoli & Howard, 2012), the author is unaware of a study that has surveyed student-teacher’s reactions to an intervention/activity that asked them to localize theory conducted with teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) teachers in a periphery country, though Ilieva, Li, & Li (2015) conducted semi-structured interviews of students who had returned to China about how they felt about the discourses they had learned in a TESOL program in Canada. One noteworthy finding from Ilieva et al.’s (2015) study is that the EFL teachers they surveyed were “negotiating resistance and appropriation of their TESOL program discourses” (The Hybrid Professional section, para. 4), which supports the goals of the current project is it suggests it is best to equip teachers with tools to appropriate and localize theory in their TESOL training programs rather than leave it up to them after the program (see Ilieva, 2010). As for examples of EFL teachers’ localization of materials, Tanghe (2014) provides examples of how teachers localized theory as contained in recollections from her field notes and from student quotations. The current study differs from hers in presenting a number of student products (student-generated teaching suggestions), followed by an analysis of how these products incorporated insights from the literature as well as the teaching lives and practices of those who suggested them, to create a new synthesis. How teacher-trainees synthesize the material from their courses with their life experience to create new content for their classes – and thereby adapt, challenge, ignore, incorporate, and revise theory for their own purposes – is an area of analysis that is relatively unexamined in the scholarly literature (see Ilieva, 2010). In summary, this study is unique in using open-ended surveys to gather student data about how they felt about generating teaching suggestions and discussing them as well as in its analysis of student products as evidence of how student-teachers are appropriating theory and localizing it for their own periphery situations. Employing practitioner research to conduct a long-term analysis of a teaching innovation with a variety of groups is also novel.

4 Using a practitioner research methodology to investigate a long-term, small group teaching innovation

4.1 How does one assess a long-term, small group teaching innovation?
As this innovation was run with different classes of students ranging in size from 3 to 9 over three years, it is best categorized as practitioner research (PR). PR is characterized as “the notion that professionals working within their own workplace settings carry out systematic investigations on aspects of their daily practices. Educational PR draws on methodologies of action research, practitioner inquiry, classroom research, action learning, and reflective and exploratory practice” (Mahboob et al., 2016, p. 56). In PR, “Data collection is eclectic ... depending on the questions posed” (Mahboob et al., 2016, p. 57). Though this intervention incorporated aspects of all of these methodologies, “the action research spiral of planning → acting and observing → reflecting → planning, and so on” (Richards, 2003, p. 24; see also Wallace, 1998) undergirded the approach as it was run over several years during which the researcher constantly strove to improve the practice. Action research is an approach that is akin to pragmatism in that “instead of a focus on methods, the important aspect of research is the problem being studied and the questions asked about this problem” (Creswell, 2007, pp. 22–23). Here the questions are 1) how well does having students generate teaching suggestions work, and 2) how do students feel about the practice? Yet to genuinely assess the efficacy of any teaching innovation is difficult and there is no guarantee that the same approach would work equally well in another teacher’s class as “teachers face rooms full of exclusively particular cases” (Allwright, 2005, p. 18). As such, when considering interventions run with small groups of participants such as the intervention reported here, the best evaluation of the research is how an experienced teacher-trainer reacts to it. While an experienced teacher-trainer is reading this article, s/he considers which elements could be appropriated, how s/he could situate these in her/his own teacher-training environment, and which elements s/he will reject as not applicable to her/his teaching environment. It is proficiency in this reading process, second nature to seasoned academics, that this project seeks to instill in student-teachers. To allow the reader to assess the efficacy of this project, in a pragmatically eclectic fashion, two sets of data will be presented: (a) a few representative examples of teaching suggestions are provided, followed by (b) data from open-ended surveys that aimed to elicit how participants felt about writing and discussing teaching suggestions. All student-teachers signed written consent forms stating their willingness to participate in this research (all names are pseudonyms).

4.2 The participants/“student” teachers

This project was conducted in an M.A. TESOL program in a provincial university in a periphery country (South Korea) that offers a dual degree program with a state university in the United States through which students can transfer 15 credits towards their M.A. degree in the U.S.A. As such, these 25 course participants (9 female, 16 male) come from diverse countries (Canada, 9; South Africa, 2; South Korea, 4; the United Kingdom, 2; and the U.S.A., 9), teach in a wide variety of contexts ranging from private kindergartens to public schools to universities, and have teaching experience in an EFL teaching environment (South Korea) that ranges from three to twenty years. Oddly, given that the program is offered in a periphery country, most of the participants come from native English speaking countries, but a few of the participants are Korean. While most of the Korean participants are qualified teachers who work in the public school system, and most of the non-Koreans are not qualified teachers in their home countries but possess certificates in Teaching English as a second language (TESL) or Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) (three are qualified teachers in their home countries who left the profession in North America due to attrition), nearly all of the participants have taught beyond the three years needed to be considered novice teachers. These locally experienced student-teachers took a variety of courses that used this approach (Cultural Studies in TEFL; Literature and Film in TESOL Education; Methods in Teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language; and Globalization, World Englishes, Social Justice, and English Language Teaching), but the approach was not tried with courses that used readings from which a teacher would have difficulties extracting an idea that could be developed into a lesson plan (e.g. Qualitative Research or Curriculum Design).
5 The teaching suggestions (data set 1)

The sheer variety of topics of teaching suggestions is impossible to catalogue here, but students made suggestions about linguistic landscapes (Gorter, 2006), ‘sticky objects’ in ELT (Benesch, 2012), critical media awareness (Benesch, 2006), code meshing in K-pop (Lee, 2004), identity of EFL learners (Holliday, Hyde, & Killman, 2004), English in video games (Ryu, 2011), using English in an interdisciplinary EFL physical education class (Osborn, 2006), film studies, cultural studies, globalization, and critical race theory. The four teaching suggestions reported below were chosen for being creative localizations and adaptations of the content of required readings. The reading(s) that inspired them are also included so that a reader of this article who is familiar with the original reading can assess for her/himself the degree of adaptation and creativity of the suggestions. To phrase it otherwise, they were chosen for being appropriations that showed evidence of the individual teacher combining her/his craft knowledge with the material in the readings to create a new, synthetic teaching suggestion. For the sample activities provided below, the reader is encouraged to compare the participant suggestions with teaching activities s/he knows of, consider their depth of engagement with related theory, assess the appropriateness of the suggestion for their own local contexts, reflect on how to adapt the theory presented to her/his teaching situation(s), and, finally, ponder how s/he would encourage teacher learners to do the same.

5.1 Brent’s translingually adept students

For a class that discussed readings on developing performative competence through translingual practices (Canagarajah, 2013, Chapter 9) and using word walls as a translanguaging strategy in K-12 schools (Celic & Seltzer, 2011)4, Brent posted this teaching suggestion:

My freshmen students are preparing/presenting their first multi-media presentation this week. This year, I’m encouraging them to involve more home language slides in their PPT/Prezis. In the past I insisting on keeping it 100% in English. The first few classes have just given their presentations ... Wow what a difference. The audience involvement was much higher than previous semesters, and I attribute at least part of this to the addition of a few phrases, printed and spoken, in Korean. Also interesting is that I never once had difficulty following their ideas, even though I have very limited ability in Korean.

In formulating this teaching suggestion, Brent, a teacher from the U.S. who had been teaching at the university level in Korea for 10 years, drew concepts from two weekly readings: Canagarajah’s (2013) notion of linguistic repertoire “in which the different language resources constitute an integrated and ever-widening competence” (p. 177) that can be drawn from and integrated in any fashion to facilitate communicative competence and Celic and Seltzer’s (2011) notion of word walls. He also drew ideas from a third reading on collaborative work from earlier in the course (Celic & Seltzer, 2011, pp. 63–64; personal communication). Celic and Seltzer’s suggestions for collaborative work include researching and planning in a second language while presenting in English, presenting a presentation in one language and analyzing in another, and presenting in English while the content of the PowerPoint is in a first language (pp. 63 & 67), but there is no specific mention of actively using code meshing within slides of a presentation on these pages, though the general practice of code meshing is frequently mentioned elsewhere in Celic and Seltzer. In combining Canagarajah’s theoretical notion of developing performative competence with Celic and Seltzer’s practical suggestions for K-12 teaching, Brent was creatively combining ideas from these texts and appropriating them for his own university teaching context. Brent’s statement that even with limited Korean he “never once had difficulty following their [his students’] ideas”, demonstrates that his students were pragmatically competent (Canagarajah, 2013) – they knew how to code mesh during a presentation to include all participants (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). It is not surprising that his Korean students were more effective at communicating their ideas in a presentation that allowed translanguaging, because local teachers regularly code mesh, using their native language and English while teaching, which students have witnessed as part of their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). Brent’s relaxing of a previous English only policy and allowing local language use
in the classroom decisively increased communication in this classroom, as shown by his surprise at the much higher audience participation rates. Freed from the shackles of using only English in the classroom, these Korean students actively engaged in discussion in their newly translingual environment and openly displayed their performative competence, sensitively code meshing in the local linguistic environment to avoid alienating any participants. His students’ success at employing translingual practices shows even native English speaker teachers in periphery countries, whose students are usually more knowledgeable of translingual practices than their instructors, have nothing to fear from employing translanguage practices in their classrooms and should even encourage them as they can produce conversationally livelier teaching environments. That Brent’s students code meshed Korean and English in their presentations to effectively communicate without formal, explicit training in the theory of translingual practices verifies Canagarajah’s (2013) claim: “What we have are new theories, but not new practices.” (p. 33)

5.2 Jisu’s elementary translingual approach

Jisu, a licensed Korean public elementary school teacher, posted the following teaching suggestion early in a course for a seminar that discussed the first chapter of Canagarajah (2013), and the first sections of Celic & Seltzer (2011, pp. 1–12). While both of these readings provide theoretical introductions to translingual practices/translanguaging and examples of translingual communication practices, they contain few explicit teaching suggestions. Jisu’s teaching suggestion provides further proof that local teaching professionals often already implicitly understand the concepts of translingual practices and know how to apply them in their own teaching situations (Canagarajah, 2013).

Actually, before I read TP [Translingual practice], I was kind of doing it with my students. Students keep their English journal. However, students are allowed to write both in Korean and English as far as it makes sense to them. Only principle is students must use at least one English word in each sentence. That’s it.

Without explicit instruction in translanguaging, this teacher had adapted her teaching strategies to match her students’ proficiency levels in a way that used her “learners’ linguistic creativity as a resource” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013, p. 597). While some may feel that only one English word per sentence is lenient, Jisu’s suggestion actively encourages fluency development by encouraging a young learner to engage in communicative practice and “express her ideas to the fullest even when she runs out of L2 resources” (Lin, 2013, p. 532). Jisu’s suggestion both develops proficiency (Piccardo, 2013) and allows students to later actively negotiate meaning with their teacher. Employing this practice displays that this teacher is intuitively aware that limiting student expression to only English may “make an English classroom less communicative by virtue of making some learners less willing to communicate in the L2” (Macaro & Lee, 2013, p. 737); it also demonstrates that she has devised a counter-strategy suited to her students to prevent this from happening. Further, allowing students to write anything as long as at least one word is in English not only lowers affective barriers in students but also affirms their “plurilingual identities and subjectivities” (Lin, 2013, p. 540). Later discussing the translingual journal with a student functions as a needs assessment that leads to teaching opportunities as the journal indicates meaningful opportunities for growth in the student’s knowledge. Overall, the teaching suggestion is a practical example of a “strategic, principled use of local resources to scaffold learning” (Lin, 2013, p. 521), a noted strength of non-native English speaking teachers (Macaro & Lee, 2013).

5.3 Gary’s audience-response based media literacy

Gary, a teacher from the U.S. teaching elementary and middle school students at a private language institute, posted this teaching suggestion based on a cultural studies article on Korean and English mixing in Korean television commercials (Lee, 2006). The original article (Lee, 2006) contains no teaching suggestions. Lee’s article was used in the course Cultural Studies in Teaching English as a Foreign Language because it addresses a local, contemporary topic – code meshing of
English and L1 in local media. As this practice is pervasive in many media forms in periphery countries, it is useful for teachers to consider ways to teach students to reflect on and analyze this practice.

I would show the students a few commercials that are only in Korean; there is no English in the commercial. Then I would show them some commercials that have limited English in the ads. I would do a brainstorming activity at the end of both sets of commercials. Asking them what they thought and how much influence do commercials have on their buying habits. Then I would ask about the involvement of English and ask them what they thought and if the use of English would persuade them anymore or less to purchase something.

While at first glance, the suggestion may seem to simply present the same kind of activity and analysis contained in the article that inspired it, it develops and applies ideas from Lee’s article in unexpected ways. The suggestion localizes and contemporizes the material in the article. As the article was written in 2006, commercial advertisements have changed, as has, in some cases, their manner of meshing English and Korean. Encouraging students to reflect on the use of English in contemporary local commercials, and specifically on whether it would persuade them to purchase items, makes students conscious of the role of English in advertising in periphery countries, conscious of the ways advertising attempts to persuade them, and conscious of whether it is effective or not. It is a type of in-class inquiry that asks students to engage in a dialogue that investigates the claims being made by the article, while not requiring them to read the original article. As such, this activity is a significant development from the original article that analyzed the use of English in commercials from the perspective of a single researcher. This approach changes a cultural studies article incorporating the views of a single researcher into a social science investigation as it invites a group to respond, according to a cultural studies’ audience response style (Storey, 2010). This at first glance simple teaching suggestion teaches very powerful critical media literacy (see Alvermann & Hagood, 2000; Beach, 2007).

5.4 Ryan’s classroom management practices

While the parameters of the assignment asked participants to generate specific teaching suggestions based on course readings, some participants made more general suggestions related to classroom management practices, an area in which learner teachers and novice teachers desire more support (Brannan & Bleistein, 2012; Peacock, 2009). Ryan, a teacher from the U.S. teaching at Korean public middle and high schools, made one such suggestion:

One thing that I do in terms of classroom is a bit unique to our situation here, at least in public schools. In Korea, most classrooms have a “class president” or something of the sorts. If not, there is still often a student that many other students look up to. That student can be used in many ways in the classroom, especially when coordinating the other students. If I need the class to be silent, or begin to wrap up an activity, I usually make eye contact with that dominant student within the classroom, who will have other students wrap up what they’re doing. If I cannot get the class presidents attention, I also have a signal where I raise my hand above my head and start counting on my fingers, which serves the same purpose. Students will see the signal and begin to quiet down, as well as quiet each other down and prepare to move on.

Whether it was because they could not think of a teaching suggestion based on the reading or thought a more general teaching suggestion was more appropriate, other students, based on observation of responses, seemed to greatly appreciate these kinds of posts. Though these suggestions usually contained content ancillary related to an issue discussed in the readings, they show how a community of practice, the class, became responsible for its own learning and evolved its own approach to educational practices beyond the constraints posed by the course instructor, in true emergent fashion.

6 Survey results (data set 2)
Open-ended surveys on students’ responses to generating and discussing teaching suggestions were collected from the nine classes that used this approach during the three years the intervention was run. These instruments were originally distributed as a formative assessment of the activity to improve its implementation rather than as a research project. It was realized post facto that the comments contained in these instruments provided a rich commentary that could be employed to more formally assess the merits of the activity. The data were first reduced (see Brown, 2001; Huberman & Miles, 1994) to categories contiguous with two research questions: 1) How do student-teachers feel about the process of generating teaching suggestions while reading? (Steps 1 & 2 of student generated teaching suggestions as contrapuntal voices discussed above); and 2) How do student-teachers feel about the process of posting and discussing these suggestions? (Steps 3 & 4 of student generated teaching suggestions as contrapuntal voices). Representative quotations in each category were then qualitatively coded for emerging themes (see Appendices A & B below; see Brown, 2001; Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995; Lynch 1992; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Data from all three years were treated synchronously as one data set due to this investigation’s focus on discerning students’ response to the approach rather than comparing differences between the various groups of students. Only representative quotes are contained in the appendices, as many responses contained similar comments.

6.1 Research question 1: How did students feel about generating teaching suggestions?

The responses related to students’ perceptions of the activity of generating teaching suggestions (see Appendix A) display a generally positive approach to the activity. Asking for a relatively simple contribution, a teaching suggestion, greatly affected students’ approaches to reading. It caused them to reflect on how to localize concepts from the readings in their classrooms (Kate, Sam) and their teaching approaches (Sam, Walter). It also aided in increasing concentration while reading, as it caused readers to focus on extracting a teaching activity (Gary, Sam), which resulted in an increased concern for understanding the readings, leading some students to reread and further reflect on them (Jackson, Jisu, Sam). It changed Gary’s reading style so much that he continually reflected while reading on how he could apply the content to his classroom, which is the true goal of this approach: to change the thought processes of students and instill in them the higher order process of automatically situating whatever they are reading or thinking about. Unfortunately, Jisu found it a “really challenging assignment” that distracted her from her reading, as she often felt lost when reading if she thought about making a teaching suggestion and “couldn’t think of any ideas.” Fortunately, Sam overcame the same problem through more reflection and Jackson through revisiting the readings. Yuna, in solidarity with Jisu, stated that at times the activity “felt like an extra chore,” as she had “nothing to say.” One factor that may have contributed to Jisu and Yuna’s difficulty with thinking of teaching suggestions for some readings is that both of them are elementary school teachers and not all readings are suitable for all teaching situations (Kate, Ryan). Even so, it is valuable for student-teachers to consider how issues in readings relate to their teaching situations and could be taught, as some of the issues may filter-down and be useful at lower levels. One solution to overcome the inappropriateness of some readings for some teaching situations is to inform participants that they can make suggestions for imagined teaching environments rather than their actual teaching situation, if they cannot think of anything that would work in their classrooms. In this case, the advantages of situating learning in an individual teacher’s environment are lost, but that teacher gains the knowledge that certain content is inappropriate for her/his teaching environment. S/he also gains the ability to creatively imagine teaching material in a new environment, a useful skill for any teacher. Despite her complaint, Jisu, elsewhere in the survey, recognized that the approach is valuable for teachers: “I, personally prefer to study critical theories only but we are teacher in the end so doing teaching suggestion is something we should do as a teacher.” Educators need to consider that while some participants seem to be changing their reading practices so that they perpetually think of ways the readings can be used in their teaching, this approach is not universally liked by all students, even those who like critical theory. Another solution that may alleviate this problem is to
allow students to post reflections on the readings in lieu of a teaching suggestion if a student is having trouble generating one, which may alleviate the everyday stresses of work or mental block associated with certain readings.

6.2 Research question 2: How did students feel about posting and discussing teaching suggestions?

The responses related to posting and discussing the teaching suggestions (see Appendix B) show that participants valued the activity with some reservations. Discussing lessons as a class brings clarity (Sam), suggesting that posting teaching suggestions is best used in a seminar as opposed to a distance learning environment, though it could be utilized as a distance learning assignment, provided enough feedback channels from other students are built into the assignment. Experienced student-teachers like learning from fellow teachers and hearing how they teach (Walter). The positive feedback on teaching suggestions received in class (Jackson) confirms that this activity created a community of practice that encouraged and helped its members to develop as teachers. As participants came to understand their teaching suggestions and situations better through peer discussions, discussing teaching suggestions became a form of social constructivism (Gash, 2014), centered around ways to understand and best practice teaching in the local environment. Another facet of this approach that recommends it is that many teacher-trainers have not taught in a classroom outside the university environment in years, though they may have observed lessons: this approach gets practicing teachers to pass on their insights to other teachers rather than rely solely on textbook knowledge or that of a professor who may not be aware of how students or classrooms have changed through the years (see Peacock, 2009).

Unfortunately, the rigidity of teaching situation (Joanna, Sam), incongruence of their own teaching situations with those of other class participants (Alan), the course topic (Alan, Jisu), and not being a native speaker of English (Jisu) prevented some teachers from implementing teaching suggestions, their own or others, in their own classes. This rigidity is a negative characteristic of a range of teaching environments as Joanna and Jisu work at the elementary level, and Alan at the university level. Jisu’s concern that parental test-centered expectations prevent local, non-native English speakers from teaching certain topics or using certain approaches (Shin, 2012) shows that content-based instruction (Snow, 2001) is still not valued in many periphery countries. Most troubling is that certified teachers are so restricted by parental, societal, and colleague’s expectations that they are not free to teach the content they feel is most beneficial for students in an appropriate teaching style. More public, local education is needed in many periphery countries, especially those with high-stakes tests, so that the public and teaching community value and encourage the practice of content-based instruction by local teachers (Shin, 2012). It is hoped that such education will lead the general public to respect the choices of some teachers to engage in creative teaching approaches that may produce better test results by engaging students in more meaningful learning (Shin, 2012; Love, 2013).

Three comments from participants are noteworthy before moving on to the discussion. Participants in the Globalization, World Englishes, Social Justice, and English Language Teaching course revealed in a focus group discussion that whereas they may forget the content of readings, they remember many of the teaching suggestions. Even when the suggestions may not immediately be put into practice, they add to teachers’ ‘toolkits’ as a resource to draw from later in their teaching careers.

Leonard mentioned that making teaching suggestions “does show we’ve done the readings, appreciate you have to evaluate us somehow.” Teacher educators and class participants can easily see how much of the set reading for that week has been integrated into a given teaching suggestion. A criterion or rubric that measured how well the teaching suggestions integrated content from weekly readings could be used to assess the activity, but a greater motivator is the community of practice (the class), that likes to see what it can use and subjects students to peer critique. Walter’s comment above shows that participants strive to make unique teaching suggestions for the community, even
though uniqueness was never set as a course requirement. Originality was never stressed during discussions of teaching suggestions out of fear that the discussions could rapidly warp into a dysfunctional community of practice (Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002) full of participants waiting to pounce on the shortcomings of an approach or suggestion. Rather than obsessing over critique, a much too common feature of postgraduate seminars, discussions focused on encouraging participants to offer constructive suggestions that developed a suggestion or commented on a similar approach they have tried. Teacher educators planning similar interventions need to consider how communities of practice can degenerate into dysfunctional communities and design steps in their procedures to prevent this from happening.

Brian’s comment clearly shows how useful he feels this approach is:

I’m going to paste together a lot of the suggestions so I can use or adapt them when I begin planning for next semester … I wonder if in the future it would be a good idea to compile everyone’s teaching suggestions at the end of the semester. I for one would save them for future reference.

Compiling all the activities at the end of a term could easily be accomplished by requiring participants to post their responses to a Google doc at the end of the course.

7 Discussion

It is recognized that requiring student-teachers to make teaching suggestions is an established practice in education and there have been many calls for teachers to share their successful teaching experiences and praxes (e.g. Osborn, 2006). Often, these teaching suggestions take the form of lesson plans or pedagogy projects, assignments that are given once or a few times per semester. What differentiates student-generated teaching suggestions from these commonly practiced approaches to moving theory into practice is the requirement for each student-teacher to generate a teaching suggestion each week and discuss it in class. Rather than principally relying on extracting a teaching idea from published materials and applying the teaching suggestion in a nearly rote manner, as has been known to occur often in teaching methods courses in periphery locations (see Canagarajah, 2012), but also in more mainstream locales (Richards, 2008), this process asks student-teachers to combine their knowledge of the local teaching situation with the expert knowledge contained in readings. By asking student-teachers to engage in this process, student-generated teaching suggestions share the responsibility of teaching with students (see Shor, 1996). Having students generate a teaching suggestion every week is part of a process that aims to gradually instill in teachers a reflective approach to reading, one which will encourage them to mine all reading materials for activities that they may be able to use in their teaching. The survey responses reported above amply demonstrate that the activity succeeded in making student-teachers reflective. Justification for presenting the findings above is that the suggestion to have student-teachers bridge the theory/practice gap by making a teaching suggestion every week based on weekly readings is not extant in the literature, nor is an examination of the process of having students generate teaching suggestions. As the results above contain both positive and negative responses to the processes of writing and discussing teaching suggestions, more detailed investigation is needed of why some students had problems generating teaching suggestions but others did not as well as other ways to alleviate this mental block, such as Sam and Jackson found.

Some positive aspects of student-generated teaching suggestions are that they provide “pedagogical ideas,” “classroom management strategies” (e.g. Ryan’s suggestion), “logistical support,” and sporadically mention “teaching resources” such as Internet sites, all areas in which teachers have expressed a desire for more support (Brannan & Bleistein, 2012, p. 534). As the survey responses above confirm, student-generated teaching suggestions can be used on their own to encourage learner teachers to reflect on and localize knowledge from readings. Even so, they are best employed as one activity, perhaps as a recurring thread (Woodward, 2001), in a more comprehensive approach to teacher development, such as Farrell (2012), Johnson (2009), or Kumaravadivelu (2003), or Tanghe (2014) suggest.
One remarkable finding reported above is that localizing material is profitable for not only local teachers but also for native English speaking teachers working in periphery environments. While it is not often stated, this is part of the craft knowledge that local and native English speaking teachers working in periphery environments possess. Teacher educators in center countries should encourage their learner teachers, before they set out for periphery countries, to make localization of knowledge learned in courses their first priority (Ilieva, 2010; Kong, 2017), preferably in dialogue with local learners and teachers. Though Kumaravadivelu’s (2016) decolonial option in English teaching is primarily concerned with encouraging local teachers to catalogue, describe, and publish their approaches, student generated teaching suggestions can be easily used in a decolonial approach by both local and ex-patriot learner teachers in periphery countries, depending on the specific educational program in which they are enrolled (ex-patriot teachers are more likely to be enrolled in distance learning courses).

Though this approach has been tried in classes containing both in-service and pre-service teachers, it works best with teachers who have substantial knowledge of the target learning environment. These experienced teachers are familiar with the local teaching environment and social factors relevant to teaching. The activity may not work well with inexperienced teacher-trainees, though if involved in a practicum, thinking about ways to adapt articles to their own teaching may help them become more reflective.

An experienced teacher, Gary, mentioned perhaps the most relevant factor for teacher educators considering appropriating this activity: “From a student’s perspective, they don’t take a lot of time to do and they are very useful and practical.” One boon of this activity is that teaching suggestions are quickly generated, suggesting that this activity can be added to many courses without overburdening students. Another boon of the activity is that it can be employed to get students to localize material from any reading in any field felt relevant to current, local classroom issues, allowing course planners to incorporate a great variety of readings.

8 Conclusion

Employing student-generated teaching suggestions is one way to encourage learner teachers to appropriate and situate concepts from readings in foreign language teaching environments. It is hoped that employing this approach will help to alleviate the cognitive dissonance student-teachers feel exists between their readings and their teaching situations. The approach attempts to help students develop their own understandings of theoretical concepts in the field, those contained in set readings, by equipping them with a conceptual mode of reading that considers which aspects of a reading can be usefully employed in their teaching situations and which aspects are inapplicable.

The examples discussed above demonstrate that learner teachers appositely appropriate ideas from readings and creatively adapt them to their local environments. Writing teaching suggestions led some participants to become reflective practitioners, perpetually thinking about how to apply aspects of readings to their local teaching situation(s). This is a mark of a truly developed teaching practice that far exceeds summarizing the contents of a reading or replicating teaching suggestions in a teaching demonstration, aptly demonstrating the efficacy of this dialogic mediation.

Perhaps the greatest achievement of this project is actively demonstrating to student-teachers the value of a community of practice. Many students above reported how they genuinely enjoyed discussing the teaching suggestions and learning from/with their fellow students, most of whom are experienced teachers. These students have gained the ability to critique readings, to discern what is useful for their own situations, and the value of a functional community of practice, in a social constructivist way. This skill set should serve them well in their future careers, and it is hoped that they will find new ways to incorporate communities of practice in their teaching lives.

Notes

1 Following Kachru’s (1986) model of center, outer circle, expanding circle countries, Canagarajah (1999) uses the term periphery to refer to both of Kachru’s outer and expanding circle countries. It is difficult to distinguish the English ability of many speakers in these contexts as “many speakers in the periphery use English as the
first or dominant language; others may use it as a language that was simultaneously acquired with one or more local languages, and may display equal or native proficiency in them all” (Canagarajah, 1999, p. 4). For practical purposes, the term periphery is used heuristically in this paper to refer to countries/locales in which English is not regularly used as a language of communication in everyday life, that is, English may be used for business or entertainment, but it is not used often in daily life by the majority of the population on the street in periphery nations. Beyond linguistic concepts, the concept of periphery also plays a role in education as “many teachers in periphery communities believe that the methods propagated by centre applies linguistic circles through their textbooks, research journals, teacher training programmes, and professional organizations, are the most effective, efficient, and authoritative for their purposes” (Canagarajah, 2002, p. 135). Those engaged in teacher-training in periphery countries know well how much time is spent during class discussions considering which aspects of publications based on studies in center countries relate to local teaching situations. As such, teachers in periphery countries are in need of an orientation to teaching that considers “contextual features and defines itself in a context-dependent manner” (Canagarajah, 2002, p. 148).

While the term cultural appropriation is commonly used in popular media to refer to negative or demeaning uses of another culture’s items or practices, the term appropriation is kept here because its use in cultural studies predates popular media’s recent appropriation of the term.

The problematic nature of the terms native English speaking teacher (NEST) and non-native English speaking teacher (NNEST) are acknowledged (see Park, 2012), as well as the difficulty of differentiating between a native English speaker (NES) and a non-native English speaker (NNES) based on proficiency (Canagarajah, 1999). The terms are retained here for heuristic purposes.

Translanguaging is described by Celic & Seltzer (2011) as “the language practices of bilingual people” (p. 1), and has been elsewhere defined by Canagarajah (2011) as “the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle be-tween languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system” (p. 401). Translingual practice is an allied approach to translanguaging that similarly asks “that users negotiate both the diverse semiotic resources in their repertoire and the context to produce a text [or communicative act] that is rhetorically most appropriate and effective for the situation” (Canagarajah, 2013, p. 8; comment in brackets those of the author). Translanguaging and translingual practices both encourage practitioners to conceive of the negotiation of language as codemeshing rather than as code mixing or codeswitching as code mixing and codeswitching are terms that are associated with a monolingual orientation to languages that views languages as compartmentalized, separate entities in individuals rather than as part of an individual’s integrated linguistic repertoire (Canagarajah, 2013; Celic & Seltzer, 2011). In many recent articles, these terms have been blurred, appropriating the terms code mixing and code switching into non-monolingual orientations, though codemeshing, translanguaging, and translingual practices are employed throughout the current study.

References


Appendices

Appendix A

Survey responses related to generating teaching suggestions

— it really gets you to think about how you could utilize what you are learning in your classroom…. I found it to be tricky at times because some of the topics aren’t appropriate for my students. Kate
— I liked having to consider my own teaching methods every week, thinking how I could implement what I had learned during the readings, and then implementing it in a class environment, where it would need to work…. when it was more difficult to think of an appropriate teaching suggestion, more reflection was needed on the readings. This helped me concentrate and try and understand the readings more. Sam
— Sometimes it was necessary to revisit the readings to come up with teaching suggestions, which further helped me understand the materials. Jackson
— It was helpful in that it made me think about how I usually teach – but sometimes it was tricky to think of a unique way in which I would teach something. Walter
— Some of the readings didn’t seem as useful in my present teaching situation, so I didn’t get as much from making a teaching suggestion for them. Ryan
— I had in the back of my mind that I needed to come up with a suggestion for this week, so I was always thinking about how can I apply this to a classroom activity. Gary
— To make teaching suggestions, I had to make sure that I understand what I read. It was really challenging assignment…. I personally found that it’s difficult to make ‘teaching suggestions’ every week…. I was often lost what I was reading for whenever I think of making teaching suggestions since I couldn’t think of any ideas. Jisu
— To be honest, I felt it like extra chore. Sometimes it was easy for me to come up with teaching idea relate to reading and discussion, but at times I was feeling like…I have nothing to say. Yuna
Appendix B

Survey responses related to posting and discussing teaching suggestions

— It was good to hear practical advice from others in how they teach on a daily basis. [I] think the best way to teach is learning ideas from other teachers. Walter

— I enjoyed discussing some of the ideas. I also like it that positive feedback was given on most of the suggestions when discussing them in class. Sometimes I found myself saying, ‘Why didn’t I think of that?’ Jackson

— Sometimes it wasn’t 100% clear what was meant by a fellow student, or what I had meant with my lesson, but by explaining it, and discussing it, clarity was given and it was easy to understand. I have tried to incorporate some of these ideas in my own teaching. It is not always easy to do so in my current teaching environment, but I’m definitely considering these teaching suggestions when teaching. Sam

— My current teaching environment does not really allow for the use of new or innovative ideas as it is very structured, but I’m definitely considering these teaching suggestions when teaching. Ryan

— It was good but not useful in my situation. It would be hard to include these suggestions unless you had a liberal teacher/school. Maybe this would be helpful during camps or afterschool lesson. This would work if you had a college/university class especially. Joanna

— Many of the other students are elementary or middle school teachers and the activities didn’t really apply. I found it more useful in the teaching methodology class than I did in the globalization class. Alan

— Our reading is about critical theory, which is a little difficult to combine with EFL class. Whatever [a] native English teacher teaches, Korean students/parents will take it as an authentic resources while if [a] non Native English teacher try that students/parents might be confused that what [the] teacher is trying to teach is not focusing on teaching English itself. Jisu

— I always like to hear about others experiences and new ideas. Did they work or fail, things like that. Gary