TOWARD AN UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE IN TESOL: PREPARING NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS FOR TEACHING POSITIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract:

There are many paths for the preparation of TESOL instructors, although the most common are certificate programs, such as CELTA, and graduate programs, often involving a master's degree. Regardless of the kind of preparation a TESOL instructor undergoes, the curriculum is similar – involving coursework in linguistics, second language acquisition, methods of TESOL, curriculum, classroom assessment, and a practicum experience. While preparation programs do, for the most part, meet the standards suggested by the major professional organization in the field, the TESOL International Association, they are limited in important ways. Most importantly, none target the particular audience on which we focus in this article: students in countries that are part of either the outer or external circles, who are not themselves native speakers of English, who wish to teach English at the university level. These students pose a unique challenge for teacher educators in their home societies, and are often left unprepared for the pedagogical and institutional challenges that they will meet. In this article, we offer an outline of a teacher preparation program that is intended to serve non-native speakers of English entering university with the goal of becoming English language instructors at the university level.

Keywords: TESOL, teacher preparation, program design

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1. Introduction

More than four decades ago, Braj Kachru first suggested that the English-speaking world might best be conceptualized as consisting of three concentric circles – the inner circle, the outer circle, and the expanding circle (Kachru, 1986). The inner circle included the core English-speaking countries (the UK, the United States, Australia, and so on), the outer circle included primarily former British colonies in which English continued to play a significant, typically official, role (such as India, Nigeria, Pakistan, and so on), and the expanding circle, which was the remainder of the world where the use of English, although most often not formally mandated, was nevertheless increasing as English became more and more a hegemonic global language (Graddol, 2000; Lai, 2021; Macedo *et al.*, 2015; Tomuschat, 2017; Zeng *et al.*, 2023). In all three circles, the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL)[1] is a growing undertaking, serving millions of students of all ages and employing tens of thousands of both native and non-native speaking teachers.[2] In this article, we propose a model for preparing non-native speakers (NNSs) to become TESOL instructors, especially in higher education.

At present, TESOL instructors are prepared in a variety of ways. Internationally, the most common way is through programs such as those offered by Cambridge University – CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) and the more advanced DELTA (Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), although there are a growing number of other, often online, programmatic options as well. In the United States, many universities also offer either certificate programs or master's degrees that qualify individuals to become TESOL instructors. Certificate programs range in quality and length (the most common are 100 to 120-hour programs), and the curriculum in both certificate programs and master's degree programs is similar. In a survey that we conducted of 20 programs in U.S. universities,[3] virtually all included:

- Introduction to Linguistics/Applied Linguistics,
- Second Language Acquisition,
- Methods of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages,
- Curriculum in TESOL,
- Classroom Assessment and Evaluation,
- Practicum.

In addition, many programs included coursework in sociolinguistics, phonology, English grammar, and courses addressing teaching each of the four skill areas (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). A key difference between certificate programs and master's degree programs is the number of credit hours required, with certificate programs having as few as 12 credit hours while master's degrees range from around 30 to 45 credit hours.

Although these preparation programs do generally meet the standards suggested by the major professional organization in the field, the TESOL International Association,[4] all are limited in important ways. Most importantly, none target the particular audience

that we have in mind in this article: graduates of secondary school programs in countries in the outer or external circles, who are not themselves native speakers (NSs) of English, who wish to teach English at the university or adult level. These students pose a unique challenge for teacher educators in their home societies, and are often left unprepared for the pedagogical and institutional challenges that they will meet.

1.1 Overview of the Proposed Program

The proposed TESOL Teacher Preparation Program (TTPP), then, is intended to serve NNSs of English entering university with the goal of becoming English language instructors at the university level. The TTPP is intended to be primarily a face-to-face program, although some hybrid elements might be included if appropriate or necessary.[5] It is designed as a three-year, 100-credit program, although it could be offered as a four-year program similar in nature to typical undergraduate programs in the United States.[6] It is both aspirational and evaluative in nature: it offers a conceptualization of what we believe would be an exceptionally powerful program for preparing future English language educators, and it also provides a framework that could be used in evaluating other TESOL-preparation programs.

It is important to note at the outset that while student proficiency in English is assumed to improve over the course of the three-year TTPP, this is not a program designed simply to improve English language skills. The medium of instruction in the TTPP is intended to be almost exclusively English.[7] Indeed, the preferred level of English for entry to the program is *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) level B1 (Independent User – Threshold) (see Council of Europe, 2001, 2020).[8] At the B1 level, an individual:

- can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.
- can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken.
- can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest.
- can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions, and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans (see Council of Europe, 2020).[9]

1.2 The Philosophical Foundations of the Teacher Preparation Program

Every educational program is based on a philosophical foundation. Often, this philosophical foundation is unarticulated, or at the very least not clearly articulated. This leads not only to conceptual confusion but to contradictions between theory and practice in the classroom. One can see just such a contradiction in all too many TESOL classrooms, where instructors honestly believe that they are teaching in a constructivist manner even as what they actually do in the classroom is clearly reflective of a set of behaviorist

theories about language learning and teaching. We believe, therefore, that it is important for us to identify, in some detail, the philosophical underpinnings of the TTPP.

At heart, perhaps the most significant issue that we wish to raise here is the distinction between *teacher training* and *teacher education.* These terms are often used as synonyms, but we would argue that they represent radically different views of learning and teaching, and have dramatically different implications for how teachers should be prepared. The distinction, in short, is *not* merely a semantic one, but fundamental to the entire TESOL endeavor. In a nutshell, when we talk about teacher training and teacher education, the terms *training* and *education* mean quite different things. *Training* is used to describe predictable responses to particular stimuli – it is, in essence, a behaviorist concept, and is appropriately used when we are talking about such things as military training, animal training, or toilet training. In all of these cases, the goal is – perfectly legitimately – based on the idea that there is a single desired response to a set stimulus. In none of these cases are we concerned with high-level intellectual processing, nor are we interested in creativity or innovation in any of them. If we talk about *teacher training*, we are suggesting a conception of teaching that is basically technicist in nature – one that presupposes that the classroom teacher simply needs to respond to any situation in the classroom in the "correct" manner. Such a view also implies that students are predictable and respond to different stimuli in foreseeable ways. Teacher *education*, on the other hand, is based on a conception of the "educated person" – who can be expected to engage in thoughtful reflection and decision-making, but whose responses to different situations will be quite unpredictable.[10] The idea of *teacher training* assumes that teachers are fundamentally technicians; that of *teacher education* assumes that teachers are intellectuals, and even potentially transformative intellectuals (see Giroux, 2011, 2025; Lester, 1993; Téllez & Varghese, 2013). Our commitment, and the objective of the TTPP, is the *education* of future teachers. As Mark Van Doren once observed,

> *"Good teachers have always been and will always be, the necessity henceforth is that fewer of them be accidents. The area of accident is reduced when there is a design which includes the education of teachers. Not the training -- a contemporary term that suggests lubricating oil and precision parts, not to say reflexes and responses."* (Van Doren, 1959, pp. 170-171)

Toward this end, we now turn to the two major ways in which this objective can be met: by taking the "*teacher education knowledge base*" into account, and by focusing on reflective practice throughout the TTPP.

1.2.1 Shulman and Teacher Education Knowledge Base

The educational psychologist Lee Shulman identified seven broad categories of knowledge that he argued constitute the major components of the knowledge base for the classroom teacher (Shulman, 1987, 2000). Although seemingly somewhat dated, Shulman's conceptualization has continued to be used widely, most especially in the K-

12 teacher education literature (see Ben-Peretz, 2011; Herold, 2019; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Kansanen, 2009). Adapted for our purposes here to suit the needs of the future TESOL university educators, Shulman's categories include:

- future TESOL educators at the university level should possess not only communicative ability in English but also concomitant knowledge about English, coupled with and supported by familiarity with applied linguistics.
- general pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that transcend and are independent of specific subject matter, as these are appropriate for the university classroom.
- an awareness of curriculum knowledge, with a particular grasp of the materials and programs related to TESOL.
- "pedagogical content knowledge," that special mix of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge that constitutes the professional understanding unique to classroom teachers.
- a knowledge of adult learners, their characteristics, and different adult learning theories and approaches.
- a knowledge of university educational contexts, ranging from the workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of universities, to the character of communities and cultures. This knowledge should also be supplemented with some degree of familiarity with pre-university schooling.
- a knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds in the university context. (Shulman, 1987, p. 54)

1.2.2 Reflective Practice

In 1983, Donald Schön published *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*. This book was written to explore how effective practitioners in a number of different professions – including engineering, architecture, management, psychotherapy, and town planning – actually go about problem-solving in their work. It was later followed by *Educating the Reflective Practitioner: Toward a New Design for Teaching and Learning in the Professions* (Schön, 1987), which focused on the preparation of professionals. Although not intended to focus specifically on teacher education, its impact on teacher education has been considerable. Most teacher preparation programs in the Anglo-American world now include among their goals the development of "*reflective practitioners*" – indeed, at least rhetorically, the concept of "*reflective practice*" has become ubiquitous. The idea of the teacher as reflective practitioner is not a new one, nor did it actually originate with Schön. The American philosopher and progressive educator John Dewey wrote about the need for reflective thinking in the early twentieth century (see Dewey, 1910, 1933, 1938), arguing that while we can "*reflect*" on a whole host of things in the sense of merely "*thinking about*" them, *logical* or *analytic*, reflection requires a real-world problem to be solved. As he explained,

"The general theory of reflection, as over against its concrete exercise, appears when occasions for reflection are so overwhelming and so mutually conflicting that specific adequate response in thought is blocked. Again, it shows itself when practical affairs are so multifarious, complicated, and remote from control that thinking is held off from successful passage into them." (Dewey, 1976, p. 300)

In other words, reflective practice can be said to take place only when the individual is faced with a *real* problem or situation that they need to resolve, and that they seek to resolve in a rational manner.

In teacher education, reflective practice is concerned with improving the quality of classroom instruction. To accomplish this, we must bear in mind that much of what every classroom teacher actually does – as is the case in other professions -- involves making judgments and decisions, generally with limited and insufficient information. Teaching can be conceptualized in terms of the role of the teacher as a decision-maker. Robert Fitzgibbons argues that teachers make three kinds of decisions: decisions concerned with *educational outcomes* (with the goals of the educational experience), those concerned with the *matter of education* (with what is taught), and those concerned with the *manner of education* (with how teaching should occur) (Fitzgibbons, 1981, pp. 13-14). When a teacher engages in decision-making, they are not just taking a course of action or acting in a certain way. The *process* of decision-making, as Dewey suggested, needs to be one in which the teacher weighs alternatives, and employs criteria to select a particular course of action. However, as Jere Brophy has noted, "*most studies of teachers' interactive decision-making portray it as more reactive than reflective, more intuitive than rational, and more routinized than conscious*" (quoted in Irwin, 1987, p. 1).[11] *Good* teaching, however, inevitably requires reflective, rational and conscious decision-making. More than 50 years ago, Charles Silberman wrote that, "*We must find ways of stimulating [teachers] … to think about what they are doing and why they are doing it*" (Silberman, 1971, p. 380, emphasis added). A key element in this process of decision-making is that the teacher be able to justify their decisions and actions in the classroom. Justification of decisions is a fairly simple and straightforward matter: "*To provide a justification for a course of action is to provide good reasons or grounds for that course of action*" (Hamm, 1989, p. 163). To be able to provide such justification, the teacher cannot rely either on instinct alone or on prepackaged sets of techniques. Instead, they must think about what is taking place and what options are available in a critical, analytic way – they must engage in *reflection* about their practice.

Reflective practice can be understood as a cyclical process, moving from *reflection-for-practice* through *reflection-in-practice* and to *reflection-on-practice,* which then leads on to new *reflection-for-practice* (see Killion & Todnem, 1991; Norlander-Case *et al.*, 1999; Reagan *et al.*, 2000; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Schön, 1983, 1987; Zeichner & Liston, 1987, 1996) (see Figure 1). *Reflection-for-practice* refers to the reflective planning and preparation that precedes the classroom teaching event. This includes not only formal lesson and unit planning, but also the teacher's analysis of likely pedagogical, learning and management

problems and challenges that might emerge in a particular class when dealing with a specific topic. All teachers engage in reflection-for-practice, though they do so with varying degrees of thoroughness and effectiveness.
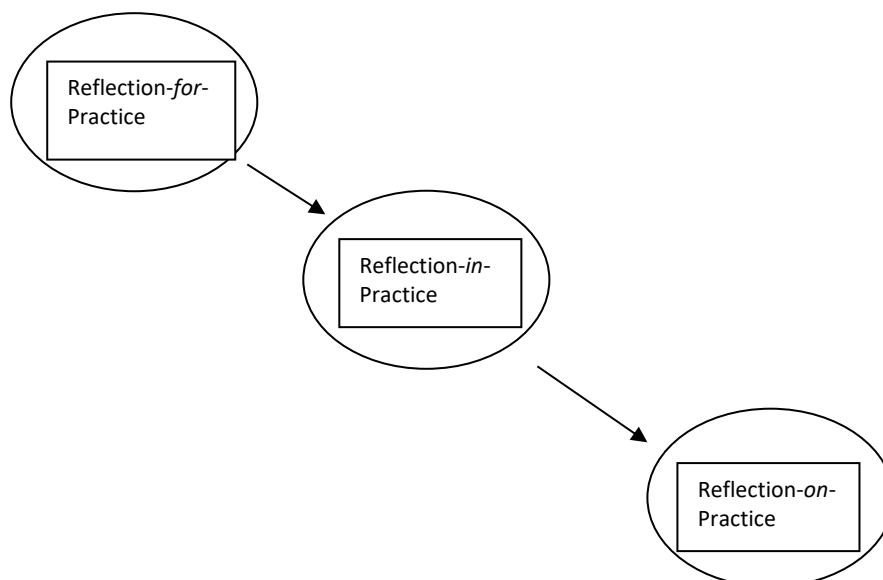
Figure 1: Reflective Practice Cycle

Reflection-on-practice takes place at the other end of the teaching event -- it refers to *retrospective* reflection on what took place during the class. Again, all teachers engage in reflection-on-practice, though they do so in very different ways, some of which are far more effective than others. Good reflection-on-practice should lead to new reflection-for-practice, thereby completing the reflective practice cycle.

Fundamentally different in kind from reflection-for-practice and reflection-on-practice is *reflection-in-practice*, which is concerned with what has been called "*tacit knowledge*" in the classroom (Polanyi, 1966). It involves the teacher's ability to utilize their unarticulated, often unconscious, knowledge about content, pedagogy, and learners in the classroom context. It is this ability to engage in reflection-in-practice that distinguishes the experienced teacher from the novice. Both may engage in effective, even exemplary, reflection-for-practice and reflection-on-practice, but only the experiential base of the seasoned teacher allows for consistently effective reflection-in-practice. This experiential base develops over time as a result of practice; it helps to explain why no new teacher is likely to be as effective as many more experienced classroom teachers.[12]

Reflection-in-practice and reflection-on-practice, then, are essentially *reactive* in nature, being distinguished primarily by *when* reflection takes place -- with reflection-in-action referring to reflection in the midst of practice, and reflection-on-practice referring to reflection that takes place after an event. Reflection-for-action, on the other hand, is "*the desired outcome of both previous types of reflection. We undertake reflection, not so much to revisit the past or to become aware of the metacognitive process one is experiencing (both noble reasons in themselves), but to guide future action (the more practical purpose)*" (Killion &

Todnem, 1991, p. 15). Thus, reflection-for-practice is *proactive* in nature. All three of these types of reflection are necessary parts of reflective practice. The relative importance of each of these three kinds of reflective practice will change over the teacher's career; for the novice teacher, reflection-for-practice and reflection-on-practice may be the most obvious ways in which their practice is distinguished, while for the more experienced teacher, reflection may be most clearly manifested in their reflection-in-practice. Further, the process of engaging in reflection-for-practice is not as a linear one, but is an on-going spiral, in which each of the elements of reflective practice is constantly involved in an interactive process of change and development. In short, reflective practice involves what the teacher does *before* entering the classroom (in terms of their planning and preparation), *while* in the classroom (both while functioning as an educator and in all of the other roles expected of the classroom teacher), and retrospectively, *after* the lesson has ended and the teacher has left the classroom.

2. The Structure of Teacher Preparation Program

The organizational structure of the proposed TTPP consists of three components: academic coursework, clinical or fieldwork in classroom settings in which English is being taught, and reflective seminars, in which all facets of the TTPP are brought together by both students and instructors (see Figure 2). Based on the integrated bachelors/master's degree teacher preparation program at the University of Connecticut, this model was consistently shown to be highly effective in preparing caring, reflective educators committed to both issues of social justice and the improvement of educational practice in K-12 settings in the United States (see Alfano, 2001; Campbell *et al.*, 1995; Case *et al.*, 1995; French, 2005; Mulready, 2005; Norlander *et al.*, 1997; Norlander-Case *et al.*, 1998, 1999; Reagan *et al.*, 1993, 1994, 2008; Schwab *et al.*, 2004; Truxaw *et al.*, 2011). The world language education component of the integrated bachelors/master's degree program was also recognized in 2005 as a "national exemplary program" by New Visions in Action. We would argue that, given its success in that setting, there is no reason to believe that it might not be adapted to serve similar goals in the TTPP.
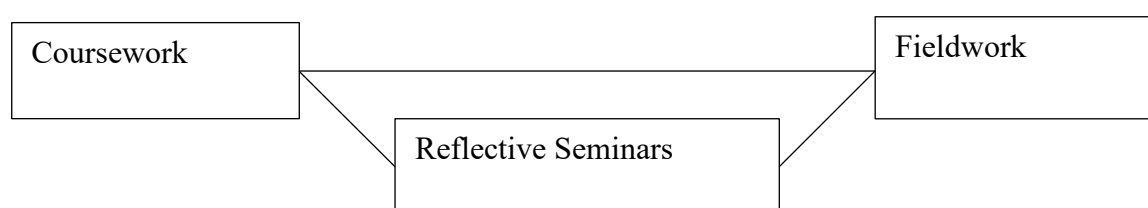
Figure 2: TESOL Teacher Preparation Program Structure

2.1 The Academic Coursework

The academic coursework in the TTPP is divided into four distinct categories: English language courses, linguistics courses, pedagogical courses, and the capstone project. The

English Language Category, focused on different aspects of the English language and the English-speaking world, includes the following courses:

- English Pedagogical Grammar,
- English Literature (5 terms):
    - The History of British Literature,
    - The History of American Literature,
    - Contemporary British Literature,
    - Contemporary American Literature,
    - Post-Colonial English Literatures.
- English Composition (2 terms),
- English Conversation (2 terms),
- History of the English-Speaking World.

Students may also select an elective course related directly to English literature. Among the possible elective courses that might be considered would be:

- Selected Plays of Shakespeare,
- Foundations of Literary Analysis,
- Literary Studies,
- Introduction to Creative Writing,
- Narrative Writing,
- Scientific and Technical Writing,
- Poetry,
- Indigenous English-Language Literature,
- African-American Literature,
- Modern Drama,
- The Short Story,
- The Modern Novel.

The second category of coursework is courses that seek to provide students with a solid background in linguistics and applied linguistics. Included in the *Linguistics Category* are:

- Introduction to Linguistics/Applied Linguistics:
    - Phonology,
    - Morphology and Syntax,
    - Sociolinguistics,
    - Second Language Acquisition,
    - Comparative Linguistics.

It should be noted that the course in Comparative Linguistics is designed to provide students with an overview of the comparative phonology, morphology, and syntax of English and the socially dominant language in their society (which is often likely to be their – and their future students' -- native language). In some settings, it may make pedagogical sense to either teach this course in the socially dominant language or at least bilingually. There are a variety of courses that might be offered as electives related to this category, including such options as:

- History of the English Language,
- Englishes in the World,
- Advanced Phonology for Students of English,
- Language and Power,
- Advanced Sociolinguistics,
- Semantics.

Next, there is the *Pedagogical Category*, which includes the required and elective courses that focus explicitly on the teaching of English and related classroom matters. The mandatory courses in this category include a 1-credit introductory course, Foundations of TESOL, taken during the first term of the program and designed to provide students with an overview of both the TTPP itself and the profession of TESOL. In addition, the other mandatory pedagogical courses are TESOL Teaching Methods, Classroom Assessment, and Curriculum Design and Development. Students interested in the teaching of English at other levels and in school settings may take elective pedagogical courses, including English as a Foreign Language in the Primary Grades and English as a Foreign Language in the Secondary Grades.

Finally, an important component of the TTPP is that every student must complete a capstone project during the final term of the program.[13] The capstone project will function as the equivalent of an honor's degree thesis. The capstone project will entail both a written report (in English) and a formal oral presentation. The presentation might take place either in the reflective seminar with the student's classmates or in a more public setting. The capstone is an action research project, most often based on an issue or topic that arose during the student teaching experience, which the student wishes to understand more clearly, develop more effective responses to, etc. (see Altrichter *et al.*, 2002; Koshy, 2005; McNiff, 2013; Somekh, 2005; Stringer & Aragón, 2020). Although each student will present their findings from the capstone project during the reflective seminar in the final term of the TTPP, the ultimate goal of the capstone project is to improve one's own pedagogical practice. It is thus an effort to bring all three of the fundamental components of the TTPP together.

2.2 The Field Experience

As Ilana Horn and Sara Campbell have observed, "*A common critique of teacher education centres on the gap between coursework and schools, with ample evidence that novice teachers seldom bring ambitious forms of instruction into classroom placements*" (Horn & Campbell, 2015, p. 149). Indeed, it would be an understatement to suggest that there is growing recognition among teacher educators of all sorts about the central role that field experiences can and should play in teacher preparation. Field experiences, which are essentially the clinical component of a teacher preparation program, provide settings in which novice teachers become more reflective, develop improved pedagogical judgment, and can become more socially conscious and committed to issues of fairness and justice in the classroom (see Goodman & Fish, 1997; Hollins, 2015; Zeichner, 1981, 2002, 2010). If one were to attempt to summarize the general consensus in the teacher education world

with respect to the place of field experiences, it would almost certainly be *"earlier and oftener"* (see Aiken & Day, 1999; Coffey, 2010; Hollins, 2015).

With this general background with respect to the role of fieldwork in mind, the proposed TTPP seeks to incorporate field experiences during every term of the program, from the very beginning to the end of the program. The field experiences will take place with a range of different kinds of students, in different types of settings, and should involve the teacher candidates in increasing levels of pedagogical responsibility in the classroom and with respect to student learning. In addition, the field experiences should be tied to the academic coursework that students are studying, and ought also to play an important organizing and thematic role in the reflective seminars. With the exception of student teaching, students will not receive course credit for the field experience because its activities will be graded in their academic courses and in the reflective seminars.

2.3 The Reflective Seminars

In the tripartite organizational structure of the proposed TTPP (see Figure 2), two of the components – the academic coursework and the field experiences – are not fundamentally different from the components found in many other TESOL certification and master's degree programs. What makes the proposed TTPP unique, however, is the third component of the organizational structure – the reflective seminars. There is a reflective seminar each term of the six terms of the TTPP, and it is in the reflective seminar that the content taught in academic courses and the individual student experiences in the field experiences (that is, in the clinical settings) can come together, under the leadership of a faculty member, in a manner that will allow student reflection, decision-making, and problem-solving to occur. This process will take place both individually and as the seminar members work together to make sense of the different parts of the successes and challenges faced by each member of the reflective seminar. The guiding practice of the reflective seminar will be based on the ideas about reflective practice described earlier in the article. The curriculum of the TTPP, with all three of its component parts included, is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Plan of Study of the TESOL Teacher Preparation Program

Year	First Term		Second Term	
	Course	Credit Hours	Course	Credit Hours
Year 1	Foundations of TESOL	1	English Literature II	3
	English Literature I	3	English Composition I	3
	English Conversation I	3	Morphology and Syntax	3
	Introduction to Linguistics	3	Sociolinguistics	3
	Phonology	3		
	Field Experience	NC	Field Experience	NC
	Reflective Seminar	3	Reflective Seminar	3

Year 2	English Literature III	3	English Literature IV	3
	English Composition II	3	Second Language Acquisition	3
	English Ped. Grammar	3	Comparative Linguistics*	3
	Sociolinguistics	3	TESOL Teaching Methods	3
	Curriculum Design	3	Classroom Assessment	3
	Field Experience	NC	Field Experience	NC
	Reflective Seminar	3	Reflective Seminar	3
Year 3**			English Literature V	3
			English Conversation II	3
			History of the English-Speaking World	3
	Student Teaching	15	*Elective*	3
	Reflective Seminar	3	Capstone Project	NC
			Reflective Seminar	3

*Comparative Linguistics may be taught in an appropriate language other than English.
**Students do not take coursework during the Student Teaching experience.

3. Conclusion

Our goal in this article is to propose a teacher preparation program for future, NNSs of English who wish to become university-level TESOL instructors. The program proposed is a three-year one, involving an ongoing, triadic combination of academic coursework, field experiences, and reflective seminars. It rests upon a series of underlying philosophical and practical commitments, including the ideas that such teacher preparation must:

- entail extensive, practical field experiences in different settings in which the student engages in increasingly complex and responsible ways, culminating in a full-time student teaching experience in which they would take full responsibility for all aspects of the classroom.
- prepare the future TESOL educator to engage in ongoing reflective inquiry based on the objective of improving their pedagogical practice.
- ensure that the future TESOL instructor is committed to the provision of the most appropriate educational experience for all students, meeting the social and academic needs of every pupil in their classroom.
- encourage the future TESOL educator to become a lifelong learner, dedicated to improving both their linguistic and pedagogical knowledge and skills through professional development and other kinds of opportunities. (see Darling-Hammond, 2006; Korthagen *et al.*, 2006; Vélez-Rendón, 2002).

With respect to the linguistic competence of the graduates of such a program, the preferred exit level proficiency level would be at least a CEFR score of C2 (Proficient

User-Mastery), with a minimum proficiency level of CEFR C1 (Proficient User-Advanced) (see Council of Europe, 2001, 2020). In other words, the overarching objective of the sort of teacher preparation program proposed here is for future TESOL instructors from non-native English-speaking backgrounds to as great an extent as possible. Such a goal, while to some extent perhaps not completely achievable, can and should function as a worthwhile and viable *aspirational* objective toward which we must strive.

Notes

1. There are multiple acronyms used to describe different elements and foci of the field of teaching English to non-English speakers. While we have chosen to use TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), other labels include TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language), ESL (English as a Second Language), ELT (English Language Teaching), EFA (English as a Foreign Language), ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages), EAL (English as an Additional Language), and ENL (English as a New Language), among others.

2. There are multiple problems with the concept of the "native speaker." First, the word "native" is sometimes taken to be racist, or at the very least to carry racist overtones. Second, there is the problem of the "ideology of nativism" – including the recognition that the NS is actually a hypothetical (and idealized) construct that confuses linguistic competence and linguistic performance (see Tupas, 2022). In the context of TESOL, though, the greatest problem is the historic assumption that NSs will be more effective TESOL instructors than NNSs. This is a topic that has been of considerable debate in the field (see Aneja, 2016; Braine, 1999; Cook, 2016; Ellis, 2016; Kamhi-Stein, 2016; Mahboob, 2005). Rather than repeat that debate here, we will simply note that in our view the reliance on NSs (let alone giving such individuals preference over NNSs) is profoundly misguided.

3. Our survey included a random sample of higher educational institutions in the United States that offer certificate programs (either undergraduate or graduate) or master's degrees in TESOL. The survey included both public and private institutions, of varying sizes, in different geographic regions, as well as face-to-face, blended, and online programs. The institutions examined included Brigham Young University, Colorado State University, Columbia University (Teachers College), Indiana University, Michigan State University, Pennsylvania State University, Southern Illinois University (Carbondale), the University of Arizona, the University of Florida, the University of Georgia, the University of Illinois (Champaign-Urbana), the University of Louisville, the University of Nebraska (Lincoln), the University of Oklahoma, the University of Rhode Island, the University of Southern California, the University of Southern Maine, the University of Texas (San Antonio), the University of Utah, and the University of Washington.

4. Including the *Position Statement on the Status of, and Professional Equity for, the Field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*, the *Position Statement on*

Independent TESL/TEFL Certificate Programs, and the *Position Statement on Terminal Degree for Teaching English as a Second, Foreign, or Additional Language in particular*.

5. For instance, both synchronous and asynchronous distance options can be used to allow students to be exposed to and interact with expert guest speakers, to participate in one-to-one interactions with both NSs and NNSs of English beyond their own campus, and to experience (albeit second-hand) various social and cultural aspects of life in English-speaking societies (see Blake, 2009; Vorobel & Kim, 2012; White, 2006).

6. The TTPP presented in this article is based on a three-year program. In some contexts, it may be both possible to offer the program as a four-year one. There are a number of ways in which this might take place. One, using the U.S. model as a guide, would be to utilize the first year to provide students with a "general education" curriculum prior to beginning their formal English, linguistics, and pedagogical academic coursework. For students who may be planning on teaching in scientific or technical institutions, such an additional year of study – during which they might, for instance, study chemistry, biology, physics, mathematics, and so on, could prove invaluable in their later teaching careers.

7. The possible exception to the English-medium nature of the TTPP is the Comparative Linguistics course, taught in the second term in Year 2, as will be discussed shortly.

8. It is interesting to note that Michael Byram (2023) has argued that in some significant ways the earlier volume is more useful than the latter one. For readers not familiar with the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, correspondences to the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale, both the TOEFL (Internet-Based Test, IBT) and TOEFL (Institutional Testing Program, ITP), and the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) are provided here:

CEFR	ILR	TOEFL (IBT)	TOEFL (ITP)	IELTS
A1	0-1			
A2	1+	10-15 (speaking) 7-12 (writing)	337	
B1	2-2+	42-71	460	4.0-5.0
B2	3-3+	72-94	543	5.5-6.5
C1	4	95-120	627	7.0-8.0
C2	4+			8.5-9.0

9. It is important that the language proficiency of students entering the TTPP be accurately measured prior to matriculation. Although there are obvious administrative advantages to a program selecting a single measure (such as the IELTS), this is by no means essential.

10. There is an extensive literature in philosophy of education that addresses the complex notion and characteristics of an "educated person" (see, for example, Barrow & Woods, 1988; Hamm, 1989; Hirst, 1974; Peters, 1966, 1973a, 1973b).

11. It is important to note here that this criticism is not so much directed toward teachers as it is of the environment in which teachers work. For the quality of teacher decision-making to improve, more is required than simply changing teacher preparation. In addition, the many structural and organizational barriers to reflective practice must also be addressed – hence, calls for reflective practice properly understood inevitably involve concomitant changes in school organization and culture.

12. It is important to note here, however, that the experience on its own does not necessarily improve practice. We are reminded of an old adage that stresses this very point: "There are some teachers with 25 years of experience, but there are also some teachers with one year of teaching experience that took place 25 times."

13. In our view, it would be ideal for all future TESOL instructors who are NNSs of English to have the opportunity to study abroad at an institution in an English-dominant society. The effectiveness of such study abroad programs for future language teachers is well-documented (see Allen & Dupuy, 2012; Davidson, 2007, 2010; Dwyer, 2004; Kinginger, 2011, 2013). While there are challenges associated with study abroad programs (see Douglas & Jones-Rikkers, 2001; McLeod & Wainwright, 2009), there is really no viable substitute for students living and studying in places in which the target language is the daily spoken language, and to the extent possible every student should have the opportunity to study abroad in an English-speaking setting. However, we recognize that for many – perhaps the vast majority – of students, such study will be financially or otherwise impossible. For those where it would be possible, the best place in the TTPP for such study abroad to occur – both programmatically and with respect to student fluency in English – would be in the final term of the program.

Conflict of Interest Statement
The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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