THE INVESTIGATION OF EFFECTIVENESS AND PRACTICALITY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN TAIWAN: RETROSPECTIONS AND INTROSPECTIONS

LI, WEI-YAN

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THE INVESTIGATION OF EFFECTIVENESS AND PRACTICALITY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN TAIWAN: RETROSPECTIONS AND INTROSPECTIONS

LI, WEI-YAN, MIGUEL

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LI, WEI-YAN, MIGUEL

A thesis submitted on partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Education

School of Education
The University of Durham
2013
Declaration

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Abstract

This present follow-up mixed methods research aims to investigate the effectiveness and practicality of the English language teachers’ (ELTs) initial education programs in Taiwan. In terms of effectiveness, the comprehensiveness of the training contents, the trainees’ learning achievement, and the trainees’ satisfaction rate of the training are investigated, whereas the applicability of the trained knowledge and skills in real teaching is examined at an attempt to probe into the practicality of the trainings. To meet the research objectives, a competency framework, consisting the suggested types of knowledge and skills as well as personal traits for contemporary ELTs, termed FRPC, was proposed and then used as the criterion of the investigation. The FRPC was established based on the findings from both the literature reviews and the analysis of the social contexts in Taiwan, and then further consolidated by the results from the Expert’s Opinion Survey. Three groups of trainees, each representing one training channel in Taiwan, were selected. Three types of data were gathered for analysis: the trainees’ opinions at the pre- and the post-training stages, the trainers’ interview data at the post-training stage, and the trainees’ interview data at the post-practicum stages in both 2008 and 2011. In short, the data were products of the trainees’ and trainers’ introspections, in which the transformations of the trainees’ competencies, beliefs and attitudes are centred.
The quantitative data reveal four main findings: (1) the trainees value all the professional competencies (PCs) in the FRPC with different degrees, (2) most of the trainings of the suggested PCs are provided in the training programs, (3) positive progressions of the trainees on most of the trained components are indicated, and (4) despite the progressions, most trainees are satisfied with only half of the training contents. This may imply that even though progressions are made in the trainings, the degrees of progressions are generally considered insufficient for dealing with the complexity in teaching and learning. On the whole, the qualitative data reveals the trainees’ positive confirmations of both the importance of the PCs in the FRPC and the practicality of the trained knowledge and skills in their authentic teaching settings. One point, however, is implied in the trainees’ data: though the importance of an ELT’s personal traits are emphasized, since they are neither evaluated nor trained, their emphasis in the FRPC should be reconsidered.
Dedication

This work and honour is dedicated
to my Heavenly Father and my mother,
who have always been looking after me
and are smiling down at me from above.
Acknowledgement

Many people were involved in the completion of this doctoral thesis. Over the past years of overcoming trials and tribulation, they had all supported me with kindness, so I can come this far to fulfil my promise. First of all, special thanks go to the two who let my dream attainable: Professor Fleming and Professor Byram. Throughout the years, their intellectual simulations had greatly inspired me to change myself to untiringly become a more critical and independent research. I would also like to express my graduate to Professor Martha Young-Scholten and Dr. Bruce A. Scholten, two of kindest people with whom I had my first beer and who wisely taught me how to be a proper, yet naughty lady. Their kind comfort and many homemade delicious pizzas had warmed up and sweetened many bitter cold nights at Durham. A special appreciation is also given to the trainees in this study. It has been a great honour and pleasure for me to take part in their journeys of happiness and bitterness; it is only with their generous sharing that their struggles could be explicitly portrayed and their dream-pursuit stories could be well told in this research.

Reflecting upon this path of fulfilling my doctoral studies, many obstacles were encountered, some conquered and some submitted. Constant comforts were given as well as received, and self-affirmations were made to convince the dear ones and myself that to be crowned the honour in the end of the path, not only hard work but also compromises, or sacrifices in some cases, were inevitable. Even though at the very end of the journey, it is no longer clear or easy to provide a definite answer to the right or wrong of these trade-offs, it is only after a decade or two the achievement or/and contribution I could make to the well-beings of the others and my people, it is then the worthiness of the decisions made during this journey could be better defined. Nevertheless, I would still very much like to take this opportunity to thank all the
people who have provided me supports and encouragements during my highs and lows. To begin with, I would like to show my great appreciation to my family, namely, my father, my brother, my sister-in-law, and my aunts. My father, even as a quiet man he has always been, has continually shown his support by standing by every decision I have made. My brother and sister-in-law have also shared their care for me by shouldering the familial duties during the time which I was fully occupied with the study. My aunts, one of whom had devoted her efforts to make my mother’s last remaining time easier and the other has often been my shield while accompanying me through the valley of shadow and alleviating my fears of evils by incessantly praying for me, have demonstrated their respect for my mother through their generosity of unconditional love to me and my family.

Sincere gratitude is given to my dear friends, who often put up with my waywardness and insensitivity. My study would be disrupted without Paul’s warm encouragement, and the loneliness would be much more unbearable without my soul mentor Jane’s late night messages and motherly whispers. I was also very fortunate to have two friends keep me accompanied during my last stage of the study. I recovered faith in the tears of my dearest friend Dolly reminding me of my own value even if the success would not have been attained. While all I could do was tell myself to keep breathing before entering the battlefield of my last fight, I was blessed by an god-sent angel named Vicky who held my hand and led my way to the victory.

Last but not the least, I would like to acknowledge a special someone who has been my friend, my teacher and my significant other. He has encouraged me to dream big, and has provided me the wind to fly high. When challenged, he shares his wisdom and inspires me to seek possibilities; when defeated, he pushes me to face my fears and enable me to get back on my own feet. I am an aggressive achiever and an optimistic fighter as what others may see me,
because he allows me to stretch my wings and embraces my toils and incompleteness upon my each return despite my success or failure. My incompleteness was made complete as he firmly stated, “We may not be in the same world, but my world is surely the closest to yours.”
Table of Contents

Abstract i
Dedication iii
Acknowledgement iv
Table of Contents vii
Lists of Illustrations, Tables, Diagrams, Figures, Flowcharts and Abbreviations xviii

Chapter 1: Introduction 1 ~ 21

1.0 Preamble 1
1.1 Motivation 2
1.2 Purpose of the Present Research 4
1.3 Introduction to the Present Research 4
   1.3.1 The research designs 5
   1.3.2 The research questions 9
   1.3.3 Preliminary assumptions 10
1.4 Criticisms of Competency-Based Education and Justifications for the Establishment of the FRPC for ELTs 11
1.5 Significance of the Present Research 18
1.6 Personal Statement 19
1.7 Organization of the Thesis 21

Chapter 2: Introduction to ELT’s Initial Education Programs 22 ~ 37

in Taiwan

2.0 Introduction 22
2.1 Definitions 23
   2.1.1 University of Education 23
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1.2</td>
<td>20-Credit English Program</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.3</td>
<td>English as the 2nd Expertise Program</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.4</td>
<td>Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.5</td>
<td>Screening Test</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Introduction to the Elementary School ELT’s Initial Education</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Brief Introduction to English Teacher Education in Taiwan</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1</td>
<td>The earliest stage of the implementation of English education:</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ELT cultivation program 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2</td>
<td>Stage 2 of the Implementation of English education: ELT cultivation programs 2</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.3</td>
<td>Stage 3 of the implementation of English education: ELT cultivation programs 3</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.4</td>
<td>Contemporary &amp; long-term plans of implementation of English education:</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ELT cultivation programs 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Chapter 3: Professional Competencies for ELTs: Knowledge**

**Base & Personal Traits**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Definitions</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1</td>
<td>Teacher Training &amp; Development</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2</td>
<td>Competency</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Professional Competencies Suggested in an Able ELT</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2.1</td>
<td>General Pedagogical Knowledge (GPK)</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2.2</td>
<td>Knowledge of Learners (KL)</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2.3 Knowledge of Educational Context (KEC) 48
3.2.4 Knowledge of Education Ends, Purposes, and Values (KEU) 49
3.2.5 Content Knowledge (CK): Subject Matter Knowledge & Knowledge of Curriculum (KC) 49
3.2.6 Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) 52
3.2.7 Summary of Section 3.2 55

3.3 The Professional Competencies Reflecting the Modern Demands 55
3.3.1 Attitudes & Beliefs (A&B) 56
3.3.2 Knowledge and Skills of Technology-Assisted Language Teaching (KST) 58
3.3.3 Knowledge and Skills of Research Skills (KSR) 59
3.3.4 Knowledge of Cultures (KCL) 60
3.3.5 Summary of Section 3.3 62

3.4 The Establishment of the Framework of Required PCs for ELTs (FRPC) 62
3.4.1 The PC areas, the PC forms and the competency indicators 63
3.4.2 The dimension I: the proposed knowledge base 66
3.4.2.1 The fundamental knowledge & skills 66
3.4.2.2 The modern demanded knowledge & skills 69 (MDKS)
3.4.3 Dimension II: the personality traits 70

3.5 Summary of the Chapter 70

Chapter 4: The Required Professional Competencies for English 72~102
Language Teachers at Elementary School Levels: in the case of Taiwan

4.0 Introduction 72

The Social Contexts of Taiwan: Important Factors Contributing to the PC Base of the ELTs in Taiwan

4.1

4.1.1 Factor 1: political force 74

4.1.1.1 Its influence upon the PC base to the ELTs in Taiwan 74

4.1.2 Factor 2: G1-9C 76

4.1.2.1 Its influence upon the framework of PCs 78

a. The emphasis of decentralized curriculum 79

b. The emphasis of multi-channels of assessment 80

c. The emphasis of deregulated textbook policy 81

d. The emphasis of localized text orientation 82

e. The emphasis of humanitarian education 83

f. The emphasis of the modern demanded PCs 84

g. The emphasis of cooperative team work 88

4.1.2.2 Summary of the suggested PCs analysed and extracted from G1-9C 88

4.1.3 Factor 3: Teacher Education Act 90

4.1.3.1 The innovative reforms in Teacher Education Act 90

4.1.3.2 Its influence on the FRPC of ELTs 91

4.1.4 Factor 4: FLES 93

4.2 Summary 95

4.3 The Comparisons of the Suggested PC List for the ELTs in 96
Taiwan (Table 4-15) and the Suggested PCs Generated from the Academic Findings (FRPC)


4.5 Summary of the Chapter and the Preview of the Next Chapter 102

Chapter 5: Methodology 103~155

5.0 Introduction 103

- a. The review of research purposes & questions 103

- b. Present research design 104

- c. Outline of the chapter 105

5.1 Introduction to the Research Design 105

5.1.1 Follow-up study 105

- 5.1.1.1 The potential threats of applying a follow-up study 106

- 5.1.1.2 The solutions to the threats: this present research 107

5.1.2 Mixed methods approach research 108

- 5.1.2.1 Exploratory design: Instrument Development Model (ED-IDM)

- a. The potential threats of applying ED-IDM 111

- b. The solutions to the threats: this present research 111

- 5.1.2.2 Explanatory design: Follow-Up Explanations Model (ED-FEM)

5.1.3 Summary of the present research design & research design Flowchart 113

5.1.4 Participants 116

- 5.1.4.1 Trainee participants 116
5.1.4.2 Expert participants for Expert Opinion Survey (Group A) 123

5.1.4.3 Expert participants for Jury Opinion (Group B) 124

5.1.4.4 Interviewee participants 125

5.2 Data Collection Methods 125

5.2.1 Data Collection Method 1: Questionnaire Instrument 126

5.2.1.1 Questionnaire types: closed/open-ended 126

questionnaire & Likert Scale

a. Characteristics 128

b. Design & administration 129

c. Strengths & weaknesses 129

5.2.1.2 The questionnaire instruments applied in this present research 130

a. The solutions to the potential threats of conducting questionnaires 130

b. The design of the questionnaire instruments 131

b1. The results from Experts’ Opinion Survey 131

b2. The presentation of the questionnaires 135

c. Administration 138

5.2.2 Data Collection 2: Interview Instrument 139

5.2.2.1 Interview instrument type: semi-structured interview 139

a. Characteristics 139

b. Design & administration 140

c. Strengths & weaknesses 141
The interview instrument applied in this present research

5.2.2.2

a. The design and administration of the interviews

Part A. The GQ for the trainee interviewees in 2008

Part B. The GQ for the trainee interviewees in 2011

Part C. The GQ for the trainer interviewees in 2008

5.3 Data Analysis

5.4 Flowchart of Research Plan

5.5 Methodological Issues in the present research

5.6 Validity & Reliability

5.6.1 Peer Review & Experts’ Opinions

5.6.2 Content Validity: Jury Opinion, Test-Retest Reliability, and Pilot Test

5.7 Amendments Made During the Research Time

5.7.1 Subject selection

5.7.2 Educational regulations

5.7.3 The conduction of the 2nd interviews in 2011

5.8 Summary of the Chapter

Chapter 6: Results & Analysis I: Further Consolidation of the FRPC

6.0 Introduction

a. Review of the research purposes and research questions
b.  The process of data collections and the data analysis  
157

c.  Organizations of the results chapters  
158

d.  Focus and outline of the chapter  
160

Sub-Q 1-1: Findings from Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire & 
Post-Practicum Interview I

6.1  Finding 1  
164

6.1.2  Finding 2  
166

6.1.3  Finding 3  
168

   6.1.3.1  Individual groups’ results  
168

   6.1.3.2  Overall results from the 3 groups  
169

6.1.4  Finding 4  
177

   6.1.4.1  Individual groups’ results  
177

   6.1.4.2  Overall Results from the 3 groups  
179

6.1.5  Finding 5  
183

6.1.6  Finding 6  
189

6.1.7  Finding 7  
191

6.1.8  Finding 8  
195

6.1.9  Finding 9  
196

6.2  RQ1: The Comparison of the Results and the FRPC  
199

6.3  Summary of the Findings  
200

6.4  The Introduction to the Next Chapter  
201

Chapter 7: Results & Analysis 2: a Focus on Effectiveness  
203~250

7.0  Introduction  
203

   a.  The focus of the chapter  
203

   b.  Outline of the chapter  
204
7.1 A Focus on the Comprehensiveness

7.1.1 The provided training contents in different training programs

7.1.1.1 The provided training contents in 20-Credit English Program

7.1.1.2 The provided training contents in English as the 2nd Expertise Program

7.1.1.3 The provided training contents in Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers

7.1.2 Summary of the training contents provided in different training Institutes

7.1.3 A Comparison of the results and the FRPC

7.2 A Focus on the Effectiveness

7.2.1 An investigation of the trainees’ learning achievement

7.2.1.1 The self-evaluations at the pre-training stage

a. Finding 1
b. Finding 2
c. Finding 3

7.2.1.2 The self-evaluation at the post-training stage

a. Finding 4
b. Finding 5

7.2.1.3 A comparison of the self-evaluations at the pre-training and the post-training stages

a. Finding 6
b. Finding 7
c. Finding 8 229
d. Finding 9 233
e. Finding 10 236

7.2.1.4 Summary of Section 7.2.1 239

7.2.2 An investigation of the trainees’ satisfaction rate of the training Programs 240

a. Finding 1 241
b. Finding 2 244
c. Finding 3 247
d. Finding 4 248

7.2.2.1 Summary of the Section 7.2.2 249

7.3 Summary of the Chapter and the Preview to the Next Chapter 250

Chapter 8: Results & Analysis 3: a Focus on Practicality 252~275

8.0 Introduction 252

a. Review of the Research Questions 252
b. Outline of the Chapter 253

8.1 The Applicability and Usefulness of the Trainings 254

8.1.1 Finding 1 255
8.1.2 Finding 2 258
8.1.3 Summary of Section 8.1 261

8.2 The Reinforcement to the Trainings 261

8.2.1 Finding 3 262
8.2.2 Finding 4 264
8.2.3 Finding 5 265
8.2.4 Finding 6 267
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.2.5</td>
<td>Summary of Section 8.2</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>The Suggestions to the Trainings in 2011</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3.1</td>
<td>Finding 7</td>
<td>271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>Summary of the Chapter and the Establishment of the Finalized FRPC</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>The Comparison of the Framework of Zhang et al and the Proposed FRPC in This Present Study</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Chapter 9: Conclusion**  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>Summary of the Research and the Findings</td>
<td>278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.2.1</td>
<td>On the aspect of methodological limitations</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.2.2</td>
<td>On the aspect of application limitations</td>
<td>285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>Suggestions</td>
<td>286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Bibliography**

**Appendices**
### List of Illustrations, Tables, Diagrams, Figures and Flowcharts

#### List of Illustrations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Illustration</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-1</td>
<td>Flowchart of the Analysis Process</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-1</td>
<td>Channel of Becoming ELTs at the Earliest Stage</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-2</td>
<td>Channels of Becoming ELTs at the 2\textsuperscript{nd} Stage</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>Channels of Becoming ELTs at the 3\textsuperscript{rd} Stage</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-4</td>
<td>Current Channels of Becoming ELTs</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-1</td>
<td>The Factors Influencing the Trainees’ Ratings of Section 6-1-1</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Tables

Table 2-1  Comparison of the Normal Education Act & the Teacher Education Act  24

Table 4-1  Table of the Implied PCs Reinforced by the Political Factor  70

Table 4-2  Comparison of the Curriculum Standards & G1-9C  73

Table 4-3  The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Decentralized Curriculum of G1-9C  76

Table 4-4  The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Multi-Channels of Assessment of G1-9C  77

Table 4-5  The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Deregulated Textbook Policy of G1-9C  78

Table 4-6  The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Localized Text Orientation of G1-9C  79

Table 4-7  The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Concept of Humanitarian Education of G1-9C  79

Table 4-8  The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Modern Demand of KST  80

Table 4-9  The implied PCs reinforced by the new demand of the promoted concept of integrated learning & teaching of G1-9C  82

Table 4-10  The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Modern Demand of KSR  82

Table 4-11  The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Modern  83
Table 4-12  The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Promoted Concept of Cooperative Team Work

Table 4-13  The Implied PCs Reinforced by G1-9C

Table 4-14  Comparisons of the Features between FLES & the English Education in Taiwan

Table 4-15  The Suggested PC List for ELTs in Taiwan

Table 5-1  Basic Background Information of the G1 Trainees

Table 5-2  Basic Background Information of the G2 Trainees

Table 5-3  Basic Background Information of the G3 Trainees

Table 5-4  Basic Background Information of the G4 Pilot Study Participants

Table 5-5  Brief Explanation of the Representation of the Participant Groups

Table 5-6  The Basic Information of the Six Experts in Group A

Table 5-7  The Basic Information of the Four Experts in Group B

Table 5-8  The Basic Information of the Trainer Interviewees

Table 5-9  The Results from Sub-Section 1 of Expert’s Opinion Survey

Table 5-10  The Results from Sub-Section 2 of Expert’s Opinion Survey

Table 5-11  The Competency Indicators in Part II of Pre-Training Questionnaire Classified into 8 PC
Table 5-12 The Training Components in Part III of Pre-Training Questionnaire Classified into 4 Training Areas

Table 6-1 The Classifications of the Competency Indicators in Section 6-1-1 of Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire

Table 6-2 Groups’ Results of the Degree of Importance of Each Competency Indicator in Section 6-1-1

Table 6-3 G1’s Results of the Ratings for Section 6-1-1

Table 6-4 G2’s Results of the Ratings for Section 6-1-1

Table 6-5 G3’s Results of PCs Ratings for Section 6-1-1

Table 6-6 Comparisons of the Results of the 3 Groups

Table 7-1 The Training Contents Classified into 4 Training Areas

Table 7-2 Comparisons of the Results of Section 6-1-2 of the 3 Groups

Table 7-3 Comparisons of the Results of Section 7-1-1 of the 3 Groups

Table 7-4 The Results of the Comparison of the 3 Groups’ Ratings in Section 7-2-2 of Post-Training Questionnaire

Table 8-1 The Themes, Code and Sub-Codes Analyzed from the Interview Data in 2008 and 2011

Table 8-2 The Results of the Coding of the Code Appendix 12
“Applicability” under the Theme “Practicality”
The Results of the Coding of the Code
“Usefulness” under the Theme “Practicality”

Table 8-3

“Reinforcing to the Trainings” and “Adding New Training” under the Theme “Reinforcing to the Trainings”
The Results of the Coding of the Codes

Table 8-4

“Possible reasons for ineffectiveness”
The Results of the Coding of the Codes “Time constraint” and “Preconditions” under the Theme

Table 8-5

“Reinforcement to the Trainings”
The Results of the Coding of the Codes “Considering urgency” under the Theme

Table 8-6
### List of Diagrams

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diagram</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3-1</td>
<td>The Revised Framework of Required Professional Competencies in Consideration</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of the Modern Demands</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-1</td>
<td>The Revised Framework of Required Professional Competencies in Consideration</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of the Modern Demands in Taiwan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-1</td>
<td>GI1’s Ratings for the Training Durations of Each Training Component</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-2</td>
<td>GI2’s Ratings for the Training Durations of Each Training Component</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-3</td>
<td>GI3’s Ratings for the Training Durations of Each Training Component</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-4</td>
<td>The Results of the Mean Score of Each PC Area at the Pre- &amp; Post-Training</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-1</td>
<td>The Finalized Framework of Required Professional Competencies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appendix 13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### List of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure 6-1</th>
<th>Individual Groups’ Results of the Mean Score of Each Competency Indicator in Section 6-1-1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 6-2</td>
<td>Overall Mean Scores of Each PC Area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 6-3</td>
<td>G1 Individuals’ Choices for Each Competency Indicators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 6-4</td>
<td>G2 Individuals’ Choices for Each Competency Indicators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 6-5</td>
<td>G3 Individuals’ Choices for Each Competency Indicators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7-1</td>
<td>Individual Groups’ Mean Scores of Self-Evaluations of Each PC area at the Pre-Training Stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7-2</td>
<td>Individual Groups’ Mean Scores of Self-Evaluation of KSLT at the Post-Training Stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7-3</td>
<td>Individual Groups' Mean Scores of Self-Evaluations of Each PC area at the Post-Training Stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7-4</td>
<td>Individual Groups’ Mean Scores of the Satisfaction Rates of the Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7-5</td>
<td>Distributions of the Means of Satisfaction Rates of the 3 Groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## List of Flowcharts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flowchart</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5-1</td>
<td>Mixed Methods Design Flowchart</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-2</td>
<td>Research Plan Flowchart</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Abbreviation List

1. A&B: attitudes and beliefs
2. CK: Content knowledge
3. ELT: English language teacher
4. FPDA: Flowchart of the Process of Data Analysis
5. FRPC: Framework of Required Professional Competencies
6. G1-9C: Grades 1-9 Curriculum
7. GEK: General education knowledge
8. GI1: group 1 interviewee
9. GI2: group 2 interviewee
10. GI3: group 3 interviewee
11. GI3-2: group 3 interviewee 2
12. GPK: general pedagogical knowledge
13. GT1: group 1 trainer interviewee
14. GT2: group 2 trainer interviewee
15. GT3: group 3 trainer interviewee
16. GTT: General teaching training
17. KC: knowledge of curriculum
18. KCL: Knowledge of cultures
19. KCX: Knowledge of educational context
20. KE: Knowledge of English
21. KEU: Knowledge of education ends, purposes and values
22. KGEU: Knowledge of general education
23. KL: Knowledge of learner and their characteristics
24. KLT: knowledge of 2nd language learning & teaching
25. KSA: Knowledge and skills of administration
26. KSC: Knowledge of school and community
27. KSI: Knowledge and skills of integrated learning and teaching
28. KST: Knowledge and skills of technology
29. KSLT: Knowledge and skills of learning and teaching
30. KSR: Knowledge and skills of conducting educational research
31. MDKS: Modern demanded knowledge and skills
32. MOE: Ministry of Education in Taiwan
33. LK: English language knowledge
34. PC: professional competency
35. PCK: Pedagogical content knowledge
36. RQ: Research question
37. Sub-Q: sub-question
38. TESOL: Teaching English as an official language
Chapter 1: Introduction

1.0 Preamble

The advance in speed and frequency of the international interactions has demonstrated that the 21st century human civilization has entered the “Age of Communication” (Wallace, 1991). Owing to this fact, how to communicate effectively has been a focused objective in language learning for the global villagers nowadays. In response to the growing tendency of the internationalization and the urgent demand of reinforcing international and domestic competitiveness, the Ministry of Education in Taiwan (MOE)\(^1\) issued the educational reform Grades 1-9 Curriculum (G19C) in 1998. Among the revolutionary policies, the introduction of English education on the elementary level in 2001 was the most influential.

English education was not an official learning subject in elementary schools in the past, and therefore, the reform called for cultivation on vast number of new elementary English language teachers (ELTs). To meet the demand, the MOE adopted different approaches in the past decade, namely, to hold an English proficiency test for ELTs, to train the homeroom teachers to teach English, and to authorize the schools to hire ELTs from private cram schools. However, controversial arguments against these policies such as those teachers’ qualifications to teach English and the legitimacy of introducing private teaching into official schooling arose (Zhan, 2004). To resolve the plight of deficiency of teachers and to alleviate the public’s anxiety, in the past few years, the local educational bureaus, as well as the MOE, have been promoting three different channels of training qualified ELTs in an attempt to provide a better quality

\(^1\) MOE: Ministry of Education in Taiwan is the ministry of central government who makes all education policy in Taiwan.
of teaching.

As a trainer, the author of this research was honored to take part in this educational revolutionary movement and taught at two different training institutes. Though I was pleased to share the joys with some trainees whenever they progressed in the training, it was also my fear whenever I saw them defeated while facing anxiety and desperation. Once, a 40-year-old teacher came for help and asked, “After five years of fighting and substituting part-time, I am still drifting from job to job. Now, I am receiving this new training, so after so much work done, do you think I stand for a chance among these young competitors?” A smile of encouragement was all that I could give, as it was difficult to give a promising confirmation facing an acceptance rate of merely 6.5% that year. As a teacher, I was often reminded by parents’ inquiries of their uncertainty about the quality of the ELTs, as well as the outcomes of their children’s English language learning. The struggles I witnessed on the trainees and the worries reflected on the parents’ faces have initiated my first attempt to step back to introspect on what has been done and what could be done.

1.1 Motivation

English education at elementary school levels has already experienced a history of over a decade, and the discussions focusing on its effectiveness have been targeted as core issues at both official and unofficial conferences. The majority of annual reports by MOE, as well as domestic research concerning the implementation and achievements, have indicated the immaturity and incompleteness of the educational policies (e.g. Wu, 2006; Lou, 2004). Debates have mainly circled around the choice and design of textbooks, the approaches adopted in teaching, the means of evaluating
students’ learning, and in particular, the quality of the teachers (Lou, 2004; Zhan, 2004). Some of the domestic scholars and administrative staffs involved in the studies have shared their concerns upon the shortage of qualified ELTs and the ineffective teacher training programs, which have led them to believe to be crucial factors for the disappointing results of students’ unsatisfying learning outcomes and teachers inadequacy (Jian, 2003; Zhan, 2004). This is said to be a predictable and consequential result of the short practice of such schooling (Lou, 2004). A number of significant scholars and educators have pointed out that teachers hold the key to the entrance of students’ better learning; the ignorance and carelessness of such critical perspective could lead to further disappointments (Yang, 2010; Qui, 2007; Jian, 2003). Therefore, there has been a new voice advocating the needs for better quality of teacher education (e.g. Wu, 2006; Lou, 2004) as well as the establishment of competency-based teaching standards for ensuring the quality of ELTs (e.g. Zhang, 2008; Tang, 2007; Ye, 2004; Rao, 2006).

Wu (2006) argued that teachers hold the key to the success of English education; which correspond to the statement of Terrien (1953) on the fact that teaching is not merely an occupation, but also a professional profession, and that considerable attentions have been given to the question of what constitutes a ‘competent’ language teacher. Teacher’s professional competencies (PCs) in general have been brought into discussion in academia since 1980s (e.g. Liakopoulou, 2011; Steiner, 2010; Korthagen, 2002). There have also been some discussions focusing on the PCs in teaching some particular disciplines (e.g. Chien, 2012; Chauvot, 2008; Fleming, 2007; Grossman, 1990). However, discussion on the PCs required specifically for TESOL is still limited (Murray, 2009; Richards & Farrell, 2005), especially in the case of Taiwan.
Furthermore, the contemporary changes such as technology advancements, social structure, and educational reform taking places in many nations have all played controversial roles in reshaping the required PCs of the present teachers, especially ELTs. Considering the international importance of English teaching and the lack of a more comprehensive framework of PCs, the establishment of a FRPC not only facilitates the awareness of new demands and challenges in teaching profession but also ensures the teacher quality of the training programs in many places.

Lastly, owing to the increasing attention paid to the quality of ELTs, as well as the efforts made to the promotion of English educations at the compulsory education levels, I am fortunate to have earned the recognition and received a research grant from the central government of Taiwan to investigate the success of the English teacher education programs in Taiwan. As an English language teacher, I feel the need to probe into the possible solutions for the current plights of English language education at the compulsory education levels in Taiwan. As a teacher trainer myself, I anticipate to provide an insightful description of the struggles encountered by the prospective teacher trainees. Moreover, as an independent researcher, I am obligated to objectively investigate the causality and correlations among different parties and factors. For all these previous motives, I intend to reinforce the English education in Taiwan by promoting the quality of English teacher education; such intent can only be undertaken after a careful exploration of the status quo of the ELTs’ initial education programs.

1.2 Purpose of the Present Research
Since the quality of ELTs cannot afford to be neglected, the centered questions beyond the current worries fall into two standpoints: what could be done and how it should be done? One way to pursue the intention is to investigate the contemporary ELTs’ problems and fight the way into their better improvements, which seems to be a convenient means for the advantages of being less time-consuming and right targeted. The other way to pursue the enhancement is to closely examine the phenomena to seek for efficient tactics in avoiding similar plights of prospect, which is marked in this study. To achieve this, one principle concern is prioritized: how the qualities of potential ELTs can be assured. In an attempt to obtain the answer, three aspects are highlighted: the expected features in qualified ELTs in the views of the public and authorities in Taiwan, the sources of the future ELTs, and to what extent they are trained. In other words, the purpose of this present research is to find an answer to the question of what PCs are expected in an able ELT in Taiwan and to investigate the effectiveness and the practicality of current training programs in meeting these expectations.

1.3 Introduction to the Present Research

1.3.1 The research designs

As stated previously, this research aims to investigate the success of the current ELT’s initial teacher education in Taiwan. In terms of success, the effectiveness and practicality of the training contents and the outcomes of the trainings are investigated. Regarding the effectiveness, the aspects of the comprehensiveness, the learning achievement of the trainees, and the satisfaction rates of both the trainees’ and the trainers’ toward the training are examined. The comprehensiveness of training contents is defined by identifying the needs of the student, the teachers, and if the
programs are able to facilitate the achievements of the needs by providing relevant training contents. In terms of practicality, the usefulness and applicability of the trained knowledge and skills in real life teaching are discussed. For the purpose of investigation, one central concept needs clarifying: what are expected in an able ELT? It is only with a clear idea of this question in order to examine the first part of investigation: if the training programs are providing the trainings in accordance to what the trainees need for their future teaching profession. Therefore, the proposal of a framework of required professional competencies (FRPC) not only helps to portray a competent ELT, but also fulfills the intention of answering the research questions using FRPC as the criterion. How the FRPC is generated and how it contributes to the fulfillment of the research purposes of this present research are illustrated in Illustration 1-1 (p. 7).

To summarize Illustration 1-1, this study is designed as a mixed methods research. To answer the research questions, a blueprint of the FRPC is generated based on the analysis of the findings in the international and domestic literatures relevant to the discussion of ELTs’ as well as elementary school teachers’ PCs. This proposed FRPC is also developed further in consideration of the social contexts of Taiwan (Analysis Data 1 of Part A in Illustration 1-1). Two types of research designs, Exploratory Design and Explanatory Design, are employed in the data collection. Exploratory Design suggested by Creswell (2003) and Creswell & Planto Clark (2008) is firstly adopted for developing the questionnaires instrument, where the competency indicators in the questionnaires are developed based on the PCs proposed in the FRPC. Explanatory Design, in which questionnaires are firstly administered followed by the conduction of interviews, is then applied to exam the effectiveness and practicality of
the training programs. That is to say, the comprehensiveness of the training contents, the satisfactions of the trainees towards the trainings, and the trainees’ self-evaluations of their own training outcomes are revealed from the findings from the quantitative data, questionnaires at the pre- and post-training stages, as well as the qualitative data gathered at post-practicum stages (Analysis Data 3~6 of Part B in Illustration 1-1). The practicalities of the trained knowledge and skills in real life teaching are examined by the qualitative instrument, semi-structured interviews, which are conducted at post-practicum stage and three years after the completions of the whole training (Analysis Data 7 & 8 of Part B in Illustration 1-1).
Illustration 1-1. Flowchart of the Process of Data Analysis (FPDA)

Research Question: What is expected in an able ELT?

Methods:
1. Taiwan’s social contexts analysis
2. Reviews or relevant studies

Framework of Professional competencies for ELT generated

The validity of FRPC

Method:
6 experts’ opinions

Analysis data 1

Used as the Criterion for Part B analysis

The validation of FRPC

Sub-Q1-1

Methods:
Comparison of FRPC & Questionnaire 6-1-1 & Interview 1

Analysis data 2

Sub-Q1-2

Methods:
1. Questionnaire 3-3-1
2. Comparisons with FRPC

Analysis data 3

Sub-Q2-1

Methods:
1. Questionnaire 6-2-2 & Questionnaire 7-2-1
2. Interview 1

Analysis data 4

Sub-Q2-2

Methods:
1. Questionnaire 7-2-2

Analysis data 5

Sub-Q2-3

Method:
Questionnaire 7-2-2

Analysis data 6

Research Purpose: To evaluate the ELT’s initial training programs

Effectiveness (EQ5)

Achievement:
Teachers’ self-evaluations and Trainees’ opinions

Satisfaction rate:
Trainees’ satisfaction rate

Practicality

Sub-Q3-1

Method:
Interview 1

Sub-Q3-2

Method:
Interview 1

Year 2005-2008

Year 2008-2013

Note: ← indicates ‘encompass’; ↔ indicates ‘method used’
1.3.2 The research questions

To further explain Illustration 1-1 explicitly, the main research questions (RQ) raised in this study are threefold, each followed by sub-questions.

**RQ 1:** What PCs are expected in an able ELT in consideration of the social contexts in Taiwan?

*Sub-Q1-1:* What knowledge and skills do the trainees consider to be important and the most important at pre-training stage?

**RQ 2:** How are the training institutes preparing the trainees to meet the expectations? *(On the aspect of comprehensiveness)*

*Sub-Q2-1:* What training contents are provided to cultivate the trainees’ PCs?

*(On the aspect of the trainees’ learning achievements)*

*Sub-Q2-2:* What are the trainees’ general opinions regarding their own PCs at the pre-training and post-training stages?

*(On the aspect of the trainees’ satisfaction rates of the trainings)*

*Sub-Q2-3:* What are the trainees’ general opinions regarding the training programs?

**RQ 3:** How useful/applicable are the trained skills and knowledge in formal teaching settings? *(The interviews in 2008)*

*Sub-Q3-1:* Which type(s) of the training is/are found to be useful and which part(s)
is/are less applicable in formal teaching settings?

Sub-Q3-2: Taking into account the trainees’ personal experiences, what type of skills or knowledge should be reinforced in the training?

(The interviews in 2011)

Sub-Q3-3: Taking into account the trainees’ teaching experiences, how could the FRPC be readjusted?

1.3.3 Preliminary assumptions

For the purpose of investigation, a criterion, the FRPC, is proposed in this study. Nevertheless, the preliminary assumptions of 4-able, assessable, cultivable, transferable and analyzable, need to be made before the implementation of this present research and to be clarified at this point.

The first assumption is that a teacher’s PCs are assessable. Zarifian (2001), who proposed that an individual’s PC can be measured, highlighted that “The attitude concept sustains the behaviour concept. Attitude transmits what sustains and stabilize behaviour. It is the way by which a subject conducts himself facing to the general reality;” (p. 147). Hence, by observing or analyzing behaviours, the PCs like personal traits are assumed to be measurable. Furthermore, in this study, even though the trainees’ PCs are investigated based on their own self-evaluations, the reliability of evaluating one’s PC receives no concern, for the outcomes are one’s self-reflections upon one’s own progress, not the measure of one’s full capacity; it requires no definite
quantification but an overall tendency of one’s attitude towards his or her own PCs.

The second assumption refers to the belief that teaching is professionalism, which can be cultivated. The establishment of the FRPC enables student teachers to be more aware of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are important; raising awareness may facilitate the motivations of learning. Through this realization and constant practice, the PCs are cultivated and enhanced.

Third, the enhancement of a teacher’s performance results in the facilitation of the students’ learning achievement. The implication of this assumption parallels with Roger (1989) in that the positive-ness is transferable. Freeman and Johnson (1998) also conclude in their work that thinking guide behaviours, which consequently strengthen a teacher’s beliefs and lead to positive enhancement of the teaching performance.

Lastly, teaching is a complex task, which involves a variety of physical, psychological, intellectual and emotional activities. Hence, the assumption is made that this teaching process is describable and even more importantly analyzable. The assumption is taking the same position as McCulloh & Fidler’ in 1994 in which they propose that competency is an observable outcome of education consisting knowledge and skills. The knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs that are applied in order to conduct a language teaching task are analyzed through academic findings and experts’ opinions. This is further consolidated by the results from the trainees.

1.4 Criticisms of Competency-Based Education and Justifications for the
Establishment of the FRPC for ELTs

In examining ELTs’ initial education, two major studied areas can be recognized. The first is the knowledge base and skills that are commonly considered to be necessary for the student teachers. The second aspect is the ways which such knowledge and skills can be delivered to the trainees. They both have raised controversies and among the different criticisms, three are frequently brought up in discussions.

One of most arguable controversies is the validity and reliability of listing the PCs. Jacobus (2007) highlights the point that complex professional education cannot be completely conceptualized or defined by a list of key competencies. This viewpoint is also shared by Stoof et al (2000), in which they argue not only the premise that a good teacher can be described based on certain isolated competencies is questionable, but the assumption that the separated segments are able to be learned in a number of training is also debatable. Furthermore, researchers like Barnett (1994) and Hyland (1994) bring attention to one central question: whether or not it is actually practical and possible to explain a good teacher’s characteristics in terms of competencies, for the answers may be different depending on the context.

Another point stressed is the representativeness of the PCs. Competencies are generally conceived of as an integrated body of knowledge, skills, and attitudes and that they merely represent a “potential” for behaviour, and not the “behaviour” itself. This point is echoed by Caprara & Cervone’s work in 2003. Murry’s work in 2009 states that the possession of such competencies does not guarantee the quality of a teacher, and that the crucial hinge lays in the circumstances of whether the competencies are actually put into practice.
Lastly, the major criticism against the use of competence-based education lies in its over-emphasis on the aspect of behaviorism. In this approach, trainees’ mechanical performances or actions are focused, whereas the elements found difficult to be explicitly explained, like the concept of understanding (Fleming, 2009a), or those claimed to be hard to measure, like the attributes that underlie performance and the effect of interpersonal and ethical aspects (Gonczi, 1997; Hyland, 1994), are neglected. In Fleming’s work in 2009, he addresses that some advocates of competence rebut the opponents’ criticism of lacking the concern for the role of understanding by explaining that the importance of understanding is implicitly embedded in statements of performance like the one in Jessup’s “the requirement of knowledge and understanding which underpin competence” (qtd. in Fleming, 2009a). In taking this viewpoint, the assumption that knowledge and understanding can be inferred from performance has to be a precondition. Hence, the understatement of the role of understanding is still often the target of contentions. Understanding is not the only understated aspects in the discussions of competences. The worry that some important aspects of what makes a good teacher like attitudes and beliefs is also shared by a number of scholars (Liakopoulou, 2011; Li, 2009). More recent studies have pointed out that teachers’ attitudes would affect the degree of their commitments to their duties (Liu, 2007; Coladarci, 2002) and the way they teach and treat their students (Malikow, 2006). Consequently, these overlooks inevitably become challenges in promoting competence frameworks.
In spite of the fact that criticisms exist, Korthagen (2004) claims that in many places in the world, the revival of a view of teaching and teacher education focusing on competencies have been observed. The advantageous contributions that can be enhanced by the establishment of such a list are simply too alluring for policy-makers and educators to neglect. The reasons are explained as the following.

To begin, due to the increasing frequency of international interaction and communication, the number of English language learners has greatly increased over the years, resulting in a shortage of ELTs in some nations. To solve this problem, in many places, short term teacher education training programs have been introduced, raising a number of questions regarding the quality of these programs. These questions can only be answered when the criteria of what qualifies a good teacher can be explained first. As stated by Fleming (2009b), competence frameworks provide an account of progression that could be beneficial for curriculum design as well as learning assessment. He further states that this type of framework draws direct attention to the outcomes of the education or training process, which might clarify the educational purpose as well as the assessment of learning outcomes. These merits all serve as important factors in answering the question of why many scholars have been trying to list the necessary PCs for teachers despite the criticisms. In the context of Taiwan, the implementation of G1-9C has called for quite a number of ELTs. Since specific trainings in teacher’s English education was only provided after the introduction of G1-9G, the curriculums and even policies of teacher training programs are still being modified and readjusted. As suggested by Chen in his study investigating the ELTs’ quality in 2006 that specific proficiency guidelines and systematic assessment mechanisms need to be established by the central government
to closely monitor the qualification of ELTs. Once these are available, teachers will have some concrete rules and standards to follow (ibid.). The application of FRPC may benefit both the trainees’ motivations as they may have a clearer direction of what to be learned and the training authorities’ administrative performance as they may establish a blueprint of curriculum which is better suited for the trainees’ needs. In other words, a FRPC for ELTs can enable training program participants to become aware of the body of knowledge that provides the foundation for instruction. It can also be justified as it gives students clear targets of achievement and explicit evidence of their progress.

Moreover, a FRPC for ELTs is not only useful in the sense of practical teaching but also helpful in larger sense (Fradd & Lee, 1998). Defining what ELTs need to know and able to do enables the promotion of collaboration and the planning and implementing instructions. For instance, at the school level, the presence of a framework can raise the teachers’ awareness of the types of specific instructional needs that are essential for teaching and the means of organizing resources to meet those needs. It gives the employers a clear idea of what to expect in beginning teachers and a clear role for training institutes and trainers in the training process (Whitty and Willmott, 2001). Fradd and Lee (1998) further explain that such a framework can be valuable as guidelines for curriculum development and textbook adoption, and reviewing assessment outcomes at the district level.

In addition, although a list of PCs does not suffice to deal with all the complexities a language teacher may face, it can shape a major part of the skills and knowledge base that are required for the enhancement of effective interaction and communication in
the process of learning and teaching. The complexity of most language learning classrooms requires that teachers have an adequate knowledge base for effective instruction. Lemberger (1990) proposes that student teachers should be prepared to access this knowledge base in a manner that meets their own professional expectations as well as their students’ learning needs. One particular example is that in the English language teaching field, it has been suggested that both pre-service and in-service courses should adopt reflective approaches (Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Wallace, 1991). As already suggested by Zeichner (1994), one of the major forces that influence the notion of reflection in teaching is teacher thinking. The research on teacher thinking has been defined as research that has a “concern with the ways in which knowledge is actively acquired and used by teachers and the circumstances that affect its acquisition and employment” (Calderhead, 1987, p. 137). This type of research also focuses on the planning phases of teaching, the teachers’ interactive decision-making in the classroom, and the theories and beliefs that guide their actions. The research has shown the complexity of teachers’ work and how much thought underlies their actions in classrooms. What is pointed out in the study is the importance of teacher’s belief to the way the professionals act in classrooms. Even though the idea of promoting teachers’ ability to reflect on their own teaching has gained considerable attention recently, in this reflective teaching process, it is not always clear what exactly the teachers are supposed to reflect on when they have been resolved to become better teachers (Korthagen, 2004). Therefore, the establishment of a FRPC may provide teachers some basic criteria for what knowledge and skills to be reflected on.

In summary, the specification of a framework can benefit both the professional and
the larger education community. In the case of Taiwan, since the introduction of the English education and English teacher education to elementary school levels has only experienced a short history, the implementations are still in a state of immaturity. This can be observed in the frequent amendments of the teacher training policies. With the revised policy of adopting multi-channel ELT training in 1994, the question of whether the quality of teachers can be well managed inevitably has been brought into public discussion. Therefore, the establishment of a FRPC for ELTs can not only serve as general guidelines for the design of the curriculum of the ELTs training programs and a portrayal of a professional image of an able language teacher, but also provide unified educational purposes of the training outcomes to control the quality of teachers from multi-channel ELT training programs.

Notwithstanding the discussed criticisms in the earlier part of this sub-section, a competency-based framework, the FRPC, is proposed in this study due to the special social and educational contexts in Taiwan. Thought justifications are offered to why the establishment of a competency-based framework is essential in this present research, it is important to stress two points at this stage. One is that even though the FRPC is promoted in this study, the limitations implied in the criticisms should be kept in mind when attempting to design and implement a framework of competences and steps taken to mitigate them. The other point needs to be brought to attention is that the objective of proposing a FRPC in this study is not to present definitive answers to what has to be included within an initial ELT education or to formulate a definitive description of the good teacher, but to suggest and bring attentions to the new demands and challenges which are consequent with the new cultural, social, political and economic trends that the future ELTs will face domestically and
internationally and consequently reshape the professional image of the future competent ELTs.

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1.5 Significance of the Present Research

This study intends to investigate the effectiveness and practicality of the present initial education of ELTs for elementary school levels. By doing so, it is hoped that clearer pictures of how the prospective teachers are equipped now for fighting a spot in their desired profession in the future and how the future teacher quality as well as English education are secured at this preparation stage. Despite the fact that there have been
some domestic studies conducted relevant to the issue of PCs, there is still limited literature specified in the area of English language teaching. This study could serve as a reference for future research in this field.

Moreover, although there are number of studies focusing on evaluating teacher education programs, they all focus on merely one channel of training program (Chien, 2011). The reasoning beyond this limitation is that it is very rare for a teacher to teach simultaneously in different types of universities: university of education and non-normal university, needless to mention about the chance of taking parts in teaching in all three different training channels. The results from all three training programs not only provide a more holistic investigation and discussion of the training outcomes from three different training channels, but can also be seen as a micro-review of the initial educations for ELTs in Taiwan after the implementation of English education at elementary school levels.

Since this study is a longitudinal follow-up study, it allows the investigation of the trainees’ opinions at four different stages: pre-training stages, post-training stages, post-practicum stages, and three years after the completion of the training. The data can better describe the transformations of the trainees’ PCs of knowledge base and attitudes and beliefs over the five to six years. Although it is stressed that the purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness and practicality of the initial training educations in Taiwan, it is not the author’s intention to emphasize on the “scoring” of the performances of the training institutes or in any way to highlight or solve the possible conflicts among different training institutes or between the expectations of the educational authorities’ and the trainees. Instead, as mentioned previously, the
initial inspiration of the research emerged while observing regular frustrations among
the trainees and the parents. It is intended that this work can be a platform for which
the unheard can have voice. For this reason, it is hoped that the results of investigation
from this present research will not be misunderstood as judgments of good or bad, but
rather as a journey of retrospections and introspection of what was, what is, and what
is to be.

1.6 Personal Statement
The research was initially intended to be a 4-year follow-up study, which would allow
the investigation of the studied questions from the pre-training stage in 2005 to the
post-practicum stage in 2009. However, when the work came to the last stage in 2009,
I was diagnosed with serious illness which required urgent medical attention. After
consulting with two doctors, who both recommended that I received intensive medical
care, I decided to temporarily suspend my doctoral study. After a year and a half of
rest and treatment, my health condition improved and therefore, I continued my
doctoral study in 2011. After the long rest, I found that it was necessary to bring the
work up to date, so I decided to update the work using two methods: to include more
recent academic findings and to conduct more interviews, which enabled the study to
provide additional insight into the investigation of the practicality of the trainings.

It was during this time that I discovered a report released by the MOE in November of
2008, the year that I conducted the post-practicum interviews. As mentioned
previously, the purpose of the study was to investigate the effectiveness and
practicality of the English teacher training programs in Taiwan. Therefore, a FRPC
was proposed, in which ELT’s required PCs were suggested. The decision of the
establishment of the FRPC was twofold: there was no guideline indicating standard PCs for ELTs in Taiwan at the time this research started and there ought to be a criterion to be reflected upon when investigating the effectiveness and practicality of the training programs in this present study. Even though the report by Zhang et al. (2008) did not aim to examine the ELTs’ training programs but simply evaluate elementary and junior high school teachers’ PCs under the currently undergoing curriculum reform of G1-9C through the means of constructing an indicator system, the report issued a list of suggested PCs for general teachers in Taiwan. Therefore, some similarities have been observed between the present research and the report of Zhang et al. Having that said, differences also exist. As a researcher, I feel the need and responsibility to point out the presence of the new report. Therefore, for a better discussion of the academic findings relevant to that of PCs, as well as to confirm and reinforce the credibility of the FRPC proposed in this present research, the new report is briefly introduced in Chapter 4 and the findings are summarized and compared with these of the present research in Chapter 6. The reason why the report is introduced in the last part of Chapter 4 is because the findings from the new report were not used for establishing the FRPC proposed in this study owing to the fact that the report was released later than the start point of this research. Furthermore, for the reason that the results of this study that are relevant to PCs are revealed in Chapter 6, the findings from the new report are only by then are used for the comparisons with the results of this present study for a closer examination into the studied question raised in this study: what PCs are required in a competent ELT in consideration of the social contexts in Taiwan.

1.7 Organization of the Thesis
This thesis is structured into 9 chapters. This chapter gives a brief introduction to the research and is followed by four chapters of literature reviews. Introduction to Taiwan’s different types of teacher training channels is provided in Chapter 2. A review of the international and domestic studies relevant to the studies of ELT’s PCs is given in Chapter 3, where findings would contribute to the variables mapping out the initial FRPC. In Chapter 4, a review of Taiwan’s social contexts would reinforce the comprehensiveness of the FRPC. Finally, a description of the design of the research is given in chapter 5. The results and analysis from the quantitative and qualitative data are presented in chapters 6, 7, and 8. The thesis is concluded with a summary of the work, along with suggestions, in chapter 9.
Chapter 2: Introduction to ELT’s Initial Education Programs in Taiwan

2.0 Introduction

As the teachers go, so goes the school. The teaching competency of each individual teacher not only influences the quality of the school they reside in, but also the students to whom they are passing their knowledge. Education has always been a key to develop future potential. However, an educational system cannot be sustained without a proper foundation of teachers. A proper foundation of teachers may only be developed in a stable educational environment, where regulations and acts regarding the policies of cultivating teachers are designed based on the principle of elevating each individual student to his/her maximum potential without disturbing the balance of academic study and the actual practice of teaching. However, one of the problematic issues facing by current regulatory bodies regarding teachers’ cultivation in Taiwan is the constant changes and amendments (Chang et al, 2010). Therefore, a review of the history of teacher education in Taiwan, as well as the educational policies relevant to teacher’s cultivation must be given before further deliberation into the effectiveness of the teacher training programs in Taiwan.

In this chapter, the definitions of the terms used for the discussion in this part of the thesis is firstly presented, followed by an introduction of the elementary school ELT’s initial education and English education programs offered in Taiwan. The discussion of the English education programs conducted in Taiwan is divided into four sub-sections in accordance to the time periods of the implementation of English education at the elementary school level. The chapter ends with a brief summary of the chapter.
2.1 Definitions

2.1.1 University of Education

In Taiwan, compulsory education includes primary education and secondary education. The university which provides initial education for teachers who intend to teach at the secondary school level is now named “Normal University”. University of Education, the focus of this present research, refers to the university which provides initial education for teachers who intend to teach at the elementary school level.

2.1.2 20-Credit English Program

The 20-Credit program, the first program for short-term English teacher training, was introduced in 2006. It is a training program that targets individuals who majored in non-English related school subjects and have a Teacher’s Certificate. The trainees in this program are usually in-service part-time teachers, substitute teachers, or teachers teaching non-English school subjects at the elementary school level. The purpose for their enrollment is often to obtain the prerequisite qualification of receiving training relevant to English teaching and to be able to pass screening tests in order to become an elementary school ELT.

2.1.3 English as the 2nd Expertise Program

The 2nd Expertise Program was offered by the University of Education and was usually a branch of the language education department. It later became the department of English (MOE, 2011). The program was called 2nd Expertise because students who joined the program took it as their minor.

2.1.4 Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers
This program is conducted by the Center of Continuing Education established by each university. Completion of this program requires 40 credits. The credit completion certificate is one of the prerequisites for attending screening tests for individuals who are from non-normal universities and interested in teaching in elementary schools.

2.1.5 Screening Test

The monopoly of elementary teachers training conducted by the Normal/Teachers College came to an end in the 1990’s, when the call for multi-training channels for elementary educators was reformed by the MOE. The Normal Education Act was amended and renamed the Teacher Cultivation Act in 1994 (MOE, 2011). At the same time, an amendment was also made to the University Act. The earlier regulations guaranteed teaching jobs for graduates from normal schools and universities, who were granted Teacher’s Certificates with their degrees at the time of graduation. However, since 2002, graduates have to take the Teacher’s Qualification Exam in order to be granted the Teacher’s Certificate. Graduates also have to pass the “screening test” held by each city in order to compete for a teaching job at a school. In a screening test, written exams based on different subjects and the English language are giving in the 1st phase. It is only after passing the 1st phase are student teachers allowed to join the 2nd phase, the oral test and teaching demonstration.

2.2 Introduction to the Elementary School ELT’s Initial Education

In 1932, the Kuomintang (KMT) government established all levels of education through the Normal School Act, which regulated the establishment of independent educational institutions by the MOE (MOE, 2012b). The act also stipulated that “no level of normal school may be privately founded” by means of Article 4 of the
Regulations Governing the Private School. This affirmed the national teacher education system as a system run by the government. The six Normal Schools were renamed as the “Normal Schools” before becoming the Provincial Teachers’ Colleges in 1960’s (ibid). After a series of reforms and changes in policy, the elementary teacher training facility went from the original Normal School in 1955, from which students would receive a high school degree upon graduation, to a four-year Normal/Teachers College in 1987, which a bachelor degree was granted upon graduation. In 2005, the University of Education was renamed for five of the educational institutions in Taiwan, where graduates would also obtain a bachelor degree. Although they differ in names, the aim to establish a proper training system for future elementary teachers has stayed the same.

The Normal Education Act was introduced in 1979 with the exclusive purpose of cultivating middle and elementary school educators, other professionals, and conducting academic studies (MOE, 2012b). During this time, only the Normal Schools and Universities were allowed to cultivate teachers. A normal school’s most prominent feature was that all students would have all their expenses, including tuition, stipends and lodging, paid by the state. Those who had successfully graduated would be granted designated teaching positions immediately. At this time, the only institutes in Taiwan that had the ability to grant a teacher’s certificate under the newly established law were the Normal University, the Junior Teachers College and the Normal/Teachers College. By 1979, educational institutions in Taiwan had developed its own totalitarian kingdom among all universities; they controlled all “production” of teachers in Taiwan, while no other universities were allowed. Since all teachers in Taiwan had come from the same system, they all received the exact training,
guidelines, and doctrines on their path to becoming an educator. This persisted until the Teacher Cultivation Act was announced in 1994, when teacher training was liberalized and participation in teacher education by privately-established schools began (MOE, 2011).

With the implementation of the new act, the Teacher Cultivation Act, several supporting policies were also put into practice. Among all the changes taking place after the new act, five significant ones had a great impact (Table 2-1). To begin with, training used to be the exclusive right of the Normal Schools and Universities; as policies changed over the years, the right to cultivate teachers was no longer exclusive to the Normal Schools and University. Private and National Universities that did not belong to the original education system now may establish education credits program for students interested in obtaining elementary education credentials. Teacher training institutes in Taiwan include universities of education and public and private universities that have established faculties, departments, and graduate schools of education. Another main difference is that under the Teachers Education Act, all expenses for students enrolling in the Normal/Teachers College were initially paid by the state; under the new law, the students will now have to pay their own expenses. Though there is still very limited number of students who are still funded by the government, there is a mandatory teaching tenure, where most of them are placed in remote areas (Hsieh, 2002). In addition, recommended outlines are provided by the MOE for training institutes to adapt in consideration of their own teachers and resources; educational institutes no longer need to abide by strict training in the same courses and doctrines, creating a much more flexible edge. What is more, in 2002, the MOE amended and announced the Teacher Cultivation Act, adjusting the teacher
certification system and methods. Prior to the act in 1994, students who graduated from the Normal/Teachers College automatically received a teacher’s certificate upon graduation and their placements at schools were guaranteed and prior the new amended act in 2002, certification of credentials, inspection of documents, was conducted; graduates from the Normal/Teachers College now have to pass the written Teacher Qualification Exam to get their teacher’s certificates and they also have to earn teaching positions through screening tests (MOE, 2011). How these changes have affected the PCs of an ELT is discussed in the next chapter.

Table 2-1. Comparison of the Normal Education Act & the Teacher Cultivation Act

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Prior to 1994</th>
<th>After 1994</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>Normal Education Act</td>
<td>Teacher Cultivation Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Channel</td>
<td>via educational institutions</td>
<td>All universities with a qualified educational program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuition</td>
<td>Paid by the state</td>
<td>Paid by personal expense with few exceptions of funded individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Guarantee</td>
<td>Job guarantee</td>
<td>No job guarantee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Content</td>
<td>Unified curriculum and materials</td>
<td>Self-designed curricula and materials in consideration of the outlines recommended by the MOE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification for employment</td>
<td>By designated schools</td>
<td>By results from screening tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification (Teacher’s Certificate)</td>
<td>Upon the completion of practicum, a teacher’s certificate is granted.</td>
<td>Required to pass the written Teacher’s Qualification Exam to be granted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(MOE, 2011)

2.3 Brief Introduction to English Teacher Education in Taiwan

According to Curtain and Pesola (1994), when one wishes to acquire eligibility for teacher training within a short period of time, intensive training workshop sessions
must be conducted in order to achieve maximum results. With the new act in 1994, more channels of teacher training have been made possible and all public and private universities with English or foreign languages departments or graduate schools are now allowed to participate in the teacher training program. Many of the graduates from these institutions are now in competition with graduates of the universities of education for English teaching positions in elementary and junior high schools island-wide. The policies of becoming an official elementary school ELTs are discussed in the following. Though the policies have changed almost every year in the past ten years, they can mainly be divided into three stages.

In line with the world trend and ongoing transformations in domestic politics, the economy, and the social culture, major education reforms were launched in Taiwan between the 1960s and 1990s. The most controversial and influential one is undoubtedly the one issued in 1998, the general guidelines of Grades 1-9 Curriculum (G1-9C). It involved curriculum changes from elementary all the way to secondary school. Along with the introduction of the G1-9C, in the year 2001, English became a compulsory subject for all the fifth and the sixth graders in elementary schools; policy changes in 2005 mandated English for third and fourth graders as well. However, due to the fact that English education was not an official learning subject in elementary schools in the past, the reform also called for a vast number of new elementary school ELTs. Unfortunately, there was not any teacher education programs specially designed for the training of elementary school ELTs at the formal education institutes in Taiwan; in order to meet the urgent need of sufficient ELTs, the MOE has tried a number of methods to satisfy the demand.
During the previous five decades, the teacher education system remained as a uniform monopolized system (Fwu & Want, 2002). The Teacher Cultivation Act was enacted to implement a brand-new diversified teacher education system. The continuous efforts of the Taiwanese society to increase the quality of teachers are shown in the process of transformation in teacher education. Teacher education had been pursued through continuous upgrading of the single-purpose normal institutions in a highly regulated monopoly system in the past, and the process mainly focused on the academic ability of students. The English departments of the five national universities of education had traditionally shouldered the main responsibility and their graduates constitute the majority of the ELTs in secondary schools. However, with the amendment of the act, multiple channels of teacher training have been made possible. The pursuit of teacher quality has been made through diversification, deregulation and competition. Teacher quality is no longer limited to the single indicator of academic abilities; other factors such as personal traits, motivation, and commitment are also taken into account (Peng, 2011). The amendments and regulations of the Teacher Cultivation Act play an influential role in designing the curriculum of teacher’s initial education in Taiwan; it is controversial to discuss how the regulations and amendments have reshaped the initial teacher education in the following. Regarding the policies of cultivating elementary ELTs, it can mainly be divided into four stages as the policies were altered almost every year in the past ten years; they are briefly discussed below.

2.3.1 The earliest stage of the implementation of English education: ELT cultivation program 1

Since there were very few systematic English teacher education programs prior to the
elementary English implementation, the problem of teacher shortage became critical. The most widely used alternative was to encourage homeroom teachers to carry out the task after twenty to seventy hours of pre-job training (Chen, 1998; Chu, 1998). However, since English was long neglected in elementary teacher education, the language knowledge of these teachers was questionable, and could hardly be improved after short-term trainings (Lin et al, 2007; Liou, 2000; Chen, 1998). Although Yu (1998) assured that some homeroom teachers did have a sufficient level of English proficiency, a large part of these teachers were suffered from pressure and anxiety from both the public and the lack of confidence in their own English competency.

Due to the lack of teachers and the urgent need of eligible ELTs, MOE established a selective and training program specifically designed for cultivating elementary ELTs in a short period of time to quench the immediate needs of school in Taiwan under the enforcement of mandatory English classes (Peng, 2010). This establishment contained five processes. In phase 1 in 1999, to ensure the level of elementary ELTs’ language proficiency, the MOE authorized the Language Training and Assessment Center to conduct the “English Proficiency Exam for Elementary School Teacher’s Qualification.” Among 49,908 applicants, only 3,536 potential teachers were certified (Peng, 2002). Since knowledge of the language alone cannot make one a qualified English teacher, in phase 2, the English Education Training Program, those who were eligible to attend the training would receive 360 hours of training in 25 different universities in Taiwan. The program contained courses in English teaching methodology and elementary education and was organized to build up the teachers’ general knowledge of teaching and language. In phase 3, elementary teacher...
education credit classes were offered in order for the potential teachers to obtain a Teacher Certificate. This part of training was carried out by the nine Normal/Teachers Colleges. After the completions of these training courses, a semester of internship was required. The internship for ELTs consisted of three different parts: administrative practice, teaching practice, and homeroom practice. Only with the completion of the previous four stages can one be entitled the qualification for entering the screening test for becoming ELTs. The process of the procedures is illustrated in illustration 2-1.

Illustration 2-1: Channel of Becoming ELTs at the Earliest Stage

2.3.2 Stage 2 of the implementation of English education: ELT cultivation programs

Although after the first stage of implementation 3,565 potential teachers were certified, one-third of them dropped out from the program. In order to fill in the gap of the insufficient teacher supply, three alternative methods were proposed, illustrated in Illustration 2-2. The first channel is for teachers with Teacher Certificate, who are usually graduates from universities of education, to pass the English proficiency test and complete English teaching training courses before attending the screening test. The second channel is for teachers without a Teacher Certificate, who are usually referring to the graduates from non-normal universities but with English related major,
to pass the English proficiency test and complete general education training program before attending the screening test. The third channel is for in-service elementary school teachers, who are usually referring to the teachers of other learning disciplines, to complete in-service English training program and workshops.

Illustration 2-2: Channels of Becoming ELTs at the 2nd Stage

2.3.3 Stage 3 of the implementation of English education: ELT cultivation program 3

In order to solve the problem of teacher shortage and cultivate future qualified elementary ELTs with good command on both of the language and pedagogy, nine teachers’ universities, along with some other universities, began to offer courses on elementary English teacher education (Liou, 2000). Different from the previous policy adopted in the past decades, the student teachers from universities of education are no longer granted with teacher certificate upon graduation. Teacher Qualification Test is
held every year and this qualification is required for both universities of education and non-normal universities graduates in order to enter the screening test.

Generally speaking, there are three major types of channels available: initial English teacher education offered by universities of education to their undergraduates as minor, also known as 2nd Expertise Program; 40-credits teacher training programs (i.e. Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers) provided by some universities for their English-major students as an extra qualification on their graduation; and 20-Credit Program offered by authorized institutes to in-service teachers of other school subjects with Teacher Certificate. Since the first channel is for in-service teachers of other subjects with Teacher Certificate, the requirements are to complete the 20-Credit Program training and pass the English proficiency test. Because the second channel targets normal universities students minoring in English education as their second expertise, they are required to complete 20-Credit English Education Credits Program and their internship; receiving the Teacher Certificate and English proficiency proof is also mandatory. For the third channel, non-normal university students majoring in English are the primary source. The policies require the trainees in this channel to complete both the 40-Credits Educational Program and English teaching related training. Like channel 2 trainees, an internship, the Teacher Certificate, and English language proficiency proof are also required in channel 3. Upon the completion of the requirements, trainees are then qualified for a screening test. In sum, to be an elementary ELT in Taiwan, a student teacher has to go through the process illustrated in Illustration 2-3.
2.3.4 Contemporary & long-term plans of implementation of English education:

ELT cultivation program

“English Expertise Accreditation for Elementary School Teachers” is the most current regulation regarding elementary English teaching (Department of Secondary Education, MOE, 2012). Nowadays, all those wish to teach Elementary English must acquire “English Expertise Accreditation” on their teacher credential; one may not gain and may lose previous eligibility to teach elementary English without this accreditation. The fulfillment of English Expertise Accreditation requires 26 credits of English language and English teaching related courses, 18 Mandatory credits, and at
least 8 more elective credits. MOE proposed a recommended course outline, in which eligible universities may use to provide their students similar courses according to each university’s teacher base. The program began taking effect starting in the fall of 2011 for those enrolling in English Education relate programs.

This new regulation has impacted each channel differently (Illustration 2-4). The main concern with this new policy is its effect on teachers who have received training from the other channels except for the current normal university students. According to this new regulation, upon completing English Expertise Accreditation, one must obtain 26 credits, while the 20-Credit Program only requires for 20 credits. Having that said, the current policy implemented by MOE indicates that the credits one received from the 20-Credit Program is non-transferable to gaining the eligibility of English Expertise Accreditation. Thus, even though 20-Credit Programs are still in effect, starting in the fall of 2013, those who have obtained eligibility to teach elementary English from the 20-Credit Program would be deemed inadequate and in need of pursuing an English Expertise Accreditation certification. This might ultimately provoke unfavorable opinion from those who are attending or have previous attended the program and result in concern of the credibility of policy implemented by MOE.
While the teachers from the 20-Credit Program might be concerned about the validity of their qualifications, English majored students from non-normal universities might also be pondering over the question of what is ahead of them on the path to their teaching dream. English Expertise Accreditation requests 26 credits for completion. However, it requires 66 credits, 26 of English Expertise Accreditation and 40 of Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers, for an English major from a
non-normal university to gain the eligibility to attend the screening tests. The process is of less distress for English education related students from a normal university because the compulsory courses might already include some of the credits needed for English Expertise Accreditation. Hence, there is much higher possibility that the credits obtained in a normal university can be transferable.

Implications may be drawn from the short discussion above with reference to the implementation of the new regulation. The policy seems to be in favor of the contemporary students from the universities of education, for it takes less time and resources to complete all the requirements in order to be allowed to attend screening tests.

Pressured by the public’s demand for qualified teachers and request for a consistent policy, the MOE has also been trying to encourage the establishment of English teaching or children English teaching department in both universities of education and non-normal universities. The long term plan is for universities, both the teachers’ universities and the universities with English Education programs in English departments, to cultivate further ELTs with better competencies in both language and teaching (Liou, 2000; Shih et al, 1998). As questioned and proposed by the MOE (2012c), the ultimate objective of the MOE is for ELTs to not only function as a teacher, but also to possess the potential of being an administrative staff as well as a homeroom teacher.

2.4 Summary

In this chapter, definitions of different terms used in this thesis are given. A brief
introduction to the English teacher education in Taiwan is also provided, followed by an explanation of different channels of becoming an ELT at different times in Taiwan. In the next 2 chapters, a framework of required PCs for ELTs in Taiwan is generated. This is achieved by the following processes: first, to review the international and domestic studies relevant to the discussion of teachers’ PCs, and the findings are used to generate the main categories of PCs in the proposed FRPC; second, to facilitate the comprehensiveness of the FRPC by analyzing the social contexts in Taiwan and identifying the possible factors affecting the ELT’s PCs. The results in the latter part are then used to compare with the former in an attempt to examine if the domestic educational trend corresponds to the international climates as well as to serve as references for the re-adjustment of the FRPC.
Chapter 3: Professional Competencies for ELTs:

Knowledge Base & Personal Traits

3.0 Introduction

Consciously, we teach what we know; unconsciously, we teach who we are

(Hamachek, 1999, p. 209)

Lieberman’s work of “Education as a Profession” in 1956 argues that teaching is not yet a full profession but that it needs to be. The idea of an educator as an instructor is challenged by the innovative concept that teachers should be seen as professional experts. Lieberman (1956) outlines the characteristics of the teaching profession in an attempt to justify the concept; similar explanations on the matter are shared by Wu’s (2006) and Martin’s (2000) studies decades later. It is stressed that teaching involves professional competency, professional autonomy, professional growth, professional ethics, professional recognition, and professional service, of which constitute the image of profession (Wu, 2006; Martin, 2000; Liberman, 1956). Taking the same position, some scholars have acknowledged the statement that teaching is not merely an occupation, but a profession, requiring not only professional skills and knowledge, but also attitudes and characters (Liakopoulou, 2011; Li, 2009). In response to this new call for reflection upon the teachers’ professionalization, Gutiérrez Almarza (1996) firmly addresses the importance of teacher training courses in shaping teachers’ performance in teaching practice. He argues that pre-service teachers must acquire a wide range of knowledge before they are qualified to teach and face the complicated interactions both inside and outside of the classroom. Curtain and Pesola (1994) further claim that foreign language teachers today "require a combination of
competencies and background that may be unprecedented in the preparation of language teachers" (p. 241). The issues of what defines a qualified language teacher in terms of the required competencies and knowledge base in this “communication age”, and how such requirements can be reinforced and fulfilled in language teacher education have become increasingly important in academia over the past decades (e.g. Peng, 2010; Koehler and Mishra, 2009; Wu, 2006; Zhang, 2006; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Barnes, 2002; Chapman, 1988; Grossman, 1995, 1990), both of which are briefly discussed in the latter part of this chapter.

Similarly, in the case of Taiwan, the increase of the student population, the nationwide education reform of G1-9C, the development of national standards and the public’s expectation for foreign language learning are placing new demands on foreign language teachers (Tang, 2007; Chen, 2005). Under the influence of the emerging idea of new professionalism in the “Teacher Green Paper” issued in 1998 in the UK, the anticipation for further enhancement of teachers’ PCs is being readdressed (Lou, 2004). The suggestion of teachers to continuously improve their own competencies, both in initial education and continuing education, to ensure the quality of education is highlighted in several educational academic discussions (e.g. Chang, 2010; Lin et al, 2001). The background and competencies of teachers, components of teacher training programs, as well as processes and methodologies of the training programs have also been broadly discussed. Efforts have been made in a number of studies to specify the knowledge and competencies required of teachers who teach foreign languages, like English (e.g. Pan et al, 2008; Tang, 2007; Wu, 2006; Coladarci, 2002; Chen, 2001; Ellis, 2001). An analysis of the results from these studies is discussed in this chapter of the thesis.
In this chapter, the PCs of the ELTs at elementary levels are discussed in light of the works of Shulman and his colleagues (1986; 1987), as well as other contemporary academic literatures. The main purpose of this thesis is to probe into the success of the teacher training programs in Taiwan. To achieve this, the establishment of a competency framework of required PCs for ELTs in Taiwan (termed FRPT) is needed. The FRPC is first formed based on the academic findings in this chapter. It is readjusted in respect to the social contexts of Taiwan in the next chapter. This chapter starts with the definitions of the terms to be used for the discussion to follow and proceeds on to focus on the works of Shulman and his colleagues in 1986 and 1987 for an initial establishment of the FRPC. The chapter then ends with a discussion of the revision of the FRPC in consideration of the findings derived from the contemporary academic studies that are related to the PCs expected in an able ELT owing to modern demands.

3.1 Definitions

3.1.1 Teacher Training & Development

Lange (1983) explains the terms training and development in a broader view. Teacher development is defined as a term used in the literature to describe a process of continual intellectual, experiential, and attitudinal growth of teachers, some of which is generated in initial education and continuing education programs (ibid.). Richards & Farrell (2005) offers a more distinguishing definition of teacher education. According to them, it branched into two general kinds, training and professional development, with reference to the scope and goals of the programs. Training refers to activities that are typically aimed at short-term and immediate goals, whereas
professional development refers to a long-term goal for continuous growth.

Additional explanations of training and professional development are given referring to the aspects of purpose and course contents. Training is generally considered as a preparation for introduction into a first teaching position or as a preparation to take on a new teaching assignment or responsibility, whereas development seeks to facilitate further improvement of teachers’ understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Training involves understanding basic concepts and principles as a prerequisite for teaching practices, trying out new strategies in the classroom, and receiving supervision and feedback for one’s practice from mentors or peers. On the other hand, development often involves examining different dimensions of a teacher’s practice as a basis for reflective review and thus be seen as “bottom-up” (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p.4). A number of studies have pointed out that the required competencies, knowledge bases and components of the teacher education vary at initial and continuing educations (e.g. Zhang, 2009; Tong, 2007). Therefore, for the purposes of this study investigating the prospective teachers’ competencies and knowledge base, and the framework of the initial education design of the training contents, the “training” in this study is defined as the initial education of prospective teachers, which falls into the definition given by Richards & Farrell.

3.1.2 Competency

On one hand, the term “professional competence” for teachers, as Maria Liakopoulou (2011) introduces, often refers to the “qualifications” which teachers need to have in order to fulfill their teaching responsibilities and achieve a certain degree of teaching effectiveness. Strictly speaking, the notion of professional
competence comes closer to conventional anticipations of teachers. On the other hand, scholars also endeavor to propose a more holistic perspective on the evaluation of the essentials of professional teaching. In the views of many educational institutions—University of Northern Iowa, for example—the term “professional competencies” refers to “all the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that teachers need to develop and master.” Therefore, substantial attention is given to the multi-faceted aspects of a professional teacher than before. Accordingly, a basic, yet fundamental distinction between competence and competency for the teaching profession need be drawn. While the former refers to formal or institutional criterion of evaluating teachers’ qualifications and performance, the latter addresses itself to a broader coverage of all the potential branches of knowledge, skills, qualities, and beliefs a professional teacher is expected to develop and practice. Furthermore, in terms of competency, two definitions are provided by Wood & Power (1987) in reference to the work of Messick in 1984. Competency is termed as either the ability to achieve a goal by utilizing knowledge, product, and process skills, or as “the possession and development of sufficient skills, knowledge, appropriate attitudes and experience for successful performance in life roles” (1987: 414). Regarding both definitions, McCulloh notes in McCulloh & Fidler (1994) that competency consists of knowledge and skills and is a product of education, training or other experience; all of which can be observed.

In this research, it is the author’s intention to establish a more comprehensive framework of PCs. For dealing with the complexity of a teaching and learning situation, it requires the interactions between various components. Therefore, in the research, McCulloh’s definition of competency is adopted, and the term
“competency” is used to refer to a combination of knowledge, skills, and personality traits that enable teachers to effectively perform the activities of a given occupation or function to the standards expected in the workplace.

3.2 Professional Competencies Suggested in an Able ELT

The activity of a teachers’ teaching involves the behaviours of applying and integrating in their professional knowledge based on disciplines and ideas. Accordingly, a teachers’ understanding of the nature of language and language learning can influence different aspects of the teacher’s teaching; the ways teachers plan their lessons and the kinds of decisions they make and general classroom practice. In other words, teachers’ competencies are influential to their teaching performance. Hence, the knowledge base required in performing effective teaching has inevitably been the focus of some research both domestically and internationally. Different PCs to describe teachers’ knowledge base for teaching have been proposed in academia (e.g. Ball et al., 2008; Lin et al, 2001; Whitty, & Willmott, 2001), and different types of knowledge domains have been identified or generated in an attempt to establish knowledge bases for the teachers from different subject areas. However, it is worth emphasizing, as pointed out by Johnson & Goettsch, 2000 that while categories of knowledge are convenient for analysis and could be adopted to inform teacher education, presenting teacher knowledge as discrete and separate categories seem to minimize the complexity of teacher knowledge. The boundaries among the categories, as Sengupta & Xiao (2002) stressed, are fuzzy especially on the terms used and their definition, hence remain ambiguous among theorists.

Among the studies investigating teacher’s PCs, Shulman and his colleagues’ works
have attracted the most interest in the field of teacher education in the past two decades. They have also been supported by research across subject areas, such as in English (Grossman, 1990), mathematics (Chauvot, 2008; Ball, 1990), science (Botha & Reddy, 2010) and social studies (Wilson & Wineburg, 1993). In this research, in order to investigate the effectiveness and practicality of the teacher education programs in Taiwan, a framework of required PCs for ELTs is proposed. It serves as the primary guidance of required PCs for ELTs in Taiwan in this present study. To this end, Shulman’s framework of knowledge categories is adopted as the main blueprint of the FRPC proposed in this research. However, owing to the facts that this research aims to discuss the PCs of ELTs and that rapid changes that occur in a continuous state, other relevant studies are also reviewed for the readjustment of the framework so that a more comprehensive and up to date framework, i.e. the FRPC, can be generated.

Shulman and his colleagues argued that high quality instruction requires a sophisticated professional knowledge that goes beyond simple rules. Although the specific boundaries and category names differ across Shulman’s publications, the most commonly discussed are: general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), knowledge of learners and their characteristics (KL), knowledge of education contexts (KEC), knowledge of education ends, purposes, and values (KEU), content knowledge (CK), the knowledge of curriculum (KC), and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) (1987, p.8). The first four categories focus on general dimensions of teacher knowledge and the remaining three define content-specific dimensions. Together, they comprise what Shulman refers to as the “missing paradigm in research on teaching” (1986, p. 8). More discussions on respective category are briefly given and compared with other
relevant literature as we proceed.

3.2.1 General Pedagogical Knowledge (GPK)

According to Shulman (1987), GPK involves "broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter" (p. 8), as well as knowledge about learners and learning, assessment, and educational contexts and purposes. Terms like “Professional Pedagogical Knowledge”, or “Teaching Methodology” also refers to GPK (Liakopoulou, 2011). Similarly, Grossman and Richert extend the definition by referring to GPK as knowledge that "includes knowledge of theories of learning and general principles of instruction, an understanding of the various philosophies of education, general knowledge about learners, and knowledge of the principles and techniques of classroom management” (1988, p. 54). In recent years, special attention is drawn to the knowledge of assessment, a PC associated to GPK. The knowledge of assessing students’ performance, as Mertler illustrates (2009), counts as one critical aspect for teachers to develop their PCs. Many teachers in the United States, however, barely “feel adequately prepared to assess their students’ performance.” This viewpoint is also taken by Kutner (1997), who states that only when teachers acquire sufficient knowledge for their profession could they move one step further to implement valid assessment. Therefore, the knowledge of theories and strategies for assessing teaching and learning, as well as the materials applied in teaching is also considered an important type of knowledge within GPK. Other forms of studies within the domain of GPK are also proposed by many other scholars (e.g. Peyton, 1997). Various types of research are also conducted on such subjects as interpersonal skills, establishing positive learning environment, theories of learning and teaching, and motivation in
learning, theories of on evaluation and communication skills and so on. Here, the variety of forms within the domain GPK reveals one fact: a defined definition of what constitutes GPK has not yet been reached.

In consideration of the forms proposed in different theories and the definition provided by Shulman, “broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter” (p.8). The category GPK, in the proposed FRPC in this present research, involves the forms of class management, theory of motivation, communicative skills, material development, interpersonal skills, and knowledge of assessment. All are principles and strategies which contribute to effective interactions within a classroom.

3.2.2 Knowledge of Learners (KL)

The discussion of teacher knowledge should not only mainly revolve around teachers, but also along with their fulfillment of expected PCs. However, one significant aspect of promoting the notion of PCs lies in shifting the teaching center to the position of students. Namely, those children as knowledge recipients should be the central focus in the new prospect of professional teaching renovation (Pan et al, 2008). Tilstone and Layton speak of the phenomenon as well, foregrounding the active role of learners by “plac[ing] the learner in a position of power, at the center of the teaching-learning experience” (2004, p.7). Furthermore, the placement of students at the center of school teaching also requires an acute attention to the assumption and comprehension of child developments and the “package”, i.e. cultural background they bring to class. More specifically, teachers not only have to possess the professional knowledge of child developments, but also need to embrace a professionally instructed attitude.
toward the children with whom they interact every day but whom they may not know. For instance, Ayshe Talay-Ongan, an Australian education scholar, illustrates the significance of teachers’ recognition of positive images of children. “This image of the child as strong and competent,” she wrote, “is reflected in the NSW [New South Wales] Curriculum Framework from the Office of Childcare, where the description refers to teachers working in ways that ‘acknowledge the child as capable and resourceful’” (2005, p.293). Therefore, it could be verified that a comprehensive understanding of child development functions as one essential factor in PCs for successful teaching. Here, KL not only involves the PC relevant to child development, but also the knowledge of learners’ cultures.

3.2.3 Knowledge of Educational Context (KEC)

On a larger scale, PCs also include the ability to construct and utilize educational contextual knowledge. According to the research done by The Center for Occupational Research and Development (2011), “contextual learning” would provide the optimum situation for students to learn in the most impressive and accessible mode. That is to say, the contextual learning theory assumes that “the mind naturally seeks meaning in context, that is, in relation to the person’s current environment, and that it does so by searching for relationships that make sense and appear useful.” Therefore, competent teachers are expected to recognize the importance of creating a contextual learning environment, either with the assistance of school or of the community, in order to help students to maximize their input of knowledge and information.

Furthermore, the connection of school education with its social context
simultaneously helps both school faculties and students stay in line with the society and constantly improve their problem-solving abilities. As Sarah D. Sparks, for instance, quotes a report done in 2012 by the National Research Council of the National Academies of Science in Washington that illustrates how “the modern workplace and lifestyle demand that students balance cognitive, personal, and interpersonal abilities, but current education policy discussions have not defined those abilities well.” This suggests that units ranging from the government and educational institutions to school administrators, teachers, and students, should be re-oriented toward the development of interplayed capabilities that basically comprise cognitive, personal, and interpersonal abilities for the sake of both teachers and students.

3.2.4 Knowledge of Education Ends, Purposes, and Values (KEU)

According to Shulman (1987), knowledge of Education is a branch of knowledge regarding the following things: (1) the requirement of familiarization with related educational policies; (2) the goals and current issues presented by the government in relations to educational affairs; and (3) the understanding of the development of history and philosophy of Education. Teachers need to study the philosophy of education in order to clarify important concepts and hypotheses in current educational policies and theories. The philosophy of education, thus, has become the fundamental indicator to structure educational theories. Teachers also need to familiarize themselves with the latest issues regarding educational policy in order to renew and generate fresh ideas regarding current curriculum as time changes (Davies et al, 2000).

3.2.5 Content Knowledge (CK): Subject Matter Knowledge & Knowledge of
Curriculum (KC)

Shulman (1986) originally proposed three categories of CK: subject matter knowledge, which refers to the knowledge of facts and concepts; an understanding of the structure of the subject, PCK; and KC. In Shulman’s theoretical framework, two types of knowledge are crucial for teachers: CK and the knowledge of curricular development. The former is also known as the deep knowledge of the discipline or, as phrased by Bruner (1967), the “structure of knowledge”. It includes the theories, principles, and concepts of a particular subject. The latter includes knowledge of the sequence of topics or concepts to be taught and the materials and resources suitable for a particular topic. In short, subject matter content knowledge is what a content specialist knows, PCK is specialized knowledge needed for teaching the subject, and curricular knowledge is the knowledge of materials and resources for teaching particular content.

In addition, scholars Ball, D.L., Thames, M.H., and Phelps, G., (2008) collaborate to clarify the ramifications of the PCs under discussion. They pinpoint the major aspects that build up the framework of teacher’s PCs. The first aspect is that of “content knowledge,” a branch of PCs that “includes knowledge of the subject and its organizing structures.” According to INTIME Education Institute, content knowledge encompasses what Bruner (as cited in Shulman, 1992) calls the “structure of knowledge”—namely, the theories, principles, and concepts of a specific discipline. In this regard, content knowledge contains all the structural elements needed for teachers’ impartation of the knowledge and specific concepts of a particular subject to students. This accounts for what the base knowledge of pedagogy is mainly about. The second category, “curricular knowledge,” is represented by “the full range of
programs designed for the teaching of particular subjects and topics at a given level, the variety of instructional materials available in relation to those programs, and the set of characteristics that serve as both the indications and contraindications for the use of particular curriculum or program materials in particular circumstances” (Shulman, 1986, p. 10). The term KC, according to Liakopoulou in 2011, in definition of Shulman, is “a tool, which, in a way, determines the didactic choices of a teacher. Teachers should, therefore, know the curriculum, textbooks, the rules and laws of the education system and, as a whole, the state’s role in education (Shulman, 1986, p. 10; Shulman, 1987, pp. 9-10).” Liakopoulou (2011) also suggests the idea that teachers should be well aware of the fact that the design of curriculum and its adaption may be affected by context. In sum, this particular knowledge would mean for the teachers is the competency to the organization of the curriculum and material for ELT curriculum, along with the design and the application of these materials. Simply put, curricular knowledge ensures teachers’ ability to manage relevant materials and to arrange the programs in such a circumstantially appropriate manner to achieve the utmost positive instructional efficacy and pedagogical objectives.

In the field of English foreign language teaching, Roberts points out that having CK means that teachers show knowledge of the systems of the target language and the competence in it (1998). Teachers are expected to possess declarative knowledge and skills of language (Bailey et al. 2001). Barnes states that ELTs should be confident and become “the language models for their learners” (2002, p. 199). Therefore, the knowledge of the English language (KE) itself is also a crucial point for education program to cultivate professional ELTs. Ellis (2001) expresses concern both over teachers’ lack of innovation momentum to establish language pedagogy and over
regular teachers’ probable insecure command of the English language to enact effective language teaching. Ellis furthers the discussion through the suggestion of applying “linguist’s perspective.” However, Ellis warns readers not to confuse the idea of “applied linguistics” with that of “linguistics applied”. He refers to the former as having the ability to “apply ideas derived from linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, education, and any other area of potentially relevant enquiry to language pedagogy” instead of depending solely upon linguistic theory, which is “inherently different from the way” regular teachers conceive of their teaching tasks (2001, p. 64). In this respect, it is clear that the suggestion for the development of teachers’ linguistic proficiencies should be emphasized rather than being taken for granted. The skill of teaching the English language requires an autonomous space of special training, where professional English courses are kept available.

The arguments above outline the most fundamental elements encompassed in CK within the field of English language teaching as the knowledge of the systems and language skills. Therefore, with reference to both Shulman’s and Roberts’ notions of CK, CK in EFL setting may include the subject matter knowledge, PCK, KC and language skills.

3.2.6 Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK)

Slightly different from those proposed by other theorists, Shulman’s framework highlights a combination of CK and general pedagogical knowledge. As he (1987) strongly advocates that comprehended ideas must be transformed in some manner if they are to be taught.
In Shulman’s view, the teacher’s capacity to transform content knowledge into forms, which are pedagogically powerful, is crucial for students’ learning. Furthermore, he argues that to teach students in accordance with the contemporary’s standards and needs and understand the subject matter deeply and flexibly, so that they can help students create useful cognitive maps to relate one idea to another and address misconceptions. That is to say, mastery of PCK means a teacher’s grasp of how to draw on individual teacher’s unique position of exerting their influence through their on-the-spot observation of the classroom requirements, teaching needs, and students’ varied demands for attention. In this sense, PCK emphasizes teachers’ ability to “elucidate subject matter in new ways” as the critic Woollard (2007) emphatically draws our attention to the core of Shulman’s theorization of pedagogic content knowledge in his review. Based on these beliefs, Shulman (1987) establishes a framework of knowledge base, which contains the innovative phrase *pedagogical content knowledge* and have motivated a great amount of scholarly work.

In an attempt to provide more a detailed explanation, Shulman states that PCK can be characterized by a way of thinking that allows teachers to transform their subject
matter knowledge into forms that students can understand. This way of thinking is labeled ‘Pedagogical Reasoning’ by Wilson et al (1987, p. 118) and it is viewed as central to Shulman’s model of teaching. The Model of Pedagogical Reasoning comprises a cycle of several activities that a teacher should complete for good teaching.

According to Wilson et al. (1987), the process of pedagogic reasoning and action features six aspects of teaching: comprehension, transformation, instruction, evaluation, reflection, and new comprehension. Teachers should first understand the subject matter for themselves and should understand it in several ways. The substantive knowledge, how the ideas within the discipline are inter-related and connected, should also be understood. Transformation follows comprehension. Teachers should be able to transform their understanding of the subject matter into forms that are attainable by the students and simultaneously "pedagogically powerful" (Shulman, 1987, p. 15). Instruction includes many different teaching acts and it contains many of the most crucial aspects of pedagogy. Evaluation refers to teachers’ need to see testing and evaluation as an extension of instruction, as well as an opportunity to self-evaluate their teaching and make adjustments for different circumstances.

In the stage of self-reflection, teachers are able to review, reconstruct, and critically analyze their own teaching. As for new comprehension, teachers achieve new comprehension of the educational purposes, the subjects taught, the students, and the processes of pedagogy. This cycle is clearly orientated to practice in a self-referential way (Brodkey, 1986). Understanding leads to a transformation of pedagogies, which
is to be closely examined for improvement in the future practice, which is then
promoted in accordance to the adjustment of circumstances. For Brodkey (1986), the
whole process is continuous. In short, Shulman’s framework consists of 7 types of
knowledge, of which PCK seems to be the most complicated one as it requires
interactions and inter-relations with and among different knowledge of the other six
types whilst the pedagogical reasoning activities take place during the practice.

3.2.7 Summary of Section 3.2

In Section 3.2, seven types of knowledge are briefly introduced and the discussion
mainly circles around the important elements directly coming into contact with a
teacher: students, teaching, and education. The knowledge of elements is prioritized;
therefore, KL, GPK, KEU, KEC, PCK, KC and CK form the basic structure of the
framework proposed in this present research. Each of the seven types of knowledge
interrelates with a teacher’s teaching differently, and in a similar mode. The first four
are general dimensions of teacher knowledge, whereas the latter three are
content-specific dimension. They all contribute to a teacher’s better understanding and
management of the resources in hand, which benefit a teacher to utilize as
reinforcements for implementing effective teaching.

3.3 The Professional Competencies Reflecting the Modern Demands

In the previous section and sub-sections, different types of knowledge suggested by
Shulman and his colleagues in 1986 and 1987 are discussed. In the discussion, what
those types are and why they are important for teaching profession and thus should be
included in the proposed FRPC in this study are also explained. The seven identified
knowledge types are, GPK, KEU, KEC, KL, PCK, KC and CK. In addition to these
PCs, some scholars have also contributed opinions for a more comprehensive model in an attempt to raise educators’ awareness, as well as to equip teachers with the new demands needed in the contemporary learning environment. What they are and how they affect an ELT’s PCs is discussed below.

3.3.1 Attitudes & Beliefs (A&B)

On reflection, those who suggest teaching strategies as indexed for measuring teachers’ PCs all relate back to the most fundamental elements of being teachers, if not being educationalists in a broad sense—the sense in which their beliefs and attitudes are directed toward the cause of education. To give this a broader view, Richards and Lockhart (1994) include teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about the goals, the teaching process, the educational system, the roles of both teachers and students within that system, and the relationship among all these beliefs. These beliefs and attitudes include personality traits related to the professional role of a teacher, which according to Whitty (1996), can be nurtured and developed through initial education and continuous training.

Giving that the significance of attitudes and beliefs has been widely recognized among educators, in what ways or to what degree they matter in teaching have been popular issues investigated in the educational field. Several scholars have endeavored to illustrate how a teacher’s attitudes and beliefs may create impacts upon teaching and learning. For instance, Freeman and Johnson (1998) argues that thinking can guide behaviour, and therefore, teachers’ better understanding of the knowledge of the learners, language, teaching and environment enables them to reinforce their beliefs, thereby facilitating the teaching. This view is echoed by Peng (2010), who further
explain that this solid understanding of educational context as well as a teacher’s role in the teaching profession could help establish teachers’ self-values, which can lead to the enhancement of one’s teaching performance.

More recent studies have pointed out that teachers’ attitudes would affect the degree of their commitments to their duties (Liu, 2007; Coladarci, 2002), the way they teach and treat their students (Malikow, 2006), as well as how they perceive their professional growth (Pan, 2008; Chen & Rovegno, 2000). Therefore, a teacher’s attitudes and beliefs about teaching, learning, and the role as a teacher influences the way he or she evaluates and comprehends the knowledge acquired. This interaction between beliefs and acquired knowledge, as pinpointed by Liakopoulou (2011), may affect how a teacher benefits from this knowledge, as this very practice is shaped by that knowledge. In effect, Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) group issued a report in 2009 to elaborate on how to create effective teaching and learning environments for teachers and students alike. The report also covers work of by Klieme & Vieluf focusing on the aspect of teachers’ beliefs and attitudes toward what they are engaged in and whom they are dealing with, describing these personal traits as “closely linked to teachers’ strategies for coping with challenges in their daily professional life and to their general well-being, and they shape students’ learning environment and influence student motivation and achievement” (p.89). Therefore, it ought to be clear that teachers’ attitudes and beliefs matter more than the mere results of personal idiosyncrasies; they should be weighted within the development of teachers’ PCs. It is through the well-being of teachers themselves that students obtain a clear image of the future.
3.3.2 Knowledge and Skills of Technology-Assisted Language Teaching (KST)

Comiti & Ball (1996) state the reality of teaching in the “communication age” would unavoidably require teachers for further improvement on the application of technology in the classroom. Marking the importance of technological media in the modern days as well as in language teaching classroom, the term electronic literacy emerges. Electronic literacy is a term widely used to refer to, as defined by Razak & Embi, a teacher’s ability to “use computers to interpret, to express meaning, to search and locate and make use of the information, it also focuses more on the teachers’ ability to read and write in the electronic medium and platform” (2004, p.3). In view of the modern trend, some scholars like Razak & Embi (2004) and Norizan (2003), have called for the need of ELTs acquiring different IT skills as compared to other subject teachers due to the fact that ELTs deal with more activities related to language competency and less with technical competency. Hirumi & Grau (1996) suggested different types of computer competencies for teachers, such as the knowledge aspect of the fundamental operations, trends, and issues, and one’s ability to use computer as a tool.

Despite the increasing popularity of the application of digital technology in a language teaching classroom, Koehler and Mishra (2009) pointed out a phenomenon among teachers. That is, many teachers consider themselves sufficiently prepared to use technology in the classroom and often do not appreciate its value or relevance to teaching and learning due to their inadequate or inappropriate experience with using digital technologies. In view of this, Koehler and Mishra promote the idea of the integration of technology, pedagogy, and content knowledge. The term Technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) is proposed. By definition, it is an
emergent form of knowledge that goes beyond all three core components: content, pedagogy, and technology. This notion of TPACK was built on Shulman’s construct of PCK. TPACK is different from knowledge of all three concepts individually. Instead, TPACK is the basis of effective teaching with technology and requires an understanding of the representation of concepts using technologies. What is highlighted in their work is not only the application of technology in language teaching but also the notion of how it should be effectively applied to create maximal effects. Consequently, the advancement of technologies may have enriched students’ language learning and teachers’ teaching.

3.3.3 Knowledge and Skills of Conducting Educational Research Skills (KSR)

Gradman (1971) first stresses the importance on the inclusion of the knowledge for research techniques in teacher’s knowledge base, which has since gained increasing supports for its crucial role in the internationalization society. The idea of reinforcing a teachers’ research skills has raised some eyebrows in the education field, as some scholars have been concerned that teachers have less and less time concentrating on “actual teaching” (Curtain, 2000). Nevertheless, Scholars like Freeman (1991), and Johnson (1992) have shared their opinions that teachers are central to the understanding of and the improvement of English language teaching, and therefore the need to conduct scientific research to explore better ways on further development of their knowledge. Certain points, like teachers need to be constantly revising their understanding of the nature of learning (Chen, 2006) and teaching throughout their careers and the intention of promoting teachers’ teaching, enable teachers to more effectively implement the overall shift from a behavioral view to a constructivist view.
3.3.4 Knowledge of Cultures (KCL)

Another proposal that has caused waves in academia is the introduction of “cultures” in the language classroom. Linguistic scholars have argued that the interference and transfers of the syntax and phonology, and of semantics and pragmatic, may occur in foreign language learning. In other words, to understand language completely and use it fluently, learners not only need linguistic, discourse, and strategic competence, but also the socio-cultural and world knowledge (Willems, 1996). Hence, language and culture are interconnected and the usage of the term ‘language-and-culture’ in some studies like the one in Byram and Morgan’s in 1994 has clearly explicated this interrelationship.

In addition to the culture of the learner highlighted previously in Section 3-2-2, culture in the education field has also been identified three other dimensions: the knowledge of target language culture (e.g. Abisamra, 2009; Arikan, 2011), the awareness of the local culture (e.g. Dogancay-Aktuna, 2005), and the idea of cultivating teacher’s intercultural competence (e.g. Peltolorpi, 2010; Byram & Morgan et al. 1994). Sociolinguistics is a vital element in language teaching/learning that cannot afford to be neglected. Language is a part of a culture, as well as a medium by which a culture is defined and described. Therefore, communication not only occurs at linguistic levels, but involves the socio-cultural aspects as well (Abisamra, 2009). Hence, the importance of the target language culture is advocated (Arikan, 2011).

Moreover, Dogancay-Aktuna (2005) and McKay (2002) argue that English needs to be taught in a culturally sensitive manner by respecting the local culture of the
learning. They also address another vital point: an understanding of the local culture of learning should not be based on stereotypes. Good understanding of the local culture leads an ELT to adopt effective teaching strategies in accordance to the learners’ characteristics as well as the uniqueness of the community.

A further point to be made that modern societies feature multi-cultural backgrounds and the mono-emphasis on the culture of “host” is insufficient for effective multicultural communication (Peltolorpi, 2010; Byram, 1997). Intercultural competence, which by Byram’s definition, refers to the “individual’s ability to communicate and interact across cultural boundaries” (1997, p.7), is considered a competence required of modern citizens of the global village to develop (Dai & Liang, 2003). Being aware of one’s and others’ cultural identities and using socially and culturally appropriate ways in communication is crucial in intercultural encounters. Thus, it is stressed that the integration of language learning and cultural studies of the both interlocutors is necessary in terms of the instrumental purpose, to acquire full competence in the target language, and the educational accountability, to increase tolerance and empathy towards otherness (Byram et al, 2002).

Some contemporary researchers have gone deeper into the exploration of the cultural dimension in foreign language education. They raised a controversial point that whenever individuals are engaged in interaction with others, they perceive and are perceived themselves in terms of their social identities, and that interlocutors bring their own cultures into the interaction (Byram & Fleming, 1998). In view of that, it is important to understand the nationality and culture to which that person belongs. At this point, a third reason for teaching/learning cultures is formed. It is explained that
individuals possess different social identities, and therefore create a different interaction from that between interlocutors of a same cultural background, nation or language (ibid.). In short, culture studies should not be limited to the sole learning of the target culture, but instead should also include the understanding of the other cultures of the interlocutors within an interaction. Byram and Fleming (1998) state that it is the “intercultural communicative competence,” rather than pedagogy oriented toward native speakers, that educators should help to develop in the language classroom. Thus, a pedagogy oriented toward the intercultural speakers should be devised. In short, cultural self-awareness should be reinforced within a language teaching classroom. Through the integration of their cultures, the learners are encouraged to critically reflect not only on the target culture, but also on their own (Byram & Feng, 2005). In view of the need of conducting effective intercultural communication in the contemporary language classroom, the development of teachers’ intercultural communicative competence should be facilitated.

3.3.5 Summary of Section 3.3

The current transformations in academia, social structure, and technological advancement have called for new PCs in a competent ELT. The previous discussion has stressed four new types of PC areas: A&B, KST, KSR and KCL, respectively. In these four PC domains, a teacher’s inner quality and modern skills and the social contexts of the participants are taken into consideration.

3.4. The Establishment of the Framework of Required PCs for ELTs (FRPC)

In the previous sections, Shulman’s framework of knowledge base for teachers is discussed and used as the blueprint of the proposed FRPC in this study. Moreover,
seven types of knowledge, namely, GPK, KED, KEC, CK, KC, KL and PCK, were identified as the seven categories in the proposed FRPC. This FRPC is then variegated with the suggested PCs suited for modern ELTs taking account of the contemporary social transformation and international climate. Hence, four more types of knowledge, A&B, KST, KSR and KCL, are added into the FRPC to form a more comprehensive FRPC, which encompassing two PC dimensions: knowledge base and personal traits.

3.4.1 The PC areas, the PC forms and the competency indicators

As stated in the Introduction Chapter, the purpose of this present research is to investigate the English teacher education programs in Taiwan. To achieve this, a mode of criterion is to be established. In this chapter, a framework, termed FRPC, is established, and the PC categories adopted within the FRPC are generated from the findings revealed in the international and domestic academic studies, which are relevant to the discussion of teacher knowledge and PCs (see Diagram 3-1 for the proposed FRPC in this present research). In light of the academic findings that both a substantial base of knowledge, established based on Shulman’s works in 1986 and 1987 and other relevant scholars’ academic findings, and specific positive characteristics (i.e. Malikow, 2006; Coladarci, 2002) are vital constituents observed in a competent ELT, the FRPC consists of two main dimensions: knowledge base and personality traits. Within each dimension, two types of PC categories are identified: fundamental knowledge and skills and MDKS for the dimension knowledge base, and attitudes and beliefs for the dimension personality traits.

Within each PC category type, different PCs, termed PC areas, are proposed; within each PC areas, different types of sub-PCs, termed PC forms, are identified. For the
purpose of presentation, exemplified examples of competency indicators are given for each PC form. The given competency indicators are generated from the discussion in
Diagram 3-1. The Revised Framework of Required Professional Competencies in Consideration of the Modern Demands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>PC Forms</th>
<th>Examples of Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KL</td>
<td>Knowledge of child development</td>
<td>Understanding children’s cognitive, psychological &amp; physiological developments, Understanding children’s cultural backgrounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge of learners’ cultures</td>
<td>Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of classroom management, Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of assessment of learning &amp; teaching, Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of material development, Understanding the theory of motivation, Possessing interpersonal skills, Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of intercultural communication, Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of academic research skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KPK</td>
<td>General pedagogical knowledge (GPK)</td>
<td>Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of TESOL methodology, Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of TESOL activity design, Understanding TESOL’s relevant resources and their application, Understanding technological pedagogical content knowledge &amp; its application</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK)</td>
<td>Knowledge about learners (KL), Knowledge &amp; skills about learning &amp; teaching (KSL), Knowledge about Culture (KCL), Knowledge &amp; skills of academic research (KSR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge of learning &amp; teaching (KLT)</td>
<td>Understanding the knowledge of first &amp; second language acquisitions, Understanding the organisation of English curriculum, Understanding the educational resources and their application in education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELS</td>
<td>English language skills (ELS)</td>
<td>Possessing good English writing proficiency &amp; skills, Possessing good English reading proficiency &amp; skills, Possessing good English speaking proficiency &amp; skills, Possessing good English listening proficiency &amp; skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK</td>
<td>Content knowledge (CK)</td>
<td>Familiar with English literature, Familiar with children literature, Familiar with nursery education, Familiar with primary education, Familiar with secondary education, Familiar with higher education, Familiar with adult education, Familiar with special education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge of Curriculum (KCS)</td>
<td>Understanding the theory &amp; skills of English pronunciation, Understanding the theory &amp; skills of English spelling &amp; phonics, Understanding educational policies &amp; goals, Understanding current educational issues, Understanding the knowledge of history &amp; philosophy of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KIE</td>
<td>Knowledge of general educational issues</td>
<td>Understanding the local political, social &amp; economic cultures, Understanding the school’s &amp; community’s resources, Understanding the multi-cultural backgrounds of the community</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Framework of the Required PCs for EFLs

- Knowledge Base
  - Fundamental Knowledge & Skills
  - Knowledge about learners (KL)
  - Knowledge & skills about learning & teaching (KSL)
  - Knowledge about Culture (KCL)
  - Knowledge of English (KE)
  - Knowledge of education (KEU)
  - Knowledge of school & community (KSC)

- Personality Traits
  - Modern Demanded Knowledge & Skills (MDKS)
  - Positive attitudes toward the teaching profession
  - Positive attitudes toward professional growth
  - Positive beliefs of self
  - Positive beliefs of education
  - Positive beliefs toward educational purposes & values
  - Demonstrating the willingness of taking part in further development & colleague cooperation
  - Possessing positive philosophical beliefs & self-beliefs


65
Sections 3.2 and 3.3. For instance, “Understanding children’s cognitive, psychological and physiological developments” is the competency indicator of the PC forms “Child Development”, which is suggested by Pan et al (2008). In the FRPC, competencies, are described in behavioural indicators in order to be measureable. Thus, the competency indicators may be viewed as observable behaviours that indicate the presence of a particular competency. In addition, for the purpose of making the PC forms more “describable”, the competency indicators can also be considered as the goals of a particular PC form or PC area.

3.4.2 Dimension I: the proposed knowledge base

Within the knowledge base, two types of PC categories are found: the first type is the fundamental knowledge and skills that have long been promoted in the academia and the other type is the PCs that are particularly highlighted due to modern needs. The PC types originally derived from academic findings are KL, GPK, PCK, KC, CK, KEU, KEC, KST, KCL, and KSR. In the proposed FRPC, KST, KCL, and KSR are classified into the PC category MDKS, for it is the intention of this research to investigate how the trainees conceive of these new demanded PCs.

3.4.2.1 The fundamental knowledge & skills

Regarding the PC areas within the first type of knowledge base, how they are classified and termed is explained here.

To begin, in consideration of Ellis’s (2001) and Bailey et al.’s (2001) point that language proficiency and skills are crucial for ELTs. English language skills (ELS), along with the two content-specific knowledge, CK and KC, are classified within the
PC area as Knowledge about English (KE), for they are all related to the concepts, facts, and structure of the English language. Since this thesis investigates the PCs of ELTs, KC here refers to the Knowledge of English curriculum. In other words, within the PC area KE, there are three PC forms: ELS, CK and KC. The competency indicators of ELS are associated with four language skills, and those of CK are mainly the knowledge related to English language, such as literatures, children’s chants and nursery, target culture, pronunciation and spelling and phonics. As for the KC, the organization of curriculum and the relevant educational resources are centered.

Secondly, GPK, defined by Grossman and Richert (1988b) as the knowledge including theories of learning and general principles of instruction, and PCK, referred by Shulman as “the most useful ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others” (p.7), are the knowledge which are closely associated with the knowledge and skills of learning and teaching. GPK and PCK not only involve the aspect of “how to teach,” but also the aspect of “how to learn”. According to Shulman’s definition, though PCK interacts with both GPK and CK, it is the “ways” to represent and formulate the subjects. Therefore, in the FRPC, both GPK and PCK are classified within the PC area of KSLT. Besides the two PC forms, one more is included in the PC area, namely the Knowledge of Language Learning and Teaching (KLT). First and Second Language Acquisitions, explained by Carrasquillo & Rodriguez (1997), refer to the content-specific knowledge of how languages can be acquired and the process of how learners learn; therefore, they are also classified within the PC area KSLT. As for the competency indicators, Liakopoulou’s (2011) and Grossman and Richert’s (1988) suggest that the knowledge and skills of classroom management, assessment, material development and motivation to be focused in GPK.
Interpersonal skills, seen as one important PC for a teacher to interact effectively with those involved in education, are also included. In PCK’s competency indicators, teaching methodology and materials related to content-specific teaching are centered, which is closely linked with KSLT. The language learning theories, first and second language acquisitions, are the named competency indicators of KLT. Though ELTs’ linguistic competence is classified within KE and ELS, linguistic theories relevant to language acquisitions are classified within KLT.

Thirdly, under Shulman’s framework, KL and KEU are respective PC areas. Within KL, child development and learner’s culture are the PC forms. Consequently, the understanding of children’s development, as well as their cultural background, is the competency indicator. Within KEU, the knowledge of general educational issues is the focus and the understanding of education-related issues is the main competency indicator.

Lastly, in Shulman’s framework (1986, 1987), Knowledge of Educational Context (KEC) is used as one of the categories; however, in the FRPC Knowledge of School and Community is categorized as a PC area, and KEC is used as a PC form. KEC is a PC which includes the ability to construct and utilize educational contextual knowledge. Such knowledge is used to focus on the aspects of teachers, students, educational authorities, and schools. However, there is increasing attention paid to the assistance and resources provided by the communities in contemporary studies (e.g. Dogancay-Aktuna, 2005; The Center for Occupational Research and Development, 2011). Local culture also gains attention in different educational reports. For these reasons, this present study intends to show this new force within different educational
contexts. Hence, the PC area is termed the Knowledge of School and Community. Within this PC area, three competency indicators focusing on the understanding of local contexts are provided.

### 3.4.2.2 The modern demanded knowledge & skills (MDKS)

Within the MDKS, three new PCs are suggested: KST, KCL and KSR. TPACK, used as an example of the new technological knowledge and skills in the discussion of KST in the previous section, is knowledge generated from the interrelation of PCK and CK (Koehler and Mishra, 2009). Though KST is classified within MDKS in an attempt to emphasize its novelty and so to raise awareness, by taking account of its role in teaching, it can be considered a PC form of KSLT. If the technological skills are emphasized in educational use, it can be associated with GPK. If the technological skills are specifically designed for the use in language teaching, as in the case of TPACK, it can be linked with PCK. In the FRPC, KST is primarily used to assist language teaching. As a result, its competency indicator is grouped into PCK.

Moreover, KCL consists of three different types of cultures: the target language culture, the learner’s culture, and the multi-cultural community. The target language is grouped into CK, and the learner’s culture is listed as a PC form of KL. The understanding of multiculturalism is a competency indicator within KSC, for it involves participants both on campus and in the campus as well as the ones within the community. As for the knowledge and skills of intercultural communication required in ELTs, in this present research, it is considered a PC associated with GPK. This is because that this PC is not only necessary within a language classroom, where different “cultures” are usually dealt with, but also essential in conducting
administrative duties, as well as for interacting with different participants involved in education-related occasions.

Finally, KSR is also considered a PC associated with GPK, because, like interpersonal skills and the theory of motivation, KSR can be seen as a “means” which facilitates learning and teaching. Through up-to-date research, an ELT can obtain innovative information regarding teaching strategies and learning concepts and seek possible answers to the difficulties encountered in teaching and learning.

### 3.4.3 Dimension II: the personality traits

Two types of personality traits are emphasized in the FRPC: attitudes and beliefs. Taking the points of Coladarci (2002) and Chen and Rovegno (2000), the FRPC also pays special attention to a teacher’s attitudes, for one’s positive thinking toward profession and personal professional growth can enhance one’s willingness and devotion to the job. Therefore, the willingness of devoting more time and extending one’s professional development are used as observable behaviour indicators. What is more, a teacher’s beliefs are also taken into account since affirmative self-beliefs and positive beliefs of education can lead to better teaching performance (Liakopoulou, 2011). Consequently, one’s positive philosophical beliefs, self-beliefs, and supportive beliefs toward educational purposes and values are also viewed as valuable characteristics of an able ELT.

### 3.5 Summary of the Chapter

Teacher’s PC has its varied interpretation in accordance to the needs and beliefs in the meantime. Therefore, with the increasing complexities of social, economic and
political terms in this technological age, new demands have been added to the list of required competencies for ELTs. In earlier training, knowledge base was prized and it expands its inclusion and dimensions at strategic and affective levels. Therefore, it may be concluded that teachers’ PCs refer to the required knowledge, techniques, and attitudes in teaching areas at current examination. The FRPC consists of two dimensions: knowledge base and personality traits. A total of seven PC areas, five of which are classified within the fundamental knowledge and skills and two form their own respective areas, MDKS and A&B. The seven areas are KL, KSLT, KE, KEU, KSC, MDKS, and A&B. Within each PC areas, different PC forms accompanied with exemplified competency indicators are suggested. Two types of personality traits, attitudes and beliefs, are also suggested. Regarding these traits, a teacher’s commitment to the educational causes and professional growth and beliefs in beliefs in self and education are centered.

In the next chapter, the FRPC are re-examined in consideration of the social contexts in Taiwan. To this end, different social factors, which may influence how an able ELT is defined, are identified. This is followed by a discussion of how they contribute to the formation of the FRPC and serve as the criterion for the investigation purpose in the latter part of this research.
Chapter 4: The Required Professional Competencies for English Language Teachers at Elementary School Levels: in the case of Taiwan

4.0 Introduction

In the last chapter, an initial FRPC is generated based on the international and domestic academic findings. Though ELTs around the world may share the demands of some particular PCs, differences exist as well because of the variety in the social contexts in different cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, the purpose of this study is to probe into the success of the teacher education programs in Taiwan, and therefore, special attention should be given to the analysis of the possible variables within its social contexts as well as how these factors may have interacted with the educational decisions which may contribute to its unique interpretation of professionalism of an able ELT. Therefore, in this part of the thesis, the social contexts of Taiwan are briefly introduced and their relevance to the PCs of an ELT is also analyzed.

After some years since the implementation of English education at elementary school levels, a number of research examining the effectiveness and achievement of the implementation of English education in elementary schools, have revealed the anxieties and worries from the schools, the teachers, and the public (Peng, 2011; Chien, 2011b; Chen, 2001). Many domestic scholars and administrative staff have attributed the disappointments to the lack of qualified ELTs, which might be a consequence of disorganization and inadequacy of the teacher training programs (Lou, 2004; Zhang et al, 2002).

It was argued by Beeby (1996), that the quality of teachers is reflected by the quality
of education, and that there is no good education if there are no good teachers. Since teachers are at the heart of educational reform, in order to improve the quality of teachers and to acquire better English education, the teacher education has to be a priority in the education reform movement. In this research, it is the author’s intention to investigate the current status of ELTs at the elementary school level and the implementation of the ELTs’ initial education. This is achieved by the attempt to answer two fundamental questions: what PCs are necessary for the qualified ELTs in Taiwan and how the educational institutes are training the perspective teachers for mastery of such competencies. In other words, what are we expecting in a competent ELT and in response to our expectations, are the prospective English teachers receiving the training that corresponds to the demand of the education authorities and the need of the public? To this end, it would be important to describe the characteristics of an able ELT with respect to the cultural, political and social backgrounds in Taiwan’s contexts firstly in this chapter, followed by a discussion of how this generated description of the required PCs of an able ELT is supported by or conflicts with the academic findings, both international and domestic, in the latter part of this chapter.

In the following discussion, an analysis of the different factors contributing to the formation of the framework of the required PCs of able ELTs, especially for Taiwan, as well as a discussion of in what ways these factors influence the framework is first provided. In the 2nd part of the chapter, a short summary of the table of the expected PCs elicited from the analyses of the current political status, educational reform, educational regulations, and the English model adopted in Taiwan are given. This is followed by the comparisons of the table and the FRPC proposed in the previous
chapter. The last part is intended to investigate if the PCs in the table corresponds the ones in the FRPC; whether the findings from international and domestics studies support or conflict with the domestic educational trend in Taiwan is examined.

4.1 The Social Contexts of Taiwan: Important Factors Contributing to the PC Base of the ELTs in Taiwan

4.1.1 Factor 1: political force

In 1949, the political party Kuomintang (KMT) was defeated in battle by the Communist Party and was forced to retreat from Mainland China to Taiwan. Despite of the late arrival, due to the ascendancies in the economy, the population, and the armed forces, this new group of Mainlanders dominated the sovereignty of Taiwan. Soon after, the KMT became the single dominant party in Taiwan. After fifty years of sinicization\(^2\), the victories of the City and County Mayor Election in 1989, and the presidential elections both in 2000 and in 2004 by the Democratic Progress Party (DPP) forced the dominate party, KMT, to hand over the political regime to DPP, which has been claiming itself as the ‘local’ power in Taiwan (Chen, 2005; Peng, 2011). As one party stepped down, a new force rose. Furthermore, the lifting of Martial Law in 1987 initiated the people in Taiwan into the exploration of possible freedoms. The DPP’s victory in the political election in 1989 further strengthened the long-unvoiced minds to speak up (Ou, 2004; Chen, 2005). With the gradually changing public demands and the transforming society, and knowing compromises had to be kept, the government started education reforms after 1980s (Zhang, 2002).

4.1.1.1 Its influence upon the PC base to the ELTs in Taiwan

\(^2\) The term has been used in social science primarily to describe the assimilation of non-Han Chinese peoples (such as the Manchus) into the Chinese identity.
Representing the local power, DPP made a great effort in promoting the idea of localization and this determination has been observed in the new editions of textbooks in the compulsory education levels (Chen, 2003; Zhang, 2002; Peng, 2011). The teaching content of Chinese history and geography has been replaced with the Taiwanese history and geography. Local dialects have also been introduced to the new curriculum. Workshops for the local cultural practices have been highly encouraged in schools as well. This emphasized idea of nativism that is highly valued by the government authority has consequently led to the demand of a fundamental understanding of the local culture and history in teachers at compulsory education levels. This demand is also clearly observed in the objective of the new education reforms. Consequently, this phenomena has reshaped the idea of “culture teaching” in a foreign language classroom in Taiwan’s context. A new recent highlighted advocacy on the emphasis of the awareness and understanding of the learners’ cultures and local culture are calling for attention in addition to the long-promoted idea of the awareness of the target language’s culture. Taking the similar point as Arikan (2011), Dai (2003) and Zhang et al (2002), the point that without basic understanding of the cultures of the learners, it may lead to miscommunication and inflexibility of the teaching strategies adjustment is stressed. Therefore, it is argued that the understanding of the local culture should be considered a crucial component of the categories of KL and KSC (ibid.), or even be categorized as one specific competency for foreign language teachers (Huang, 1999; Shih et al, 1998). In sum, the uprising ideas of nativism and localization reinforce the importance of the competency indicators of understanding the local culture and local history; KSC is emphasized. In addition, understanding learner’s cultural background has also highlighted the significance of KL (Table 4-1).
Table 4-1. Table of the Implied PCs Reinforced by the Political Factor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideas/Forces</th>
<th>PC</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nativism</td>
<td>KSC</td>
<td>Understanding the local culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Localization</td>
<td>KSC</td>
<td>Understanding the local history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>KL</td>
<td>Understanding the learner’s cultural background</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1.2 Factor 2: G1-9C

In 1990s, the MOE and some scholars proposed an education reform in view of world trend, national development, public expectation, and social adjustments (MOE, 1998). The MOE tried to propose an educational reform, “Curriculum Frameworks for Elementary Schools and Junior High Schools” in 1993 and 1994. Although it had been gradually implemented, the MOE believed that innovative thinking and practice in education were the prerequisites for success in the new century. Therefore, the MOE revised the “Curriculum Frameworks for Elementary Schools and Junior High Schools” and issued the general guidelines of “Grades 1-9 Curriculum (G1-9C)” in 1998, which was put into practice in 2001 (see Appendix 1 for General Guidelines of Grades 1-9 Curriculum for Elementary and Junior High School Education). The curriculum revised in this reform is the one in the compulsory education consisting of six years of elementary and three years of secondary school. Comparing the objectives and policies in the new curriculum with the ones in the previous years and the Curriculum Standards issued in 1993, the new curriculum, G1-9C, seems to possess the tendencies of pedagogical innovation, internationalism, as well as nativism and decentralization (See Table 4-2). G1-9C encourages the development of school-based curriculum in accordance with the specific features of communities, participants, and schools to enhance the effectiveness of education; proving that it is less centralized (Chen, 2005). The MOE also proposed an innovative pedagogical
approach, the integration of interdisciplinary studies, to maximize the academic achievement in the content of area learning in hopes that this may encourage frequent cooperation and interaction among the individuals within the educational community. Therefore, in such arrangements, integrated curriculum, by the definition from the G1-9C, refers to the curriculum which encourages integrated teaching and learning, in which the integration of interdisciplinary studies are observed (Rao, 2001). Besides, integrative activities, which refers to the activities which may guide learners to practice, experience, and reflect upon the learning process, as well as to testify and apply what has been learned to real situations, are often designed and applied (Section V-C-7 of G1-9C). The increment in the attention drawn to the learning of indigenous education and the development of internationalism is also observed in the issued goals, as well as in the explanation of the desired core competences in future citizens addressed in the curriculum guideline. Furthermore, the deregulation of the textbook policy is an accelerator of formation for school-based curricula and the practice of both are the suggested indications of decentralization. These comparisons between the former policy, Curriculum Standards, and the new policy, G1-9C, are summarized in the table below.

Table 4-2. Comparison of the Curriculum Standards & G1-9C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Curriculum Standards</th>
<th>G1-9C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Curriculum</strong></td>
<td>Curriculum goals and taught topics were provided by the government.</td>
<td>Curriculum goals are given by the MOE, but school can plan its own curriculum plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Centralized</td>
<td>Decentralized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instruction</strong></td>
<td>Public Entrance Exam was required. Only one channel is provided for applying for admission for senior high school, college vocational school.</td>
<td>Multi-channels are provided: application, recommendation &amp; interview test and registration &amp; placement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assessment</strong></td>
<td>Mono-channel</td>
<td>Multi-channels</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Among many revolutionary policies, the introduction of English education at elementary school level is probably the most controversial, for it required a massive amount of preparation. English used to only be taught in junior high school, but the G1-9 proposes implementing English in the fifth grade (age 11) and this has been put into practice in 2001. The MOE further lowered the English learning age to the 3rd grade (age 9) in 2005. It was the educational authorities’ intention to train qualified ELTs at elementary levels to become future homeroom teachers in school (MOE, 2012b; Shih et al., 1998). Therefore, it is a commonly observed phenomenon that being ELTs at elementary school levels in Taiwan requires not only a role of a language teacher, but also a role of a homeroom teacher, who needs to offer assistance in other subject areas and administrative work from time to time. That is to say, the general guidelines are not exclusively applicable to homeroom teachers at the elementary schools, but also to the ELTs.

4.1.2.1 Its influence upon the framework of PCs

The innovative reform has been taken as the principle guidelines of the national curriculum in Taiwan and consequently, it delivers the message of what kind of core competencies are desirable in the future Taiwanese citizens. To achieve the goals, the
teachers have to be equipped with the PCs required for assisting learners to acquire such core competencies. Examining the guideline (Appendix I), seven emphases are observed which correspond to the findings in Table 4-2; what they are and what PCs are required in order to fulfill them is discussed below (Table 4-3).

a. The emphasis of decentralized curriculum

The new guideline indicates that curriculum goals are given by the MOE, but it is encouraged that each school develops their own unique school-based curriculum as well as lessons supporting the implementation of the curriculum (Ou, 1999) (see relevant regulations in Sections VI-C-a-1, VI-C-a-3 & VI-C-b-1 of G1-9C of G1-9C in Appendix I). These statements indicate that each school is to establish a Committee of School Curriculum Department and intra-school Committee of School Curriculum Department while considering the features of the community. Designing school-based curriculum and lessons requires a good understanding of the learners, the educational goals, the content knowledge and the knowledge of the local cultures, and local politics in order to develop a resourceful school-based curriculum and a variety of integrative lessons that are appropriate to the cognition levels and needs of the learners. In addition, this proposal also calls for good understanding of the content knowledge and the skills of material development in order to provide supporting assistance to the implementation of the designed lessons which are developed based on the rationale of school-based curriculum. Hence, from the above analysis, it is suggested that the PC areas of KL, KSLT, KE, KEU, and KSC are necessary for the contemporary ELTs in Taiwan (see Table 4-3). In Table 4-3, the competency indicators are the results analyzed or extracted from the relevant regulations in Sections VI-C-a-1, VI-C-a-3 & VI-C-b-1 of G1-9C of G1-9C. For instance, Section
VI-C-a-1 states:

Each school will establish a Committee of School Curriculum Development, … The functions of this committee is to **complete the school curriculum plan** for the coming semester, …, **review textbooks** compiled by the school staff, **develop topics and activities for teaching**, and be **responsible for the curriculum and instruction evaluation**. The organization of the Committee of School Curriculum Development shall be resolved during Staff Faculty Meetings.

Therefore, the competency indicators of being able to plan and design curriculum, lessons, and materials are explicitly suggested. To achieve these tasks, good understandings of learners’ developments, English content knowledge, educational goals and policies, and local culture and politics are necessary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/ Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Suggested Competency Indicators in G1-9C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Decentralized Curriculum | KL, KEU, KSLT (GPK), KE (CT), KSC | - Planning & designing curriculum  
- Planning & designing lessons & materials  
- Understanding learners’ developments  
- Understanding English content knowledge  
- Understanding the educational goals and policies  
- Understanding local cultures and politics |

*Note: Competency indicators analyzed and extracted from Sections VI-C-a-1, VI-C-a-3 & VI-C-b-1 of G1-9C of G1-9C.*

b. **The emphasis of multi-channels of assessment**

One of the innovative educational decisions made in the new guideline is the way curriculum, lessons, and students’ performances are assessed (Sections VI-E-a, VI-E-b, VI-C-c-1 and VI-C-c-4 of *G1-9C* in *Appendix 1*). It is intended that through
multi-channels of assessment, different perspectives of learning and teaching, like the creativity of the learning tasks and students’ learning motivation can also be examined. As Ye (2004) states that a variety of assessing methods enable the authorities to obtain more details on parts to form a more holistic picture of the whole. Traditional method of paper test no long serves as the only recognized measure. To successfully put this idea into practice, different PCs are required from ELTs (see Table 4-4). It is vital that executors have a solid understanding of the theories of assessment, learners’ language development, and English content knowledge in order to design appropriate methods as well as content for both teachers and learners. Hence, there is an emphasis on the PC areas of KSLT and KE.

Table 4-4. The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Multi-Channels of Assessment of G1-9C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/ Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multi-channels of assessment</td>
<td>KSLT (GPK, KLT), KE (CK)</td>
<td>- Understanding the theories relevant to assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Designing assessing tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding learner’s language developments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding English content knowledge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Competency indicators analyzed and extracted from Sections VI-E-a, VI-E-b, VI-C-c-1 and VI-C-c-4 of G1-9C.

c. The emphasis of deregulated textbook policy

The deregulated textbook policy encourages the use of a variety of teaching materials to assist learners’ learning. Curriculums and textbooks are no longer unified as the concept of school-based education is promoted (Section VII-C-1 of G1-9C). Zhan (2004) and Chen (2003) both share their concern about how schools’ and teachers’ insufficiencies of information regarding the availability of different textbooks, as well as the unfamiliarity of the local cultures and community resources may affect the
success of the implementation of school-based curriculum have highlighted the importance of KSC in designing and selecting suitable teaching materials. In addition, the knowledge of assessment and learners’ language development are also influential in the process of selecting and designing school-based textbooks. Therefore, KSLT and KE should also be reinforced (See Table 4-5).

Table 4-5. The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Deregulated Textbook Policy of G1-9C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deregulated textbook policy</td>
<td>KSLT (GPK, KLT), KE (CK), KSC</td>
<td>- Understanding the knowledge and skills of designing &amp; assessing teaching materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding learners’ language developments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding English content knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding local cultures as well as community resources</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Competency indicators analyzed and extracted from Section VII-C-1 of G1-9C.

d. The emphasis of localized text orientation

As discussed previously, the ideas of nativism and localization are now much more focused during the past two decades. These social ideological and political forces inevitably make impacts upon the educational policies. In the new guideline, the knowledge of local and indigenous cultures is promoted, and is observed by the new materials within the learning area, Social Studies (Section V-C-3 of G1-9C). These changes consequently reinforce the importance of the knowledge of the local cultures and politics (KSC), as well as the understanding of the learners’ cultural background (KL) (Table 4-6).

Table 4-6. The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Localized Text Orientation of G1-9C
Ch. 4: Literature Review 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/ Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nativism &amp; Localization</td>
<td>KSC, KL</td>
<td>- Understanding local cultures &amp; history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding learner’s background</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Competency indicators analyzed and extracted from Section V-C-3 of G1-9C.*

**e. The emphasis of humanitarian education**

As proposed in G1-9C, humanitarian attitudes should be cultivated and the humanitarian education should promote self-understanding and respect for others and different cultures (Section II-A of G1-9C). The issue of cultures is frequently mentioned in G1-9C. Like most of studies found in the field of foreign language learning, the new guideline pinpoints the significance of the target culture, i.e. the English culture. Nevertheless, in addition to the cultural aspect of the language, the aspects of humanity are also promoted: the culture of learners, the local culture of community, and the multicultural background of the society. Only by understanding and appreciating the variety of cultures can the curriculum goals of “to learn to respect others, care for the community” and “to further cultural learning and international understanding” be achieved. Consequently, as summarized in Table 4-7, ELTs’ awareness of the knowledge of the learner’s cultural background (KL), the local culture (KSC), the target language culture (KE), as well as the knowledge and skills of intercultural communication (GPK), are proposed.

Table 4-7. The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Concept of Humanitarian Education of G1-9C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/ Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural factors in humanitarian education</td>
<td>KL, KSC, KE, GPK</td>
<td>- Understanding learner’s cultural background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding the knowledge of school and community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding the knowledge of English target culture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
f. The emphasis of the modern demanded PCs

New demand 1: Knowledge & Skills of Technology (KST)

The utilization of technology and information is one of the core competencies in G1-9C (Sections V-D & V-H). Science and Technology is also a learning area, where different types of technology are considered to be important means to further one’s study and to express one’s opinions (Section IV-D). Therefore, different types of technology, such as media and computers, can be utilized in teaching, in assessing, and in learning. This emphasis highlights the importance of the new modern demanded PCs of KST, special TPACK, and PCK as illustrated in Table 4-8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New modern demand of application of technology (KST)</td>
<td>KST, TPACK, PCK</td>
<td>- Understanding the knowledge and skills of technology &lt;br&gt; - Understanding the application of technology in teaching &amp; learning &lt;br&gt; - Understanding the application of technology in English language teaching &amp; learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Competency indicators analyzed and extracted from Sections V-D, V-H & IV-D of G1-9C.

New demand 2: Knowledge & skills of integrated learning (KSI) & teaching and knowledge of general education (KGEU)

In integrated curriculum, the integration of interdisciplinary studies is stressed (Section V-B of G1-9C). For this reason, an ELT not only has to be familiar with the
English content knowledge as before, but also has to acquire the knowledge of the other school subjects. Hence, the knowledge of general education (KGEU) is promoted. Though the knowledge of other school subjects, the competency indicator within KGEU, is new to the ELTs, it is an old traditional custom in Taiwan that the homeroom teachers need to substitute for the colleagues from time to time and to provide assistance teaching such as reviewing other school subjects (Shih et al, 1998). Hence, KGEU is a new PC for ELTs, but it is a long requested PC for homeroom teachers in Taiwan. It is explained that through the practice of integrative activities, students’ integration ability, which “includes harmonizing sense with sensibility, a balance between theory and practice, and integrating human sciences with technology”, is enhanced (MOE, 1998, p. 4). The knowledge of designing, planning, and carrying out integrated learning and teaching (KSI), the understanding of different school subjects (KGEU), KST, CK, GPK, and KSC are required. More importantly, according to Bai’s suggestions (2010), the cooperative team work among the colleagues, the school, the teachers, and the community is important. These produce more resourceful results that are less time and less individual effort consuming. As a result, the willingness to devote time and effort and the willingness to work cooperatively with the others greatly facilitates the implementation of integrated teaching. Finally, the one skill that is highly focused in the process of conducting cooperative team work, as pointed out by Zhang (2006), is effective communicative skills; it is usually the key element in successful team work. It is often reported that conflicts occur during planning, designing, and “negotiating” teaching contents among teammates; though most teachers are aware of making good use of their communicative skills with their own students, they are not familiar with the concept of frequent interactions with their own colleagues (Bai, 2010; Zhang 2006).
Table 4-9. The Implied PCs Reinforced by the New Demand of the Promoted Concept of Integrated Learning & Teaching of G1-9C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Integrated learning & teaching (KSI) | KSI, KGEU, A&B, KSC MDKS, KE (CK), KSLT (GPK), KST | - Understanding different school subjects  
- Understanding English content knowledge  
- Understanding the philosophy and theories of integrated teaching & learning  
- Showing willingness to involve in cooperative teamwork  
- Showing willingness to devote extra time and work  
- Communicating effectively  
- Understanding the application of technology in English language teaching & learning  
- Understanding the knowledge of local cultures |

Note: Competency indicators analyzed and extracted from Section V-B of G1-9C.

New Demand 3: Knowledge and Skills of Conducting Research (KSR)

Additionally, the importance of research knowledge and skills is also brought into attention (Section V-C-5). Corresponding to the international academic climate, it is explained in G1-9C that the PC of research knowledge and skills enables educators to contribute to the action research on curriculum and pedagogy (Section VI-H-a-3). For this reason, KSR is suggested for an able ELT.

Table 4-10. The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Modern Demand of KSR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New modern demand of conducting educational research (KSR)</td>
<td>KSR</td>
<td>- Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of conducting educational research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Competency indicators analyzed and extracted from Sections V-C-5 & VI-H-a-3 of G1-9C.
New Demand 4: Knowledge and skills of administration (KSA)

Lastly, the importance of effective communicative skills is demonstrated in the curriculum goals: “To cultivate knowledge and skills related to expression, communication, and sharing.” Though the promotion of effective communicative skills has been advocated for decades, the unique multi-cultural structure of the contemporary society of Taiwan has called for a much more complex type of communication, the intercultural communication. To cultivate the learners’ intercultural communicative competence, suggested by Zhang et al (1994), the PCs of good understanding of the learners, the knowledge of the local cultures and politics, and self-understanding are fundamental. This new demand is called for not simply for the purpose of teaching, but also for the long term plan of MOE (2012), which is to cultivate the future ELTs to become homeroom teachers. This expectation necessitates some administrative duties which involve frequent contacts with different participants such as students, parents, colleagues, schools, and even the local educational authorities. Consequently, appropriate communicative skills, as well as intercultural communicative skills, are crucial for effective interactions, which is the fundamental competency indicator of the good understanding of knowledge and skills of administration (KSA).

Table 4-11. The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Modern Demand of KSA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/ Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New modern demands of involving in administrative duties (KSA)</td>
<td>KSA, KCL, KSC, KSLT (GPK)</td>
<td>- Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding participants’ cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding effective communicative skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding the knowledge and skills of effective intercultural communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Competency indicators analyzed and extracted from curriculum goals of G1-9C.*
g. The emphasis of cooperative team work

This new educational guideline not only adopts revolutionary educational policies like integrated teaching and school-based curriculum, but also applies innovative attitudes like multi-channels assessment and cooperative team work in its implementation and assessment (Section C-E-b of G1-9C). The policies of decentralized curriculum, multi-channels assessment, deregulated textbook policy, and school-based material development all contribute to the uniqueness of G1-9C. However, the term “uniqueness” is used, for they are new concepts or measures that were seldom encouraged in the old days, so their implementation consequently resulted in the anxiety and confusion among ELTs. In Li’s study in 2009, it was also reported that these educational polices have caused much pressure and workload upon the in-service teachers. Therefore, cooperative teamwork comes in place as a solution to these difficulties. Despite the fact that this cannot resolve all the challenges, it helps reduce the workload and pressure through effective communication and frequent resources sharing (Li et al, 2009; Ye, 2004). In conclusion, the PCs of communicative skills, as well as the positive attitudes and beliefs, benefit the smoothness of cooperative teamwork (see Table 4-12).

Table 4-12. The Implied PCs Reinforced by the Promoted Concept of Cooperative Team Work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/ Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative teamwork</td>
<td>GPK, A&amp;B</td>
<td>- Understanding effective communicative skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Showing positive attitudes and beliefs in sharing resources and devoting time and effort</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Competency indicators analyzed and extracted from Section C-E-b of G1-9C.*

4.1.2.2 Summary of the suggested PCs analyzed and extracted from G1-9C
In the subsections, how the educational policy G1-9C influences an able ELT’s PCs is discussed, and the analysis shows that the implementation of G1-9C not only requires the PCs suggested in the findings of the relevant international and domestic studies discussed in the previous chapter, i.e. the long promoted PCs like KL, KEU, KSLT, KE, KSC, and KGEU as well as the new demanded PCs like KST, KSR and KCL but also calls for some new demands of PCs that are specifically stressed owing to the social contexts of Taiwan like KSI, KSA and A&B (Table 4-13).

Table 4-13. The Implied PCs Reinforced by G1-9C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/ Forces</th>
<th>PC Involved</th>
<th>Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decentralized Curriculum</td>
<td>KL, KEU, KSLT, KE, KSC</td>
<td>- Planning &amp; designing curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Planning &amp; designing lessons &amp; materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding learners’ developments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding English content knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding the educational goals and policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding local cultures and politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-channels of assessment</td>
<td>KSLT (GPK) (KLT), KE (CK)</td>
<td>- Understanding the theories relevant to assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Designing assessing tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding learner’s language developments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding English content knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deregulated textbook policy</td>
<td>KSLT (GPK) (KLT), KE (CK), KSC</td>
<td>- Understanding the knowledge and skills of designing &amp; assessing teaching materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding learners’ language developments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding English content knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding local cultures as well as community resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nativism &amp; Localization</td>
<td>KSC, KL</td>
<td>- Understanding local cultures &amp; history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding learner’s background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural factors in humanitarian</td>
<td>KL, KSC, KE, GPK</td>
<td>- Understanding learner’s cultural background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding the knowledge of school and community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understanding the knowledge of English target</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

89
| New modern demand of the application of technology (KST) | KST, TPACK, PCK | - Understanding the knowledge and skills of technology  
- Understanding the application of technology in teaching & learning  
- Understanding the application of technology in English language teaching & learning |
| Integrated learning & teaching (KSI) | KSI, A&B, KSC, MDKS, KE (CK), KSLT (GPK), KST | - Understanding English content knowledge  
- Understanding the philosophy and theories of integrated teaching & learning  
- Showing willingness to involve in cooperative team work  
- Showing willingness to devote extra time and work  
- Communicating effectively  
- Understanding the application of technology in English language teaching & learning  
- Understanding the knowledge of local cultures |
| KGEU | Knowledge of other school subjects | - Understanding different school subjects |
| New modern demand of conducting educational research (KSR) | KSR | - Understanding the knowledge & skills of conducting educational research |
| New modern demands of involving in administrative duties (KSA) | KSA, KCL, KSC, KSLT (GPK) | - Understanding the knowledge & skills of administration  
- Understanding participants’ cultures  
- Understanding communicative skills  
- Understanding the knowledge and skills of effective intercultural communication |
| Cooperative teamwork | GPK, A&B | - Understanding effective communicative skills  
- Showing positive attitudes and beliefs in sharing resources and devoting time and effort |

### 4.1.3 Factor 3: Teacher Education Act

#### 4.1.3.1 The innovative reforms in Teacher Education Act
The major innovative reforms in the Teacher Cultivation Act enacted in 1994 and amended in 2005 have revealed their features of marketization (i.e. deregulation, de-monopolization and privatization). The concept of marketization is closely related to market economy and market structure. The economy system enables individuals to have their own property right and the decision right for their economic acts. Three commonly observed characteristics can be found in marketization: deregulation, de-monopolization, and privatization (Dai, 2000: 68-69). The policy that teacher education programs for training K-12 teachers are now available in different 4-year public and private universities and colleges under the condition that approval has to be obtained from the educational authorities reveals the features of deregulation and de-monopolization (as shown in Table 4-2). The elimination of free-tuition for pre-service training except for those who study in subject areas in scarce fields and who will work in remote areas is a sign for privatization. This feature is also observed in the eradication of government-guaranteed job assignment. The student teachers have to apply for job vacancies in different schools under a school-based screening process (as shown in Illustration 2-3 & 2-4). The repeal of the government-planned teacher supply and demand system also indicates the new act is more market-driven. Supply and demand of teachers is now decided by the free market. It is believed that competition among students from different programs may bring a dynamic energy into schools and enhance the quality of teachers (MOE, 2012b; Fwu & Want, 2002).

4.1.3.2 Its influence on the FRPC of ELTs

The Teacher Cultivation Act, which came into effect in 1994, was formulated to ensure the cultivation of qualified, knowledgeable, and professional teachers, and in keeping up with the new social trend and demands. In the Article 10 of the Teacher
Cultivation Act in 1994, it states that

A person who holds educational qualifications of a university degree or higher, and who has been recognized by the central competent authority as having completed the ordinary curriculum, specialized courses, and education concentration courses under Article 7, Paragraph 2, may apply to a teacher education university to participate in a half-year education practicum. If the person performs satisfactorily, he or she shall be issued a certificate of completion of pre-service teacher education by the teacher education university.

In terms of ordinary curriculum, they refer to the compulsory courses that are determined by each university. Specialized courses are referring to the courses that are specifying on the specific subject the teacher teaches. As for education concentration courses, they are the educational knowledge that a teacher requires, such as educational theories and methods, and educational practices. Universities are entitled to some of the training courses the schools provided, but they have to follow the basic principles issued in Article 10. From this regulation, it is clear that to become ELTs at the elementary level in Taiwan, ordinary curriculum knowledge, which includes the knowledge of different fundamental subjects areas (KGEU), specialized knowledge, which includes both the knowledge about English (KE), linguistic knowledge (KLT), and knowledge of teaching subject matter (PCK), and education concentration knowledge, which includes general knowledge of teaching (GPK) and knowledge of education (KEU), are essential. Furthermore, the features of marketization of the new act may also have contributed to shaping ELTs’ PCs. For prospective teachers who will have to join a public examination for the qualification of teacher certificate, as well as to join screening tests for job application, the knowledge of educational
policies and regulation (KEU), as well as personality traits such as interpersonal skills and the enthusiastic attitudes (A&B) towards the job have been heavily highlighted in the first time in fifty years.

4.1.4 Factor 4: FLES

Elementary school foreign language programs fall into the following broad models: foreign language in the elementary school (FLES), foreign language experience program or exploratory foreign language program, and Immersion Program. The 1980s has been seen as the era of the rebirth of FLES programs due to the increasing demand for foreign language teaching (Reeves, 1989). The new FLES programs focuses less on the teaching of grammar and more on the development of listening and speaking skills and the development of cultural awareness (Pesola, 1991).

In the case of Taiwan, the similarities between FLES and the English education in Taiwan can be observed in comparisons between the findings reported by Lipton’s (1988), Curtain & Pesola (1994), and Chen (1998). The English education in Taiwan fits into the category of FLES better for the shared characteristics on learning objectives, mediums of language in class, teaching & process, and sources of teachers (Table 4-14). The English education at elementary school levels in Taiwan aims to help learners achieve a certain degree of English level, which fits into the language learning objective of FLES explained by Curtain & Pesola (1994). Furthermore, they both encourage the usage of target language in class despite the fact that the application of the first language is also allowed. In addition, they also share similar learning and teaching processes, which the skills of listening and speaking are highlighted. Lastly, their policies regarding the source of teachers are also alike; they
both allow teaching positions for both language experts, as well as homeroom teachers.

Table 4-14. Comparisons of the Features between FLES & the English Education in Taiwan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>FLES</th>
<th>English Education at Elementary Schools in Taiwan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language Learning Objectives</td>
<td>- Expect to achieve certain degree of English level</td>
<td>- Expect to achieve certain degree of English level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Language</td>
<td>- Mostly 1st language&lt;br&gt;- 1st &amp; 2nd languages may occur as well</td>
<td>- Mainly 1st language&lt;br&gt;- 1st &amp; 2nd languages may occur as well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning/Teaching Process</td>
<td>- From comprehension, to conversation to reading and to writing.</td>
<td>- From comprehension, to conversation to reading and to writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson duration &amp; frequency</td>
<td>- 2 to 5 times per week&lt;br&gt;- 20 to 60 minutes per session.</td>
<td>- 2 times per week.&lt;br&gt;- 40 to 50 minutes per session.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources of Teacher</td>
<td>- Language experts&lt;br&gt;- homeroom teachers</td>
<td>- Language experts preferred.&lt;br&gt;- homeroom teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Data analyzed from Chen (1998); Lipton (1988a; 1988b); Lipton et al (1985); Curtain & Pesola (1994)*

Since the two share great similarities, the PCs required to implement FLES may parallel as well. In views of FLES’ features and learning objectives, Chapman proposes required features of an able FLES teacher. They are:

1. The knowledge of children’s cultural backgrounds as it helps teacher select appropriate teaching content and strategies.
2. The sensitivity to multi-cultural values in the classroom and variations in learning styles.
3. The need to be language proficient in a ‘special’ way is required because teachers have to be aware of the current popular languages used by the young students.
4. Familiarity with the materials and teaching strategies appropriate to children.

5. Strong skills in classroom management and parent involvement.

6. Knowledge of how first and second languages are acquired.


(1998: 37)

The seven features reflect the recommendations made by Lipton in 1988. The framework for FLES teacher training education contents proposed by Lipton corresponds with that of Chapman in 1998. Based on the comparisons, they both recognize the importance of target culture knowledge (a competency indicator of KE) and multi-cultural sensitivity, knowledge of linguistics (KLT), knowledge of content (CK), knowledge of English curriculum (KC), knowledge of learners (KL), knowledge of theory of learning & teaching (KLT), knowledge of general pedagogies (GPK), knowledge of language (KE), and interpersonal skills (i.e. GPK). Among all, teachers’ language proficiency and knowledge of language (i.e. ELS) are emphasized by Chapman. Therefore, if the FLES model is to continue its influential role in the English education at elementary levels in Taiwan, ELTs’ language proficiency and knowledge of English are to be prioritized.

4.2 Summary

In conclusion, the curriculum rationales and goals stated in the G1-9C, the policies issued in the Teacher Cultivation Act, and the adopted FLES elementary English language program model and the political force in Taiwan have all contributed to the variables which help characterize the image of able ELTs with respect to Taiwan’s
contexts. It is suggested from the previous discussion that the PCs of ELTs, both knowledge base and skills, include: respectively, firstly, KC, KSC and KEU for the better performance of the teacher’s role as homeroom teacher; secondly, KL, KCL, knowledge of theory of motivation (a competency indicator of GPK), and GPK for the cultivation of students’ interest in learning the subject as well as for the development for life-long learning; thirdly, PCK, CK and KE for the effective teaching of the subject and the role of a competent language teacher; and finally, knowledge and skills of intercultural communicative competence (a competency indicator of GPK), KST, KSR, KSI, KSA and A&B in meeting the contemporary demands of the modern teaching and the new trend of educational policies in Taiwan. In other words, the expected PCs of a competent ELT in Taiwan are the long promoted PCs such as KL, KSLT, KE, KEU, KSC, and KGEU, the new demanded PCs such as KST, KSR and KCL and the new demanded PCs like KSI, KSA and A&B that are unique to the social context of Taiwan.

Table 4-15. The Suggested PC List for ELTs in Taiwan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Long promoted PCs</th>
<th>KL, KSLT (GPK, PCK, KLT), KE (ELS, CK, KC), KEU, KSC, KGEU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Demanded PCs</td>
<td>KST, KCL, KSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New demanded PCs highlighted in Taiwan</td>
<td>KSI, KSA, A&amp;B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 The Comparisons of the Suggested PC List for the ELTs in Taiwan (Table 4-15) and the Suggested PCs Generated from the Academic Findings (FRPC)

The proposed competency framework (Diagram 3-1) summarizes the important PCs
suggested by a number of theorists in different international and domestic studies which try to identify the characteristics of a competent teacher and in some cases an ELT. Table 4-15 outlines the suggested PCs, which are deduced and extracted from the analysis of the social contexts in Taiwan, for the ELTs in Taiwan. By comparison, the suggested PCs in Table 4-15 resemble these in the FRPC in Diagram 3-1 with the exceptions of the heavier emphases of KSA, KGEU and KSI in Table 4-15. This is to say, the international education climates can be reflected on the educational tendencies in Taiwan.

Taking the social contexts of Taiwan into consideration, a new revised FRPC is generated and illustrated in Diagram 4-1. In it, the PCs suggested by the academic findings in the previous chapter are observed, and it also includes the three PCs: KSA, KGEU, and KSI that are highlighted in the educational policies in Taiwan. KSA can be considered an individual PC area because it mainly involves duties that are not focused on teaching itself but on communicating and handling administrative matters. Moreover, the knowledge of other school subjects (i.e. KGEU) is also viewed as an isolated PC area, for it comprises the content knowledge of different school subjects; a type of knowledge consisting of the basic understanding of the general education. On the other hand, KSI can be considered a PC form of GPK due to its characteristic that it is a type of knowledge and skills that are used for incorporating the content knowledge of different school subjects and presenting the merged ideas as a new form of information. Despite their different classifications, one PC area and one PC form, KSI and KSA are classified within MDKS in the revised FRPC in Diagram 4-1 for the purpose of examining their values respectively in the opinions of the trainees in this study. KGEU is classified as a PC area in the FRPC since it is a PC that is recognized
for long as a general PC in an elementary school teacher in Taiwan.
Diagram 4-1. The Revised Framework of Required Professional Competencies in Consideration of the Modern Demands in Taiwan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>PC Forms</th>
<th>Examples of Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KL</td>
<td>Knowledge of child development</td>
<td>→ Understanding children’s cognitive, psychological &amp; physiological developments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge of learners’ cultures</td>
<td>→ Understanding children’s cultural backgrounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General pedagogical knowledge (GPK)</td>
<td>→ Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of classroom management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of assessment of learning &amp; teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of material development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the theory of motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Possessing interpersonal skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of intercultural communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of academic research skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK)</td>
<td>→ Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of TESOL methodology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of TESOL activity design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding TESOL’s relevant resources and their application</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding technological pedagogical content knowledge &amp; its application</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge of learning &amp; teaching (KLT)</td>
<td>→ Understanding the knowledge of 1st &amp; 2nd language acquisitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KE</td>
<td>English language skills (ELS)</td>
<td>→ Possessing good English writing proficiency &amp; skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Possessing good English reading proficiency &amp; skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Possessing good English speaking proficiency &amp; skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Content knowledge (CK)</td>
<td>→ Possessing good English listening proficiency &amp; skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Is familiar with English literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge of Curriculum (KC)</td>
<td>→ Is familiar with children literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Is familiar with chants &amp; nursery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the target language culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the theory &amp; skills of English pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the theory &amp; skills of English spelling &amp; phonics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KEU</td>
<td>Knowledge of general educational issues</td>
<td>→ Understanding educational policies &amp; goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge of educational context</td>
<td>→ Understanding current educational issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the knowledge of history &amp; philosophy of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KGEU</td>
<td>Knowledge of general education</td>
<td>→ Understanding the local political, social &amp; economic cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the school’s &amp; community’s resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Understanding the multi-cultural backgrounds of the community</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Framework of the Required PCs for ELTs

- Knowledge Base
  - Fundamental Knowledge & skills
  - Modern Demanded Knowledge & Skills (MDKS)
  - Knowledge about learners (KL)
  - Knowledge & skills of Technology (KST)
  - Knowledge about English (KE)
  - Knowledge & skills of Culture (KCL)
  - Knowledge of education (KEU)
  - Knowledge of school & community (KSC)
  - Knowledge of general education (KGEU)

- Personality Traits
  - Attitudes
  - Beliefs
  - Positive attitudes toward the teaching profession
  - Positive beliefs of self
  - Positive beliefs of education
  - Demonstrating the willingness of providing extra devotion in time & work
  - Demonstrating the willingness of taking part in further development & colleague cooperation

In the personal statement in the Introduction Chapter, it was explained that due to my health condition, I once suspended my doctoral study in order to receive intensive medical treatment. A new report introducing the results of the research conducted by Zhang et al was released in the November of 2008. Though this present research started in 2005 and therefore the new report was not reviewed for the purpose of establishing the FRPC proposed in this study, it is my obligation as a researcher to point out the presence of the new report as it also proposes an indicator system for evaluating elementary school and high school teachers in Taiwan. This part of discussion focuses on the review of the new report and its results. However, the results from the new report have not yet been compared with the results of this present research. Instead, the results are compared in Chapter 8, where the findings of this present research are revealed.

The new report “The Theory and Research Foundations of Teacher Evaluation Standard for Elementary School and High School Teachers” reveals the results of the collaborative research conducted by Zhang and a number of domestic scholars from different normal universities in Taiwan. It is an MOE funded project which consists of eight different sub-plans. The primary purpose of the project is to build a teacher evaluation standard for in-service elementary school and high school teachers. In order to set up the standard, an indicator system is established to evaluate elementary and junior high school teachers’ PC under the current undergoing curriculum reform of G1-9C. Bibliography analysis, group discussions, expert panels, questionnaire survey, and in-situ practices were employed before the indicators were established. The framework proposed in the new report consists of “domains of competence”,
“dimensions of competence”, and “competence indicators” (Appendix 2 for the translated version of the framework). Domains of competence cover planning, instruction, management, evaluation, and profession development. The dimensions of competence cover curriculum planning, teaching planning, presentation of teaching materials, teaching methods, performance assessment, classroom management, resources management, curriculum appraisal, teaching evaluation, spontaneous learning, professional enhancement, and attitude. Based on the domains and dimensions listed above, thirty-five indicators, such as understanding of the curriculum framework, skills of presenting teaching materials, and effectiveness of teaching methods among others are developed.

Both the FRPC in this study and the indicator system in the new report suggest the important PCs required for the contemporary ELTs in Taiwan. However, different presentations of how the PCs are classified are adopted. In the FRPC, PCs are presented in accordance to the knowledge types and personality traits, whereas the PCs in the new report are presented in accordance to the types of behaviours. The reason why the PCs are presented based on the knowledge types and personality traits in the FRPC is because one of the purposes of this present study is to evaluate the ELTs’ initial education programs, and consequently, “what” the programs should provide and “what type of knowledge and skills” the trainees should acquire are the primary aspects of the investigation of this study. Following the same logic, the purpose of the new report is to set up an evaluation mechanism for the in-service elementary school and high school teachers and therefore, what teachers “can do” is the investigated aspect. Hence, the establishment of the system of behaviour indicators is essential. Owing to the distinct purposes, how PCs are organized and
presented in both studies varies.

As mentioned previously, the results of this present research are revealed in the results and analysis chapters. Accordingly, the results of both studies are compared in the latter part of this thesis. How the PC types proposed in both studies are similar to or different from each other and in what ways they correspond or contradict are also discussed in Chapter 8.

4.5 Summary of the Chapter and the Preview of the Next Chapter

In this chapter, the comprehensiveness of the FRPC is consolidated by taking account of the social contexts in Taiwan. This is achieved by identifying different factors which may influence the types of knowledge and personality traits expected in a competent ELT and explaining how these variables contribute to the demands of the required PCs. The results of the study conducted by Zhang et al (2008), where a competence indicator system is proposed, are also reviewed. Those results are to be compared with the results from this study in the latter part of this thesis.

In the next chapter, a brief introduction to the research design and the methods implemented for the data collection and data analysis are provided. The information of the procedures taken for the conduction of the research as well as how the reliability is controlled is also explained.
Chapter 5: Methodology

5.0 Introduction

a. The review of research purpose & questions

This present research is a follow-up mixed methods study, which aims to investigate the effectiveness and practicality of the elementary school ELT’s pre-service training programs in Taiwan. The subjects from three different training institutes, authorized by the MOE to offer the initial education for ELTs, were selected. The research questions (RQ) focused in this study are as follows:

**RQ 1:** What PCs are expected in an able ELT in consideration of the social contexts in Taiwan?

*Sub-Q1-1:* What knowledge and skills do the trainees consider to be important and the most important at pre-training stage?

**RQ 2:** How are the training institutes preparing the trainees to meet the expectations?

*(On the aspect of comprehensiveness)*

*Sub-Q2-1:* What training contents are provided to cultivate the trainees’ PCs?

*(On the aspect of the trainees’ learning achievements)*

*Sub-Q2-2:* What are the trainees’ general opinions regarding their own PCs at the pre-training and post-training stages?

*(On the aspect of the trainees’ satisfaction rates of the trainings)*

*Sub-Q2-3:* What are the trainees’ general opinions regarding the training programs?
RQ 3: How useful/applicable are the trained skills and knowledge in formal teaching settings?

(The interviews in 2008)

Sub-Q3-1: Which type(s) of the training is/are found to be useful and which part(s) is/are less applicable in formal teaching settings?

Sub-Q3-2: Taking into account the trainees’ personal experiences, what type of skills or knowledge should be reinforced in the training?

(The interviews in 2011)

Sub-Q3-3: Taking into account the trainees’ teaching experiences, how could the FRPC be readjusted?

b. Present research design

The effectiveness and practicality of the training programs are examined in this study. A good understanding of the trainees at different stages of the training is crucial because the transformation of the trainees’ opinions, attitudes, and PCs during the whole training process is the key factor to be reflected upon to determine the success of the training. Accordingly, this research is designed to be a longitudinal study, in which data were collected from the pre-training stages to three years after the completions of the trainings.

In addition to the intention of collecting data at different times to gather more insightful information, this research also adopts two types of research plan models:
Instrument Development Model of Exploratory Design (IDM-ED) and Follow-up Explanation Model of Explanatory Design (FUEM-ED). The former was employed to gather the qualitative data and the results were used to develop the quantitative instrument, the pre-training questionnaire (see Appendix 6 for Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire), and the post-training stage questionnaire (see Appendix 7 for Post-Training Stage Questionnaire). The latter model was then adopted to first collect the quantitative data and through the analysis of the data, guiding questions (GQ) were generated for the later interviews. The applications of both quantitative and qualitative instruments are for closer examinations of the study’s questions.

c. Outline of the chapter

This chapter begins with an explanation of important features of the research design, followed by an introduction to the research instruments and methods used for data collection as well as the data analysis in this study. How these instruments are designed and implemented in the research and the research plan flowchart are also described. More methodological issues are discussed in Section 5.4. In the latter part of this chapter, a brief discussion of the reliability and validity of the study is offered and the chapter ends with a short summary.

5.1 Introduction to the Research Design

5.1.1 Follow-up study

Longitudinal research is termed as a study conducted over a period of time. In this type of study, the data is gathered over an extended period of time (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996). A short-term investigation may take several weeks or months, whereas a long-term one may extend to many years. A longitudinal study is essential and valued
for exploring problems in human development, as Magnusson, Bergman, Rudinger and Torestad explained:

The normal process in which an individual develops from birth through the life course is of interest in itself as a subject for research. Understanding and explaining that process is also fundamental for understanding what contributes to physical and mental health and for revealing the causes of mental, social and physical problems during the life course...the development of individuals cannot be adequately and effectively investigated without using a longitudinal research strategy. (1991, p. xiii)

A similar viewpoint is shared in Cohen et al.’s work in 2007; it is stated that follow-up studies are “useful for establishing causal relationships and for making reliable inferences as well as for charting growth and development” (p. 219).

This present research is termed as a follow-up study for the reason that the trainees’ opinions were gathered over a period of five years. During the period, measurements are taken at different stages of the training: pre-training, post-training, and post-practicum stages, and three years after the completions of the trainings, respectively. The decision to adopt a follow-up study is for the advantages of its features for being useful in noting changes in the trainees’ characteristics or behaviours and exploring the reasons for these changes; it can better suit the purpose of this research of observing the progress of the trainees’ PCs at different time periods.

5.1.1.1 The potential threats of applying a follow-up study

Although longitudinal follow-up studies are favoured for its advancement in keeping
track of the changes or continuity of the subject’s characteristics, it is pined out that the comparability of data over time and the potential problem of attrition are the two major concerns of such a framework. To compare with other research types, it can be more time and money-consuming (Ruspini, 2002; Burns, 2000). In addition, Gorard (2001) addresses that long-term studies may face a threat to internal validity that stems from the need to test and retest the same individuals. This phenomenon is termed differently by several authors. Dooley terms this “pre-test sensitisation” (2001, p.120) whereas Ruspini refers to it as “panel conditioning” (2002, p.73). It is concerned that repeated measurements of the same subject may cause subjects to become either more or less sensitive to the experimental treatment/design.

5.1.1.2 The solutions to the threats: this present research

Being aware of the potential threats of such a study, some preventions and compensations were made during the data collection and result interpretation. Instead of considering attrition as a problem, it is treated as valuable information in this study because it could provide another angle into the investigation of how the trainees value the training programs as well as why a decision to dropout was made. This investigation enables the study to offer a wider exploration of the participants’ psychological activity and process, which could possibly be another alternative of interpretation of the success of the training programs.

In response to the potential concerns of the comparability of data during the time of this research, amendments to the educational policies and decisions in relation to the ELTs’ initial education and job requirements, as well as how they have influenced the arrangements of some training courses and the availability of the training sessions in
the initial training throughout the research were kept up-to-date. This is discussed in different sections of this study including Chapter 2, the amendment section of this chapter, and in the discussion sections of the analysis chapters. In addition, to mitigate the “pre-test sensitization” posed by Dooley (2001, p.120), two different methods, Liker-type scale questionnaires and interviews, were adopted to examine the trainees’ opinions towards the trainings, so their opinions were double checked. Furthermore, the interview provided the subjects the opportunities to further explain their choices and doubts on the questionnaire items. In addition, the participants of the first group were given a year and a half between the two questionnaires, while the participants in second and third groups waited a period of two years and a half between questioning. This was done so the negative interference of the first questionnaire on the second may be more controllable.

5.1.2 Mixed methods approach research

A mixed methods approach research design, also termed as multi-method research by Campbell & Fiske (1959) and mixed methodology research design by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), is a procedure for collecting, analysing, and combining both quantitative and qualitative research and methods in a study (cited in Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Nowadays, the most commonly used name is the “mixed methods research,” a name associated with the work of Tashakkori & Teddlie in *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research* in 2003.

Marshall and Rossman’s claim in 1995 corresponds with Creswell & Plano Clark’s claim in 2007 that the basic assumption of employing such approach is that the combination of both methods in data collection provides a better understanding of the
research problem than if either method was utilized alone. Mixed methods research design is useful if the study seeks to build on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative data. It is stated by Miles & Huberman that the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is ‘a very powerful mix’ (1994, p. 42). Creswell (2003) further explains that quantitative data involves numeric information that can be analysed statistically, used to assess and serve as an indicator of a population’s tendency on certain aspects of a topic. Qualitative data, on the other hand, provides words and texts from participants in order to offer different perspectives and views on the studied problems, as well as provide a more comprehensive and complex picture of the interested area. It is claimed that recognizing all methods has limitations; biases inherent in every single method could counterbalance the biases of other methods (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). Greene et al (1989) highlights the usage of mixing different types of data by stating that the results from one method can help develop or inform the other. Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998) also adds that one method can be nested within another to provide insight into different levels or units of analysis.

In this present study, an open-ended questionnaire is adopted first to serve two purposes: one is to explore the possible variables to be included in the designed questionnaire instrument and the other is to further validate the elements content within the proposed FRPC for the ELTs in this study (Diagram 3-1). Followed by this qualitative method, two quantitative instruments are developed for investigating the training programs. In addition to these quantitative instruments, the FRPC, which were generated from the analysis of the six experts’ open-question survey and the findings in the literature reviews, was also used as a criterion to examine the comprehensiveness of the training contents of different programs. The analysis from
the quantitative data was then used for identifying significant question items for the follow-up qualitative investigation regarding the reasons of the decision made in the Liker-type scale questionnaires. To quickly summarize, this research utilizes two qualitative instruments, open-ended questionnaires and interviews, and two quantitative instruments, a pre-training stage questionnaire and a post-training questionnaire. The collected data are presented statistically and in text-form. In the following section, the types of research design models employed in this study are explained.

5.1.2.1 Exploratory Design: Instrument Development Model (ED-IDM)

Creswell & Plano Clark (2007) proposes four different types of mixed methods designs within mixed methods research: Triangulation Design, the Embedded Design, the Explanatory Design, and the Exploratory Design. A mixed methods approach employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially. The intention of the 2-phase Exploratory Design is that the results from the first method (qualitative) can help develop or inform the second method (quantitative). It is clarified that this type of design is particularly useful when an exploration is needed for one of three reasons: if measurements or instruments are not available, if the variables are unknown, or if there is no guiding framework or theory. It is also appropriate for testing the aspects of classification (ibid.). Two common variants are encompassed in the Exploratory Design: the instrument development model and the taxonomy development model. The former one is used when there is a need to develop and implement a quantitative instrument based on qualitative finds. This model was first employed in this study in an attempt to develop a quantitative instrument (Likert-type scale questionnaires) to gather information for the first part of
data collection.

a. The potential threats of applying ED-IDM

There are a number of challenges associated with the ED-IDM and its variants that are identified by Creswell & Plano Clark (2007). This is a model encompassed in mixed methods research design; they both share similar challenges of being time and money-consuming. Besides, the data obtained from the application of an instrument development model should be carefully dealt with. It is considered challenging when deciding which or what data should be used from the qualitative phase to design the quantitative instrument or how it could be used to generate quantitative measurements (Morse & Niehaus, 2009). Moreover, it is also suggested that careful procedures should be taken to ensure that the scores developed on the instrument are valid and reliable (ibid.).

b. The solutions to the threats: this present research

In this study, the instrument development model was applied in the earlier part of the research. An open-ended questionnaire, Expert’s Opinions Survey (Appendix 5), was first distributed to six experts in Taiwan in an attempt to investigate the pool of items/types of PCs required of an able ELT in Taiwan as well as to validate or amend the content of the FRPC proposed in chapter 4 (Diagram 3-1). The analysis from the qualitative open-ended questionnaires contributed to the formation of the two quantitative questionnaires distributed to the trainees at the pre-training and post-training stages of the training programs. In order to confirm the validity and reliability of these items, two precautions were taken. One was the complementary reinforcement of the FRPC, which was generated by the findings from the literature
reviews and six experts’ opinions at pre-designing phase. The other was the implementations of the content validity and test-retest reliability confirmations. Findings from the literature reviews of relevant international and domestic studies were incorporated with the findings in the Expert’s Opinions Survey. Therefore, the appropriateness of the statement items on the questionnaires was checked before their designing. After the initial design, another four experts’ opinions were once again collected for the revision of the two questionnaires. In order to ensure the instrument’s reliability, test-retest reliability was carried out, and the statistical results confirmed the reliability of the items (see Appendix 8).

5.1.2.2 Explanatory Design: Follow-up Explanations Model (ED-FEM)

Similar to the Exploratory Design, the Explanatory Design is also a 2-phase mixed methods design. The design starts with the collection and analysis of quantitative data followed by the sequential collection and analysis of qualitative data. This design has two variants, the follow-up explanation model and the participant selection model.

The follow-up explanation model consists of prior collected quantitative data and qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results (Creswell, 2008). It can be especially useful when unexpected results like outlier or significant results arise from a quantitative study (Morse, 1991). In such cases, the qualitative data collection that follows can be used to examine these surprising results in detail. This design can also be used when a researcher wants to form groups based on quantitative results and follow up with the groups through subsequent qualitative research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) or use quantitative participant characteristics to guide purposeful sampling for a qualitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). In
this model, the researcher identifies specific quantitative findings that need additional explanation, and the researcher then collects qualitative data from participants who can best help explain these findings.

The follow-up explanation model was adopted in this study in the second part of data collection. The purpose of its application is to first explore three groups of trainees’ opinions on the teacher education trainings in different training institutes through the questionnaires at the pre-training and post-training stages. Then, based on the results, the second phase was to re-check the trainees’ opinions and to probe the results in depth. The rationale for using both quantitative and qualitative data is that a useful in-depth survey of the examination of the practicality and comprehensiveness of the training programs can be best investigated only after a preliminary exploration of majority’s opinions.

5.1.3 Summary of the present research design & research design flowchart

Within the mixed methods research design of this present research, two mixed methods design models are employed: instrument development model and follow-up explanation model. In the initial stage of the data collection, instrument development model was first used for developing the quantitative instrument (Likert-type scale questionnaires) based on the results from the qualitative data (open-ended expert’s opinions survey questionnaire). In the second stage of the data collection, follow-up explanations model was used for identifying results from the quantitative data (Likert-type scale questionnaires) for the follow-up investigation in the qualitative instrument (interviews). The intention of combining the two approach strategies were to validate the Likert-type scale questionnaire instruments, to generate general
tendencies of the trainees’ opinions at the pre-training and post-training stages, and to gain insightful information and explanations of the selected participants’ opinions. The procedures of the applications of the models are illustrated in Flowchart 5-1.
Flowchart 5-1: Mixed Methods Design Flowchart (*Exploratory Design → Explanatory Design*)

**Phase 1: Exploratory Design: Instrument Development Model (ED-IDM)**

QUAL → QUAN → Interpretation based on qual → QUAN results

qual data collection → qual data analysis → qual results → Develop instrument → QUAN data collection → QUAN data analysis → QUAN results → Interpretation qual → QUAN

**Phase 2: Explanatory Design: Follow-up Explanations Model (ED-FEM)**

QUAN → QUAL → Interpretation based on QUAN → qual results

QUAN data collection → QUAN data analysis → QUAN results → Identify results for follow-up → qual data collection → qual data analysis → qual results → Interpretation QUAN → qual

Adopted from Creswell & Clark (2007, pp. 73 & 76)
5.1.4 Participants

5.1.4.1 Trainee participants

The purposes of this present research are to identify the types of required PCs for a qualified elementary school ELT in Taiwan and to investigate the success of the training programs provided within the authorized training institutes. It is also the author’s intention to investigate the trainees’ developments and changes of PCs and opinions throughout the research period. Therefore, it is important to select the participants with special considerations to the purposes and the features of this follow-up research. The participants selected for this research were the individuals who met the following conditions at the time of investigation:

1. A trainee in a formal ELT’s training program at an authorized training institute in Taiwan.
2. A trainee who had not yet received official training of English teacher initial education from an authorized training institutes at the start point of the data collection of this research.
3. A trainee who expected to become a qualified ELT at an elementary school after the completion of the training.

The first condition is a prerequisite for the reason that there are different official and nonofficial ELTs’ trainings in Taiwan, and only the ones that are authorized by the MOE are considered qualified channels for training ELTs. In addition, only the individuals who receive the trainings in an authorized institute are the potential candidates allowed to attend a screening test for an official teaching job at formal elementary schools in Taiwan. The channels of becoming qualified ELTs in Taiwan and the different types of authorized institutes are explained in chapter 2. Since the
focus of this research is to investigate the effectiveness and practicality of the initial education of ELTs, it is important to target the trainees who are participants of a formal training program within an authorized training institute.

As for the second condition, owing to the fact that this research is designed to be a follow-up study, it is crucial to collect the trainees’ self-evaluations and opinions at the pre-training stage. Therefore, the first attempt of data collection of Likert-type scale questionnaire instrument has to be taken in 2005, the time when none of the trainee participants had received official training. The last prerequisite is essential for it may increase the potential possibility of the trainee participants’ determinations of completing the trainings and the practicum. However, if a change in decision takes place, the reasons for the participant’s attrition may serve as important information to draw forth for another side of the story.

In this study, three groups of trainee participants are formed, each representing one channel of becoming a qualified ELT in Taiwan. Regarding the issue of sample, Cohen et al (2007) states that the research should select a sample that not only suits the purposes of the study, but also convenient. Furthermore, the sample can be convenient for the trainee participants selected for a variety of reasons. In this research, for the reasons that it is a follow-up study, geographical location will be important for collecting data. Therefore, universities located in southern part of Taiwan are prioritized.

Furthermore, in year 2006, there were only two universities assigned by the government to provide 20-Credit English Course (one of the 3 training channels). In
2005, there were only five universities of education in Taiwan providing English Education Programs or English as the 2\textsuperscript{nd} Expertise Programs. Due to the small number of programs, appropriate participant options were very limited. The selected national university of education is situated in the southern part of Taiwan. It is one of the two universities providing 20-Credit English Course and one of the five offering the English as the 2\textsuperscript{nd} Expertise Program at the time of this research. Consequently, considering its geographical advantage as well as the availability of two types of training channels, the selected national university of education for this study was the best institute for this present study.

The first group (G1) of the trainee participants were from the 20-Credit English Course in a national university of education. This training was offered to the graduates of universities of education in Taiwan, whose majors were relevant non-English degrees. Most of the graduates were teaching music, math, or other disciplines. The rest of the participants were unemployed at the time of receiving the ELT’s initial training in 2006. Since there were only two universities providing 20-Credit English Course in 2006, G1 consisted of participants from different parts of Taiwan. There were thirty-two responses from G1; five were not interested in becoming an ELT after completing the training so they were not selected. Of the twenty-seven eligible responses, twenty-five were chosen for this study. G1 trainees’ information is shown in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1. Basic Background Information of the G1 Trainees

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</table>

*Note*: Subject G1S21 ~ G3S25 were the pilot study subjects. G1S3 took part in the interviews in 2008 and 2011.

The second group (G2) of the trainees were from the English as the 2nd Expertise Program at a national university of education. The program was initiated in 2005 and G2 was the first group of students to receive this training in the university. The participants of G2 were undergraduate students at junior years at the time of research. There were 25 responses from G2 and for the reason of equal amounts of participants in G1 and G2, 25 trainee participants were also selected from G2. The basic
information of the trainee participants from G2 are presented in Table 5-2.

Table 5-2. Basic Background Information of the G2 Trainees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>English teaching experience</th>
<th>Willingness of becoming an ELT</th>
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*Note:* Subject G3S21 ~ G3S25 were the pilot study subjects. G3S9 took part in the interviews in 2008 and 2011.

Group 3 (G3) trainee participants were English-major undergraduates at their junior years at a non-normal University in the southern of Taiwan at the time of data
collection. In addition to pursuing their first degree, they were also taking Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers. In the consent letters, twelve of the trainee participants had indicated their worries of revealing their identities due to possible negative influences upon their peer evaluation inter-campus or school ranking domestically at the post-training stage. For these reasons, G3 participants’ traceable personal information was neither revealed to the school nor to the trainers, who took part in this research as trainer interviewees. There were twenty-seven responses from G3, with five indicating a lack of interest of becoming an ELT upon completion of the training. Nevertheless, in order to have an equal number of participants for all three groups, a compromise was made in this study and twenty-five participants were selected for G3, with 3 participants not interested in becoming an ELT at the elementary school level. The three trainees all took part in the pilot group.

Table 5-3. Basic Background Information of the G3 Trainees

<table>
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<tr>
<th>No.</th>
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<th>Willingness of becoming an ELT</th>
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</table>
A group of pilot study participants (G4) was formed, with the participants chosen from G1, G2 and G3. There is a total of fifteen trainees took part in the pilot study; five from each group.

Table 5-4. Basic Background Information of the G4 Pilot Study Participants

<table>
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<th>Willingness of becoming an elementary English teacher</th>
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Note: Subject G3S21 ~ G3S25 were the pilot study subjects.
G3S14 took part in the 1st interview in 2008.
G3S6 took part in the 2nd interview in 2011.
In short, for the investigation purpose of this study, three different trainee participant groups were selected and five trainees from each group were selected for the pilot study. The three groups of trainees represent the different channels of becoming a qualified ELT in Taiwan and this is shown in Table 5-5.

### Table 5-5. Brief Explanation of the Representation of the Participant Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Channel of becoming a qualified ELT</th>
<th>Targeting subjects</th>
<th>Selection of representations of the channel to be investigated</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>University of Education graduates majoring in non-English subject</td>
<td>A national university of education</td>
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<tr>
<td>English as the 2nd Expertise Program/English Education</td>
<td>University of Education undergraduates</td>
<td>A national university of education</td>
</tr>
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<td>Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers</td>
<td>English-majored undergraduates from a non-normal university</td>
<td>A non-normal university</td>
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#### 5.1.4.2 Expert participants for Expert’s Opinion Survey (Group A)

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, an instrument development model is adopted first in the data collection. An open-ended questionnaire, the Expert’s Opinion Survey (see Appendix 5), was distributed to six experts in relevant educational fields in Taiwan. The results from the survey allow the exploration of the possible categories (i.e. PCs) and items (i.e. competency indicators and training contents) for the designs of the questionnaires. The experts’ survey can also be considered as a pre-piloting of the Likert-type scale questionnaires in this research. In other words, the results from the surveys were used to incorporate with the findings in literatures for the latter development of the initial design of Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire and
Post-Training Stage Questionnaire. The basic information of the 6 experts is presented in Table 5-6 below. The results of the experts’ surveys are presented in Sub-section b1 of Section 5.2.1.2.

### Table 5-6. The Basic Information of the Six Experts in Group A

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<th>Title</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A public elementary School</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>Ms. Dai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A non-normal University (English Language Center)</td>
<td>Division Director</td>
<td>Ada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A non-normal university (English Department)</td>
<td>Linguist/ Trainer</td>
<td>Dr. Chen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A public elementary School</td>
<td>Senior English teacher</td>
<td>Ms. Zhang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A non-normal university (Centre for Teacher Education)</td>
<td>Director</td>
<td>Peter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A private cram School</td>
<td>Manager/ Trainer</td>
<td>Richard</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.1.4.3 Expert participants for Jury Opinion (Group B)

Four experts were invited to review Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire and Post-Training Stage Questionnaire (see Appendices 3 & 4 for the feedbacks on the questionnaires). Both questionnaires were then revised in accordance with the experts’ suggestions. The linguist among the four experts was also invited for peer review of the Expert’s Opinion Survey. The basic information of the four experts in Jury Opinion and peer review is provided in Table 5-7.

### Table 5-7. The Basic Information of the Four Experts in Group B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institute/ Organization</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A national university of education (Department of Language Education)</td>
<td>Trainer</td>
<td>Jeff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A non-normal University (Department of Applied English)</td>
<td>Linguist</td>
<td>Simon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.1.4.4 Interviewee participants

The interviews were conducted at two different times throughout the research session. The first six interviews were carried out in 2008. Among the six interviewees, three were randomly chosen trainee interviewees, one from each group (G1S3, G2S9 & G3S14), and three trainers (see Table 5-8 for the interviewees’ information). The first interviews were carried out six months after the completion of G2 and G3 trainees’ practicums. The second interviews of the trainees were conducted three years after the completions of all the trainings of the three training programs. Two interviewees participated in both of the interviews (G1S3 & G2S9), but one interviewee (G3S14) was not able to make it as she was pursuing her master degree overseas at the time of the conduction of the second interview in 2011. A volunteering interviewee (G3S6) was invited to take part in the second interview.

Table 5-8. The Basic Information of the Trainer Interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institute/ Organization</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A teacher trainer of 20-Credit English Course Program &amp; Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers</td>
<td>A full time English teacher at a public elementary school</td>
<td>Ms. Wei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A teacher trainer of 20-Credit English Course Program</td>
<td>Director of an Applied English Department of a non-normal university</td>
<td>Dr. Wang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A teacher trainer of English as the 2nd Expertise Program</td>
<td>A full time English teacher at a university of education</td>
<td>Ms. Lin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2 Data Collection Methods
Both qualitative instruments and quantitative instruments were employed in this mixed methods research to investigate the effectiveness and practicality of the training programs of ELTs at elementary school levels in Taiwan. In the instrument development model of Exploratory Design, the open-ended survey questionnaire and the findings from the literature reviews were applied in an attempt to design a quantitative instrument using the findings from the qualitative analysis in the first model. In the second phase of the research, a follow-up explanation model was employed to gather more insightful answers to the questions raised after the quantitative analysis at the first phase. For this part, quantitative instruments, two closed questionnaires, were used to gather quantitative data. The data would be used as an important reference in the design of the questions of qualitative interview instrument in the latter part of the research. In the following, some brief introductions to different types of instruments employed in the study are given. Each mini section consists of a brief description of how the instrument was applied in this study.

5.2.1 Data Collection Method 1: Questionnaire Instrument

5.2.1.1 Questionnaire types: Closed/ Open-ended questionnaires & Likert scale

a. Characteristics

The questionnaire technique is a very common method for collecting data in social research. The researcher can select several types of questionnaires, ranging from highly structured with closed questions to unstructured with open-ended questions. Oppenheim (2001) compares the two and states that a closed question is “one in which the respondents are offered a choice of alternative replies” (p.112); an open-ended question, on the other hand, is “not followed by any kind of choice” (p.12).
The open-ended question is a well suited device if what a researcher seeks is more insightful, honest, and personal comments from the respondents. The questionnaire simply offers open-ended questions and leaves a space for a free response. Cohen et al. (2007) points out that it is the open-ended responses that might contain the “gems” of information that may otherwise might not be caught in the questionnaire. They further merit open-ended question for its “hallmarks” of welcoming authenticity, richness, and depth of response (ibid, p. 33). Hence, the aim behind the use of open-ended questions is mainly to seek a more in-depth response and to explore reasons for choices.

Different from the open-ended questions, the closed questions prescribe the range of responses, from which the respondent may choose. Oppenheim’s work in 1992 explains that highly structured closed questions are useful in that they can generate frequencies of response amenable to statistical treatment and analysis. They also enable comparisons to be made across groups in the sample. If a closed and structured questionnaire is used, he reminds the key of enabling patterns to be observed and comparisons to be made. It is also possible to foresee and predict the full range of possible responses (ibid.).

A rating scale consists of a set of different categories designed to draw forth information about a quantitative or a qualitative attributes. The Likert scale and 1-10 rating scales are two popular examples of this. In the Likert scale, degrees of response or intensity of response can be seen in the notion of rating scales. It is a very useful device because while it still generates numbers, it builds in a degree of sensitivity and
differentiation of responses (ibid.). A Likert scale provides a range of responses to a given question or statement. Rating scales are widely used in research for they combine the opportunity for a flexible response with the ability to determine frequencies, correlations, and other forms of quantitative analysis.

b. Design & administration

Three issues have been suggested when it comes to the matter of designing a questionnaire: the clarity and simplicity of the instructions and format, the preparation of a complementary assisting means, and the well-organized planning procedure. The clarity of language used for the instructions and the simplicity of the layout of the questionnaires must be ensured. By doing so, the respondents can better understand what they should be doing and follow the procedures. It is said that the clarity here should also include the explicit explanations of the relevant matters, which can potential influence the subjects. For instance, the assurance of the confidentiality, anonymity, and non-traceability should be provided (e.g. Cohen et al, 2007; Gall et al, 1996). The preparation of a complementary assisting means generally refer to the selection of another research method or instrument to increase the reliability and validity of the original method. For example, it is highly recommended to adopt a pre-pilot or piloting to assure the practicability of a questionnaire (Oppenheim, 2001; Morrison, 1993). Lastly, careful and organized planning procedures are addressed during the process of designing a questionnaire (ibid). Better understanding of the research objectives and targeted population, and careful process of item-identifying and analysing can greatly reinforce the quality of a questionnaire (Cohen, 2007; Bryman, 2001).
Generally speaking, questionnaires can be administered in several ways like self-administration and internet administration. The presence of the researcher is helpful in that it enables any queries or uncertainties may be immediately brought to the questionnaire designer’s attention. It can also greatly ensure a better response rate and completed questionnaires (Cohen, 2007).

c. Strengths & weaknesses

Closed questionnaire remains popular in social research for its several advantages, which are summarized by Cohen et al (2007): (1) easy to distribute and complete, (2) possible to have a larger sample of respondents at the same time, (3) quicker and easier to code up and analyse, (4) free from time and space constraints, and (5) more direct data and deliberately more focused than open-ended questions. However, it also has limitations: (1) it does not give respondents the change to express and write their opinions in detail, (2) it is often quite difficult to formulate the questions, (3) it cues the respondents with respect to possible answers, and (4) there is a risk that the categories might not be exhaustive and that there might be bias in it (ibid; Oppenheim, 1992).

In contrast, open-closed questionnaire enables respondents to write a free account in their own terms, to explain and qualify their responses, and to avoid the limitations of pre-set categories of responses. However, in comparison with a closed questionnaire, an open-ended one is more time-consuming, the completion rate is lower, and is more difficult to code up and analyse (Burns, 2000; Oppenheim, 1992).

Cohen et al credits rating scales for their advantage of providing more opportunities
than dichotomous questions when rendering data that is more sensitive and responsive to respondents. This makes rating scales particularly useful for tapping attitudes, perceptions, and opinions (2007). Since its application is widely practiced, it is also easier to understand and decode. Though rating scales are powerful and useful in research, it is, nevertheless, stressed by a number of authors that the investigator needs to be aware of the limitations. For instance, equal intervals between the categories on a Likert scale questionnaire are questionable if only a few options have been offered; the respondents may not fully agree with the statements they choose. In addition, it is observed that there is a tendency for participants to opt for the mid-point of a scale (ibid.). It is also difficult for a research to observe whether a subject is honest. There is also no way of knowing if the respondent may want to add more input on the issue. Most importantly, as pointed by that in the application of such instrument, the problems of interpretation may exist, which refers to the situation where one’s degree of feeling of one option varies from each other (Corbetta, 2003).

5.2.1.2 The questionnaire instruments applied in this present research

a. The solutions to the potential threats of conducting questionnaires

In this study, one open-ended survey questionnaire was designed to gather ideas for creating the categories for the questionnaires which were used for examining the success of the training programs. In consideration of Oppenheim’s (1992) and Cohen et al.’s (2007) comments regarding the difficulties of decoding and analysing the open-closed data, an analysis of the literature reviews relevant to the studied topic was also conducted in hopes that the findings from the analysis could help the process of categorizing the data from the open-closed questionnaire. Furthermore, a sufficient duration of two weeks was provided to the six experts to complete the survey. The
incorporation of the results from the literature reviews and the findings from the open-closed questionnaire could enhance the development and the comprehensiveness of the categories (i.e. PC forms and PC areas) and the items (i.e. competency indicators) used in the questionnaires.

The major controversies of Likert scale are the possibility of the subjects’ inconsistent behaviours on their choices and the possibility of incompleteness of the variables/categories in the choices (Cohen, 2007; Corbetta, 2003). For the first potential threat, the test-retest reliability of the Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire was applied. Fifteen subjects participated in the pilot study, and the correlation between separate administrations of the tests was high (see Appendix 8), which indicated the reliability of the instrument. As for the categories on the Pre-Training and Post-Training questionnaires, results elicited from three methods. Literature reviews, experts’ opinions, and jury opinions, were considered to ensure their appropriateness.

b. The design of the questionnaire instruments

As mentioned, Expert’s Opinion Survey was conducted and the results were incorporated with the literature review findings (i.e. the revised FRPC in Diagram 4-1) to develop the questionnaire instruments used in the first phase of the research. This part of discussion explains how the questionnaire instruments (Pre-Training Questionnaire and Post-Training questionnaire) were designed.

b1. The results from Experts’ Opinion Survey

The Experts’ Opinion Survey questionnaire consists of two sections: background information and question items (See Appendix 5). In the second section, experts’
opinions regarding different types of knowledge base, as well as the training contents, are investigated. In the first sub-section, nine questions are asked. The questions focus on identifying important knowledge types for different PC forms and PC areas. The reasons for their decisions are also laid out. The second sub-section includes six questions which probe into the participants’ opinions about the importance of different training contents.

Table 5-9 outlines the results of sub-section 1 of section 2 from the experts’ surveys. The results from the survey questionnaires showed similar tendencies. The majority of the group participants shared similar opinions regarding the types of knowledge and skills constituted in specific PCs. As shown in Table 5-9, eight different types of PCs are discussed in the survey and within each PC, different types of knowledge and skills are listed based on the experts’ opinions of what constitute the specific type of PCs. Taking CK as an example, five experts listed children literature, target culture knowledge, knowledge of phonics, chants & nursery rhymes, and English pronunciation theory as the types of knowledge and skills within CK. Apart from the above knowledge type, one expert also lists English language four skills within CK. For question 8, since the statement was not to ask the participants to list the PC form or competence indicator within KSA but to share their opinion if KSA was an important PC for ELT, the absence of this PC was due to the negative feedbacks from the six experts. Among the six responses, two explained that it could a merit but not a prerequisite, whereas four responses indicated that this should and only could be cultivated in the in-service training.
Table 5-10 shows the results of sub-section 2 of the Expert’s Opinion Survey. In this sub-section, where different types of training content are discussed, the participants were asked to identify important knowledge types or skills to be offered in ELT’s initial training program. Different PC areas and forms are discussed and majority of the experts shared similar opinions on the types of training content that should be provided in the training. For instance, regarding question 1 of sub-section 2, all the experts listed English conversation, speaking, listening, reading, writing, pronunciation, and grammar as the suggested training components for English language training. Among the similarities, one distinct opinion is observed; only one expert stressed the importance of the administrative skills and the knowledge of integrated learning and teaching.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PCs (Question number)</th>
<th>Suggested Training Components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ELS (Q1)</td>
<td>English conversation, speaking, listening, reading, writing, pronunciation, grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCK (Q2)</td>
<td>Teaching methodology, activity design, material development, computer-assisting learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK (Q3)</td>
<td>Children literature, chants &amp; rhymes, western holidays, phonics, 1st &amp; 2nd language acquisitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPK (Q4)</td>
<td>Theory of learning, classroom management, theory of learner’s learning strategies, theory of integrated learning &amp; teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (Q5)</td>
<td>Educational policies, administrative skills, communicative skills, computer skills, practicum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results from the surveys were used to be compared with the academic findings in an attempt to further consolidate the FRPC (Diagram 4-1). The findings from the surveys correspond with the ones in the FRPC. The experts’ opinions of what knowledge and skills constitute each PC type resemble the exemplified competency indicators in the FRPC. For instance, in Q4 of Sub-Section 1 of the expert’s survey, it states “what kinds of pedagogical content knowledge do you think that are important for an English language teacher?” The responses were TESOL activity design and teaching methodology. In the short explanation to the answer of teaching methodology, “strategies, facilities and tools” were also written to suggest the importance of obtaining relevant teaching resources. Hence in the FRPC, there are three exemplified competency indicators of PCK: “understanding the knowledge and skills of TESOL methodology”, “understanding the knowledge and skills of TESOL activity design”, and “understanding TESOL’s relevant resources and their application.” Accordingly, the results from sub-section 1 of the survey reinforce the findings in the FRPC, which help the development of the competency indicators in Part II of Pre-Training Questionnaire and Part I of Post-Training Questionnaire.
Furthermore, the results from sub-section 2 of the survey outline the important training contents that the experts considered to be important for the trainees. These components reflect the types of knowledge and skills stressed in the participants’ responses in sub-section 1. For instance, in sub-section 1, one participant considered four language skills to be important for CK and in sub-section 2, four language skills were listed as important training contents for ELS. The results in the subsection 1 contribute to the statements in Part III of Pre-Training Questionnaire and Part II of Post-Training Questionnaire. In these sections, the training components are rated.

b2. The presentation of the questionnaires

Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire contains three types of information: the trainee’s information, the competency indicators, and the training components. The trainees were asked to share their opinions regarding three aspects: the importance of each PC and their own PCs by rating the competency indicators, and the importance of each training component (see Appendix 6). Post-Training Questionnaire included two types of information: the competency indicators and the training components. Three types of data are investigated: the trainee’s self-evaluation of their own PCs, the duration of the training of each training component, and the trainee’s satisfaction rate of the training. The statements (i.e. competency indicators and training components) used in the questionnaires were the generated results from the results of the FRPC (Diagram 4-1) and the Expert’s Opinion Survey (Table 5-9 & 5-10).

Part II (Sections 6-1-1 & 6-1-2) of Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire contained twenty-seven statements, all of which are competency indicators of eight different
PCs from the FRPC: KL, KEU, KSC, KE, KSLT, KGEU, MDKS, and A&B. Part II aims to investigate the trainees’ opinions of the importance of each PC, as well as the trainees’ self-evaluation of their own PCs. Within twenty-seven statements, four are the competency indicators of A&B, four of MDKS, nine of KSLT, six of KE, and one of KGEU, KL, KEU, and KSC, respectively (Table 5-11). In the PC type MDKS, five PCs were listed: KST, KCL, KSR, KSA and KSI. Although in Section 3.4.2.2 of Chapter 3 and Section 4.3 of Chapter 4, KST, KCL, KSR and KSI are categorized as PC forms in the FRPC, due to the reason that one of the purpose of this research is to investigate the trainees’ opinions regarding different PCs including the ones that are stressed by the modern demands, these five PCs are listed as respective PC areas in the design of the questionnaires. This enables to create a special focus upon the trainees’ evaluations of the new demanded PCs in analysis. The same statements are also used for Part I of Post-Training Questionnaire, where the self-evaluation of the trainees’ own PCs at post-training stage is examined.

Table 5-11. The Competency Indicators in Part II of Pre-Training Questionnaire Classified into 8 PC Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KL</th>
<th>KEU</th>
<th>KSC</th>
<th>KE</th>
<th>KSLT</th>
<th>GPK</th>
<th>PCK</th>
<th>KLT</th>
<th>KGEU</th>
<th>MDKS</th>
<th>A&amp;B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>16</td>
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<td>19</td>
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</table>

Part III (Section 6-2-1) of Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire contains thirty statements (i.e. training components). The statements were generally generated from four
different training areas: the knowledge and skills of English language (LK), relevant knowledge and skills specific for TESOL (TESOL), knowledge and skills of general teaching training (GTT), and general education knowledge (GEK). Within thirty statements, nine are relevant to LK, eight to TESOL, nine to GTT, and four to GEK. One thing needs noting here; even though the PC area for the competency indicators in statement 15 “designing and application of teaching material”, statement 16 “designing and application of children’s books” and statement 17 “computer assisting language teaching” can be either PCK or GPK depending on whether the training of teaching is more content-specific or not, in the questionnaires, they are classified within GTT. This decision was made because these trainings are usually offered as integrated components in general educational courses instead of content-specific classes, and since this part is focusing on training area instead of PC area, they are classified within the training area of GTT. Additionally, based on the FRPC and the literature findings, it is reason to assume that statement 21, understanding “English language curriculum and language teaching policies”, can be considered a competency indicator of KC; however, it is classified within GEK in the questionnaire for the reason that English curriculum and policies is not offered as an isolated course but integrated learning elements in the general education course Elementary School Education.

The same statements are also used for Part II of Post-Training Questionnaire. Part III of Pre-Training Questionnaire aims to examine the trainees’ opinions regarding the importance of each training components, while Part II of Post-Training Questionnaire emphasizes on the examination of the training duration of each training component and the trainees’ satisfaction rate of the trainings.
Table 5-12. The Training Components in Part III of Pre-Training Questionnaire Classified into 4 Training Areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LK</th>
<th>TESOL</th>
<th>GTT</th>
<th>GEK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>20</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**c. Administration**

Before the administrations of the three questionnaires and interviews, personal visits were paid to the three groups of trainees. In the three visits, the author of this study gave a brief introduction to what the purposes of the present research were and how they would be involved, and ascertained whether they agreed to volunteer to participate. The researcher’s contact information was given at the end of the introduction. As for the six experts, emails were first sent out to explain the purposes of the research. Invitations to take part in the study were given at the end of the second set of emails. The second emails were sent two weeks after the first emails. The intention of the author’s personal visit was informed in the second mail.

The questionnaires adopted in this study were distributed in person. However, the expert’s survey questionnaires were completed at the experts’ own time and own leisure. The reasoning behind this was because not only did it take more time to finish an open-ended questionnaire and it would also give the experts a chance to review what had been done in the past or even check some relevant documents from the past. By allowing sufficient time, the experts would be able to provide a more detailed...
response. The trainees’ questionnaires were distributed and administered in person at the schools where they received their training. The reason why they were asked to finish the questionnaires the days the questionnaires were distributed was because there was a potential risk that the trainees may not have understood some of the terms or categories used on the questionnaire; the first questionnaire was administered before the training. Therefore, providing the trainees with an instant response to the questions they might have would greatly reinforce the credibility of the results.

Before the trainees started to complete the questionnaires, a brief introduction to what the purposes of the research were was once again informed to them. After the introduction, a detailed consent letter was given to every participant to read and sign, followed by the author’s reminders of the participants’ four important rights written on the letter: (1) they had the right to withdraw at any time, (2) their personal information would be kept confidential, (3) the results from the questionnaires and interviews would be used only for this research’s purposes, and (4) a description that discomfort might be expected during the process of sharing their own experiences in the interviews.

5.2.2 Data Collection 2: Interview Instrument

5.2.2.1 Interview instrument type: semi-structured interview

a. Characteristics

Generally, three types of interview are identified by a number of researchers: the standardized or structured interview, the semi-structured interview, and the unstructured interview (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Oppenheim, 2001). While the structured one adheres to procedures and the planned content and does not allow
much room for modifications, the unstructured one provides more freedom and flexibility.

b. Design & administration

To ensure the success of conducting an in-depth interview, several authors have shared different tips (e.g. Powney & Watts, 1987). Among them, Kavle (1996) proposes a detailed 7-stage method of design and administration of conducting in-depth interviews: thematizing, designing, interviewing, analysing, verifying, and reporting. In stage 1, thematizing, the purpose of an interview is clarified; realizing the goal enables an interviewer to pinpoint the key information during an interview. Stage 2, designing, requires an interviewer to write down some key questions for eliciting information to fulfil the purpose. An interview guide, the list of questions, topics, and issues which the researcher wants to cover during the interview, is an essential component for conducting interviews. For semi-structured interview, an interview guide serves merely as a reminder of the central topic of the talk. Questions in semi-structured interviews are more open-ended, which allow the interviewers to follow issues that diverge from the guide. Despite the importance of pre-planning the key questions, the interview should be more conversational. Different from the structured interview, a semi-structured interview provides a way to obtain additional knowledge or information by allowing the respondents to express their opinions in their own words.

Interviewing is the next stage. It is recommended that one starts an interview with a short greeting and a brief description of the purpose of the study. Due to the fact that semi-structured interview allows the interviewee diverge from the topic, audio
recording is often recommended for keeping track of the discourses. However, permission from the interviewee needs to be granted beforehand. Stage 4 is transcribing. In the transcription, the information includes not only the transcription of the dialogues, but also the side notes of the interviewer. Analysing is the next stage, and it involves re-reading the interview transcripts to identify themes from the respondents’ answers. Topics and questions are used to organize the analysis. The confirmation of the credibility of gathered and analysed information is crucial at stage 6. Complementary of another method is encouraged for verifying the analysis. The final stage is reporting, either written or verbal. This does not limit to the sharing of results; how the results contribute to future work can also be shared in the report.

c. **Strengths & weaknesses**

What attracts researchers about the semi-structured interview instrument is its advantage of permitting an interviewer to gain a clear and comprehensive picture of a subject. By allowing the subject to guide the conversation, the interviewer can gain insights into a more personal perspective which other instruments could rarely achieve. It enables the interviewer to gather data in detail and in depth. In addition, it also yields a high response rate. A unique strength of the technique is that both non-verbal and verbal behaviour could be noted as important sources of data in face-to-face interviews.

The merit of better accessibility for obtaining detailed and personal data from semi-structured interview might also be the major attack of such technique. Cohen et al (2007) pointed out that interviews are easily influenced by the interviewer’s subjectivity and prejudice; the interview itself may not be the only affected variable.
Oppenheim (2001) argued that respondents may also be affected by the interviewer, who may lead them to provide dishonest responses. The last controversy is that for a greater chance of success, the interviewer needs good interview skills, which encompass careful preliminary preparations, good interpersonal skills, and proper communicative skills (Kavle, 1996).

The intention of employing interviews in this research was to elicit new information relevant to the studied questions and to gather more insightful and personal answers that could better explain the doubts or questions from the findings of the quantitative data. To this end, semi-structured interview was selected as the research instrument in the second phase of investigation of this study, allowing room for exploring within a sketched space.

5.2.2.2 The interview instrument applied in this present research

a. The design and administration of the interviews

After the initial analysis of the results from the two questionnaires in 2007, the interviews were conducted with three trainees and three trainers in 2008. The purpose of having the interviews was to obtain more insightful information regarding the studied questions, as well as to get more detailed explanations regarding the trainees’ choices on the questionnaires. Since the interviews were semi-structured, some guiding questions were pre-planned. The guiding questions either confirmed the interviewees’ decisions made on the questionnaires or probed deeper into the interviewees’ opinions about some specific questions or issues. The GQs are relevant to the research questions raised in the beginning of the research. The GQ for the interviews conducted in 2008 are listed in Part A; the GQ for the interviews in 2011 is
listed in Part B. For the trainer interviewees, in order to obtain the information regarding the trainers’ opinions of the trainees’ PCs and their learning achievement as well as the training curriculum, only GQ 2, 3, 4 and 5 were asked (see Part C).

Part A. The GQ for the trainee interviewees in 2008

**GQ1:** Share your reasons for your choice for Statement _____ in Section ____ of the Pre-Training Questionnaire/ Post-Training Questionnaire.

**GQ2:** After the training, do you think your PCs have been reinforced? Please provide examples.

**GQ3:** After the 6-month practicum, do you think the training has helped your teaching in real life teaching settings? Please provide examples.

**GQ4:** Which type(s) of the training is/are found to be useful and which part(s) is/are less applicable in formal teaching settings?

**GQ5:** Taking into account your personal experiences, what type of skills or knowledge should be reinforced in the training?

Part B. The GQ for the trainee interviewees in 2011

**GQ1:** Taking into account your teaching experiences, how could the FRPC be readjusted?
Part C. The GQ for the trainer interviewees in 2008

GQ2: After the training, do you think the trainees’ PCs have been reinforced? Please provide examples.

GQ3: After the 6-month practicum, do you think the training has the trainees’ teaching in real life teaching settings? Please provide examples.

GQ4: Which type(s) of the training is/are found to be useful and which part(s) is/are less applicable for the trainees in formal teaching settings?

GQ5: Taking into account your personal experiences of teaching these trainees, what type of skills or knowledge of the trainees should be reinforced in the training?

The interview contents do not necessarily follow the pre-planned questions but are relevant to the central idea(s) of investigating the training programs. The interview questions were sent to the six interviewees two weeks before the interviews so that they could have sufficient time to prepare or think and organize what they plan to say in their responses.

Every interview started with 15 minutes of chatting. During the conversation, the purpose of the research and the interviewees’ were reminded of their rights. Permission for recording was obtained before every interview. The interviews were recorded for the later transcriptions. Since the interviews in this study followed Kavle’s 7-stage method of designing and administering interviews, side notes were taken for reference.
5.3 Data Analysis

For analysing the quantitative data from two Likert scale questionnaires, the SPSS software is used; useful statistical tests as ANOVA, $t$-test, Pearson correlation can be carried out through SPSS. The means scores of ratings as well as the ranges of distributions are also illustrated via tables and figures to further explain or support the results from the statistical tests.

Strauss and Corbin (1990) identified axial coding and open coding. Opening coding is code or label words and phrases found in the transcript or text, while axial coding is the created themes or categories generated by grouping codes or labels given to words and phrases. In the process of coding, whenever a meaningful segment of text in a transcript is found, a code or label is assigned to signify that particular segment.

In this research, the interview data were firstly transcribed. For qualitative data, Kavle’s 7-stage method is employed (1996); the interviews were recorded at the times of conducting and they were then transcribed word to word later. The transcriptions were then enriched by adding the side notes taken during conducting of the interviews. Transcriptions were analysed in five steps: first, to analyse the contents by sentence (to identify the pre-obtained categories from the FRPC and new categories emerged in
the interviews); second, by chunks (to analyse the contents by referring back to the research questions); third, by sections (to compare subjects’ results from the first 2 stages); fourth, to complement the transcription with the side notes); and finally, to confirm the results with the interviewees.

Different themes were then generated from the codes found in the interview data in 2008 and in 2011. Following the suggested made by Creswell (2007) that themes and categories should be kept to minimum for the convenience and simplicity of analysing. Therefore, in this study, only the themes that are most relevant to the GQs of both the interviews are focused and discussed in the results section. However, the findings are mostly discussed separately, in Chapter 6 and 7 and in Chapter 8, to show the changes of the trainees’ opinions and the progressions of the trainees over time.

5.4 Flowchart of Research Plan
Flowchart of Research Plan outlines the research procedures taken in this study. The research procedures are divided into seven different stages. Each stage, the steps taken, and the descriptions of the steps are also provided in the flowchart below:
Flowchart 5-2. Research Plan Flowchart

Pre-stage

- Literature Review of the English teacher education in Taiwan (research motivation arose and research question emerged)
  - Conducting literature review of the contemporary international & domestic empirical studies on the interested area
    - Writing the introduction section
      - Establishing the initial FRPC
        - Conducting literature review of the social contexts of Taiwan
          - Establishing the revised FRPC

1st Stage

- Administering the Experts’ Opinion survey to 6 experts (1)
  - designing the survey → conducting peer reviewing → conducting the survey
  - Purposefully selecting 3 different training institutes
    - Consolidating the FRPC
      - Transcribing the survey data → obtaining confirmations of the results from the 6 experts → compare & incorporate with the FRPC

2nd Stage

- Designing the questionnaires
  - Creating the questionnaire items & categories from the results of the academic findings as well as the expert surveys → Jury’s Opinion → revising the questionnaires → piloting
  - Administering Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire to 3 different group subjects (2)
3rd Stage

Implementing the training education

4th Stage

Writing the draft of literature reviews and methodology sections

Administering Post-Training Stage Questionnaire to 3 different group subjects (3)

Analyzing Pre- & Post-Training Questionnaires

5th Stage

Designing interview questions

Designing GQs based on the research questions → revising GQs in consideration of the quantitative results

Conducting the trainer Interviews (4)

Administrating trainee interviews I & II (5)

Revising the literature reviews

Updating the work with more recent studies → including the amended educational policies

Transcribing and analyzing the interview data

Transcribing → sending the transcriptions to the interviewees for confirmation → analyzing the data

6th Stage

Writing the results & analysis sections

Revising the literature reviews and introduction sections and finalizing the FRPC

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(1) Experts’ Opinion Survey is an open-question questionnaire which aims to investigate 6 different experts’ opinions regarding the required PCs of an able ELT at elementary school level in Taiwan.

(2) Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire aims to investigate the trainees’ background information and their opinions regarding the importance of different types of PCs, the level of their own PCs as well as the importance of different training contents at the pre-training stage.

(3) Post-Training Stage Questionnaire aims to investigate the durations of different training the trainees had received during their initial educations, their satisfactory rates of the training, and their opinions regarding their own learning outcomes at the post-training stage.

(4) The trainer interviews aim to investigate the trainers’ opinions regarding the trainees’ learning achievement as well as the trainees’ level of PCs.

(5) The trainee interviews aim to investigate trainees’ opinions regarding the effectiveness and the practicality of the trained skills and knowledge after 6 months /3 years of actual teaching.
5.5 Methodological Issues in the present research

Educational research is a part of human research which has potential ethical problems, and therefore, as highlighted by Cohen et al, “Each stage in the research sequence may be a potential source of ethical problems” (2007, p. 51). The seven potential risks of violating research ethics are outlined by Cohen et al: the nature of the research project itself, the context for the search, the procedures to be adopted, the methods of data collection, the nature of participants, the type of data collected, and what is to be done with the data. The outline has demonstrated the importance of the sensibility of the research throughout the whole process of conducting a research. Some measures have been taken in this study to avoid an unintentional violation of the research ethics. They are described in the following:

Cohen et al (2007) proposed four elements to be aware of in applying procedures for informed consent: competence, voluntarism, full information, and comprehension. Competence implies that responsible, mature individuals will make correct decisions; the author should not engage individuals incapable of making such decisions because of immaturity or psychological impairment. In this present study, the selected subjects were field- and topic-related trainees and trainers and the content in the questionnaires and the questions in the interviews were relevant to their training.

Voluntarism entails applying the principle of informed consent and thus ensuring that participants freely chose to take part or not to take part in the research. In this research,
a class visit was paid to every group of subjects before conducting the instruments. During the visits, explicit explanations were made on two matters: the author’s role as an independently-funded graduate student and the application of the findings in the present study. An invitation to take part in the study was given and a consent letter was presented to every participant. Considering the possibility of the trainees’ concern about the author’s identity as a government-funded student, on the consent letter, the author’s role as an independent researcher was emphasized and the following four points were highlighted: (1) the trainees had the right to withdraw at any time without providing a reason, (2) the trainees’ personal information would be kept confidential, (3) the results from the questionnaires and interviews would be used mainly for this research’s purposes and if they were to be used in other occasions, the trainees’ permission would be requested beforehand, and (4) a description that discomfort might be expected during the process of sharing their experiences in the interviews.

Full information implies that the subject is fully informed. In this research, since the purpose was to probe into the effectiveness and practicality of the training programs and the means of examination were the trainees’ opinions and self-assessments, there was never a time which a part of the research was needed to be kept as a secret. For this reason, the procedures, contents and research objectives were all clearly explained to the subjects.

The last principle is comprehension, which refers to the fact that participants fully
understand the essence of the research project. The research purpose was introduced twice to the trainees: the first time during the class visit and the second time before the conduction of the instruments. Explanations of the procedures were given before the conductions of both questionnaires and interviews. The trainees were also allowed to ask questions at any time.

5.6 Validity & Reliability

5.6.1 Peer Review & Experts’ Opinions

In this study, three instruments were employed: the open-ended questionnaire, the two Likert scale questionnaires, and the interviews. Peer review was conducted before the distribution of the first instrument, open-ended questionnaire, to six experts. In addition, the results from this survey were not used solely to develop the FRPC. They were also compared and incorporated with the findings analysed from the international and domestic studies. The generated categories and items (the analysis of the survey) were also sent to the six experts for the confirmations of their ideas.

5.6.2 Content Validity: Jury Opinion, Test-Retest Reliability, and Pilot Test

The two Likert scale questionnaires were designed based on the categories/items in the FRPC, which were generated from the analysis of the experts’ opinions and the
relevant literatures. After the initial design of the questionnaires, they were also sent to another four experts (information provided in Section 5.1.6.3, Table 5-7) for jury opinion. The revised questionnaires were then distributed to fifteen subjects, five from each group of trainees. Those fifteen subjects were asked to take the same questionnaires one month after the first conduction. To test the reliability of the questionnaires, test-retest reliability measurement was adopted, and the Pearson’s $r$ estimate of correlation of the questionnaire items showed a positive correlation. The correlation of the items in section 6-1-1 of Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire of the pre- and post-tests is significantly positive at 0.01 level, and the same results are also found in section 6-1-2 and section 6-2-1 (see Appendix 8). Based on the result, the items in the questionnaire are reliable; the items and categories on the questionnaires were also confirmed and checked by the findings in the literatures as well as four experts. Therefore, the content validity of the questionnaires was confirmed.

5.7 Amendments Made during the Research Time

This present study is a follow-up mixed methods study. The changes of social contexts in Taiwan may occur during the span of research; this section outlines the amendments made to the thesis.
5.7.1 Subject selection

In the initial stage of research, forty-five subjects were selected, fifteen for each group. Another thirty subjects were selected for pilot study. However, with a greater number of subjects, there might be a higher possibility of coming across unexpected information or more representable findings, and therefore, half of the pilot study subjects (no=15) were asked to transfer back to their original subject groups. Despite the fact that there were only fifteen subjects for pilot study, the result from the test-retest reliability measurement shows their consistent behaviours; consequently, with the results of positive correlation of test-retest reliability measurement and the Jury Opinion, the reliability of the quantitative data is secured.

In addition, during the second interview, the interview trainee from G3 was not able to participate because of her studies overseas, so a new interviewee from G3 was invited to take part.

5.7.2 Educational regulations

As mentioned in the literature review chapters, the educational regulations relevant to the topic of this research in Taiwan are still not fixed. Therefore, some amendments occurred during the seven years of research. Among the amendments, the one that
makes the greatest impact on teacher education as well as on the trainees in this study is the one issued in 2011. As mentioned in Chapter 2, even though 20-Credit English Course are still in effect as to gaining the eligibility to teach elementary English, starting in the fall of 2013, those who obtained eligibility to teach elementary English from the 20-Credit English Course would be deemed inadequate and in need of pursuing an English Expertise Accreditation certification (Chinatimes, 1 Mar. 2011).

5.7.3 The conduction of the 2nd interviews in 2011

This initial data collection initiated in 2005 and this present study was intended to be a 4-year follow-up study. However, due to the researcher’s health condition, a suspension of the doctoral study was requested, which consequently affected the timeframe of this research. In 2011, second interviews were conducted in order to keep the research updated as well as to provide a more insightful observation of the transformation of the trainees’ opinions of the PCs and the trainings.

5.8 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, an introduction to the research design used in the study is given first and proceeds into a description of the research instruments adopted for collecting and analysing data. How these instruments are designed and administered is also
explained. This chapter also discusses some methodological issues as well as the
flowchart of the research plan. It concludes with an explanation of the methods used
for the confirmations of reliability and validity of the work and a discussion of the
amendments made in this research in the past 7 years.

In the next three chapters, the results and analysis of the quantitative data obtained
from the questionnaires and the qualitative data from the interviews are discussed.
The findings from the questionnaires are used for showing the tendencies of the
trainees’ opinions and the findings analysed form the interviews are used to further
confirm or support the arguments.
6.0 Introduction

a. Review of the research purposes and research questions

As mentioned in the previous chapters, this present research sets out to achieve two goals: to find an answer to one principle question, “what is expected in an able ELT in consideration of the social contexts in Taiwan,” and to examine the success of the initial education for ELTs at elementary school levels in Taiwan. In terms of success, the effectiveness and practicality of the trainings are investigated. To this end, some sub-questions are also raised in an attempt to explore the comprehensiveness of the training contents, the learning achievements of the trainees, the satisfaction rates of the trainees toward the trainings, and the usefulness of the training in real life teaching settings. The research questions this study is trying to answer are as follows.

RQ 1: What PCs are expected in an able ELT in consideration of the social contexts in Taiwan?

Sub-Q1-1: What knowledge and skills do the trainees consider to be important and the most important at pre-training stage?

RQ 2: How are the training institutes preparing the trainees to meet the expectations?

(On the aspect of comprehensiveness)

Sub-Q2-1: What training contents are provided to cultivate the trainees’ PCs?

(On the aspect of the trainees’ learning achievements)

Sub-Q2-2: What are the trainees’ general opinions regarding their own PCs at the
pre-training and post-training stages?

(On the aspect of the trainees’ satisfaction rates of the trainings)

Sub-Q2-3: What are the trainees’ general opinions regarding the training programs?

RQ 3: How useful/applicable are the trained skills and knowledge in formal teaching settings?

(The interviews in 2008)

Sub-Q3-1: Which type(s) of the training is/are found to be useful and which part(s) is/are less applicable in formal teaching settings?

Sub-Q3-2: Taking into account the trainees’ personal experiences, what type of skills or knowledge should be reinforced in the training?

(The interviews in 2011)

Sub-Q3-3: Taking into account the trainees’ teaching experiences, how could the FRPC be readjusted?

b. The process of data collections and the data analysis

The pre-training stage quantitative data were firstly statistically analyzed in 2006 and 2007. Among the important individual group and group comparison results, some assumptions were then generated. To carefully examine the assumptions, some GQs were designed as the primary guidelines of the interviews. The first interviews were conducted in 2008. The data was transcribed, with the most important findings
deduced based on the initial quantitative data and the supports from the qualitative data. The interviews with the trainers were also implemented in the same year, obtaining more insight into the study’s questions. The transcriptions and initial analysis were sent to the interviewees in late 2008 and early 2009 for the confirmation of their opinions in the interviews and approval of the transcriptions. Cross examinations of the findings in the present research and the literatures were conducted in 2010. The last interviews were carried out in 2011 in an attempt to investigate how the trainees, who had been already teaching English for nearly three years since the last interviews, valued the PCs differently. The new transcriptions were sent to the interviewees and findings from the last interviews were used for the final consolidation of the FRPC in 2012.

c. Organizations of the results chapters

Due to the nature of the research design of this longitudinal mixed-methods study, Instrument Development Model is first used, followed by Follow-up Explanations Model. The findings from different types of data correlate with one another, illustrated in Flowchart of Analysis Process (see Illustration 1-1). The findings from Part A influence how data are interpreted in Part B; the findings from Part B consolidate the results in Part C (detailed explanation provided in Chapter 8). Therefore, the conventional way of organizing and writing up the data commentary into result, analysis, and discussion sections may not be an ideal way of structuring the findings in this research. In order to show the correlations among the data sets, considering the issue of sequencing the analysis process, the results sections of this present study consists of three chapters, organized in the sequence of the research questions investigated in this present research.
In an attempt to enhance the explicitness of the important findings from the global analysis of the three groups’ results, the correlations among the data at pre-training and post-training stages when doing cross-examinations, and to avoid the complexity of the wordy descriptions, Weissberg & Buker’s 3-step-writing style (2005) is adopted for the presentation in this and the next chapters. In the 3-step-writing style, the most important findings are analyzed and classified into subsections. Each subsection consists of the results, its analysis, and a short discussion. Accordingly, in order to take advantage of the merits of the mixed-methods design, the results from the 1st phase, the pre-training stage, are revealed first, followed by further explanations or supports from the data obtained at the 2nd phase, the post-training stage. Each subsection ends with a short discussion of the possible implications of the findings.

d. Focus and outline of the chapter

The focus of this chapter is to answer RQ1 and its sub-question listed.

RQ 1: What PCs are expected in an able ELT in consideration of the social contexts in Taiwan?

Sub-Q1-1: What knowledge and skills do the trainees consider to be important and the most important at pre-training stage?

The primary purpose of this present research is to investigate the effectiveness and practicality of the ELTs’ initial education programs in Taiwan. In order to do so, the question of what PCs are expected in a competent ELT has to be brought to light. Therefore, the FRPC is generated and introduced in the early part of this present research (i.e. Part A of Analysis Process) and is then used as the criterion for the investigation purpose in Part B. The reason why this part only discusses the trainees’
opinions at the pre-training stage is because it is the author’s intention to investigate how the trainees’ opinions toward the importance of each PC changes over time; how the trainees values each PC at pre-training stage, post-practicum stage, and three years after the completion of the trainings. Therefore, this part of the study focuses on the trainees’ opinions at the pre-training stage. How their opinions change is discussed in Chapter 8, where the data from the interviews gathered three years after their completion of the training is presented.

With respect to the presentation of the quantitative data, the Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire in phase 1 is used as the evidence to answer the sub-questions and the qualitative data, the Post-Practicum Stage Interview 1, in phase 2, serves as the reinforcements to provide insights into the findings in phase 1; this is designed based on the rationale that ED-FEM can benefit researchers to present explicit and holistic perceptions of the studied phenomena (Creswell, 2008).

As for the outline of this chapter, since the answers to Sub-Q1-1 may contribute to the enhancement of the completeness of the answer to RQ1, the findings relevant to the answers of the sub-question are presented first, followed by the discussion of the answers to RQ1. Then the discussions of the trainees’ opinions toward the degrees of the importance of the PCs and the training contents are given. The attempt to answer RQ1 with a brief review of the findings from the literature reviews chapters and Experts’ Opinions (Analysis Data 1 from Part A of Analysis Process, see Illustration 1-1) and the comparison of the FRPC and the findings in Sub-Q1-1 (Analysis Data 2 from Part B) is next. The chapter closes with a summary of the overall analysis of this chapter, along with a brief introduction of the next chapter.
6.1 Sub-Q 1-1: Findings from Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire & Post-Practicum Interview 1

Section 6-1 aims to answer the sub-question, “What knowledge and skills do the trainees consider to be important and the most important at pre-training stage?” To achieve this, Section 6-1-1 of Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire is firstly analyzed (see Appendix 6 for Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire).

Section 6-1-1 consists of twenty-seven statements (S) (i.e. competency indicators) which were developed from the eight different categories representing the eight PC areas in the FRPC to investigate the trainees’ opinions of the degree of importance of each PC area. The eight PC areas are, respectively, knowledge about learners (KL), knowledge of education (KEU), knowledge of school & community (KSC), knowledge about English (KE), knowledge & skills about learning & teaching (KSLT with three types of PCs, namely, general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), knowledge of second language learning & teaching (KLT)), knowledge of general education (KGEU), modern demanded knowledge & skills (MDKS), and attitude & belief (A&B).

In Table 6-1, the twenty-seven competency indicators in Section 6-1-1 are grouped into eight categories in accordance to their classifications under the PC areas in the FRPC. For instance, competency indicator S13, “understanding child’s psychological and physiological developments,” is relevant to the type of knowledge of child development, which is classified under the of PC area of “Knowledge about the Learners (KL)” in the proposed FRPC in the literature reviews sections. Therefore, in Table 6-1A, S13 is listed under KL.
Table 6-1. The Classifications of the Competency Indicators in Section 6-1-1 of Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KE</th>
<th>KEU</th>
<th>KSC</th>
<th>KE</th>
<th>KEU</th>
<th>KSLT</th>
<th>KE</th>
<th>KGEU</th>
<th>MDKS</th>
<th>A&amp;B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this section, the data from the trainees’ post-practicum stage interview are also analyzed and discussed. Semi-structured interviews were adopted in this study. GQs were designed and sent to the interviewees two weeks beforehand for preparation. This part of analysis presents the interviewees’ responses to GQ1.

**GQ1:** Share your reasons for your choices in Section 6-1-1 of Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire.

Though GQs were used as the main outline of the interviews, the interviews also allowed the interviewees to express their opinions if they found the sharing relevant to the GQs or the purpose of this study; the discussion in this chapter is not merely limited to the findings focusing on their opinions of the PCs and the training contents in the FRPC. Their statements and opinions in the interviews that are related to RQ1 and its sub-question are also used as further explanations or supports of the points here.

There are two crucial things that need emphasizing before going into more detailed and insightful discussions to the research questions in this chapter. First, during the post-practicum stage interviews in 2008, the interviewees were asked to share their opinions or to further explain their choices for the statements in Section 6-1-1 of
Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire. After nearly a year and a half to two and a half years apart between taking the questionnaires, there were a few times during the interviews that the interviewees appeared or even orally expressed that they were not confident about the reasoning for their choices during the pre-training stage. Regardless, for a better examination of the data, all the relevant data were still analyzed. However, careful attention was paid to the interviewees’ wording and tones when such an occasion arose; those ambiguous statements are mentioned when used as evidence in the following discussion sections. In addition, the researcher’s side-notes of such moments during the interviews and the annotations during transcribing data are also used in the analysis for additional reinforcements of the arguments.

Secondly, there were several times during the interviews which all the interviewees tend confused the timeline; they explained why they had made the choices based on how they thought at the post-practicum stage instead of their feelings at the pre-training stage. To ensure the accuracy of the interpretation of the interview data, three measures were taken: (1) clarifications were made when such confusions taking place during the interviews, (2) the responses relevant to the interviewees’ opinions at the pre-training stage were analyzed in this section, but the ones relevant to that at the post-practicum stage were used for analysis in Chapter 8, where the interviewees’ opinions after the training are centered, (3) as mentioned in the methodology chapter, the transcriptions were sent to the interviewees afterwards, giving the interviewees the ability to confirm the information transcribed or make necessary amendments.

The following deliberation mainly presents the most important findings from the
results of the individual groups and group comparisons. There are nine important findings revealed in Part A analysis and they are critically discussed below.

6.1.1 Finding 1: The overall results of the three individual groups’ opinions regarding the degree of importance of each PC area indicate significant differences.

Table 6.2 displays the results of the three groups’ ratings of the degree of importance of each competency indicator in Section 6.1.1 of Questionnaire 1 based on the mean scores. The majority of G1 trainees rated most of the statements “important” or “quite important”, whereas only S19, S20, and S22 were rated “slightly important”. The results also reveal that G2 trainees rated on average, a more consistent level of scoring. All are distributed among “important” and “quite important”, with merely S19 and S20 rated “slightly important”. G2’s range of the importance degrees is similar to G1’s, but compared to G1’s, more ratings were placed on “quite important”. The distributions in Table 6-2 indicate that the majority of G3 trainees rated most of the statements “important” and “quite important”, though KEU, KSC, KGEU, and S22 from MDKS were rated as “slightly important”.

**Table 6-2 Groups’ Results of the Degree of Importance of Each Competency Indicator in Section 6.1.1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Slightly Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Quite Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G1</td>
<td>S19,S20, S22</td>
<td>S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S10, S11, S12, S14, S16, S21, S23, S25, S26</td>
<td>S7, S8, S9, S13, S15, S17, S18, S24, S27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2</td>
<td>S19, S20</td>
<td>S3, S5, S6, S9, S11, S21, S22, S23, S25, S27</td>
<td>S1, S2, S4, S7, S8, S10, S12, S13, S14, S15, S16, S17, S18, S24, S26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3</td>
<td>S20, S21, S22, S23</td>
<td>S2, S9, S10, S11, S13, S14, S15, S16, S18, S19, S25</td>
<td>S1, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8, S12, S17, S24, S26, S27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Arranged according to the eight different PC areas, Tables 6-3, 6-4, and 6-5 reveal the
individual group results. In spite of the fact that all three groups have KSC receiving lower ratings, A&B and KSLT receiving higher ratings, and none of the PCs receiving “not important”, their respective group results of the ratings of Section 6-1-1 show statistically significant differences ($P \leq 0.000$ at 0.05 level) (Table 6-6). This indicates that the three groups, which consisted of the trainees with different educational backgrounds and enrolling in different ELT initial education programs, have distinct opinions regarding the importance of each PC at the pre-training stages in 2005 and 2006.

Table 6-3 G1’s Results of the Ratings for Section 6-1-1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>G1</th>
<th>KL</th>
<th>KEU</th>
<th>KSC</th>
<th>KE</th>
<th>KSLT</th>
<th>KGEU</th>
<th>MDKS</th>
<th>A&amp;B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Important (5)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Quite Important (4~4.99)</td>
<td>S13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S7,S8,S9, S15,S17</td>
<td></td>
<td>S18</td>
<td>S24, S27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important (3~3.99)</td>
<td>S21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S1,S2,S3, S4,S6,S11</td>
<td>S5,S10, S14,S16</td>
<td></td>
<td>S23</td>
<td>S12, S25, S26</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slightly Important (2~2.99)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S20</td>
<td></td>
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<td>S19, S22</td>
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<tr>
<td>Not Important (1~1.99)</td>
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Table 6-4 G2’s Results of the Ratings for Section 6-1-1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>G2</th>
<th>KL</th>
<th>KEU</th>
<th>KSC</th>
<th>KE</th>
<th>KSLT</th>
<th>KGEU</th>
<th>MDKS</th>
<th>A&amp;B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Important (5)</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Quite Important (4~4.99)</td>
<td>S13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S1,S2,S4</td>
<td>S7,S8,S10, S14,S15,S16, S17</td>
<td></td>
<td>S12, S18, S24, S26</td>
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<tr>
<td>Important (3~3.99)</td>
<td>S21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S3,S6,S11</td>
<td>S5,S9</td>
<td>S23</td>
<td>S22</td>
<td>S25, S27</td>
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<td>Slightly Important (2~2.99)</td>
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<td>S19</td>
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<td>Not Important (1~1.99)</td>
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</table>
6.1.2 Finding 2: All the PC areas are considered important with different degrees of importance.

One explicit fact is shown in Table 6-2: none of the PCs were considered unnecessary. Even though the ratings of each area or each individual PC may have varied due to
different factors, all the ratings were rated in-between “slightly important” and “very important”. This indicates that the trainees considered the all eight PC areas important for ELTs despite differences in the degrees of importance.

A common opinion shared among the interviewees regarding the importance of all the PC areas is that they all agreed that teaching was a complex activity requiring different knowledge and skills during the process. They also shared the same pressures of facing unsound educational policy climates and being expected to be competent in all aspects. As a result of the similar concepts about teaching and the parallel anxieties, they all embraced the same attitude towards the PCs: “the more, the better”. Transcription 1-1, 2-1, and 3-1 are examples reflecting this phenomenon.

“國小老師要有十八般武藝。每個人都期望我們能達到所有要求。超人才做得到吧。”

“Being an elementary school teacher requires all different kinds of abilities. Everyone expects us to be able to meet the demands. It takes a superman to achieve this.”

(Transcription 1-1, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“在權者的要求一直不確定，最安全的方法還是盡可能地把自己調適到最好。”

“What the authority asks of us alters every once a while, so the safest way to deal with the uncertainties is to adjust ourselves to the best.”

(Transcription 2-1, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

“別期望政策對你有利。學該學的技術，做該做的工，得該得的資格。然後，期望工作會來。”

“Don’t expect the policies will favor you. To learn whatever skills you should learn. To do whatever works you should do. To acquire whatever qualifications you can get. And, hopefully, a position awaits you.”

(Transcription 3-1, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)
6.1.3 Finding 3: The global results from the 3 groups specify that A&B and KSLT are viewed as the most important PC areas.

6.1.3.1 Individual groups’ results

The mean scores of the individual groups’ ratings regarding the degree of importance of each PC area are shown in Figure 6-1. The results from G1 indicate that KSLT and KL were rated the most important PC areas with mean scores of 4.30 and 4.20, respectively. G1 had KSLT rated the highest, while having inconsistency of between ratings for KSLT, MDKS and A&B. KEU, KE, and KGEU were rated “important”, with KSC to being the least important. Therefore, the average results of each PC area in Table 6-7 are consistent with the results of the distributions of the G1 individuals’ ratings in Table 6-3.

Figure 6-1 Individual Groups’ Results of the Mean Scores of Each Competency Indicator in Section 6-1-1

![Figure 6-1](image)

G2’s results in Figure 6-1 reveal that both KL and KSLT were rated the highest with means scores of 4.3 and 4.11, respectively. On the other hand, KSC was rated the lowest with a mean of 2.95. Similar to G1, G2 valued KL and KSLT as the most important PC areas and KSC as the least important.
The inconsistency of MDK’s results can be seen at all three groups; they all displayed great diversity among the ratings. The same inconsistency can be seen for A&B. However, in spite of the wide range, the competency indicators within A&B were all rated between “important” and “quite important” (Table 6-3, 6-4 & 6-5), making A&B the most important PC area in G3 with a mean score of 4.18. The same results of KSC being rated the least important PC area is found in all groups (Figure 6-1).

6.1.3.2 Overall Results from the 3 Groups

The overall results from the three groups exhibit that among the eight different PC areas, A&B and KSLT were rated the most important PC areas (m=4.08; m=4.08) (Figure 6-2). The overall results of A&B corresponds to that in G3’s, where A&B is found to be the most important PC area for G3 trainees (m=4.18), and the overall results of KSLT corresponds to that in G1’s, where KSLT is found to be the most important PC area with a mean score of 4.30.

The data from the 1st phase helps identify the most important PC areas among the three groups. The results from the 2nd phase may offer more in-depth perceptions to
the questions of why. The following discussion targets the investigation of the possible factors influencing the trainees’ ratings. While the overall mean score of KSLT designates it one of the two most valued PC areas, the individual groups’ mean scores shows it to be the highest for G1, the 2nd for G2, and the 3rd for G3 (Figure 6-1). Both G1 and G2 interviewees stressed the importance of KSLT in effective teaching. In GI1’s interview during the post-practicum stage, the confirmation of KSLT as the most important PC area was obtained. Stressing its importance, the interviewee explained that KSLT was the primary PC area of a teacher, especially for the teachers of younger learners, because the main task of a teacher is to pass on knowledge which required effective methods to make the messages deliverable (Transcriptions 1-2 & 1-3).

“當老師的這幾年，我發現教孩子的關鍵不在‘你會什麼’，而是‘如何教’。這也是為什麼我是一個老師、不是語言學專家的的原因。(笑)”

“Being a teacher for some years, I have learned that teaching children is not about ‘what’ you know, but ‘how’ you deliver information. Knowing how to teach is the reason why I am a teacher, not a linguist. (laughing)”

(Transcription 1-2, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“、、、剛開始不懂(、、停頓)運用課裡學到的，帶活動及和學生互動很差，但慢慢地摸透了怎麼帶領他們也就還好了。’’

“... [I] Didn’t get it in the beginning ...(pause)...about how to apply the things [knowledge and skills learned] in the textbooks, so I couldn’t handle the class well and the interactions with students were really weak. But I gradually learned little by little about how to lead them, and things started to pick up slowly after that.”

(Transcription 1-3, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

By giving it a high rating, GI2 also underlined KSLT’s significance in teaching (Transcription 2-2). With that being said, additional attention is called for in the
careful examinations of the reasons for GI1’s and GI2’s responses. Despite the fact that KSLT was to be valued as the core PC by GI1, what needs highlighting is probably not as simple as the reasons mentioned previously, but the underlying factors forming and facilitating this value. An implied cause may be extracted from Transcriptions 1-2 and 1-3. GI1 mentioned that being able to learn about the students after a period of teaching time benefited her teaching, which may provide a possible answer to her ratings; what she believed are results of the realizations from her previous teaching experiences. Consequently, GI1’s personal teaching experience affected her rating decisions. Different from GI1, GI2 acknowledged the value of KSLT, but she supported her point by emphasizing more on the educational contexts and policies, instead of teaching itself (Transcription 2-3). It is interesting to observe that though GI1 and GI2 are under the same normal university educational system and displayed similar views on the degree of importance of the PC area, KSLT, they have distinctly different reasons for their opinions. While GI1 formed her belief mostly based on her actual teaching experiences, GI2 formed her opinion in accordance with the educational contexts.

“如果找不到方法讓學生了解，就一切罔然。”
“If you don’t find a way to have the students comprehend the information, it’s all waste!”

(Transcription 2-2, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

“連諾貝爾得主李遠哲都說了“教學首重方法”，教改委員說的[實為總召集人]，誰敢不聽？連九年一貫政策都配合了，有動機了，才肯學。”
“Even the Noble Prize laureate Lee Yuan-Tseh stated, ‘Teaching prioritizes methods.’ Who would dare not to follow what the committee member said [Lee was actually the convener of Council on Education Reform]. Even the G1-9CG took the point. If the teaching method is right, students will be motivated. Once the motivation is raised, [they] Can learn.”
Resembling result was also found in GI3’s interview data, in which she firmly shared her belief that effectively learning demanded efficient teaching methodology; however, instead of sharing her reason from the role of a teacher, she stated her view from the perspective of a student (Transcription 3-2). Accordingly, it is reasonable to deduce that GI3’s belief may be influenced by her own previous learning experience. To conclude, all the three interviewees considered KSLT quite important even though different grounds were taken for their decision making.

“身為一個學生，我常覺得老師教得我不是很懂。我也是很不想學。我不希望將來也成為那樣的老師。老師的教法可以決定學生學習的成效。”

“As a student, I often felt that the teaching was not comprehensible and I was not motivated to learn, either. I don’t want to be that kind of teachers in the future. A teacher’s teaching skills can determine the effectiveness of students’ learning.”

(Transcription 3-2, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

It is very likely that G1 trainees, who have the similar educational backgrounds as GI1 and have an average of five years of experience teaching other subjects at elementary schools, may have made their decisions based on the same factors as GI1. Similarly, it is also understandable if most of the G2 trainees made their decisions based on what affected them the most at the time which the questionnaire was conducted. They were still university students in 2005 and as a result, it would be difficult for them to make their decisions based on their very limited teaching experience. In addition, they were the first group of students taking English education as the 2nd Expertise in the university selected for this research. Therefore, current educational contexts and policies may have affected them greatly.
In addition to KSLT, A&B was also rated as an important PC area in the overall results of the three groups. A&B was recognized as significant characteristics of an able ELT among the trainees. Notwithstanding the shared belief, dissimilarities are once again observed in the causes contributing to their ratings. From GI1’s sharing, it is evident that the interviewee gave weight to this PC area because of her anticipation of facilitating the professionalism and to be better fit for the teaching position as an “ELT teacher”, whereas GI2 centered the cause in an attempt to secure a teaching position and to better play the role as an “elementary school teacher". In other words, the interview results show that they both agree with the statement that A&B facilitates effective teaching based on different assumptions of the possible outcomes derived from this PC area. Transcription 1-4 well explains that GI1 believes that with the willingness to learn more, she could expand her teaching resources, and that careful lesson preparation enabled her to make up for her disadvantage in language proficiency. On the other hand, GI2 believed that extra work after class and the willingness to devote more time and effort were necessary actions for being an elementary school teacher (Transcription 2-4).

“對於英文老師來說，英文知識的確是很重要的。可是我覺得如果有資源像是具備有組織的課程大綱、課程計畫和教具，是可以補足語文上的不足。很多學校採用統一教材和課程大綱，只要有這些資源及準備，語言能力應該是可以克服的阻礙。老師應該要自發地延伸觸角，多接觸資源。”

“The knowledge relevant to English language is definitely important for an ELT. But I think it [poor language proficiency] can be complementary if useful resources like organized syllabus, course plans and materials can be provided. Many schools adopted unified materials and course syllabus. With sufficient resources and preparations before class, [the problem of poor] language proficiency should be a conquerable obstacle. Teachers should extend their learning voluntarily and get more frequent
contacts with different resources. “

(Transcription 1-4, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“態度決定一切。雖是公務職，但還是要力拼。和以前日子不一樣了。現在老師都要接受評鑑，所以如果沒有在工作上或私下時要拼時拼命的心理準備，就別想在國小裏混口飯。”

“Attitudes determine if you are up for the job. Although it is a government official occupation, [you] still have to earn it. It’s not the old days. Teachers now get evaluated. So if one is not psychological ready for spending enormous time and effort into the job, both in class and after class, one will not be likely to fit for the job at lower school levels.”

(Transcription 2-4, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

Furthermore, GI3, a student majoring in English in a non-normal university, confirmed her own rating results to be consistent with the group’s ratings. Being a group member rating A&B the highest, GI3 attributed her decision to two main causes: seeking practical assistance and psychological readiness. GI3 considered the statements within A&B to be the measures taken for finding help to indemnify her deficiencies of administrative experiences and unfamiliarity of educational knowledge and policies (i.e. integration learning in Transcription 3-4). Notwithstanding the shared anxieties of their own deficiencies were observed in both GI1’s and GI3’s interview data. GI1’s source of anxiety emerged from her diffidence to the English language, while GI3’s concern was associated with her diffidence to the knowledge of educational policies as well as the educational system at elementary school levels (Transcriptions 3-3 and 3-4). Therefore, similar to G1 and G2, GI3 shared her intention of facilitating her professionalism through the assistance from school and colleagues. GI3 prized the opportunity of enabling the expansion of her PCs.

“教國小比教補習班難多了。我們主要都教補習班，所以需要很多學校和
同事方面的协助。只能告诉自己要多加油。毕竟，我们又不是‘传统正规’的老师。（笑）”
“...It was much more complicating to teach at elementary schools comparing to teach at cram schools. We mainly targeted cram schools, so we needed a lot of guidance from schools and colleagues. [We] Can only consistently remind ourselves to work harder. After all, we were not recognized as ‘traditional qualified teachers’. (laugh)”
(Transcription 3-3, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

“我们的专业是英文，所以我们知道如何使用英语。但像S22这一项，我们哪知什们是融合学习呢？行政规条也很麻烦。我覺得我们還需要很多的協助。（嘆氣）”
“Our specialty was English language, so we knew how to use English. But like S22, how would we know what integration learning is? The administrative works and policies were all troubling. I think we need helps, a lot of helps. (sigh)”
(Transcription 3-4, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

Teachers’ desire to further their own professional growth through participating in a variety of educational activities and conducting collaborative teamwork have been highly promoted by educational authorities and facilities in recent years. As stated by Pan et al. (2008) and Chang (2009), only through a variety of professional cultivation symposiums and in-service professional development programs are teachers deepen the understanding of the theories of learning and teaching and widen their inter-disciplinary knowledge. Therefore, G1’s and G2’s anticipations for the positive outcomes, facilitated by frequent interactions with school and colleagues, are not solely unique to this study. In Morzano’s et al report investigating the teacher evaluation standards in 2005, it is also highlighted that teachers should be encouraged to expand their knowledge base as well as to reflect upon their own performance in order to seek improvements in teaching.
One more cause attributing to the high rate of A&B was what GI3 referred as “psychological readiness”. GI3 shared that among all the possible channels of becoming an ELT, the one applicable to a non-normal university individual majoring in English was the most time and money consuming one; strong determination was a prerequisite for completing both the degree in English and the Elementary School English Teacher Education Program simultaneously. This supports the argument stated in Jiang’s study investigating the acceptance level of the implementation of teacher professional development evaluation in 2011. Jiang concluded that the high pressure of pursuing a degree and completing the educational program at the same time, accompanied with the bustling of teaching practicum often results in the extended study period for student teachers and even a high dropout rate. As highlighted by GI3, this psychological readiness might be seen as a sign of enthusiasm and positiveness encouraged in an elementary school teacher and that these attitudes and values may reinforce one’s determination of achieving the final goal (Transcription 3-5). Moreover, it can also be served as a reminder of what kind of life might be ahead of the trainees, and through affirmative manners and realizations, one could be better suited for the profession as an elementary ELT (Transcription 3-6).

“覺悟很重要。 （嘆氣）既然要走這一條路，就要堅持。”
“Realization was important. (sigh) Now that we had decided to take this path, persistence was needed.”
(Transcription 3-5, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

“教書不是都要這樣嗎？早一些知道真相，早學會適應，心理準備很重要”
“Isn’t this the same case for teaching? Realizing the truth earlier, adopting better. Psychological readiness is crucial.”
(Transcription 3-6, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)
6.1.4 Finding 4: The competency indicators of using English fluently and designing and carrying out English activities/games effectively in a language classroom are valued the most important.

6.1.4.1 Individual groups’ results
Reflecting on G1’s value of the importance of KSLT discussed in the last finding, G1 considered S8, designing and carrying out English activities/games effectively in a language classroom, to be the most important competency indicator with the majority of the eleven trainees rating “very important”, and nine rating “quite important” as shown in Figure 6-3.

Figure 6-3 G1 Individuals’ Choices for Each Competency Indicators
On the other hand, even with the highest rates for KL and KSLT among G2 participants, half of the G2 trainees placed their choices on the highest rating “very important” and the other half on “quite important” for S1, using English fluently in class, and S4, good English language skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing, (Figure 6-4).

Figure 6-4 G2 Individuals’ Choices for Each Competency Indicators

Note: 1 for Not important; 2 for Slightly Important; 3 for Important; 4 for Quite Important; 5 for Very Important
A similar situation occurred in G3’s group results as well. Though the accordant high scores of all the statements within A&B making it the most important competency area with the highest average, from the aspect of distributions of the G3 individual trainees’ choices in Figure 6-5, S1, one of the competency indicator within KE, was rated the most important.

Figure 6-5 G3 Individuals’ Choices for Each Competency Indicators

![Figure 6-5 G3 Individuals’ Choices for Each Competency Indicators](image)

Note: 1 for Not important; 2 for Slightly Important; 3 for Important; 4 for Quite Important; 5 for Very Important

### 6.1.4.2 Overall Results from the 3 Groups

The overall results from the three groups indicate that corresponding with G1’s individual group result, S8 was rated the most important competency indicator \( (m=4.45) \). Corresponding with G2’s and G3’s individual group results, S1 was the 2nd
These results show that majority of the trainees valued the PC area KSLT the most, and within KSLT, the competency indicator S8 was widely esteemed the most important among the trainees. Furthermore, the competency indicator of speaking English fluently was also important for the trainees in G2 and G3.

The competency of designing and carrying out activities effectively, a competency indicator often associated with PCK, is widely recognized as one of the most important requirements of a competent ELT (e.g. Mulhall & Berry, 2004). PCK, claimed by Shulman to be a special combination of content and pedagogy (1986), encompasses the elements of knowledge of representations of subject matter and general pedagogical knowledge; accentuating S8 is as if promoting PCK, for this competency indicator requires subject matter knowledge for designing activities in a language classroom and pedagogical knowledge for carrying out the activities effectively. The importance of such PC is not a new idea in the educational research (e.g. Goldston, 2004; von Frank, 2008).

Suchlike standpoint was shared among all three groups’ individual results, where KSLT was rated the number one or one of the highest rates. GI1’s interview helps to elucidate the possible reason for the high rate of the competency indicator. GI1 stated that teachers’ ability to be able to design and carry out activities effectively helped students’ learning; special emphasis was placed upon ‘young learners’ in her interview. She believed that conducting activities was the best way to motivate young learners to learn. It was hinted in her dialogue that her sharing was based on her true experience in life; it is reasonable to conclude that both her beliefs of effective ways of teaching and her previous teaching experience impacted her rating decision.
“在課堂上營造歡娛的氣氛是很重要的，任何課都一樣。教小孩時，忘了試
試看！班上裝死的沈默會讓你想昏死。這倒也還好，有時更糟，學生一陣
混亂不受控制，那真是生不如死。跟小孩啊，就是玩，玩，玩！遊戲是讓
他們專注最好的方法，運氣好的話，也許多少可以讓他們吸收內容。”
“To be able to make the class fun is important. That’s the case for all kinds
of classes. Try ignoring this in a young learner class! The deadly silence or even
the worse case--the insanely chaos could suffocate you. With young learners,
games, games, games! Best way to get their attention and if [you’re] lucky
enough, maybe [you] can get the idea cross their mind.”

(Transcription 1-5, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

It is no surprise that English fluency is highly esteemed in G2 and G3, for G2 consists
of the trainees taking English education as the 2\textsuperscript{nd} expertise and G3 consists of the
trainees taking English as the major. These inferences are also confirmed in GI2’s
interview data in Transcription 2-5, where she stated that the decision of her taking
English education as the 2\textsuperscript{nd} expertise was due to the significance of language
proficiency in English teaching. In GI3’s interview data in Transcription 3-7, GI3
claimed her English major was an advantage.

“是‘英語’教學耶。‘英語’ 教學。想當然英文能力很重要啊。不然我為什麼要
拚死進英語第二專長。政府沒給工作保障，也只能靠自己了。”
“It’s ‘English’ teaching. ‘English’ teaching. Of course, the English ability
matters. Or why would I go through so much study to get to this 2\textsuperscript{nd} expertise
program? The government no longer guarantees our teaching job. So everyone
has solely their own to fight for an opening.”

(Transcription 2-5, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

“當局多年來一直鼓勵國小用全英語教學法，甚至有些很受歡迎的幼稚園也
follow 這個趨勢。你能想像我申請兼職時有多少次被要求用英 demo？英文
流利通常是我獲得工作的原因，所以成為英文老師，好的英文能力是第一
要件。主修英文就這一點來說是優勢。”
“The authority has been encouraging Whole Language Teaching in elementary schools for years and some of the popular kindergartens even follows this trend, too. Can you imagine how many times I had been asked to do a demo teaching in English when applying for a part time job? Fluency [of English] was usually the reason why I got a job. So to be an English teacher, good English ability is a number one requirement. Majoring in English is an advantage judging from this aspect.”

(Transcription 3-7, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

In Transcription 2-6, GI2 further explained her ratings by pinpointing the importance of English fluency (S1) and the four language skills (S4), for the former was likely to affect the success of a teaching demonstration test in the screen tests and the latters were examined in the written examination in the screening test or in the English examination of General English Proficiency Test. GI2 positively confirmed KE as a significant PC area in teaching, and an even stronger reinforcement in the screening tests for ELTs at elementary school levels. GI2 explicitly claimed for several times during the interview that the decision of taking English education as the 2nd expertise was an act out of her belief that English proficiency cultivation was the key to success in the competitive English teaching job market in spite of her belief that KL was valued the most important PC area in teaching. Although both GI2 and GI3 pointed out the value of good English proficiency in finding a teaching position, they expressed their opinions from different angles. GI2 was sharing her concern based on her worry for her future profession; the factor underlying her opinion was her anxiety. However, as mentioned, GI3 considered fluent English as the most important competency indicator; speaking from her experiences, she ascribed her constant successes in job hunting to her better English performance (Transcription 3-7). Hence, GI3 made her rating decision based on her opinion that might have been reinforced by
her actual job interview experiences.

“The some of the popular elementary schools asked for official proof of English proficiency in screening tests. And the English proficiency test in the public screening test is getting harder over the years. Even when you passed the written exam, in the oral exam, you will be asked to do a teaching demo in English.”

(Transcription 2-6, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

In summary, the results reveal that the S8 was widely considered quite important among the three groups’ trainees (m=4.55; m=4.40, m=4.40), and S1 was rated comparably higher in G2 and G3 (m=3.85; m=4.50; m=4.75). Moreover, it becomes clearer that under the same understanding, the three interviewees displayed different rationales underlying their decisions. That is to say, while GI1’s rating was once again affected by her prior teaching experience and the belief of effective ways of teaching, GI2 was affected by her awareness of the importance of KE in the process of getting English qualifications and becoming an ELT, and GI3 was affected by her prior interview experiences.

6.1.5 Finding 5: The overall results from the three groups show that KSC is viewed as the least important PC area, whereas the competency indicator of good understanding of the skills required in conducting educational research is considered the least important.

With the lowest mean score of 2.73, KSC was rated the least important PC area in the overall results of the 3 groups (Figure 6-2). S20 (i.e. KSC) refers to the PC of
understanding the local political, economic, and social cultures. This result parallels with the individual groups’ results in Figure 6-1, which they all scored KSC with the lowest rates (m=2.75; m=2.95; m=2.50). In spite of the result that KSC was rated with the lowest rate, it was S19, a competency indicator within MDKS, which was rated the least important (m=2.67). S19 refers to the competency indicator of good understanding of the skills required in conducting educational research. Corresponding results are also found in G1’s and G2’s quantitative data (Figures 6-9 & 6-10).

One interesting result that was discovered in both GI1’s and GI2’s interview data, is that they both revealed similar opinions and attitudes toward the roles of S20 and S19; they both found S20 to be helpful but not absolutely urgent, and S19 to be useful but not absolutely necessary. The former finding could be extracted from G1’s sharing in Transcriptions 1-6 and 1-7 and GI2’s data in Transcription 2-6. They both believed KSC was helpful because a teacher could seek assistance from the school’s and community’s resources. They both question, however, its urgency. GI1 argued that the cultivation of this PC area required more time and could be reinforced after becoming an elementary school teacher, whereas GI2 put the focus of her argument on its necessity in longer term, but not in shorter term, i.e. in screening tests.

“It is important to have good understanding of the community. It is easier to know where you can find resources. And being a homeroom teacher, it enables you to know more through home visits.”

(Transcription 1-6, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)
“這不是一兩天的功夫，[你]要進入團體後，[你]才可能增加認識。每個學校都有自己的特色及文化，這無法透過特一訓練來達成。恐怕要更長期的相處與共事。”

“It is not a one- or two-days job. [You] Have to get into the group first, and then [you] can get to know it. Every school has its own characteristics and culture, and this information obtained and well understood through one particular unified training. I am afraid that it is a much long term task which requires much time of working together.”

(Transcription 1-7, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“這對將來工作的執行可能有益，但對還在應付甄試的我們可能功能不大。”

“This could probably benefit a teacher’s work in the future, but it’s probably less helpful for us who are struggling to pass the screening tests.”

(Transcription 2-7, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

G3 rated KSC with the lowest rate among the 3 groups (m=2.50), and GI3 shared her opinion regarding the reason for this lowest rate among her group. In Transcription 3-8, GI3 explained that KSC was not as important as the other PC areas for the reason that the policies are frequently changing due to the unstable political and economic situations in Taiwan; the policies and the contextual knowledge are undergoing constant reformation.

“他們[當局]只是走一步算一步。沒人知道下一步。上面都不知道在幹嘛，我怎麼會知道要幹嘛或怎麼 follow？政局不穩，當權者不確定該怎麼做吧，我想。”

“They [The authorities] were taking one step a time. No one knew what’s coming next. When the people on the top could not get the idea of what they were doing, how would someone like me know what or how to follow? Respecting the unstable politics, even the authorities were not sure about what to do, I suspected.”

(Transcription 3-8, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

In addition to KSC, among twenty-seven competency indicators, S19 received the
lowest rate in the global results from the three groups. This overall outcome also reflects the individual groups’ results of G1 and G2. GI1 and GI2, like many of their group members, rated the knowledge and skills of conducting educational research “slightly important”. GI1’s sharing indicated that she did not object to the idea of requesting such a competency indicator in a competent ELT, but she did not show the eager or even anticipation for such professional growth during the interview, and inference appears more convincing with the assistance of the side-note taken during the interview. The side-notes include the information of three types: GI1’s non-verbal messages, recording of the tone and voice changes, and possible confusions of statements that needed further confirmation or clarification.

Transcription with Side-Note (▲)

GI1: **Conducting research? Very naïve.** *(sigh)* I substituted for a teacher in an elementary school for 1 year…*(counting)*… in 2003. I had to work from 8 to 7 every day. I not only had to teach music but also substituted as a homeroom teacher to a 3rd grader class. ▲ The loading was beyond imaginable. I was already totally worn out by what I shoud do in class. ▲

The interviewer: So you don’t think it’s possible for an elementary school teacher to conduct educational research? Or have you seen anyone trying to do it or has done it?

GI1: **No, at least not in the school that I taught.** *(laugh)* Doing research is a possible task for higher education teachers, but…for us elementray school teachers? Not likely. ▲

The interview: So why didn’t you rate it ‘not important’ on your questionnaire?

GI1: Well…I understood why it’s listed. Maybe a way to explain this is to say that **I understand we should keep our information updated, but doing research is a completely different story from reading it.** ▲

The interviewer: So do you still believe so now, or it’s just an old belief?

GI1: **I have always thought it’s an ideal attempt, but not practical.**
No time, no skills...and no need. ▲ ▲ I have survived without it. As a matter of fact, my students like me and my school has decided to keep me, so I think I am fine now. ▲ ▲

Note: Side-Note taken during the interview, and added to the transcription after the interview.

(Transcription 1-7, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)
(Side-Note1-1, Interview with GI1, 2008)

GI1 explained that the reason for her no-objection was due to her understanding of the authority’s intention of encouraging such competency, and she also expressed positive attitude regarding the issue of teachers keeping their information and knowledge updated. Having said that, she argued that initiating research was not practical due to the heavy workload and insufficient skills. Most importantly, her previous working experiences and recognitions from her students, as well as her workplace made her believe that this PC was not essential to her role as a teacher.

G1’s result of low rate on S19 and GI1’s standpoint of not against nor supporting have reflected the opinion, as well as the anxiety of a large crowd of the same teaching profession in Taiwan. Though the rise of the awareness of the importance of research knowledge and skills in a competent teacher started to yield in the 90s (e.g. Freeman, 1991; Johnson, 1992), many contemporary teachers, especially the primary and lower secondary school teachers, have reported a lack of confidence in their own knowledge and skills required for conducting research, and the insufficient time and energy to handle the pressure and workloads (Tsai, 2001).

Comparably, G2 had the PC of conducting educational research rated the lowest as G1. Nevertheless, though similar to the previous group, notwithstanding the resembling
ratings (slightly important), the causes varied. Though interview data in Transcription 1-9 revealed that GI1 valued research skills and knowledge lighter because of the weak necessity of the PC in real teaching, no evidence was found in GI2’s interview data that could support the same causality. Instead, it shows a strong association between the low rate and the interviewee’s belief of its weak necessity in public screening tests (Transcription 2-8).

"讀大學時這很重要，我們都知道，但教書也要？國小老師耶！我十分懷疑這樣的野心是否可行。OK, 回歸正題，我覺得不管從哪一角度切入，這跟甄試都沒有直接關係，也不可能幫我拿下工作。"

“We all know that it’s an important skill when pursuing the first degree, but for teaching? I mean for elementary school teachers? I doubt if it’s practical to have this ambition. OK, but back to our discussion, I don’t think this is even relevant to the screening tests in any way, and it would not help me get a teaching position.”

(Transcription 2-8, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

Despite that G1 and G2 rated S19 with the lowest rates, G3 rated it “important” with an average of 3.35. The former two groups viewed the PC of research skills might be useful, but not absolutely necessary for teaching. In contrast, the latter assured its usefulness based on the previous learning experiences at school (Transcription 3-9).

“[我]讀書時常做研究報告，學術及科技技巧是現在在大學讀書不可缺的工具。可以理解將來在職場時也一樣。”

“[I] often did research reports in the universities. Academic and technological skills are essential tools for study nowadays. So it’s understandable that it would be the same case in the future profession, too.”

(Transcription 3-9, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

In short, GI1’s opinion regarding the PC area KSC was affected by the issue of the
urgency of its acquisition, whereas GI2 and GI3 made their decisions based on, respectively, the query of its necessity in examinations and the concern for the unstable political status. What is more, although GI1 did not show strong negative response to the request of cultivating S19, based on her previous and current work status, she could not relate herself to this competency in teaching setting. GI2 evaluated the importance of this PC from the perspective of her needs and in the same manner as S20, she found this competency not beneficial for securing a teaching position. In contrast with the other two, GI3 positively acknowledge its value based on her own learning experiences.

6.1.6 Finding 6: G1’s and G2’s ratings for KL, KEU, KSC, KSLT and KGUE are higher than those of G3’s, whereas G3 has higher rate for KE.

Based on the mean scores of the individual group’s ratings of each PC area in Figure 6-1, it can be concluded that both G1 and G2 rated KL, KEU, KSC, KSLT and KGUE higher than G3. These PC areas are under the knowledge base of the FRPC. Among the 7 areas under the knowledge base, G1 and G2 rated 5 of them higher than those of G3 except for KE and MDKS. MDKS encompasses different types of skills and knowledge required for contemporary ELTs, namely, KST, KCL, KSR, KSI, knowledge of multiculturalism & intercultural communicative skills, and KSA. As for KE, it consists ELS and KC and CK. Therefore, KE focuses on the knowledge related to English language. On the other hand, the other 5 PC areas focus on the knowledge relevant to learners, school, community, education, and self.

Even though it seems reasonable for G1 and G2 to prize the knowledge and skills relating to education in any way or in any degree since they received their education
in a normal university, it appears understandable as well to see G3 to prioritize the knowledge and skills relating to English language and English language teaching due to their academic field. The interview data reveals more implications than simply the common understanding above. In Transcription 1-8, GI1 explained the overall results of her ratings. It was stressed that being an educator, one must be equipped with different types of tactics and skills in order to consolidate the educational objective of Whole Person Education. As for GI2, she focused on the discussion of an elementary school teacher’s duties (Transcription 2-10), whereas GI3 centered her argument on the discussion of an English teacher’s knowledge of English. The data has not only shown the individuals’ distinct viewpoints, but also demonstrated the differences of how the trainees positioned themselves: an educator for G1, an elementary school teacher for G2, and an English teacher for G3. This might have also indicated how they perceive themselves in their future professions.

“我倒沒注意到我自己有沒有特別偏甚麼。但我認為身為一個教育者，面對教育這樣一個複雜的工作，很多時候是需要策略及方法的。我提了幾次‘全人教育’這個概念，要落實是需要很多人的努力，更不用提老師了。”

“I did not notice if me myself favor any type of knowledge or skills. But I think that being an educator, when facing a complex job as teaching, many tactics and skills are needed. I have mentioned a couple of times the term ‘Whole Person Education’. It requires a lot of people’s efforts to realize it, and needless to mention about teachers.”

(Transcription 1-8, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“要做行政、要輔導學生、要和家長溝通、要做promotion、還要當導師。當國小老師要負責的事很多，要接觸的人也很多。這些誰剛開始會？訓練是一個package，學多少、算多少。”

“Administrative works, counseling students, communicating with parents, doing promotions, and being a home room teacher. There are a lot of duties
to be an elementary school teacher, and there are many people you need to interact with. Who can do all these in the beginning? The training is a package. You learn as much as you can.”

(Transcription 2-10, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

“當英語老師英文不能差。對目標語言的文化甚至文學及英文語言學也要有了解。”
“To be an English language teacher, you can’t speak poor English. Good understanding of the target culture, and even literature and English linguistics are needed.”

(Transcription 3-10, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

6.1.7 Finding 7: The trainees’ rating decisions may be influenced by their prior experiences as well as their educational backgrounds.

The discussion above has exhibited one important finding: there are several factors that can influence a trainee’s decision of the degree of importance of a PC. From the qualitative data, two factors are identified: prior experiences and educational backgrounds. How they affect the trainees’ values of the PCs is clarified in the following.

With regard to prior experiences, two types of experiences are discussed, the trainees’ prior teaching experiences and their learning experiences. Among the three interviewees, GI1 frequently used her previous teaching experiences as her references for her points. For example, in Transcriptions 1-2, 1-3 and 1-5, she shared her beliefs on ways of teaching based on her previous teaching experiences with the younger learners. It is evident that her successful interactions with her students had facilitated her belief of the significance of effective pedagogical skills in language teaching; hence the high rate for KSLT. As GI1 supported her argument by sharing examples from her work, GI3 argued the importance of KSLT and the knowledge and skills for
conducting educational research by providing an example of her own previous learning experience, the other factor pertinent to the trainee’s prior experiences (Transcriptions 3-2 & 3-9).

In addition to the trainees’ prior experiences, the trainees’ educational backgrounds may also contribute as an influential factor. As discussed previously, the overall results of the three groups indicate that in comparison, G3, a group of trainees studying at a non-normal university, rated higher on the PCs relevant to English language, and G1 and G2, the trainees graduated or studying at a normal university, valued more on the PCs relevant to learners, school, community, education, and self. The quantitative data headlines the results and the interview data helps to reveal the causes more explicitly. One significant finding is found: there may be causality between a trainee’s educational background and the rating decisions. To be more specific, the trainees’ ratings may be influenced by their values which were associated with their educational backgrounds. In terms of values, they are referring to the trainees’ views and opinions that were established based on their prior knowledge and beliefs.

This deduction is based upon the qualitative data from the interviewees. For instance, in GI2’s interview data, she specified that her choice of studying at a normal university was for the reason of her belief; she chose a normal university because she wanted to be a teacher and to do this, a normal university was a definite option for her (Transcription 2-9). In addition, in the response to the question of why GI3 enrolled for the teacher education program in the warm up time, she stressed the significance of English in the contemporary professions, and this belief enhanced her
determination of studying in an English department (Transcription 3-11). These results indicate those beliefs not only had made impacts upon the interviewees’ decisions of the choices of their academic fields or educational systems but also might have also influenced how they valued the importance of some PCs. Taking KE as example, GI3 preferred to study at the English department of a non-normal university because of her belief toward the significance of English; thus, her rating of KE may be influenced by this belief. Similarly, for G1 and G2, who were normal university graduates and students, their higher rates on the five PC areas may be contributed to their beliefs of the significance of educational training for becoming a teacher, the beliefs that were reflected upon their decision of studying at a normal university long time ago. Hence, while G1 put weighty emphasis upon KE, G1 and G2 valued all the PCs relevant to educational cultivations.

Furthermore, one’s prior knowledge, which is pertinent to one’s academic field and

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3 “Vagabond teachers” is a term refers to the teachers who receive teacher education and successfully obtain their teacher’s certificates but fail to find a full-time teaching job at schools. These teachers usually teach part-time or are hired as substitute teachers.
the choice of the type of educational system, may also influence the ratings. In GI1’s sharing of the importance of KL, she argued her viewpoint by emphasizing the theoretical rationale and the objective of education, those of which taught in her first degree education in the normal university (Transcription 1-9). Additionally, GI3’s interview data also contained such a phenomenon; in Transcriptions 3-12 and 3-13 when GI3 shared her opinions regarding the importance of KSLT and KE, she supported her points with her prior knowledge learned in her sophomore year. As a result, the causality between one’s rating and one’s prior knowledge is observed. Again, this influence may not be limited to the influence upon the degree of importance of some PCs, but also upon the types of PC areas. Normal universities used to shoulder the responsibilities of cultivating teachers in Taiwan; the long history enables them to provide more comprehensive trainings to their student teachers, whereas English departments in non-normal universities may offer more inclusive trainings in English language. Consequently, G1’s and G2’s prior knowledge in education may have reinforced their awareness of the importance of the education-related PCs, and G3’s prior knowledge in English language may have also enhanced their values of English language.

“對學生的認識是基本功，尤其是較小的學生，因這關係到的不只是小朋友的學習，還有生活的教育。”

“Knowing your students is a basic must, especially the younger students, because this [being a teacher] is not only teaching them school subjects, but also the teaching of life matters.”

(Transcription 1-9, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“上教學法時，知道了說要注意設計課程時理念是什麼。、、、所以遊戲不單單只是玩遊戲而已。”

“In Teaching Methodology, we learned that a teacher had to be aware of
the rationale underlying the designed lessons…. So games were not just games. ”

(Transcription 3-12, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

“[我]以前接觸過第二語言習得，[我]知道學習不一定是習得，要有過程的。”

“[I] Learned second language acquisition before, and [I] knew that learning was not necessary acquisition. It required process. ”

(Transcription 3-13, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

6.1.8 Finding 8: The educational context may raise the trainees’ awareness of the importance of a PC.

In some of the interview data, it seems that there may also be correlation between the ratings and the educational context in Taiwan. However, this variable is different from the ones discussed in section 6.1.7 in two aspects: firstly, there is no evidence found that the educational context interacts with the rating solely by itself; secondly, it influences the trainees’ opinions with more limited effect.

First of all, in Transcriptions 2-3, GI2 expressed her attitude toward the PC areas of KSLT and A&B. In her sharing, Lee, Yuan-Tseh’s, the convener of Council on Education Reform, proposal of the promotion of KSLT was discussed to support her belief that KSLT was the key element in effective teaching. However, this evidence did not serve as the trigger to GI1’s belief, but supports and confirms her already formed belief of KSLT. Furthermore, the constant changes in the educational policies were also mentioned to explain why KSC was not as much valued as the other PC areas in G3 (Transcription 3-8). In the sharing, GI3 already implied that KSC was not as important as the other PC areas, but the inconsistent educational context further diminishes its necessity.
Another example is the response G1 and G2 had for S22. S22 focuses on the new idea of integrating learning/teaching which is a crucial teaching objective in G1-9CG as mentioned previously in the literature review sections. Even though the importance of the integration teaching/learning is explicitly highlighted in G1-9C (discussed in chapter 3), and there have been some inter-schools activities and lesson plans encouraging this concept, the results from the questionnaire show that it was rated in-between “slight important” and “important”, which might be one of the reasons which contribute to the drop of mean value of MDKS. This shows that even with the awareness of its importance, it is still rated lower among all the groups.

In consideration of these examples, it can be inferred that the educational context may raise the trainees’ awareness of the importance of some PCs, or even reinforce the beliefs with some degree. However, no evidence is found that it can change or greatly influence their opinions in any way.

6.1.9 Finding 9: The importance of a PC may be defined by its relevance to the trainees’ needs.

Section 6-1-1 intends to investigate the degree of importance of each PC to the trainees, and the quantitative and qualitative results have revealed their values and opinions regarding the different PC areas. It is found that some factors such as educational background and prior experiences may have impacts upon how the trainees view these PCs and educational context may reinforce the trainees’ values of the degree of importance of the PCs. Nevertheless, one interesting phenomenon happened when the words “urgency” and “practicality” were mentioned in the post-practicum interviews (in the transcriptions) for a total of 79 times. The
interviewees tended to associate the degree of importance to their needs: the need to pass the screening tests and the need for enhancing self-confidence. Another way to understand this phenomenon is to assume that the importance of a PC may be defined by the trainees based on its relevance to their needs, not by its role in effective teaching or its necessity for an elementary school ELT to successfully carry out her or her teaching job.

The first type of needs is mostly observed in GI2’s data. In Transcription 2-6, she explained the importance of KL by emphasizing on the point that fluent English was the vital element in outstanding in a screening test. In Transcriptions 2-7 and 2-8, she offered explanations to why she rated S20 and S19 with the lowest ratings; “less useful” and “less relevant” were used to describe these PCs’ roles in screening tests. Therefore, for GI2, a PC’s relevance to the need of her passing the screening tests seems to be the criterion she used to determine its degree of importance.

The second type of needs is the need to enhance self-confidence, which is mostly found in GI1’s and GI3’s interview data. This is especially obvious in their sharing of the importance of A&B. Transcription 1-4 well demonstrates this point. GI1 explained her high rate for A&B by pinpointing the importance of cooperative works with colleagues and the necessity of furthering her own professional growth especially in English skills (Transcription 1-4). Therefore, for GI1, the benefits of being able to expanding her educational resources and obtain practice assistance from the others were the countermeasures she adopted to overcome her anxiety of insufficient English language proficiency. GI1’s anxiety may be diminished through the accessibility of organized educational materials and careful preparations before class; her anxiety
could be transformed to “a conquerable obstacle” as she described in Transcription 1-4.

In the case of GI3, Transcription 3-3 and 3-4 revealed GI3’s concerns that she considered her learning in a non-normal university strategic for improving the English proficiency, but might be unfavorable for receiving a comprehensive teacher education. The high rate of A&B explains the measures she took to seek practical helps, and her sharing of “we need a lot of guidance from schools and colleagues”, and “I think we need helps, a lot of helps” reconfirms the fact that she valued A&B highly for the reason that it provides her the opportunities to meet her need: to seek practical assistance. As a result, GI3 tried to diminish her disadvantage of inexperienced administrative knowledge and skills and insufficient knowledge relating to elementary school education by making efforts to devote more time and work in class and after class.

This part of the discussion exhibits the fact that even though this chapter intends to answer the question of what PCs are considered important for the trainees at pre-training stage, some data have shown that the trainees define “importance” differently in some occasions. However, this does not put a question mark on the reliability of the results because how the trainees define or view the importance of a PC is also the intention of this research. Obtaining more insights into their opinions and understanding how they value the importance of a PC enables the study to provide a more insightful analysis to their needs and thoughts, which makes this present research valuable because it offers the answer to the research question not merely from an angle of definite yes or no, but also from a process of struggling,
negotiating in decision making. After all, investigating how the trainees value the PCs and the training programs in different time points is the initial objective of this study.

6.2 RQ1: The Comparison of the Results and the FRPC

This chapter aims to answer research question 1: “what PCs are expected in an able ELT in consideration of the social contexts in Taiwan.” The results from the quantitative data in 2005 and 2006 and the qualitative data in 2008 have shown that the trainees consider all the PCs in the FRPC important with different degrees of importance. The competency indicators that were evaluated by the trainees were developed from the PCs proposed in the FRPC in this present research. Therefore, the results of this chapter indicate that the importance of the PCs proposed in the FRPC is acknowledged by the trainees. Despite the fact that they are all valued as necessary for an able ELT, the results of the degrees of importance of different PC areas and even some PCs have displayed distinct diversity of values. This implies that while the FRPC provides the information of what PCs may be important for a competent ELT, it presents all the PCs in a parallel way. However, the results show that this is not how the trainees conceive the PCs. The process of evaluating the PCs involved different factors which contributed to the diversity of the degrees. Most importantly, the PCs are valued by all the trainees, but they are valued differently; their degrees of importance are not equivalent. Consequently, the FRPC may not be able to answer the question raised in this chapter, but merely reflect the “what” element, not the “how” element. In other words, the FRPC does not provide insights into how the PCs are valued.

To better portray the trainees’ opinions regarding the importance of the PCs, it would
be ideal to present the “how” element in the FRPC. However, in this chapter, such amendment cannot be done, as the data obtained at the pre-training stage is not sufficient to allow for this attempt. However, in Chapter 8, where the questions of how the FRPC should be amended and how the trainees value their practicality and necessity, the two criteria the trainees used to define the importance of the PCs at the post-training stage, are investigated, such attempts are made.

6.3 Summary of the Findings

This part gives a brief summary of the results in the previous sub-sections. For better discussion outcomes and organization, the discussion is centered on the research questions raised in this present study. The research question that the previous sub-section is trying to answer is: what knowledge and skills do the trainees consider to be important or the most important at pre-training stage?

The results indicate that all the PCs are valued by the trainees with different degree of importance. This results help to consolidate the proposal of the list of required PCs suggested for an ELT in the framework (FRPC). Among the eight PC areas, namely, KL, KEU, KSC, KE, KSLT, KGEU, MDKS, and A&B, the overall results show that the trainees value KSLT and A&B the most, with competency indicators of using English fluently and designing and carrying out English activities effectively in a language classroom valued the most.

The results also reveal that four factors are identified to be interacting with the trainees’ opinions: the educational background, prior experiences, educational contexts, and needs (as shown in Illustration 6-1). The trainees’ prior knowledge and beliefs about the educational systems, the product and the by-product manufactured
through the trainees’ educational background, affect the trainees’ opinions of the 
degree of importance of each PC area. Furthermore, the trainees’ prior experiences 
which include the teaching experiences and the learning experiences also contribute to 
the formation of the trainees’ beliefs, which are reflected on the ratings. The third 
factor, educational contexts, interacts with the rating in a way that it either facilitates 
or lessens the degrees. Finally, the results also indicate that the trainees’ opinions are 
influenced by the trainees’ needs, for in some cases the ratings are the 
countermeasures the trainees adopt to satisfy the needs.

**Illustration 6-1 The Factors Influencing the Trainees’ Ratings of Section 6-1-1**

6.4 The Introduction to the Next Chapter

This chapter tries to investigate what PCs are required for an able ELT from the 
perspectives of the trainees, and the results are also used for comparison with the PCs 
listed in the FRPC in an attempt to further consolidate the FRPC. In the next chapter, 
the results of the trainees’ opinions regarding the effectiveness of the training 
programs are presented. In terms of effectiveness, the comprehensiveness of the 
training contents, the trainees’ learning achievement, and the trainees’ satisfaction rate 
towards the training programs are examined.
Ch. 7: Results & Analysis 2: a Focus on Effectiveness

7.0 Introduction

a. The focus of the chapter

The two objectives of this thesis are to identify more explicit characteristics of a competent ELT and to examine the success of the initial teacher education programs in Taiwan. In the previous chapter, the discussion of the data and the findings relevant to the former objective, i.e. RQ1, is offered. This chapter aims to answer RQ2 and its sub-questions, in which the effectiveness of the initial education training programs for ELTs is examined. In definition of effectiveness, the comprehensiveness of the training contents, the evaluations of the trainees’ learning achievements, and the satisfaction rates of the trainees’ toward the training programs are investigated. The research questions this part of research is trying to answer are as follows.

RQ 2: How are the training institutes preparing the trainees to meet the expectations?

(On the aspect of comprehensiveness of the training contents)

Sub-Q2-1: What training contents are provided to cultivate the trainees’ PCs?

(On the aspect of the trainees’ learning achievements)

Sub-Q2-2: What are the trainees’ general opinions regarding their own PCs at the pre-training and post-training stages?

(On the aspect of the trainees’ satisfaction rates of the trainings)

Sub-Q2-3: What are the trainees’ general opinions regarding the training programs?

In addition, the GQ used for the trainees’ interviews as well as the trainers’ interviews are also listed below:
**GQ for the trainees’ interviews:**

GQ1: Share your reasons for your choices in Section 6-1-2 of Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire / 7-1-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire.

**GQ for the trainers’ interviews:**

GQ1: Share your opinions about the trainees’ learning achievement.

GQ2: Why do you think the trainees rate higher on _____? Why do you think the trainees rate lower on _____?

GQ3: What PC have they progressed the most/ the least? Why?

**b. Outline of the chapter**

To answer RQ2, sub-questions must first be answered. The results from Section 7-2-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire is revealed and then analyzed to examine if the training contents provided in the programs answer to the expectations; whether the PCs the training set out to reinforce correspond to the PCs in the FRPC are presented. After the investigation of the comprehensiveness of the training contents, the results of the trainees’ self-evaluations of their own PCs at the pre-training and post-training stages, Section 6-1-2 of Pre-Training Questionnaire and Section 7-1-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire, are shown. This investigation is further strengthened by the results obtained from the trainers’ interviews. Lastly, the results of the trainees’ satisfaction rates toward the training programs, Section 7-2-2 of Post-Training Questionnaire, are reported. Therefore, three types of data, the results from the questionnaires and the interview data from the trainees and the trainers, are given in this chapter to provide a holistic answer to RQ2. This chapter is then concluded with a
short summary of the findings.

7.1 A Focus on the Comprehensiveness

In this section, the comprehensiveness of the training contents is examined. To achieve this, two questions are raised: what training contents are provided to cultivate the trainees’ PCs and whether or not these provided training contents reflect the expectations in the FRPC. Accordingly, the following discussion begins with a discussion of the results from Section 7-2-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire, in which the information of the types of training received and the training durations are provided. It then proceeds with the comparison of the results in this section and the FRPC.

7.1.1 The provided training contents in different training programs

Section 7-2-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire contains thirty statements representing different training contents. These thirty training components are grouped into four different training areas: LK, TESOL, GTT and GEK (see Table 7-1).

Table 7-1. The Training Contents Classified into 4 Training Areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LK</th>
<th>TESOL</th>
<th>GTT</th>
<th>GEK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>24</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.1.1.1 The provided training contents in 20-Credit English Program
G1’s group results of Section 7-2-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire reveal the types of training they had received and the durations of the training (see Diagram 7-1). The results indicate that G1 did not receive any training on S19, S21, S22, S23, S24, S25, S26, S27, S28, S29 and S30. On the other hand, 20-Credit English Course Program emphasizes the training of TESOL the most with more than twenty hours of components offered (Diagram 7-1). The trainings of GEK and GTT are distinctly less than the training of TESOL.

Diagram 7-1. GI1’s Ratings for the Training Durations of Each Training Component

20-Credit English Course Program is designed especially for normal university graduates who are teaching non-English school subjects at elementary schools. Since the trainees from this channel are from normal university system, prior basic education training of general teaching and general education knowledge in their first degree was received. For this reason, the program offered particularly for G1 of
trainees mainly focuses on the training of LK and TESOL.

It is understandable that the training curriculum in this channel is less emphasizing on the trainings of GTT and GEK since most of the trainees were in-service qualified teachers teaching other school subjects at the time they were receiving the training. They had received relevant training in their prior learning experiences. However, even with the awareness of the trainees’ educational backgrounds, their program was not designed to meet this need and provided more training on LK. In the last chapter, the results that G1 generally have lower confidence in their language proficiency compared to the other two groups and with this low self-confidence and insufficient training of LK in the program, language proficiency may inevitably be a concern for G1 trainees will be presented.

7.1.1.2 The provided training contents in English as the 2nd Expertise Program

Diagram 7-2 displays the training G2’s had received in English as the 2nd Expertise Program. The results show that G2 receive all the training despite the difference in duration (see Diagram 7-2). Even though there are few components rated 2 “within 5 hours”, the remaining items have shown similar results. Considering G2 trainees are taking English as their 2nd expertise in a normal university, they have higher chances of being able to take on more educational training because compared to G3, G2 has richer teacher resources in a normal university, and compared to G1, they have more English language related training because of their minor study. This is reflected on their results as well. Overall, G2’s program encompasses different training areas.
Diagram 7-2. GI2’s Ratings for the Raining Durations of Each Training Component

Note: 1 indicate ‘none’; 2 ‘within 5 hours’; 3 ‘within 10 hours’; 4 ‘within 20 hours’; 5 ‘more than 20 hours’

7.1.1.3 The provided training contents in Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers

In G3’s group results of the training contents they received, the significances of LK and TESOL in this training channel are demonstrated (see Diagram 7-3). Diagram 7-3 also shows that G3 received no training on S27, S28, and S30. However, LK related training is relatively higher than that of G1. In this training channel, the trainees were requested to take forty credits of general education-related training and twenty credits of English teaching-related training. In addition, since the trainees were English majors, English language knowledge courses, like English Literature and Linguistics, English language training, like English Conversation were already offered as compulsory courses, and TESOL related courses, like Teaching Methodology and Media Teaching were offered as elective courses. Therefore, the trainees in this channel tend to have more learning experiences and opportunities in close links with ELS, CK, PCK and GPK.
Diagram 7-3. GI3’s Ratings for the Training Durations of Each Training Component

Note: 1 indicates ‘none’; 2 ‘within 5 hours’; 3 ‘within 10 hours’; 4 ‘within 20 hours’; 5 ‘more than 20 hours’

7.1.2 Summary of the training contents provided in different training institutes

The results revealed from Section 7-2-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire show that G2, English as the 2nd Expertise Program, provided the most inclusive training, which all five training areas were comprised despite the differences in durations. Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers included most of the training components and the results also reveal that in consideration of the types of training and the durations, the G3 trainees received most training in LK and TESOL compared to the other groups. 20-Credit English Program, on the other hand, provided least training, particularly in the areas of GTT and GEK. This could be attributed to the first degree they possess, since they are normal universities graduates and had received education-related training in their undergraduate study, the G3 trainees were the only ones required to complete English language-related training. Taking this unique position of G3, it can be concluded that both 20-Credit English Course Program and English as the 2nd Expertise Program, the programs provided by a normal university,
offer more comprehensive training and Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers provides more training relevant to LK and TESOL.

7.1.3 A comparison of the results and the FRPC

The above results indicate that the trainees received most of the trainings suggested in the FRPC except for the trainings and cultivations of KSA, KSC and KCL. As the long term goal for ELTs is for them to become a potential candidate of homeroom teachers (MOE, 2012), administrative skills are essential for carrying out the administrative duties of a full time elementary school teacher as well as a homeroom teacher (Yu, 1998). Nevertheless, relevant training is lacking in different training institutions. Moreover, KSC is promoted in the new reform, as cooperation between teachers, school, and community is encouraged for developing school-based curriculum. This task requires a good understanding of the useful resources and the participants involved in related educational matters. In spite of its promotion, pertinent training is also absent.

Lastly, KCL, one of the contemporary PCs demanded by the new society, seems to be overlooked as well. With KCL, types of cultures are mentioned. The cultivations of target language culture are provided in the training and this can be observed in the results of S20. Other types of cultures, the local culture as well as the learner’s culture, are briefly introduced in the learning area of Social Studies; integrated in S27, the introduction to general learning subjects at the elementary school level. This training content is absent in G3’s training. The last type of culture deals with a more practical aspect of knowledge type: intercultural communicative knowledge and skills. The first three types of cultures are closer related to the role of a type of knowledge and
understanding which serves as a guidance in the process of decision-making. This knowledge helps with the decision of what strategies should be taken for educational purposes. The last type of culture, however, can be considered a “means” to actualizing the knowledge and understanding. The development of intercultural communicative competence and the application of intercultural communicative skills allow a competent teacher to effectively implement educational tasks in more humanistic manner. In the training of the three programs, the general skill, communicative skills, is cultivated in G1 and G2, i.e. the normal university educational system. It is introduced in the course of Classroom Management. However, the cultivation and introduction to the more specific skill, intercultural communicative skills, is absent.

In sum, from the perspective of comprehensiveness of the training contents, the three programs included all the necessary training courses of LK and TESOL, with the only exception of English Literature absent in G1’s training. However, the training of GTT and GEK are relatively less in G3 compared to G1 and G2. Some components, such as KSA, KSC and KCL, are overlooked in the training curriculum. Since it is MOE’s long term plan to cultivate ELTs’ potentials to become homeroom teachers and developing school-based curriculum is one of the primary objectives of G1-9C, teachers’ insufficient knowledge in KSA, KSC and KCL may increase the difficulty of the implementation of the new reform. As pointed out by Chin & Wey (2002), new reform calls for new skills, namely, administrative skills and communicative skills; these should be reinforced in teacher’s preparation courses.
7.2 A Focus on the Effectiveness

Section 7.2 aims to scrutinize the effectiveness of the training programs. The effectiveness is determined by two factors: the trainees’ learning achievement and the satisfaction rates of the training programs. The answer to the former is deduced by the data gathered from two sources: the results from the trainees’ pre-training and post-training questionnaires and post-practicum interviews and from the trainers’ interviews. The answer to the latter is researched by the analysis of the trainees’ pre-training and post-training questionnaire and interviews.

7.2.1 An investigation of the trainees’ learning achievement

This sub-section focuses on the results and analysis of the trainees’ self-evaluations data of their own PCs at the pre-training and the post-training stages. The data from the trainees’ self-evaluations in Section 6-1-2 of Pre-Training Questionnaire and those in Section 7-1-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire are analyzed. This is then followed by the discussion of the trainees’ and the trainers’ interview data to get a closer examination of the trainees’ learning achievements followed the analysis. In short, the sub-question on which this section is focused is listed below with the guiding questions for the interviews.

*Sub-Q2-2:* What are the trainees’ general opinions regarding their own PCs at the pre-training and post-training stages?

*GQ for the trainees’ interviews:*

GQ1: Share your reasons for your choices in Section 6-1-2 of Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire / 7-1-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire.
GQ for the trainers’ interviews:

GQ1: Share your opinions about the trainees’ learning achievement.

GQ2: Why do you think the trainees rate higher on ______? Why do you think the trainees rate lower on _____?

GQ3: What PC have they progressed the most/ the least? Why?

7.2.1.1 The self-evaluation at the pre-training stage

a. Finding 1: There are significant differences on the overall results of self-evaluations between G2 and the other two groups.

The respective group results of the ratings of Section 6-1-2 show statistically significant differences between G2 and the other two groups (P ≤ 0.000 at 0.05 level) (Table 7-2). This indicates that the three groups’ self-evaluations of this own PCs at the pre-training stage are distinctly different; this may be attributed to the differences in their educational background: G1 were graduates of normal universities and had already received education-related training and acquired their teacher certificate, G2 were junior students in undergraduate study who received some educational training and were about to receive TESOL-related training, and G3 were also in their junior year, had received much more English training, and were just about to receive their educational training. With these different learning experiences, they came into the programs with different prior learned knowledge and skills and hence, different ratings at the pre-training stage. This result is supported by Ke’s finding in her study in 2005, too, in which an individual’s educational background plays a crucial precondition of a teacher’s professional competency and growth.
Table 7-2. Comparisons of the Results of Section 6-1-2 of the 3 Groups

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>.444</td>
<td>26.659</td>
<td>.000</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

a. R Squared = .483 (Adjusted R Squared = .465)

b. Finding 2: G2’s self-evaluation rate is the highest among the 3 group at the pre-training stage, whereas G3’s is the lowest.

At the pre-training stage, an occurrence has shown in overall concluding result by measures of the highest and lowest scores of PC for each group. The results demonstrated significance in the numbers of PC areas that scored the highest and lowest. In Figure 7-3, G2 has scored five out of eight PC areas to be the highest, respectively in the areas of KL, KEU, KSLT, KSC, and MDKS, making G2 the highest rated among the 3 groups. On the other hand, results show that though G3 rated two PC areas to be the highest, in KE and A&B, it also had six of the lowest ones. These results also correspond with the mean scores of the respective group (m=3.36; m=3.52; m=3.32), in which G2 self-evaluated themselves with the highest rating among the three groups.
This occurrence may have resulted from one main reason: the differences in their educational backgrounds. The fact that both G2 and G3 were from English-oriented programs benefited their confidence in KE, unlike G1, where education in English is specialized after having received complete training in 20-Credit Program. Additionally, more advantages of G2 in PCs related to general Education-related trainings, KEU and KL, which were taught in their sophomore year in the normal university. Furthermore, G2 demonstrate higher confidence on some of the modern demanded PCs such as S12, “incorporating/ applying computer in language teaching effectively” (m=2.15; m=3.25; m=3.15), and S19, “good understanding of the skills required in conducting educational research” (m=1.80; m=2.30; m=2.25). Combined, the three advantages contributed to the higher overall mean score of G2. As for G3, even though G3 possess confidence in their language ability, which is shown by the high score in KE, their insufficient knowledge regarding educational issues has resulted in lower overall mean scores. G1, conversely, shows lower confidence on KE but has higher mean scores on educational-related knowledge and skills, which resulted in slightly higher overall mean score when compared to G3.

The data from the trainees’ interviews confirm the inferences discussed above. In
Transcriptions 1-10, GI1 confirmed her disadvantageous status in English learning and specifically attributed her superiority and inferiority to the differences in educational backgrounds. Similar results are also observed in GI3’s data and the data from the trainer interviewee from G1 (GT1). Nevertheless, in addition to the factor of different educational background, GT1 also pointed out the importance of self-beliefs, in which she believed to be the main variable affecting a trainee’s PCs (Transcription 4-1).

“教育訓練是我們的專長，當然差也差不到哪裡。至於英文，人家[英語系學生]可是練了兩年。[英文第二專長學生]有企圖拿英文作第二專長，實力大概也有基本程度吧。”

“The completion of educational training is our advantage, so we have our own merit. As for English ability, [the English-majored trainees] Have received at least two years of training. [The trainees with the 2nd expertise] Must be with certain level of English proficiency to be interested in taking English as their 2nd expertise.”

(Transcription 1-10, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“・・・所以成為英文老師，好的英文能力是第一要件。主修英文就是這一點來說是優勢。”

“... So to be an English teacher, good English ability is a number one requirement. Majoring in English is an advantage judging from this aspect.”

(Transcription 3-7, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

“我們當時才準備要接受訓練，自然[英文教學相關知識]不行。但英文方面，做了不少練習，應該[和其他組比起來]有差吧。”

“We were just starting to receive the training back then, so surely not confident [in our own knowledge related to English education]. But as for English, we had done a lot of practice, so we should be better [comparing to the other group trainees].”
“It is different to teach normal university students and English-majored students. With different cultivations, talents vary. Consequently, the degree of interest in specific professional areas would also vary. … In fact, many life decisions are also reflections of one’s own values. It is quite nature to think that one’s professional growth is also a representation of one’s self-beliefs."

(Transcription 4-1, Post-Practicum Interview with GT1, 2008)

Though GI1’s, GI3’s and GT1’s data support the deduction that one’s prior learning experience, i.e. educational background, may have impacted the trainees’ PCs, GT2’s data did not show this pattern. In Transcription 5-1, GT2 shared a different viewpoint, in which she attributed the higher rate of G2 on KEU to be an outcome of higher confidence and less fear caused by the sense of familiarity with the knowledge types, not the confidence of one’s own PCs.

“就第二專長學生來說，他們在大一、二修的專業課都屬基礎，要說可以比英文系學生好多少，是有幾分可疑。但因接觸過，難免自信會多些，懼怕少些。”

“For G2, they took some compulsory courses in education, but those were fundamental courses. So it would be quite questionable to conclude that they were advanced than those of English majored students from a non-normal university. But the previous contacts with the knowledge might increase their confidence and decrease their fears toward the unknown.”

(Transcription 5-1, Post-Practicum Interview with GT2, 2008)

c. Finding 3: KSC received the lowest rating in overall results of the 3 group at the pre-training stage.
KSC was the lowest rated PC among the eight PC areas. In examination of the Figure 7-1, one can distinguish that the average results for KSC by the three groups ranged from 2.25 to 2.50. The mean of KSC was 2.42, which is relatively low on an overall level, when compared to the other seven categories.

These findings of KSC being relatively low were discussed in the previous chapter, in which it is described as “less important” to the needs of each group. In order to understand why the importance of KSC was rated to be the lowest, one must first comprehend the construction and utilization of educational contextual knowledge. According to the research done by CORD, contextual learning would provide the best environment for students to learn in the most exciting and available manner. Therefore, one may say that teachers are expected to keep aware of the importance of creating a contextual learning environment with the assistance from all the participants involved in educational matters. Despite of the fact the importance of KSC was stressed greatly by scholars, the three groups did not rate it to be important, which could explain the stressed point in the description in G1-9C. Originally, the concept of school-based curriculum was stressed after the decentralized policy and teachers were to learn and familiarize themselves with KSC once they entered a school (Appendix 1, Sections III, V, VIb & Vic of G1-9C).

The interview results from GI2 and GI3 may also provide a little insight into the reasons behind the low rates. GI2 explained that KSC was not a study area that was provided in any type of official curriculum before the reform and not mentioned in any of the examinations. Since KSC was not officially introduced and recognized as a learning area and the knowledge was not included in assessment, KSC was considered
a new type of learning areas for the trainees. Furthermore, GI3 further strengthened this argument by pointing out that KSC was not a concrete type of knowledge, as no particular textbook was designed for it or specific training relevant to its mastery. Therefore, in GI3’s point of view, KSC is a product of life experience, resulting in its weak status in training.

“學校及社區認識知能較棘手。它依不同學校及社區而有所異動吧。根本無論從得知，也無統一資訊可得。還好，它不考。”
“The knowledge of school and community is trickier comparing to other types of knowledge. I don’t think it maintains the same in different schools or communities. And there’s basically nowhere you can obtain the information and there’s no unified answers or information regarding the issues related to it. It’s a good thing that it’s not for evaluation purpose.”

(Transcription 2-11, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

“這是很麻煩的。知識不制式化會顯得很抽象。好像都對，又好像不太確定。只有接觸才會有體認吧。”
“It’s quite troublesome. Without systematic structure, the knowledge seems very abstract. All the information seems to be accurate but seems flexible at the same time. Only by interacting with it, one can realize what it [the knowledge/ the culture] is.”

(Transcription 3-15, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

For the results, it is suggested that KSC is less emphasized due to its nature of extending outside of classroom, of which the subjects would have received less training. To extend influence outside of the classroom would require initiative, which the subject would in the case, lack—a point stressed by Yu (2005). He argues that since the nature of ELT is to be restricted within a closed academic environment, there is no need to spend extra time acquiring a knowledge that showed no particular practical use in terms of teaching practice. However, in the new reform, teachers are
encouraged to design and implement school-based curriculum, resulting in a variety of public discussions advocating the importance of KSC (e.g. Wu, 2006; Yu, 2005).

7.2.1.2 The self-evaluation at the post-training stage

a. Finding 4: There are significant differences on the overall results of self-evaluations between G2 and the other two groups.

This subsection discusses the results extracted from Section 7-1-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire. This discussion analyzes three types of data: the trainees’ results on the questionnaire, post-practicum interviews, and the trainers’ interviews at the post-practicum stage. Again, the following ANOVA data indicates that the respective group results of the ratings of Section 7-1-1 show statistically significant differences between G2 and the other groups (P ≤ 0.000 at 0.05 level) at the post-training stage. The difference between G1 and G3 is found not to be statistically significant at 0.05 level.

Table 7-3. Comparisons of the Results of Section 7-1-1 of the 3 Groups

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</table>

a. R Squared = .532 (Adjusted R Squared = .515)

b. Finding 5: Among the PC area KSLT, G1 has the highest confidence in GPK, while G2 and G3 rated the PCK the highest at the post-training stage.
Based on the results shown in Figure 7-2, G1 scored GPK to be their highest confidence in their PCs (m=3.80) while G2 and G3 rated PCK as their most confident PC at the post-training stage (m=3.92; m=4.00).

![Figure 7-2. Individual Groups' Mean Scores of Self-Evaluation of KSLT at the Post-Training Stage](image)

The high rating for GPK in G1 may be reinforced by the fact that G1 had received comprehensive training in GPK-related field prior to their training. One must note that GPK includes classroom management, assessment of learning, and material development which are labeled as the fundamental training in G1’s first academic studies degree. Aside from this reason, one thing pointed out by GI1 is that several years of substituting teaching had provided her the opportunities to put what she had learned into practice; these two causes made members of G1 more prone to rating GPK higher (Transcription 1-11). GT1’s interview data also confirms the significances of G1’s teaching experiences in achieving higher rate on GPK (Transcription 4-2). This result is also found in Chien’s study (2011), where the teacher training channel of 20-Credit Program is also investigated. In the study, the trainees’ better performance in general teaching is also reported. Even though no evidence is found to explain the reason, such inference is made.
On the other hand, the results show that G2 and G3 had greater confidence in PCK and their confidence in the English language proficiency, since both group received English as their prime target of developing academic skills. According to Shulman (1986), PCK is the integration of content knowledge and pedagogy knowledge. Since both G2 and G3 had been trained TESOL related courses in the programs and both groups had experience in language teaching in cram schools, which provides activity lesson plans as well as material planning and delivering, it allowed both groups to gain confidence regarding the trainees’ ability in teaching.

In Transcription 2-12, GI2 shows the possibility of the better understanding of CK may have reinforced her confidence in conducting English language teaching. GI2 also explained that her confidence in effectively applying technological skills to seek useful resources and materials may also help reduce her anxiety of insufficient teaching experiences (Transcription 2-13). GI3’s interview data explicitly shows that GI3 is confident in conducting whole language teaching. She also points out that her teaching experiences in cram schools has better equipped her with useful resources and relevant knowledge (i.e. CK) (Transcription 3-16).
As shown in the previous data, GI1 demonstrated higher confidence on GPK and claims it, along with actual teaching experience, to be important in enhancing her confidence in teaching. The point of prior experience as a positive reinforcement is also shared in Ke’s study (2005), in which she stresses that prior teaching experience is the most influential variable contributing a teacher’s effective teaching. On the other hand, GI2 and GI3 identify PCK to be the confident zone of the knowledge area KSLT, based on their better understanding of CK and resourceful materials. How GI2 and GI3 value CK in the effective practice of PCK is also seen in Hsieh’s study (2002), in which she highlights the importance of CK in reinforcing
the understanding and acquisition of PCK.

7.2.1.3 A comparison of the self-evaluations at the pre-training and the post-training stages

a. Finding 6: From the overall results of the 3 groups, the trainees show most confidence in the PC area of A&B at both pre-training as well as the post-training stages.

An overview of results shows that all three groups have most confidence in the PC area of A&B. By examining the results and means of each group, in referred in Figures 7-1 and 7-3, G1’s rating of A&B had a mean of 4.00 and 3.80, G2 had a mean rating of 4.15 and 4.25, and G3’s mean rating was 4.19 and 4.31. The fact that the trainees valued A&B highly is not new in this research. In the previous chapter, the trainees have also shown strong affirmatives to A&B in their ratings of degree of importance of PC in Section 6-1-1 of Pre-Training Questionnaire.

Figure 7-3. Individual Groups' Mean Scores of Self-Evaluations of Each PC area at the Post-Training Stage

The results in Chapter 6 suggest that the high willingness of one’s motivation towards English teaching is the primary reason why subjects choose to enroll in the programs
in the first place (e.g. Transcription 1-12). Also, the willingness to continue learning new knowledge regarding English teaching would potentially increase one’s proficiency in learning and teaching practice (e.g. Transcription 3-17). In this chapter, the results of why the trainees self-evaluated A&B with the highest rates are consistent with the results in Chapter 6. The only one exception is that GI2 considers this PC to be “controllable” and thus is confident (Transcription 2-14).

“走教師這條路大不同於從前。態度很重要，走了，就要堅持。我一向能忍。（笑）”
“Being a teacher nowadays isn’t quite the same as the old days. **Attitudes matter.** Since I have chosen this path, I have to hold on. I am good at being persistent. (Laugh)”
(Transcription 1-12, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“這是最累但最不費力的能力。想要，就拿得到。自己做決定。”
“This is the most tiring but least energy-consuming competency. **You want it, you can get it. You can make your own call.**”
(Transcription 2-14, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

“這種測不出的東西，心知肚明。但重要的是它可以帶來更多機會。學習、互惠的機會。”
“It’s a non-measurable competency. Only one knows oneself. What matters is that it **enables you to gain more opportunities to learn and to benefit others as well as to be benefited from the learning.**”
(Transcription 3-17, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

The importance of A&B is constantly reminded of through various educational academic studies (e.g. Liu, 2007; Coladarsi, 2002). It is stressed that the motivation of wanting to be a teacher enhances the willingness of teachers to go further study in their professional fields (Liu, 2007). Both GI1 and GI3 demonstrated their positive attitudes toward teaching in the pre-training stage, and GI2 also showed her eagerness
towards obtaining a teaching profession upon the completion of the training. After two and a half years, G2 and G3 still showed high enthusiasm for pursuing a teaching profession through the ratings, whereas G1 showed a drop in the rating (m=4.00; m=3.80). The reason for the drop cannot be inferred from GI1’s interview data, as dissimilar to her group members she has shown consistent behaviour on her rating of A&B. However, some insights could be deduced from the trainers’ interview data.

“學生中有多是流浪教師，本來希望掙得一份正職，開始訓練才發現這和體貼的才藝課不同。語言畢竟不是一日之功。慢慢的，有些同學就出現了倦怠及無力感。”

“Many of the trainees in this channel are “vagabone teachers”. They originally wanted to get a full time position, but after the training, they realized that teaching English was not just as simple as teaching another school subject. It takes years to cultivate language proficiency, so eventually, some of them started to feel worn out and helpless.”

(Transcription 4-3, Post-Practicum Interview with GT1, 2008)

“老實說，很多同學對政策不定很困擾。甚至擔心到頭來徒勞無功，不是甚麼都拿不到，就也有可能是[認證]不被認可，成了[新政策的]墊腳石。”

“Frankly speaking, many trainees are troubled by the inconsistent policies. They are even worried that their hard work would be all for nothing in the end. They are afraid either they cannot get a job, or not even be recognized [or the certificate will not even be recognized], and have become a stepping stone [of the reform].”

(Transcription 4-4, Post-Practicum Interview with GT1, 2008)

“學生有許多初期很期待當老師，但整個訓練太漫長，相當於拿二個學位。再想到要實習，再拿證書。有些甚至開始打算放棄乾脆拿碩士。”

“Many trainees wanted to be a teacher in the beginning, but the whole training took up too long. It’s almost like taking a 2nd degree. Then there’s practicum and examination. Some even started to think about quitting and getting a master degree.”

(Transcription 6-1, Post-Practicum Interview with GT3, 2008)

GT1’s interview data reveal the concern and helplessness of G1 trainees
(Transcriptions 4-3 & 4-4), a phenomenon also observed in Chien’s study (2011). Chien reports that the trainees from 20-Credit Program exhibit the lack of confidence in their own language proficiency, which leads to the anxiety of feeling incompetent in their jobs. By observing G1’s case and taking GT1’s opinion into consideration, it seems that G1’s decrease of willingness may be associated with their awareness of their insufficiency in English proficiency and the hesitation and doubt about their future. Though this deduction can be made taking account of the presented evidence here, there is one thing that needs attention, and that is, the anxiety of insufficient English proficiency was already demonstrated at the pre-training stage, in which GI1 explained that could be alleviated by expanding her teaching resources (Transcription 1-4). Therefore, the drop in rating may not be merely be caused by the concern of their language proficiency. While the interviews in 2008 could not provide explicit evidence to explain this change of rating, the interview data in 2011 may have provided a possible explanation (Transcription 1-13).

“當[老師當]得很累。有時候覺得能力不足。同時扮演學生又得扮老師，終於明白為什麼當初同學有想逃的心情，上了也只是更顯得無能。”

“[Being an English teacher] is exhausted. Sometimes I don’t even think that I am competent enough for the job. I have to be a teacher and a student at the same time. I finally realized why some of the classmates wanted to quit back then. Even if we can get the job, it’s probably beyond our ability.”

(Transcription 1-13, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2011)

“以前試教只是確定你會教，現在是確定你會“說”，全程英文耶。當初規定又沒說這一條，到上課些時候後才知道，同學覺得被騙了。這要求也不能說無理，但政策應更透明化。”

“In the past, a demonstration teaching is only to show that you can teach, but now it is to make sure that you can “speak”. You have to speak English during the whole demonstration teaching. This was not mentioned in the regulations. We only learned about this after we had some time of training. By then, many of
us felt being tricked. I cannot say that this request is unreasonable, but it should be explicitly explained to the trainees.”

(Transcription 1-14, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2011)

GI1’s interview in 2011 offers possible explanations. While the worry of feeling incompetent in English teaching is proven to be one of the main factors affecting some of the G1 trainees’ attitude, the other reason is their realization of how the oral interview and demonstration teaching of the screening tests would be conducted (Transcription 1-14). In the pre-training stage, G1 intended to participate in a variety of educational activities and to cooperate with colleagues to make up for their disadvantage. However, they learned that they might not even have the opportunity to carry out this countermeasure, as many of them were not proficient enough to conduct whole language teaching in the screening tests. Therefore, the change of the environment condition may have negatively affected some of the trainees’ confidence.

b. Finding 7: G2 have the highest scores among the three groups at both the pre-training and the post-training stages.

An examination of the overall results of the three groups revealed that G2 scored the highest rating in both the pre-training and post-training stages. The mean scores for each group in the pre-training stage are 3.00 for G1, 3.15 for G2, and 2.67 for G3. In the post-training state, G1 rated 3.36, G2 3.52, and G3 3.32.

Compared to the other two groups, G2 displayed a more consistent range of rating, which may imply their confidence on the different PC areas. Dissimilar to G1, which displayed lower confidence on KE and MDKS, and G3, which showed much lower
ratings on KL and KGEU, G2 showed a certain degree of confidence on the PCs relevant to English teaching and the PCs relevant to general education. Their confidence can be well reflected on GI2’s response to the question of why she rated relatively higher on the items. The response is shown below:

“英文教育及普教的訓練我們都有了。雖然還有很多進步的空間，但面對甄試及初教應該還行。”
“We have received English education and general education cultivations. Although there may be a lot of room for improvement, they should be enough for screening tests and beginning teaching.”
(Transcription 2-15, Post-Practicum Interview with GT2, 2008)

Therefore, having received a more comprehensive training, which included both TESOL and general education cultivations, benefits the trainees’ confidence, as well as their self-beliefs. When explaining her decisions on the Pre-Training Questionnaire, GI2 explained that her rating decisions were based on the concern of securing a job at an elementary school (e.g. Transcriptions 2-1, 2-4, 2-5 and 2-7). However, in her explanations of her rating decisions on the Post-Training Questionnaire (e.g. Transcription 2-12 & 2-15), she expressed more confidence in herself by showing an energetic willingness to confront challenges like conducting classes and facing screening tests.

c. Finding 8: Positive progresses are demonstrated on most of the PC areas among the three groups, but G1 and G3 have made negative progress on KE.

Figure 7-1 and Figure 7-3 show the trainees’ self-evaluations at the pre-training and
post-training stages. The results show that all three groups have made positive progress on most of the PCs, with the exceptions of G1 making negative progress on A&B and KE and G3 on KE. These results indicate that all three groups’ trainees approved of their own progress after the training, proving the programs to be beneficial for their professional developments. Though most of PCs made progress in G1, two still had mean scores below 3 “some degree of appropriateness”. This means that the majority of the statements regarding KE and MDKS are considered “inappropriate”. Similar to G1, G3 has also two PCs rated “inappropriate,” KL and KGEU, both related to general education. This suggest that despite the progresses G1 and G3 made on these PCs, which were the sources of their anxieties implied on their Pre-Training Questionnaire and reported in their interviews in 2008, they still express diffidence in these particular PC areas.

Negative progress was found on the knowledge branch of KE, in referring to in Figures 7-3 and 7-6. The results show that both G1 and G3 demonstrated negative progress. In the pre-training stage, G1 had a mean score of 2.30 and G3 had a mean score 3.83 in their self-evaluation. However, in the post-training stage, KE results dropped from 2.30 to 2.29 for G1 for G3, the results dropped from 3.83 to 3.67. In calculation, the rate of negative progress was -0.01 for G1 and -0.16 for G3 (Diagram 7-4).
After an investigation into the reasons for G1’s and G3’s negative progresses on KE, some possible reasons were found. To begin, G1 may have expected more training in English knowledge and skills since the 20-Credit Program is more TESOL-oriented due to the fact that its initial purpose is to cultivate the general education teachers to become an ELT. However, the G1 trainees may have felt that the limited hours of training was insufficient for them to make distinct progress and therefore, their doubts were reflected in their rating, which indicates the lack of confidence in their own language proficiency. In this case, the negative progress may not necessarily mean no progress, but instead imply the trainees’ anxiety of insufficient training. This possibility is indirectly implied in GI1’s interview data shown in the following:

“英文能力還是不足。可能訓練還要加強。”
“English is still not proficient enough. Probably need more work on it.”
(Transcription 1-15, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

Another possible reason is that G1 may not have had much experience in learning English in the past. Though the training showed them their level of English proficiency, which may have given them a better understanding of themselves but it
also became a cause for worry. This indicates that their original rating was their assumption of their own proficiency, and the rating at the post-training stage reflected the realization of their own proficiency after actually practicing it. If this is proven to be the case, negative progress may in fact indicate their realization of their true proficiency. Though no evidence can be found about this possibility in the trainees’ data, relevant implication can be inferred in the trainer’s interview data.

“上了一段時間，學生就發現英文能力需要加強，教學能力這時就顯得次要了。”

“After receiving the training for a while, the trainees realized that there should be much work done about their English proficiency. For them, the teaching ability is no longer the main issue.”

(Transcription 4-5, Post-Practicum Interview with GT1, 2008)

For G3, the possible causes for the dropped rate of KE are two-fold. First, they did not receive much training in English language since their focus of study was in general education training. Not receiving as much training in the language as they used to in their first degree may create a feeling that the language training was neglected, hence, the feeling of not progressing. This assumption may be implicitly confirmed by the fact that at the point of completion of the practicum, majority of the G3 trainees had passed the English language proficiency test for fulfilling the requirement of entering screening tests.

The other possible reason can be elicited from the trainer’s interview data, which is shown below:

“有個很奇特的現象，學生學多了專業術語及文學，竟然簡單生活英語顯得 handle。有一次全班竟想不出怎麼表達“立可白”。”

“There is a unique phenomenon. The trainees have learned a lot of technical terms and literatures, but they sometimes seem to have difficulty handling
**daily conversation.** There was one time that the entire class could not name the produce ‘white-out’.

(Transcription 6-2, Post-Practicum Interview with GT3, 2008)

G3 trainees may be accustomed to using “academic English” or “literature English” in undergraduate study. Differences between using “academic English” and “teaching elementary English” were not distinguished properly, which has a great difference. The former is for adults, more technical and literature-oriented while the latter is for students and more life-oriented. This realization of being unable to distinguish the differences between the two types of usage or unable to switch the uses may have created confusion for G3 trainees. In addition, as stated by Chen (2006) and Hsieh (2004), some of the trainees have not subsequently had an opportunity to use English in real life or with younger learners, making it difficult to covert English from form-based knowledge into communication. Consequently, the ineffective communication made the trainees question their own oral communication performance. Thus, the change of the environmental conditions, i.e. the language forms commonly used and the community the language is used within, may have made impacted how the trainees see their own competency.

d. **Finding 9: The overall results from the 3 groups indicate that the greatest progress made is in PC area KSC.**

Figure 3-3 and Figure 3-6 show the mean scores of the trainees’ self-evaluations of each PC at the pre-training and post-training stages. The PC area which had the most progress is KSC, with a mean score of 2.42 in the pre-training stage and 3.42 in the post-training stage.

KSC was considered the least important PC area among the results of the three groups:
the lowest mean score of 2.73 (Figure 7-5) at the pre-training stage and this result parallels with the individual groups’ results as well (Figure 7-4). The interview data indicate that KSC was considered least important at pre-training stage because the interview trainees could not relate to this knowledge. Furthermore, the results from the trainees’ self-evaluations at the pre-training stage show that KSC was the PC area which G1 and G2 had the least confidence and it was also rated lower among G3 trainees. The results from Section 7-2-1 of Post-Training Questionnaire indicate that the special training of KSC was absent. These results all might have implied the possibility of it being rated one of the PC areas with least progress. On the contrary, the result has shown contradiction. The result of mean differences shows that KSC is the PC area which most progress is made.

The explanations of why KSC was rated the lowest in the self-evaluation at the pre-training stage could be found and are discussed in Finding 3 of this chapter. Nevertheless, there is no evidence from the trainee interviewees that can clearly explain the contradiction of why it was rated the PC area with the greatest improvement. When this contradiction was brought up in the discussions with GT1 and GT3 in their interviews, they offered possible explanations from the angle as a trainer. In their sharings, it seems that even though this knowledge type is generally considered “unconcrete” by the trainees and trainers, it is also a type of information that can be obtained and absorbed once an individual is involved in the environment. This obtaining of the information was described as “doable with the investment of time and willingness” by GT1 (Transcription 4-6), and “learnable on job” by GT3 (Transcription 6-3). Therefore, the inference was made that most the trainees were confident in this knowledge was due to its obtainability; the potential of the acquisition
of KSC, rather than the competency itself, is evaluated in this case.

“其實結果確實很難理解，、、，我想可能是因為這知識概念較模糊，但只要願意及投資時間，誰都能做到吧。”

“In fact, it is also difficult for me to understand why…. I think the possible reason is that this knowledge and its concept are more indefinite, but it is doable with the investment of willingness and time.”

(Transcription 4-6, Post-Practicum Interview with GT1, 2008)

“這[知識]說不清楚的。他們大概認為做了就會了。”

“This [knowledge] is difficult to explain. They probably thought that it’s learnable on job.”

(Transcription 6-3, Post-Practicum Interview with GT3, 2008)

The possible reasons as to why the trainees self-evaluated their KSC much higher at post-training stage than those at the pre-training stage were provided by the trainers. Though this progress and the explanation of obtainability seem to be positive for the trainees’ learning outcome and self-confidence in this particular PC area, it could also be a potential danger. Taking the understanding of the cultures of a local community and school as easily obtainable could lead to stereotyping and misconceptualizing. Cultural sensitiviness should be shown in a language classroom (Dogancay-Aktuna, 2005), and if the understanding of a local culture is taken for granted, stereotyping may occur, which could cause misjudgment on the adoption of teaching strategies applied in teaching. The understanding of cultures requires the appreciation for similarities, the tolerance for differences, and the wisdom and skills for coexistence.
The process of understanding involves learning, negotiating, and compromising, all of which cannot be acquired without effort. The increased confidence expressed among the trainees could either be an affirmative signal of their own ability to acquire this PC area in the future teaching profession or an implicit indicator of an oversight of the complexity of this PC area.

e. Finding 10: The results of self-evaluations at post-training stage may indicate the trainees’ affirmative opinions regarding their own progress, but they do not necessarily imply their confidence in their own PCs.

The overall results in Figures 7-3 and 7-6 indicate the trainees’ positive opinions regarding their own learning progress. However, there are exceptions with A&B and KE for G1 and KE for G3, which had lower ratings lower in the post-trainings stage when compared to the pre-training stage. More precisely, G1 has five PC areas rated below 3 “some degree of appropriateness” at the pre-training stage, and only two at the post-training stage. G3 has six rated below 3 at pre-training stage and two remained under 3 at the post-training stage. On the other hand, G2 has three at the pre-training stage, but none at the post-training stage. With most of the PC areas rated above 3, the majority of the trainees demonstrated a certain degree of confidence in some of the PC areas. These results confirm the positive reinforcement of the training programs upon their developments of specific PC areas.

Despite the progress, some PC areas remained under 3; KE and MDKS for G1 and KL and KGEU for G3. GI1’s concern for KE and TESOL-related knowledge and skills and GI3’s worry for her educational-related PCs were already explicitly shown
at the pre-training stage. The self-evaluations at the post-training stage demonstrate progress on G1’s MDKS and on G3’s KL and KGEU. However, the anxieties still remained, as shown on their ratings, which are still under 3. This suggests that although the training was helpful for the development of most of the trainees’ PC areas, it was not able to build up G1’s and G3’s confidence.

Furthermore, while the ratings reflected some of the trainees’ confidence in their own PCs, for some of the other trainees, the ratings merely indicated their affirmative attitude toward their own improvements. For instance, in Transcriptions 2-12 and 3-14, GI2 and GI3 demonstrated their confidence and eagerness in applying what had been learned into practice. In the following examples, GI1 and GI3 demonstrated their affirmative attitudes toward their learning achievements of some specific PC forms, but also the lack of confidence in specific PC forms.

“線上資源真的很豐富，對備課或找材料幫助很大。、、、再找同事一起準備，操作還是不熟悉。”
“There are a lot of rich resources online. They are very useful for lesson planning and material preparations. … I will prepare lessons with my colleagues. I am still not familiar with the operation.”
(Transcription 1-16, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“班經很重要。、、、方法及技巧可以和前輩請教，這是經驗值的問題。”
“Classroom management is crucial… I can ask for strategies and tips from the senior teachers. This is an issue of experience.”
(Transcription 3-18, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

G2 and G3 rated most of the statements relevant to KE 3 or 4 due to their higher confidence in it when compared to G1 trainees. G1 trainees demonstrated higher confidence to educational-related PCs, resulting in higher ratings in those PCs. Even
though each group displayed a certain degree of confidence in some particular PCs, the slightly-above-medium-score ratings may also reflect the fact that there is still room for further improvement. G3 can be used for demonstrating this point; while G3 consistently demonstrated their higher confidence in KE as opposed to G1 and G2, they still rated their PC area KE with a mean score of 3.67. A possible implication is suggested here; the training’s effectiveness of facilitating the trainees’ PCs is proven, but the question of whether the degree of progress is sufficient for preparing them to face the challenges in actual teaching remains unanswered.

With regard to each group’s learning achievement, the trainer interviewees shared their opinions as a trainer. The trainers’ interview data once again confirmed the trainees’ progress. However, they expressed different opinions regarding the readiness of each group of trainees. While GT1, a trainer from 20-Credit Program, doubted G1’s readiness (Transcription 4-7), GT2 and GT3, trainers from English as 2nd Expertise Program and Educational Program for Elementary School Teachers, held optimistic attitudes toward G2’s and G3’s potential in the teaching profession (Transcription 5-2 & 6-4).

“教學本來就很不錯了，英文課程教學上自然學得快。對英文也沒那麼恐懼了。教英文？還需要時間，尤其是語言上的障礙。甄試可能較不利，光是第一關的英文考試就很難了，第二關的全程英文也是很大挑戰。”

“Their teaching was already very good, so they learned really fast on TESOL relevant training. They showed less fear toward English, too…. Teaching English? They still need more time, especially on overcoming the obstacle in language. … They have less advantageous conditions in screening tests. The English written test in phase 1 is already very difficult for them, and the English interview and demon teaching in phase 2 are also big challenges.”

(Transcription 4-7, Post-Practicum Interview with GT1, 2008)
“課堂上表現都不錯，示範教學表現也很好。完成實習後，就有更多實際行政及教學經驗。[教學或甄試]應該很有機會。”

“Theyir class performances were good and they did well on the demon teaching in class. After the completion of practicum teaching, I think they stand for very good chance [on getting a job or passing screening tests].”

(Transcription 5-2, Post-Practicum Interview with GT2, 2008)

“他們也算是很有英文教學經驗的人，只要懂得在學校教學的生活原則，應該就行。甄試只要過了第一關，第二關就不用怕了。”

“They are experienced teachers in teaching English, so as long as they learn the survival tips for teaching in elementary schools, they should be all right. If they can pass the phase 1 of the screening tests, they will not need to fear the phase 2.”

(Transcription 6-4, Post-Practicum Interview with GT3, 2008)

7.2.1.4 Summary of Section 7.2.1

This section examines the trainees’ training outcomes by the means of conducting the trainees’ self-evaluations of their own PCs at the pre- and post-training stages. The research question this section intends to answer is: What are the trainees’ general opinions regarding their own PCs at the pre-training and post-training stages.

The results reveal three important findings. First, both self-evaluations results show that the trainees make progress on most of the PC areas with different degree of progress on each PC area, which prove the trainings are helpful for enhancing the professional developments of the trainees. The only exceptions are the declines of the ratings on KE and A&B for G1 and KE for G3. The trainers have also confirmed the progress of the trainees, despite the fact that they hold different opinions regarding the trainees’ future in English teaching profession. Next, the trainees’ self-confidence on some specific PC areas may be associated with their prior knowledge and/or
experiences; these variables may play either as positive or negative reinforcements to the trainees’ confidence. Last, the rating can be interpreted into three possible indications: an indication of the trainees’ self-evaluations of their own PC after the realizations of their true competency level and the environment conditions, an indication of the trainees’ evaluations of their own potentials of the acquisition of specific PCs, and an indication of the trainees’ opinions regarding their own PCs after the progress, which a sense of insecurity about their own readiness for the teaching profession is still observed.

7.2.2 An investigation of the trainees’ satisfaction rate of the training programs

This part of discussion centers the investigation of the trainees’ satisfaction rate toward the programs. Therefore, Section 7-2-2 of the Post-Training Questionnaire is analyzed. The research question this section is trying to answer is: what are the trainees’ general opinions regarding the training programs. The quantitative data are analyzed, followed by the discussion of the qualitative data. In the quantitative instrument, the Post-Training Questionnaire, thirty statements are given (Appendix 7). The trainees were asked to rate the statements according to their satisfaction rate toward the training contents and to decide the statements’ appropriateness. The thirty statements are classified into four training areas, LK, TESOL, GTT and GEK, shown in Table 7-1.

The following figure shows that there are statistically significant differences among the three groups at the 0.05 level. They show different degrees of satisfaction regarding the training programs; G1 had the lowest satisfaction rate and G2 had the highest. In this section, four important findings are revealed and discussed in the
Ch. 7: Results & Analysis II: RQ2

following:

Table 7-4. The results of the comparison of the three groups’ ratings in Section 7-2-2 of Post-Training Questionnaire

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

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<th>Source</th>
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<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<td>5.859</td>
<td>270.111</td>
<td>.000</td>
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</table>

a. R Squared = .905 (Adjusted R Squared = .901)

Multiple Comparisons

Satisfaction

LSD

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square (Error) = .022.

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

a. Finding 1: G1 and G2 are most satisfied with the TESOL-related training, while G3 are most satisfied with the LK-related training.
Figure 7-4 displays the individual group’s mean scores of the satisfaction rates of the training. The results show that G1 and G2 are most satisfied with the TESOL-related training (m=3.43; m=3.86), while G3 are most satisfied with the LK-related training (4.006).

Both G1 and G2 showed progress on KSLT in Figures 7-3 and Diagram 7-4, and the satisfaction rates seem to reflect their positive affirmations of the improvements. However, this reason cannot explain the highest ratings solely. In G1’s case, when compared to KEU and KSC, the progression on KSLT is not as great. An phenomenon observed in both G1’s and G3’s responses to the question of how they felt about their progressions on the KSLT may offer a possible insight into this.

“開心是一定的。多少可以放心一些。、。、。畢竟學分班是英語教學訓練，[英語教學訓練]也是我們最急切需要的。”

“Of course we are happy. It helps ease our worry… It is in the end a program of English language teaching training, and this [the training of English language teaching] is what we urgently need.”

(Transcription 1-17, Post-Practicum Interview with G1, 2008)
“It takes time to make progress in the language proficiency, and the progress is difficult to notice [measure]. On the other hand, teaching progress is presentable. I think the classmates gave me good feedbacks on my teaching practice in class. … These outcomes [The learning outcomes of the teaching-related training] are direct [targeted to our need].”

(Transcription 2-16, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

From the above examples, G1’s response of “urgently needed” and G2’s “targeted to our need” seem to imply that they focused more on the progress made on KSLT because this PC area is what they needed most. Thus, their beliefs of the importance of KSLT and its role in effective teaching, a point that has been highlighted in Chapter 6 of this work, may have influenced their rating decisions.

Dissimilar to G1 and G2, which suggest a positive correlation between their satisfaction rates and the self-evaluation results, G3 rated LK as their most satisfied training content despite their negative progress in KE. Therefore, it would be reasonable to deduce that the rating is not strongly associated to the self-evaluation rate of the progress. In GI3’s interview data, instead of explaining how the training may have helped in her professional development, she focused on how she can be benefited by her language proficiency (Transcription 3-19).

“Even though there’s still room for improvement, it [my English proficiency] should be sufficient to get a ticket [to a teaching position at an elementary school]. … I have also obtained the English proficient proof. There should be
Consequently, for GI3, the satisfaction rate here may be an indicator of the confidence of her own competency, which her satisfaction with her own PC leads to her contentment of the training of this particular PC. It is then also reasonable to conclude that G3’s satisfaction rate is a reflection of her confidence in her language proficiency, which is very likely to be considered as an outcome of her prior learning experience since negative progress on KE was shown in her self-evaluation at the post-training stage.

In this part, the ideas that show how the trainees’ belief of the importance of a particular PC may affect how they value the specific progress and how this influence make impacts on the satisfaction rates of the trainees are explained. Furthermore, it is also pointed out that the trainees may see the satisfaction rate as an indication of their own competency. In addition to these, one thing is also worth noting. That is, whether a competency is presentable seems to be important enough to make an impact on how the trainees value the progress and the PC.

b. Finding 2: G1 is least satisfied with the training of LK, whereas G2 and G3 are least satisfied with the training of GEK.

The distribution of each group’s mean scores of the satisfaction rates is presented in Figure 7-5. G1’s least satisfied rating is on LK (m=1.87), while both G2 and G3’s lowest ratings is on GEK (m=2.75; m=2.45). G1’s rating seems predictable because G1 demonstrated much lower confidence on the ratings of KE in the previous subsection. However, G2’s and G3’s ratings need to be explained further because they
are both dissatisfied with the training of GEK, despite their improvements in KSC as discussed previously.

Figure 7-5. Distributions of the Means of Satisfaction Rates of the 3 Groups

In the discussion of the trainees’ self-evaluations of their own PCs, the possible reasons for G1’s low ratings on KE are explained. The low ratings are very likely associated with the insufficient training or the trainees’ realization of their true competency level. These two reasons seem applicable here as well. Where G1 shared their concern about their English proficiency in Transcription 1-15, they also indicated the need for further training. Realizing their own insufficiency, they might have expected to receive more training on this PC area, as shown in Transcription 1-15. With the low ratings of their KE, it is then reasonable to assume the low confidence may consequently affect their opinions toward the success of the relevant training.

As for G2’s and G3’s ratings for GEK, the results of the satisfaction rate do not seem to correspond to their results of self-evaluations, which both show progress and G2 having a mean score of 3.45. GI2 gave consistent opinions regarding the knowledge relevant to general education matters, which she considers the knowledge to be useful
for an official teacher, but less practical for prospective teachers (Transcription 2-7). GI3 shares her opinion that because of the unstable political climates and inconsistent educational policies, she does not know how she can relate to this knowledge (Transcription 3-8). Therefore, the necessity and the urgency of this particular training content at the pre-service stage is a question to many prospective teachers that awaits to be answered. Two and a half years after the training, similar concerns are observed in the interview data in 2008. Therefore, it seems that these low ratings do not imply the less significance of these knowledge, but a sign of the trainees’ uncertainties of their credibility.

“知道是好，多知道對自己是保障。但是[停頓]既然課程是要為了進學校教書，好像這相關性不是很高。但是，就像說的，知道總比不知道好。”

“It’s good to know the information. The more one knows, the more secured one may feel. But [pause] since the training is for getting a job at an elementary school, it seems that this knowledge is less relevant to the objective. But, like I said, it's better to know than not to know.”

(Transcription 2-17, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

“聽說要增加學分了，你覺得趕得上政策嗎?”

“Have you heard that more credits might be added to the program? Do you think we can catch up with the changes?”

(Transcription 3-21, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

Lin and Zhang (2009) share their viewpoint about the important roles of the social contexts and educational climates in the implementation of education reforms. Chang et al (2010) further explains that it is only at a state of stability of social atmosphere when teachers’ sense of security about their profession, as well as the future perspectives of education, can be established. Accordingly, in an attempt to reinforce
the trainees’ awareness of the importance of the knowledge relevant to the educational objectives, policies, and other general educational matters, the credibility of these relevant information has to be ensured.

c. Finding 3: The overall results show that G2 rated the highest rating among the three groups.

In Figure 7-5, the distribution shows that among the three groups, G2’s ratings are the highest in general. In consideration of the overall performance of G2 on their self-evaluation at the post-training stage, their satisfaction rate results seem to reflect their positive opinions toward their own PCs, as well as the progress made.

Among G2’s satisfaction rates, three were rated in-between “netural” and “satisfied”, with GEK at “dissatisfied”. Compared to the other two groups, the G2 trainees have consistently shown positive attitudes. Taking GI2 as example, she has shown to be very clear about her objective and most of her ratings, as well as most of the G2 trainees, have shown consistency. She shows high values of the importance of each PC at the pre-training stage, higher rates on the progress of the training at post-training stage, and a higher satisfaction rate towards the training program. In her qualitative data, she also expressed positiveness. For instance, in Transcription 2-5, she showed firm approval of her major. In Transcriptions 2-12 and 2-15, she showed confidence in her own teaching performance and learning achievement. The results from both the qualitative and the quantitative data have revealed GI2’s affirmative attitude toward the training in general.

Zhang reported his findings from his study conducted in 2006 In the report, he shared
his findings regarding the cultivation system of the normal universities. He shared that the prospective teachers graduated from normal universities displayed higher confidence and professionalism compared to the graduates from the other training institutions. This opinion is shared in Wu’s study in 2007, where he argues that the normal universities are more capable of providing more comprehensive training due to their resourceful human resources and long history of training experience.

d. Finding 4: Most ratings are in-between unsatisfied and neutral.

In the last section, the results of the trainees’ self-evaluations at the post-training stage indicate that the majority of the trainees recognize their progresses on most of the trained PC area, with the exceptions of KE and MDKS for G1 and KGEU and KL for G3. Despite the progresses on most of the PC areas, the results from the satisfaction rates of the trainees seemed to conflict with some of the results in the self-evaluations. While G1 and G3 approved of making progresses in KSLT, KGEU, KEU, and KSC, they expressed their dissatisfaction towards GTT and GEK. Similar to G1 and G3, G2 showed progresses in KEU, KSC, and KGEU, but the satisfaction rate for GEK appears to be low.

To include the discussion in Finding 2 of this section, the trainees’ low rate of satisfaction rates may be indications of the trainees’ doubts of the necessity and urgency of the particular PC areas for pre-service teachers, shown in Transcriptions 2-7, 2-17 and 3-21. However, another possible reason for these contradictions may be offered from another angle. The data may seem contradicting when comparing the two results from the self-evaluations and the satisfaction rates. However, these all may seem more reasonable if another perspective is taken. As mentioned previously
in the last section examining the trainees’ self-evaluations of their own PCs, most trainees approve of their own progress. Nevertheless, the question that whether these progresses are sufficient to prepare the trainees to face the challenges in their future teaching profession is still asked (Transcriptions 1-16 & 3-18). Consequently, it is also possible that the trainees show lower satisfaction rate because they consider the training insufficient for them to develop their professionalism despite their improvements.

7.2.2.1 Summary of Section 7.2.2

In this section, the research sub-question, “what are the trainees’ general opinions regarding the training program”, is asked. To this end, the trainees’ satisfaction rates towards the training programs are investigated. The results show that almost half of the trainees are satisfied with the training, while the other half have shown dissatisfaction. All the three groups are dissatisfied with GEK. Both G1 and G3 are dissatisfied with GTT, whereas G1 has also shown a low rate of LK.

In spite of the fact that most of the trainees considered many of their PC areas improved in their self-evaluations at the post-training stage, they rated half of the training contents in-between dissatisfied and neutral. Although the definite reasons for the low rates cannot be explicitly identified, the interview data have suggested different possibilities. One possible reason is that the necessity and urgency of some particular PC areas for the pre-service teachers are questionable for some trainees and thus influence their opinions regarding the importance of the PC areas. These new beliefs then inevitably affect how the trainees value their own progress. The other possible reason is that the trainees confirm the usefulness of the programs in
facilitating the trainees’ PCs; however, the question that if the progresses are sufficient for real teaching challenges remains. Consequently, this uncertainty leads to anxieties which may have reflected on the ratings. In short, the findings in this part have suggested possible associations between the satisfaction rate and the trainees’ self-evaluation of their PCs and the trainees’ beliefs of the importance of the PCs.

7.3 Summary of the Chapter and the Preview to the Next Chapter

In this chapter, the question of how the training institutes are preparing the trainees to meet the expectations is raised. Accordingly, the effectiveness of the training programs is examined. In terms of effectiveness, three aspects are examined: the comprehensiveness of the training contents, the trainees’ learning achievement and the trainees’ satisfaction rates of the training programs.

Sub-Q2-1 examines the types of training contents offered in different programs at an attempt to explore the comprehensiveness of the trainings. The results of the examination of the comprehensiveness of the training contents show that most of the training components which help to cultivate the suggested PCs in the proposed FRPC are offered in the programs. However, there are still a few neglected, and some of the training durations have made the learning outcomes questionable. Sub-Q2-2 investigate the trainees’ general opinions regarding the training programs and the result have shown positive progresses on most of the PC areas. Having said that, the question whether the progresses are sufficient for preparing the trainees for their future teaching profession remains a mystery. Lastly, with respect to Sub-Q2-3, the results from the investigation of the trainees’ satisfaction rates towards the programs reveal that the trainees are satisfied with half of the training contents. It is suggested
that there might be close association between the trainees’ satisfaction and three variables: namely, the trainees’ beliefs of the importance of the PCs, the trainees’ opinions of the urgency and necessity of some particular PCs and the trainees’ opinions about their own learning outcomes.

In the next chapter, the practicalities of the trained knowledge and skills are examined. To achieve this, the trainee interviews’ data in 2011 is analyzed. It is the intentions of this thesis to investigate the progression of the trainees over the years and to get insights into the studied question of how the trainees’ opinions regarding the suggested PCs may vary at different time points taking account of their teaching experiences.
Chapter 8: Results & Analysis 3: A Focus on Practicality

8.0 Introduction

a. Review of the Research Questions

This chapter investigates the practicality of the trainings; both the applicability and usefulness of the training’s knowledge and skills are examined. The interview data gathered in 2008 and the interview data obtained in 2011 are both used in this analysis. It is the intent of this present research to investigate whether the trainees’ opinions towards the importance of different PCs and the practicality of the trainings would vary at different time points taking account of the trainees’ teaching experiences in the real life teaching settings. The focused RQs and the GQs for the interviews are as follows:

RQ 3: How useful/applicable are the trained skills and knowledge in formal teaching settings?

(The interviews in 2008)

Sub-Q3-1: Which type(s) of the training is/are found to be useful and which part(s) is/are less applicable in formal teaching settings?

Sub-Q3-2: Taking into account the trainees’ personal experiences, what type of skills or knowledge should be reinforced in the training?

(The interviews in 2011)

Sub-Q3-3: Taking into account the trainees’ teaching experiences, how could the
FRPC be readjusted?

In this chapter, Strauss and Corbin’s (1990) suggestion of open coding and axial coding are adopted to analyze the qualitative data. Hierarchical arrangement of codes is also adopted in axial coding. Furthermore, Creswell (2007) also suggests that the themes or categories generated during the process of coding are better to be maintained within controllable numbers; less is considered better for the convenience and simplicity of analyzing. In this research, though four themes were generated, only three are used for analysis. The three themes that are closely relevant to the research questions are the “practicality”, “suggestions”, and “possible reasons for ineffectiveness”. Under the themes, different codes and sub-codes are found (see Appendix 8 for Table 8-1: The Themes, Code and Sub-Codes Analyzed from the Interview Data in 2008 and 2011).

b. Outline of the chapter

This chapter starts with the attempt to answer sub-questions 3-1 and 3-2 by revealing the findings from the qualitative data in 2008. It proceeds with the discussion of the answer to sub-question 3-3 by analyzing the results from the data gathered in 2011. RQ3 is then answered based on the findings from the sub-questions. In the latter parts of this chapter, the contents of the FRPC are re-adjusted and finalized by taking account of the trainees’ opinions. The chapter ends with a discussion of the comparisons between the results from the FRPC and the results from the study of Zhang et al (2008).
8.1 The Applicability and Usefulness of the Trainings

The first sub-question focuses on the applicability and usefulness of the trained knowledge and skills in a formal teaching setting. The interview data gathered at the post-practicum stage reveal three most significant findings. Under the code applicability of the theme practicality, three sub-codes are found as shown in Table 8-1 (Appendix 8). The trainees’ shared their opinions regarding which knowledge and skills are more applicable/ more useful, applicable/ useful and less applicable/ useful. However, a common phenomenon was observed among the trainees’ responses; they seemed to define applicability differently from usefulness. When this occurred, the author of this present research asked for an explanation and confirmation. The feedbacks are shown in the following.

“有些可應用因為可以運用所學，但有些還沒摸透所以無法應用。再者，能不能適用，可能取決於地[職位]、時[職責]，而有沒有用重點在認不認可它的重要性。”

“Some are applicable because I am able to transfer what I have learned into practice, but some are not useful because maybe I am not competent enough to apply it. Besides, whether it’s applicable or not is determined by place and time [one’s teaching position and duties], and whether it’s useful or not is decided by one’s value of its importance.”

(Transcription 1-18, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“知道[知識或技巧]容易，運用難啊。”

“Applying it [knowledge or skills] is more difficult, but being aware of it is more achievable.”

(Transcription 2-18, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

“以資淺老師而言有些是適用的，但能知道更多，自然是好事。”

“As a novice teacher, some are applicable, but the more you know, of course the better it would be.”
From the above examples, it seems that the trainees conceive the two words, applicability and usefulness, differently. Applicability seems to be linked with three conditions: whether one can transfer the learning into practice, whether one is proficient enough to utilize the knowledge or skills, and whether one’s teaching position calls for the particular PCs. It is implied in Transcription 1-18 that usefulness is associated with one’s awareness and belief of the importance of specific PCs. In Transcription 2-18, usefulness is implied to be associated with the importance of one’s ability to utilize the knowledge and skills. Therefore, the responses the trainees provided regarding sub-question 3-1 are divided into two, which are explained in Findings 1 and 2.

8.1.1 Finding 1: The overall results show that all trainees consider the training of KSLT most applicable, and the trainings of KEU, KSC, KSI and KSR less applicable.

There are similarities among the responses gathered from the three trainees (Table 8-2). After the completions of the trainings and the practicums, all the trainees consider the trainings of KSLT to be most applicable. Within KSLT, the applicability of GPK and PCK is specifically mentioned in the gathered data. The examples are demonstrated in the following:

“每次班上掌控得宜時，得意是不用說的。班上學習氣氛超好。、、、有些學生是我的卡通迷及木偶迷[自製教具](笑)。”

“I feel really good whenever I think I have the class in control. The learning atmosphere is great. ...Some students are the big fans of my cartoons and
Ch. 8: Results & Analysis: RQ3

puppets [self-made teaching aids] (laugh).”

(Transcription 2-19, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

“運用不同教學活動及遊戲可幫助學生的学习。”

“Being able to apply a variety of TESOL activities and games help the students’ learning a lot.”

(Transcription 3-23, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

Table 8-2. The Results of the Coding of the Code “Applicability” under the Theme “Practicality”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Sub-codes</th>
<th>Involved PCs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Practicality</td>
<td>Applicability</td>
<td>Most applicable</td>
<td>KSLT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Applicable</td>
<td>KE, KST, KSA, KL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Less applicable</td>
<td>KGEU, KEU, KSC, KSI, KCL, KSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Amount of Training</td>
<td>Some training received</td>
<td>KL, KSLT, KE, KGEU, KST,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Insufficient training</td>
<td>KEU, KSC, KSI, KCL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No training received</td>
<td>KSR, KSA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two previous examples demonstrate that the trainees consider KSLT applicable because they are able to apply what was learned into the real teaching practice and help reinforce students’ learning. Teachers’ heavy emphases on KSLT are discovered in a number of studies (e.g. Bai, 2010). Due to its relevance to the teaching of the English language, PCK is valued the most. In addition, a good understanding of PCK requires good proficiency of CK since many teachers believe that it is a representation of good teaching skills and English proficiency (Wu, 2006).

Table 8-2 not only presents the results of the code “applicability”, but also those of the code “Amount of Training”. It provides the information which shows that KEU, KSC, KSI, KCL and KSR are considered less applicable among the trainees. Three possible
reasons were extracted and analyzed from the interview data. The first two are caused by insufficient training, which is a result from either a limited training duration or due to the flaws in the design of the specific curriculums for different training channels. These insufficiencies result in the trainees’ unsatisfied with their capabilities to utilize the knowledge or skills. The trainings of KSC, KCL and KSI are limited since they are integrated with other school subjects so the related cultivation of these particular PCs are merely partial (Transcription 2-20). As for the training of KSR, though it is a required knowledge and skill in a variety of written assessments and tasks in the trainees’ first degrees (Transcription 1-19), specific training for this PC is lacking in all the channels.

“我們是學了一些關於融合教學，但沒相關練習或經驗，我想離實行還一段距離。”
“We learned a little about KSI but there was really not any practice or experience. I don’t think I am up for the job.”
(Transcription 2-20, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

“學術技巧在大學是有學，但那是很基本。拿來閱讀學術文章尚可，其他就不行了。”
“Academic skills were indeed used in my first degree study, but they are very fundamental. Maybe they are fine for reading, but I don’t think it can go beyond that.”
(Transcription 1-19, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

The other reason is that the trainees’ teaching positions do not call for the PCs. KEU, KSC, KSA and KSI are required PCs for curriculum and integrated lessons designs. However, the design of curriculum and school-based curriculum are mostly in the hands of the Committee of School Curriculum Department and intra-school
Committee of School Curriculum Department. These administrative and teaching duties seldom fall on the shoulders of novice teachers; therefore, they are considered less applicable to the trainees (Transcription 3-24).

“以後遲早會輪到，但實習生或菜鳥老師還輪不到啦。”
“We will eventually have our turns, but as interns and novice teachers, we are still far from being qualified.”

(Transcription 3-24, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

Though the three trainees reach agreements on most of the PCs, differences still exist. For instance, KE is considered applicable for GI1 and GI2, while it is considered most applicable for GI3; this may be due to their self-evaluations. GI3 finds it most applicable may be because of her high self-confidence in her own proficiency, allowing her to transfer this competency to her teaching. The other exception is KGEU. While GI1 sees it as applicable, GI2 and GI3 find it less applicable. The data reveal that this may be associated with the trainees’ teaching position. GI1 is seen as an experienced teacher, and therefore, her report shows that she is often asked to substitute for other teachers. GI2 and GI3 were interns and even though they were often asked to supervise the students’ learning in different school subjects, they were merely asked to check the homework or conduct group reviews. Hence, GI1 has more opportunities to work with their knowledge in other school subjects, resulting in more practice in KGEU.

8.1.2 Finding 2: The overall results show that the trainees considered all the trained knowledge and skills useful, while they see the trainings of KL, KSLT, KE, KST and KCL very useful.
As discussed previously, the trainees defined usefulness as a teacher’s value of the importance of a particular PC in effective teaching and a teacher’s proficiency or opportunities of utilizing the PCs are not concerned. The results show that all three trainees consider all the trained knowledge and skills useful because it takes a variety of PCs to deal with the involutions in teaching and learning. Though none is found useless, five PC areas are identified to be very useful by the majority (Table 8-3).

Table 8-3. The Results of the Coding of the Code “Usefulness” under the Theme “Practicality”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Sub-codes</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Practicality</td>
<td>Usefulness</td>
<td>Very useful</td>
<td>KL, KSLT, KE, KST, KCL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Useful</td>
<td>All are useful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The usefulness of KL, KSLT, KE and KST are commonly recognized among the three trainees. They are all considered useful for their high relevance to English language teaching and GI1’s data can serve as good examples of the three trainees’ opinions.

“Good understanding of the learners is important, especially they are children and there are some students from different cultural backgrounds. Interacting with them is a tricky job. …Good applications of TESOL activities and materials reinforce teaching greatly. …Among teaching aids, I find online activities attract the students a lot. …Of course, good English proficiency eases the teaching greatly, too.”

(Transcription 1-20, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

One difference is also observed; both G1 and G2 consider KCL very useful, whereas
G3 consider it useful. The reasons for G1’s and G2’s decisions are mainly associated with their experiences. G1 and G2 both encountered similar scenarios in the substituting and practicum experiences, respectively. They observed learners from different cultural backgrounds, which led to obstacles in teaching because of the language barriers, the learners’ unwillingness to cooperate, and the learners’ poor interpersonal skills. Thus, they both consider the knowledge relevant to the learners’ cultures and the intercultural communicative skills very useful at the post-practicum stage despite their low rates on the importance of these PCs at the pre-training stage.

“I代課的兩個班上，有菲律賓及越南的。幾乎沒法溝通，互動也就少。還有一個原住民及兩個客家人，有趣吧？哼哼。”

“In the two classes that I am substituting for now, there are students from Philippine and Vietnam. We could hardly communicate, and thus, the interactions are limited. There are also one aborigine and two Hakka. Interesting, huh?”

(Transcription 1-21, Post-Practicum Interview with G1, 2008)

Another point worthy of attention is the usefulness of KST, regardless of whether it is considered “applicable” rather “very applicable” in the previous discussion. The reason why it is considered useful is demonstrated in Transcription 1-20, in which G11 prizes its usefulness in raising students’ learning motivation. Having said that, both G11 and G13 indicate that they are confident in making computer a learning tool, but they both are not confident in effectively applying it in language teaching. More specifically, though they learned the technological skills, they do not know how the media can play the effective role of a learning facilitator, and not simply as a learning motivator. A related example is provided in the following:
8.1.3 Summary of Section 8.1

This section attempts to answer the sub-question 3-1, in which the usefulness and applicability of the trained knowledge and skills are examined. The results show that the trainees value the usefulness of all the cultivated PCs, with some of the PC areas valued as very useful. Similarly, all the trained knowledge and skills are considered applicable with different degrees of applicability. KSLT is found to be most applicable among the trainees for its positive reinforcement in teaching and learning, KGEU, KEU, KSC, KSI, KCL, and KSR are found to be less applicable either because of the trainees’ insufficient proficiency to apply these PCs or these PCs are not needed in the teaching duties of the trainees. Consequently, the applicability of a PC may be determined by a teacher’s ability to transfer a particular PC in teaching, his or her ability to utilize a PC, and the opportunities provided to make use of a PC in a job.

8.2 The Reinforcement to the Trainings

In sub-question 3-2, the trainees were asked to provide their opinions regarding what type of skills or knowledge should be reinforced in the trainings taking into account the trainees’ personal experiences of learning and practicums. Therefore, the interview data from 2008 are analyzed here. Under the theme of Reinforcing to the Trainings, two codes are listed: Increasing the Training and Adding New Trainings (Table 8-4). Among all the findings, the four most relevant findings are shared below.
Table 8-4. The Results of the Coding of the Codes “Reinforcing to the Trainings” and “Adding New Training” under the Theme “Reinforcing to the Trainings”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Sub-codes</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reinforcing to the Trainings</td>
<td>Increasing the training</td>
<td>Need much more emphases</td>
<td>KE, KSI, KCL, KST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Need more emphases</td>
<td>KSLT (PCK), KSA, GPK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adding the new Trainings</td>
<td>Counseling</td>
<td>Individual/ group counseling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge and Skills</td>
<td>Speech, recitation, drama and reader theatre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2.1 Finding 3: The overall results indicate that the trainees have different opinions regarding the trainings, but they all consider the trainings of KE, KST, KCL and KSI need much more emphases.

In Chapter 6 and 7, the results reveal that each group has different opinions regarding the importance of each PC, their self-evaluations, and the satisfaction rate towards the training programs. In spite of these variations, they have similar suggestions to the training programs, in which they all share the needs for reinforcing KE, KST, KCL and KSI.

In the previous discussion, the reasons for enhancing the trainings of KCL and KST are briefly explained. The contemporary multi-cultural society has called for cultural sensitivity to learners’ backgrounds as well as the community’s local culture. Therefore, as shown in Transcription 1-21, the trainees consider the training of KCL requiring much more emphases. Furthermore, as shown in Transcription 3-25, both G1 and G3 share their concerns of not being able to effectively apply multi-media teaching at an earlier stage. In this part of interview data, G2 also pinpoints this difficulty. Witnessing the importance of this PC, all the trainees suggest a greater
emphasis on these two PC areas.

As for KSI, it is a highly promoted PC in G1-9C owing to the significant concept of integrated learning and teaching in the new educational reform. Nonetheless, KSI is not an individual trained knowledge or school subject. Instead, only a few hours are spent to introduce its principles without the complementary of practice or demonstration. Consequently, even with the awareness of its necessity in elementary school education, none of the trainees expressed confidence in this particular PC on self-evaluations. The need for its promotion is suggested by the three trainees.

Lastly, GI2 and GI3 demonstrate certain degree of self-confidence in KE on their self-evaluation; however, they both still demand for much more emphases on it. From G2’s and G3’s sharing, the data show that they both feel insecure about their content knowledge of English, especially the knowledge of target culture (Transcriptions 2-21 & 3-26). The results indicate that a large amount of culture-relevant contents are needed for extending learning tasks in school’s English learning activities. Hence, the acquisition of the target culture knowledge is suggested here. As for GI1, the concern of her own language proficiency has always made the training of KE one of the priorities throughout the training.

“剛提出的課外活化課程需要自製教材。主要是為了藉由文化教學帶動同學學習。很難啊。”

“The new proposed extracurricular activity, ‘Experimental Curriculum’, requires self-made lesson plans. The main purpose of the proposal is to motivate students by introducing target culture. This is tough.”

(Transcription 2-21, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)
8.2.2 Finding 4: The overall results reveal the trainees’ opinions of the needs for reinforcing KSLT (PCK), KSA and GPK.

In addition to the suggestions of putting much more emphases on some of the trained PCs, the trainees also point out the need for further highlighting on the PC areas KSLT, KSA, and GPK. The three groups of trainees rated KSLT with higher ratings on self-evaluation at the post-training stage and TESOL-related training with higher satisfaction rates at the post-training stage. Nevertheless, after the practicums, all the interview trainees indicate the need for further emphases on the training of KSLT. This is to say that even though the trainees are satisfied with the training outcome of KSLT, they still feel the need for further improvements, especially on the PC form PCK. This is shown in the following example.

"相關訓練[PCK]很有用。但我是知道有很多同學認為訓練可再多些，因為它和未來教學最有關。"

"The training [PCK] is really useful. But I know that a lot of us think that because it’s most directly related to our job, its training should be extended."

(Transcription 2-22, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

In addition to KSLT, both GI2 and GI3 also propose further training of KSA and GPK. They both pointed out that the training of KSA were absent in both of their programs, and the practicum made them realize that this would be a PC area that greatly influenced their future teaching duties (Transcription 3-27). Therefore, both GI2 and
GI3 suggest that even though it cannot be an individual school subject, it should be an integrated component to be practiced on within a subject.

“I always knew that it’s important but not until I experienced it, I realized how much it could affect one’s job.”

(Transcription 3-27, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3, 2008)

GI3 specifically expresses her concern with her GPK. She highlights her deficiencies in classroom management and designing materials. She states that her English proficiency enables her to perform teaching confidently in the demonstration teaching at the practicum. However, not being able to well control the class atmosphere diminishes the effectiveness of learning. Not being able to design multi-methods of assessment is also another obstacle faced by GI2 and GI3. The new reform encourages the application of a variety of assessing methods in order to evaluate students’ learning on different aspects. However, like GI2 and GI3, many teachers express their anxieties of not being able to design different forms of assessment, which lead to their over-reliance on the assessment tools supplied by the publishing companies (Ye, 2004). Hence, the reinforcement of this competency indicator should be focused in different training channels (ibid.).

8.2.3 Finding 5: The trainings of the knowledge and skills of counseling and talent-guidance are recommended by the trainees.

It is reported by many domestic scholars that there is an increasing number of opportunities for intra-school learning achievement exhibition activities like annual school’s anniversary learning display and Christmas English Play and English
language learning promotion activities like Reader Theatre and English speech contest (Zhan, 2004). This phenomenon is further facilitated by the promotion of multi-methods of assessment. ELTs and homeroom teachers consequently shoulder the responsibility of supervising students’ talent learning and performing (Transcription 1-23). Thus, talent-guiding knowledge and skills are required for the contemporary ELTs (Zhang, 2009). This belief is also shared by all the three trainees and demonstrated in the data classified under the theme “Reinforcing to the Trainings”.

“我有輔導過3位同學參加演講比賽。即使我是兼職老師，我也被要求幫忙學校的戲劇表演。我根本不知怎麼辦所以我請有經驗的老師幫忙。”

“I had the experiences of tutoring 3 students taking part in a speech contest, and even as a part-time teacher, I was also asked to offer assistance in a school English play. I did not know what to do so I sought helps from the experienced teachers.”

(Transcription 1-23, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

Additionally, the competency of providing counseling guidance is also mentioned four times throughout the interview data of GI1, two times in GI2’s data and once in GI3’s data. Two examples are provided below.

“很多學校要求他們的老師接受基本輔導訓練，我覺得以後這會是一個基本要求。”

“Many schools are asking their teachers to receive basic counseling skills training, and I think this will become a requirement in the future.”

(Transcription 1-24, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2008)

“I think this should be integrated in Educational Psychology, in which basic
practical skills of individual and group counseling should be provided.”

(Transcription 2-23, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2008)

Counseling skills is gaining its increasing importance in the educational academia. In Chen’s study (2006) investigating ELTs’ knowledge base, the feedbacks from the questionnaire surveys from the in-service teachers also pinpoint the significance of counseling skills and stress the deficiency of such skills among the in-service elementary school teachers. In this study, the trainees express similar opinions as the ones in Chen’s study (ibid.). The knowledge and skills of basic counseling are proposed in the teachers’ initial education.

8.2.4 Finding 6: The trainees attributed the ineffectiveness of some particular trainings to two main reasons: time constraint and the preconditions of the trainees.

Throughout the trainees’ sharing, some insights into why some of the trainings are unsatisfying or considered insufficient are explicitly or implicitly implied. These data are coded under the theme “Possible reasons for ineffectiveness”, in which two codes are identified. In some of the interview data, the trainees seem to associate their ineffectiveness of some particular training with time constraints of the training programs, the training duration of particular PCs, and the preconditions of the trainees (Table 8-5).

All the trainees share their opinions that the time constraint of the training program does not allow sufficient time for the cultivation of KE. This is particularly stressed by GI1, since they only have one year of training and the focus of study in their first degree was not English. GI1 further argues that the acquisition of English takes much
longer and one year of training could reinforce the competency, but to expect to use it fluently in teaching seems too naïve. Furthermore, GI2 and GI3 state that the cultivation of some PCs like KSI and KSC are also insufficient due to the limited training durations. These two PC areas are integrated in other school subjects, resulting in their training durations lasting only five hours; Transcription 2-24 well demonstrates this point.

Another identified reason is the preconditions of the trainees, the prior knowledge and experience and self-beliefs the trainees brought with them into the programs. Different cultivation systems may value different PCs distinctly. For instance, as mentioned consistently in this thesis, GI1 and GI2 are from normal universities. Since they are from the institution which used to shoulder the responsibility of cultivating teachers, the learning climates and the curriculum consequently focuses more on the education-related trainings when compared to the non-normal universities. Similarly, since G3 trainees are from English-majored departments, where the cultivation of CK and KSL are centered. This educational background plays positive reinforcements in educational knowledge learning for G1 and G2 and in language learning for G3 as shown in Transcriptions 3-13 and 3-9. However, it also may be negative reinforcements in language learning for G1 and in general education learning for G3 as shown in Transcriptions 3-3 and 3-4. Therefore, the prior knowledge, which may
also be seen as beliefs about the importance of some particular PCs, may be both a positive and a negative reinforcement in the trainees’ training.

Table 8-5. The Results of the Coding of the Codes “Time constraint” and “Preconditions” under the Theme “Possible reasons for ineffectiveness”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Sub-codes</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Possible reasons for</td>
<td>Time constraint</td>
<td>Limited training duration of the program</td>
<td>KE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ineffectiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td>Limited training duration of the PC</td>
<td>KSI, KSC, KSLT, KSA, KSR, KCL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preconditions</td>
<td>Prior knowledge &amp; skills</td>
<td>English-related training, educational-related training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prior self-beliefs</td>
<td>English-related training, educational-related training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2.5 Summary of Section 8.2

This section reveals the results of the trainees’ opinions about what type of skills or knowledge should be reinforced in the training programs after the trainees complete the trainings as well as the practicums. To conclude the trainees’ opinions, much more emphases on the trainings of KE, KST, KCL and KSI is suggested because of their importance in effective teaching and implementation of teaching duties. More emphases on KSLT, KSA, and GPK are also suggested. In the interview data, possible reasons for the ineffectiveness of some particular PCs are brought into attention, and they are mainly associated with the time constraints and the preconditions of the trainees. Based on their real teaching experiences, the trainees also suggest including the trainings of counseling and talent-guiding knowledge and skills.
8.3 The suggestions to the Training in 2011

In this part of discussion, the interview data gathered in 2011 are analyzed in an attempt to answer sub-question 3-3: how the FRPC could be readjusted taking into account the trainees’ teaching experiences. These data contain the trainees’ opinions about the training and suggestions made to the training programs based on their three years of actual teaching experiences. It is the author’s intention to investigate how the trainees’ opinions may very at different time points. However, one thing needs to be mentioned before further discussion: GI3 was pursuing her master’s degree when the final interview took place. Therefore, a new volunteer interviewee from G3 was invited to take part (hereafter GI3-2).

After three years of teaching, all the trainings confirm the importance of all the PCs in the FRPC. Just like the results at the pre-training stage, different degrees of importance still exist. However, the trainees valued different PCs based on four different factors (see Illustration 6-1). This time the three trainees share their opinions about the importance of each PC areas mainly based on their experiences in those three years.

Furthermore, since the guiding question is primarily to inquire the trainees’ opinions about the readjustment of the training, the most relevant theme this part of data can classified under is the theme of “Reinforcement to the Trainings”. The code “Considering Urgency” is identified in the data (Table 8-6). In other words, the data that are most relevant to the guiding questions are centered on the discussion of the relevance and acquirability of the PCs.
Table 8-6. The Results of the Coding of the Codes “Considering urgency” under the Theme “Reinforcement to the Trainings”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Sub-codes</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reinforcement to the</td>
<td>Considering</td>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>KE, KSLT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the trainings</td>
<td>urgency</td>
<td></td>
<td>KSR, KEU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Acquirability</td>
<td>KCL, KSC, KSI, KSC, KE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3.1 Finding 7: The suggestion of taking the urgency of each PC into consideration is made by the trainees.

Though all the PCs are still valued by the trainees in 2011, a common understanding is shared by the three trainees; the time periods of the cultivations of different PCs should be reconsidered. Different expressions like “only by then”, “back then”, and “the arrangement of the different PC’s learning” (Transcriptions 1-25, 2-25 & 3-21), are used by the trainees to describe their opinions regarding the time periods of the learning arrangements. To term the code which describes the trainees’ opinions of “when to do what”, in this study, the code is termed the “urgency” of the learning of the PCs.

“只有到了當時，我才開始真正學當地文化。。“

“Only by then, I could actually start to learn about local culture.”

(Transcription 1-25, Post-Practicum Interview with GI1, 2011)

“那時候這都很抽象。。”

“It was a very abstract knowledge back then.”

(Transcription 2-25, Post-Practicum Interview with GI2, 2011)

“即使是現在，我還是覺得課程安排有點怪。”

“The arrangement of different PCs’ learning does not make much sense to me
Under the code “Considering Urgency”, two sub-codes are found: relevance and acquirability. The trainees suggest that the urgency of the learning of each PC should be reconsidered because the training durations are very limited. Considering the time constraints, novice teachers should first focus on the PCs that are urgent and needed the most.

With respect to the relevance of the learning of the PCs, the importance of KE and KSLT are stressed by the trainees due to their direct relevance to the teaching. These two PC areas are prioritized by the trainees as the most crucial trainings. The same logic can be applied to the trainings of KSR and KEU. Since KEU is needed when designing curriculums, a teaching duty usually assigned to experienced teachers, this PC could be cultivated in the in-service stage. As for KSR, the educational authorities encourage in-service teachers to get involved in the educational academia, which is stressed after three to five years of teaching. Hence, the trainees also suggest that this PC area can also be cultivated in in-service professional development, rather than in the pre-service training.

In respect of the issue of acquirability of the PCs, GI1 stresses that it takes longer than one year to acquire English language proficiency. Therefore, assuming that this PC could be well utilized after one year of training is not realistic. Hence, the duration of the cultivation of KE should be prolonged and even extended to in-service professional development. Another example provided by GI2 is the training of KSC. GI2 explains that KSC is important but this is a type of knowledge that requires direct
contacts with the local culture to better understand the concepts and practice the skills. Therefore, according to GI2, it should be reinforced after a teacher obtains a teaching position and is allocated a teaching school; only then is a teacher able to learn the unique culture of the school and the community.

Additionally, KCL and KSI are also mentioned. Different from the opinions shared at the post-practicum stage, in which KCL and KSI are said to be long neglected and therefore should be reinforced, the trainees offer different viewpoints in 2011. GI3-2’s suggestion below summarizes the arguments given by GI1 and GI2.

“The cultivation of the knowledge of integrated learning and teaching can be provided in the pre-service training but it can only be achieved and implemented through cooperation with teachers of other subjects.’”

(Transcription 3-2-2, Post-Practicum Interview with GI3-2-2, 2011)

The trainees all believe that the cultivations of KCL and KSI can be started at the pre-service training, but can only be reinforced or achieved through collaborative team works in the in-service teaching. For instance, KCL can only be well understood when KSC is familiarized by a teacher; the familiarization of KSC is explained by the trainees to be only possible after direct contacts with the local cultures. In other words, only in in-service teaching is a teacher’s KSC reinforced and this reinforcement can then lead to the better understanding and application of KCL. In light of the issue of acquirability, the basic concepts of KSC and KSI could be introduced at the pre-service stage and further facilitated at the in-service stage.
In summary, the trainees’ interview data in 2011 confirm the importance of all the PCs in the FRPC even though different degrees of importance are still observed. Despite the confirmation of the necessity of the PCs, based on the trainees’ three years of teaching experience at the elementary school levels, they suggest one principle concept: to take the urgency of the learning of different PCs into consideration. The relevance of the PCs to English teaching and the acquirability of the PCs should be the focus. With these kept in mind, it is proposed by the interviewees that the trainings of different PCs could be implemented at different stages.

8.4 Summary of the Chapter and the Establishment of the Finalized FRPC
This chapter aims to answer one research question and three sub-questions. The usefulness and applicability of the trained knowledge and skills are first examined. The results show that the trainees consider all the training useful and applicable with different degrees. Three factors are also identified to be affecting the degree of applicability. The discussion then proceeds to the questions of how the trainings as well as the FRPC could be reinforced. The answer to what skills and knowledge are to be reinforced in the trainings is determined by the importance and the relevance of the particular PCs in effective teaching. The knowledge and skills of counseling and talent-guidance are specifically suggested by the trainees. As for the latter question, the urgency of the learning of different PCs is suggested. It is suggested that within limited training duration, the relevance and acquirability of the PCs should be considered in order to maximize the trainings’ learning outcomes and so they can be better prepared for their teaching profession as a novice teacher. Accordingly, taking the findings from the sub-questions altogether, the trained knowledge and skills are
generally considered useful and applicable in formal teaching settings despite much room left for further improvements.

Based on the trainees’ opinions at the post-practicum stage, as well as three years after their formal teaching at elementary school levels, the FRPC is further adjusted (see Appendix 9 for Diagram 8-1). Five major adjustments are made. First, the competency indicators of the knowledge and skills of counseling and talent-guidance are added within the PC area GPK as suggested by the trainees. Second, some PCs like KE, KSLT, KSI, and KCL are prolonged from the pre-service stage to the in-service stage. Third, KSI, KSA, KSR, talent-guiding knowledge and skills, and intercultural communicative skills are classified under GPK within KSLT. Fourth, KST is classified under PCK within KSLT. Fifth, the trainings of the PCs are rearranged in accordance with the urgency of the learning of the PCs.

On the whole, there are two dimensions in the FRPC: knowledge base and personality traits. Seven types of PC areas are proposed in the FRPC: KL, KE, KSLT, KGEU, KEU, KSC and A&B. Within each PC area, different forms of PC are also identified, along with the competency indicators.

8.5 The Comparison of the Framework of Zhang et al and the Proposed FRPC in This Present Study

As mentioned in Chapter 1 and Chapter 4, a report was released by Zhang et al in 2008. In their study, a competency indicator system is established in an attempt to evaluate the elementary and high school teachers in Taiwan. Similar to this present study, teachers’ PCs are also investigated in the study of Zhang et al. There are four
differences between the two studies. First, the investigation in the study of Zhang et al is not specifically targeted at the ELT’s PCs. Second, the establishment of the framework is primarily based on the analysis of literature reviews and the G1-9C in the study of Zhang et al, whereas the FRPC is established based on the literature reviews, the analyses of G1-9C and the social contexts in Taiwan and the consolidations of six experts’ opinions and the results from this present study. Third, the purpose of the study of Zhang et al is to evaluate elementary and high school teachers in Taiwan. Therefore, the framework mainly contains the competency indicators used for evaluation. On the other hand, the purpose of this present study is to investigate the effectiveness and practicality of the teacher education programs in Taiwan. Therefore, the proposed framework, the FRPC, mainly contains two dimensions: teacher’s knowledge base and personality traits.

In Zhang’s study, the dimensions of competence cover curriculum planning, teaching planning, presentation of teaching materials, teaching methods, performance assessment, classroom management, resources management, curriculum appraisal, teaching evaluation, spontaneous learning, professional enhancement, and attitude. Curriculum planning corresponds to the PC form KC in the FRPC. They both involve the design of the curriculum. Teaching planning, presentation of teaching material and classroom management in the new report are similar to the PC from GPK in the FRPC, for they all involve the general skills and strategies of teaching. Teaching methods corresponds with the PC form PCK in the FRPC, since they deal with ways of teaching. Performance assessment, curriculum appraisal, and teacher evaluation in the new report are parallel with the PC form GPK within KSLT as they both are involved with the assessment of teaching and learning. Spontaneous learning in the new report
is similar to GPK by definition; while spontaneous learning refers to the conduction of self-reflection and communicating with the others effectively, one of the competency indicators of GPK also talks about the importance of communicative skills. Professional enhancement and attitude correspond to A&B in the FRPC. The only component missing from the FRPC is sources management proposed by the framework of Zhang et al. Sources management in the new report involves the management of one’s own time, teaching resources, and teaching files.

The results from the comparisons show that most of the items in the new report correspond with the contents in the FRPC. However, they are presented differently. While the new report mainly lists the competency indicator a teacher should be able to achieve, the FRPC list the types of knowledge and skills required to conduct effective teaching, i.e. the behaviour indicators. Due to this distinction, the new report provides more detailed description of the indicators, whereas the FRPC focus on identifying types of competencies and personal characteristics a competent teacher should possess. Despite this difference, Zhang’s work outlines a clearer guidance as to how a teacher should perform in teaching and related job duties from the perspective of the professional educators while this present study offers a more comprehensive framework of knowledge base, as well as insights into the prospective teachers’ opinions about their own PCs and the training programs from the perspective of the trainees.
9.1 Summary of the research and the findings

The aim of this study is to investigate the success of ELTs’ initial education programs in Taiwan. In Taiwan, the goal of pursuing international competitiveness created the need for English proficiency. This need later becomes tangible in weight of educational system when G1-9C was introduced; policies mandating English language classes at the elementary-level was implemented (MOE, 1998). The change of policy resulted in urgent need of fostering ELTs; multi-channels were generated by the MOE in an attempt to meet the need. The initial purpose and goal of creating multi-channels to meet the needs of the corresponding education reform and to cultivate sufficient numbers of ELTs in elementary schools were successfully achieved by the MOE (Lee, 2008).

However, after years of implementation, facing subpar results in terms of the students’ learning achievement and unstable educational policies, in issue arose among educators and scholars: how a “qualified” teacher should be defined. Those in the domestic academia circles debated how a teacher should be signified as “qualified: if it is upon the completion of the required training or if they meet the educational objectives of enhancing the international and domestic competitiveness. Lee (2008) argues that the definition of “being qualified” should not mean satisfying the needs of filling the gaps in school for teachers, but to satisfying the expectation of an able teacher. Some recent studies have reported the inadequateness of the curriculum for teacher initial education (e.g. Tang, 2007), and some have even begun amending the policy of multi-channels of training (e.g. Zhange, 2006). These have again drawn the public’s attention to re-examine the relevant educational policies and to revisit the
controversy of defining teacher quality.

This present research is neither aiming to provide a definite answer to these interweaving controversies, nor to critically pinpoint good or bad as to the decisions of policy making or countermeasures taken for the implementations of the new educational reforms and regulations. The primary objective of this study is to provide a platform to objectively describe the struggles and compromises the trainees experienced during the journey as a friend, which I eventually became to the trainees along the way, to carefully review and reflect on the significant educational decisions made over the past decades as an inspector to the government, and to critically analyze the studied questions and provide possible connections and consequences among phenomena as a researcher. It is hoped that through the progressions of the three groups of trainees, as well as their introspections and retrospections along the way, an investigation into the status quo of the ELT’s initial education programs can be conducted.

To achieve the research objectives, this present research was designed to be a follow-up mixed methods research, starting with Exploratory Model to identify the required PCs for the ELTs in Taiwan and followed by the application of Explanatory Model to investigate the effectiveness and practicality of the English teacher training programs. On this end, two aspects were focused: the effectiveness and practicality of the trainings; the adoption of Creswell’s Mixed Methods Approach for data collection. Regarding the quantitative data, the trainees’ opinions were collected through the applications of Pre-Training Questionnaire and Post-Training Questionnaire. For the qualitative data, the trainees’ and the trainers’ interviews at post-practicum stages in
2008, as well as the trainees’ interviews in 2011, were gathered to obtain insights into the studied issues.

In the initial phase, international and domestic studies relevant to the discussion of teacher’s PCs were analyzed to generate the types of knowledge and skills suggested for ELTs. The research proceeded with analyses of the contemporary demands and a discussion of the current social contexts in Taiwan for the further development of the competency framework, the FRPC. It was then further consolidated using the results from Expert’s Opinion Survey to establish a more comprehensive competency framework. The FRPC was used as a model to investigate the success of the training programs and was then reconsolidated and readjusted with the results of this research. In the consolidation of the FRPC, the results analysis confirms the importance of all the listed PCs, despite the different degrees of importance of each PC. It is also found that the degree of the importance of each PC may have been influenced by the trainees’ prior experiences, educational backgrounds, educational contexts, and needs.

In the second phase, an attempt to examine the current status of the ELT’s initial training programs, two aspects are focused: the effectiveness and practicality of the training programs. The effectiveness of the training programs are determined by three factors: the comprehensiveness of the training contents, the learning achievement of the trainees, and the trainees’ satisfaction rate of the training received. The results from the first factor show that although the PCs, in association with the development of a competent teacher, which parallel with the suggested PCs in the proposed framework FRPC in this present research, were mostly included in the training content. Some crucial PCs, like KCL, KSA, and KSI, however, were left out. Another
important issue in relation to the comprehensiveness of the training was the length of training duration. Despite the fact that most PCs were included, some were merely integrated and not stressed; communicative skills and administrative skills were merged with other trainings. Due to this fact, chances are that the limited durations of some trainings may not be sufficient for trainees to develop a whole perspective and solid understanding in the proficiency of these particular PCs and enable them to deal with the complexity of teaching.

The trainees’ learning achievement was the second factor to be examined in terms of the effectiveness of the training programs. Positive progressions were shown for most of the PC trainings in the analysis of the results. However, training contents were questioned on the fact of whether or not the training these participants received in different training channels were in accordance to each group’s needs. In other words, the trainees from each channel enrolled in the program with their own “packages”, and these preconditions of prior professional knowledge and experiences may have intermingled with their new learning, which either reinforce their professional development or manifest their deficiency. Furthermore, the results show that even though the programs included most of the cultivations of the PCs required to develop a competent teacher, the training did not seem to have taken on positive effects. For example, KE was rated lower in two of the groups prior the initial trainings. More importantly, despite the observed progresses on most of the training contents, insecurity and diffidence seem to remain in G1’s and G3’s self-beliefs of their own PCs on specific areas.

The last factor to be examined is the satisfaction rate of the trainees’ towards the
trainings. In examination of the analysis results, positive interactions in between learning achievement and satisfaction rate were shown in some occasions. Most trainees were satisfied with the training results for different fields of PCs, with the exceptions of GEK being rated low for all trainees and G1’s and G2’s dissatisfactions for the training of KE and KGEU, respectively. The low rates of GEK may be attributed to the insufficient training, while these dissatisfaction rates of G1 and G2 may seem as responses echoing the previous argument made about G1’s and G3’s uncertainties about some particular PC areas. Moreover, the findings also reveal the possibility of two different interpretations of satisfaction rate applied by the trainees. The satisfaction rate may be referred to some trainees as a measure of their progress while some consider it as a symbolism of their possessed competency.

The discussion of the practicality of the training is also a main focus in this research. The practicality of the trained knowledge and skills is probed through the journey of retrospections and introspections of the trainees. The journey started with the pursuit of the same dream, going through the process of growing professionally, personally struggling, purposefully compromising, and ending with the realization of that dream. In addition to the post-practicum interviews in 2008, which the issue of practicality was initially put into examination by taking account of the trainees’ opinions at the completion of the trainings, in 2011, another interviews were also carried out to obtain insights into the same studied issue of practicality of the trained knowledge and skills by reflecting on the journey three years after the completion of the training. Taking account of their own teaching experiences for three years, the interviewee trainees have come to a conclusion that all the PCs are necessary and are important tools for novice teachers to apply. However, three suggestions were made: some other PCs,
such as counseling and talent-supervision skills, could be taken into consideration for the training curriculum, trainees’ need analysis should be conducted for the design of curriculum for different training channels, and the urgency on the priority of training specific PCs should also be reconsidered.

9.2 Limitations

The most significant findings were revealed in the previous three chapters and the research questions set out to be investigated have also been answered in this present research. However, in addition to the careful interpretations and implications of the findings presented in the results and analysis chapters, it is also important to point out the limitations of this study. In terms of limitations, two aspects are discussed: the methodological limitations and the application limitations. On the aspect of methodological limitations, due to the geographical and regulative constraints, two compromises were made on data collection. They are discussed below in an attempt to explain how they were handled, as well as to provide alternatives for future research. On the aspect of limitations of the application of the findings, before providing further suggestions to how the findings should be seen, i.e. their implications for the educational policies and ELT training programs in Taiwan as well as to international academia, it is also crucial to raise the awareness of how they should not be seen. Therefore, this sub-section explains the limitations of the present study.

9.2.1 On the aspect of methodological limitations

The first compromise made regarding the data collection was the time for the conduction of the first questionnaire and the first trainees’ interview. The first questionnaire, Pre-Training Questionnaire, was distributed to the trainees at the
pre-training stage. Ideally, it would be logical to have conducted their first interview right afterwards; the reasons for their decisions made on the questionnaire could have been obtained. However, due to the geographical constraint, it would be difficult to collect the trainees’ interview data at the pre-training stage, especially for G1 and G3. G1 and G3 were trainees from different parts of Taiwan and gathered together over weekends or at nights to receive their training at the initial stage of their trainings; it would be difficult to have the participants to stay for the interview after the training sessions. For this reason, the first interview data were collected at the post-training stage. In the interviews, the trainee participants were asked to think back and provide the reasoning behind the choices on the questionnaire. For this step, the following precautions were taken: (1) the interviewees were reminded of the purpose and time points during the interview, (2) clarifications were made whenever the interviewees provided ambiguous answer, and (3) the transcriptions were sent to and reconfirmed by the interviewees afterwards. Despite these careful procedures, there were a few times that the interviewees could not recall their reasons and failed to provide answers to their original opinions at the pre-training stage.

The second compromise made was the omission of class observation. In this study, trainees’ and trainers’ opinions were collected to investigate the studied questions; it would provide a more holistic view if a third person was involved in the data collection. However, due to the university’s regulative limitation, the permission for class observations was not granted. If class observations had been made possible, more authentic evidence of the trainees’ transformations on different PCs might have been gathered. Through class observation, the progresses of some PCs, especially the ones that were found to be difficult to be measured due to the limited progresses
within very limited training duration, like KE, or the ones that were claimed to be not neglected or not measurable, like A&B, could be more likely to be observed, thus, “measured”.

9.2.2 On the aspect of application limitations

Both the quantitative and qualitative findings show that all the trainees made progress on most of the PCs after the training. However, this is not suggesting that a short training program for ELTs should be seen as a legitimate method for cultivating official qualified ELTs. As argued by Stoof et al (2000), a good teacher cannot be described based on certain isolated competencies, assuming they are able to be taught in a number of training sessions. Therefore, the competency-based framework FRPC proposed here and the short-time training programs studied in this research are to be seen as inevitable “products” during the “transitional process” of the educational reforms in Taiwan. More comprehensive and long-time professional development should be reconsidered for the cultivation of ELTs at compulsory educational levels.

Another point that needs to be stressed is that though the PCs listed in the FRPC are all considered important to the trainees, as frequently highlighted in this research, these PCs are general guidelines and suggested characteristics in an able ELT. This is not to say that an ELT should encompass all the characteristics to be recognized as an able one. Instead, these suggestions are descriptions of commonly observed characteristics in conducting effective teaching. Hence, the FRPC should not be seen as guidelines for the requirements of a qualified ELT, but should be seen as suggested required characteristics for effective teaching. To be more explicit, teaching should not be seen as an isolated task, but instead, teachers should collaborate with one
another and through cooperative teamwork, effective teaching is more attainable.

In addition to the issue of how the FRPC should be seen, two more concerns regarding the application of the competency-based education need to be brought up. One is that notwithstanding all the trainees stated that A&B were important, some argued that this PC should be omitted from the FRPC, since the competency indicators were difficult to be measured and their trainings were not provided in the programs as well. This finding should be treated as a sign and demand for an effective method like observation or learning logs to evaluate A&B, rather than as a hint that this PC should not be included in the training of ELTs. The other limitation is the legitimacy of the listed suggested PCs in the FRPC in different social contexts. In spite of the fact that the FRPC was established on the foundation of international and domestic academic findings, it was then further developed in consideration of the social contexts of Taiwan. Accordingly, readjustment to the FRPC is needed if it is to be applied in another social context.

9.3 Suggestions

Based on the findings in this research, this sub-section provides suggestions to the current educational policies and ELT training programs and for the future teacher educations.

a. Readjustments of prolonging the training duration and offering a more trainees’ need-oriented curriculum

This subsection intends to provide some suggestions regarding potential future implementation of English teacher education program to solve the current obstacles
faced by ELTs. Since a number of results indicate that the training is not sufficient for developing a comprehensive and solid understanding of the PCs, one alternative could be the adjustment on the aspect of training duration extension. Many trainees referred to the fact that the training duration for TESOL training were simply too short to make distinct progress. Different curriculums should be revised in accordance to the needs of each trainings program, where the trainees’ need analysis is recommended to be taken into consideration. For instance, G1 are in-service teachers with insufficient KE, accordingly hours of study on curriculum design may be deducted to elongate the time for language training since G1 already had sufficient training of curriculum design in their first degree.

b. Reconsiderations of the acquirability and evaluation measure of some specific PCs

When adopting a competency framework as a part of the teaching training curriculum, one should also consider the urgency and the acquirability of some of the listed PCs. For example, A&B is considered to be important as part of the teacher’s training. However, one will question the practicality of this training, since one’s attitude and belief is not a subject that could be learned nor measured on a solid ground. Needless to say, the training of A&B cannot be quantifiable, thus decreasing its validity as a part of pre-training curriculum. With a time constraint on the training duration, it is practical to categorize the PCs in consideration to the natures and the characteristics of these PCs; to emphasize the PCs that are trainable, tangible and measurable. This is not to say that the PCs do not fall into these categorizes should be neglected. Instead, they should require more time and different methods for investigation like observation, which would be better suited for cultivation focuses for in-service professional
development.

In addition, suggestions are also made to adjusting the requirements of ELTs’ trainings. As Chen pointed out in 2006, English proficiency certification needs an appropriate and standardized language assessment exam. It is further stated that currently in Taiwan, scores from popular proficiency tests such as GEPT and TOEFL are often used as indicators of teacher’s competence in English. However, the validity of these tests to certify teachers is questionable because they were originally designed for other purposes (Butler, 2004). Hence, using these types of examinations to evaluate a teacher’s proficiency in language and in teaching English is insufficient. Chen (2006) suggested Taiwan would need another form of language proficiency examination specifically designed for teachers in order to test its validity.

c. More opportunities for in-service professional development as the continuous cultivation of the pre-service training programs

Further professional development is also recommended, which from the previous suggestion, the need for extending training period may merely be suggesting that further professional development for in-service is needed. Many scholars have firmly advocated the importance of continuous development of teachers (e.g. Phillips, 2009; Lieberman & Mace, 2008; Borko, 2004; Peyton, 1997) and have stressed its significance in facilitating teachers’ professionalism, as well as in assisting teachers’ familiarization inexperienced branch of knowledge. School-based in service workshops and symposiums are encouraged for schools to hold in order for teachers to participate in (Lee, 2009). This type of event could be invitations for the involvement of the community and to create familiarization of the educational climate.
with the teacher. Teachers are also encouraged to committee collaborative teamwork with colleges and the school, where one may share new ideas and thoughts on lesson planning, integrated learning, and teaching with one another to gain new perspectives, which may lead to improving the quality of teaching within the school. English language training is the most important continuing education a teacher must receive. Liu in 2000 and Chen in 2006 both recommend that inter-campus and inter-community English language training workshops to be held with the goal of improving and updating new knowledge of the English language, which is one of most important PCs for able ELTs.

d. Further emphasis on the cultivation of ELT’s English language proficiency

Another suggestion of change that can be made to current ELT training is raising the standard of English proficiency for ELTs. One of the obstacles faced by trainees during the training period was the lack of language skills. Although opinions differ in regards to the relationship between language ability and teaching ability, one cannot master linguistic skills without being equipped with proper tools (Bailey et al, 2001). Furthermore, the criterion of English competencies for ELTs should be standardized and good for daily conversation, which would be the most practical competency ELTs would have to pass onto their students.

e. Establishment of the authority’s credibility by implementing more consistent educational policies

The last suggestion would be to make the English education-related policies consistent or at least follow the principle of “Law of non-retroactivity”. Insecurity raised by trainees mostly came from the constant amendments to the regulations. For
example, GI1 once mentioned about her anxiety of her certificate being unrecognized in Transcription 4-4, which will become a fact in year 2014. The current policy of English Expertise Accreditation outlines that the credits that came from 20-Credits Program cannot transfer to English Expertise Accreditation. It takes time and constant examinations to form a more up-to-date educational system. Therefore, it is understandable that the government would implement different new policies in an attempt to seek improvements. However, allowing credits to transfer minimizes the negative effect of the new policies on graduates from the old programs could be a way to establish the credibility of the educational authorities. Schools and the public should be well informed about new policies to avoid negative opinions resulting from ignorance of the law.

9.4 Conclusion

The objective of ELT training is to deliberate and to provide a multi-perspective of educational contexts, as suggested by Wu in 2007 and stressed by the MOE. Teachers should encompass different types of knowledge into collaborative work. That is, those who have achieved high success in education-related studies, yet poor in language skills, should seek collaboration in sharing knowledge with teachers who have excellent English ability, but demonstrated insufficient knowledge in educational related studies. Opportunities for observations and internships of teaching should also be increase (Liu, 2000), giving novice teachers a chance to be familiarized with the environments, styles of teaching, students, and other teaching related contexts. On a whole, ELTs need to form strong partnerships, and this would promote the sharing of information, curricula, strategies, and support across the entire education system, allowing the chance to enhance the quality and outlook of ELTs (Yang, 2007; Huang,
In 2005 and 2006, sixty participants took part in the journey. Joys were shared, obstacles were conquered, and struggles were encountered. After seven years, among sixty dream-pursuers, twenty-one achieved the goal, fourteen substituted, six worked as private tutors, three studied overseas, and fifteen changed their paths. It is a glorious victory for G2, with fourteen trainees living their dream and possibly a tragic fall for G1, with only one survivor and still fighting in the battle to earn the recognition of her training certificate.

In the transition period, transformations take time and effort. Though it is true that training is needed for further development, it should only be implemented on a short term scale, rather than becoming a legitimate method of cultivating teachers (Chien, 2011). Educational reform is understandable as a way of innovation and improvement. However, the reform and relevant policies should be explicit, and tolerance should be shown towards those who endure the pre-reform trainings. Not only does the new policy of English Expertise Accreditation risk the legitimacy of the trainees from 20-Credit Program, it may also prolong the training duration of the trainees from the Elementary Education Program. As a result, trainees from the normal university are the only ones to benefit from its implementation. Furthermore, the regulations of conducting whole language demonstration teaching and the over-emphasis of education related knowledge on the written exam have put G1 and G3 in a disadvantaged position despite the fact that G1 demonstrates good teaching performance and G3 possesses better English proficiency. On a whole, the new policies for ELT training seem to favor the graduates from university of education.
who outperform, which could contradict to the original notion of creating a variety of teachers through open channels. A unified cultivation system might make the training more “standardized” and more supervision-friendly (Wu, 2006). However, what is promoted in the new reform is the team spirit and how realistic it is to expect a competent teacher to be equipped with the “full package”. The question of how much effort and time one should devote to achieve the “able” in order to be respected and recognized as competent in the job is asked. Perhaps, what should be noticed is the spirit of teamwork in the new reform. The demonstration of one’s uniqueness and strengths that are cultivated through one’s own learning experiences and personal life experiences should be encouraged. These characteristics from different sources, i.e. channels, altogether may then contribute to a team of force well demonstrating humanism and democracy, in which the strengths of each individual is expanded and the positive diversity is recognized.
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## Appendix List

| Appendix 1: General Guidelines of Grades 1-9 Curriculum for Elementary and Junior High School Education | 2–17 |
| Appendix 2: Translated version of the framework proposed by Zhang et al in 2008 | 18–23 |
| Appendix 3: Feedbacks on Post-Training Stage Questionnaire | 24–26 |
| Appendix 4: Feedbacks on Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire | 27–31 |
| Appendix 5: Expert’s Opinions Survey | 32–36 |
| Appendix 6: Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire | 37–41 |
| Appendix 7: Post-Training Stage Questionnaire | 42–44 |
| Appendix 8: Test-Retest Reliability Test | 45–47 |
| Appendix 9: Table 8-1 The Themes, Code and Sub-Codes Analyzed from the Interview Data in 2008 and 2011 | 48–49 |
| Appendix 10: Diagram 8-1. The Finalized Framework of Required Professional Competencies | 50 |
Appendix 1: General Guidelines of Grades 1-9 Curriculum for Elementary and Junior High School Education

General Guidelines of Grades 1-9 Curriculum for Elementary and Junior High School Education

Ministry of Education
Grade 1-9 Curriculum Guidelines

I Preface

In keeping with the 21st century and the global trends of educational reform, the government must engage in educational reform in order to foster national competitiveness and the overall quality of our citizens lives.

The Ministry of Education (hereafter referred to as the MOE), therefore, initiated curricular and instructional reforms in elementary and junior high school education. These reforms have been based on the Action Plan for Educational Reform (「教育改革行動方案」) approved by the Executive Yuan. As the curriculum is not only the core of schooling but also the foundation on which teachers plan learning activities, the MOE places top priority on the development and implementation of the Grade 1-9 Curriculum. The curriculum reforms are necessary and timely based on the following reasons:

(a) Meeting national development needs:
The world is now an international community in which all countries are closely connected and intensively competing with each other. We must, therefore, actively conduct educational reforms to enable individuals to maximize their potential, promote social progress, and enhance national competitiveness. The curriculum, as the major component of schooling, must be reviewed and revised continuously in order to render quality school culture and educational results, thus promoting our national development.

(b) Meeting public expectations:
In recent years, public expectations for school reforms have been growing stronger. In response to public opinion, the Commission on Educational Reform (教育改革審議委員會) set up by the Executive Yuan published The Consultants’ Concluding Report on Education Reform (教育改革總諮議報告書) which included several recommendations on school education such as the de-regulation of elementary and junior high schools, curriculum reform, improving teacher instruction, introducing English to primary students, assisting students to develop the basic academic capacities, etc. In response to social expectations, we need to conduct curricular reform with an innovative perspective so as to improve elementary and junior high schools.

The current Curriculum Frameworks for Elementary Schools and Junior High Schools were
revised and promulgated in 1993 and 1994 respectively. Although the current *Curriculum Frameworks* have been gradually and properly implemented, the MOE believes that innovative thinking and practice in education are the prerequisites for success in the new century. Therefore, the MOE launched plans for another curricular reform in order to build up consensus and integrate the efforts of education reform, in order to create a new and better environment for school education. The development of a new curriculum was divided into three stages. The duration and major tasks of each stage are detailed as follows:

(a) Stage One (from April 1997 to September 1998): Establishing the *Special Panel on the Development of Elementary and Junior High Schools’ Curriculum*. (國民中小學課程發展專案小組)
The major tasks of this panel were to:
1. Research and formulate the guiding principles for developing and revising the curriculum of elementary and junior high schools;
2. Survey the shared components of the curriculum structure of elementary and junior high schools;
3. Research and formulate the curriculum structure of elementary and junior high schools, such as requisite learning areas and the proportion of each area for the total learning periods; and
4. Formulate the *General Guidelines of Grade 1-9 Curriculum of Elementary and Junior High School Education*. (「國民教育九年一貫課程總綱」)

(b) Stage Two (from October 1998 to November 1999): Establishing the *Panel on Researching and Formulating the Guidelines of Each Learning Area in Grade 1-9 Curriculum* (which covers the levels of elementary school and junior high school levels of education.) (「國民中小學各學習領域課程綱要研修小組」)
As soon as the *General Guidelines of Grade 1-9 Curriculum* was promulgated in September, 1998, the MOE began Stage Two and established the *Panel on Researching and Formulating the Guidelines of Each Learning Area in Grade 1-9 Curriculum* in October, 1998.
The major tasks of this panel were to:
1. Research and formulate the *Guidelines of Each Learning Area in Grade 1-9 Curriculum* (「國民教育各學習領域課程綱要」);
2. Set up the instructional goals and competence indicators for each learning area; and
3. Research and formulate the principles for implementing the curriculum of each learning area.

(c) Stage Three (from December 1999 to August 2002): Establishing the *Review Committee on Revision and Formulation of Elementary and Junior High School Curriculum*. (「國民中小學課程修訂審議委員會」)
After completing the drafts for the curriculum guidelines for each learning area, the MOE immediately
established the Review Committee on Revision and Formulation of Elementary and Junior High School Curriculum.

The major tasks of this committee were to:
1. Review and confirm the adequacy of the Curriculum Guidelines for each learning area;
2. Review and confirm the announcement format and the points of implementation for the guidelines of elementary and junior high school curriculum; and
3. Plan and confirm the coordinating projects concerning the implementation of the new curriculum.

II Core Rationale

The aim of education is to foster students’ sound mind and character. Students should be taught democratic values, the Rule of Law, and humanitarian ideals; they should develop strong and healthy physiques, learn how to think for themselves and be creative. Every government hopes that the school system will produce outstanding citizens with a sense of patriotism and the ability to adopt a global perspective. In essence, education is a learning process to help students explore their potential as well as develop their capacity of adapting and making necessary efforts to improve their living environment. Given that, the following five basic aspects are emphasized and included in Grade 1-9 Curriculum designed for the new century: developing humanitarian attitudes, enhancing integration ability, cultivating democratic literacy, fostering both indigenous awareness and a global perspective, and building up the capacity for lifelong learning. The core components of each aspect are as follows:

A. “Humanitarian attitudes” include self-understanding and respect for others and different cultures, etc.
B. “Integration ability” includes harmonizing sense with sensibility, a balance between theory and practice, and integrating human sciences with technology.
C. “Democratic literacy” includes self-expression, independent thinking, social communication, tolerance for different opinions, team work, social service, and a respect for the law.
D. “Native awareness and a global perspective” includes a love for one’s homeland, patriotism, a global perspective (both culturally and ecologically).
E. “Capacity for lifelong learning” includes active exploration, problem solving, and the utilization of information and languages.

III Curriculum Goals

The curriculum of elementary and junior high schools will adopt the following principles: (1) to involve all aspects of daily life that correspond to the students’ mental and physical development; (2) to
encourage the development of individuality and the exploration of one’s potentials; (3) to foster democratic literacy and respect for different cultures; (4) to develop scientific understanding and competences, in order to meet the demands of modern life.

The aim of national education is to teach students to obtain basic knowledge and to develop the capacity for lifelong learning, in order to cultivate able citizens who are mentally and physically healthy, vigorous and optimistic, gregarious and helpful to the community, intellectually curious and reflective, tolerant and with vision creative and have a positive attitude, and a global perspective. Schools will achieve such ideals through the promotion of educational learning activities which emphasize humanity, practicality, individuality, comprehensiveness, and modernity. Such activities include interactions between oneself and others, individuals and the community, as well as humans and nature. Regarding this aspect of national education, we must guide our students to achieve the following curriculum goals:

1. To enhance self-understanding and explore individual potential;
2. To develop creativity and the ability to appreciate beauty and present one’s own talents;
3. To promote abilities related to career planning and lifelong learning;
4. To cultivate knowledge and skills related to expression, communication, and sharing.
5. To learn to respect others, care for the community, and facilitate team work;
6. To further cultural learning and international understanding;
7. To strengthen knowledge and skills related to planning, organizing, and their implementation;
8. To acquire the ability to utilize technology and information;
9. To encourage the attitude of active learning and studying; and
10. To develop abilities related to independent thinking and problem solving.

Ⅳ Core Competence

In order to achieve the aforementioned goals, the curriculum design of elementary and junior high school education shall focus on the needs and experiences of students and aim at developing core competences which a modern citizen should possess. Such core competences may be categorized as follows:

A. Self-understanding and exploration of potentials, which involves thorough understanding of one’s physical conditions, capabilities, emotions, needs, and personalities, loving and caring for oneself, self-reflection on a regular basis, self-discipline, an optimistic attitude, and morality, showing one’s individuality, exploring one’s potentials, and establishing suitable values.
B. Appreciation, representation, and creativity, which involves the capability of perceiving and appreciating the beauty of things as well as exerting imagination and creativity, developing an active and innovative attitude, and expressing oneself in order to promote the quality of living.
C. Career planning and lifelong learning, which involves the utilization of social resources and individual abilities in order to bring one’s talents into full play, plot one’s course for the future, and develop the ability of lifelong learning in accordance with the transition of the social environment.

D. Expression, communication, and sharing, which involves making effective use of all kinds of symbols (such as languages in both spoken and written forms, sounds, motions, pictures, and arts,) and tools (such as media and technology) in order to make clear one’s thinking, concepts, and emotions as well as listening attentively to and communicating effectively with others, and sharing various perspectives and information with others.

E. Respect, care and team work, which involves being democratically literate, tolerant of different opinions, and equitable to individuals and groups of different identities, having respect for life and caring for the community, the environment, and nature, obeying the rules of the law and the norms of the community, and holding an attitude which is beneficial to team work and cooperation.

F. Cultural learning and international understanding, which involves appreciating and respecting different groups and cultures, understanding the history and culture of one’s own country as well as others’, recognizing the trend of the globalization in which countries all over the world are integrated into a global village, and developing a global perspective with mutual interdependence, trust and cooperation.

G. Planning, organizing and putting plans into practice, which involves being able to make plans and put ideas into practice in daily life, adopting approaches by which thoughts and practice are incorporated and by which each member can contribute to the community as well as serve the public and one’s country with enthusiasm.

H. Utilization of technology and information, which involves the utilization of technology in a correct, safe and effective way so as to collect data, make judgments after thorough analyses of the data, integrate and sort out useful information, and make use of such information for the purpose of enhancing learning efficiency and living quality.

I. Active exploration and study, which involves encouraging curiosity and observation, actively exploring and discovering questions, and applying one’s learned knowledge and skills in daily life.

J. Independent thinking and problem solving, which involves cultivating the ability and habit of thinking independently and reflectively, making thoughtful analyses and judgments about questions, and effectively solving problems and resolving conflicts.

V Learning Areas

For the purpose of fostering core competences in citizens, the curriculum of elementary and junior high school education shall emphasize on three dimensions, including individual development, community and culture, and natural environment. Thus, Grade 1-9 Curriculum encompasses seven major learning areas, which are: Language Arts, Health and Physical Education, Social Studies, Arts and Humanities, Mathematics, Science and Technology, and Integrative Activities.
A. “Learning Area” refers to the content of learning, not the titles of subjects. Except for the required courses, optional courses relevant to specific learning areas may also be made available in consideration of students’ references, needs of the communities, and the features of school development.

B. Implementation of Learning Areas will follow the principle of integration and adopt Team teaching approaches if necessary. The structure of Learning Areas in Grade 1-9 Curriculum is listed as follows: (see the next page)

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C. Major Contents of Each Learning Area
1. Language Arts includes Mandarin, English, and focuses on listening, speaking, reading and writing of languages, developing basic communicating competences, understanding of culture and social customs.
2. Health and Physical Education focuses on the learning of mental and physical development and health management, sports and motor skills, healthful environments, fitness and lifestyle choices.
3. Social studies includes the learning of history and culture, geographical environment, social institutions, morals and norms, politics, economy, interpersonal interactions, civic responsibilities, indigenous education, environmental conservation, and the incorporation of the aforementioned learning into one’s daily life.

4. Arts and Humanities includes music instruction, instruction in the visual and performing arts, in hopes to help students to cultivate an interest for arts and encourage them to enthusiastically participate in related activities, thus promoting abilities such as imagination, creativity, appreciation for the arts, and other abilities.

5. Science and Technology includes the learning of substances and energy, nature, the environment, ecological conservation, information technology. In addition, it will focus on knowledge and skills of science, research and developing such attitudes as respect for all forms of life, a love of the environment, and the ability to utilize information, as well as applying such knowledge and skills to their daily life.

6. Mathematics includes acquiring the basic concepts of figures, shapes, and quantity, the ability to calculate and organize, and the ability to apply such knowledge and skills in their daily life. It also includes comprehending of the principles of reasoning and problem solving, the ability to elaborate clearly on math-related concepts, and making the appropriate connections among materials and contents between this and other Learning Areas.

7. Integrative Activities refers to activities which may guide learners to practice, experience, and reflect upon the learning process as well as to testify and apply what has been learned to real situations. This Learning Area includes courses such as Scout Activities, Counseling Activities, Home Economics, and Group Activities, which have already been implemented in existing school systems as well as other separately-arranged learning activities, which resort to link outside educational resources to the school classroom.

D. Each Learning Area is divided into several learning stages according to the structure of knowledge concerned as well as the continuity principles of the psychological development of learning. Competence Indicators are set for each learning stage. The stages of each Learning Area are detailed as follows:
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<td>Integrative Activities</td>
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(a) **Language Arts**

1. Mandarin is divided into three stages: Stage One begins at Grade 1 and ends at Grade 3; Stage Two begins at Grade 4 and ends at Grade 6; Stage 3 begins at Grade 7 and ends at Grade 9.

2. English is divided into two stages: Stage One begins at Grade 3 and ends at Grade 6; Stage Two begins at Grade 7 and ends at Grade 9.

(b) **Health and Physical Education** is divided into three stages: Stage One begins at Grade 1 and ends at Grade 3; Stage Two begins at Grade 4 and ends at Grade 6; Stage Three begins at Grade 7 and ends at Grade 9.

(c) **Mathematics** is divided into four stages: Stage One begins at Grade 1 and ends at Grade 3; Stage Two begins at Grade 4 and ends at Grade 6; Stage Three begins at Grade 7 and ends at Grade 9.

(d) **Social Studies** is divided into four stages: Stage One begins at Grade 1 and ends at Grade 2; Stage Two begins at Grade 3 and ends at Grade 5; Stage Three begins at Grade 6 and ends at Grade 8; Stage Four begins at Grade 9 and ends at Grade 11.
Two begins at Grade 3 and ends at Grade 4; Stage Three begins at Grade 5 and ends at Grade 6; Stage Four begins at Grade 7 and ends at Grade 9.

(e) Arts and Humanities is divided into four stages: Stage One begins at Grade 1 and ends at Grade 2; Stage Two begins at Grade 3 and ends at Grade 4; Stage Three begins at Grade 5 and ends at Grade 6; Stage Four begins at Grade 7 and ends at Grade 9.

(f) Science and Technology is divided into four stages: Stage One begins at Grade 1 and ends at Grade 2; Stage Two begins at Grade 3 and ends at Grade 4; Stage Three begins at Grade 5 and ends at Grade 6; Stage Four begins at Grade 7 and ends at Grade 9.

(g) Integrative Activities are divided into four stages: Stage One begins at Grade 1 and ends at Grade 2; Stage Two begins at Grade 3 and ends at Grade 4; Stage Three begins at Grade 5 and ends at Grade 6; Stage Four begins at Grade 7 and ends at Grade 9.

(h) Life Curriculum: Social Studies, Arts and Humanities, and Science and Technology are integrated as Life Curriculum at Grade 1 and Grade 2.

VI Implementation Guidelines

A. Implementation Schedule

Grades 1-9 Curriculum for Elementary and Junior High Schools was implemented at Grade 1 in the school year 2001. English instruction for Grade 5 and Grade 6 was officially implemented in the school year 2001, with further lowering to Grade 3 and Grade 4 in the school year 2005.

B. Learning Periods

(a) There will be 200 school days in one school year that Students are expected to attend school five days a week, twenty weeks per semester. This number does not include national holidays and weekends. However, in reality, school days may vary in conformity with relevant regulations concerning the office days of government administrative offices and units, issued by the Central Personnel Administration of the Executive Yuan.

(b) Total Learning Periods consist of Area Learning periods and Alternative Learning Periods. The number of these three Periods are listed as follows:

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<tr>
<th>項目</th>
<th>長度</th>
<th>級別</th>
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<tr>
<td>Learning periods</td>
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<td>Grade</td>
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</table>

11
(c) By the beginning of each school year, the Committee of School Curriculum Development for each school, will determine the learning periods to be assigned for each learning area based on the following rules:

1. Learning periods of Language Arts will account for 20%-30% of the Area Learning Periods. However, in Grades 1 and 2, such periods may be counted together with the learning periods of Life Curriculum for the implementation of inter-disciplinary learning activities, if necessary.

2. Learning periods of the following six Learning Areas will account for 10%-15% of the Area Learning Periods respectively: Health and Physical Education, Social Studies, Arts and Humanities, Mathematics, Integrative Activities.

3. Schools will calculate the total number of learning periods for each learning area for the whole school year or semester respectively and according to the aforementioned proportions. They will arrange weekly learning periods according to the real situations and needs of instruction.

4. Schools will arrange practical training periods for information technology and home economics in accordance with the curriculum guidelines of each Learning Area.

(d) The time for each period should be approximately 40 minutes for elementary schools and 45 minutes for junior high schools. However, schools may adjust the time for each period, the weeks of each semester, and the arrangements of grades and classes according to the specific circumstances regarding curriculum implementation and the needs of students.

(e) Schools are empowered to organize and conduct activities for Alternative Learning Periods (including activities for the entire school or all the Grades), carry out curriculum or activities designed
to correspond to goals and objectives of the school, provide optional courses for learning areas, implement remedial teaching programs, conduct group counseling or self-learning activities.

(f) Given that some learning activities may be related to two or more learning areas, learning periods for such activities may be separately and proportionately counted as part of the learning periods for related learning areas.

(g) Under the condition that all the requirements for area learning periods are met, the Committee of School Curriculum Development for each school may determine and organize its learning periods for each learning area.

(h) Total Learning Periods do not include the tutoring sessions of homeroom teachers, lunch/nap time, and cleaning time. Each school may organize a daily schedule for students, as well as activities, which do not fall under the category of learning periods, in conformity with the relevant regulations regarding school hours and activities (「國民中小學學生在校時間」) enforced by the local government.

C. Implementation
(a) Organization
1. Each school will establish a Committee of School Curriculum Development, which consists of curriculum panels for each Learning Area. The functions of this committee is to complete the school curriculum plan for the coming semester, by the beginning of this semester, determine the learning periods for each earning Area for each grade, review textbooks compiled by the school staff, develop topics and activities for teaching, and be responsible for the curriculum and instruction evaluation. The organization of the Committee of School Curriculum Development shall be resolved during Staff Faculty Meetings.

2. Members of the Committee of School Curriculum Development will include the representatives of school administrators, teachers for each grade and each Learning Area, parents, and the community. Scholars and professionals may also be invited to join the committee for counseling, when necessary.

3. Schools may jointly establish an inter-school Committee of School Curriculum Development in consideration with the features of the community, the sizes of the schools, and continuity between elementary and junior high school education. Schools on a smaller scale may merge several curriculum panels in different Learning Areas and form one curriculum panel, which can covers two or more learning areas.

(b) Curriculum Plan
1. The Committee of School Curriculum Development for each school will consolidate the efforts of all school staff as well as resources provided by the community, to develop a school-based curriculum,
and formulate a comprehensive School Curriculum Plan based on thorough consideration of relevant factors, such as school conditions, features of the community, parental expectations, students’ needs.

2. The School Curriculum Plan will include curriculum plans of each Learning Area and alternative learning periods, in which relevant items such as “Educational Goals of the School Year/Semester,” “Competence Indicators,” “Units Corresponding to Competence Indicators,” “Amounts of Learning Periods,” “Modes of Assessments”. will be specified.

3. The School Curriculum Plan will also contain specified descriptions on how to infuse the six major issues (including Gender Education, Environmental Education, Information Technology Education, Human Rights Education, Home Economics Education, Career Development Education) into the teaching of each Learning Area.

4. The School Curriculum Plan shall be submitted to the proper education administrative authority to be documented before the beginning of the School Year. The Curriculum Plan can be modified in accordance with the specific needs of each school on condition that the modified Curriculum Plan be submitted for approval before the beginning of the second semester. Parents will be notified of the teaching plans for their children’s classes within two weeks after the new semester begins.

(c) Optional Courses

1. Elementary and junior high schools shall design and provide optional courses according to the different needs of students.

2. Students will take personal factors into account while taking courses, such as personal academic attainment, and the balance between different learning areas.

3. One of Taiwan’s local dialects, i.e. Southern Fujianese, Hakka, or an aboriginal dialect, is required from Grade 1 through Grade 6, whereas in junior high school, such courses become optional. The local government, however, has the option of providing instruction of a selected dialect, other than the aforementioned, based on its special needs/features as well as teaching resources, on condition that its Curriculum Plan has been approved by the by the central government.

4. Schools may provide second foreign language courses in addition to English with consideration to the availability of teaching resources in and outside the school, as well as being able to determine the content and teaching materials of such courses.

(d) Schools are allowed to adjust the subject areas and teaching periods in accordance with the needs and available teaching resources, as long as the total teaching hours of each Learning Area remain unchanged and the general principles of comprehensive and integrative teaching are strictly followed.

D. Compiling, Review, and Use of Teaching Materials

(a) Textbooks for elementary and junior high school education will be compiled in accordance with the curriculum guidelines, and submitted to the authority/agency in charge for review and approval. Schools may select their own textbooks from all of the approved versions.
In consideration of regional features, as well as the characteristics and needs of students, schools may compile alternative textbooks and teaching materials or select teaching materials, other than the approved textbooks, if necessary. However, such teaching materials that are adopted for the whole grade or school for one whole semester or more will be presented to the school’s Committee of School Curriculum Development for further review.

E. Curriculum Evaluation
(a) Items of evaluation include teaching materials, instructional plans, achievements of implementation.
(b) Curriculum evaluations will be conducted in a balanced and cooperative way, by which the central and local governments are responsible for specific duties and will provide support for each other, if necessary.

1. The central government is responsible for
   (1) Establishing and carrying out the mechanism for curriculum evaluations in order to evaluate the effects of curriculum reform and the implementation of other measures, and to apply the evaluation results as reference for further reforms; and
   (2) Setting up the Academic Attainment Indicators of each Learning Area and evaluating the implementation of curriculum of local governments and individual schools.

2. The local government is responsible for
   (1) Visiting schools on a regular basis in order to understand the implementation of curriculum and providing remedies and solutions to predicaments which occur in the implementation process;
   (2) Arranging and conducting instruction evaluations to assure the effects and quality of teaching; and
   (3) Providing assistance and guidance for school to conduct students’ academic achievement assessments for each Learning Area.

3. Schools are responsible for the curriculum and instruction evaluations as well as students’ academic achievement assessments.

(c) Evaluations will be conducted through diversified methods, emphasizing both formative and summative evaluations.

(d) Schools will make the most of the evaluation results, and use them as the basis for reforming the curriculum, forming instruction plans, improving learning effects and conducting follow-up reflections and examinations.

F. Instruction Assessments
(a) Assessment of students’ academic performance will comply with relevant regulations promulgated by the Ministry of Education concerning the evaluation and grading of students’ performance.
(b) In response to the implementation of Multi-route Promotion Program for Entering Senior High Schools and Vocational High Schools (高中職多元入學制度) and for the purpose of examining
student’s academic performances, the MOE will hold the Basic Achievement Test for Junior High Students (「國民中學基本學力測驗」) in conformity with Grade 1-9 Curriculum Guidelines. Students’ scores on such tests may be used as a reference for admission.

(c) In terms of the Basic Achievement Test for Junior High Students, relevant affairs such as the establishment of a database for examination questions, the standardization and implementation of the test, will be subject to the Competence Indicators specified in the Curriculum Guidelines and other relevant rules and regulations.

G. Training of Teachers
(a) The Institutes responsible for teachers’ education will provide programs for the purpose of training eligible teachers for the Grade 1-9 Curriculum according to the Teacher Education Act.
(b) Local governments and schools will offer preferential employment opportunities to teachers who have passed the Examination for Certificate of Elementary School’s English Teachers (「國小英語教學師資檢核」) and possess the certificate for Elementary School Teachers who are, to be responsible for English courses in Grade 5 and Grade 6.
(c) Accreditation of a Teacher’s specialty for Learning Areas in Grade 1-9 Curriculum will also be subject to the Regulations on Certification and Educational Practice of Teachers of High Schools, Elementary Schools, and Kindergartens (「高級中等以下學校及幼稚園教師資格檢定及教育實習辦法」)

H. Authorities and Responsibilities
(a) The Local Government
1. Local governments will draw up budgets for the following:
(1) Seminars for Grade 1-9 Curriculum for educational administrators, school principals, administrative staff, and teachers.
(2) Production and allotment of needed teaching aids and media, as well as the purchase of teaching equipment and reference books.
(3) Granting school subsidies needed for action research on curriculum and pedagogy.
(4) Establishing instructional consulting teams for each Learning Area and visiting schools regularly in order to provide support for teachers.
2. In terms of Indigenous education, local governments may develop teaching materials or authorize schools to compile teaching materials with regard to regional features and relevant resources.
3. In addition to requesting schools to submit curriculum plans for record, local governments will supervise schools to assure that such plans are adequately implemented.
4. Local governments will enforce regulations concerning school hours and activities (「國民中小學學生在校時間」相關規定) with consideration to regional features and the daily schedules of parents.

(b) The Central Government
The MOE will:
1. Draw up and actively carry out supporting measures for Grade 1-9 Curriculum in order to facilitate the implementation of the Grade 1-9 Curriculum;
2. Make the Curriculum Guidelines of each Learning Area available on the Internet for public reference;
3. Coordinate affairs concerning the training of teachers with relevant institutes, and be responsible for the training of seeded teachers for the new curriculum; and
4. Review and revise existing laws and regulations, as well as drawing up new and relevant ones, in accordance with the implementation of the new curriculum.

I. Additional Provisions
(a) The implementation of curriculum for special education classes will be subject to the Act of Special Education and relevant regulations.
(b) For detailed instructions concerning each learning area, please consult the implementation points specified in the guidelines of each Learning Area in the Grade 1-9 Curriculum.
(c) When implementing Art/Skill-based Education at Grade 9, schools are allowed the flexibility of adjusting Total Learning Periods in order to offer students hands-on skill-oriented courses.
Appendix 2:
Translated version of the framework proposed by Zhang et al in 2008

Primary and Secondary School Teaching Professional Competency Indicator
This indicator may be adjusted according to purpose of the study, upon other form of usage.

I. Planning Competence: KE (KC), KSLT (GPK)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Curriculum</td>
<td>1-1 Grasping the concepts and structure of curriculum design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design</td>
<td>1-2 Participation in curriculum development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Teaching Plan Design</td>
<td>2-1 Outline of a suitable teaching plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2-2 Outline of suitable learning assessment</td>
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II. Teaching Competence: KSLT (GPK), PCK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Material</td>
<td>1-1 Appropriately presenting the content material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>1-2 Applying literature texts</td>
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<td>1-3 Clearly explaining the contents of the teaching plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Methodology</td>
<td>2-1 Using an effective teaching method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-2 Comprehending learning principles and performance methods</td>
</tr>
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<td>2-3 Managing teaching resources and supplementary education</td>
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GPK

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>III. Learning Assessment</th>
<th>3-1 Clear description of the performance of the learning assessment</th>
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<tr>
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<td>• Explaining the concept and way of presenting learning assessment</td>
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<td>• Providing students and parents with information about such assessment</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3-2 Implementation of the learning assessment</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• To be able to provide feedback to students’ assignment</td>
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<td>• To choose a suitable criterion for evaluation based on the practical needs</td>
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<td>• To perform learning assessment and to develop functions such as diagnose and placement</td>
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<td>• To develop evaluation that is both formative and summative</td>
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### III. Management Competence: GPK

| I. Classroom Management | 1-1 Creating an interactive atmosphere in the classroom | ● Establish class mutual goal  
● Trigger class’ sense of honour  
● Establish good communication |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                         | 3-2 Creating a safe and better learning environment    | ● able to set up suitable learning environment  
● able to solve occasional accidents in class  
● able to create suitable learning setting  
● able to protect student’s privacy  
● respect student’s thought and feelings  
● Based on preconditions of each students, to provide expectations |
| II. Resources Management| 2-1 Effectively managing one’s time                     | ● Arrange schedule for class accordingly  
● Effectively manage personal class preparation time  
● Is able to finish marking on time  
● Can arrange time for personal professional development accordingly  
● Is able to distribute personal time accordingly |
### Appendix 2

| 2-2 Using the teaching resources effectively | • Understand the interest and expertise of the students  
|                                             | • Understand fellow teachers’ interest and expertise  
|                                             | • Use resources from parents and community effectively  
|                                             | • Use resources from internet, media and library effectively  |
| 2-3 Managing the teaching related files effectively | • Construct teaching files systematically  
|                                             | • Use of technology to manage teaching files  
|                                             | • To perform learning assessment and to develop functions such as  |

### IV. Assessment Competence

| I. Curriculum assessment | 1-1 Possessing fundamental knowledge of curriculum assessment | • Participate in curriculum assessment workshops, conference, or related activities  
|                           |                                                               | • Take initiative to understand related knowledge for curriculum assessment  
|                           |                                                               | • Understand the goal and content of curriculum assessment  |
| 1-2 Participating in the selection and assessment of the textbooks | • Understand the goal and content of teaching assessment  
|                                                               | • Participate in related conference for selection and assessment for textbook  
|                                                               | • Be able to distinguish and compare different versions of textbooks  
|                                                               | • Understand the pros and cons of selected textbooks  
|                                                               | • Take parts in publishing textbook and related materials  |
| 1-3 Using the results of the learning assessment | • Explaining to students and parents the results and meaning of evaluation  
|                                                               | • Offering students feedback and suggestions according to their learning performance  
|                                                               | • Improving teaching generally based on  |
V. Professional Development Competence

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| 1-4 Using the school curriculum assessment results to improve curriculum quality | - Understand the result and meaning of school curriculum assessment  
- Improvement of curriculum based on school curriculum assessment results |
| II. Teaching Assessment | 2-1 Being equipped with the basic knowledge of the teaching assessment |
| | - Participate in teaching assessment workshops, conference, or related activities  
- Take initiative to understand related knowledge for curriculum assessment  
- Understand the goal and content of curriculum assessment |
| | 2-2 Participating in the construction and application of school teaching assessment |
| | - Take part in construction of teaching assessment or application  
- Provide feedbacks and opinion regarding teaching assessment |
| | 2-3 Conducting the self teaching assessment |
| | - Evaluate the implementation achievement for self teaching plan  
- Evaluation the development of self teaching profile  
- Assess the pros and cons of personal teaching ability  
- Improvement of teaching based on self assessment results |
| | 2-4 Use of the teaching assessment to improve teaching quality |
| | - Understand the result and the meaning of teaching assessment  
- Improvement of teaching based on teaching assessment results |
| I. Self Development | 1-1 Maintaining mature and stable emotions | • Adjust emotions accordingly without passing it on to the students  
• Take into others emotions accordingly to effective communication |
|---------------------|---------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                     | 1-2 Self reflection and acceptance                  | • Be able to self reflect constantly and take in others opinion  
• To understand the positive effects and recognize self importance  
• To be able to appreciate others positive sides and learn from them |
|                     | 1-3 Good communication with others                  | • Good interaction with student, colleagues, and parents  
• Constant interaction with others to complete educational related task |
| II. Professional growth | 2-1 Pursuit of professional growth                | • Take initiative to learn about new curriculum and teaching  
• Based on teaching needs, to professional continuing education  
• Research on important educational related questions and improve the situation  
• Apply results from professional growth in educational work |
|                     | 2-2 Sharing with colleagues the feedback from professional work | • Using formal and informal occasions to share feedbacks from professional work with colleagues in school  
• Using formal and informal occasions to share feedbacks from professional work with colleagues outside of school |
|                     | 2-3 Adjusting to educational reform                | • Understand the theories and goal of educational reform  
• Understand the impact of educational reform on teaching and learning  
• Teaching preparation is adjusted according to educational reform |
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<tr>
<th>III. Professional attitude</th>
<th>3-1 Willingness to devote more time and energy</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>• Use time outside of class to prepare and conduct teaching related learning, research and preparation</td>
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<td>• Understand that education is a profession, and view it as an occupation to complete the tasks</td>
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<td>• Willing to devote time to instruct students to participate activities and competition in, and outside of school</td>
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<tr>
<th>3-2 Obligation of education professional ethnics</th>
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<td>• Understand and perform responsibilities towards students</td>
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<td>• Approve the school and is willing to improve the organization</td>
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<td>• Willing to take part in “teachers professional groups”</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Willing to oblige by educational acts and related regulation</td>
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Appendix 3: Feedbacks on Post-Training Stage Questionnaire

Post-Training Stage Questionnaire (Pilot Study Version/ Jury Opinion Version)

Part I. Opinions towards English Teachers’ Professional Competencies

Instructions:

a. Based on each provided statement, please tick the box which can best describe the degree of appropriateness of each statement regarding the self-evaluation of your own competencies. 

b. There is a total number of 27 statements and please complete all of them. 

c. Self-evaluation: 1 indicates ‘very inappropriate’; 2 for ‘inappropriate’; 3 for ‘some degree of appropriateness’; 4 for ‘appropriate’; 5 for ‘very appropriate’.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Self-Evaluation</th>
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<td></td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 Using English fluently in class.</td>
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<td>2 Using grammar properly in class.</td>
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<td>3 Pronouncing correctly in class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 Good English language skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 Understanding the important linguistic issues and concepts relating to foreign language teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 Familiarity with the target language culture.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7 Good understanding of foreign language teaching theories and methodologies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8 Designing and carrying out English activities and games effectively in a language classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9 Designing and choosing appropriate language teaching materials.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 Designing English teaching lesson plans and curriculum.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 Good understanding of the materials and textbooks used at school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12 Understanding children’s psychological and physical developments.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13 Understanding children’s developments in learning languages.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14 Incorporating/ applying medias in language teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15 Good understanding of the skills required in conducting research.</td>
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<td>16 Knowing how to maintain a positive atmosphere in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17 Knowing how to manage the conflicts between pupils</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
efficiently and set up the effective classroom disciplinary rules.

18 Knowing how to communicate and negotiate effectively with the school administrative staff, colleagues and parents.

19 Knowing the diversity among students’ cultural backgrounds and its relation to different learning types and pedagogical strategies.

20 Understanding the history of English education and its current policies.

21 Understanding the general guidelines of English education issued by the Ministry of Education.

22 Knowing how to implement integration learning/teaching.

23 Fundamental understanding of the general learning subjects at elementary school levels.

24 High willingness of participating further professional training.

25 High willingness of cooperating with other colleagues to improve self-development.

26 High willingness of devoting extra time in helping students with their learning and daily matters.

27 High willingness of devoting time to prepare lessons beforehand and re-evaluate the teaching afterwards.

Part III. Training Contents

Instruction:

a. Based on each training content, please tick the box which can best describe the following 2 conditions:

1. how many hours of training did you receive on each training content?
2. the degree of your satisfactory towards each of the training content/course.

b. There is a total number of 30 statements and please complete all of them.

c. Training Durations:

1 indicates ‘none’; 2 for ‘within 5 hours’; 3 for ‘within 10 hours’; 4 for ‘within 20 hours’; 5 for ‘more than 20 hours’.

Satisfaction:

1 indicates ‘strongly unsatisfied’; 2 for ‘unsatisfied’; 3 for ‘neutral’; 4 for ‘satisfied’; 5 for ‘strongly satisfied’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training Content/ Course</th>
<th>Training Durations</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>English pronunciation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>English writing (intermediate).</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>English reading (intermediate).</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>English conversation (intermediate).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>English conversation (upper-intermediate).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>English listening (intermediate).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>English lesson planning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teaching pronunciation &amp; spelling (KK phonetic symbols, phonics, intonation, word stress, aspects of connected speech and etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Teaching English chants, rhymes and songs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>TESOL games and activities design</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Theories for language teaching and learning (1st/2nd language acquisition).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>TESOL theories (teaching methodologies).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Teaching demonstrations &amp; practicum.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Children’s literature (plays, dramas, short readings and etc.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Designing and application of teaching materials</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Designing and application of children’s books (storybooks, big books and etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Computer assisting language teaching.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>English language learning/teaching assessment.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>English literature.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Western holidays and pop cultures.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>English education curriculum &amp; language teaching policies.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Children psychology.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Classroom management.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Introduction to children development.</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Introduction to elementary school education.</td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Integration learning &amp; teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Introduction to the general learning subjects (Chinese, physical education, music and etc.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Contemporary educational issues</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Educational research methods</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Communicative skills.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for your cooperation
and your assistance in this research is highly appreciated!
Appendix 4:
Feedbacks on Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire

Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire (Pilot Study Version)

Part I. Subject’s Background Information
1. Name: ______________(Subject Code:     )   2. Sex: ☐ male ☐ female
3. Age: ______________
4. Educational Background:
   Highest Degree:
   ☐ Master degree ☐ Bachelor degree ☐ College degree
   ☐ Vocational School degree ☐ Senior High School ☐ Other: ______________
5. Degree major:
   ☐ Applied English ☐ Western Literature ☐ English Linguistics
   ☐ TESOL ☐ Other: ________________
6. Degree minor:
   ☐ TESOL ☐ English ☐ Other: ______________
7. Place of study:
   ☐ In Taiwan ☐ In the USA ☐ In UK ☐ In Australia
   ☐ In Canada ☐ Other: ______________________
8. Years of teaching:
   ☐ none ☐ around 1 year[20] ☐ Within 3 years[21]
   ☐ 3 ~ 5 years ☐ 6 ~ 10 years ☐ more than 10 years
9. Teaching levels:
   ☐ Grade 1~2 ☐ Grade 3~4 ☐ Grade 5~6
   ☐ Other: ______________
10. Have you ever received any training which could facilitate your English teaching?
    ☐ No ☐ Yes (please provide the relevant information below)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the organization/Institute</th>
<th>Duration of the training</th>
<th>Program descriptions</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the organization/Institute</th>
<th>Job title</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Duty descriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>

10. Previous job experiences that are related to English language teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the organization/Institute</th>
<th>Job title</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Duty descriptions</th>
<th>Reasons for leaving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Part II. Opinions towards English Teachers’ Professional Competencies**

**Instructions:**

a. Based on each provided statement, please tick the box which can best describe your opinions upon 2 aspects:
   1. **The degree of the importance of each competency for an English language teacher to possess.**
   2. **The degree of appropriateness of each statement regarding the self-evaluation of your own competencies.**

b. There is a total number of 27 statements and please complete all of them.

c. **Degree of Importance:**
   1 indicates ‘not important’; 2 for some important; 3 for ‘important’; 4 for ‘quite important’; 5 for ‘very important’.
Self-evaluation:  
1 indicates ‘very inappropriate’; 2 for ‘inappropriate’; 3 for ‘some degree of appropriateness’; 4 for ‘appropriate’; 5 for ‘very appropriate’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Degree of Importance</th>
<th>Self-evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Using English fluently in class.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Using grammar properly in class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  Pronouncing correctly in class.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Good English language skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  Understanding the important linguistic issues and concepts relating to foreign language teaching.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6  Familiarity with the target language culture.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7  Good understanding of foreign language teaching theories and methodologies.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  Designing and carrying out English activities/games effectively in a language classroom.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9  Designing and choosing appropriate language teaching materials.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 Designing appropriate English teaching lesson plans and curriculum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Good understanding of the materials and textbooks used at school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>12 Understanding children’s psychological and physical developments.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13 Understanding children’s developments in learning languages.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14 Incorporating/applying medias in language teaching effectively.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15 Good understanding of the skills required in conducting research.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>16 Knowing how to maintain a positive atmosphere in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17 Knowing how to manage the conflicts between pupils efficiently and set up effective classroom disciplinary rules.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18 Knowing how to communicate and negotiate effectively with the school administrative staff, colleagues and parents.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19 Knowing the diversity among students’ cultural backgrounds and its relation to different learning types and pedagogical strategies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20 Understanding the history of English</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Part III. Subject’s Expectations upon the Training Contents

Instruction:

a. **Which kind of training do you think you need the most?** Based on your needs and anticipations, please rate the following training contents in accordance to their degree of importance to you. (There is a total number of 30 statements and please complete all of them.)

b. **Degree of Importance:** 1 indicates ‘not important’; 2 for ‘some important’; 3 for ‘important’; 4 for ‘quite important’; 5 for ‘very important’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training Content/ Course</th>
<th>Degree of Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 English pronunciation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2 English writing (intermediate).</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 English reading (intermediate).</td>
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<td>4 English conversation (intermediate).</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 English conversation (upper-intermediate).</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 English listening (intermediate).</td>
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<tr>
<td>7 English lesson planning.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Teaching pronunciation &amp; spelling (KK phonetic symbols, phonics, intonation, word stress, aspects of connected speech and etc.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>9 Teaching English chants, rhymes and songs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 TESOL games and activities design</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 Theories for language teaching and learning (1st/ 2nd)</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>TESOL theories (teaching methodologies).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Teaching demonstrations &amp; practicum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Children’s literature (plays, dramas, short readings and etc.)</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Designing and application of teaching materials</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Designing and application of children’s books (storybooks, big books and etc.)</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Computer assisting language teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>English language learning/teaching assessment.</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>English literature.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Western holidays and pop cultures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>English education curriculum &amp; language teaching policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Children psychology.</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Classroom management.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Introduction to children development.</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Introduction to elementary school education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Integration learning &amp; teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Introduction to the general learning subjects (Chinese, physical education, music and etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Contemporary educational issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Educational research method.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Communicative skills.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for your cooperation.
Your assistance in this research is highly appreciated!
Appendix 5
Expert's Opinions Survey

English Teachers’ Professional Development Open-Ended Questionnaire

To whom it may concern,

I am currently a research student at University of Durham in the UK. I am now conducting a research relating to the professional development/training of English language teachers in Taiwan. You have been highly recommended by a number of colleagues for your expertise in this area. It would be much appreciated if you could help deepen the scope of the study by contributing your opinions regarding the following questions. This questionnaire will only be used for the academic purpose of this research. Thank you for your time and assistance.

Yours Respectfully,
Li-Chen Li

Part I. Background Information
1. Name: ______________ (Subject Code: )  2. Sex: ☐ male ☐ female
3. Educational Background:
   ☐ Doctor Degree ☐ Master degree ☐ Other: _____________
4. Degree major:
   ☐ Applied English ☐ Western Literature ☐ English Linguistics
   ☐ TESOL ☐ Other: _________________________________
5. Degree minor:
   ☐ TESOL ☐ English ☐ Other: _____________
9. Place of study:
   ☐ In Taiwan ☐ In the USA ☐ In UK ☐ In Australia
   ☐ In Canada ☐ Other: _________________________
10. Years of teaching:
    ☐ none ☐ Less than or equal to 1 year ☐ Less than or equal to 3 years
    ☐ 3 ~ 5 years ☐ 6 ~ 10 years ☐ more than 10 years
8. Current job description: ☐ part-time ☐ full-time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the organization/Institute</th>
<th>Job title</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Duty descriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
9. Previous job experience related to English language teaching and English teacher education training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the organization/Institute</th>
<th>Job title</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Duty descriptions</th>
<th>Reasons for leaving</th>
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</table>

**Part II. Opinions towards English Teachers’ Professional Competence**

According to Shulman’s (1987) & Chen’s (2000) studies, there are 7 types of knowledge/competencies that are crucial for English language teachers and they are respectively, content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical-content knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of education, and attitude. Based on your previous teaching and training experiences, please share your opinions regarding the following two aspects: English teachers’ professional competence and training components.

**Part 1. English teachers’ professional competencies**

Q1. What kinds of content knowledge do you think that are important for an English language teacher? Why? (For example, English pronunciation.)

__________________________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________________________
Q2. What kind of general pedagogical knowledge do you think that is important for an English language teacher? Why? (For example, choosing appropriate materials.)

________________________________________________________________

Q3. Do you think that it is important for an English language teacher to have the curriculum knowledge competency? Why?

________________________________________________________________

Q4. What kinds of pedagogical-content knowledge do you think that are important for an English language teacher? Why? (For example, English teaching methodology.)

________________________________________________________________

Q5. What kinds of knowledge do you think that are important for an English language teacher to know about the learners? Why? (For example, English teaching methodology.)

________________________________________________________________

Q6. Do you think it is important for a language teacher to have the knowledge of education at elementary school levels? Why?

________________________________________________________________

a. Do you think that it is important to know about the English education policies and the general guideline of English education issued by the MOE? Why?

________________________________________________________________

Q7. What kind of attitude do you expect the student teacher to possess regarding their learning and teaching?

________________________________________________________________
a. How would this attitude affect their learning and teaching?

Q8. Do you think that it is important for an English teacher to have administrative skills? Why?

Q9. What are some other competencies that are important for an English language teacher? (For example, research academic skills.)

Part II. Opinions Regarding the Training Components

Q1. What kinds of English language training components do you think that are important in a training program? (For example, English conversation.)

Q2. What kinds of trainings regarding English language teaching do you think that are important to be included in a training program? (For example, teaching methodology.)

Q3. What kind of content knowledge do you think that is important in a training program? (For example, children literature.)
Q4. What kind of educational trainings do you think that is important in a training program? (For example, communicative skills.)

________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

Q5. What are some other training components that you think are important to be included in a training program? (For example, administrative skills or classroom management.)

________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

Q6. Other opinions:

________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

Thank you for your cooperation.

Your assistance in this research is highly appreciated!
Appendix 6:
Pre-Training Stage Questionnaire (Formal Version)

Part I. Subject’s Background Information

1. Name: ______________ (Subject Code:     )
2. Sex: ☐ male ☐ female
3. Age: ______________
4. Educational Background:
   
   Highest Degree:
   □ Master degree    □ Bachelor degree    □ College degree
   □ Vocational School degree    □ Senior High School    □ Other: ______________

5. Degree major:
   □ Applied English    □ Western Literature    □ English Linguistics
   □ TESOL    □ Other: ______________

11. Degree minor:
   □ TESOL    □ English    □ Other: ______________

12. Place of study:
   □ In Taiwan    □ In the USA    □ In UK    □ In Australia
   □ In Canada    □ Other: ______________

13. Years of teaching:
   □ none    □ Less than or equal to 1 year    □ Less than or equal to 3 years
   □ 3 ~ 5 years    □ 6 ~ 10 years    □ more than 10 years

11. Teaching levels:
   □ Grade 1~2    □ Grade 3~4    □ Grade 5~6
   □ Other: ______________

12. Have you ever received any training which could have facilitated your English teaching?
   □ No    □ Yes (please provide the relevant information below)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the organization/ Institute</th>
<th>Duration of the training</th>
<th>Program descriptions</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11. Current job description: □ part-time □ full-time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the organization/ Institute</th>
<th>Job title</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Duty descriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</table>

12. Previous job experience related to English language teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the organization/ Institute</th>
<th>Job title</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Duty descriptions</th>
<th>Reasons for leaving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>

6-1-1 & 6-1-2: Part II. Opinions towards English Teachers’ Professional Competence

Instructions:

a. Based on the following statements, please tick the box which better represents your opinions in relation to 2 aspects:
   1. **the degree to which it is necessary for an English language teacher to possess each competency.**
   2. **the degree to which each of the statements below describes your perception of your own competencies by ticking the appropriate box.**

b. There are a total number of 27 statements. Please provide an answer for each.

c. **Degree of Importance:**
   1 indicates ‘not important’; 2 ‘slightly important’; 3 ‘important’; 4 ‘quite important’; 5 ‘very important’.
Self-evaluation:
1 indicates ‘very inappropriate’; 2 ‘inappropriate’; 3 ‘some degree of appropriateness’; 4 ‘appropriate’; 5 ‘very appropriate’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Degree of Importance</th>
<th>Self-evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Using English fluently in class.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Using grammar properly in class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Pronouncing correctly in class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Good English language skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Understanding the important linguistic issues and concepts relating to foreign language teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Familiarity with the target language culture.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Good understanding of foreign language teaching theories and methodologies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Designing and choosing appropriate language teaching/testing materials.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Designing appropriate English teaching lesson plans and curriculum.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Good understanding of the materials and textbooks used at school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Incorporating/ applying computer in language teaching effectively.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>18. Knowing how to communicate and negotiate effectively with the school administrative staff, colleagues and parents.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. Good understanding of the skills required in conducting educational research.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>20. Understanding the local political, economic</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
and social cultures.

2.1 Understanding the general guidelines for English education issued by the Ministry of Education.

2.2 Knowing how to implement integration learning/ teaching effectively.

2.3 Fundamental understanding of the general learning subjects at elementary school levels.

2.4 High willingness to participate further professional training.

2.5 High willingness to cooperate with other colleagues to improve self-development.

2.6 High willingness to devote extra time in helping students with their learning and daily matters.

2.7 High willingness of devoting time to prepare lessons beforehand and re-evaluate the teaching afterwards.

6-2-1: Part III. Subject’s Expectations upon the Training Components

Instruction:

a. **Which kind of training do you think you need the most?** Based on your needs and anticipations, please rate the following training components in accordance to their degree of importance to you.

b. There are a total of 30 statements. Please complete all of them.

c. Degree of Importance:
   1 indicates ‘not important’; 2 ‘some important’; 3 ‘important’; 4 ‘quite important’; 5 ‘very important’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training Components</th>
<th>Degree of Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 English pronunciation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 English writing (intermediate).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 English reading (intermediate).</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4 English conversation (intermediate).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 English conversation (upper-intermediate).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 English listening (intermediate).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 English lesson planning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Teaching pronunciation &amp; spelling (KK phonetic symbols, phonics, intonation, word stress, aspects of connected speech and etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Teaching English chants, rhymes and songs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 TESOL games and activities design</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theories for language teaching and learning (1st/2nd language acquisition).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>TESOL theories (teaching methodologies).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Teaching demonstrations &amp; practicum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Children’s literature (plays, dramas, short readings and etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Designing and application of teaching materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Designing and application of children’s books (storybooks, big books and etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Computer assisting language teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>English language learning/teaching assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>English literature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Western holidays and pop cultures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>English education curriculum &amp; language teaching policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Children psychology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Classroom management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Introduction to children development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Introduction to elementary school education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Integration learning &amp; teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Introduction to the general learning subjects (Chinese, physical education, music and etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Contemporary educational issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Educational research method.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Communicative skills.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for your cooperation.

Your assistance in this research is highly appreciated!
Appendix 7: Post-Training Stage Questionnaire (Formal Version)

7-1-1: Part I. Trainees’ Opinions Regarding Personal Professional Competencies

Instructions:
a. Please indicate the degree to which each of the statements below describes your perception of your own competencies by ticking the appropriate box.
b. There are a total of 27 statements. Please complete all of them.
c. Self-evaluation:
   1 indicates ‘very inappropriate’; 2 ‘inappropriate’; 3 ‘some degree of appropriateness’; 4 ‘appropriate’; 5 ‘very appropriate’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Self-Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Using English fluently in class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Using grammar properly in class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pronouncing correctly in class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good English language skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Understanding the important linguistic issues and concepts relating to foreign language teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Familiarity with the target language culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Good understanding of foreign language teaching theories and methodologies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Designing and carrying out English activities/games effectively in a language classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Designing and choosing appropriate language teaching materials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Designing appropriate English teaching lesson plans and curriculum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Good understanding of the materials and textbooks used at school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Incorporating/ applying computer in language teaching effectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Understanding child’s psychological and physiological developments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Understanding child development in learning languages.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Knowing the diversity among students’ cultural backgrounds and its relation to different learning types and pedagogical strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Knowing how to maintain a positive atmosphere in the classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Knowing how to manage the conflicts between pupils efficiently and set up effective classroom disciplinary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Knowing how to communicate and negotiate effectively with the school administrative staff, colleagues and parents.

Good understanding of the skills required in conducting educational research.

Understanding the local political, economic and social cultures.

Understanding the general guidelines for English education issued by the Ministry of Education.

Knowing how to implement integration learning/teaching effectively.

Fundamental understanding of the general learning subjects at elementary school levels.

High willingness to participate further professional training.

High willingness to cooperate with other colleagues to improve self-development.

High willingness to devote extra time in helping students with their learning and daily matters.

High willingness of devoting time to prepare lessons beforehand and re-evaluate the teaching afterwards.

---

7-2-1 & 7-2-2: Part II. Trainees’ Opinions Regarding the Received Training Components

**Instruction:**

a. Based on each training component, please tick the box which can best describe the following 2 conditions:

1. how many hours of training did you receive on each training component?
2. your degree of satisfaction in relation to each training component.

b. There are a total of 30 statements. Please complete all of them.

c. **Training duration:**

1 indicates ‘none’; 2 ‘within 5 hours’; 3 ‘within 10 hours’; 4 ‘within 20 hours’; 5 ‘more than 20 hours’.

**Satisfaction:**

1 indicates ‘strongly dissatisfied’; 2 ‘dissatisfied’; 3 ‘neutral’; 4 ‘satisfied’; 5 for ‘strongly satisfied’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training Components</th>
<th>Training Duration</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 English pronunciation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2 English writing (intermediate).</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>English conversation (intermediate).</td>
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Thank you for your cooperation
and your assistance in this research is highly appreciated!
## Appendix 8:

### Test-Retest Reliability Test

#### Correlations of Sections 6-1-1, 6-1-2 & 6-2-1

|       | Q1 | Q2 | Q3 | Q4 | Q5 | Q6 | Q7 | Q8 | Q9 | Q10 | Q11 | Q12 | Q13 | Q14 | Q15 | Q16 | Q17 | Q18 | Q19 | Q20 | Q21 | Q22 | Q23 | Q24 | Q25 | Q26 | Q27 | Q28 | Q29 | Q30 |
|-------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| Q1    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q2    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q3    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q4    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q5    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q6    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q7    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q8    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q9    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q10   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q11   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q12   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q13   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q14   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q15   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q16   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q17   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q18   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q19   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q20   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q21   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q22   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q23   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q24   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q25   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q26   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |    |
| Q27   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |    |
| Q28   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |
| Q29   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |
| Q30   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | -1.000 |    |    |    |

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

**Correlations are based on the variables listed and indicate the strength and direction of the relationships between the sections.**

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### Data File Details

**[資料集3] C:\Users\Sophie\Desktop\miguel\信度測試\改為名目資料後\6-2-1 前測與師範的相關係數.sav**

- The data file contains the correlation coefficients for sections 6-1-1, 6-1-2, and 6-2-1.
- The file is saved in a .sav format, which is commonly used for SPSS data files.
- The data includes variables Q1 to Q30, which represent the sections being tested.

---

**Retest Reliability Test**

- This test assesses the consistency of test results across different occasions.
- The table above shows the correlation coefficients between these sections, indicating how reliably the tests measure the same construct.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Q2</th>
<th>Q3</th>
<th>Q4</th>
<th>Q5</th>
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<th>Q7</th>
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<th>Q9</th>
<th>Q10</th>
<th>Q11</th>
<th>Q12</th>
<th>Q13</th>
<th>Q14</th>
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<th>Q22</th>
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</table>

Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**
Appendix 8

[資料集1] C:\Users\Sophie\Desktop\miguel\信度測試\改為名目資料後\6-1-1 前測與師範的相關係數.sav
Correlations
Q1P

1.000**

Q1

Q2
-.364

Q3
-.123

Q4
-.185

Q2P

-.302

Q3P

-.213

Q4P

Q5

Q6

Q10
-.213

Q11
.185

Q13
-.075

Q14
-.318

Q15
.070

Q16
.213

Q17
.000

Q18
.070

Q19
-.123

Q20
.123

Q21
.040

Q23
-.237

Q24
.185

Q25
-.059

.829**

-.272

.272

-.213

.866**

.000

-.200

.000

-.204

-.094

.700**

-.346

.068

.250

-.577*

-.354

.302

.058

-.354

.213

-.082

-.400

.323

.349

.000

-.082

.068

.272

.200

.000

-.289

.094

.000

.294

.408

-.316

-.139

.289

-.107

-.107

.289

.866**

-.463

.378

.200

.000

.000

.354

.107

-.164

-.200

.000

.082

-.289

.000

.189

-.158

-.277

Q5P

.091

.091

.185

.431

1.000

-.091

-.099

.161

.213

.185

.185

.302

.250

-.018

-.213

.000

.245

.185

.123

.141

.084

Q6P

.364

.023

-.185

-.123

.591

-.023

.345

.040

-.107

.000

.123

.075

-.023

.193

.107

.000

-.070

.123

-.123

-.040

Q7P

.107

-.213

-.289

.289

-.107

-.107

**

.463

.472

-.500

.346

.289

.354

.213

-.082

.200

-.274

.164

.000

.289

Q8P

.148

.148

-.757**

-.356

-.099

.345

.345

1.000**

.044

-.463

.134

.356

.218

.099

.114

.463

-.211

-.076

.134

Q9P

.262

-.040

.055

.218

.161

.040

.342

.044

1.000**

-.378

.327

.327

.200

.040

.124

.094

.259

.124

Q10P

-.040

-.040

.600*

Q11P

.185

.000

-.167

.218

.161

.000

.185

-.262
.000

-.564*

-.612*

-.071

.756**

*

.554

.134

.327

-.346

-.491
1.000**

-.491

-.134

.342

-.109

.667**

.408

.000

.285

-.472

.000

.346

.000

Q12P

.185

.185

-.389

.111

.185

.123

.431

.356

.327

-.289

.667**

1.000**

.612*

-.185

.142

.577*

Q13P

.237

.237

-.320

.320

.384

.207

.207

.064

.026

.139

.480

.480

.784**

.207

.296

Q14P

-.318

.364

.123

.185

.250

-.023

-.023

.099

.040

.213

.000

-.185

.075

1.000**

Q15P

.070

.333

-.095

-.142

-.018

.193

-.070

.114

.124

-.082

.285

.142

-.058

.456

Q16P

.213

-.107

-.289

-.289

-.213

.107

.426

.463

.094

-.100

.346

.577

*

.354

-.213

.329

Q17P

.091

.432

-.123

-.185

-.364

-.091

-.091

-.099

.161

-.426

.000

-.123

-.075

-.091

Q18P

.070

.333

-.095

.332

Q19P

-.123

.185

.167

-.167

.245
.185

-.070

.193

-.076

.124

.123

.123

.134

-.218

-.329

.569*

.380

.232

.000

.333

.167

-.068

Q20P

.564*

.262

-.218

.218

.161

.040

.040

.044

.196

-.378

.327

.327

Q21P

.040

.342

-.055

.055

.141

-.040

-.040

-.044

.339

.094

.000

Q22P

-.015

-.015

Q23P

-.237

.207

-.080

.080

.059

.237

.237

-.480

-.320

.059

.237

-.207

.417

.170

-.139

*

.578

-.419

.277

Q24P

.185

.185

.167

.111

.492

.123

-.185

-.089

.055

.000

Q25P

-.059

-.059

.080

-.080

.015

.059

.281

.064

.092

Q26P

.018

.280

-.142

.142

.193

.245

.245

.457

Q27P

.463

-.141

.055

-.055

.262

.443

.443

.262

.091

Q7

Q8

.364

.023

.452

.302

.213

-.107

.426
**

.591

*

Q9

Q26
.018

Q27
.333

-.294

.232

-.232

-.139

-.082

-.082

.000

-.069

.082

.082

.059

.492

.015

.193

.245

.337

.237

.123

.059

.245

.193

.094

.395

-.139

.000

.277

.411

.411

.089

-.044

.549*

.578*

-.089

.064

.457

.114

-.218

.218

.339

.299

-.419

.055

.092

.497

.590*

-.109

-.218

-.055

.339

-.374

-.026

.327

-.105

.031

-.109

.569*

.333

.333

.000

.137

-.240

.167

.360

.000

.569*

.000

.380

.167

.389

-.055

.456

-.080

-.111

.080

.332

.617*

.277

.000

.296

.080

.320

.367

-.110

.154

.080

.327

.160

.296

.456

-.213

.000

.193

.431

.185

.262

.084

.237

.431

.503

.508

.193

**

.329

.225

.189

.380

-.142

-.124

.260

.046

-.095

.524

*

.351

.392

**

.000

-.164

.289

.000

-.094

.316

.139

-.577

*

.139

.329

.329

.245

.107

.876**

-.018

.185

.431

.443

-.421

-.384

-.123

.015

-.070

-.280

.193

.189

-.164

.000

1.000**

.142

.332

-.124

.260

-.296

.617*

-.160

.149

.392

.431

.380

.289

.264

.142

**

.389

-.055

.000

-.080

.167

.480

.095

.142

.200

.040

.124

.094

.518*

.357

.327

.764**

.339

-.149

-.419

.327

.092

.031

.124

-.055

.468

.262

-.124

-.094

.518*

-.124

-.055

.600*

1.000**

-.523*

.026

.218

.105

.202

-.124

.000

.320

-.049

.237

.388

.347

-.380

.217

.120

-.320

-.563*

.932**

.135

-.080

-.038

.695**

.559*

-.240

-.080

.196

.237

.046

.139

-.380

-.296

-.080

-.320

.026

.110

**

-.080

-.038

.182

-.296

.167

-.111

-.068

.431

-.095

-.577

*

.000

.617

*

.167

.389

.218

.000

-.080

-.120

.095

.142

.069

.360

.080

.049

.503

.524

*

.139

.000

-.160

.480

.120

.105

-.055

-.038

-.120

**

.046

.353

.497

-.082

.000

.332

.349

.508

.351

.329

.000

.149

.095

.142

.202

.650

**

.182

.095

.046

**

.554

*

-.189

.491

*

.200

.141

.435

.472

.000

.202

.327

.218

-.018

*

-.288

.055

.419

.148

.262

-.452

.055

-.426

-.694**

-.213

.107

*

**

1.000

.853

.554

Q12
.185

.600

1.000

1.000

1.000

Q22
.169

.598

1.000

**

1.000

1.000

1.000

*

.575

*

**

.901

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

47


## Appendix 9

Table 8-1. The Themes, Code and Sub-Codes Analyzed from the Interview Data in 2008 and 2011

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<tr>
<td>Practicality</td>
<td>Most applicable</td>
<td>KSLT</td>
<td>G1: L13, L17, L49</td>
<td>G12: L9, L18, L29</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>G13: L21, L28</td>
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<td>G3: L8, L27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less applicable</td>
<td>KGEU, KEU, KSC, KSI, KCL, KSR</td>
<td>G1: L23~L25, L65</td>
<td>G2: L22~L24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G3: L31, L34, L54</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G3: L54, L67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Useful</td>
<td>All are useful</td>
<td>G1: L42, L44, L47</td>
<td>G2: L32, L34, L37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G3: L48~L52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Amount of Training</strong></td>
<td>Some training received</td>
<td>KL, KSLT, KE, KGEU, KST,</td>
<td>G1: L26, L28, L102~L103</td>
<td>G2: L25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G3: L26, L35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insufficient training</td>
<td>KL, KSLT, KE, KGEU, KST,</td>
<td>G1: L35, L38~40</td>
<td>G2: L26~L30</td>
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<td>G3: L40~L44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No training received</td>
<td>KSR, KSA</td>
<td>G1: L31~L34</td>
<td>G2: L27~30</td>
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<td></td>
<td>G3:L27, L36~39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reinforcement to the trainings (2008)</strong></td>
<td>Need much more emphases</td>
<td>KE, KSI, KCL, KST</td>
<td>G1: L9, L74~L45</td>
<td>G2: L29, L69</td>
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<td>G3: L27, L86~87</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Need more emphases</td>
<td>KSLT (PCK), KSA, GPK</td>
<td>G1: L75~L77</td>
<td>G2: L64<del>L65, L67</del>L69</td>
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<td>G3: L69~L73</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adding the new Trainings</td>
<td>Individual/ group counseling</td>
<td>G1: L91<del>93, L97</del>L99</td>
<td>G2: L71<del>L73, L76</del>L81</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>G3:L75<del>L78, L81</del>L88</td>
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### Talent-Guiding Knowledge and Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible reasons for ineffectiveness</th>
<th>Time constraint</th>
<th>Preconditions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Considering urgency (2011)</td>
<td>Limited training duration of the program</td>
<td>Limited training duration of the PC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>KE</td>
<td>KSI, KSC, KSLT, KSA, KSR, KCL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G1: L101</td>
<td>G1: L51, L53, L55~L57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G2: L84~L86</td>
<td>G2: L43, L45, L48~L50</td>
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<td></td>
<td>G3: L90~93</td>
<td>G3: L55~L59</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G1: L52, L59~L61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>G2: L47, L51~L53</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>G3: L56, L59~L61</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G1: L63, L66</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>G2: L55~L58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>G3: L68~L75</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G1: L64, L67<del>L69</del>L72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>G2: L57, L58~L61</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>G3: L63~L67</td>
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</table>

**Note:** “L” stands for Line. For instance, L1 indicates Line 1 of the transcription.
Appendix 10
Diagram 8-1. The Finalized Framework of Required Professional Competencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>PC Forms</th>
<th>Examples of Competency Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KE</td>
<td>English language skills (ELS)</td>
<td>Possessing good English writing proficiency &amp; skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KE</td>
<td>Content knowledge (CK)</td>
<td>Is familiar with English literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KE</td>
<td>Knowledge of Curriculum (KC)</td>
<td>Understanding the organization of English curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSLT</td>
<td>General pedagogical knowledge (GPK)</td>
<td>Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of classroom management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSLT</td>
<td>Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK)</td>
<td>Understanding the knowledge &amp; skills of TESOL methodology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KL</td>
<td>Knowledge of child development</td>
<td>Understanding children’s cognitive, psychological &amp; physiological developments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KEU</td>
<td>Knowledge of general educational issues</td>
<td>Understanding educational policies &amp; goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSC</td>
<td>Knowledge of educational context</td>
<td>Understanding the local political, social &amp; economic cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KGEU</td>
<td>Knowledge of general education</td>
<td>Understanding the knowledge of other school subjects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Framework of the Required PCs for ELTs

Knowledge Base

Personality Traits

- Possessing positive philosophical beliefs & self-beliefs
- Possessing positive beliefs toward educational purposes & values
- Demonstrating the willingness of taking part in further development & colleague cooperation