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Student Teachers' Competence in Curriculum Development:

Comparison between the Czech Republic and China

Doctoral Dissertation

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Declaration of Originality

I, Li LIU (Student number 80032168) declare that this dissertation entitled "Student teachers' competence in curriculum development: Comparison between the Czech Republic and China" and submitted as partial requirement for Ph.D. study programme of Education is my original work and that all the sources in any form (e.g. ideas, figures, texts, tables, etc.) that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged in the text as well as in the list of references.

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Signature **Date**

Abstract

This dissertation is a comparative study related to the preparation of English teachers in lower secondary schools, which has accompanied by the current curriculum reform in the Czech Republic and in China to pose new demands on teachers.

The aim of this study is threefold. First aim is to construct the theoretical framework to understand the concept of student teachers' competence in curriculum development that is the underlying construct for the study. To fulfil it, relevant literature has been reviewed and key concepts related to constructing the framework have been identified, defined and mutually linked to analyze its elements and structure. The second aim is related to the development of the research tool. Along with the theoretical framework, interviews with teacher educators were conducted in order to obtain rich information that could be used as one of parameters to construct questionnaire. Content analysis was used to interpret the data. The third is to explore what Czech and Chinese student teachers competence in curriculum development is like, and to identify the possible similarities or differences. The questionnaire survey was completed by 123 Czech student teachers and 401 Chinese student teachers. Descriptive statistics were first used to organize and summarize the collected data. Independent-samples t test was then used to examine the difference and relationship among questions.

The results reveal that both Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers can take into account language teachers' different roles, specific needs of learning English, different resources, and contexts during uses of curriculum materials, however, they value teachers' roles and needs in a different order. With regard to the implementation of a lesson, Czech firs-year student teachers value the lesson planning, followed by the using lesson plans and content, the teaching methodology, the evaluation, and the classroom management, whilst, Chinese firs-year student teachers value the classroom management, followed by the teaching methodology, the evaluation, the using lesson plans and content, and the lesson planning.

Regarding Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers they can take into

account specific needs of learning English, different resources, language teachers' different roles, and contexts during uses of curriculum materials, however, they value resources and teacher's role in a different order. With regard to the implementation of a lesson, they are all confident in using lesson plans and content, the classroom management and the teaching methodology than in the lesson planning and the evaluation.

The results show that the differences between Czech and Chinese student teachers, including first-year and last-year student teachers, their competence in curriculum development appear in general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, and knowledge of educational contexts in according to the Shulman's (1987) major categories of teacher knowledge.

In terms of student teachers' understanding of curriculum, results show that firs-year and last-year Czech and Chinese student teachers value multiple orientations toward the curriculum rather than "adhere to one orientation". However, the differences of their comprehension of curriculum are reflected on five orientations.

The research findings have shed light on our understanding of the present preparation of student teachers' competence in curriculum development, which could be seen as necessary to a teacher's expertise and professionalism in light of the current educational realities within the Czech and Chinese contexts, and should not be postponed or left as the student teacher' own concern after graduation. Therefore, it gives an indication of the impact of teacher education. In addition, limitations of this study and suggestions for future research are outlined.

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CONTENTS

1 Introduction

Across the educational systems of the world, few issues have received more attention in recent years than the problem of ensuring that primary and secondary school classrooms are all staffed with adequately qualified teachers (Ingersoll, 2007). The issue of teacher quality is the subject of much concern. Recognizing that teacher education can play an important role in improving teacher quality, a growing number of studies is focusing on the effects of teacher preparation (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005). However, there is still a lack of a strong research base that identifies specific dimensions of teacher education related to the preparation of high-quality teachers (Ronfeldt, 2012).

Teacher education including preservice preparation and inservice training has long been seen a concern in the Czech Republic and in China. However, the school environment in the Czech Republic has changed more quickly than teacher education was able to respond since the political reversal of 1989 (Walterová, 2010). As indicated by Greger and Walterová (2007), in the current Czech Republic, teachers as the main actors in the change process have not been appropriately prepared for new tasks followed by ongoing curricular reform to implement the new curricular model. China claims to have teacher training programmes which provide approximately 11 million teachers for the world largest primary and secondary school education system (Song, 2007). However, there have been enduring issues with teacher education including preparation programmes and professional development programmes accompanied by the curriculum innovations in primary and secondary schools which started at the turn of the 21st century in China. There is a pressing need for educational researchers to scrutinize the present preparation of teachers, because teacher quality is one of the central problems facing school systems (Ingersoll, 2007) which will directly affect the quality of education and the success of curriculum reform in primary and secondary schools.

There is a wide recognition that teachers play a pivotal role in any educational change (see Fullan, 2001); in particular in school-based curriculum development

projects, they fulfilled the designer role (Eggleston, 1980). In terms of English as a foreign language (EFL) education, it has been generally acknowledged that the effective implementation of EFL innovation does depend on teachers and teaching practice (Richards & Nunan, 1990). That is, change in teachers' teaching behaviour really does depend on whether student teachers are appropriately prepared for the new tasks, including their ownership of and their knowledge about reform ideas (Handelzalts, 2009). Involving teachers in the design process of curriculum fosters ownership (Handelzalts, 2009). However, these efforts were poorly supported and structured (Huizinga et al., 2014) and teachers lacked the knowledge and skills to enact the design process (Eggleston, 1980). Preservice preparation is a time to begin forming habits and skills necessary for the ongoing learning to teach (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1019), which has an important impact on what future teachers know as they leave teacher preparation programme, however, the differences across the countries, combined with the differences across the programmes of preparation (Schmidt et al., 2007).

This dissertation is a comparative study related to the preparation of English teachers in lower secondary schools. The general aim of this dissertation is investigate what Czech and Chinese EFL student teachers' competence in curriculum development is like, and to identify the possible similarities or differences.

The aim of this dissertation is threefold. First aim is to elaborate the theoretical framework to understand the concept of student teachers' competence in curriculum development that is the underlying construct for this dissertation. The second aim is related to the development of the research tool, namely, the questionnaire. The third is to present and to discuss the results of the study, including the traits of Czech and Chinese student teachers' competence in curriculum development as well as the possible similarities or differences between them.

This dissertation contains seven chapters. Chapter 1 is an introductory chapter which offers the aims and structure of the dissertation. The second chapter elaborates the key concept of this dissertation- student teachers' competence in curriculum development in detail and introduces related theories which are relevant to construct

the framework in order to understand the concept. Chapter 3 introduces the background part of this dissertation, including the general background of the study, methodology, research resign, sampling strategy, as well as the context of data collection of the study. The fourth chapter briefly presents the procedures and results of interviews in phase one of the study. Attention is paid to development of instrument, including the implications of interviews, as well as the procedures for validating the instrument and building reliability of the instrument. The Following chapter presents the results of phase two of the study in a more detailed way, including the research questions and hypotheses, data collection and analyses procedures, survey results, as well as comparison and discussion of findings. Chapter 6 summarizes the major findings. It then discusses the major implications of the study and the contributions it may make to lower secondary EFL education programmes, as well as the limitations of this study and recommendations for further research. Chapter 7 is the conclusive chapter of the dissertation.

This study adopts a specific focus on the preparation of teachers- student teachers' competence in curriculum development, which has been accompanied by the current curriculum reform in the Czech Republic and in China. The study has begun with a premise that this competence might be seen as necessary part of a teacher's expertise and professionalism. These teacher's qualities facilitate his/her participation in the process of curriculum development, especially in the current educational practise, which should not be postponed or left for the student teacher' own concern after graduation. More details about what is meant by the curriculum development and what constitutes student teachers' competence in curriculum development are discussed in the second chapter. The purpose of this study is not to assess or to evaluate teacher preparation requirements and standards in any system. The study has conceived of a preservice teacher education programme that would serve as an intervention, an intervention that would allow well-educated student teachers to keep aligned with the considerable educational changes. But, the study did not presume the particular requirements and standards of the intervention.

Previous research (Schmidt et al., 2007, p. 12) indicates that international

comparisons related to teacher education are particular challenging, as there are different traditions of organizing teacher education that make acquiring comparable data complicated. In light of the views of Postlethwaite and Leung (2007), Czech and Chinese student teachers can be regarded as being the comparable groups and what is really being judged is what a system of teacher education does with the student teachers under its authority. The comparison of findings from the different countries with different approaches allows the researcher to scrutinize the present preparation of student teachers' competence in different approaches, and gives an indication of the impact of teacher education.

This study has focused on two groups of student teachers in the course of teacher preparation. The investigation of beginning student teachers provides insights into the preconceptions they hold at the beginning of their studies. These pre-existing knowledge and pre-understanding about teaching and learning condition what they learn, thus, it could be a "starting point" for student teachers' learning in order to support student teachers' competence preparation in meaningful and effective ways during the teacher education. The second group tackles the last-year student teachers as this provides into their professional readiness in terms of competence in curriculum development through preservice preparation. In other words, to concentrate on different groups of student teachers, on their competence in curriculum development could help to conclude whether or not they enter teaching as prepared and "well-started beginners". This is an aspect of teacher education which deserves further attention (Kiely & Askham, 2012) that is why it has become the central topic of this dissertation.

2 Student Teacher's Competence in Curriculum Development and Related Theories

As mentioned above, the concept of this dissertation is student teacher's competence in curriculum development. The aim of this chapter is to elaborate this concept in detail and to introduce related theories which are relevant to construct the framework to understand the concept. Furthermore, the concept of student teacher's competence in curriculum development as well as selected insights from preservice teacher preparation are seen as underlying constructs for the study presented in this dissertation.

2.1 Curriculum

Curriculum is the foundation of the teaching-learning process. The development of programmes of study, learning and teaching resources, lesson plans and assessment of students, and even teacher education are all based on curriculum. Curriculum as a field of study, "it is tantalizingly difficult" to know what it is (Goodlad, 1994, p. 1266), and it has been characterized as elusive, fragmentary and confusing (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009).

When there is a myriad of definitions for a concept in the literature, it often helps to search for the etymological origin of the concept. The Latin word "*curriculum*", related to the verb currere (running), refers to "racecourse"- a "course" or "track" to be followed (Marsh, 2004; van den Akker, 2010). However, the interpretation of the word *curriculum* broadened in the twentieth century to include subjects other than the classics (Marsh, 2004), for instance, school documents, committee reports, and many academic textbooks refer to any and all subjects offered or prescribed as "the curriculum of the school" (Marsh, 2004).

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009, pp. 10-11) specify five basic definitions of curriculum:

- Curriculum can be defined as a plan for achieving goals.

- Curriculum can be defined as dealing with the learner's experiences.
- Curriculum is a system for dealing with people.
- Curriculum can be defined as a field or study with its own foundations, knowledge domains, research, theory, principle, and specialists.
- Curriculum can be defined in terms of subject matter (math, science, English, history, and so on) or content (the way we organize and assimilate information).

In fact, the way we define curriculum reflects our approach to it, that is, "a holistic position or metaorientation, encompassing curriculum's foundations, curriculum domains (important knowledge within the field), and curriculum theory and practice" (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009, p. 2). Variations in the way curriculum is defined provide needed scope and diversity. For example, people who define curriculum as a field tend to discuss curriculum in theoretical rather than practical terms, whilst those who adopt definition of subject matter emphasize the facts and concepts of particular subject areas.

Learning is the central activity in the context of education, thus, to view the word ***curriculum*** as a course, trajectory, or "plan for learning" (Taba, 1962) is most obvious interpretation to limit itself to the core of all other definitions, permitting all sorts of elaborations for specific educational levels, contexts and representations (van den Akker, 2010). When talking about curricular activities, such as, policy-making, design and development, evaluation, etc., a distinction between various levels of the curriculum is very helpful. Curriculum concerns may be addressed at five levels: supra (internal/comparative), macro (system, society, nation and state, e.g. national syllabi), meso (school and institution, e.g. school-specific), micro (classroom, e.g. textbooks and instructional materials) and nano (individual and learner) (van den Akker, 2010).

In addition, curricula can be represented in various forms. For enhancing the understanding of curriculum, clarification of these forms is useful. van den Akker (2003) adapts the three broad distinctions which distinguished by Goodlad, Klein and Tye (1979): the intended curriculum, the implemented curriculum, and the attained

curriculum. The intended curriculum contains both the ideal curriculum (the vision or basic philosophy underlying a curriculum) and the formal/written curriculum (intentions as specified in curriculum documents and/or materials), and it refers predominantly to the influence of curriculum policy-makers and curriculum developers (in various roles). The implemented curriculum which relates especially to the world of schools and teachers contains both the perceived curriculum (interpretations by users, particularly teachers) and the operational curriculum (as enacted in the classroom). The attained curriculum comprises the experiential curriculum (learning experiences from pupil perspective) and the learned curriculum (resulting learner outcomes), relating to students.

A visual model, constructed by van den Akker (2003), illustrates the interconnectedness of curriculum components (see figure 2.1). The model is helpful to figure out the components of the concept of this dissertation.

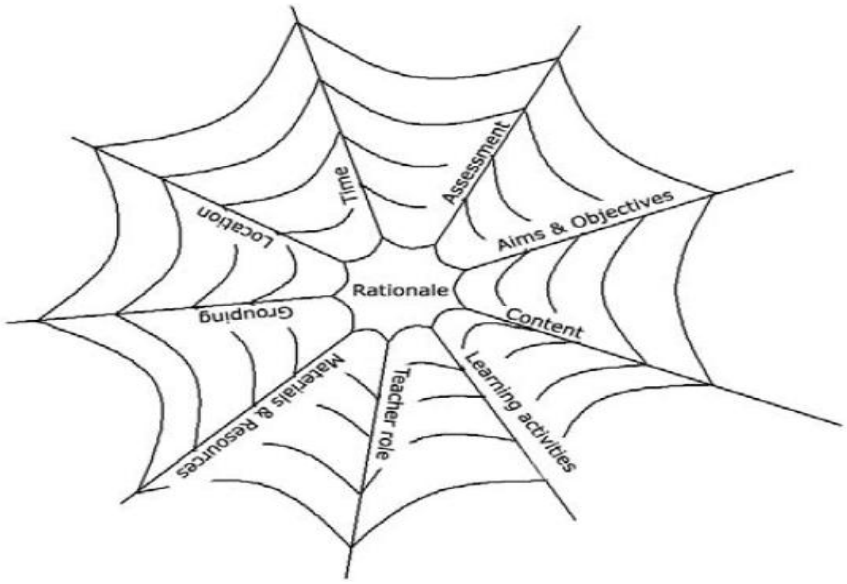

Figure 2.1 Curricular Spiderweb (van den Akker, 2003)

At the hub of the model is the rationale, which connects all the other components: aims and objectives, content, learning activities, teacher role, materials and resources, grouping, location, time, and assessment. The spiderweb metaphor emphasizes that, within one curriculum, component accents may vary over time, but that any dramatic

shift in balance will pull the entirety out of alignment. Though it may stretch for a while, prolonged imbalance will cause the system to break. Efforts to reform, (re)design, develop, or implement curricula must therefore devote attention to balance and linkages between these ten components (McKenny, Nieveen, & van den Akker, 2006). In addition, the need for internal consistency between components, consistency across levels in a system is also a chief concern (van den Akker, 2003). For example, the efforts toward a particular approach to classroom teaching and learning must be designed while taking the overarching school and education system into account, or else they risk inconsistent design and- along with that- hindrances to implementation (McKenny et al., 2006).

2.1.1 Curriculum orientation

Curriculum orientation is an important concept in understanding teachers' thinking about curriculum matters and classroom practices. It may impact teacher's understanding of the curriculum intent (aims, goals and learning objectives), content, teaching strategies and instructional assessment (Cheung &Wong, 2002) as well as influence pupils' development. The underlying values of each orientation have not only influence on what is taught by teacher, but also on how and why it is taught (Eisner, 2002). As Ashour, Khasawneh, Abu-Alruz and Alsharquwi (2012) claim that acknowledging the existence of varying curriculum orientations among preservice and inservice school teachers is the first step toward a comprehensive curriculum reform initiative.

Eisner and Vallance (1974) and Eisner (1985) identify five common curriculum orientations: Academic Rationalism, Cognitive Process, Social Reconstruction, Self-Actualisation (Humanistic orientation) and Curriculum as Technology (Behavioural orientation).

- Academic Rationalism reflects traditional academic studies, without regard to the interest or needs of the learner, or contemporary societal problems (Tanner & Tanner, 1995), prescribing a curriculum that focuses heavily on the disciplines of mathematics, music and literature which emphasize the intellectual growth of the

student including rational thinking and inquiry skills. Under this orientation, the nature of instruction should be teacher centred (Tanner & Tanner, 1995).

- The Cognitive Process orientation is a problem-centred approach that considers the purpose of the curriculum to be the development of a student's ability and cognitive skills to think. Students learn how to learn and are provided with the opportunities to nurture and refine the variety of cognitive thinking skills that they possess (Eisner, 1985; Eisner & Valance, 1974). The teacher's role is to help them succeed in society by learning the ability to infer, to think critically, and to define and solve problems (Eisner, 1985). This orientation is more interested in the process and long-term sustainability of learning skills.
- Social Reconstruction views the purpose of the curriculum as a vehicle to facilitate societal change and promotes the ability of students to solve social problems and participate in society. From this perspective, a curriculum must be relevant to both the individual and society to provide students the learning opportunities to develop levels of critical realization and responsibility. Teachers' role is to include important topics, such as pollution, corruption, unemployment, etc. to help students understand the problems confronting our society.
- From the perspective of the Curriculum for Self-Actualisation (Humanistic), the purpose of education is to provide students with opportunities to foster their personal development as unique individuals. This curriculum orientation is the "attempt to shape education so that we that we come to understand ourselves better, take responsibility for our education, and learn to reach beyond our current development to become stronger, more sensitive, and more creative in our search for high quality lives" (Joyce, Weil, & Calhoun, 2000, p. 2). It could be regarded as child centred and growth oriented. students and the teacher work together to design the curriculum so that students play an important role in choosing what and how to study/learn and in generating their own educational goals; students evaluate their own work; and students' feelings are important as facts (Huitt, 2001).

- The Behavioural Orientation differs from the previously mentioned orientations. It is rooted in behavioural psychology, specifically the work of B.F. Skinner, and the theory of operant conditioning. The theoretical base for this approach indicates that "human beings are self-correcting communication systems that modify behaviour in response to information about how successfully tasks are navigated" (Joyce, Weil, & Calhoun, 2000, p. 22). Under this orientation, curriculum focuses on process with the technology by which knowledge is communicated and learning is facilitated (Eisner & Vallance, 1974), whilst, teachers provide individualized instruction and students move through the curriculum at their own pace.

Regarding the literature related to the curriculum orientations of preservice and inservice teachers, Ashour et al. (2012) argue that only a handful of studies were located. They further point out that although there is general realization that different curriculum orientations exist within the educational system, with the exception of the United States, Hong Kong, and South Korea, the extent to which teachers hold curriculum orientations is not well documented in many parts of the world. If educators want to improve teaching and learning in the school system, research on teachers' curriculum orientations is essential (Cheung & Wong, 2002). As for the importance of considering preservice teachers' curriculum orientations, this dissertation agrees with the views of previous research (Ashour et al., 2012)- it is derived from the fact that they are regarded as change agents because of their updated knowledge that they have recently acquired.

2.1.2 Curriculum development

Curriculum development is a generic term which includes policy, design, implementation, technology, supervision, and evaluation (Pinar, Reynolds, & Slattery, 1995). Pinar et al. (1995) borrowing viewpoint form Decker Walker (1979), say that:

> the one term "curriculum development" covers at least three distinguishable enterprises: *curriculum policymaking*, the establishment of limits, criteria, guidelines, and the like with curricula must comply, without developing actual

> plans and material for use by students and teachers; *generic curriculum development*, the preparation of curriculum plans and material for use potentially by any students or teachers of a given description; and *site-specific curriculum development*, the many measures taken in a particular school or district to bring about curriculum change there. (Walker, 1979, as cited in Pinar et al., 1995. p. 665)

It is clear that three areas on curriculum development is identified by Walker identified: curriculum policy, curriculum planning and design (generic curriculum development), and curriculum implementation (site specific curriculum development). Although some scholars attend to curriculum development generally, as Pinar et al. (1995) indicate, this concept has declined in significance to the field. van den Akker (2010) argues that curriculum development at the supra and macro levels is usually of a "generic" nature, while "site-specific" approaches are more applicable for the levels closer to school and classroom practice. In this dissertation, the attention is focused on site specific curriculum development which refers to micro level of classroom practice rather than curriculum policy or generic curriculum development.

In the research on curriculum implementation- Walker's third areas on curriculum development, Snyder, Bolin, and Zumwalt (1992) list three major approaches.

The fidelity approach confines curriculum to "a course of study, a textbook series, a guide [and] a set of teacher plans" (Snyder et al., 1992, p. 427), and reflects Tyler's (1949) classical model that specified objectives, content, and means of achieving and assessing pre-determined learning outcomes. This involves implications for curriculum-knowledge, curriculum-change, and the teacher's role. External experts define curriculum knowledge by determining what teachers should teach. Curriculum change follows a top-down strategy of materials development and diffusion (Kelly, 2004). Teachers are transmitters who follow classical humanism aimed at delivering static information, continuity between the past and present, and simplistic standards of achievement (Clark, 1987). In other words, teachers transmit

textbook content as its structure dictates by means of linear unit-by-unit, lesson-by-lesson and page-by-page strategies. This approach "promotes neither the interaction between prior and new knowledge nor the conversations that are necessary for internalization and deep understanding" (Richardson, 1997, p. 3).

The mutual-adaptation approach is a "process whereby adjustments in a curriculum are made by curriculum developers and those who use it in the school or classroom context" (Snyder et al., 1992, p. 410), and matches Cohen and Ball's (1999, p. 2) notion of instructional capacity which results from "the interactions among teachers and students around curriculum materials". This involves conversations between teachers and external developers for introducing adaptations necessary to match curriculum to local contexts. Teachers develop the official curriculum (intended curriculum) through their use and development of curriculum materials, termed as curriculum-in-use (Munby, 1990) and enacted curriculum (Doyle, 1992). Thus, the teacher's role has also become active through adjusting curriculum to match his/her classroom context. The adaptation approach has stimulated interactions between teachers, students and curriculum. Whether is it called teacher curriculum development (Ben-Peretz, 1990), teacher instructional capacity (Cohen & Ball, 1999) or the experienced curriculum (Doyle, 1992), using this approach enfranchises teachers to shape curriculum according to their contexts.

The enactment approach sets curriculum as a process "jointly created and jointly and individually experienced by students and teacher" (Snyder et al., 1992, p. 428). Curriculum-knowledge is no longer a product, but ongoing constructions out of "the enacted experiences. [that] students and teacher create" (ibid., 1992, p. 410). External knowledge is "viewed as a resource for teachers who create curriculum as they engage in the ongoing process of teaching and learning in the classroom." The teacher's role ranges from using, adapting and supplementing external curriculum to curriculum development and making (Craig, 2006). As a result, curriculum enactment reflects the strengths of progressivism, by addressing learners' needs, interests and personal growth (Skilbeck, 1982). Moreover, it provides a forum where teacher professional development and curriculum development have become interdependent

(Shawer, Gilmore, & Banks-Joseph, 2008). The enactment approach reflects social constructivism (Wells, 1999), for involving active learning, social and sequential construction of more complex cognitive schemas, and student interests and needs (Richardson, 1997).

Shawer (2010) argues that teachers' tendency to follow the fidelity, adaptation or enactment approach depends on how they use curriculum materials. It seems that teachers' competence to use of curriculum material is an important factor of site specific curriculum development. It provides an important foundation for the present study.

Micro level curriculum development

Curriculum development as a process may occur in various areas of the curriculum, ranging from national and regional levels to schools and classrooms. High-quality curriculum development strives for internal consistency with regard to curricular components and levels, as well as harmony among different forms of curricula (intended through attained) (McKenny et al., 2006).

Teachers are ethically obliged to do whatever is best for their students, incorporating conditions of specialized knowledge, responsibility for student welfare, autonomous performance and collective self-regulation. So that at the micro level, teachers can and should become involved in the process of curriculum development allowing individual pupils' needs to be met and promoting continuous improvement in practice, function as "user-developers" (Connelly, 1972) and "grass-root developers" (Ben-Peretz, 1980), etc. rather than just complying with imposed standards (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). As Kirk and Macdonald (2001) claim, "teachers' authoritative voice is rooted in the local context of implementation ..." (p. 565) which means that teachers' contributions are particularly important in respect of the local context, namely, the classroom or school.

The scope and nature of teacher involvement with curriculum development will understandably vary from one curriculum area to the next, such as the classroom teacher probably focuses mainly on the micro curriculum (Carl, 2005). In addition,

the context (educational system, department of education, school system) often determines which of these interpretations or tendencies triumphs. Aspects such as leadership and the centralisation or decentralisation of an educational system, that allows input and participation, may determine or influence the nature and degree of participation (Carl, 2005). It is important to note that this study focuses on what competence is need by teachers to participate in the process of curriculum development rather than what degree or what level of their participation.

In the light of Shawer's (2003) point of view, the adaptation approach and the enactment approach are considered two forms of classroom-level curriculum development, namely, micro level curriculum development.

First, the adaptation approach leads teachers to become curriculum-developers who use various sources in addition to curriculum materials through curriculum adjustments. Teachers adapt existing materials and topics, add new topics, leave out irrelevant elements, use flexible lesson plans, respond to student differences and use various teaching techniques. Through "the interaction between teachers and learners around curriculum materials" (Cohen & Ball, 1999, p. 2) form an arena where teachers develop curriculum- teachers turn curriculum from the institutional into the pedagogical level (experienced/enacted curriculum) (Doyle, 1992). As Ben-Peretz (1990) and Remillard (1999) claim that curriculum experts translate skills, knowledge, concepts and values into curriculum materials, whilst, teachers develop the second version by using curriculum materials.

Second, the enactment approach which leads teacher's role ranging from using, adapting and supplementing external curriculum to curriculum-making represents another form of classroom-level curriculum development (Shawer, 2003). The teachers have become curriculum-makers who assess pupils' needs to derive curriculum themes, use strategies of curriculum-planning, curriculum-design, material-writing and curriculum-free topics. In addition, they improvise and develop and use their pedagogic techniques.

Classroom-level curriculum development reflects constructivist principles of active learning, interaction between thought and experience, sequential construction

of more complex cognitive schemas and student experiences, understanding, interests and needs (Piaget, 1955; Vygotsky, 1978). It could improve student learning and motivation in language learning, and lead teachers to address curriculum weaknesses and students' needs (Shawer, Gilmore, & Banks-Joseph, 2008). This dissertation adopts the views of Shawer (2003) to highlight classroom-level curriculum development.

The cardinal element of classroom-level curriculum development, curriculum materials including lesson plans, teacher guides, textbooks, worksheets, etc., play a vital role in how new ideas about teaching and learning find life or fail in classrooms (Brown, 2002). Researchers in recent years have increasingly begun to examine the ways that teachers plan, use, adapt, and learn from curriculum materials (e.g., Remillard, 2000) which grounded in the assumption that teachers actively engage with curriculum materials (e.g., Remillard, 2005) to understand the complicated relationship between curriculum materials and instructional practice. Much of this work has focused on a key question posed by Ball and Cohen (1996): "What is- or might be- the role of curriculum materials in teacher learning and instructional reform?" In fact, some teachers make productive changes to curriculum materials that support and enhance the intent of the materials while other teachers' selection and enactment of materials can and do vary in ways that can limit their efficacy (McNeill & Pimentel, 2010), even to fit their classroom contexts, may diverge from developers' intentions for materials (McNeill, 2009). It demonstrates that teachers' use of curriculum materials play a central role in guiding teachers' practice (Remillard, 2005), especially for newer teachers (Grossman & Thompson, 2004). A body of research has emerged focused on preservice elementary teachers' use of and learning from science curriculum materials (e.g., Beyer & Davis, 2012; Forbes & Davis, 2010). Forbes and Davis (2010) state that this is an important strand of research that helps science teacher educators and science curriculum developers better understand the needs of preservice elementary teachers (Forbes & Davis, 2010), as well as, it is also helpful for the general teacher education to support student teachers developing competence to use of curriculum materials. They further argue that more research is

needed to maximize these learning experiences from curriculum materials for preservice teacher preparation. In this regard, student teachers' competence to use of curriculum materials is emphasised in this dissertation, during the process of implementing a curriculum at the classroom level, namely, micro level curriculum development.

In sum, the term ***curriculum development*** in this dissertation is used to refer to classroom-level curriculum development, namely, adaptation and enactment approaches to curriculum implementation (Shawer, 2003). ***Curriculum materials*** refer to the pedagogical input that comprises lesson plans, teacher guides, textbooks, worksheets, etc.

2.2 Teacher Competence

The concept of competence or competency dominated the management strategy literature of the 1990s, which emphasized "core competence" as a key organizational resource that could be exploited to gain competitive advantage (e.g., Campbell & Sommers Luchs, 1997). "Competence" generally refers to functional areas as well as "competency" to behavioural areas but usage is inconsistent (Delamare-Le Deist & Winterton, 2005).

According to Caena's (2011) review of relevant literature, the definition of competence should be viewed as a holistic concept- the dynamic combination of knowledge, understanding and skills, as shown by the following relevant examples:

- the ability to meet complex demands, by drawing on and mobilising psychosocial resources in context- i.e. a complex action system encompassing knowledge (also tacit); cognitive and practical skills; attitudes such as motivation, value orientations, emotions (Rychen & Salganik, 2003);
- the combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and personal characteristics, empowering the teacher to act professionally and appropriately in a situation, deploying them in a coherent way (Koster & Dengerink, 2008).

- a shared definition of teacher skills and knowledge, as a framework to guide teacher education and professional development along the teacher's career, has been connected to clear objectives for student learning and a shared understanding of accomplished teaching (Caena, 2011).

EU priorities for improving Teacher Quality and Teacher Education, as defined in the Conclusions of the Education Councils of November 2007, 2008 and 2009, recall the need to improve teacher competencies, as well as to promote professional values and attitudes, mentioning as examples the following teacher requirements (Council of the European Union, 2007, 2008, 2009):

- a specialist knowledge of subjects;
- pedagogical skills, comprising the following: teach heterogeneous classes; use ICT; teach transversal competences; create safe attractive schools;
- cultures/ attitudes of reflective practice, research, innovation, collaboration, autonomous learning.

By representatives of Czech and Slovak pedagogy, Chudý, Kašpárková and Řeháčková (2011, p. 37) conclude, competences as a pivotal concept are characterised as a collection of vocational skills (Průcha, 2001), the readiness to perform the demands of one's profession (Slavik, 1993), vocational qualities of a teacher (Vašutova, 2001), a complex ability or capability for successful performance of the profession (Spilkova, 2004), and a total of capabilities for effective teaching and education and for the refinement of the pedagogical occupation (Švec, 1999).

In reviewing the literature related to the teacher competence, there is terminology confusion and debate, for example the inconsistent usage of terms as teaching competences, pedagogical competence, teacher capacities, etc. As a general premise, it could be useful to distinguish the relevant terms.

Teaching competences can be described as focused on the role of the teacher in action in the classroom, therefore directly linked with the craft of teaching (Hagger & McIntyre, 2006), by contrast, teacher competence, which imply a wider view of teacher professionalism, can be said to consider the multi-faceted roles of the teacher on multiple levels - of the individual, of the school, of the local community, of

professional networks (Caena, 2011).

Czech pedeutologist J. Průcha (2006, p. 306, as cited in Osuch, 2011, p. 68) defines teacher's competences as "a set of professional skills, knowledge, values and approaches which every teacher should possess in order to perform their job effectively". He further indicates the following elements of teacher's competences: "(1) planning and preparing a lesson (aims of a lesson), (2) performing the lesson, (3) managing the lesson (keeping students' active involvement strong), (4) the atmosphere during the lesson (creating positive approaches among students and motivating them to participate in a lesson), (5) discipline (keeping order during the lesson), (6) assessment of students' achievements (assessment of achievements mainly in order to help students in their personal development), and (7) reflection on teachers' own work and evaluation" (ibid., p. 68). It seems that Průcha's views of teachers' competences can be seen as teaching competences.

Helus (2001, as cited in Tichá & Hošpesová, 2013, p. 134) formulated four basic teacher competences, which form the basis of a teacher's self-confidence:

- Pedagogical competence consisting of (a) creating conditions for development of students' prerequisites by effective organization of educational influences, by motivating students' own educational activities and by exploiting their potential; (b) removing mental blocks and barriers; (c) mastering diagnostic operations; (d) getting an insight and empathy; and (e) designing procedures for effective pedagogical intervention.
- Subject-didactic competence consisting of a skilled orientation towards the educational meaning of teaching a specific subject, and putting this into action in relation to specific students. This competence encompasses mastering the scientific basis of the subject and its teaching, as well as didactic creativity.
- Pedagogical-organizational competence consisting of a skilled orientation of controlling the relations and activities in the classroom aimed at creating an effective educational environment, together with a supportive and stimulating climate.

- Competence in qualified pedagogical (self-) reflection with an emphasis on the analysis of the teacher's own thinking and dealing with students in a way suitable to their ability to plan their own lifelong education.

Liakopoulou (2011) argues that teachers' complex and ever-changing role does not allow for a clear-cut definition of pedagogical competence. The basic prerequisite is the sum of the criteria used to "measure" pedagogical competence as defined at any given time and assess "professional knowledge" as a whole. Subject didactic competence consists of skilled orientation towards the educational meaning of the teaching of a specific subject, mastering the scientific basis of teaching of the subject, as well as didactical creativity. It's believed that the concept of subject didactic competence connects several aspects of a teacher's work and pinpoints its complexity. With respect to the tradition of European didactics, this concept is widely used as the concept of a knowledge base for teaching (Shulman, 1986).

The term "teacher capacities" is used sometimes as a synonym of teacher competences (Caena, 2011). International scholarly recent consensus seems to converge on the definition of competences- also defined as capacities- as basic requirements for teaching reflects increasing academic and policy interest, which articulated in knowledge, craft skills and dispositions (Feiman-Nemser, 2001), focuses attention on the social responsibilities of teachers. Dispositions include beliefs, attitudes, values and commitment, focused on action. Therefore, the research of it turns out to be more challenging to define, as the elusive nature of the criteria for defining and assessing the presence of dispositions and attitudes for teaching, or the best strategies for promoting their development in initial teacher education.

Generally, the term competence is increasingly used in a comprehensive way. And the definition focuses on the potentialities of continuous development and achievement (Caena, 2011). In this dissertation, the term ***competence*** is used to highlight the comprehensive, dynamic and conative perspectives, representing an integration of knowledge and skills acquired through college/university based teacher programmes (Moreno, 2005), and indicating what student teachers know and can do (ibid., 2005, p. 146) rather than what knowledge they have. Besides, the researcher

agrees with the views of previous research (Gills, Clement, Laga, & Pauwels, 2008, p.539) in that "from a developmental perspective, the competence is not divided into knowledge, skills and attitudes".

Brown's construct of teacher competence: pedagogical design capacity

Pedagogical design capacity is one of the relevant concepts in this dissertation. It is constructed by Brown (2002), referring to a teacher's ability to employ personal resources as well as resources embedded in the materials themselves to make productive changes to curriculum materials (see figure 2.2).

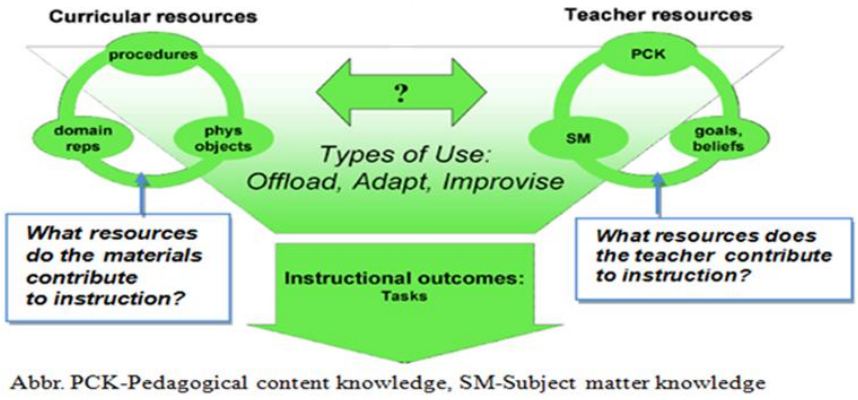

Figure 2.2 Framework of Pedagogical Design Capacity (Brown, 2002, p. 9)

Pedagogical design capacity stems from the idea that teaching is a design activity (Brown & Edelson, 2003). "Teachers must perceive and interpret existing resources, evaluate the constraints of the classroom setting, balance tradeoffs, and devise strategies - all in pursuit of their instructional goals. These are all characteristics of design." (Brown & Edelson, 2003, p. 1) Brown (2002) argues that teachers' use of materials can be characterized as design in that use hinges fundamentally on a process of perception, interpretation, and coordination of cognitive and physical affordances of the curricular resources- all in the process of crafting daily instruction. This process is rooted in a dynamic interaction between elements of the curriculum materials and teachers' knowledge, goals, and beliefs.

In brief, pedagogical design capacity describes the situated interactions that

characterize and influence the design of instruction, which suggests that teachers make constant decisions about how to use materials in the course of practice in light of classroom needs, curricular goals, and available resources. It embodies a teacher's ability in the process of perception and mobilization of both personal knowledge, skills, and commitments ("teacher resources") and external curriculum resources (Brown, 2002, p. 74). The current study draws inspiration from Brown's (2002) theoretical construct which emanates from a vision of teacher competence as not just as a function of the knowledge that teachers have, but as their ability to accomplish new things with that knowledge. It is obvious that this ability is reflected in the process of understanding and applying knowledge and skills.

2.2.1 Teacher knowledge

The terms teacher knowledge and teacher competence are closely interrelated. Due to "teacher competence" is crucial to understand the concept of this dissertation; to scrutinize relevant terms is important.

Conceptual and procedural knowledge

Research in learning and instruction claims a central role of *knowledge* (de Jong & Ferguson-Hessler, 1996). Among the examples encountered are general and domain specific knowledge, concrete and abstract knowledge, tacit and explicit knowledge, conceptual and procedural knowledge, etc. Within the context of teacher education, research shows that the lack of procedural knowledge may be a significant factor in teachers' difficulty in applying the professional knowledge gained in teacher education programmes to the practice of everyday teaching (Bartels, 2006). Research also shows that learning procedural knowledge along with professional knowledge would be most beneficial for preservice teachers, and that this can easily be done through teaching practicum that includes field experiences, role plays and video analyses (Crookes, 2003; Tsui, 2003).

According to A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy[1], the knowledge dimension

[1] The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives is a framework for classifying statements of what students

contains four main categories: factual knowledge, conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge, and metacognitive knowledge, in which procedural knowledge refers to the knowledge of "how to do something", including methods of inquiry and skills in the usage (see table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Structure of the Knowledge Dimension of the Revised Bloom's Taxonomy

A. Factual Knowledge - The basic elements that students must know to be acquainted with a discipline or solve problems in it.

Aa. Knowledge of terminology

Ab. Knowledge of specific details and elements

B. Conceptual Knowledge - The interrelationships among the basic elements within a larger structure that enable them to function together.

Ba. Knowledge of classifications and categories

Bb. Knowledge of principles and generalizations

Bc. Knowledge of theories, models, and structures

C. Procedural Knowledge - How to do something; methods of inquiry, and criteria for using skills, algorithms, techniques, and methods.

Ca. Knowledge of subject-specific skills and algorithms

Cb. Knowledge of subject-specific techniques and methods

Cc. Knowledge of criteria for determining when to use appropriate procedures

D. Metacognitive Knowledge - Knowledge of cognition in general as well as awareness and knowledge of one's own cognition.

Da. Strategic knowledge

Db. Knowledge about cognitive tasks, including appropriate contextual and conditional knowledge

Dc. Self-knowledge

Note: Cited from "A revision of Bloom's Taxonomy: An overview", by D. R. Krathwohl, 2002, *Theory Into Practice*, 41 (4), p. 214.

To better understand the terms *procedural knowledge* and *conceptual knowledge* is of the contrast of "knowing how" and "knowing that" (Ryle, 1949).

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are expected or intended to learn as a results of instruction. With the endeavour of B. S. Bloom and a group of measurement specialists, the final draft was published in 1956 under the title, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook I: Cognitive Domain* (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956). The revision of this framework was developed in much the same manner 45 years later, published in 2001 under the title, *A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: a revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives* (Anderson, Krathwohl, & Bloom, 2001) (Krathwohl, 2002).

The "know how" is *procedural knowledge*, that is, "know how to do it" knowledge. It is related to terms such as "process", "problem solving", etc., which in turn requires the integration of knowledge and skills, and the ability to apply them to solve problems. In other words, procedural knowledge contains actions or manipulations that are valid within a domain (de Jong & Ferguson-Hessler, 1996).

The "know that" as *Conceptual knowledge*, on the other hand, is concerned with relationships among "items" of knowledge, such that when students can identify these links we talk of them having "conceptual understanding" (McCormick, 1997). In addition, conceptual knowledge functions as additional information that problem solvers add to the problem and that they use to perform the solution (de Jong & Ferguson-Hessler, 1996).

The present study derives much of its inspiration from the knowledge categories of the revised of Bloom's Taxonomy, proposed by Anderson et al. (2001), to focus on the knowledge-in-use, that is, student teachers' procedural knowledge and conceptual knowledge which constitutes knowledge, skills and ability to action in practice.

Knowledge of teachers

The knowledge of teachers has become a focus of interest to educators and policy makers (Shulman, 1986), attracting the attention of scholars and being reflected in the education literature (Ben-Peretz, 2011). There is some variation in the way of teacher knowledge are described and delineated, as shown by the following examples:

- Teacher knowledge is "a body of professional knowledge that encompasses both knowledge of general pedagogical principles and skills and knowledge of the subject matter to be taught" (Grossman & Richert, 1988, p. 54).
- Professional knowledge refers to "that body of knowledge and skills which is needed in order to function successfully in a particular profession" (Tamir, 1991, p. 263). In the special case of the teaching profession, this knowledge is both general and personal-experiential.
- Personal practical knowledge "is a term designed to capture the idea of experience in a way that allows us to talk about teachers as knowledgeable and knowing

persons. Knowledge is not found only 'in the mind', it is 'in the body'. And it is seen and found 'in our practices'" (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988, p. 25).

In light of Ben-Peretz's (2011) study, teacher knowledge has been "expanded and broadened significantly", "from knowledge of subject matter, curriculum and pedagogical content knowledge, to include general themes like global issues and multiculturalism" (p. 8). For instance, Grossman and Richert's (1988) definition of teacher knowledge focuses on enabling teachers to fulfil their central role: teaching subject matter domains using appropriate pedagogical principles and skills. Connelly and Clandinin (1988) and Tamir (1991) suggest integrating professional, general, and personal idiosyncratic knowledge of teachers. The notion of teacher knowledge as related to instructional competencies in the classroom is expanded by Connelly, Clandinin and He (1997). Their focus is on teachers' personal-practical knowledge developing over time in different contexts. However, a growing focus on the personal aspects of knowledge as well as the role of context in shaping teacher knowledge has became the tendencies to study the development of teacher knowledge (Ben-Peretz, 2011, p. 9). It seems that the development of the concept of teacher knowledge is in line with Shulman's (1987) categories of teacher knowledge.

In the mid-1980s, a major breakthrough initiated a new wave of interest in the conceptualization of teacher content knowledge. Shulman (1986) argues that a distinctive form of teachers' professional knowledge, which he refers to as pedagogical content knowledge, exists and builds upon teachers' subject matter knowledge or knowledge of general principles of pedagogy. In Shulman's view, pedagogical content knowledge is a form of practical knowledge that is used by teachers to guide their actions in highly contextualized classroom settings. It entails, among other things: (a) knowledge of how to structure and represent academic content for direct teaching to students; (b) knowledge of the common conceptions, misconceptions, and difficulties that students encounter when learning particular content; and (c) knowledge of the specific teaching strategies that can be used to address students' learning needs in particular classroom circumstances.

Ball, Themes and Phelps (2008) claim that a central contribution of the work of Shulman and his colleagues was to reframe the study of teacher knowledge in ways that included direct attention to the role of content in teaching. On the other hand, a second contribution of the work was to leverage content knowledge as technical knowledge key to the establishment of teaching as a profession. Shulman and his colleagues argued that high quality instruction requires a sophisticated professional knowledge that goes beyond simple rules such as how long to wait for students to respond. To characterize professional knowledge for teaching, they developed typologies (table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Shulman's Major Categories of Teacher Knowledge

- **Content knowledge**
- **General pedagogical knowledge**, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter
- **Curriculum knowledge**, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as "tools of the trade" for teachers
- **Pedagogical content knowledge**, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding
- **Knowledge of learners and their characteristics**
- **Knowledge of educational contexts**, ranging from workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures
- **Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values**, and their philosophical and historical grounds

Note: Cited from "Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform" by L. S. Shulman, 1987, *Harvard Educational Review*, 57 (1), p. 8.

In accordance with the research by Edwards and Ogden (1998, p. 736), Shulman's categorization of teacher knowledge "focused on knowledge structures rather than knowledge construction." What teachers have to be able to do is "position learners in relation to the curriculum in ways that allow these teachers to provide learners with the contingent cognitive and affective support required to enable them to engage with the discourse of the subject in question. Subject knowledge is consequently not something to be merely applied in classrooms." (ibid., p. 737) They concentrate on subject matter knowledge for teaching- in Shulman's (1986) terms the connection between subject matter and curricular demands, rather than subject matter

knowledge itself, and identity that teacher subject matter knowledge as dynamic and evolving in relation to student tasks and learning.

Generally, teacher knowledge is closely connected to teacher's professional growth. As indicated by Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002, p. 955), teacher growth becomes a process of the construction of a variety of knowledge types (content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge) by individual teachers in response to their participation in the experiences provided by the professional development programme and through their participation in the classroom. Moreover, teacher education cannot be limited to the development of teachers' competencies in teaching subject matter domains which means that preservice teacher education programmes have to broaden their perspectives concerning the knowledge base of teachers (Holden & Hicks, 2007).

2.3 Teacher Learning and Development

How teachers learn and develop as professionals is a question that has compelled teacher educators and researchers for many years (Hammerness et al., 2005). The teacher learning and development literature has served to disseminate information on and ideas for improving teachers' and schools' performances (Evans, 2002).

2.3.1 Learning to teach

For teachers, learning occurs in many different aspects of teaching. Thus, it is usefully to understand teacher learning "as a process of increasing participation in the practice of teaching, and through this participation, a process of becoming knowledgeable in and about teaching" (Adler, 2000, p. 37).

In fact, teaching is complex work that looks deceptively (Grossman, Hammerness, & McDonald, 2009). "Real teaching happens within a wild triangle of relations- among teacher, students, subject- and the points of this triangle shift continuously" (McDonald, 1992, p. 1). Teachers must constantly cope with changing situations, learning needs, challenges, questions, and dilemmas. As a result, "learning to teach is a long-term, complex developmental process that operates through

participation in the social practices and contexts associated with learning and teaching" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 402).

In terms of learning to teach during preservice preparation, Hammerness et al. (2005) claim that learning to teach requires that student teachers come to think about (and understand) teaching in ways quite different from what they have learned from their own experience as students, as well as, helping student teachers learn to teach more effectively requires them not only to develop the ability to "think like a teacher" but also to put what they know into action. Moreover, learning to teach in ways that are responsive to the diverse strengths and needs of pupils, aligned with professional and community expectations (Bransford, Derry, Berliner, & Hammerness, 2005), and in alignment with prospective teachers' passion, value and love as educators, is an incredibly complex endeavour. So that helping student teachers learn to think systematically about the problem of complexity of teaching is extremely important (Hammerness et al., 2005). Furthermore, teachers inevitably do adapt curricula to fit their classroom context, thus, teachers' professional preparation should aim to guide student teachers' design of instruction and uses of curriculum materials (Davis & Varma, 2008). ***Student teachers*** terms such as *future teacher*, *preservice teacher* and *prospective teacher* are used as synonymous in this study, which refers to the individual who is a teacher candidate in a teacher education programme.

Ball and Forzani (2010) conclude three key domains of teachers' preparation: the content they will teach, the curriculum of practice essential for beginning teaching, and the approaches and settings best suited for effective professional learning. Regarding preservice English teacher preparation, Johnson (2009, p. 11) has proposed that its knowledge base inform three broad areas: (a) the content: What second language teachers (L2) need to know; (2) the pedagogies that are taught: How L2 teachers should teach; and (3) the institutional forms of delivery through which both the content and pedagogies are learned: How L2 teachers learn to teach. It is obvious that teachers must constantly integrate their knowledge of child development, of subject matter, of learning environment, of group interactions, of students' different cultures and backgrounds, and of their particular students' interests, needs, and

strengths together in a way that advances the learning of all their students, namely, application multiple kinds of knowledge in an integrated way. Therefore, helping student teachers learn about and reflect upon teaching, including its multidimensionality and simultaneity (Jackson, 1974), is no doubt important, as well as, it is no easy task (Hammerness et al., 2005).

Student teacher's preconceptions

Student teachers- students of teaching, unlike students of engineering or law or medicine, do not approach their professional education feeling unprepared (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). They have preconceptions that affect what they learn from teacher educators and in-classroom experiences. These preconceptions come from years of years of observing teachers who taught them since they were primary students, as well as, these preconceptions are used for them to draw inferences about what good teaching looks like and what makes it work (Hammerness et al., 2005).

Lortie (1975) uses the term "apprenticeship of observation" to refer to the processes that student teachers develop their conceptions of teaching in terms of their own experiences as students over the years in classroom settings. Kantorková (1993, cite in Píšová, 2005, p. 177) argues that apprenticeship of observation may lead to student teachers' naive identification to the rejection in teaching, such as "I would never do that". Hammerness et al. (2005) claim that these experiences have a major effect on preconceptions about teaching and learning that student teachers bring to the task of becoming professionals, like a double-edged sword. On the one hand, student teachers have had a great deal of experience in classrooms, and many draw inspiration from outstanding teachers who taught them, but on the other hand, these experiences can result in serious misconceptions about teaching (Lortie, 1975).

One of misconceptions, indicated by Lortie (1975), is the widespread idea that teaching is easy. Many student teachers hold this preconception, regarding teaching is only about "transmission" and learning is the simple and rather mechanistic "transfer of information" from texts and teachers to students who acquire it through listening, reading, and memorization (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1986). In fact, students

observe the superficial trappings of teaching rather than the underlying knowledge, skills, planning, and decision making. What they do is "is intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical; it is based on individual personalities rather than pedagogical principles" (Lortie, 1975, p. 62). In other words, they just imitate the most easily observed aspects of teaching. Student does not result in the acquisition of professional knowledge, that is, knowledge that allows the selection and implementation of different strategies that will support learning for different purposes and different students. Moreover, student teachers often already have clear beliefs associated with concepts such as group learning, assessment, and diversity, and therefore tend to assimilate what is being taught to their preexisting schemas. The additional preconceptions can make learning difficult (Kennedy, 1999) and mislead student teachers into thinking that they know more about teaching than they actually do and make it harder for them to form new ideas and new habits of thought and action, as many of preconceptions consist of unexamined assumptions that need to be made explicit and explored (Richardson & Placier, 2001). Richardson and Placier (2001) note that many preconceptions in teacher education are hard to change and require interventions that are time-consuming and difficult. But if these preconceptions are not addressed, student teachers may retain problematic beliefs throughout their programmes.

Widden, Mayer-Smith and Moon (1998) conclude that student teachers are not an undifferentiated group and instead, hold a variety of images of and understandings about teaching and learning. And these entering beliefs are more nuanced- and extend across a wider range of possibilities- than many people had imagined. Besides, a great deal of research establishes that individuals process and understand new information (correctly or incorrectly) in light of their experiences and prior knowledge and beliefs, and that they will often fail to remember, understand, or apply ideas that have no connections to their experience and no context for acquiring meaning (Hammerness et al., 2005). Therefore, it is important to address student teachers' preconceptions during teacher education. Consequently, investigations of student teachers understanding of their own knowledge can provide insights into the complex

challenges that student teachers navigate as they prepare to enter the field. Furthermore, as indicated by previous research (Fuller & Bown, 1975), helping student teachers identify, become aware of, and confront their needs and problems caused by their preconceptions, as well as providing resources to help them remedy their problems accordingly, could help reduce a discrepancy between desired goals and actual experiences. This, ultimately, can inform approaches to teacher preparation and professional development.

2.3.2 Teacher developmental progression

There has been a long tradition of research aimed at teachers' professional development in educational and social contexts conducted continuously by both international and Czech research community (Svatoš, 2013). As well as a number of stage theories have been advanced to describe teachers' development (Fuller, 1969; Berliner, 1994; Richardson & Placier, 2001).

In accordance with Fuller and Bown's (1975) research, student teachers are often thought to progress through the following three primary stages of development: being concerned with themselves and how to survive as teachers; being concerned with the teaching situation; and finally having concerns that pertain more to student learning (Fuller & Bown, 1975). The last stage is often realised after student teachers having finished their teacher education. In light of the views of Feiman-Nemser (2001), a teacher's professional learning continuum from initial preparation through the early years of teaching includes three phases: preservice preparation, new teacher induction, and early professional development. He deems that "preservice preparation is a time to begin forming habits and skills necessary for the ongoing study of teaching in the company of colleagues" (ibid., p. 1019), "if preservice preparation has been successful, beginning teachers will have a compelling vision of good teaching and a beginning repertoire of approaches to curriculum, instruction, and assessment consistent with that vision (ibid., p. 1029). Berliner (1994) has proposed that teachers develop expertise through a set of stages- from novice to advanced beginner, competent, proficient, and ultimately to expert. Teachers progress as time goes by,

from learning the basic elements of the task to be performed and accumulating knowledge about learning, teaching, and students to making conscious decisions about what they are going to do, reflecting on what is working based on their experience, and, ultimately, at the expert level, sensing the appropriate responses to be made in any given situation.

Within the context of the Czech Republic, Spilková et al. (2004, as cited in Spilková, 2011, pp. 120-121) differentiate between three basic stages in the development of the teacher's (student teacher's) conception of teaching: (a) preconception. A student teacher enters a faculty of education with a clear-cut preconception of teaching at different levels which is influenced by the styles of schooling and conceptions of teaching he experienced at primary and secondary school; (b) a crystallising early conception of teaching - the basis of an individual conception of teaching, which is developed by contact with school reality, by first experiences in the role of teacher and by acquiring theoretical pedagogical and psychological knowledge. However, individual preconceptions of teaching interfere in this process to some degree. The conception is gradually refined and stabilised; and (c) a refined, rational, explicit concept of teaching on the part of the teacher (student teacher) that is informed by theory and created through systematic self-reflection and theoretical reflection on practical experience. Píšová (2005, as cited in Svatoš, 2013, p. 801) deems the genesis of a person in the role of a student teacher differently and identifies three phases of student teachers' professional development: initial phase (constituted by theoretical pedagogical and psychological support, observations and teaching attempts), implementation phase (the centre of the model – the clinical year) and reflective phase (where the development can be sped up by a reflective didactic seminar). Svatoš (2013) argues that beginning student teachers should be in the centre of researchers' attention, and proposes a model of professional developments stages, including: (a) adaptation stage: beginning student teachers; (b) first redefinition stage: student teacher redefining his/her social personality role; (c) second redefinition: student teacher redefining his/her didactic and reflective role; and (d) competence stage: a graduate.

In sum, the process of teacher development is full of impalpable changes; stage theories have been useful in describing the trajectory of teacher development (Hammerness et al., 2005). As well as, it can inform teacher education if the programmes are designed to meet preservice teachers' needs according to a trajectory of professional development (Fuller & Bown, 1975). In an extensive review of research on teacher development in the Czech context, Svatoš (2013) concludes that two stages of teachers' professional development- novice and expert are stands in the centre of interest. Apart from that, there is little research carried out into other stages, especially preservice professional development have been rarely tackled, including at the very beginning as well as the pathway from a beginning student teacher to a competent teacher. However, "no matter what initial preparation they receive, teachers are never fully prepared for classroom realities and for responsibilities associated with meeting the needs of a rapidly growing increasingly diverse student population" (Bartell, 1995, pp. 28-29), preservice preparation is a time to begin forming student teachers' habits and skills necessary for the ongoing practice (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). And research into preservice preparation may aim at distinguishing identifiers of impalpable changes of student teachers' development and, subsequently, those identifiers can serve as a basis for much-needed interventions (Štech, 1995, as cited in Svatoš, 2013, p. 788), such as the interventions of student teachers' preconceptions.

2.4 Framework of Student Teacher's Competence in Curriculum Development

This dissertation is related to the preparation of English teachers in lower secondary schools. There is an underlying question, that is, what constitutes student teachers' competence in curriculum development. To answer this question, clarification of what is curriculum and what is meant by curriculum development is crucial. Moreover, understanding the nature of teacher involvement in curriculum development is critical to examining what knowledge and skills are needed by teacher as a creator of

curriculum. While teachers involve in the process of curriculum development, their function as "user-developers" (Connelly, 1972), "grass-root developers" (Ben-Peretz, 1980), curriculum makers, or curriculum transmitters depends on how they use of curriculum materials (Shawer, 2010). In other words, teachers' competence to analyze, design and use of curriculum materials is an important part of their competence in curriculum development. I do not claim that this is an exhaustive list, but rather a reasoned starting point for my study. On the other hand, selected insights from preservice teacher preparation are seen as underlying constructs for the study. The above sections in this chapter is organized in line with it, helping to consider the complexity of the concept of this dissertation, as well as, highlighting the elements and structure of the concept in order to build the theoretical model (see figure 2.3 on the next page).

As it shown in the figure, ***student teacher's competence in curriculum development*** in this framework is a construct which includes student teacher's competence to deal with curriculum materials as well as his/her competence to implement a curriculum during the process of teaching, representing an integration of knowledge and skills acquired through college/university based teacher programmes. In other words, this competence as a series of capabilities is expressed during the practice. In fact, teacher's use of curriculum materials and implementation of a curriculum are interactive activities in the process of his/her daily practice in the particular context. The approaches of teachers to implement a curriculum depend on how they use curriculum materials (Shawer, 2010).

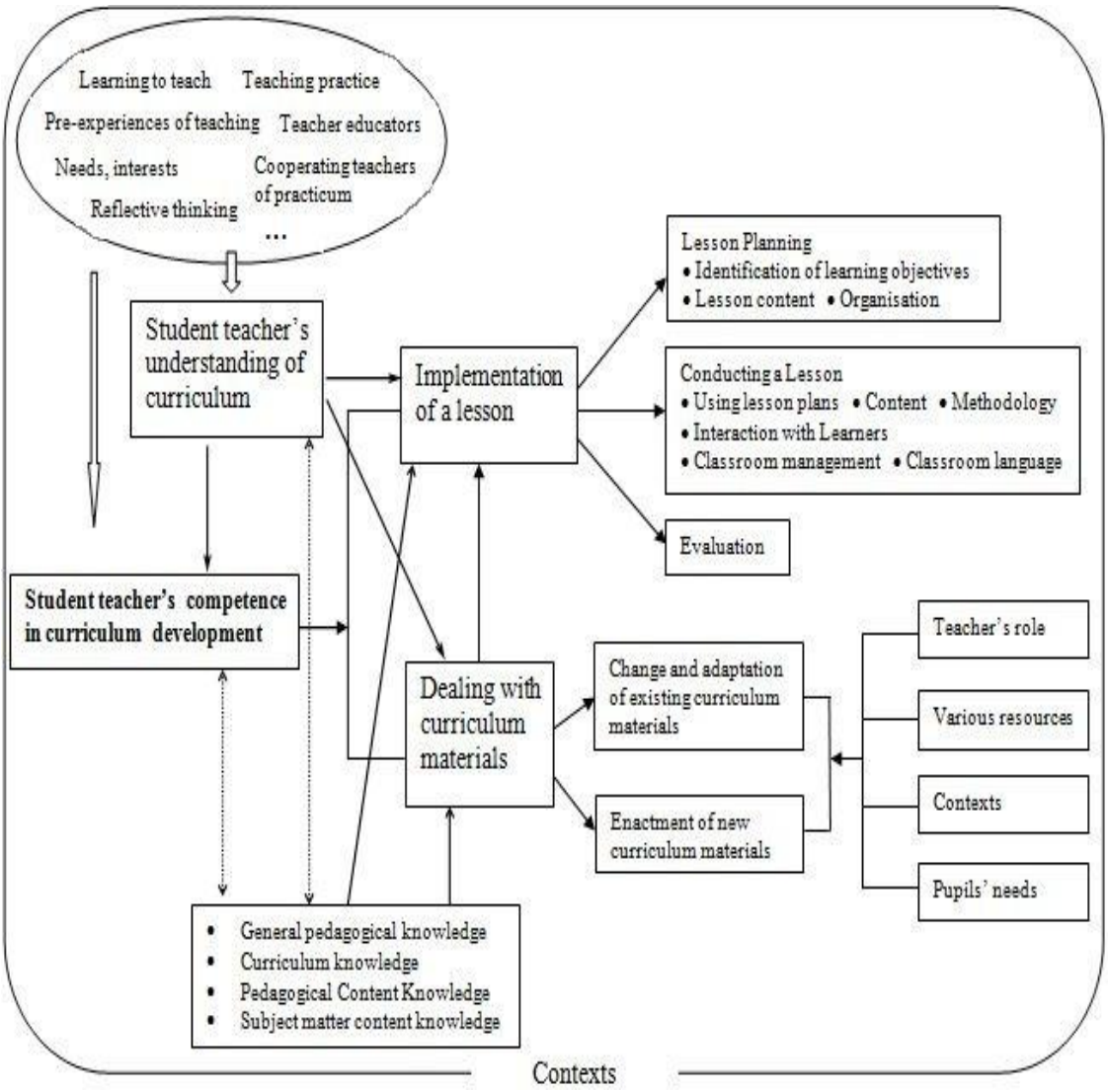

Figure 2.3 Framework of Student Teacher's Competence in Curriculum Development

The use of curriculum materials involves the practices including the reduction, addition or adaptation of existing materials and enactment of new materials. Teachers use curriculum materials as a guide in their planning, critiquing and adapting based on their specific pupils' needs, contextual circumstances, and local goals and standards (Brown, 2009) as well as their perception of various resources and teacher's role. For language teachers, besides teaching subjects, they have a number of roles to play, including promoting the value of language learning to pupils (Newby et al., 2007).

Concerning implementation of a curriculum is a continuous activity. For the student teacher the most important is to know why he/she makes a decision on which material to bring into the classroom and which activities to choose (Newby et al.,

2007, p.33). The decision is dependent on curriculum requirements and on specific groups of pupils. In addition, student teachers need to know how to transform aspects of the curriculum into transparent aims and objectives which can be understood by the pupils as well as need to take into account individuals' characteristics and their prior learning to sequence activities in a coherent yet flexible way in class (Newby et al., 2007). Moreover, in primary and secondary classroom, teachers are faced with issues that render the control of classroom challenging every day. Within the context of foreign language teaching and learning, it would be an error to over-generalize foreign language teachers' challenges with classroom management in an effort to introduce possible solutions without first considering the uniqueness of this particular teaching and learning environment (Evans, 2012). One of the distinctive characteristics of language teaching and learning is the teaching methodology which focuses on how teachers can deal with the four main skills of speaking, writing, listening and reading and support aspects of language learning, such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and written and oral communication (Borg, 2006). Furthermore, evaluation is one of core tasks of teachers by its very nature. Only if teachers are able precisely to diagnose the pupils' learning process and adjust their teaching methods to the results of the assessments with a specific effort to consider the pupils' heterogeneity, instruction leads to higher student achievement. In sum, implementation of a lesson is a complex process comprised by lesson planning, conducting a lesson to evaluation. van den Akker's curriculum spiderweb model (2003) is helpful in the present study to figure out the components of this process.

Student teacher's understanding of curriculum, namely, curriculum orientation, as discussed in section 2.1.1, may impact his/her comprehension of the curriculum intent (aims, goals and learning objectives), content, teaching strategies and instructional assessment (Cheung &Wong, 2002). It has influence on what is taught and how and why it is taught (Eisner, 2002). That is to say, it influences the process of student teacher's use of curriculum materials and implementation of a curriculum.

Moreover, student teacher's competence in curriculum development is not a static, but rather a continuous and changing formation, integrating general

pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, subject knowledge and curriculum knowledge. It evolves over time and across contexts along the teacher professional continuum (Feiman-Nemser, 2001), for example, student teaching experiences, student teachers' teacher identities, learning to teach, reflective thinking, the impact of teacher educators and cooperating teachers of practicum, etc. Also, it could be seen as the conceptual knowledge and procedural knowledge which student teachers gained along with the learning of professional knowledge. As such, student teachers need to be supported to begin developing this competence in order to insure that they enter teaching as "well-started beginners" who are prepared to use curriculum materials with the steps needs to be done at a general level in order that they can be applied in a wide range of particular circumstances rather than heavily depend on curriculum materials to guide their teaching in the one hand, and on the other hand to know how to correctly specify the content, aims, timetable, curricular topic, evaluation, etc.

Student teachers, as discussed in section 2.3, unlike students of engineering or law or medicine, they do not approach their professional education feeling unprepared (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Take the beginning student teachers as an example, however they do not acquire the professional education, they hold preconceptions entering their studies. These preexisting knowledge and pre-understanding formed during their personal histories such as elementary and secondary education experiences serve as prior knowledge and filter information (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1986) to provide a basis for interpreting and assessing ideas and practices they encountered during preservice teacher preparation. In other words, student teachers tend to assimilate what is being taught to their preexisting schemas. However, this can make it very difficult to develop deeper, more nuanced understandings of the concepts (Hammerness et al., 2005). In sum, for the beginner student teacher, his/her competence in curriculum development is pre-knowledge, integrating the preconceptions of subject matter, of grouping learning, of their particular students' interests and needs, of classroom events, and of their comprehension of curriculum, etc. These pre-knowledge and preconceptions serve as a starting point for student

teachers' professional competence development. As previous research (Zhan, 2008) indicates, failure to recognise the impact of student teachers' prior knowledge inevitably leads to an unsuccessful programme. It is a challenging task to help student teachers progressively differentiate their understanding rather than simply assimilate new information to preexisting ideas (Hammerness et al., 2005).

2.5 Summary

This chapter has focused on the literature review of basic concepts and issues related to curriculum and curriculum development, teacher competence and teacher knowledge, as well as teacher learning and development during preservice preparation in order to construct the framework to understand the core concept of this study, namely, student teacher's competence in curriculum development. The basic framework for this research has to draw on curriculum theories and studies from general education which has a long tradition of curriculum practice and research. The review of teacher competence, teacher knowledge, and student teacher learning and development is from the perspectives of the general teacher education and L2 teacher education. And the review of curriculum development relevant to the present study helped to inspire the researcher in the clarification of research questions and in the design of research instruments.

3 Background for the Study

This chapter introduces the background part of this dissertation, which includes both the context and methodology of the study.

First, this dissertation is a comparative study related to preservice teacher preparation between the Czech Republic and China. Previous research (Schmidt et al., 2007, p. 12) indicates that analyzing teacher education for international comparisons is a particular challenge, as differences in the structure of training makes acquiring comparable data complicated. Therefore, the general background of this comparative study including background of the study and Czech and Chinese preservice teacher education are introduced to provide basic information about the discrepancies. In addition, since this dissertation deals with the preparation of lower secondary school English teachers, selected issues related to preservice English teacher preparation in both countries are outlined.

Second, methodology of this study is introduced. After then, research resign, sampling strategy, and the context of data collection are presented.

The Czech Republic underwent transition in 1989, from a totalitarian political system and centrally planned, state-owned economy to democratic governance respecting human rights, the restoration of private ownership and a market economy (Greger & Walterová, 2007). These changes affected the education sector which was under exclusive central control (Greger & Walterová, 2007). At present, the Czech schools have entered the idea of autonomy in legal, economic and educational area (Kratochvílová & Havel, 2012). Changes have been enshrined in many legislative documents, in particular through a main document – *the Education Act* (ACT No. 561/2004). Educational autonomy was supported by the statutory definition of the so-called two-level curriculum (Kratochvílová & Havel, 2012). The national level in the curricular documents system comprises the National Education Programme (NEP) and Framework Educational Programmes (FEPs). The NEP defines initial education as a whole. The FEPs define binding educational norms across various stages:

pre-school education, basic education and secondary education (FEP BE, 2007). In other words, at the national level the curricular framework is defined, which is compulsory and also the starting point for the development of school curricula according to schools' current conditions, visions and objectives as well as specific needs of the local community by individual schools (Straková, Simonová, & Polechová, 2011; Kratochvílová & Havel, 2012).

Since Czech curricular programmes have been implemented in compulsory school education in the school year 2007/8, which means schools have begun to work according to their school curricula, the growth in the pedagogical autonomy of schools has brought increased demands on teachers' professionalism who has become the creators of school curriculum (Pišová & Kostková, 2011). For a successful adaption of school curricula to specific conditions in their school education programmes, the organizational and practical considerations associated with curriculum development need to be taken into account. Curricular development, however, may be too hefty a burden for some educational professionals (Green, 2008). In the Annual Report for the school year 2010/2011, the Czech School Inspectorate (2011, p. 47) states that schools have problems with the development of curricula as they do not correctly specify the content, timetable and organisational definitions of the subject matter of their curricula or cross curricular topics (by making themes and activities more concrete). Lack of teaching aids and further necessary training to take on this new responsibility can often be seen (Green, 2008).

The success of curriculum reforms is essentially on the shoulders of teachers, as they are the ones who put reform ideas into practice (Fullan, 2001). In the context of the Czech Republic, the urgent of the need is further strengthened by the ongoing curricular reform, which represents a crucial turning point in the conception of education, the functions and key objectives of school, quality teaching and teaching strategies, and thus it has posed new demands on teachers and on new professionalism of teachers (Pišová & Kostková, 2011; Spilková, 2011). However, it is a major challenge and a crucial task for teacher education to prepare teachers for various possible scenarios and equip them with skills, knowledge, and attitudes so that they

would be able to meet new demands of the profession (Píšová, 2006), namely, the creators of school curriculum. Svatoš (2013) claims that studies on student teachers and the transformation of students of teaching into teachers in the Czech context are few and far between, both the theory and practice of teacher education, of much needed in-depth research, in particular with the expanded need for competent English teachers and their preparation.

Education is universally expected to play a pivotal role in human and social development and China is no exception. Since China initiated its modernization programme in the late 1970s, prioritizing education becomes a major policy which means that education has been accorded paramount importance. As a consequence, China's primary and secondary education has recently witnessed a far-reaching nation-wide reform. This occurred specifically in China when the society entered the knowledge and information age of the 21st century. Chinese policy-makers, as well as curriculum-planners, are increasingly aware that world developments have placed a strong demand on the need to encourage the younger generations' creativity, innovation and social responsibility (Zhan, 2008). As a result, the Ministry of Education promulgated the *Fundamentals of Curriculum Reform in Basic Education* in 2001, which became a guideline for 18 new syllabuses in 17 subjects. In brief, China currently follows the practice of taking the national curriculum as the dominant approach supplemented by local curriculum and school-based curriculum in basic education. Teachers' abilities including developing curricula and designing and using of curriculum resources directly influence the effect of the implementation of national curriculum, the development of local curriculum and school-based curriculum, as well as the implementation of current new curriculum reform in basic education.

Within this framework of nation-wide curriculum reform in China, EFL education, especially in primary and secondary schools, has become a focus. In order to bring EFL education and the country's needs together, the Ministry of Education (MoE) issued the new national English Language Curriculum Standards with the intention of improving students' practical use of English language (MoE, 2001a). Recognizing that teachers are the ones who put curriculum reform ideas into practice,

there is a need for professional development programmes for inservice teachers and preparation programmes for preservice teachers that can direct the changes in the new curriculum reform.

3.1 Czech Preservice Teacher Education

Teacher education in the Czech context can go back to the 19th century- the creation of a social group of teachers in line with the development of public school initiated the establishment of teacher training in specialized secondary institutions (učitelské ústavy) (Walterová, 2010, p. 177). At that time, the training was mostly didactically oriented, not offering professional education of a higher level. Since 1946 Czech teachers have been trained in higher education institutions. After the political reversal of 1989, Czech teacher education has started a new chapter; however, the school environment has changed more quickly than teacher education was able to respond (Walterová, 2010). As Walterová (2010) indicates, uncoordinated teacher education at autonomous public universities disturbs the national compatibility of the Czech teacher education model. The critics of teacher education are supported by ongoing curricular reform in the Czech system and innovative processes in school practice, focusing on the teachers' lack of professional qualities to cope with new demands.

Nowadays all initial teacher education in the Czech Republic takes place in the public tertiary sector, mostly in universities (Walterová, 2010). According to *the Act on Educational Staff* (ACT No. 563/2004) formal qualification demands are generally defined by law for every category of teachers at every level of schooling. Teachers at basic schools[1] and teachers of general and vocational subjects taught at secondary schools shall acquire professional qualifications by completing an accredited master's study programme.

Generally, preservice teacher education for primary teacher is carried out

[1] The basic education in the Czech Republic has two stages, required schooling ages from 6 to 14 years old. The first stage ends at grade 5 and age 10; the second stage ends at grade 9 and age 14. Lower secondary education (the second stage of basic school) is provided by teachers specialising in particular subjects (Greger & Kifer, 2012).

exclusively by faculties of education. The faculties are at universities in Prague and Brno as well as at seven regional universities (Hradec Králové, Liberec, Ústí nad Labem, Plzeň, České Budějovice, Olomouc, Ostrava) (Walterová, 2010). Preservice primary teachers are educated in five-year Master study programmes[1], integrating pedagogical and psychological components with subject matter. Some new study programmes include an additional specialisation in English language which was recently installed in primary education from 3rd grade. Second, preservice teacher education for general subjects teachers of secondary schools is carried out by faculties of education, in which the Faculty of Education in Prague and the Faculty of Education in Brno offer study programmes for both lower and upper secondary teachers. Besides, preservice upper secondary teacher can also be educated by faculties of Arts and Sciences which emphasise teaching subjects and underevaluate the professional components (pedagogical-psychological and didactical ones) (Walterová, 2010, p. 180). Usually preservice secondary teacher preparation programmes comprise two teaching subjects, such as, mother language and foreign language, Mathematics and Geography or Physical Education, etc. The combinations of subjects varying in different study programmes are determined by the faculties (Walterová, 2010). Third, technical universities provide teacher education programmes for preservice teachers of technical and vocational subjects. The most usual track is a full technical education followed by a pedagogical component which is offered by faculties of education and by departments or centres of teacher training at universities and technical universities (Walterová, 2010).

Moreover, preservice teacher education programmes for secondary teachers recently changed the structure into two cycles to conform with the Bologna

[1] For teacher education, only preservice primary teacher preparation was allowed to keep its five-year master's programme. The main reason was that the study programmes consist of 12-19 subjects, that was too hard to split into two parts (Bendl, Voňková, & Zvírotský, 2013b).

Declaration[1], that is, three-year bachelor's and two-year follow-up master's study programmes. The total number of ECTS credits is 180+120 in order to achieve full qualification (Vašutová & Spilková, 2011). Corresponding with it, bachelor's study is focused on training in the subjects (such as Mathematics, etc.) with no or weak connection with training in education, psychology and didactics (Bendl, Voňková, & Zvírotský, 2013a). In other words, a bachelor's study programme is academic studies dominated, and the centre of follow-up master's study programme is professional studies (Vašutová & Spilková, 2011). Technically, bachelor's graduates could become "teaching assistants", but such positions are rarely opened at Czech schools (Bendl, Voňková, & Zvírotský, 2013a). Previous research (Šťastná, 2011, as cited in Bendl, Voňková, & Zvírotský, 2013b, p. 772) notes that about 80 percent of bachelor's graduates continue in the follow-up master's study.

Furthermore, preservice teacher education programmes are evaluated by the Accreditation Commission of the Government. However, a common standard of teacher education programmes does not exist in the Czech Republic in accordance with the autonomy of the universities supported by the Higher Education Act (Walterová, 2010).

The study programmes for primary teacher preparation comprise five components: university core, subject (academic) studies, subject didactics, pedagogical-psychological component and specialization component (Vašutová & Spilková, 2011). The university core usually offers an orientation in historical, political, cultural and social context of education stressing national or regional specifics. The subject component comprises the professional basis of individual subjects taught at the first level of basic school. The subject didactics component comprises courses, which contribute to the development of didactic skills to transform

[1] One goal of the Bologna process is to restructure European university programmes from monolithic five-year programmes into two cycles: bachelor's and master's. Two-cycle teacher education as a national experiment has been implemented in line with a working document *Conception of lower and upper secondary schools teacher education* of the Accreditation Commission published in 2005 (Bendl, Voňková, & Zvírotský, 2013b). Before its implementation, preservice secondary teachers followed five-year one-cycle master's teacher education programmes in the Czech Republic.

educational contents with regard to individual and age specifics of very young learners. The specialization component includes courses, which enable individual study profiles. It forms a complete system of courses within the frame of the chosen specialization (existing specializations- music, art, drama, special pedagogy, teaching a foreign language, etc. in primary school) (pp. 200-202). Practical preparation forms an integral part of subject didactics, pedagogical-psychological and specialization components of the programme.

Regarding the study programmes for secondary teacher preparation usually consist of four compulsory parts: university core, pedagogical-psychological component, subject component (subjects 1 and 2), and teaching practice (Walterová, 2010, p. 180). According to recommended minimum standards for teacher training, the credits for pedagogical-psychological coursework are ranging from 45 to 60, about 15 percent to 20 percent of the total credits of 300; the minimum 4 weeks for teaching practice with 10 credits (Vašutová & Spilková, 2011, p. 197). Subject component usually represents two subjects methodology of teaching them. Because of the teacher-to-be of general educational disciplines taught at basic and secondary schools qualifies in two subjects (Vašutová & Spilková, 2011). The extent of the subject preparation is the greatest in the bachelor's study and it culminates in the master's study, whilst didactics and practice related to it are concentrated in the follow-up master's study (Vašutová & Spilková, 2011). Teaching practice leads to gaining experience in the school environment in a guided way and forms the basis for practical mastering of professional teaching skills. The basis of the teaching practice is not only training of concrete professional activities in a dynamic and variable environment of schools and school facilities, it also concerns finding the context of the theoretical basis of the curriculum and innovating the theoretical reflection on practical experience (Vašutová & Spilková, 2011). Teaching practice, as indicated by Walterová (2010), usually includes two cycles: first cycle introduces student teachers in the school environment, allows them observations in classes and assistant activities; the portfolio from the practice is evaluated; second cycle usually consists of 6 weeks of continuing stay in school with teaching in classes; the teaching is evaluated and

assessment is compulsory. And most faculties introduce a "clinical" semester combining theoretical subjects with practice in schools and with reflective seminars on student teachers' practical experience.

3.1.1 Czech EFL preservice teacher education

The efforts to emancipate foreign language teaching and learning have been an ongoing and non-linear process launched in the Czech Republic in the 50s of the previous century (Tůma & Píšová, 2013). It has struggled since 1989 with a notorious shortage of qualified teachers caused by the political circumstances of about a fifteen-year period up to 1989 when the study of English in particular was not allowed at faculties preparing future teachers (Perclová, 2006, p. 7).

With the Velvet Revolution and the fall of communism of that year, there was a boom in interest in learning English. However, there were very few teachers qualified to teach the subject (Ondráček, 2011). Nowadays, the learning of a foreign language, typically English or German, though it also could be French, Russian or Spanish, normally begins in the Czech Republic in basic schools at the age of eight in grade 3 and it is compulsory. Central education authorities, however, do not make the learning of English compulsory. In the framework of the 2007 Long-term Policy Objectives the preferential provision of the English language was introduced in all schools (Czech School Inspection, 2011, p. 60). That is, schools must offer English before any other languages to primary school pupils (EACEA/Eurydice/Eurostat, 2012, p. 46). As a consequence, there was a significant increase in the proportion of Czech pupils learning English between 2004/05 and 2009/10; the increase was between 20 and 30 percentage points (EACEA/Eurydice/Eurostat, 2012, p. 61). However, as the Czech School Inspectorate states in the Annual Report for the school year 2010/2011, a problem with the qualifications of English teachers still persists. Except in the elite grammar schools (six- and eight-year gymnázia), there were 80.2 % of qualified English teachers at primary schools whereas only 71.3 % were qualified at lower secondary schools (Czech School Inspection, 2011, p. 60). It highlights a long-term need to provide high quality training for future teaches of foreign languages,

especially English, to ensure the effectiveness of the teaching process (Ondráček, 2011).

To meet the need for good quality training, it follows that there is a requirement for professional training institutions to supply high grade courses which not just focus on good teaching practice but also on solid educational research (Ondráček, 2011). The institutions who offer English teacher education programmes, Department of English at Czech universities, however, appear to be undergoing a never-ending transitional period (Hanušová, 2005, as cited in Ondráček, 2011, p. 10). Hanušová (2005) summarises: "after the changes following 1989 we faced the challenge of qualifying large numbers of English teachers for a quickly growing market, then we started adopting the European Transfer Credit System, now we are structuring the study programmes according to Bologna declaration and at the same time we are trying to comply with the requirements of the Accreditation Commission." (p. 31-37, as cited in Ondráček, 2011, p. 10) Various challenges are faced under the transitions, for instance, the new demands on teacher professionalism and on teacher preparation in light of the ongoing curricular reform in the Czech context, the incompatibility and diversity of study programmes leading to different outputs of initial teacher training (Walterová, 2010), etc.

In order to capture the current state of the research field of foreign language teaching and learning in the Czech Republic, Tůma and Píšová (2013) review PhD dissertations defended in the field of Education which were at three universities and five faculties- Charles University in Prague: Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Education; Masaryk University, Brno: Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Education; and Palacky University, Olomouc: Faculty of Education in the period 2006-2012[1], and conclude that the most dominant topic was management of teaching/ learning processes, including teaching reading, ICT, testing and assessment, classroom communication, textbooks, etc., followed by studies on foreign language acquisition and learning in which were related mainly to the role of language transfer. Teacher-related

[1] Tůma and Píšová (2013) noted that 12 out of 69 dissertations were unable to retrieve the information in their study.

dissertations were rather infrequent in terms of foreign language teaching and learning. Besides, Czech doctoral research paid little attention to learners- the only dissertation dealt with university graduates' language qualifications. In addition, the majority of the dissertations were written in Czech, whilst, two dissertations were in English and two in Slovak. They further argue that their study matched the views of previous research, that is, the richest field of Czech researchers' interest is related to management of teaching/ learning processes. In light of the views of Tůma and Píšová (2013), it seems that systematically research on Czech teachers' competence of dealing with curriculum issues which is strengthened by the ongoing curricular reform (Pišová & Kostková, 2011), is infrequent, especially from the perspective of preservice English teacher preparation.

3.2 Chinese Preservice Teacher Education

Since the formation of the People's Republic of China 1949, a number of teacher education institutions were created as a consequence of the urgency of the need for qualified teachers to provide for preschools, primary and secondary schools. These institutions are usually named "normal school", "normal college" and "normal university", including middle normal schools, higher normal schools and departments and colleges of education within existing universities. Middle normal schools are specialized secondary schools that offer 3- or 4-year programmes to students who intend to become primary and kindergarten teachers, with an entry requirement of satisfactory completion of lower secondary school. Higher normal schools take in upper secondary graduates and are regarded as tertiary institutions in China, offering 2- or 3-year teacher education programmes that lead to an associate's degree and preparing teachers for lower secondary schools (Hu, 2005a). Normal universities provide 4-year bachelor's study programmes for teacher preparation with entry requirements of a satisfactory grade in the National College Entrance Examination.

Since 1999 the central government has launched the new national curriculum reform in primary and secondary education to change the traditional teacher-centred

way of teaching and learning. Preservice teacher education programmes have been innovated in several ways in order to improve the quality of teacher preparation, for example, the abolition of middle and higher normal schools and limiting the provision of teacher education to higher education universities and colleges. The middle normal schools and higher normal schools had gradually been replaced by normal colleges till 2003 (Campbell & Hu, 2010), and some three-year normal colleges have been merged into normal universities. At present, besides six normal universities which are under direct control by the MoE, every province has provincial normal universities and normal colleges. The centrally controlled normal universities are funded by the central government and therefore often better resourced than provincial universities. In addition, these six normal universities are also expected to set benchmarks in best practice in teacher education and to implement any educational reforms recommended by the MoE (Campbell & Hu, 2010).

The normal universities and normal colleges continue to be the main providers of preschools, primary and secondary teachers, in addition, to attract university graduates to primary teaching as a career, university students majoring in disciplines relevant to the curricular in primary and secondary schools were encouraged to qualify as specialist teachers by including a minimum of two education subjects in their undergraduate course and the mandarin test. In order to improve qualification of teachers and promote teacher professionalism, the MoE issued the *Standards for Teacher Certification of Primary and Secondary Schools and Preschools (Trial version)* for public review in October 2011 (MoE, 2011b), and the National Teacher Certification Examination has being piloted in two provinces in the same year. In addition, in 2013 the MoE issued the *Interim Measures for the National Primary and Secondary Teachers Certification Examination* (MoE, 2013). Currently, teacher candidates first need to pass the computerized or paper-pencil examination on professional ethics, professional knowledge, and basic knowledge and skills. Then they will receive interviews that will assess them through answering questions, solving problems in scenarios, planning lessons, microteaching, etc. In addition,

student teachers will also need to take the content test and corresponding pedagogical test (Han, 2012).

In sum, the current challenge for Chinese teacher education is enhancing the quality of teacher education programmes rather than training more teachers. It has formed enduring issues with preservice teacher education programmes in the past two decades, criticizing on inadequate teaching practice[1] in the fields (Yang, 2010), insufficient attention on children and their development, and inadequate preparation in pedagogy (Wang, 2012). According to the Educational Statistics in 2012 from MoE, only about 32.6 percent of primary school teachers and 71.6 percent of lower secondary school teachers have at least a bachelor degree.

Usually, preservice teacher education programmes consist of four compulsory parts: (a) general education courses which offer a series of classes to equip student teachers with comprehensive training in political/ideological (including civic) issues, foreign languages, physical education and computer science; (b) subject matter courses which provide a wide range of classes within the academic areas in which the student teachers are enrolled (e.g. English, Physics, Chemistry, or History, etc.); (c) educational/pedagogical courses which offer classes to help student teachers with training in such areas as pedagogy, psychology, and subject matter content teaching methodology, etc.; and (d) teaching practice which refers to student teachers' professional experience during preservice preparation. Teaching practice mostly lasts six to eight weeks in the second to the last semester or one semester in the final year of their undergraduate studies. Generally, student teachers spend time in schools observing classroom teaching, assisting the supervising teacher, taking part in managing pupil's activities and practising their teaching skills (Fang & Zhu, 2008). Before that student teachers were rarely required and arranged to observe classes, help out with pupils, or assist classroom teachers in schools for a period of time. In

[1] Lots of terms are used in the literature to describe professional experience for preservice teachers in China, such as, teaching practice, clinic practice, practicum, field experience. However, "practicum" is the most commonly used in the Chinese educational context (Campbell & Hu, 2010), for the purpose of international comparison, this dissertation prefers to use term "teaching practice".

contrast, they spent a great amount of time on studying in their discipline majors. The percentage of coursework related to subject matter was about 60 percent to 70 percent of the total credit hours (Han, 2012).

In November 2011 the MoE issued the *National Curriculum Standards for Teacher Education* (*Trial version*) (NCSTE) -the first and most comprehensive national curriculum standards for teacher education programmes in China (MoE, 2011a), to ensure quality of preservice teacher preparation and inservice teacher development. It outlines the expected qualities teachers should develop and corresponding coursework suggestions for teacher education programmes. Curriculum goals for each level of preservice teacher education (preschools, primary and secondary teacher education) include three dimensions- beliefs and responsibilities, knowledge and skills, and practice and experiences, with subcategories, as follows.

- Educational beliefs and responsibilities (children development, teachers' profession, and education)
- Educational Knowledge and skills (understanding and instructing students, professional development)
- Educational practice and experiences (observations in clinical fields, participating in and studying in teaching practice)

In terms of the educational coursework, take the NCSTE suggestions for four-year bachelor's study level secondary teacher preparation programme as an example. Preservice secondary teachers are suggested to take the following courses: student development and learning, educational foundations, methods of teaching a subject matter, counselling for high school students and moral education, and professional ethics and development. The minimum number of credit hours for educational coursework is 14 and for the required coursework is 10 (out of the total credits hours ranging from 150 to 170). That is, at present the percentage has been increased to around 6 percent to 10 percent (Han, 2012).

3.2.1 China's EFL preservice teacher education

China's foreign language teaching and learning which originated in 1862, some time

after foreign language education was developed in Western Europe (Zhang, 2000, p. 54- 57), has been playing a dominant role in China's curriculum reform, especially in the present globalization of Chinese society and economy. As indicated by previous research (Judd, 1992), language education must be seen as a part of larger social and political views on language use and attitudes. Foreign language teaching and learning in China has followed the top-down pattern. The government has decided what foreign language(s) is (are) to be useful, politically and economically, for the development of the nation. The MoE creates specific education policies and organises planning by issuing policy-related documents and developing activities related to policies implementation, by designing and issuing curricula, and by approving a list of textbooks from which to select teaching materials (Li, 2007).

Foreign language teaching and learning has fluctuated since the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949 as the general line of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) has changed (Li, 2007). In brief, since China initiated its modernization programme in the late 1970s, prioritizing education becomes a major policy which means that education has been accorded paramount importance. An even more favourable environment for educational reforms in general and for foreign language education reform in particular has emerged in China, in which teacher education, and its reform, is a high priority enhanced by curriculum reforms (MoE[1], 1996). It is important to note that China's teacher education and curriculum reforms are related and are part of a larger educational policy whole (Ye, 2006). In 1978, the MoE issued the first unified primary and secondary curriculum and the accompanying draft English syllabus (Hu, 2005b). Foreign languages were introduced in the curriculum from Primary 3 (Liu, 1993), and only a small minority (less than 5%) of primary and secondary students studied foreign languages other than English (Adamson, 2001). In January 2001 the MoE issued the *Guidelines for Promoting English Language Instruction in Primary schools* (MoE, 2001) to call for that English shall be offered nationwide to Primary 3 students, starting in cities and suburban areas in autumn 2001

[1] The Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China named State Education Commission from 1985 to 1998.

and in rural areas in autumn 2002. It also suggested that Japanese, Russian and other foreign languages[1] should be encouraged in some schools.

In fact, since the last quarter century, English language teaching and learning has been a subject of paramount importance in China. It plays a key role in accordance with the Chinese government's open-door policy and the urgent needs of Chinese society, and has been viewed by the Chinese leadership as having a vital role to play in national modernization and development (Ross, 1992). Moreover, proficiency in English can lead to a host of economic, social and educational opportunities for individuals; that is, it can provide access to both material resources and "symbolic capital" (Bourdieu, 1991) for the betterment of personal wellbeing in the Chinese context. In other words, the development of foreign language education is further emphasised for its role in internationalisation and globalisation, and English language education in particular has gradually been popularised across the entire nation.

As a consequence, professional preparation of primary and secondary EFL teachers as an important component of teacher education has received more attention and support than education of teachers in other subject areas (Hu, 2005a). To raise the national level of English proficiency is predicated largely on the professional competence of the teaching force (Wu, 2001). Moreover, between 1998 and 2001, eight national English syllabuses were introduced in accordance with national curriculum reforms in primary and secondary education. The National English Language Curriculum Standards (2011 version) gives prominence to the dual features of English as curriculum: instrumental and humanistic, which meets with the social needs of learning foreign languages (MoE, 2012). EFL teacher education has been strongly influenced by it.

EFL preservice teacher education was invariably housed in the departments or schools of foreign languages at normal universities, usually referring to four-year bachelor's study programmes. However student teachers at the Faculty of Education

[1] A foreign language is a compulsory subject included in the National College Entrance Examination for all types of universities and colleges in China. It usually refers to English but may also be substituted by Japanese, Russian, German, French, or Spanish.

can also qualify as primary and secondary English teachers. There has not been a national curriculum or curriculum guideline designed for EFL teacher education caused curriculum decisions to be made at various teacher education institutions, on the basis of the National English Curriculum for College English Majors (MoE, 2000; Wu, 2005). The major difference between preservice English teacher education programmes and English major programmes was the inclusion of three courses: psychology, pedagogy and methodology (Li & Chen, 2002). In other words, EFL teacher preparation is largely the study of the English language skills plus a limited amount of general pedagogy and teaching practice. Even in response to the worldwide demand for change, preservice English teacher education in China is not an exception in its resistance (Zhan, 2008). However, preservice English teacher education in China is not an exception in its resistance to change even in response to the worldwide demand (Zhan, 2008). Until recently, the problems that still exist in the preservice English teacher education programme, for example, the inappropriate curriculum of the normal universities and the ineffectual teaching practice for student teachers have remained largely unaddressed (Hu, 2005a). Lots of research on EFL teacher education has focused on teacher qualities and practical implications for preservice teacher preparation and inservice teacher development, such as, China's national curriculum reform in basic education and its implications for EFL preservice teacher preparation (Wang, 2010), and on EFL student teachers' professional development, such as, pedagogical content competence (Zhao, 2010) and professional knowledge (Han, 2013), as well as on curriculum planning processes of preservice teacher education programmes (Wu, 2005), etc. There is still insufficient research into foreign language teaching and the knowledge base of English teaching (Zhang, 2006) as well as how it relates to the content and practice of teacher education in the Chinese context, however, English language teaching and learning in China is characterised by scale and enthusiasm.

3.3 Methodology

The general aim of this study is to investigate what Czech and Chinese EFL student teachers competence in curriculum development is like, and to identify the possible similarities or differences. The study employed a quantitative descriptive research. Descriptive research provides "information about conditions, situations, and events that occur in the present" (Postlethwaite, 2005, p. 3). Quantitative research designs are distinguished from the other methods by their applicability to closed-ended questions that rely on evidence that takes the form of numbers rather than words. The survey method- a systematic way to collect data via distributing self-administrated questionnaires to a sample, was used in the study to collect data.

Besides, two questions were taken into account before considering research design in order to acquire the comparable data in the present study, namely, "what is to be compared" and "whom to compare".

Regarding "whom to compare", the desired target population for comparison in the study was two grade levels' student teachers who could be eligible to become English teachers in lower secondary schools in both countries:

- (a) student teachers in the first year of preservice teacher education programmes. They are referred to "beginning student teachers" or "first-year student teachers";
- and, (b) student teachers in the last year of preservice teacher education programmes. Those are indicated by "last-year student teachers".

However, there are many different traditions of organizing teacher education between the Czech Republic and China, and the differences in the structure makes acquiring comparable data complicated (Schmidt et al., 2007, p. 12). In light of the views of Postlethwaite and Leung (2007), Czech and Chinese student teachers can be regarded as being the comparable groups.

Teacher education has an important impact on what future teachers know as they leave teacher preparation programme (Schmidt et al., 2007). The investigation of beginning student teachers provides insights into the preconceptions they hold at the

beginning of their studies. These pre-existing knowledge and pre-understanding about teaching and learning condition what they learn, thus, it could be a "starting point" for student teachers' learning in order to support student teachers' competence preparation in meaningful and effective ways during the teacher education. Regarding the last-year student teachers, it could provide insights into their professional readiness in terms of competence in curriculum development through preservice preparation. In other words, to concentrate on different groups of student teachers, on their competence in curriculum development could help to conclude whether or not they enter teaching as prepared and "well-started beginners", as well as, this is an aspect of teacher education which deserves further attention (Kiely & Askham, 2012). The comparison of findings from the different countries with different approaches allows the researcher to scrutinize the present preparation of student teachers' competence in curriculum development in different approaches, and gives an indication of the impact of teacher education.

3.3.1 Research design

Quantitative methodology was adopted to collect comparative data of the study. Figure 3.1 outlines the research design.

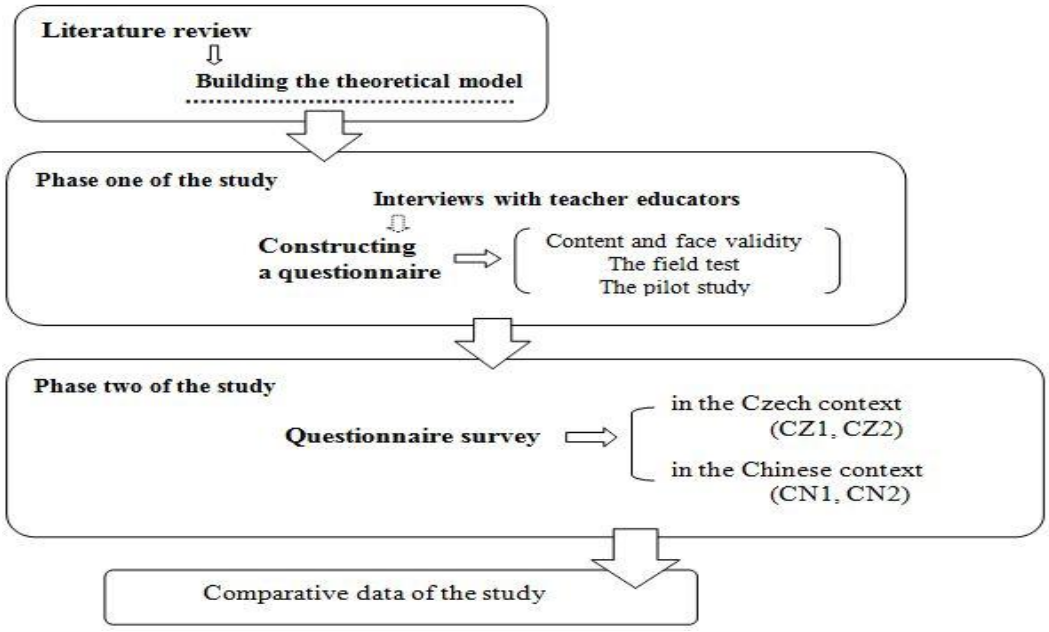

Figure 3.1 Research Design of the Present Study

As it shown in figure 3.1, the present study was conducted in two phases.

In phase one of the study, interviews were carried out to explore teacher educators' views of what competences are needed by student teachers to participate in the process of curriculum development in the practice. In order to improve understanding of the impact of different education systems and processes and try to seek generalisable and common elements, the interviews were conducted with Czech and Chinese teacher educators. Content analysis was used to interpret the raw data obtained from interviews. The results of interview data analysis were used as one of parameters to construct questionnaire. After then, the validity and reliability of the instrument was determined.

In phase two of the study, questionnaire surveys were conducted among four groups of EFL student teachers: two Czech groups and two Chinese groups to gain an understanding of Czech and Chinese EFL student teachers' competence in curriculum development, and then to compare the similarities and differences. Bray & Jiang (2007) claim that for comparative education, problems are compounded by the fact that some languages have several different words which can each be translated as system but which each have different nuances and implications. Therefore, the same survey questionnaires (English version) were used in the two countries.

A more detailed about the instrumentation of the study is provided in Chapter 4.

3.3.2 Sampling strategy of the study

Nonprobability sampling was employed in the present study.

Phase one. Purposive sampling was employed in the interviews in order to access "knowledgeable people": (a) academics at English Department whose research interests and primary teaching course focus on EFL student teacher preparation, or they are experts in primary and secondary education; (b) Czech academics at the Faculty of Education are also experts in primary and secondary education and familiar with student teacher preparation, speaking English would be preferred. (c) Chinese teacher educators are experts in the national curriculum reform in primary and secondary education. In brief, academics working at the Faculty of Education at

Palacky University in the Czech Republic as well as academics working at the Faculty of Education and at the School of Foreign Languages at Sichuan Normal University were selected as the sample.

Phase two. Purposive sampling was also employed in order to choose the sample from those to whom researcher had easy access to conduct questionnaire survey. The selected sample was also on the basis of the researcher's judgment about which one would be useful in light of the purpose of the present study.

The target population in the study was student teachers who were in the first year and in the last year of teacher education before they could be eligible to become English teachers in lower secondary schools in the Czech Republic and in China.

The selected sampling institutions in the Czech Republic were[1]:

- Department of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Education, Charles University
- Department of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University
- Department of English at the Faculty of Education, Palacky University
- and, Department of British and American Studies at the Faculty of Arts and Philosophy, University of Pardubice

Regarding the survey in China, beside six normal universities which are under direct the Ministry of Education control funded by the Central Government, every province has provincial key normal university[2] and regular normal university. This survey selected two provincial normal universities, one key and on regular, in Sichuan

[1] The estimated number of EFL student teachers in the Czech Republic obtained from the heads of sampling institutions by emails. It was about 160 in total.

[2] In China, the institutions named key universities or key schools are allocated the best students, teachers and other resources with their catchment areas. The rationale is that resources should be focused on the more capable students so that they can be prepared for professionalism or higher education (Bray & Jiang, 2007).

province[1] in southwest part of china as the sampling institutions, that is,

- School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan Normal University
- and, School of Foreign Languages, Leshan Normal University

All of the student teachers in the first year and in the last year of preservice lower secondary English teacher education programmes at sampling institutions were requested to respond to the questionnaires.

3.3.3 Context of the data collection

The study was carried out simultaneously in the two countries. The contexts of survey data collection in both countries are presented as follows.

Czech context of survey data collection

The following introduction relates to the selected institutions to conduct questionnaire survey[2]. Preservice English teacher education programmes in the present study referred to two-year master's study programmes. The study programmes were collected from websites and by emails and interviews with the teacher educators at the departments.

The institutions and two-year master's study programmes

The main objective of the Department of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Education, Charles University was to prepare teachers of English for all

[1] Sichuan Province is located in the southwestern area of China, with a population of 86.73 million (by the end of 2013) in an area of 481,000 square kilometer. Compared with some developed area, such as Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangdong Province, Sichuan is a relatively underdeveloped province (per capita GDP was about 5,500 US dollar, and ranking 24 in 27 provinces and 4 municipalities) in China (data retrieved form http://www.sc.stats.gov.cn/sctj/). However, from the perspective of the degree of being representative, it is better sample to denote the current condition of socially and economically development of China.

[2] At the time of the study, EFL student teachers at University of Pardubice would not be officially qualified for secondary school teaching because the programme was accredited as teaching at elementary school level. So that only first-year student teachers at University of Pardubice answered the questionnaires to obtain date related to student teachers' pre-knowledge. Therefore, the introduction includes three institutions. In addition, if without a special statement the English department at the university is indicated by the name of university in this study.

types of lower and higher secondary schools. Since the 2006/2007 academic year, as following the European Union's Bologna Agreement, studies had been divided into a two-tier study programme: a three-year Bachelor's programme and a two-year Master's programme. The two-year follow-up master's programme was to enables the graduates of the bachelor's programme to achieve fully-qualified teacher status. The programme further developed subject knowledge disciplines: linguistics (mainly pragmatics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics) and literary and cultural studies (mainly post-colonial literature in English). And the major focus was on the TEFL methodology and teaching practice. The students who enrolled in the follow-up teacher education programme would be required to complete 28 credits professional coursework in the department and two cycles of teaching practice. Teaching practice was in semesters 2 and 3. In the second semester, student teachers spent 4 weeks at primary school for their two subjects (i.e. about two weeks for English). In the third semester, they spent 4 weeks at secondary school for both subjects (i.e. about two weeks for English). In both cycles, they at least observed 5 lessons and taught 12 lessons. In addition, reflection followed after they came back from the practice through seminars and consultations at the department.

The Department of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University aimed to provide high quality, liberal education for future teachers of English in an inspiring, challenging, and productive environment. The two-year double-subject Master's study programme aimed to provide a qualification for the position of an English (and other subject) teacher at lower secondary schools, primary schools, and language schools, or alternately as employees in non-teaching positions requiring an excellent knowledge of English (such as public administration). The programme further developed subject knowledge disciplines: linguistic module, literature module, methodology module and practical language module. The students who enrolled in the follow-up teacher education programme would be required to complete 36 credits professional coursework in the department and three cycles of teaching practice. The teaching practice has been undergoing some changes in the academic year 2013/2014. Year 2 master's student teachers who took part in the survey

were under the old system. They had 3 semesters of teaching practice. In the first semester they observed 6 classes and taught 3 classes, in the second semester they observed 10 classes and taught 6 classes and in the this semester they spent 3 weeks at schools, observed 10 classes and taught 10 classes. There were no subjects taught at the faculty related to teaching practice. The practice was organized by the teachers from the English department. In new system, teaching practice was changed in the first and second semesters: student teachers had to spend 1 day at schools every week. They taught approximately the same number of classes as in the old system but they had to assist the teachers and carry out various tasks on top of their observations and teaching. There would be reflective seminars taught at the faculty during the first and second semesters. The seminars were co-organized by the departments of Pedagogy, Psychology and the English department.

The Department of English at the Faculty of Education, Palacky University offered study programmes of Education-oriented English language, Teaching English at lower secondary schools (both in a combination with another major) and Teaching English at primary schools. The two-year double-subject Master's study programme was to prepare future teachers of English for primary and lower secondary schools. The programme further developed subject knowledge disciplines: linguistics, literature and Methodology. The students who enrolled in the follow-up teacher education programme would be required to complete 32 credits professional coursework in the department and two cycles of teaching practice. Teaching practice at the Department of English was organized by a "Centre of teaching practices" of the Faculty of Education for students of all study programmes. The teaching practice would take place in semester 2 for 3 weeks long and in semester 3 for 4 weeks long. These were not subjects taught at the faculty, students had to go to local schools and with the help of experienced teachers try to teach themselves.

Curricular structure of the study programmes

In the Czech Republic, preservice secondary teacher preparation programmes usually comprise two teaching subjects (see section 3.1). As this study focuses on EFL student

teachers' competence in curriculum development, only the professional coursework and teaching practice at English departments were taken into consideration. The curricular structure of three two-year's programmes included two major areas: compulsory professional coursework and professional optional coursework. Compulsory professional coursework is similar across the departments, but compulsory options and optional coursework varies among them (see table 3.1 and Appendix A).

Table 3.1 Curriculum Organization of Two-year's Programmes

	Charles University	Masaryk University	Palacky University
Compulsory courses	20	27	24
Compulsory options	8	6	6
Optional courses			2
Sum (credits)	28	33[a]	32

Note: Minimum number of credits of compulsory options and Optional courses are shown in the table. Data from universities' websites.

[a] The teaching practice at the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University is changing in academic 2013/2013. This number is under the new system.

Research on the knowledge base of Second language teacher education (SLTE) indicates that in the course of preservice teacher preparation, the language-based courses and literature and cultural studies provide the academic content to student teachers, and the methodology courses show them how to teach it (Richard, 2008). Therefore, it would be necessary to see how teacher education was actually treated in terms of the courses and teaching practice offered (see table 3.2 on the next page).

Table 3.2 Data Descriptively of the Methodology Courses and Teaching Practice

	Charles University	Masaryk University	Palacky University
	Cr. (%)	Cr. (%)	Cr. (%)
Compulsory courses	10 (50.0)	10 (37.0)	8 (33.3)
Compulsory options	10 (38.5)	12 (22.2)	6 (66.7)
Optional courses		8 (21.6)	5 (41.7)
Sum (credits)	20	30	19
Teaching Practice	4 (12.5)	12 (26.7)	6 (18)

Note: Data from universities' websites. Credits of compulsory options and Optional courses shown in the table are credits of all the optional courses related to ELT teaching offered by the departments. Teaching Practice%= TP credits/ (all required department courses credits + TP credits)

It is clear that methodology courses occupied similar positions in different departments' curriculum. At Charles University, at least 35.7% of the total of 28 credits required for students was for the methodology courses. At Masaryk University, at least 30.3% of the total of 33 credits required was for the methodology courses. At Palacky University, at least 37.5% (12cr.) of the total of 32 credits required was for the methodology courses. With regard to Teaching Practice, even thought the credits are different in each programmes, it is actually rather similar. Table 3.3 provides detailed information about the methodology courses offered at departments.

Table 3.3 Methodology Courses of 3 Two-year's Programmes

		Compulsory courses	Compulsory options
The methodology courses	C	1. Introduction to Linguodidactics 2. Teaching Language Skills 3. Linguistic System Application 4. Current Issues in ELT	1. Methodology of Literature 2. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) 3. Extending Didactic Skills
	M	1. TEFL Methodology 2. Testing and Assessment	1. Literature in English Classroom 2. CLIL 3. Teaching Practice Seminar 4. Teaching Children
	P	1. ELT Methodology	1. Literature at School 2. Planning and Course Programme Design 3. Teaching Materials Evaluation 4. Teaching Foreign Language to Very Young Learners

	5. Teaching Foreign Language to Pupils with Special Educational Needs 6. Diploma Project Seminar

Note: Based on English departments at those universities.
Abbr. C- Charles University, M- Masaryk University, P- Palacky University

As it shown, two different compulsory methodology courses- testing and assessment, and TEFL methodology, are offered by 3 departments. By analyzing the syllabi of the coursework, it is indicated that the TEFL methodology courses at Masaryk University are focused on different methods and approaches in ELT as well as course design, language learner, theories of language acquisition, evaluation of students and teaching materials. It's similar with the courses offered by Palacky University. At Charles University, four courses in the field of TEFL methodology are instead of the course tiled with methodology. Introduction to linguodidactic aims to develop student teachers' basic declarative and procedural knowledge and professional skills related mainly to the aims and structure of English lessons. Teaching language skills is to develop student teachers' knowledge and skills for teaching interactive, receptive and productive language skills. Student teachers would create their own portfolio of effective teaching activities and be able to integrate individual language skills to create a lesson plan. Linguistic system application is to transform student teachers' linguistic knowledge gained in the bachelor's study into didactically effective forms adapted to the pupils' needs and abilities. Current issues in ELT is a concluding subject in the study of TEFL methodology. However, two universities' compulsory courses did not include the course in testing and assessment, and the courses in children development and learning, CLIL, teaching materials evaluation were included in optional courses.

Chinese context of survey data collection

In China, normal universities are originally created specifically for the purpose of teacher education. The departments or schools of foreign languages at normal universities offer four-year bachelor degree (Bachelor of Art in Teaching EFL)

programmes for secondary school levels English teacher education with certification. These preservice teacher preparation programmes have been mainly responsible for supplying the teaching force for English language education at secondary schools across the country. The following introduction relates to the selected institutions to conduct questionnaire survey. The study programmes for preservice secondary English teacher education from were collected with the help of the researcher's colleagues who worked at the departments.

The institutions and the EFL preservice teacher preparation programmes

The School of Foreign Languages at Sichuan Normal University or otherwise referred to Foreign Language Department (FLD) began its development with Russian Section in 1960s. The English section started to enrol undergraduate students in 1963 and graduate students in English Language and Literature in the mid-1980s respectively, one of the first institutions in southwest China offering such programs. At the time of the study, FLD was composed of four foreign language sections: English, French, Russian and Japanese. All sections had undergraduate programmes in language and literatures, in which English and Russian sections provided bachelor's and master's study programmes. The FLD aimed to be an important educational based for the preparation and inservice training of secondary school teachers for the province's basic education. The primary educational mission of the department was the teacher education stream; at the same time, it also aspired to develop continuing education and assist with the development of non-teacher education.

At Sichuan Normal University, the EFL preservice teacher education programme belonged to the four-year undergraduate programme of the English Section. Students applying for the programme had to take the National College Entrance Examination. Graduation requirements for the students included passing two national English language proficiency tests (Test of English for English Majors- Grade 4 and Grade 8), completing a teaching practice and writing a graduation thesis. To become teachers of English, students must enhance their English language proficiency as outlined in the National English Curriculum for College English Majors (MoE, 2000). The syllabus

gave specifications in eight levels of the English language learning objectives, including aspects such as language skills, translation, and cultural awareness. The national syllabus provided a suggested reading list of 118 items for all English majors covering area such as classic and contemporary literatures of Great Britain, the United States, Canada and Australia. Also included in the list were some titles in the Chinese culture (MoE, 2000, pp. 28-32). At the time of the study, all student teachers were required to participate in a 12-week teaching practice in primary and secondary schools in their seventh semester.

The School of Foreign Languages at Leshan Normal University or otherwise referred to FLD began its development with English Section in 1978. The English section started to enrol students could gain associate's degree (sub-degree) in 1979 and undergraduate students in 1998 respectively. At the time of the study, FLD offered four undergraduate study programmes composed of English Major (teacher education and non-teacher education), Japanese Major, Translation Studies and Business English, as well as two study programmes of English Teaching and English for Business and Economics Business and Trade English that lead to an associate's degree. However, there were no postgraduate programmes yet.

The EFL preservice teacher education programme at Leshan Normal University referred to the four-year undergraduate programme of English Major (teacher education), aiming to "develop high quality teachers for basic education, who are well informed of educational theories and well prepared of professional skills and educational technology, and have a capability in educational research." Entry requirement for the students was same, based on a satisfactory grade in the National College Entrance Examination. Graduation requirements for the students included passing a national English language proficiency test (Test of English for English Majors- Grade 4), completing a teaching practice and writing a graduation thesis. At the time of the study, all student teachers were required to participate in a 10-week teaching practice in primary and secondary schools in their seventh semester.

The curricular structure of the study programmes

However the MoE issued a first comprehensive national curriculum standards for teacher education programmes in 2011 (MoE, 2011a), slow progress has been made in teacher education institutions. At the time of the study, the sampling institutions didn't revise their study programmes or enact new study programmes according to the NCSTE. Table 3.4 outlines the comparison between the suggested educational coursework by NCSTE and the current coursework at two selected institutions.

Table 3.4 Comparison between the Suggested Educational Coursework by NCSTE and the Current Coursework at Selected Institutions

	NCSTE (2011)	Preservice secondary English teacher education programme	
		Sichuan Normal University (2009)	**Leshan Normal University** (2010)
Credits for compulsory educational courses	**Minimum 10** 1. Student development and learning; 2. Educational foundations; 3. Methods of teaching a subject matter; 4. Counselling for secondary school students and moral education; 5. Professional ethics and development	**Minimum 15** 2. Educational and psychological foundations; 3. ELT methodology, Teaching materials evaluation; 4. Counselling for secondary school students; 5. Research methods in education, Teacher spoken language and blackboard writing, Educational technology	**Minimum 12** 2. Educational and psychological foundations; 3. ELT methodology, Second language acquisition; 5. Educational technology
Credits for all educational courses	Minimum 14	Minimum 20	Minimum 18

	18 weeks	**17 Cr.**	**28 Cr.**
Credits for field experience and teaching practice		Microteaching: 2.5 Cr.; Observations in clinical fields: 2 Cr.; Teaching practice: 6 Cr. (**12 weeks**); Reflective teaching practice: 0.5 Cr.; Diploma Project: 6 Cr.	Observations in clinical fields: 3 Cr.; Teaching practice: 12 Cr. (**10 weeks**); Spoken language and blackboard writing: 3 Cr.; Rehearse: 2 Cr.; Others: 2 Cr.; Diploma Project: 6 Cr.

Note: Based on MoE (2011a) and foreign language departments at those universities.

As it can be seen in the table 3.4, the current preservice secondary English teacher education programmes at both universities exceeded the minimum credits requirement of NCSTE, but both universities' compulsory courses did not include the NCSTE suggested courses in secondary student's development and learning, moral education and professional ethics, and Leshan University's compulsory courses did not include the courses in counselling for high school students. Those courses were included in optional courses. And it was not clear if the required 11 credits (exclusion the credits of diploma project) were equivalent to the minimum 18 weeks suggestion by NCSTE for field experiences and teaching practice.

In fact, the study programmes consisted of four components: general education courses, subject matter foundation courses, educational/pedagogical courses, and teaching practice. And every course component included two major areas: compulsory and optional courses (see table 3.5 and Appendix B).

Table 3.5 Organization of Two Study Programmes

	Sichuan Normal University	**Leshan Normal University**
	Cr. (%)	Cr. (%)
General education courses		
compulsory courses	26 (15.3)	36 (18.5)
optional courses	8 (4.7)	12 (6.2)
Subject matter foundation courses		
compulsory courses	90 (52.9)	94 (48.5)
optional courses	9 (5.3)	6 (3.1)

Educational/pedagogical courses		
compulsory courses	15 (8.8)	12 (6.2)
optional courses	5 (3.0)	6 (3.1)
Sum credits (%)	153 (90.0)	166 (85.6)
Field experience and teaching practice	17 (10.0)	28 (14.4)
Total credits	170 (100.0)	194 (100.0)

Note: Based on foreign language departments at those universities.

Student teachers at Sichuan Normal University had about 14.7% of the total of 170 credits of learning related to teaching professional education in four-year programme, adding credits for the 12-week teaching practice, the credits awarded to teaching professional education were 21.8%. Student teachers at Leshan Normal University had about 14.5% of 194 credits related to teaching professional education in four-year programme, adding credits for the 10-week teaching practice, the credits awarded to teaching professional education were 23.7%.

3.4 Summary

This chapter introduces the background part of this dissertation.

First, the general background of this comparative study which includes background of the study and Czech and Chinese preservice teacher education are introduced to provide basic information about the differences in the structure of training. In addition, selected issues related to preservice English teacher preparation in both countries are outlined.

Second, methodology of this study is introduced. After then, research resign, methods of sampling, and the context of data collection of the study are presented.

The study employed a quantitative methodology. The survey method was used in the study to collect data to gain an understanding of Czech and Chinese EFL student teachers' competence in curriculum development, and then to compare the similarities and differences.

The study was conducted in two phases. The aim of phase one of the stduy, from the perspective of this dissertation, was mainly to develop the research tool that could

be used in the study. To fulfil the purpose, interviews with teacher educators were carried out in order to obtain rich information that could be used as one of parameters to construct questionnaire. And the validity and reliability of the instrument was determined. In phase two, questionnaire survey was simultaneously conducted in the Czech Republic and in China in winter semester of the following academic year.

Nonprobability sampling was employed in the study to select the sampling institutions, that is, two faculties at universities in Prague and Brno as well as two faculties at the regional universities- Olomouc and Pardubice in the Czech Republic, and two faculties at provincial normal universities in Sichuan province in southwest part of china.

4 Phase One of the Study

Phase one of the study was conducted from May to October 2013. There were two aims of this phase. The first aim was to conduct interviews with teacher educators in order to obtain information that could be used as one of parameters to construct questionnaire. The second aim dealt with development of instrument, including the procedures for validating the instrument and building reliability of the instrument. As interviews in this phase are not the main part of this dissertation, this chapter introduces the procedures related to interviews very briefly. Special attention is related to the development of the questionnaire.

4.1 Interviews

The objective of having interviews in this study was to explore teacher educators' views of what competences are needed by student teachers to participate in the process of curriculum development in the practice in order to obtain information that could be used to construct questionnaire. By analyzing whatever teacher educators saying, it aimed to infer the possible underlying opinions they might have about what teacher competence in curriculum development should be. The data were used as one of parameters to develop a questionnaire based on the key aspects of which teacher educators described the knowledge and skills that they deemed essential for teachers as curriculum developers and curriculum makers. In order to improve understanding of the impact of different education systems and processes and try to seek generalisable and common elements, the interviews were conducted with Czech and Chinese teacher educators.

4.1.1 Methods of data collection and analysis

The semi-structured interviewing technique was chosen to explore what constitutes student teachers' competence in curriculum development from teacher educators' perspective. In brief, it was to explore teacher educators' views of the issues related to curriculum development, teacher knowledge and preservice teacher preparation.

Demographic information was an integral part of the interview schedule. In addition, three types of interview questions, according to the categorizations of interview questions by research methodologists (Royse, Thyler, Padgett, & Logan, 2001), were used in the interview schedule. They were *attitude questions*, *opinion/value questions* and *knowledge questions*. The interview questions were designed to elicit responses to address the research questions. Moreover, the questions for the interviews were developed based upon the following suggestions:

- Semi-structured in-depth interviews with open-ended questions were used to yield in-depth answers about experiences, perceptions, meanings and knowledge of the respondents.
- A list of questions was not used as a rigid questionnaire, but rather as a flexible interview guideline to monitor whether all issues were being addressed (Stake, 1995).
- The interview schedule was tested in a pilot study with three teachers in order to increase its construct validity (Janesick, 1994).
- Talking about their own educational practice is to be proved an excellent starting point to gain insight in the competences which formed the basis of this practice.

Piloting the interview schedule

Researchers can enhance the reliability of their interviews through piloting their interview schedules. Berg (2009) suggests two steps for pre-testing interview schedules. The first step involves a critical examination of the schedule by people familiar with the topic under investigation. The second step involves conducting several practice interviews (p.119).

These steps were followed for pre-testing the interview schedule in this study. Firstly, this schedule was critically examined and then approved by the academic working at the Institute of Education and Social Studies, Palacky University as well as examined by the researcher's colleagues at the Faculty of Education at Sichuan Normal Uiversity. Secondly, three semi-structured interviews were conducted with three experienced teacher educators at the Institute of Education and Social Studies at

the Faculty of Education, Palacky University before conducting the main interviews. Attention was given to the clarity of the questions and the length of the interviews. These interviews were analysed for purposes of productivity, validity and reliability. All the interviews were recorded, so that asking questions and writing notes could be at the same time. In the light of these teachers' comments and feedbacks on the clarity of the questions and the length of the interviews, the final interview schedule included two parts: demographic information and four questions (see Appendix C).

Conducting the interviews

The interviews were conducted from May to July 2013. The volunteers for participating in the interviews were confirmed by email, including the place where they preferred the interview to be held and the appropriate time. Six Czech academics at Palacky University, including three academics at department of English and three at the Institute of education and social studies, were finally confirmed to as interviewees. According to interviewees' responses to the questions of interview schedule, additional different questions were asked during the course of the interviews for each volunteer. Therefore, the length of the interviews ranged between 30 to 50 minutes. In addition, five Chinese academics at Sichuan Normal University, including three at faculty of education and two at school of foreign languages, were recruited for the interviews through telephone and email. These five interviews were conducted by oral and written forms. The background of those eleven participants was shown in Appendix D. All the interviews were numbered, dated and labelled to the interviewees' details. After the interviews, transcripts were sent to each of interviewees to check whether the content was valid. A peer expert with a background in research was asked to review the frequency of counting and data interpretation in order to check the researcher's accuracy in this analysis.

Data analysis

Content analysis was used to interpret the raw data obtained from interviews. In this study, interview data were analyzed by hand coding. Corbin and Strauss's (1990) open,

axial and selective coding procedures were used. The interview data were transcribed soon after each interview (see sample interview transcript in Appendix E). Each interview was coded twice by the researcher to assure that all the important information had been coded. A brief description of the content of those passages was attached to each code for future reference (Patton, 2002). Each code was classified into different categories (axial coding), which were sorted by characteristics into themes (selective coding). Table 4.1 below represents interview analysis.

Table 4.1 Interview Analysis

Theme	Category	Code/Statement (Example quote)	Frequencies (Note)
Curricular components	Resource	**Materials selection** and **textbook use** should play a part in teacher development (Dr. G, Dr. I)	5
	Pupils	Every curriculum ought to start with a survey of **educational needs**… who is going to be the **target audience**. (Dr. D, Dr. B, Dr. A, Dr. G, Dr. I)	5
	Teacher's role	**To teach and educate**, to **enlighten the students**, a large number of **responsibilities** (Dr. A, Dr. B, Dr. G, Dr. H).	4
	Contexts	Practice and theories related to **schools situations and realities, actual events** are most important for student teachers (Dr. A, Dr. B, Dr. F, Dr. D, Dr. E. Dr. I)	9
	Assessment	**Assessment is core task of teachers**… Assessment for learning is not systematically used in Czech schools (Dr. A, Dr. C, Dr. D, Dr. H)	8
	Curriculum standards/ document	**Curriculum standards** play an important role in guiding classroom instruction, textbook compiling and assessment. Teacher's **understanding of curriculum standards/documents** has a direct impact on the effectiveness in practice (Dr. H, Dr. B)	4
Instruction	Teaching method	We not only have to teach them English, we also have to teach them **how to pass their knowledge** to the pupils (Dr. A), to satisfy **student's needs and interests** (Dr. I)	7

		In quite a few primary and secondary schools the **teaching methods are monotonous**. Some teachers try to copy foreign teaching methods, but they don't know the theory that supports the practice. (Ms. J) The **ability to teach** according to **educational objectives** is associated with the maturity that we can't give our students (student teachers) here, but they need to gain some **theoretical basis**. (Dr. C)	4
	Plan lesson	Student teachers should have adequate knowledge of the **content of the lessons**, **course objectives** (Dr. B, Dr. C) student teachers need to know **general criteria how a lesson plan looks like**, why it looks how it looks and what it means to specify the single chapters of a lesson plan (Dr. G, Dr. H, Dr. I, Dr. K, Dr. A, & Dr. C)	5 7
	Management classroom	Student teachers have to be informed about how to **manage the classroom**, **classroom language, target language usage**… It is the **main learning priorities** (Dr. F, Dr. K)	6
Reflection	Reflective activities	What student teachers **actually learn from the experiences** and how teaching experiences contribute to student teachers' development (Dr. G) The **subjective learning** is a core (Dr. D).	7
	Feedback	They have to receive immediate **qualified feedback**… to help them **develop their own teaching** (Dr. C)	4

Note: Number of incidents identified for this emerging them

4.2 Implications for Development of the Questionnaire

4.2.1 Suggested dimension for the questionnaire

After analyzing the interview transcripts, several points have been grouped together into several categories. These categories could be reflected as different dimensions of the questionnaire. Each of these deminsions is explained below and illustrated with examples from transcripts of interviews.

Dimension 1: Resources and materials

Participants asserted that the use of textbook and selection instructional materials were crucial for student teachers participating in the process of curriculum development in their practice. For example:

- Instructional materials are concrete and daily... Teacher practices concerning the use of textbooks are analysed in terms of materials selection and adaption, task design and textbook evaluation… It is considered by most basic school teachers as a requisite skill in their professional development. Thus, student teachers should have adequate knowledge. (Dr. G)
- Materials selection and textbook use should play a part in teacher development and be incorporated into preservice and inservice teacher education programmes (Dr. I).
- Tasks are major component in a textbook. Tasks not only carry the language forms that the learners are supposed to learn, but also suggest possible procedures through which the learners can acquire the target language… Practical instructions on task design are the most desired content of teacher training programmes. (Ms. J)

Within the Chinese context, textbooks have been playing an important role in teaching. At present, the traditional idea of teaching textbooks has been replaced by the idea of using textbooks. With the concomitant differences in the role and function of textbooks, it has posed new demands on teaching profession.

> The curriculum reform has empowered teachers to redevelop textbooks…. It's quite necessary for teachers to use textbooks creatively during the process of teaching. But for lots of teachers who accustomed to teaching the textbooks are hesitantly upset when they are faced with many uncertainties. They are at a loss as to how to redevelop the textbooks. (Dr. H)

Dimension 2: pupils' needs

Teacher needs to know how to transform aspects of the curriculum into transparent aims and objectives which can be understood by the pupils (Newby et al., 2007). To

fulfil it, 4 out of 11 participants deemed it important to understand the pupils, including pupils' needs and their preferred ways of learning English. "Every curriculum ought to start with a survey of educational needs… who is going to be the target audience" (Dr. D), "whatever content, teaching methods or activities must be chosen appropriately for pupils" (Dr. E) to focus on improving pupils' language abilities in four main skills and communication skill and learning autonomy.

Dimension 3: Contexts

Teaching is typically concerned on a day-to-day basis. Teachers at all phases of their professional lives are influenced by their own actions, as well as by their personal relations at school (Tang, 2003). During the interview, 6 out of 11 participants deemed important to know "where are the learning happened" and "teaching according to the circumstances" (Dr. B) for student teachers' teaching competence development. For example:

- Practice and theories related to schools situations and realities are most important for student teachers. (Dr. F)
- Dealing with educational situations… with actual events at schools. (Dr. E)
- Student teachers had to verify the theory in practice and, first of all, receive immediate qualified feedback. (Dr. C)
- Student teaching experiences is the most important component of preservice teacher preparation in building student teachers' equity-oriented knowledge bases, critical inquiry skills, and reform-mindedness….but what student teachers actually learn from the experiences and how teaching experiences contribute to student teachers' development. (Dr. G)

In addition, Dr. H said, "curriculum standards play an important role in guiding classroom instruction, textbook compiling and assessment. Teacher's understanding of curriculum standards has a direct impact on the effectiveness in practice. Therefore, it's necessary to provide student teachers this knowledge."

Dimension 4: Teacher's role

Language teachers have a number of roles to play. Besides teaching subjects, they may need to promote the value of language learning to learners (Newby et al., 2007). During the interview, participants emphasized "how is the teacher facilitating learning", for example, "a teacher should be able to teach as well as to educate, and only pedagogy and didactics are fields of study that can prepare (student teachers) for this mission (Dr. B) and "they (student teachers) should also know how to enlighten the students". (Dr. B)

Dimension 5: Lesson planning

7 out of 11 participants asserted that "lesson planning is needed before instruction begins", and deemed that "teachers (student teachers) are guided in their process of planning", as well as "it is the major part of implementation of a curriculum". However, every teacher preparation programme considerable time is spent teaching student teachers how to write detailed lesson plans (John, 2006); lesson planning is still a challenging activity for student teachers when they begin this process in teaching practice by themselves (Urbánek's, 2005, as cited in Svatoš, 2013). Participants claimed that "student teachers need to be informed to a general ability to plan lessons". For example:

- A student teacher need to know general criteria how a lesson plan looks like, why it looks how it looks and what it means to specify the single chapters of a lesson plan (Dr. H).
- They (student teachers) should have adequate knowledge of the content of the lessons, course objectives (Dr. B).

It matches the views of Furlong (2000) in that planning is a concrete process involving the enactment of particular routines or recipes. In addition, the application of this generic knowledge to a specific teaching unit necessarily happens with respect to English teaching in listening, speaking, reading and writing, pupils' preferred ways of learning English, or better understanding of the culture of English speaking countries.

Dimension 5: Assessment

Assessment is core task of teachers by its very nature. 8 out of 11 participants emphasized the views in that only if teachers are able precisely to diagnose the pupils' learning process and adjust their teaching methods to the results of the assessments with a specific effort to consider the pupils' heterogeneity, instruction leads to higher student achievement. However, "assessment for learning is not systematically used in Czech schools" (Dr. A & Dr. B). Teachers are not trained to deliver formative assessment and adjust teaching and learning to the needs of individual students. They further argue that there is also lack of methodological materials that would help teachers to master this difficult task (Straková et al., 2011, p. 5). No assessment rubrics, reading inventories or developmental continua are available to Czech teachers. And there is little emphasis in assessment practices on providing student feedback and developing teacher-student interactions about student learning (Santiago, Gilmore, Nusche, & Sammons, 2012).

Dimension 6: Classroom management

For student teachers, the transition from the college classroom to the elementary or secondary classroom is typically characterized by "reality shock" (Weinstein, 1988). During the interview, participants emphasized student teachers' management of foreign language classroom. For example:

- Student teachers have to be informed about how to manage the classroom, especially the foreign language classroom… It is the main learning priorities for them. (Dr. F)
- Foreign language classroom is unlike any other… classroom language, target language usage, learning and teaching activity, and interaction are different from other subject areas. (Dr. K)

They responded that student teachers in the preservice preparation programmes needed to be provided knowledge concerning how manage foreign language classroom, and agreed with that student teachers focus more on impact of having to confront the complex world of the classroom than on survival (Weinstein, 1988).

They also underscored the characteristics of English teaching. It closely matches the views of Evans (2012): it would be an error to over-generalize foreign language teachers' challenges with classroom management in an effort to introduce possible solutions without first considering the uniqueness of this particular teaching and learning environment.

Dimension 7: English teaching methodology

This is knowledge related to the learning processes that occur during instruction. As indicated by previous research (Borg, 2006), teaching a language is not only teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills but also including a wide range of other issues such as culture, communication skill and learning skills. Language teaching methodology is aimed at creating contexts for communication and maximizing pupil involvement. During the interview, Ms. J presented an overview of what was happening in EFL in primary and secondary schools in Sichuan province in China.

> In quite a few primary and secondary schools the teaching methods are monotonous. Some teachers try to copy foreign teaching methods, but they don't know the theory that supports the practice. (Ms. J)

Dr. I stated, "Teachers lacked pedagogical approaches to link new knowledge with their students' former knowledge and experiences. Thus, inservice teachers and preservice teachers need to know more about theories concerning language learning and child development in order to satisfy student's needs and interests". "Educational objectives are defined in a general manner… The ability to teach according to it (educational objectives) is associated with the maturity that we can't give our students (student teachers) here, but they need to gain some theoretical basis." (Dr. C)

In brief, according to the above discussion, from teacher educators' perspective, several aspects of knowledge and skills are essential for student teachers to participate in the process of curriculum development, as follows:

- Material selection skills
- The theories of English learning and child development, including individual learners' styles, methods and strategies of learning English.

- Knowledge and skills to design lesson planning
- Evaluation knowledge and skills
- Classroom management skills
- Knowledge and skill to keep English teaching methodology. It addresses ability to select, apply and include relevant pedagogical strategies to offer the subject matter (Shulman, 1986, 1987).

4.2.2 Use "I can-do" descriptors

During the interview, participants deemed that "the subjective learning of preservice English teacher is a core mechanism of professional knowledge construction" (Dr. G), and preservice teacher preparation should help student teachers theorize their own teaching (Dr. G), with "whether specific procedures or exercises seem to work well for a particular group of students" (Tarone & Yule, 2000, p. 10). That is, to develop student teachers' reasoning about why they employ certain instructional strategies and how they can improve their teaching to have a positive effect on students, and to help student teachers engage in reflective activities not only to better learn new ideas but also to sustain professional growth after leaving the programme. It clearly reflects participants' views that developing critical reflection among student teachers is of vital importance for developing their competence in curriculum development.

Previous research (Chudý et al., 2011, p. 35) indicates that competences could be evaluated by data acquired mainly from three sources: self-evaluation, evaluation of subordinates, and evaluation of superiors. Self-assessment during teacher education may precede much of the experience necessary to evaluate one's competence with any reliability (Newby et al., 2007). I Can-Do statements are self-assessment checklists could be used to examine student teachers' competence. And it will often need to be seen in different ways (Newby et al., 2007). For example, "I can" might mean "I think I could, for the following reasons ..." It is the process of self-assessing and giving reasons for one's competence rather than the product of having demonstrated one's competence. However, there is no "product" element to the self-assessment; it could

serve as a reflective tool for student teachers' self-assessment of the competence they have acquired during the preparation.

4.3 Instrumentation

A questionnaire was developed to obtain data regarding student teachers' competence in curriculum development.

The questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straightforward to analyse (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p.317). And it is one of the most efficient research methods for collecting information from participants to describe, compare and explain their knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours (Fink, 2003; Gay, Mills & Airasion, 2006). It is also written instrument that presents "all participants with the same series of questions or statements, which the participants then react to either through providing written answers, marking Likert-style judgements or selecting options from a series of statements" (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p.148). Selecting and organising items of questionnaire are critical issues of its construction. In this study, several considerations were taken into account.

The first was related to the specific nature of the study as well as teaching EFL in the Czech and Chinese contexts. Within the theoretical framework of the study, the objectives of the questionnaires were to enable the researcher to obtain data regarding (a) Czech and Chinese student teachers' comprehension of curriculum, (b) Czech and Chinese student teachers' competence to use of curriculum materials, and (c) Czech and Chinese student teachers' competence to implement a lesson.

The second issue was related to the interview data which would be used as one of parameters to construct questionnaire, for example, use "I can-do" descriptors in the questionnaire (see section 4.2.2).

Besides, the survey questionnaire has derived much of its inspiration from the following sources:

- European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages- A reflection tool for language teacher education (Council of Europe, 2007)
- Core competences of student-centred teachers in the Association K. U. Leuven (Gills et al., 2008)
- The test of teacher competency (Xu, 2004; Wang, 2008)
- The Curriculum Orientation Inventory (COI, Cheung & Wong, 2002)

The fourth was related to using a simple language for designing the items of the questionnaire as it would be completed by non-native English language student teachers.

Actually, the questionnaire used in the study could be seen as an adapted version of the EPOSTL. The questionnaire consisted of seven sections. Section one was related to demographic data. The other sections were the main body of the questionnaire with 70-item. Section two concerned student teachers' understanding of curriculum (items 1 to 10). These items were selected from the Curriculum Orientation Inventory (COI, Cheung & Wong, 2002), representing five different curriculum orientations: Academic Rationalism (items 6 and 7), Cognitive Process (items 1 and 8), Social Reconstruction (items 3 and 10), Humanistic orientation (items 5 and 9), and Behavioural orientation (items 2 and 4), to obtain information about student teachers' comprehension of curriculum. Sections three to six concerned their competence for various resources in English teaching practice (items 11 to 19), teaching contexts (items 20 to 25), specific needs of learning English (items 26 to 30) and implementation of a lesson (items 31 to 64). Section seven (items 65 to 70) was about their reflection of language teacher's role. With regard to section six-competence to implement a lesson, it contained five subsections: lesson planning (items 31 to 37), using lesson plans and content (items 38 to 41), teaching methodology (items 42 to 51), classroom management (items 52 to 59), and evaluation (items 65 to 70). A 5-point Likert scale was introduced in the main body of the questionnaire. Responses on the items ranged from: "1= strongly disagree", "2= disagree", "3= neutral", "4= agree" and "5= strongly agree".

4.3.1 Validity and reliability

Two types of validity of the survey questionnaire were concerned, that is, content validity and face validity. A panel of experts from curriculum and pedagogy and subject matter reviewed the instrument to determine content and face validity of the instrument. The panel members were academics working at the Institute of Education and Social Studies, Palacky University, and working at the Faculty of Education and Department of English, Sichuan Normal University. They were experts in EFL teaching, curriculum and pedagogy, and educational evaluation. The panel was asked to use a questionnaire item validation form (See Appendix F), adapted from Chou (2009) to judge the face and content validity of the items. A decision was made based upon a priori to reword an item judged to be appropriate but unclear or to delete an item judged to be inappropriate or unclear by two thirds or more of the panel members.

One EFL teacher and one EFL student teacher were selected to conduct the field test in order to help clarify items. They were asked to review the items in order to help with wording, ease of use, format, and overall instrument appearance.

According to the comments from the experts and the field test, a draft instrument was developed for the pilot test in October 2013. Forty-five Chinese EFL student teachers at Sichuan Normal University who were in the desired target populations for comparison but not final sample were randomly selected to conduct the pilot test to evaluate the reliability of the survey questionnaire. Pilot study was conducted in Chinese university basing on two reasons. First, the size of Chinese sample was bigger. Second, the researcher is an academic working at Sichuan Normal University; it's convenience to conduct the pilot study and the final survey.

Cronbach's alpha was applied to the data from the pilot study to establish a coefficient of internal consistency. The value of Cronbach's alpha is used as "_ > .9 – Excellent, _ >.8 – Good, _ > .7 –Acceptable, _ >.6 – Questionable, _> .5 – Poor, and _< .5 – Unacceptable" (George & Kallery, 2003, p.231). The internal consistency reliability coefficient for the sections 2, 3, 4, 5 and 7 was 0.70, 0.89, 0.87, 0.75 and

0.88. Regarding section six, student teachers' knowledge and skills about implementation of a lesson, the internal consistency reliability coefficient for five subsections was 0.78, 0.85, 0.94, 0.59, and 0.90. Therefore, items 52, 53 and 54 in the subsection were deleted to raise Cronbach's alpha to 0.73.

4.3.2 Final Survey Instrument

Based upon the result of the pilot test, the final survey questionnaire was developed with seven sections (See Appendix G). Section 1 contained the participants' demographic data with 6 items when the survey questionnaire was used in Czech and with 5 items when it was used in China. Section 2 contained 10 items intended to explore student teachers' understanding of curriculum. Sections 3, 4 and 5 included 9 items, 6 items and 5 items which respectively concerned their competence for resources in English teaching practice, teaching contexts, and specific needs of learning English. Section 6 was composed of five subsections about their competence to implement a lesson: lesson planning with 7 items, using lesson plans and content with 4 items, teaching methodology with 10 items, classroom management with 5 items, and evaluation with 5 items. Section 7 contained 6 items regarding language teacher's role.

4.4 Summary

This chapter reports the results of phase one of the study, including the procedures and results of interviews with teacher educators as well as the development of instrument that could be used in the study. The development of instrument has derived much of its inspiration from interviews data, reflecting on its content dimension and format. After then, the validity and reliability of the instrument was determined. A panel of experts and a field test established content and face validity, and to identify any issues with items written on the questionnaires, followed by a pilot study to examine reliability.

5 Phase Two of the Study

Questionnaire survey which presents the second phase of the study introduced in this dissertation was conducted on the basis of the findings from phase one of the study discussed in the previous chapter.

As this chapter is central part of this dissertation, the results are reported in a more detailed way, including the research questions and hypotheses, data collection and analyses procedures, survey results, as well as and comparison and discussion.

5.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

In order to facilitate the investigation regarding what Czech and Chinese EFL student teachers' competence in curriculum development is like, the researcher formulated the following research questions, which were derived from the underlying research question: what constitutes student teacher's competence in curriculum development, as well as the theoretical model of the present study.

1. What understanding do EFL student teachers have about curriculum?
2. What competence do EFL student teachers have to use of curriculum materials?
3. What competence do EFL student teachers have to implement a lesson?

The following sub-questions and hypotheses were established in order to fulfil the research purpose, that is, to identify the possible similarities or differences between Czech and Chinese student teachers' competence in curriculum development.

1. Is there a difference in student teachers' understanding of curriculum between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?
   - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' understanding of curriculum between Czech and Chinese first-year groups.
   - H_1: There is a difference in student teachers' understanding of curriculum between Czech and Chinese first-year groups.

2. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the resources between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?
    - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' competence for the resources between Czech and Chinese first-year groups
    - H_2: There is a difference in student teachers' competence for the resources between Czech and Chinese first-year groups
3. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the contexts between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?
    - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' competence for the contexts between Czech and Chinese first-year groups.
    - H_3: There is a difference in student teachers' competence for the contexts between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?
4. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the needs between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?
    - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' competence for the needs between Czech and Chinese first-year groups.
    - H_4: There is a difference in student teachers' competence for the needs between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?
5. Is there a difference in student teachers' self-reflection about language teacher's role between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?
    - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' self-reflection about language teacher's role between Czech and Chinese first-year groups.
    - H_5: There is a difference in student teachers' self-reflection about language teacher's role between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?
6. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence to implement a lesson between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?
    - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' competence to implement a lesson between Czech and Chinese first-year groups.

- H_6: There is a difference in student teachers' competence to implement a lesson between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?

7. Is there a difference in student teachers' understanding of curriculum between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?
   - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' understanding of curriculum between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.
   - H_7: There is a difference in student teachers' understanding of curriculum between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.
8. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the resources between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?
   - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' competence for the resources between Czech and Chinese last-year groups
   - H_8: There is a difference in student teachers' competence for the resources between Czech and Chinese last-year groups
9. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the contexts between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?
   - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' competence for the contexts between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.
   - H_9: There is a difference in student teachers' competence for the contexts between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?
10. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the needs between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?
    - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' competence for the needs between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.
    - H_{10}: There is a difference in student teachers' competence for the needs between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?
11. Is there a difference in student teachers' self-reflection about language teacher's role between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?

- H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' self-reflection about language teacher's role between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.
- H_{11}: There is a difference in student teachers' self-reflection about language teacher's role between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?

12. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence to implement a lesson between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?
    - H_0: There is no difference in student teachers' competence to implement a lesson between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.
    - H_{12}: There is a difference in student teachers' competence to implement a lesson between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?

5.2 Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

The survey data collection for the study was completed over a period of three months from October to December 2013 with the survey instrument developed in phase one of the study.

The questionnaire surveys in Czech universities were conducted during the winter semester of academic year 2013/2014, after Year 2 student teachers finished their one-month teaching practice at primary and secondary schools. The surveys at Charles University were conducted with the help of the head and two academics working at the Department of English Language and Literature. The researcher distributed the questionnaires to Year 2 master students and collected data in one academic's class. The surveys at Masaryk University and Palacky University were conducted with the help of the heads of English departments. They helped distribute the questionnaires and collect data. The surveys at University of Pardubice were also conducted in class with the help of the head of Department of British and American Studies. Other questionnaires were distributed through emails. Generally, almost all the EFL student teachers at Charles University, Masaryk University and Palacky University and the first year EFL student teachers at University of Pardubice participated in the survey; however the survey was on a voluntary basis. In total, 126

questionnaires were returned from 147 respondents, 3 questionnaires were invalid, with a response rate of 85.7% and the actual useable rate was 83.7%.

The questionnaire surveys in two Chinese normal universities were conducted from October to December 2013. The researcher's colleagues who were working at Sichuan Normal University and Leshan Normal University helped distribute the questionnaires and collect data. In total, 453 questionnaires were returned from 568 respondents, 52 questionnaires were invalid, with a response rate of 79.8% and the actual useable rate was 70.6%.

Table 5.1 is the demographic information of the return questionnaires which are contained by four groups: two Czech groups and two Chinese groups. CZ1 group means that the respondents in this group were Czech student teachers in the first year of two-year follow-up master's teacher education programmes, CZ2 group means that the respondents in this group were Czech student teachers in the last year of two-year follow-up master's teacher education programmes, CN1 group means that the respondents in this group were Chinese student teachers in the first year of four-year bachelor's teacher education programmes, and CN2 group means that the respondents in this group were Chinese student teachers in the last year of four-year bachelor's teacher education programmes.

Table 5.1 Demographic Information of Respondents (N=524)

	Groups	Number	Total
Czech respondents	CZ1	62	123
	CZ2	61	
Chinese respondents	CN1	222	401
	CN2	179	

81.3% of the Czech respondents were female and 18.7% were male whilst 87.3% of the Chinese respondents were female and 12.7% were male. In addition, most of the Czech respondents (76.4%) had other teaching experiences which are out of university based teacher education programmes whilst less than 30% of the Chinese respondents had those kinds of teaching experiences. Even for the student teachers in

CN2 group which means they were in their last year of teacher education before they could be eligible to become English teachers, only slight over 50% of them had other teaching experiences.

Quantitative data collected from questionnaire surveys were analyzed by using PASW Statistics 18. Descriptive statistics were first used to organize and summarize the collected data, such as descriptive frequencies, means, percentages, standard deviations, and 95% confidence intervals, in order to delineate the overall picture of Czech and Chinese student teachers' competence in curriculum development. Independent samples t test was then used to examine the difference and relationship among questions[1].

5.3 Results in the Czech Educational Setting

Two Czech groups in this study were constituted by 123 student teachers from 4 Czech universities, whilst, the respondents in the CZ2 group which were composed of Year 2 master's student teachers were from Charles University, Masaryk University and Palacky University. The student teachers in the CZ1 group were on average 23.4 years old, two of them were 27 years old; whilst, the student teachers in the CZ2 group were on average 25 years old, five of them were more than thirty. In addition, to be a Czech secondary school teacher is usually required to be specialized in two subjects. According to the ISCED Fields of Education and Training 2013 (consultation draft), the other subjects of respondents were: Education (special education, health education and pedagogy), Arts (art and music), Humanities (history), Language (German, French, Russian and Czech), Social and behaviour sciences (social science and civics), Physical sciences, Mathematics and statistics, and Information & Communication Technologies (See table 1 in Appendix I).

[1] Independent samples t test can handle different sample sizes, see Example 3.3 in Elliott & Woodward' (2007, p. 65) Statistical Analysis Quick Reference Guidebook with SPSS Examples.

5.3.1 Czech student teachers' understanding of curriculum

By a closer examination the statistics which represent two Czech groups' responses to this issue, it can be seen that student teachers in the CZ1 group (strongly) agreed with the items related to the Cognitive Process (items 1 and 8 with 77.4% and 62.9%), Humanistic orientation (items 5 and 9 with 74.2% and 61.3%), and Academic Rationalism orientation (items 6 and 7 with 71% and 79%) (see table 2 in Appendix H). For examples, over 85% of the respondents in the CZ1 group agreed or strongly agreed with items 4 and 10 which represent the Behavioural and Social Reconstruction orientations, whilst, over 70% agreed or strongly agreed with items 1, 5, 6 and 7, and over 60% agreed or strongly agreed with items 8 and 9. Even though the percentage of (strongly) agreement with item 2, the Behavioural orientation, was slightly over 50%, 35.5% of the respondents were neutral about whether "selection of curriculum content and teaching activities for every school subject should be based on the learning objectives". As for the item 3, "Curriculum should let students understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society", 46.8% were neutral about it.

Regarding the respondents in the CZ2 group, results revealed that student teachers in the CZ2 group (strongly) agreed with the items related to the Cognitive Process (items 1 and 8 with 83.6% and 75.4%) and Social Reconstruction (items 3 and 10 with 60.7% and 72.2%) orientations (see table 2 also). For instance, over 80% agreed or strongly agreed with items 1, 2 and 5, whilst, over 70% agreed or strongly agreed with items 7, 8 and 10, and 60.7% agreed or strongly agreed with item 3. While 91.8% had highly approval of item 5 which states "curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each student"- the Humanistic orientation, 16.4% disagreed with "students' interests and needs should be the organizing center of curriculum"- another item related to the same curriculum orientation, and 29.5% were neutral about it. As for the item 6 which reflects the Academic Rationalism orientation describing "the most important curriculum contents of primary and secondary school students is subject knowledge", both the objection

and agreement were almost equal (39.4% and 39.3%). Even though the percentages of (strongly) agreement with item 4 was slightly over 50%, 39.3% of the respondents were neutral about the statement of "for curriculum design, the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which students have attained the intended learning objectives".

It is clear that Czech student teachers in both groups, their understanding of curriculum value multiple orientations toward the curriculum rather than adhere to one orientation, for example, Czech first-year student teachers value Academic Rationalism, Cognitive Process and Humanistic orientations toward curriculum; Czech last-year student teachers value Cognitive Process and Social Reconstruction orientations.

5.3.2 Czech student teachers' declarative competence to use of curriculum materials

Student teachers' uses of curriculum materials will be impacted by various resources in English teaching practice, contexts (including external requirements/ standards), pupils' needs and language teacher's role (see section 2.4). Therefore, this issue is analyzed by synthesis of the results of these dimensions, shown as follows.

Various resources in English teaching practice

For a closer examination of the statistics which represent two groups' responses to the statements of dealing with various resources in English teaching practice (see table 3 in Appendix H), one can see that over half of the respondents in the CZ1 group indicated that they had positive position on 7 out of 9 items related to the resources in language teaching practice. 82.3% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with that they could use appropriate ICT materials and activities in the classroom (item 15). Over 80% agreed or strongly agreed with items 11 and 14 which reflect the knowledge of identifying a range of coursebooks /materials and designing learning materials and activities appropriate for particular pupils' age, interests and their language level. However, 19.3% (strongly) disagreed and 48.4% were neutral about

that they could recommend suitable books for specific pupils (item 19). Moreover, over 77% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with items 12 and 13 which represent the knowledge of selecting texts and language activities from coursebooks and making use of ideas and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books. As for the items which deal with selecting materials, including authentic materials, visual aids and other materials, to promote pupils' four skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing, 69.4% (strongly) agreed with item 16, whilst, 40.3% were neutral or disagreed with item 17, and 51.6% were neutral or (strongly) agreed with item 18.

Over half of the respondents in the CZ2 group indicated that they had positive position on all the items related to the resources in language teaching practice. 93.4% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with item 13 which represents the competence for making use of ideas and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books. Over 88% agreed or strongly agreed with items 12 and 14 which reflect the competence for selecting texts and language activities from coursebooks and designing learning materials and activities based on particular pupils. Regarding other items related to specific pupils' needs, interests and language level, 73.8% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could identify a range of coursebooks /materials (item 11), however, 42.6% were neutral or disagreed with that they could recommend appropriate books (item 19) to particular pupils. Moreover, over 78% agreed or strongly agreed with items 15, 16 and 17 which represent the knowledge of using ICT and selecting materials to promote pupils' language skills of listening, reading and speaking. As for the item 18 which deals with selecting materials to stimulate pupil's language skill of writing, such as authentic materials and visual aids, 41% were neutral or disagreed with it. Moreover, both items 17 and 18 are about selecting authentic materials, visual aids and other materials, results indicated that the respondents were more competent in selecting materials to stimulate speaking activities.

Teaching contexts

Over 75% of the respondents in the CZ1 group (strongly) agreed with items 23, 24 and 25 which reflect that they could teach English within the particular social and local contexts, relating to the culture and current events, and create a supportive atmosphere to stimulate pupils' speaking. However, over one third of the student teachers were neutral about whether they could design English courses around the requirements set in the FEP BE, or adapt teaching in the light of "the recognisation of the organisational constraints and resource limitations" of school. Whilst, a total of 56.5% were neutral or (strongly) disagreed with that they understood "the requirements set in the FEP BE" (item 20) (see table 4 in Appendix H).

Regarding the student teachers in the CZ2 group, the similar the responses are shown through the descriptive data (also see table 4). Over 65% agreed or strongly agreed with items 23, 24 and 25 which reflect that they could teach English within social and cultural contexts as well as create a supportive atmosphere to stimulate pupils' speaking. 55.7% agreed or strongly agreed with item 22 which represents their competence for adapting teaching according to "the recognition of the organisational constraints and resource limitations" of school, whilst 6.6% disagreed and 37.7% were neutral about it. Although a total of 54.2% indicated that they understood "the requirements set in the FEP BE" (item 20), only 27.9% indicated that they could design English courses around the requirements set in the FEP BE (item 21), more than 55% were neutral about it.

Specific needs of learning English

By a closer examination the statistics which represent two Czech groups' student teachers' responses to the statements towards specific needs of learning English (see see table 5 in Appendix H), it can be seen that over half of the student teachers in the CZ1 group indicated that they had positive position on all the items. 77.4% indicated that they understood the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning English (item 26), whilst, 83.9% indicated that they could take into account the different motivations for learning it (item 27), and 75.8% indicated that they could take into

account the expectations and impact of different educational stakeholders (item 30). Concerning pupils' needs in English teaching and learning, 72.6% indicated that they could think about pupils' affective needs (item 29), 55.3% could take into account pupils' cognitive needs (item 28). However, more than one third of the student teachers in the CZ1 group were neutral about the latter.

Regarding the responses of the student teachers in the CZ2 group, if the categories *Strongly Agree* (49.2%) and *Agree* (45.9%) with item 26 are merged, an overwhelming opinion that the student teachers in the CZ2 group "understand the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning English" becomes apparent. For items 27 and 29 which are about the competence for dealing with different motivations and pupils' affective needs in English teaching and learning, over 75% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statements. Whilst, 64% agreed with that they could think about pupils' cognitive needs (item 28). With regard to item 30, less than 50% (strongly) agreed with that they could "take into account the expectations and impact of educational stakeholders (such as employers, parents, funding agencies etc.)", whilst 3.3% disagreed, 47.5% were neutral about it.

Language teachers' role

Over 75% of the student teachers in the CZ1 groups (strongly) agreed with 4 out of 6 statements about language teachers' role (see table 6 in Appendix H). 96.8% reported that they could accept mentors and peers' feedback to teaching (item 64) as well as 90.3% could promote the value and benefits of English learning to pupils (item 62). Concerning the items 63 and 67 which are about applying the theoretical knowledge of language teaching and learning to practice, 82.3% indicated that they could use the theories to guide teaching and 45.2% (strongly) agreed with that they could identify specific pedagogical/ didactic issues related to the pupils of teaching in the form of action research, whilst 41.9% were neutral and 12.9% (strongly) disagreed with the latter. Moreover, 77.4% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could critically assess their teaching based on pupils' feedback, theoretical principles, etc., whilst, 46.8% were neutral about whether they could give others feedback about their

teaching from the perspective of methodology.

With regard to the student teachers in the CZ2 group (see table 6 in Appendix H), altogether 80.3% indicated that they could promote the value and benefits of English learning to pupils (item 62). Regarding the items 63 and 67 which are about applying the theoretical knowledge of language teaching and learning to practice, of the respondents over 40% were neutral as well as over 13% (strongly) disagreed with these two statements, whilst, 44.3% indicated that they could use the theories to guide teaching, and 37.7% indicated that they could identify specific pedagogical/ didactic issues related to the pupils of teaching in the form of action research. Concerning the items 64, 65 and 66 which are about the feedbacks of teaching, 86.9% indicated that they could accept mentors and peers' feedback to teaching, 90.1% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could critically assess their teaching based on pupils' feedback, theoretical principles, etc., whilst, 57.4% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could give others feedback about their teaching from the perspective of methodology. One point should be noted, for three items related to teacher as researcher to use of theoretical knowledge in practice, the CZ2 group's student teachers' responses of neutral were all more than 30%.

5.3.3 Czech student teachers' declarative competence to implement a lesson

Implementation of a lesson is a continuous process related to lesson planning to evaluation (see section 2.4). Figure 5.1 is a representation of two Czech groups' student teachers' responses to the issues in the process of implementation of a lesson.

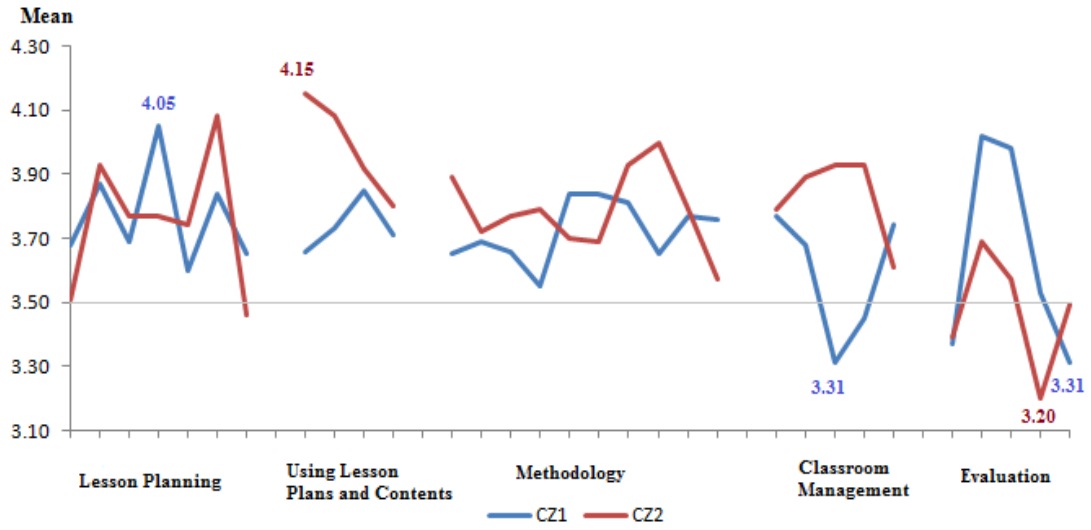

Figure 5.1 Results of Czech Student Teachers' Competence to Implement a Lesson

As it shown, Czech student teachers in the two groups respectively valued each items to various degrees with means on a 5-point scale ranging from a low of 3.31 to a high of 4.05 (CZ1 group) as well as from 3.20 to 4.15 (CZ2 group). Moreover, the means for most statements in both groups were above 3.5. To be more concrete, how Czech student teachers in two groups reacted these issues are analyzed respectively as follows.

Lesson planning

On Czech groups' student teachers' competence for lesson planning, results (see table 7 in Appendix H) showed that over 60% of the student teachers in the CZ1 group indicated competencies in all the items. 72.6% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could "plan specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or for a period of teaching" (item 32), 66.2% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could "structure lesson plans and/or plan for periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content" (item 33), and 62.9% (strongly) agreed with that they could "set learning aims and objectives suited to learners' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements" (item 31). However, over 30% of the student teachers were neutral about the latter two items. As for the other items, 83.9% (strongly) agreed with that they could ensure the interdependence of the four main skills of language

(item 34), whilst, 61.3% could emphasise the "language and culture" (item 35) and 70.9% could "link grammar and vocabulary with communication" (item 36) when they planned activities, as well as 61.3% indicated that they could plan to teach elements of other subjects using English (item 37).

Regarding the student teachers in the CZ2 group, over 60% indicated competencies in planning activities, especially to "link grammar and vocabulary with communication" (the agreement of item 36 was 88.5%), then to emphasise the interdependence of the four language skills (item 34, 64%) and of "language and culture" (item 35, 62.3%). As for the item 37, "I can plan to teach elements of other subjects using English (cross-curricular teaching, etc.)", less than 50% (strongly) agreed with it. With regard to other items, 82% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could "plan specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or for a period of teaching" (item 32), 67.2% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could "structure lesson plans and/or plan for periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content" (item 33), whilst slightly over 50% (strongly) agreed with that they could "set learning aims and objectives suited to pupils' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements" (item 31). Furthermore, over one third of the student teachers were neutral about three items (31, 35 and 37), in which one is about student teachers' understanding of curriculum requirements and specific pupils, the other two are about the characteristics of teaching language, namely, teaching culture and cross-curricular teaching using English.

Using lesson plans and content

On the student teachers' use of lesson plans and content, results (see table 8 in Appendix H) showed that over half of Czech student teachers in both groups were competent in all the items which indicate that they could flexibly use lesson plans in practice, such as the necessary adjustments of the sequence of lesson and time schedule. Also over half of the student teachers in both groups indicated that they could teach in light of pupils' knowledge and previous language learning experiences as well as different characteristics of individuals and groups learning. However, of the

student teachers in the CZ1 group, over 40% were neutral about whether they could flexibly deal with a lesson plan according to pupils' interests (item 38), whilst, over 20% were neutral about the other items.

Of the student teachers in the CZ2 group, 83.6% indicated that they could do necessary adjustments of the sequence of lesson (item 38) as well as 78.7% indicated that they could flexibly work on the time schedule (item 39) of the lesson plan in classroom teaching and learning. Also over 70% indicated that they could teach in light of pupils' knowledge and previous language learning experiences as well as different characteristics of individuals and groups learning.

Teaching methodology

Over half of the student teachers in both Czech groups reported that they were competent in most of statements of language teaching methodology (see table 9 in Appendix H).

Of the student teachers in the CZ1 group, 62.9% reported that they could select different activities to help pupils to use different text types in oral performance (item 42), 59.7% could help pupils to use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts (item 49), and 69.3% could select grammatical exercises to support learning and encourage oral and written communication (item 48), as well as 66.1% indicated that they could select writing activities to help pupils to use appropriate language to write different text types (item 43) and 65.4% could consolidate pupils' learning of grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc. (item 44). Moreover, 54.8% indicated that they could design different activities to practice and develop pupils' listening strategies (item 45), whilst, 75.8% could set activities to practice and develop their reading strategies (item 47), and 75.8% indicated that they could select post-listening tasks to provide a bridge between listening and other skills (item 46). As for the items 50 and 51, 69.3% indicated that they select activities to help pupils to develop their socio-cultural competence (item 50) and 64.5% could make them aware of the interrelationship between culture and language (item 51). One point should be noted, over 30% of the

student teachers in the CZ1 group were neutral about 5 out of 10 statements, and especially more than 40% were neutral about item 45.

With regard to the student teachers in the CZ2 group, over 60% of them were competent in 9 out of 10 statements of language teaching methodology. Over 70% agreed or strongly agreed with items 42, 49, 44 and 48 which indicate that they could select different activities to help pupils to "use different text types (telephone conversations, transactions, speeches, etc.)" and "use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts", as well as select "writing activities to consolidate learning (grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc.)" and "grammatical exercises to support learning and encourage oral and written communication". Over 60% agreed or strongly agreed with items 43, 46, 45, 47 and 50 which indicate that they could select "writing activities to help learners use appropriate language for different text types (letters, stories, reports, etc.)" and "post-listening tasks to provide a bridge between listening and other skills" as well as design or set different activities to practice and develop listening and reading strategies and socio-cultural competence, whilst over 24% of the student teachers were neutral about them. Concerning item 51 which is about choosing teaching activities to make pupils aware of the interrelationship between culture and language, slightly over 50% agreed or strongly agreed with that they were competent in it, whilst 37.7 were neutral.

Classroom management

On the responses of the student teachers in both groups to the statements of classroom management, results showed that over 30% of the student teachers in the CZ1 group were neutral about all of the statements, even more than 50% of them were neutral or (strongly) disagreed with 2 out of 5 statements, whilst over 70% of the student teachers in the CZ2 group had positive attitude about first four items (see table 10 in Appendix H).

For a closer examination of the statistics, it can be seen that 67.8% of the student teachers in the CZ1 group indicated that they could cater for a range of learning styles (item 52), whilst 64.5% indicated that they could plan the use of target language (item

56) and 58.1% could decide when to or not to use the target language in the classroom (item 53). As for the items 54 and 55, over 50% of the student teachers were neutral or (strongly) disagreed with that they could use various strategies to facilitate pupils' understanding of the target language as well as encourage pupils to use English in their activities.

Of the student teachers in the CZ2 group, over 70% reported that they could cater pupils' different learning styles and decide when to use or not use the target language and could use various strategies to facilitate pupils' understanding of the target language, also could encourage pupils to use English in their activities. As for the item 56, over 40% of the student teachers were neutral or disagreed with that they could plan how to use the target language including metalanguage in the classroom.

Evaluation in language teaching

By a closer examination the statistics of a representation of two Czech groups' student teachers' responses to the statements of evaluation in language teaching (see table 11 in Appendix H), it can be seen that more than or equal to 50% of the student teachers in the CZ1 group were neutral or (strongly) disagreed with 3 out of 5 items, whilst, over one third of the student teachers in the CZ2 group were neutral or (strongly) disagreed with all the items and even over 55% were neutral or disagreed with 2 out of 5 items. It is obvious that both Czech groups' student teachers to a large extent, their competence for evaluation need to be improved.

Of the student teachers in the CZ1 group, over 70% (strongly) agreed with items 58 and 59 which reflected they were competent in using in-class activities to monitor and assess pupils' participation and performance as well as using reliable and transparent procedures to assign grades for tests and examinations. Moreover, 50% were neutral and 9.7% (strongly) disagreed with that they could select valid assessment procedures appropriate to learning aims and objectives (item 57). Concerning the rest of items about help pupils' self-assessment (item 60) and help them to engage in peer assessment (item 61), 50% were neutral or disagreed with the former, whilst 50% were neutral and 11.3% (strongly) disagreed with the latter.

Of the student teachers in the CZ2 group, over 40% were neutral about whether they could "select valid assessment procedures appropriate to learning aims and objectives" (item 57) and "help learners to set personal targets and assess their own performance" (item 60), whilst the objections were 11.5% and 21.3%. Other three items 58, 59 and 61, which respectively represents their competence for using of in-class activities to monitor and assess pupils' participation and performance, assigning grades for tests and examinations through reliable and transparent procedures, and helping pupils to engage in peer assessment, about 30% were neutral about the statements, whilst slightly over 50% agreed or strongly agreed with them.

5.4 Results in the Chinese Educational Setting

Two Chinese groups in this study were constituted by 401 student teachers from 2 Chinese normal universities (see table 12 in Appendix I). 44.9% of the respondents were from Sichuan Normal University and 55.1% were from Leshan Normal University. The pilot study was conducted in the beginning student teachers in Sichuan Normal University, and those student teachers did not participate in the final survey. Therefore, the respondents from Sichuan Normal University in the CN1 group were less than 50%.

Student teachers may have started to reflect on their learning in the programme in the final year of studies, especially after their experiences with the practicum and some experiences with the job applications, if not earlier (Wu, 2005). Therefore, the survey of the CN2 group was conducted in the end of December, after they finished their practicum in the 7th semester of the study programmes. In both groups, over 85% of the respondents were female. 95% of the student teachers in the CN1 group were between the ages of 18 and 19, whilst 91% in the CN2 group were between the ages of 21 and 22.

5.4.1 Chinese student teachers' understanding of curriculum

The student teachers in the CN1 and CN2 groups answered 10 items which were used to solicit information about the beliefs, philosophy, views, or ways of thinking of

student teachers about their curriculum orientations under five dimensions (see table 13 in Appendix I).

With regard to the respondents in the CN1 group, both 92.8% of them agreed or strongly agreed with items 1 and 3, whilst, over 80% agreed or strongly agreed with items 2 and 8, 79.4% agreed or strongly agreed with item 7, and over 60% agreed or strongly agreed with items 4, 9 and 10. That is, student teachers in the CN1 group (strongly) agreed with items related to the Cognitive Process (items 1 and 8 with 92.8% and 82.9%), Behavioural orientation (items 2 and 4 with 86.9% and 64.8%), and Social Reconstruction (items 3 and 10 with 92.8% and 64.0%). Concerning item 5 which stated "curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each student"- the Humanistic orientation, 15.8% of the respondents disagreed, whilst 27.9% were neutral about it. As for the item 6 which reflects the Academic Rationalism orientation describing "the most important curriculum contents of primary and secondary school students is subject knowledge", 34.3% agreed, whilst, 43.2% (strongly) disagreed, 22.5% were neutral about it.

Regarding the respondents in the CN2 group, over 80% agreed or strongly agreed with items 1, 2 and 3, whilst, over 70% agreed or strongly agreed with items 7, 8 and 9, and over 60% agreed or strongly agreed with items 4, 5 and 10. That is, the student teachers in the CN2 group (strongly) to a large extent agreed with almost all the items except item 6 which reflected the Academic Rationalism orientation. 24% of the respondents (strongly) disagreed with the statement that "the most important curriculum contents of primary and secondary school students is subject knowledge", whilst 35.2% were neutral about it. Moreover, 95.0% had highly approval of item 1 which states "during the teaching-learning process, it is most important to give students opportunities to think about problems"- the Cognitive Process.

It is obvious that Chinese student teachers in both groups also value multiple orientations toward the curriculum rather than adhere to one orientation.

5.4.2 Chinese student teachers' declarative competence to use of curriculum materials

The issue of student teachers' competence to use of curriculum materials is analyzed by synthesis of the results towards the resources in English teaching practice, the contexts (including external requirements/ standards), and pupils' specific needs of learning English as well as language teacher's role, as shown in the following part.

Various resources in English teaching practice

Over half of the respondents in the CN1 group reported that they had positive position on all of the items related to the resources in English teaching practice (see table 14 in Appendix I). 72.1% and 69.4% agreed or strongly agreed with items 12 and 13 which represent the knowledge of selecting texts and language activities from coursebooks and making use of ideas and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books. Regarding the items related to pupils' needs, interests and language level, 66.2% (strongly) agreed with that they could identify a range of coursebooks /materials (item 11), 58.6% (strongly) agreed with that they could design appropriate learning materials and activities (item 14), 60.3% (strongly) agreed with that they could use appropriate ICT materials and activities in the classroom (item 15), and 77.6% (strongly) agreed with that they could recommend suitable books (item 19) to particular pupils. As for items 16, 17 and 18 which represent the knowledge of selecting materials, including authentic materials, visual aids and other materials, to promote pupils' four skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing, the percentages of (strongly) agreement were 61.2%, 71.6% and 69.8%. One point should be noted according the results shown in table is that more than one third of the student teachers in the CN1 group were neutral about items 11, 14 and 15 which reflect their knowledge about pupils' needs, interests and English proficiency level in practice.

Over 70% of the respondents in the CN2 group reported that they had positive position on all the items related to the resources in English teaching practice (see table 14 also). Over 75% agreed or strongly agreed with items 12 and 13 which represent the competence for selecting texts and language activities from coursebooks and

making use of ideas and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books. In terms of the items related to pupils' needs, interests and English proficiency level, over 70% (strongly) agreed with that they could identify a range of coursebooks /materials (item 11), design appropriate learning materials and activities (item 14), and use appropriate ICT materials and activities in the classroom (item 15), whilst, 83.8% (strongly) agreed with that they could recommend suitable books (item 19) to particular pupils. As for items 16, 17 and 18 which are about selecting materials, including authentic materials, visual aids and other materials, to promote pupils' four skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing, the percentages of (strongly) agreement were 85.4%, 74.9% and 75.5%.

Teaching contexts

Over half of the student teachers in the CN1 group reported that they had positive position on all the items related to teaching contexts (see table 15 in Appendix I). 67.6% (strongly) agreed with that they understood the requirements set in the National English Language Curriculum Standards for nine-year compulsory education (item 20), whilst 61.3% indicated that they could design English courses around its requirements (item 21). Over 70% (strongly) agreed with items 22, 24 and 25 which reflect the knowledge of adapting teaching in terms of school context, teaching culture during teaching English, and creating a supportive atmosphere to stimulate pupils' speaking. As for the item 23, 53.2% (strongly) agreed with that they could relate the teaching to current events in local and international contexts, whilst, 1.8% disagreed and 45% were neutral. Moreover, it can be seen that more than one third of the student teachers were neutral about items 21 and 23.

With regard to the student teachers in the CN2 group, also over half of them indicated that they had positive position on all the items related to teaching contexts as well as over one third of them were neutral about two same items- item 21 and 23 (see table 15 also). 76% (strongly) agreed with that they understood the requirements set in the National English Language Curriculum Standards for nine-year compulsory education (item 20), whilst 65.9% indicated that they could design English courses

around its requirements (item 21). Likewise, over 70% (strongly) agreed with items 22, 24 and 25 which reflect the competence for adapting teaching in terms of school context, teaching culture during teaching English, and creating a supportive atmosphere to stimulate pupils' speaking. As for the item 23, more than one third of the student teachers were neutral about whether they could relate the teaching to current events in local and international contexts, whilst, 6.2% indicated they couldn't.

Specific needs of learning English

By a closer examination the statistics of a representation of two Chinese groups' student teachers' responses to the statements towards specific needs of learning English (see table 16 in Appendix I), it can be seen that over 70% of the student teachers in the CN1 group reported that they had positive position on all the items. However, over 25% were neutral about items 28 and 30. 82% indicated that they understood the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning English (item 26), whilst, 80.2% indicated that they could take into account the different motivations for learning it (item 27), and 70.7% indicated that they could take into account the expectations and impact of different educational stakeholders (item 30). Concerning pupils' needs in English teaching and learning, 82.4% indicated that they could think about pupils' affective needs (item 29), 73.9% could take into account pupils' cognitive needs (item 28).

Regarding the responses of the student teachers in the CN2 group, also over 70% of the student teachers reported that they had positive position on all the items. Moreover, over 20% were neutral about items 27 and 28. 86.6% indicated that they understood the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning English (item 26), whilst, 72.1% indicated that they could take into account the different motivations for learning it (item 27), and 75.4% indicated that they could take into account the expectations and impact of different educational stakeholders (item 30). Concerning pupils' needs in English teaching and learning, 83.8% indicated that they could think about pupils' affective needs (item 29), 78.2% could take into account pupils'

cognitive needs (item 28).

In light of the analysis above, one point is obvious that to some extent Czech student teachers in both groups are confident in taking into account pupils' affective needs rather than their cognitive needs.

Language teachers' role

Over 60% of the student teachers in the CN1 groups reported that they (strongly) agreed with all the items about language teachers' role (see table 17 in Appendix I). 70.3% indicated that they could promote the value and benefits of English learning to pupils (item 62). Items 63 and 67 are about applying the theoretical knowledge of language teaching and learning to practice. 61.2% indicated that they could use the theories to guide teaching and 70.7% (strongly) agreed with that they could identify specific pedagogical/ didactic issues related to the pupils of teaching in the form of action research, whilst over one third of them were neutral about the former. With regard to the items 64, 65 and 66 which are about the feedbacks of teaching, 72.5% indicated that they could accept mentors and peers' feedback to teaching, 72.1% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could critically assess their teaching based on pupils' feedback, theoretical principles, etc., whilst, 64.9% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could give others feedback about their teaching from the perspective of methodology.

With regard to the student teachers in the CN2 group, also over 60% of them (strongly) agreed with all the items (see table 17 also). Moreover, altogether 81.6% indicated that they could promote the value and benefits of English learning to pupils (item 62). As for two items related to apply the theoretical knowledge of language teaching and learning to practice, of the respondents 60.3% (strongly) agreed as well as 3.4% disagreed and 36.3% were neutral about the former which reflected their knowledge of use of theories to guide teaching (item 63), whilst, over 84.4% indicated that they (strongly) agreed with the latter which reflected they could identify specific pedagogical/ didactic issues related to the pupils of teaching in the form of action research (item 67). With regard to the items 64, 65 and 66 which are about the

feedbacks of teaching, 75.4% indicated that they could accept mentors and peers' feedback to teaching, 84.3% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could critically assess their teaching based on pupils' feedback, theoretical principles, etc., whilst, 77.1% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could give others feedback about their teaching from the perspective of methodology.

One point could be noted through the descriptive data, over one third of Chinese student teachers in both groups were neutral about whether they could draw on appropriate theories of language, learning, culture etc. and relevant research findings to guide teaching.

5.4.3 Chinese student teachers' declarative competence to implement a lesson

Figure 5.2 is a representation of two groups' Chinese student teachers' responses to these issues. Chinese student teachers in the two groups respectively valued each items to various degrees with means on a 5-point scale ranging from a low of 3.64 to a high of 3.91 (CN1 group) as well as from 3.77 to 4.15 (CN2 group). Moreover, the means for most statements in both groups were above 3.8. To be more concrete, how the student teachers in two groups reacted these issues are analyzed respectively as follows.

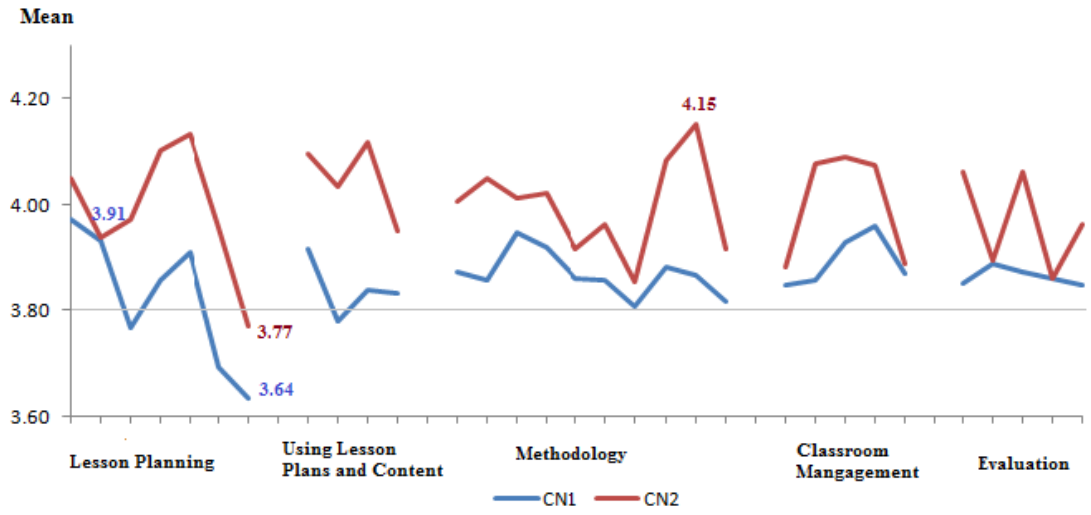

Figure 5.2 Results of Chinese Student Teachers' Competence to Implement a Lesson

Lesson planning

Over half of the student teachers in the CN1 group and over 60% of the student teachers in the CN2 group indicated competence in all of the items related to lesson planning (see table 18 in Appendix I).

Of the student teachers in the CN1 group, over 70% indicated competencies in setting appropriate learning aims and objectives to pupils' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements (item 31) as well as planning specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or for a period of teaching (item 32), whilst, 39.2% disagreed or neutral about whether they could "structure lesson plans and/or plan for periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content" (item 33). As for the other items, over 66% (strongly) agreed with that they could ensure the interdependence of the four main skills of language (item 34) as well as language and culture (item 35), whilst 57.2% could "link grammar and vocabulary with communication" (item 36) when they planned activities and 53.6% indicated that they could plan to teach elements of other subjects using English (item 37). However, over 30% of the student teachers were neutral about these four items.

Regarding the student teachers in the CN2 group, results showed that over 70% of them indicated competencies in planning activities, especially to emphasise the interdependence of "language and culture" (item 35, 84.9%) and of the four language skills (item 34, 83.8%), then to "link grammar and vocabulary with communication" (the agreement of item 36 was 75.3%). With regard to other items, over 77% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could "set learning aims and objectives suited to learners' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements" (item 31) and "plan specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or for a period of teaching" (item 32), whilst 67.6% agreed or strongly agreed with that they could "structure lesson plans and/or plan for periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content" (item 33), and 63.1% could plan to teach elements of other subjects using English (item 37).

Using lesson plans and content

On the student teachers' use of lesson plans and content, over 60% of the respondents in both Chinese groups were competent in all the items, whilst over 80% of the student teachers in the CN2 group were competent in 3 out of 4 items (see table 19 in Appendix I). It seems that over 60% of the Chinese student teacher in both groups could flexibly use lesson plans in practice, such as the necessary adjustments of the sequence of lesson and time schedule, also could teach in light of pupils' knowledge and previous language learning experiences as well as different characteristics of individuals and groups learning.

Of the student teachers in the CN1 group, over 30% were neutral about 3 out of 4 items which reflect their knowledge of the necessary adjustment of time schedule in classroom teaching and presenting language content according pupils' knowledge and previous language learning experiences and different characteristics of individuals and groups learning.

Regarding the student teachers in the CN2 group, 82.1% indicated that they could do necessary adjustments of the sequence of lesson (item 38) as well as 82.2% indicated that they could flexibly work on the time schedule (item 39) of the lesson plan in classroom teaching and learning. Moreover, 84.4% indicated that they could take into account of different characteristics of individuals and groups learning as well as 68.2% indicated that they could teach in light of pupils' knowledge and previous language learning experiences.

Teaching methodology

Over 60% of the student teachers in both Chinese groups indicated that they were competent in all the statements of language teaching methodology (see table 20 in Appendix I). However, over 27% of the student teachers in the CN1 group were neutral all the items.

By closely examining the statistics, it can be seen that 64% of the student teachers in the CN1 group indicated that they could select different activities to help pupils to use different text types in oral performance (item 42), 69.8% could help

pupils to use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts (item 49), and 65.3% could select grammatical exercises to support learning and encourage oral and written communication (item 48), as well as 68.9% indicated that they could select writing activities to help pupils to use appropriate language to write different text types (item 43) and 71.2% could consolidate pupils' learning of grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc. (item 44). Moreover, also 71.2% indicated that they could design different activities to practice and develop pupils' listening strategies (item 45), whilst, 67.1% could set activities to practice and develop their reading strategies (item 47), and 68.9% indicated that they could select post-listening tasks to provide a bridge between listening and other skills (item 46). As for the items 50 and 51, 67.1% indicated that they select activities to help pupils to develop their socio-cultural competence (item 50) and 63% could make them aware of the interrelationship between culture and language (item 51).

With regard to the student teachers in the CN2 group, over 70% of the student teachers reported that they were competent in 8 out of 10 statements of language teaching methodology, whilst over a quarter of them were neutral about 4 out of 10 statements. Over 80% agreed or strongly agreed with items 47 and 50 which indicate that they could set different activities to practice and develop reading strategies and socio-cultural competence, whilst, 73.2% and 69.% indicated that they could set different activities to practice and develop listening strategies (item45) and make pupils aware of the interrelationship between culture and language (item 51). Moreover, over 70% agreed or strongly agreed with items 42, 49, 44, 43 and 46 which indicate that they could select different activities to help pupils to use different text types in oral performance (item 42) and use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts (item 49), as well as select writing activities to consolidate pupils' learning of grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc. (item 44) and to help them use appropriate language to write different text types (item 43), and select post-listening tasks to provide a bridge between listening and other skills (item 46). As for the item which reflects the competence for selecting grammatical exercises to support learning and

encourage oral and written communication (item 48), 65.4% of the student teachers (strongly) agreed, whilst 33.5% were neutral about it.

Classroom management

On the responses of Chinese student teachers in both groups to the statements of classroom management, over 60% of the student teachers in the both groups had positive attitude about all of the statements (see table 21 in Appendix I).

67.1% of the student teachers in the CN1 group indicated that they could cater for a range of learning styles (item 52), whilst 65.8% indicated that they could plan the use of target language (item 56), 67.6% could decide when to or not to use the target language in the classroom (item 53), and 68.9% could use various strategies to facilitate pupils' understanding of the target language. Moreover, 73.4% of the student teachers indicated that they could encourage pupils to use English in their activities.

Of the student teachers in the CN2 group, results showed that 82.1% of them could decide when to use or not use the target language (item 53), whilst over 70% could plan how to use the target language in the classroom as well as use various strategies to facilitate pupils' understanding of the target language. Also, over 70% indicated that they encourage pupils to use English in their activities, whilst 69% could cater pupils' different learning styles.

Evaluation in language teaching

By a closer examination the statistics of a representation of two Chinese groups' student teachers' responses to the statements of evaluation in language teaching (table 22 in Appendix I), it can be seen that over 60% of the student teachers in the CN1 group and over 70% of the student teachers in the CN2 group (strongly) agreed with all the items, whilst over a quarter of the student teachers in the CN1 group were neutral about all the items, and over 20% of the student teachers in the CN2 group were neutral about 3 out of 5 items.

Of the student teachers in the CN1 group, over 70% (strongly) agreed with items 58 and 61 which reflect the knowledge of using in-class activities to monitor and

assess pupils' participation and performance and helping pupils' engagement in peer assessment (item 61). Moreover, over 68% (strongly) agreed with that they could select valid assessment procedures appropriate to learning aims and objectives (item 57) and use reliable and transparent procedures to assign grades for tests and examinations (item 59) as well as help pupils' self-assessment (item 60). However, over 30% were neutral about the latter.

Of the student teachers in the CN2 group, over 77% indicated that they could select valid assessment procedures appropriate to learning aims and objectives (item 57) as well as use reliable and transparent procedures to assign grades for tests and examinations (item 59), whilst over 70% (strongly) agreed with the other three items which reflect the competence for using in-class activities to monitor and assess pupils' participation and performance as well as helping pupils' self-assessment and engagement in peer assessment.

5.5 Results of Research Hypothesis Testing

1. Is there a difference in student teachers' understanding of curriculum between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.2 show that the p value is less than 5% (p=.006<.05), we reject H_0 in favour of H_1. That is, there is a difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' understanding of curriculum between Czech and Chinese first-year groups.

Table 5.2 Difference in Understanding of Curriculum between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 1-10	3.84	.802	3.94	.943	-2.734	.006

P<0.05

To make clear the nature of difference between Czech and Chinese first-year groups' student teachers' understanding of curriculum, the further analysis of the similarities and differences in terms of items was conducted. The statistical data show that there is no significant difference in item 7 (t=-.997, p=.377) and item 9 (t=-1.332, p=.184) which represent Academic Rationalism and Humanistic orientations towards curriculum between student teachers in two first-year groups. However, a significant difference in item 1 (t=-4.592, p=.000) and item 8 (t=-3.801, p=.000), item 2 (t=-5.928, p=.000) and item 4 (t=4.101, p=.000), and item 3 (t=-9.486, p=.000) and item 10 (t=2.654, p=.009) which represent student teachers' Cognitive Process, Behavioural and Social Reconstruction orientations, and in item 5 (t=2.455, p=.016) and item 6 (t=7.637, p=.000) which also represent Academic Rationalism and Humanistic orientations is confirmed by the value of t and p value (see table 23 in Appendix J).

In other words, Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers, however, value multiple curriculum orientations (see sections 5.3.1 and 5.4.1), the differences of their comprehension of curriculum are as follows: (a) whether it is most important to give pupils opportunities to think about problems during the teaching-learning process, (b) Whether curriculum should require teachers to teach thinking skill systematically, (c) whether selection of curriculum content and teaching activities for every school subject should be based on the learning objectives, (d) whether the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which pupils have attained the intended learning objectives, (e) whether curriculum should let pupils understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society, (f) whether curriculum contents should focus on societal problems, (g) whether curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each pupil, and (h) whether the most important curriculum contents of primary and secondary school students is subject knowledge.

2. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the resources between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?

As it shown in table 5.3, p=.010<.05, we reject H_0 in favour of H_2. That is, there is a difference in the overall outcome of Czech and Chinese first-year groups' student teachers' declarative competence for the resources.

Table 5.3 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Resources between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 11-19	3.79	.821	3.89	.759	-2.575	.010

P<0.05

To make clear the nature of difference between Czech and Chinese first-year groups, the further analysis in terms of items was conducted. The similarities and differences are confirmed by the value of t and p value (see table 24 in Appendix J). The statistical data show that there is a significant difference in 6 out of 9 statements (item 12 (t=2.698, p=.007), item 14 (t=2.543, p=.013), item 15 (t=2.128, p=.035), item 17 (t=-3.015, p=.003), item 18 (t=-4.724, p=.000), and item 19 (t=-7.947, p=.000)). In other words, the differences between Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers' pre-knowledge about resources are in: (a) selecting texts and language activities from coursebooks, designing learning materials and activities and using ICT materials and activities appropriate pupils, (b) selecting authentic materials, visual aids and other materials to promote pupils' speaking and writing, and (c) recommending appropriate books based on particular pupils' needs, interests and English proficiency level.

3. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the contexts between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.4 show that the p value is greater than 5% (p=.069>.05), we fail to reject H_0 at a 5% level of significant. That is, there is no difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' declarative competence for the contexts between

Czech and Chinese first-year groups.[1]

Table 5.4 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Contexts between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 20-25	3.78	.800	3.87	.775	-1.822	.069

P>0.05

4. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the needs between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.5 show that the p value is less than 5% (p=.000<.05), we reject H_0 in favour of H_4. That is, there is a difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' declarative competence for the needs between Czech and Chinese first-year groups.

Table 5.5 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Needs between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 26-30	3.83	.710	4.03	.730	-4.246	.000

P<0.05

[1] However, there is a lack of significant difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' competence for the contexts between two countries' first-year groups; a further analysis of the similarities and differences in terms of items was conducted. The statistical data show that there is a significant different in items 20, 21, 22, 23, and 24 (see table 25 in Appendix J). In other words, the differences between Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers' pre-knowledge about contexts are in following aspects: (a) teaching English within the particular social and local contexts, and relating to the culture and current events, (b) adapting teaching according to the recognition of the organisational constraints and resource limitations of school, and (c) knowledge about the national requirements about English language teaching and learning in lower secondary schools, and designing English courses around the requirements.

The further analysis in terms of items was conducted to make clear the nature of difference between Czech and Chinese first-year groups. The similarities and differences are confirmed by the value of t and p value (see table 26 in Appendix J). The statistical data show that there is a significant difference in items 28 (t=-4.265, p=.000) and 29 (t=-3.068, p=.002) that represent their pre-knowledge of pupils' cognitive and affective needs in learning English.

5. Is there a difference in student teachers' self-reflection about language teacher's role between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.6 show that the p value is less than 5% (p=.005<.05), we reject H_0 in favour of H_5. That is, there is a difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' self-reflection about language teacher's role between Czech and Chinese first-year groups.

Table 5.6 Difference in Student Teachers' Self-reflection about Language Teacher's Role between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 62-67	4.04	.865	3.90	.756	2.799	.005

P<0.05

Still, a further analysis of the similarities and differences in terms of items was conducted to figure out the nature of difference. In sum, the statistical data show that there is a significant difference in 5 out of 6 statements (items 62 (t=3.865, p=.000), 63 (t=5.280, p=.000), 64 (t=5.279, p=.000), 66 (t=-2.488, p=.013) and 67 (t=-5.284, p=.000)) (see table 27 in Appendix J). That is, concerning the pre-knowledge about language teachers to play various roles, Czech and Chinese first-year groups' student teachers is different in the following aspects: (a) promoting the value and benefits of English learning to pupils, (b) applying the theoretical knowledge of language teaching and learning to practice, and (c) accepting mentors and peers' feedback to

teaching, and giving others feedback about their teaching from the perspective of methodology.

6. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence to implement a lesson between Czech and Chinese first-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.7 show that the p value is less than 5% (p=.000<.05), we reject H_0 in favour of H_6. That is, there is a difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' declarative competence to implement a lesson between Czech and Chinese first-year groups.

Table 5.7 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence to Implement a Lesson between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 31-61	3.69	.756	3.86	.762	-8.839	.000

P<0.05

Considering the detailed analysis in terms of items, the similarities and differences in two countries' first-year student teachers' competence to implant a lesson are confirmed by the value of the t-test and p value (see table 28 in Appendix J). The statistical data show that there is a significant difference between Czech and Chinese first-year groups' student teachers' competence for 2 out of 7 statements of lesson planning (items 31 (t=-2.808, p=.005) and 35 (t=-2.337, p=.022)), 1 out of 4 statement of using lesson plans and content (item 38 (t=-2.472, p=.014)), 4 out of 10 statements of teaching methodology (item 42 (t=-2.035, p=.043), item 44 (t=-2.671, p=.008), item 45 (t=-3.611, p=.000), and item 49 (t=-2.246, p=.025)), 2 out of 5 statements of classroom management (items 54 (t=-5.572, p=.000) and 55 (t=-4.848, p=.000), and 3 out of 5 statements of evaluation (item 57 (t=-3.974, p=.000), item 60 (t=-3.218, p=.001), and item 61 (t=-4.995, p=.000)).

In sum, the differences between Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers'

pre-knowledge about implementation of a lesson are in following parts: (a) lesson planning: setting appropriate learning aims and objectives to pupils' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements, and planning activities to ensure the interdependence of four main skills and language and culture; (b) using lesson plan and content: doing necessary adjustments of the sequence of lesson; (c) teaching methodology: selecting different activities to help pupils to use different text types in oral performance and to use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts, and selecting writing activities to consolidate pupils' learning of grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc., and designing different activities to practice and develop pupils' listening strategies; (d) classroom management: using various strategies to facilitate pupils' understanding of the target language and encouraging pupils to use English in their activities; and (e) evaluation: selecting valid assessment procedures appropriate to learning aims and objectives, and helping pupils' self-assessment and peer assessment.

7. Is there a difference in student teachers' understanding of curriculum between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.8 show that the p value is less than 5% (p=.000<.05), we reject H_0 in favour of H_7. That is, there is a difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' understanding of curriculum between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.

Table 5.8 Difference in Understanding of Curriculum between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 1-10	3.79	.876	3.94	.850	-3.509	.000

P<0.05

To make clear the nature of difference between Czech and Chinese last-year

groups' student teachers' understanding of curriculum, the further analysis of the similarities and differences in terms of items was conducted. The statistical data show that there is a significant difference in item 5 (t=5.694, p=.000) and item 9 (t=-2.459, p=.016) which represent student teachers' Humanistic Orientation towards curriculum, and in item 1 (t=-2.901, p=.004), item 3 (t=-4.279, p=.000), item 4 (t=-3.066, p=.002) and item 7 (t=-2.068, p=.040) which represent the other four orientations between Czech and Chinese last-year groups (see table 29 in Appendix J).

It seems that Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers, however, value multiple curriculum orientations (see sections 5.3.1 and 5.4.1), the differences of their comprehension of curriculum are as follows: (a) whether it is most important to give pupils opportunities to think about problems during the teaching-learning process, (b) whether curriculum should let pupils understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society, (c) whether the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which pupils have attained the intended learning objectives, (d) whether curriculum should stress refinement of students' intellectual abilities, (e) whether curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each pupil, and (f) whether pupils' interests and needs should be the organizing centre of curriculum.

8. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the resources between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.9 show that the p value is greater than 5% (p=.991>.05), we fail to reject H_0 at a 5% level of significant. That is, there is no difference in the overcome of Czech and Chinese last-year groups' student teachers' declarative

competence for the resources.[1]

Table 5.9 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Resources between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 11-19	3.96	.767	3.96	.720	-.011	.991

P>0.05

9. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the contexts between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.10 show that the p value is less than 5% (p=.006<.05), we reject H_0 in favour of H_9. That is, there is a difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' declarative competence for the contexts between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.

Table 5.10 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Contexts between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 20-25	3.642	.848	3.90	.732	-5.790	.000

P<0.05

[1] However, there is a lack of significant difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' competence toward resources between two countries' last-year groups; a further analysis of the similarities and differences in terms of items was conducted. The statistical data show that there is a significant different in item 13 (t=2.403, p=.017), item 18 (t=-2.095, p=.037) and item 19 (t=-2.956, p=.004) (see table 30 in Appendix J). In other words, the differences between Czech and Chinese last-year groups' student teachers' competence for the resources are in making use of ideas and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books, selecting authentic materials, visual aids and other materials to promote pupils' writing, and recommending appropriate books based on particular pupils' needs, interests and English proficiency level.

The further analysis in terms of items was conducted to make clear the nature of difference between Czech and Chinese last-year groups. The similarities and differences are confirmed by the value of t and p value (see table 31 in Appendix J). In sum, the statistical data show that there is a significant difference in 4 out of 6 statements (item 20 (t=-4.128, P=.000), item 21 (t=-7.070, p=.000), item 22 (t=-4.008, p=.000), and item 24 (t=-2.018, p=.045)).

In other words, the differences between Czech and Chinese last-year groups' student teachers' competence for the contexts are in following aspects: (a) the national requirements about English language teaching and learning in lower secondary schools, and designing English courses around the requirements; (b) adapting teaching according to the recognition of the organisational constraints and resource limitations of school; and (c) teaching English based on the relationship between language and culture.

10. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence for the needs between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.11 on the next page show that the p value is greater than 5% (p=.302>.05), we fail to reject H_0 at a 5% level of significant. That is, there is no difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' declarative competence for the needs between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.[1]

[1] However, there is a lack of significant difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' competence toward needs between two countries' last-year groups; a further analysis of the similarities and differences in terms of items was conducted. The statistical data show that there is a significant different in items 26 (t=3.315, p=.001), 28 (t=-2.893, p=.004) and 30 (t=-3.453, p=.001) (see table 32 in Appendix J). That is, Czech and Chinese last-year groups' student teachers' knowledge and skills about the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning English, pupils' cognitive needs, and educational stakeholders' expectations and impact are different.

Table 5.11 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Needs between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 26-30	3.97	.790	4.23	.726	-1.033	.302

P>0.05

11. Is there a difference in student teachers' self-reflection about language teacher's role between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.12 show that the p value is less than 5% (p=.000<.05), we reject H_0 in favour of H_{11}. That is, there is a difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' self-reflection about language teacher's role between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.

Table 5.12 Difference in Student Teachers' Self-reflection about Language Teacher's Role between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 62-67	3.78	.900	3.97	.796	-3.513	.000

P<0.05

Still, a further analysis of the similarities and differences in terms of items was conducted to figure out the nature of difference. In sum, the statistical data show that there is a significant difference in 4 out of 6 statements (items 63 (t=-3.249, p=.001), 64 (t=2.868, p=.005), 66 (t=-3.027, p=.003), and 67 (t=-7.378, p=.000)) (see table 33 in Appendix J).

That is, concerning the knowledge and skills for language teachers to play various roles, Czech and Chinese last-year groups' student teachers are different in the following aspects: (a) applying appropriate theories and research findings to guide the

teaching, (b) accepting mentors and peers' feedback to teaching, (c) offering constructive feedback to the peers by recognising different methodological aspects of their teaching, and (d) identifying specific pedagogical/ didactic issues related to the pupils of teaching in the form of action research.

12. Is there a difference in student teachers' competence to implement a lesson between Czech and Chinese last-year groups?

The statistical data in table 5.13 show that the p value is less than 5% (p=.000<.05), we reject H_0 in favour of H_{12}. That is, there is a difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' declarative competence to implement a lesson between Czech and Chinese last-year groups.

Table 5.13 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence to Implement a Lesson between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups

Relevant Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Items 31-61	3.76	.816	4.00	.776	-11.175	.000

P<0.05

Considering the detailed analysis in terms of items, the similarities and differences in two countries' last-year student teachers' competence to implant a lesson are confirmed by the value of the t-test and p value (see table 34 in Appendix J). The statistical data show that there is a significant difference between Czech and Chinese last-year groups' student teachers' competence for 4 out of 7 statements of lesson planning (item 31 (t=-4.654, p=.000), item 34 (t=-2.716, p=.008), item 35 (t=-3.958, p=.000), and item 37 (t=-2.225, p=.027)), 5 out of 10 statements of teaching methodology (item 43 (t=-2.736, p=.007), item 45 (t=-2.000, p=.047), item 47 (t=-2.461, p=.016), item 50 (t=-3.210, p=.002) and item 51 (t=-2.696, p=.008)), 1 out of 5 statement of classroom management (item 56 (t=-2.329, p=.022)), and 4 out of 5 statements of evaluation (item 57 (t=-5.736, p=.000), item 59 (t=-3.832, p=.000),

item 60 (t=-5.474, p=.000), and item 61 (t=-3.369, p=.001)).

In sum, the differences between Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers' competence to implement a lesson are in following parts: (a) lesson planning: setting appropriate learning aims and objectives to pupils' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements, planning activities to ensure the interdependence of four main skills and language and culture, and planning to teach elements of other subjects using English; (b) teaching methodology: selecting writing activities to help pupils to use appropriate language to write different text types, designing different activities to practice and develop pupils' listening strategies, reading strategies, and develop pupils' socio-cultural competence, as well as make them aware of the interrelationship between culture and language; (c) classroom management: decision of how to use the target language, including metalanguage; and (e) evaluation: selecting valid assessment procedures appropriate to learning aims and objectives, using reliable and transparent procedures to assign grades for tests and examinations, and helping pupils' self-assessment and peer assessment.

5.6 Comparison and Discussion of Results

The results reported above can be discussed from two main points of view. First, the research questions posed in section 5.1 are answered one by one. After then, the testing results of the research hypotheses established in the same section are analyzed and integrated to the answers to research questions in particular related to the framework of the study (see section 2.4) in order to gain an overall picture of Czech and Chinese student teachers' competence in curriculum development, as well as to identify the possible similarities or differences between them.

5.6.1 Answers to research questions

Question 1: What understanding do EFL student teachers have about curriculum?

In accordance with the results in sections 5.3.1 and 5.4.1, Czech and Chinese student

teachers' understanding of curriculum value multiple orientations toward the curriculum rather than "adhere to one orientation" (Miller, 1983; Ashour, et al., 2012). It matches the views of previous research which indicates the five curriculum orientations are mutually harmonizing rather than mutually exclusive (Cheung & Woo, 2002) and "in most cases, they (most teachers) work from a cluster of two or three orientations" (Miller, 1983, p.181).

Czech last-year student teachers to a large extent value Cognitive Process, Social Reconstruction and Humanistic orientations; in particular curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each pupil. Besides, a divergence about whether "subject knowledge is the most important curriculum contents for primary and secondary school pupils" (item 6, M=3.05) and nearly 40% of student teachers' neutral attitudes about whether "the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which pupils have attained the intended learning objectives" (item 4, M=3.57) may indicate the views of Ashour, et al. (2012) that pre-service teachers are moderately oriented toward the Academic Rationalism and Behavioural orientations.

Chinese last-year student teachers to a large extent valued Cognitive Process, Behavioural, Social Reconstruction and Humanistic orientations, in particular "during the teaching-learning process, it is most important to give students opportunities to think about problems" (item 1, M=4.34). In addition, a similar divergence about whether "subject knowledge is the most important curriculum contents for primary and secondary school pupils" is existed (item 6, M=3.23).

As for the beginning student teachers' pre-understanding of curriculum, Czech beginning student teachers to a large extent value Academic Rationalism, Cognitive Process and Humanistic orientations. In addition, more than 45% of the beginning student teachers were neutral about "whether curriculum should let students understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society" (item3). Chinese beginning student teachers to a large extent value Cognitive Process, Behavioural and Social Reconstruction orientations. Also, a similar divergence about whether subject knowledge is the most important curriculum contents is existed.

Question 2: What competence do EFL student teachers have to use of curriculum materials?

Curriculum materials are intimately connected to teachers' daily work, used as a guide in their planning, critiquing and adapting based on their specific pupils' needs and contextual circumstances, including local goals and standards (Brown, 2009), as well as their perception of various resources and teacher's role (see section 2.4). As a consequently of it, student teachers' competence to use of curriculum materials is analyzed by synthesis of the results of these dimensions.

In accordance with the results shown in section 5.3.2, Czech last-year student teachers to a large extent have positive attitudes to specific needs of learning English, followed by different resources, language teachers' different roles, and contexts during uses of curriculum materials, such as, pupils' English proficiency level, motivations and cognitive and affective needs, values of learning English, and social and cultural teaching contexts, etc. However, only slightly over than 50% of Czech last-year student teachers indicated that they could recommend appropriate books to particular pupils, select materials to stimulate pupil's language skill of writing, and adapt teaching based on specific contextual constraints. Even for the requirements set in the FEP BE, less than 55% indicated that they could understand them, and less than 30% indicated that they could design language courses around the requirements set in the FEP BE. About different educational stakeholders' expectations and impact of English teaching and learning, less than 50% indicated that they could take into account them. Besides, related to the use of theoretical knowledge in practice, more than 40% were neutral about their competence.

Chinese last-year student teachers to a large extent can take into account specific needs of learning English, followed by language teachers' different roles, different resources, and teaching contexts during uses of curriculum materials (see section 5.4.2), for example, various materials to promote particular pupils' four skills, the requirements set in the National English Language Curriculum Standards for nine-year compulsory education, different motivations and affective and cognitive

needs of learning English as well as promotion the value and benefits to pupils, etc. However, over one third of them were neutral about their knowledge and skills related to designing English courses around the requirements of national curriculum standards, teaching English related to current events in local and international contexts, and drawing on appropriate theories to guide teaching.

As for the beginning student teachers' pre-knowledge about uses of curriculum materials, Czech beginning student teachers to an extent can take into account language teachers' different roles, followed by specific needs, different resources, and contexts. However, more than 40% of Czech beginning student teachers were unconfident about their knowledge related to pupils' cognitive needs, selecting various materials to promote pupils' skills of speaking and writing, and adapting teaching based on specific contextual constraints. Over 50% were unconfident about their knowledge of the requirements set in the FEP BE, whilst, over 40% were unconfident to design English course around the requirements. Besides, over half of them were unconfident about their knowledge related to the use of theoretical knowledge in practice and recommending appropriate books based on particular pupils' needs, interests and English proficiency level.

Chinese beginning student teachers to a large extent also can take into account specific needs of learning English, followed by language teachers' different roles, different resources, and contexts during the uses of curriculum materials. However, over 40% of them were unconfident about teaching English related to current events in local and international contexts, and over one third were unconfident about their knowledge related to designing learning materials and activities appropriate for particular pupils, using appropriate ICT materials and activities in the classroom, the requirements set in the National English Language Curriculum Standards for nine-year compulsory education and designing English courses around it, and the use of theoretical knowledge in practice.

Question 3: What competence do EFL student teachers have to implement a lesson?

Teaching a language extends beyond teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills and includes a wide range of other issues such as culture, communication skill and learning skills (Borg, 2006). Especially planning a lesson, teacher's knowledge of language learning theory, teaching methodology and learner activities are as important as knowledge of the individual pupils and curriculum requirements.

Survey results about Czech last-year student teachers' competence to implement a lesson indicated that student teachers valued each items to various degrees with means on a 5-point scale ranging from a low of 3.46 to a high of 4.15 (see section 5.3.3). It appears from the data that Czech last-year student teachers value the using lesson plans and content, followed by the classroom management and the teaching methodology, and then by the lesson planning and the evaluation. However, lesson planning is a crucial component of teachers' practice. Czech last-year student teachers to a large extent are good at planning activities to link grammar and vocabulary with communication and planning specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or a period of teaching rather than setting learning aims and objectives in light of specific pupils and curriculum requirements and planning the cross-curriculum teaching using English, etc. Besides, over one third of them were neutral about their knowledge related to plan activities to emphasise the interdependence of language and culture. As for evaluation in language teaching, it appears from the data that most Czech last-year student teachers' knowledge and skills need to be improved. For example, most of them were not good at selecting valid assessment procedures, such as tests, portfolios, self-assessment etc., and helping pupils' peer- and self-assessment. Even for using reliable and transparent procedures to assign grades for test and examinations, only slightly over 50% indicated that they were competent in it. Besides, more than 40% were unconfident about the usage of target language in the classroom, including metalanguage, and selecting texts and activities to make pupils aware of the interrelationship between culture and language.

In light of survey results about Chinese last-year student teachers' competence to implement a lesson, student teachers valued each items to various degrees with means on a 5-point scale ranging from a low of 3.77 to a high of 4.15 (see section 5.4.3). It

appears that Chinese last-year student teachers value the using lesson plans and content, followed by the classroom management, the teaching methodology, the lesson planning, and the evaluation in language teaching. To elaborate on these results, over 30% of Chinese last-year student teachers were unconfident about structuring lesson plans and/or periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content, planning the cross-curriculum teaching using English, flexible using lesson plans in light of in light of pupils' knowledge and previous language learning experiences, selecting grammatical exercises to support pupils' learning and encourage their oral and written communication, selecting texts and activities to make pupils aware of the interrelationship between culture and language, and catering pupils' different learning styles.

As for the beginning student teachers' pre-knowledge about implementation of a lesson, Czech beginning student teachers valued each items with means from 3.31 to 4.05, in following order: the lesson planning, the using lesson plans and content, the teaching methodology, the evaluation, and the classroom management (see section 5.3.3). However, about 50% of Czech beginning student teachers were neutral or (strongly) disagreed with 3 out of 5 items related to evaluation in language teaching, over one third of them were neutral about half of the statements related to the teaching methodology and all the statements related to classroom management. To elaborate on these results, over 50% of Czech beginning student teachers were neutral about their knowledge related to encouraging pupils to use English in their activities, selecting valid assessment procedures appropriate to learning aims and objectives, and helping pupils to engage in peer assessment; over 40% of were neutral about whether they could flexibly deal with a lesson plan according to pupils' interests, design different activities to practice and develop pupils' listening strategies, use various strategies to help pupils understand the target language, and help pupils to set personal targets and self-assessment; and over 30% were neutral about their knowledge related to setting learning aims and objectives in light of specific pupils and curriculum requirements, structuring lesson plans and/or periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content, selecting different activities to help pupils to use different text types in oral

and written contexts, including use new vocabulary, to consolidate their learning of grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc., and to make their aware of the interrelationship between culture and language, as well as catering for a range of learning styles, and decision about when to or not to use and how to use the target language, including metalanguage.

Concerns about Chinese beginning student teachers' pre-knowledge about implementation of a lesson, it appears from data that they value the classroom management, followed by the teaching methodology, the evaluation, the using lesson plans and content, and the lesson planning, with means from 3.64 to 3.91 (see section 5.4.3). Over 30% of Chinese beginning student teachers were neutral about 5 out of 7 items related to lesson planning and 3 out of 5 items related to using lesson plans and content. As for teaching methodology, over 30% were neutral about 5 out 10 items, and about 28% were neutral about the other 5 items. To elaborate on these results, over 40% of Chinese beginning student teachers were neutral about the knowledge of planning the cross-curriculum teaching using English, etc.; over one third were neutral their knowledge related to structuring lesson plans and/or periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content, planning activities to link grammar and vocabulary with communication, flexibly adjustments of time schedule when unforeseen situations occur, and selecting a variety of texts and activities to make pupils aware of the interrelationship between culture and language and help pupils to use different text types in oral performance.

5.6.2 Similarities and differences between Czech and Chinese student teachers' understanding of curriculum

First-year and last-year Czech and Chinese student teachers, however, value multiple curriculum orientations (see sections 5.3.1 and 5.4.1), their comprehension of curriculum are different, reflecting on five orientations.

The differences of Czech and Chinese firs-year student teachers' pre-understanding of curriculum are as follows: (a) whether it is most important to give pupils opportunities to think about problems during the teaching-learning process,

(b) Whether curriculum should require teachers to teach thinking skill systematically, (c) whether selection of curriculum content and teaching activities for every school subject should be based on the learning objectives, (d) whether the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which pupils have attained the intended learning objectives, (e) whether curriculum should let pupils understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society, (f) whether curriculum contents should focus on societal problems, (g) whether curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each pupil, and (h) whether the most important curriculum contents of primary and secondary school students is subject knowledge.

Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers, the differences of their comprehension of curriculum are as follows: (a) whether it is most important to give pupils opportunities to think about problems during the teaching-learning process, (b) whether curriculum should let pupils understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society, (c) whether the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which pupils have attained the intended learning objectives, (d) whether curriculum should stress refinement of students' intellectual abilities, (e) whether curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each pupil, and (f) whether pupils' interests and needs should be the organizing centre of curriculum.

5.6.3 Similarities and differences between Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers' competence in curriculum development

Beginning student teachers' competence in curriculum development is the pre-knowledge (see section 2.4). As a consequence of previous results (see sections 5.3 and 5.4), these pre-knowledge could be summarized as:

Czech beginning student teachers can take into account language teachers' different roles, followed by specific needs of learning English, different resources, and contexts during uses of curriculum materials. With regard to the implementation of a lesson, they value the lesson planning, followed by the using lesson plans and

content, the teaching methodology, the evaluation, and the classroom management.

Chinese beginning student teachers can take into account specific needs of learning English, followed by language teachers' different roles, different resources, and contexts during the uses of curriculum materials. Regarding the implementation of a lesson, they value the classroom management, followed by the teaching methodology, the evaluation, the using lesson plans and content, and the lesson planning.

In accordance with the results of research hypothesis testing discussed in section 5.5, there is no difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' declarative pre-knowledge about the contexts; however, there is a difference in the resource, needs, language teacher's role, and implementation of a lesson between Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers. To elaborate on it, the differences between their pre-knowledge about curriculum development[1] are in following aspects:

(a) use of curriculum materials:

- selecting texts and language activities from coursebooks, designing learning materials and activities, using ICT materials and activities appropriate pupils
- knowledge and skills about recommending appropriate books based on particular pupils' needs, interests and English proficiency level
- knowledge and skills about pupils' cognitive and affective needs in learning English, and promoting the value and benefits of English learning to pupils
- knowledge and skills about selecting authentic materials, visual aids and other materials to promote pupils' speaking and writing
- knowledge and skills about adapting teaching according based on specific contextual constraints and particular social and local contexts, and relating to the culture and current events
- knowledge about the national requirements on English language teaching

[1] It is analyzed by synthesis of detailed analysis in terms of items.

and learning in lower secondary schools and designing English courses around it

- knowledge and skills about teacher as researcher, for example, applying the theoretical knowledge of language teaching and learning to practice, accepting mentors and peers' feedback to teaching, and giving others feedback about their teaching from the perspective of methodology

(b) lesson planning:

- knowledge and skills about setting appropriate learning aims and objectives to pupils' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements
- knowledge and skills about planning activities to ensure the interdependence of four main skills and language and culture

(c) using lesson plan and content

- knowledge and skills about adjustments of the sequence of lesson

(d) teaching methodology

- knowledge and skills about selecting different activities to help pupils to use different text types in oral performance and to use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts
- knowledge and skills about selecting writing activities to consolidate pupils' learning of grammar, vocabulary, spelling, etc.
- knowledge and skills about designing different activities to practice and develop pupils' listening strategies;

(e) classroom management:

- knowledge and skills about using various strategies to facilitate pupils' understanding of the target language
- knowledge and skills about encouraging pupils to use English in their activities

(f) evaluation:

- knowledge and skills about selecting valid assessment procedures

appropriate to learning aims and objectives

- knowledge and skills about helping pupils' self-assessment and peer assessment.

In sum, it seems that Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers' general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, and knowledge of educational contexts are different in alignment with Shulman's (1987) major categories of teacher knowledge (see section 2.2.1). It matches views of Widden et al. (1998) in that student teachers are not an undifferentiated group and instead, hold a variety of images of and understandings about teaching and learning. The entering knowledge is more nuanced- and extends across a wider range of possibilities- than many people had imagined (Widden et al., 1998).

Furthermore, results have provided information about beginning student teachers' pre-knowledge about teacher and learning they hold at the beginning of their studies. It (see sections 5.3.2 and 5.3.3) shows that more than 40% of Czech beginning student teachers were unconfident about their knowledge related to selecting various materials to promote pupils' skills of speaking, writing and listening, using various strategies to help pupils understand the target language and encouraging them to use English in their activities, recommending appropriate books based on particular pupils' needs (cognitive needs), interests and language level, flexible dealing with a lesson plan and adapting teaching based on specific contextual constraints, selecting valid assessment procedures appropriate to learning aims and objectives, and helping pupils' self-assessment and peer assessment, as well as the knowledge of the requirements set in the FEP BE and designing English course around the requirements, and the use of theoretical knowledge in practice. Over 30% were neutral about their knowledge related to setting learning aims and objectives in light of specific pupils and curriculum requirements, structuring lesson plans and/or periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content, selecting different activities to help pupils to use different text types in oral and written contexts,

including use new vocabulary, to consolidate their learning of grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc., and to make their aware of the interrelationship between culture and language, as well as catering for a range of learning styles, and decision about the usage of target language, including metalanguage. It seems that Czech beginning student teachers need to be informed of the theories of child development, individual learners' styles, methods and strategies of learning English, the English teaching methodology, evaluation knowledge and skills, as well as knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, and knowledge about the current curriculum reform. In other words, English pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of learners and their characteristics (Shulman, 1987).

As for Chinese beginning student teachers, results (see sections 5.4.2 and 5.4.3) also revealed that over 40% of them were unconfident about their knowledge related to teaching English related to current events in local and international contexts, and cross-curriculum teaching using English, etc. Over one third were unconfident about their knowledge about the requirements set in the National English Language Curriculum Standards for nine-year compulsory education and designing English courses around it, as well as designing learning materials and activities appropriate for particular pupils, structuring lesson plans and/or periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content, flexibly adjustments of time schedule when unforeseen situations occur, using appropriate ICT materials and activities in the classroom, the use of theoretical knowledge in practice, and selecting a variety of texts and activities to link grammar and vocabulary with communication, to help pupils to use different text types in oral performance, and to make pupils aware of the interrelationship between culture and language. It seems that Chinese beginning student teachers need to be informed of the theories of English learning and child development, the English teaching methodology, ICT selection skills, as well as knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, and knowledge about the current curriculum reform. That is, English pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of learners and their characteristics

(Shulman, 1986, 1987).

5.6.4 Similarities and differences between Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers' competence in curriculum development

In the present study, student teachers' competence in curriculum development represents the knowledge and skills which acquired through college/university based teacher programmes about use of (change, adaptation or enactment) curriculum materials to implement a curriculum (see section 2.4). According to the discussion in the previous section, student teachers' competence in curriculum development could be summarized as:

Czech last-year student teachers to a large extent have positive attitudes about taking into account specific needs of learning English, followed by different resources, language teachers' different roles, and contexts during uses of curriculum materials. With regard to the implementation of a lesson, they are more confident in the using lesson plans and content, the classroom management and the teaching methodology than in the lesson planning and the evaluation.

Chinese last-year student teachers to a large extent have positive attitudes towards taking into account specific needs of learning English, followed by language teachers' different roles, different resources, and teaching context during uses of curriculum materials. Regarding the implementation of a lesson, they value the using lesson plans and content, followed by the classroom management, the teaching methodology, the lesson planning, and the evaluation in language teaching.

In accordance with the results of research hypothesis testing discussed in section 5.5, there is no difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' declarative competence for the resources and needs, however, there is a difference in the contexts, language teacher's role, and implementation of a lesson between Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers. To elaborate on it, the differences between their competence in curriculum development[1] are in following aspects:

(a) use of curriculum materials:

[1] It is analyzed by synthesis of detailed analysis in terms of items.

- knowledge and skills about use of ideas and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books
- knowledge and skills about selecting authentic materials, visual aids and other materials to promote pupils' skills of writing
- knowledge and skills about recommending appropriate books based on particular pupils' needs, interests and English proficiency level
- knowledge and skills about adapting teaching according based on specific contextual constraints and mentors and peers' feedback
- knowledge about the national requirements on English language teaching and learning in lower secondary schools and designing English courses around it
- knowledge about the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning English, pupils' cognitive needs, educational stakeholders' expectations and impact of English teaching and learning, and the relationship between language and culture
- knowledge and skills about teacher as researcher, for example, applying appropriate theories to guide the teaching, identifying specific pedagogical/ didactic issues related to the pupils of teaching in the form of action research, offering constructive feedback to the peers by recognising different methodological aspects of their teaching

(b) lesson planning:

- knowledge and skills about setting appropriate learning aims and objectives to pupils' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements
- knowledge and skills about planning activities to ensure the interdependence of four main skills and the relationship between language and culture
- knowledge and skills about planning the cross-curriculum teaching using English, etc.

(c) teaching methodology:

- knowledge and skills about selecting writing activities to help pupils to use appropriate language to write different text types
- knowledge and skills about designing different activities to practice and develop pupils' listening and reading strategies
- knowledge and skills about developing pupils' socio-cultural competence and their awareness of the interrelationship between culture and language

(d) classroom management:

- knowledge and skills about decision of how to use the target language, including metalanguage

(e) evaluation:

- knowledge and skills about selecting valid assessment procedures appropriate to learning aims and objectives
- knowledge and skills about using reliable and transparent procedures to assign grades for tests and examinations
- knowledge and skills about helping pupils' self-assessment and peer assessment

In sum, it seems that Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers' general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, and knowledge of educational contexts are different, in Shulman's (1987) terms.

Teachers are the ones who put curriculum reform ideas into practice; especially in school-based curriculum development projects, they fulfilled the designer role (Eggleston, 1980). However, teachers lacked the knowledge and skills to enact the design processes (Eggleston, 1980). Huizinga et al. (2014) claim that teachers' design expertise refers to the knowledge and skills required for developing curricula, and consider that support of teachers during design process aims to update teachers' subject matter knowledge, teachers' (technological) pedagogical content knowledge, their curriculum design expertise and their understanding of the particular reform. Curriculum design expertise consists of six types of knowledge and skills: (1) knowledge and skills to formulate a problem statement; (2) idea generation skills; (3)

systematic curriculum design skills; (4) formative and summative evaluation skills; (5) curricular decisions-making skills; and (6) implementation management skills (Huizinga et al., 2014, p. 36). According to the views of Huizinga et al. (2014), Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers' curriculum design expertise, pedagogical content knowledge, and their understanding of the current curriculum reform are different; however, curriculum design expertise is not clearly distinguished in the present study.

In addition, teaching a language extends beyond teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills and includes a wide range of other issues such as culture, communication skill and learning skills (Borg, 2006). As indicated by previous research (Evans, 2012), it would be an error to over-generalize foreign language teachers' challenges with classroom in an effort to introduce possible solutions without first considering the uniqueness of this particular teaching and learning environment. In this regard, Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers knowledge about teaching methodology, in which related to dealing with the main skills of listening, reading and writing, and culture awareness of language are different. Moreover, Freeman, Orzulak and Morrisey (2009) claim that the challenge with language teaching is that teachers use language to teach language. In other words, language is the basis of the lesson- what the teacher is teaching- and it is the means of teaching it- how the teacher teaches that lesson. Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers' differences at metalanguage usage and cross-curriculum teaching using English reflect this challenge.

Furthermore, results have revealed information about last-year student teachers' professional readiness in terms of competence in curriculum development through preservice preparation.

Czech last-year student teachers, only slightly over than 50% of them reported that they could recommend appropriate books to particular pupils, select materials to stimulate pupil's language skill of writing, and adapt teaching based on specific contextual constraints. Besides, more than 40% of them indicated that they were unconfident about setting learning aims and objectives in light of specific pupils and

curriculum requirements, planning the cross-curriculum teaching using English, etc., selecting texts and activities to make pupils aware of the interrelationship between culture and language, taking into account of different educational stakeholders' expectations and impact of English teaching and learning, as well as the usage of target language in the classroom, and the use of theoretical knowledge in practice. Even for the requirements set in the FEP BE, less than 55% reported that they could understand them, and less than 30% indicated that they could design language courses around the requirements. As for evaluation in language teaching, it appears from the data that most Czech last-year student teachers' knowledge and skills need to be improved. It seems that Czech last-year student teachers need to be further informed of English pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge and curriculum design expertise. To be more concrete, it includes the following knowledge and skills:

- Knowledge and skills to keep the English teaching methodology up-to-date
- The theories of English learning and child development.
- Knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, and systematic curriculum design skills (Huizinga et al., 2014)
- Formative and summative evaluation skills
- Knowledge about the current curriculum reform

The professional courses offering to Czech student teachers include three categories: the language-based courses (e.g. linguistics, Stylistics), the methodology courses, and literature and cultural studies, in which the language-based courses and literature and cultural studies provide the subject knowledge as well as the methodology courses provide pedagogical content knowledge (see section 3.3.3). Data have revealed that 2 out of 3 universities' compulsory courses do not include the course in language testing and assessment, and all compulsory courses do not include the courses in child development and learning English, formative and summative evaluation, teaching materials development and evaluation, CLIL, planning and course programme design, and the current curriculum reform. Some of those courses are included in compulsory optional courses. However, the TEFL methodology courses focuse on different methods and approaches in ELT as well as course design,

language learner, theories of language acquisition, evaluation of students and teaching materials.

Regarding Chinese last-year student teachers, over 30% of them reported that they were unconfident about their knowledge and skills related to designing English courses around the requirements of national curriculum standards, structuring lesson plans and/or periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content, flexible adjustment of lesson plans in light of in light of pupils' knowledge and previous language learning experiences, teaching English related to current events in local and international contexts, and cross-curriculum teaching using English, as well as selecting grammatical exercises to support pupils' learning and encourage their oral and written communication, selecting texts and activities to make pupils aware of the interrelationship between culture and language, catering pupils' different learning styles, and drawing on appropriate theories to guide teaching. It seems that Chinese last-year student teachers also need to be further informed of English pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge and curriculum design expertise. That is, Chinese last-year student teachers need to be further informed of the latest studies of child development and they need to be informed about individual learners' styles, methods and strategies of learning English. In addition, they also need to be informed of knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, systematic curriculum design skills as well as the knowledge and skills to keep the English teaching methodology up-to-date.

Concerning the professional courses offering to Chinese student teachers (see section 3.3.3), student teachers have about 15% of the total learning related to teaching professional education in four-year programme, adding the 10-12 weeks teaching practice, the credits awarded to teaching professional education are about 22% or so. Universities' compulsory courses do not include the courses in child development and learning English, language testing and assessment, formative and summative evaluation, CLIL, ELT curriculum design and instruction design, ELT curriculum resources development and materials selection, and the current curriculum reform (including the national English language curriculum standards in basic

education). However, some of those courses are included in compulsory optional courses. In addition, during teaching practice, student teachers spend time in schools observing classroom teaching, assisting the supervising teacher, taking part in managing pupil's activities and practising their teaching skills (Fang & Zhu, 2008). As Mattheoudakis (2007) argues, "we know very little about what actually happens" (p. 1273) in many of these courses as well as in teaching practice, including what student teachers actually learn from such experiences and how.

Lastly, whatever target language usage or cross-curriculum teaching using English, results have showed that lots of Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers are not competent; it clearly reflects the challenge with language teaching that teachers use language to teach language (Freeman et al., 2009). Another fact appearing from the data seems that Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers need to be further informed about teaching the relationship between language and culture. It closely matches the views of Byram (2012) in that "teachers with many years of experience often say that they do not feel 'qualified' to teach 'culture'… This is particularly the case for English…. it is not surprising that teachers in preservice training or in the early stages of their career may feel even less confident" (p.83). Further, these results closely match the views of Bartell (1995) in that "no matter what initial preparation they receive, teachers are never fully prepared for classroom realities and for responsibilities associated with meeting the needs of a rapidly growing increasingly diverse student population" (pp. 28-29).

6 Discussion and Implications

This chapter summarizes the major research findings in relation to the research questions which are discussed in previous chapters. The first section reports the key conclusion drawn from the research findings. This is followed by a discussion of the implications of the study for lower secondary EFL teacher education as well as the limitations of this study and recommendations for further research.

6.1 Summary of Research Findings

Traits of student teachers' competence in curriculum development

In this study, student teachers' competence in curriculum development represents an integration of knowledge and skills which acquired through college/university based teacher programmes about use of (change, adaptation or enactment) curriculum materials to implement a curriculum (see section 2.4). It could be summarized as:

Czech last-year student teachers can take into account specific needs of learning English, followed by different resources, language teachers' different roles, and contexts during uses of curriculum materials. With regard to the implementation of a lesson, they are confident in the using lesson plans and content, the classroom management and the teaching methodology than in the lesson planning and the evaluation.

Chinese last-year student teachers can take into account specific needs of learning English, followed by language teachers' different roles, different resources, and teaching context during uses of curriculum materials. Regarding the implementation of a lesson, they value the using lesson plans and content, followed by the classroom management, the teaching methodology, the lesson planning, and the evaluation in language teaching.

Concerns about beginning student teachers, their competence in curriculum development is the pre-knowledge, summarized as follows:

Czech beginning student teachers can take into account language teachers' different roles, followed by specific needs of learning English, different resources, and contexts during uses of curriculum materials. With regard to the implementation of a lesson, they value the lesson planning, followed by the using lesson plans and content, the teaching methodology, the evaluation, and the classroom management.

Chinese beginning student teachers can take into account specific needs of learning English, followed by language teachers' different roles, different resources, and contexts during the uses of curriculum materials. Regarding the implementation of a lesson, they value the classroom management, followed by the teaching methodology, the evaluation, the using lesson plans and content, and the lesson planning.

Student teachers' understanding of curriculum

Within the context of this study, first-year and last-year Czech and Chinese student teachers' understanding of curriculum value multiple orientations toward the curriculum rather than "adhere to one orientation" (Miller, 1983; Ashour, et al., 2012). It matches the views of previous research which indicates the five curriculum orientations are mutually harmonizing rather than mutually exclusive (Cheung & Woo, 2002) and "in most cases, they (most teachers) work from a cluster of two or three orientations" (Miller, 1983, p.181).

Czech last-year student teachers to a large extent value Cognitive Process, Social Reconstruction and Humanistic orientations; in particular curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each pupil. Besides, a divergence about whether "subject knowledge is the most important curriculum contents for primary and secondary school pupils" and nearly 40% of student teachers' neutral attitudes about whether "the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which pupils have attained the intended learning objectives" may indicate the views of Ashour, et al. (2012) that pre-service teachers are moderately oriented toward the Academic Rationalism and Behavioural orientations.

Chinese last-year student teachers to a large extent value Cognitive Process,

Behavioural, Social Reconstruction and Humanistic orientations, in particular "during the teaching-learning process, it is most important to give students opportunities to think about problems". In addition, a similar divergence about whether "subject knowledge is the most important curriculum contents for primary and secondary school pupils" is existed.

As for the beginning student teachers' pre-understanding of curriculum, Czech beginning student teachers to a large extent value Academic Rationalism, Cognitive Process and Humanistic orientations. In addition, about half of them are uncertain about whether "curriculum should let students understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society". Chinese beginning student teachers to a large extent value Cognitive Process, Behavioural and Social Reconstruction orientations. Also, a similar divergence about whether subject knowledge is the most important curriculum contents is existed.

Similarities and differences between Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers' declarative competence in curriculum development

In accordance with previous discussion (see section 5.5), there is no difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' declarative pre-knowledge about the contexts; however, there is a difference in the resource, needs, language teacher's role, and implementation of a lesson between Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers. It seems that Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers' general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, and knowledge of educational contexts are different in alignment with Shulman's (1987) major categories of teacher knowledge (see section 2.2.1). And it matches views of Widden et al. (1998) in that student teachers are not an undifferentiated group and instead, hold a variety of images of and understandings about teaching and learning. The entering knowledge is more nuanced- and extends across a wider range of possibilities- than many people had imagined (Widden et al., 1998).

Furthermore, results show that Czech beginning student teachers need to be

informed of the theories of child development, individual learners' styles, methods and strategies of learning English, the English teaching methodology, evaluation knowledge and skills, as well as knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, and knowledge about the current curriculum reform. In other words, English pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of learners and their characteristics, in Shulman's (1987) terms.

As for Chinese beginning student teachers, it seems that they need to be informed of the theories of English learning and child development, the English teaching methodology, ICT selection skills, as well as knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, and knowledge about the current curriculum reform. That is, English pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of learners and their characteristics (Shulman, 1986, 1987).

Similarities and differences between Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers' declarative competence in curriculum development

In accordance with previous discussion (see section 5.5), there is no difference in the overall outcome of student teachers' declarative competence for the resources and needs, however, there is a difference in the contexts, language teacher's role, and implementation of a lesson between Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers. In more details, it seems that the differences between Czech and Chinese student teachers' competence in curriculum development appear in their general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, and knowledge of educational contexts in alignment with Shulman's (1987) major categories of teacher knowledge. According to the views of Huizinga et al. (2014), Czech and Chinese student teachers' curriculum design expertise, pedagogical content knowledge, and their understanding of the current curriculum reform are different; however, curriculum design expertise is not clearly distinguished in the present study. In addition, teaching a language extends

beyond teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills and includes a wide range of other issues such as culture, communication skill and learning skills (Borg, 2006). As indicated by previous research (Evans, 2012), it would be an error to over-generalize foreign language teachers' challenges with classroom in an effort to introduce possible solutions without first considering the uniqueness of this particular teaching and learning environment. In this regard, Czech and Chinese student teachers knowledge about teaching methodology, in which related to dealing with the main skills of listening, reading and writing, and culture awareness of language are different. Moreover, Freeman, Orzulak and Morrisey (2009) claim that the challenge with language teaching is that teachers use language to teach language. In other words, language is the basis of the lesson- what the teacher is teaching- and it is the means of teaching it- how the teacher teaches that lesson. Czech and Chinese student teachers' differences at metalanguage usage also reflect this challenge.

It seems that Czech last-year student teachers need to be further informed of English pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge and curriculum design expertise. To be more concrete, it includes the following knowledge and skills:

- Knowledge and skills to keep the English teaching methodology up-to-date
- The theories of English learning and child development.
- Knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, and systematic curriculum design skills (Huizinga et al., 2014)
- Formative and summative evaluation skills
- Knowledge about the current curriculum reform

The professional courses offering to Czech student teachers include three categories: the language-based courses (e.g. linguistics, Stylistics), the methodology courses, and literature and cultural studies, in which the language-based courses and literature and cultural studies provide the subject knowledge as well as the methodology courses provide pedagogical content knowledge (see section 3.3.3). Data have revealed that 2 out of 3 universities' compulsory courses do not include the course in language testing and assessment, and all compulsory courses do not include the courses in child development and learning English, formative and summative

evaluation, teaching materials development and evaluation, CLIL, planning and course programme design, and the current curriculum reform. Some of those courses are included in compulsory optional courses. However, the TEFL methodology courses focuse on different methods and approaches in ELT as well as course design, language learner, theories of language acquisition, evaluation of students and teaching materials.

Regarding Chinese last-year student teachers they need to be further informed of the latest studies of child development and they need to be informed about individual learners' styles, methods and strategies of learning English. In addition, they also need to be informed of knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, systematic curriculum design skills as well as the knowledge and skills to keep the English teaching methodology up-to-date.

Concerning the professional courses offering to Chinese student teachers (see section 3.3.3), student teachers have about 15% of the total learning related to teaching professional education in four-year programme, adding the 10-12 weeks teaching practice, the credits awarded to teaching professional education are about 22% or so. Universities' compulsory courses do not include the courses in child development and learning English, language testing and assessment, formative and summative evaluation, CLIL, ELT curriculum design and instruction design, ELT curriculum resources development and materials selection, and the current curriculum reform (including the national English language curriculum standards in basic education). However, some of those courses are included in compulsory optional courses. In addition, during teaching practice, student teachers spend time in schools observing classroom teaching, assisting the supervising teacher, taking part in managing pupil's activities and practising their teaching skills (Fang & Zhu, 2008). As Mattheoudakis (2007) argues, "we know very little about what actually happens" (p. 1273) in many of these courses as well as in teaching practice, including what student teachers actually learn from such experiences and how.

Lastly, whatever target language usage or cross-curriculum teaching using English, results have showed that lots of Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers

are not competent; it clearly reflects the challenge with language teaching that teachers use language to teach language (Freeman et al., 2009). Another fact appearing from the data seems that Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers need to be further informed about teaching the relationship between language and culture. It closely matches the views of Byram (2012) in that "teachers with many years of experience often say that they do not feel 'qualified' to teach 'culture'… This is particularly the case for English…. it is not surprising that teachers in preservice training or in the early stages of their career may feel even less confident" (p.83). Further, these results closely match the views of Bartell (1995) in that "no matter what initial preparation they receive, teachers are never fully prepared for classroom realities and for responsibilities associated with meeting the needs of a rapidly growing increasingly diverse student population" (pp. 28-29).

6.2 Implications

The research findings in this study have implications for teacher education in general, EFL teacher education in particular, and teachers' professional development, as follows:

First, student teachers' competence in curriculum development could be seen as necessary to a teacher's expertise and professionalism in light of the current educational realities within the Czech and Chinese contexts, which should not be postponed or left as the student teacher' own concern after graduation. Consequently, the overall teacher education programmes including coursework should reflect this point of view to prepare this competence. In addition, all student teachers should be fostered their ownership of and their knowledge about the current curriculum reform ideas, and their competence to analyze, design and use of curriculum materials.

Second, a beginning student teacher enters a faculty of education with clear-cut preconceptions of education and teaching which is influenced by his or her experiences as a learner. In fact, they just imitate the most easily observed aspects of teaching rather than the underlying knowledge, skills, planning, and decision making

(Lortie, 1975). Even though they still tend to assimilate what is being taught to their preexisting schemas. Therefore, it is important to address student teachers' preconceptions during teacher education. Consequently, investigations of student teachers understanding of their own pre-knowledge can provide insights into the complex challenges that student teachers navigate as they prepare to enter the field. Furthermore, helping student teachers identify, become aware of, and confront their needs and problems caused by their preconceptions, as well as providing resources to help them remedy their problems accordingly, could help reduce a discrepancy between desired goals and actual experiences (Fuller & Bown, 1975). This, ultimately, can inform approaches to teacher preparation and professional development. In the current study, results reveal that Czech beginning student teachers need to be informed of the theories of child development, individual learners' styles, methods and strategies of learning English, the English teaching methodology, evaluation knowledge and skills, as well as knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, and knowledge about the current curriculum reform. Regarding Chinese beginning student teachers, results show that they need to be informed of the theories of English learning and child development, the English teaching methodology, ICT selection skills, as well as knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, and knowledge about the current curriculum reform.

Third, focusing on last-year student teachers could provide insights into their professional readiness in terms of competence in curriculum development through preservice preparation, however, student's professional development progresses in gradual stages outlined in the curricula of particular degree programmes (Grossman, 1994). In the present study, results indicate that both Czech and Chinese student teachers need to be further informed of English pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, and curriculum design expertise.

Fourth, preservice teacher preparation should help student teachers theorize their own teaching, in which developing critical reflection among student teachers is of vital importance. Student teachers have to learn how to direct their own professional growth through the use of reflection as a means of integrating theory and practice.

One potential problem with survey research is that responses to a questionnaire may be affected by respondents' need to make socially desirable responses (McMurray, Pace, & Scott, 2004), which will introduce measurement error in the analysis and reduce the reliability of responses. To diminish the potential problems associated with this type of measurement error, the respondents were reminded of the confidential nature of the survey in the beginning of informed consent. So that respondents were more open to answer questions given this sufficient assurance of anonymity.

Second, it is the limitation about the unbalanced sample used in the analysis. The group should be "adequately sized", and "larger sizes contribute to less error variance and better claims of representativeness" (Creswell, 2008, p. 370). However, of all the 524 participants in the final analysis, only 123 were from Czech, in which first-year student teachers were 62 and last-year student teachers are 61. The small sample size in the Czech group might lead to the results with certain sample errors.

The third limitation is related to nonprobability sampling procedure in the study. A major limitation of this sampling procedure is that there is no guarantee how representative the resulting data will be for the population as a whole. The generalization of the study results to the target population would be limited.

The fourth limitation is the questionnaire length. However, there is no definite benchmark for the acceptable length of a questionnaire (McMurray, Pace, & Scott, 2004). In this study, the questionnaire included 67 items, which might take long time to respond.

The fifth limitation is language barrier from using second language. English was used as medium to collect data. Researcher's and participants' English proficiency might cause misunderstanding.

Six, due to practical reasons, the study applied a cross-sectional design, which means results can only be considered as a snapshot in one period of time. In this respect, a major drawback is that the researcher was not able to describe the evolution of participants' competence. Moreover, there could be differences across preservice teacher cohorts that are not reflected in these results. A longitudinal study could tackle

this limitation.

Finally, future research is needed to identify the variables that may influence the developing of student teachers' competence in curriculum development within similar population, as well as how student teachers' curriculum orientations and teaching practice play roles in the development of their competence. A similar study should be conducted using a longitudinal instead of a cross-sectional design that is preparing to analyze the development of student teachers' competence in curriculum development from preservice preparation. Moreover, the questionnaire was used to gather data in the study. The overall approach would have been strengthened by the use of classroom observation, interviews, and the observation of student teachers' self-reflection. Observation would have been relevant in gathering data on student teachers' skills of curriculum materials analysis and conducting a lesson in actual use. Interviews would have been good for identifying and exploring preservice teachers' views in-depth about use of curriculum materials, lesson planning, classroom management and evaluation and their construction of meaning. In addition, more students from Czech group should be recruited in the future study to tackle the limitation caused by the certain sample errors.

7 Conclusion

This dissertation is a comparative study related to the preparation of English teachers in lower secondary schools, which has accompanied by the current curriculum reform in the Czech Republic and in China. The reforms have posed new demands on teachers, for instance, in the Czech Republic, the growth in the pedagogical autonomy of schools has brought increased demands on teachers to become the creators of school curriculum (Pišová & Kostková, 2011); in China, teachers' abilities including developing curricula, designing and using of curriculum resources, redeveloping textbooks directly influence the effect of the implementation of national curriculum, the development of local curriculum and school-based curriculum, as well as the implementation of current new curriculum reform in basic education. Thus the purpose of the study has been to investigate what Czech and Chinese EFL student teachers' competence in curriculum development is like, and to compare the similarities and differences. The quantitative descriptive research has been employed to provide information about the traits, current situations and discrepancies of Czech and Chinese student teachers' competence in curriculum development. The survey method, a systematic way to collect data via distributing self-administrated questionnaires to a sample, has been used in the study to collect data.

To fulfil the aims, relevant literature has been reviewed and key concepts related to constructing student teacher's competence in curriculum development have been identified, defined and mutually linked to analyze its elements and structure in order to build the theoretical framework (see section 2.4).

The second aim has been fulfilled as the questionnaire has been developed (see Appendix G) and the methodological process of its development has been described in the chapter 4.

The third aim has been reached too as 123 Czech student teachers and 401 Chinese student teachers who were in the first year and in the last year of teacher education (before they would be eligible to become English teachers in lower

secondary schools in the Czech Republic and China) have become the respondents of the key research of this dissertation as presented in the chapter 5.

The results reveal that both Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers can take into account language teachers' different roles, specific needs of learning English, different resources, and contexts during uses of curriculum materials, however, they value teachers' roles and needs of learning English in a different order. With regard to the implementation of a lesson, Czech firs-year student teachers value the lesson planning, followed by the using lesson plans and content, the teaching methodology, the evaluation, and the classroom management, whilst, Chinese firs-year student teachers value the classroom management, followed by the teaching methodology, the evaluation, the using lesson plans and content, and the lesson planning. The differences between Czech and Chinese first-year student teachers' pre-knowledge appear in general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, and knowledge of educational contexts in according to the Shulman's (1987) major categories of teacher knowledge.

Regarding Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers they can take into account specific needs of learning English, different resources, language teachers' different roles, and contexts during uses of curriculum materials, however, they value resources and teacher's role in a different order. With regard to the implementation of a lesson, they are all confident in using lesson plans and content, the classroom management and the teaching methodology than in the lesson planning and the evaluation. The differences between Czech and Chinese last-year student teachers' competence in curriculum development also appear in their general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, and knowledge of educational contexts.

In terms of student teachers' understanding of curriculum, results show that firs-year and last-year Czech and Chinese student teachers value multiple orientations toward the curriculum rather than "adhere to one orientation". However, the differences of their comprehension of curriculum are reflected on five orientations.

The findings also indicate that both countries' beginning student teachers need to be informed of English pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of learners and their characteristics, including: (a) the English teaching methodology, (b) the theories of child development, individual learners' styles, methods and strategies of learning English, (c) knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, and (c) knowledge about the current curriculum reform. In addition, Czech beginning student teachers' evaluation knowledge and skills and Chinese beginning student teachers' ICT selection skills need to be further supported.

Concerns about both countries' last-year student teachers they need to be further informed of English pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, and curriculum design expertise, including: (a) knowledge and skills to keep the English teaching methodology up-to-date, (b) the theories of English learning and child development, and (c) knowledge and skills of developing and constructing lesson plans, and systematic curriculum design skills. Moreover, Czech last-year student teachers' knowledge about the current curriculum reform and formative and summative evaluation skills, as well as Chinese last-year student teachers' knowledge about individual learners' styles, methods and strategies of learning English need to be further supported.

The research findings have shed light on our understanding of the present preparation of student teachers' competence in curriculum development, which could be seen as necessary to a teacher's expertise and professionalism in light of the current educational realities within the Czech and Chinese contexts, and should not be postponed or left as the student teacher' own concern after graduation. Therefore, it gives an indication of the impact of teacher education.

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List of Abbreviations

EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
FEPs	Framework Educational Programmes
FLD	Foreign Language Department
ICT	Information and communication technologies
L2	Second language
MoE	Ministry of Education
NCSTE	National Curriculum Standards for Teacher Education
NEP	National Education Programme
SLTE	Second language teacher education
TEFL	Teaching English as a foreign language

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Appendix A. Two-Year Follow-up Master's Study Programmes

	Type	Course	Cr.	Semester	Min. of cr.
Charles University	Compulsory courses	Text Linguistics and Stylistics	2	1	20
		Introduction to Contemporary Literary Theory	2	1	
		Introduction to Linguodidactics	2	1	
		Pragmatics	1	2	
		Postcolonial Literature [a]	2	2	
		Teaching Language Skills	2	2	
		Sociolinguistics	1	2	
		Literature for Children and Young Adults	1	3	
		Linguistic System Application	3	3	
		Psycholinguistics	1	4	
		Current Issues in ELT	3	4	
	Compulsory options	English in the Media (I & II)	4	1/2 [b]	8
		Aspects of Gender in Literature (I & II)	4	3/4	
		Contemporary British novel	2	4	
		CLIL (I &II)	4	1/2	
		Extending Didactic Skills (I & II)	4	1/2	
		Fundamentals of Applied Research	2	1	
		Linguistic Interpretation of Text and Discourse	2	3	
		Methodology of Literature	2	3	
		Through words and pictures - literature and film	2	3	
	Teaching Practice		4	2/3	4
Masaryk University	Compulsory courses	ELT Methodology (I-IV)	9	1/2/3/4	27
		Lexicology	3	1	
		Seminar to British literature of the 20th century	2	1	
		Practical and Professional English (I & II)	5	1/2	
		Children's Literature	2	2	
		Stylistics	3	2	
		Seminar to American literature of the 20th century	2	3	
		Testing and Assessment	1	3	
	Compulsory options	Seminar-Teaching Practice (I & II) [c]	8	1/2	6
		Academic Skills: Listening	2	1 (3)	
		Academic Skills: Writing	2	1 (2, 3) [b]	
		Academic Skills: Speaking	2	2	
		Creative Writing Workshop	2	1 (3)	
		Expository Writing	2	2	
		Pronunciation Practice (I & II)	2	1 (3)/2	

		Spoken Fluency (I & II)	2	1 (3)/2	
		Introduction to Translation Theory (I & II)	4	1/2	
		Translation Seminar (I & II)	4	2/3	
		Language Advising	3	1 (3)	
		British literature of the 20th century	2	1	
		Australian and Canadian Literature	2	2	
		American literature of the 20th century	2	3	
		Literature in English Classroom	1	1 (3)	
		Inquiries in Intercultural Communication	2	1 (3)	
		Teaching Children	1	1 (2, 3)	
		Content and Language Integrated Learning	2	2	
		Language Practice	1	2	
		Sociolinguistics and English Language teaching	2	2	
		Selected topics in Lexicology	2	2	
		Culture, Society and Tolerance	4	2 (4)	
	Completely optional courses	Creative Poetry Writing (I & II)	4	1 (2, 3)/1 (3)	Free choice
		English and American Film Production	2	1 (2, 3, 4)	
		English and American Drama on Stage	2	1 (2, 3, 4)	
		Fun with American Music for Everyone	1	1 (2, 3, 4)	
		E-Tutor Assistants	2	1 (2, 3, 4)	
		Independent Reading	2	1 (2, 3, 4)	
		Current Events in English Speaking Countries	4	1 (2, 3, 4)	
		Team Project	2	1 (2, 3, 4)	
		The English Garden	2	1 (3)	
		Distance Education in Language Learning	2	1 (3)	
		Ethnic and Regional Culture of America	4	1 (3)	
		Cultural Studies for Teachers of English	2	1 (3)	
		Music in a Language Classroom	2	2 (3, 4)	
		Folk Music of English Speaking Countries	2	2 (4)	
		Translation Seminar Online (I & II)	4	3/2	
	Teaching Practice [c]		12	1/2/3	12
Palacky University	Compulsory courses	Sociolinguistics	1	1	24
		ELT Methodology (I-IV)	8	1/2/3/4	
		Language Practice (I- III)	8	1/2/3	
		Text Analysis (I & II)	3	2/3	
		Children's Literature (I & II)	4	3/4	
	Compulsory options	Planning and Course Programme Design	1	1 (3)	6
		Teaching Materials Evaluation	1	1 (3)	
		Teaching Foreign Language to Very Young Learners	1	1 (3)	
		Contemporary Literature in English Speaking	2	1 (3)/2 (4)	

	Countries (I & II)			
	Teaching Foreign Language to Pupils with Special Educational Needs	1	2 (4)	
	Literature at School	1	2 (4)	
	Diploma Project Seminar	1	2	
	Grammar Seminar	1	4	
Optional courses	Chapters from Literature and Culture of English Speaking Countries	1	1(3)	2
	ICT for ELT	2	1	
	Language Skills - Listening	1	1(3)	
	Multiculturalism and Interculturalism in Language Teaching	1	1(3)	
	Project Work and Self-Reflection	1	1(3)	
	Using Supplementary Material in Language Teaching	1	2(4)	
	Drama in Literature in English Speaking Countries	1	2(4)	
	Grammar Teaching	1	2(4)	
	Chapters from English Grammar	1	3	
	Language Practice (IV & V)	2	3/4	
Teaching Practice		6	2/3	6

Note: Based on English departments at those universities, data from universities' websites.

[a] This course is offered to students who passed Introduction to Contemporary Literary Theory.

[b] 1/2 means that the series courses will be taught in semesters 1 and 2. 1 (2, 3) means that same course will be taught in semesters 1, 2 and 3.

[c] The teaching practice is undergoing some changes at Faculty of Education, Masaryk University in the academic year 2013/2014. Seminar-Teaching Practice is reflective seminars in the new system.

Appendix B. Four-Year bachelor's Study Programmes

Type of courses		Courses (credits)	
		Sichuan Normal University	**Leshan Normal University**
General education	compulsory courses	Political/ideological issues National defence education Physical education Computer science **26 Cr.**	Political/ideological issues Physical education Foreign language II Computer science Mathematics **36 Cr.**
	optional courses	Aesthetic education, sciences, etc. **8 Cr.**	World economy & politics, etc. **12 Cr.**
Subject matter	compulsory courses	English language skills in listening, speaking, writing, and reading Pronunciation English grammar Translation Western cultures Chinese language and literature Linguistics introductory British & American literature History of English speaking countries Foreign language II (French/ German/ Japanese/ Russian) **90 Cr.** (35 courses)	English language skills in listening, speaking, writing, and reading Cultures in English speaking countries Pronunciation English grammar British & American literature Translation Speech TEFL methodology Linguistics introductory Lexicology Foreign language II (Japanese/ Russian) **94 Cr.** (35 courses)
	optional courses	Language acquisition Language and culture British (American) culture and society Introduction to Chinese culture Comparison between Chinese and Western cultures Chinese translation history English language testing Lexicology Foreign language II English journals and newspapers **Minimum 9 Cr.** (total 20 cr., 13 courses)	Reflective practice and thinking Language learning strategy Foreign language teaching and learning and research methods Teaching skills in English classroom Phonetics Contemporary linguistics Applied linguistics Language testing Literature criticism Translation theory **Minimum 6 Cr.** (total 24 cr., 17 courses)

Educational/pedagogical courses	compulsory courses	Pedagogy Psychology Counselling for secondary school students Research methods in education TEFL methodology Teaching materials evaluation; Teacher's professional skills (spoken language, blackboard writing) Educational technology **15 Cr.** (9 courses)	Pedagogy Psychology Educational technology TEFL methodology Second language acquisition **12 Cr.** (5 courses)
	optional courses	Moral education Basic knowledge and skills (Stick figures, etc.) Educational policies and education reform The national English language curriculum standards in basic education ELT curriculum resources development ELT curriculum design and instruction design Evaluation in English teaching Drama and English film **Minimum 5 Cr.** (total 18 cr., 18 courses)	Child psychology and mental health education Research methods in education Educational policies and education reform Professional ethics and skills English language testing Classroom language The national English language curriculum standards in basic education School-based English curriculum development Teaching materials development and evaluation **Minimum 6 Cr.** (total 14 cr., 14 courses)
Field experience and teaching practice		Teaching practice: 6 Cr. (**12 weeks**) Microteaching: 2.5 Cr. Observations in clinical fields: 2 Cr. Reflective teaching practice: 0.5 Cr. Diploma Project: 6 Cr. **17 Cr.**	Teaching practice: 12 Cr. (**10 weeks**) Observations in clinical fields: 3 Cr. Teacher's professional skills (spoken language, blackboard writing): 3 Cr. Rehearse: 2 Cr.; Others: 2 Cr. Diploma Project: 6 Cr. **28 Cr.**
Sum (credits)		170	194

Note: Based on English departments at those universities.

Appendix C. Interview Schedule

Section I: Demographic data

1. Name of your Faculty and Institute/Department: _____
2. Status (faculty rank): Professor, Associate professor, Assistant professor, Lecturer
3. Years of teaching experience at the college level: 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21+
4. Research interests: _____
5. Current degree: Mgr._____, PhD_____
6. Primary teaching course (focuses): _____

Section II: Interview questions

1. What professional knowledge is needed by a prospective teacher?
2. What are necessary competences for primary and secondary teachers to be the creators of school curriculum? What is needed to support their competences development in teacher education programme?
   - The interviews with Czech teacher educators, this question based on the following phenomenon:
     "Each individual school in the Czech Republic must develop its own curricula and create a School Education Programme based on the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education (FEP, 2007) by itself. For successful implementation, educators need to be mindful of the organizational and practical considerations associated with curriculum development. But for many teachers to create a curriculum is a huge burden, as they are not trained for this purpose and lack the teaching aids and further necessary training to take on this new responsibility (Green, 2008)."
3. What are the central tasks of preservice teacher preparation?

Risk: Interviewees maybe don't teach the courses related to teacher education programmes in recent semesters. Let them talk about one course which they teach this semester and feel the most successful, focusing on their educational practice. Ask them questions a, b, & c and Q2.

a. Can you briefly describe your course? Why do you feel successful?

b. Why are you teaching the way you teach? What was the stimulus?

c. Are there aspects of your educational practice you would like to develop? If yes, for which competences would you like to get support?

Appendix D. Background of Interviewees

Czech participants

1	Dr. A	Dr. A was an assistant professor at a university. He worked at the university from 1985. Prior to that, he almost taught at all types of schools except for kindergarten from 1970 to 1985. He said he was "probably the most experienced" at the institute. He taught undergraduate and graduate courses on communicative skills, general and school didactics. His scholarly interests focused on teaching competency and beginning teacher.
2	Dr. B	Dr. B was as an associate professor at a university. She also worked at the university from 1985. She taught undergraduate and graduate courses on didactics, communicative skills, observation and analysis of lessons as well as teacher profession. Her scholarly interests focused on didactics, general methodology as well as tendencies in German education in Moravia.
3	Dr. C	Dr. C had served as an associate professor at a university. She worked at the university from 2001. She taught undergraduate and graduate courses on school management and creating of curriculum. Her scholarly interests focused on school management, educational politics and curriculum development.
4	Dr. D	Dr. D was a lecturer in a university. Her teaching experience at the university level was less than 5 years. She taught undergraduate and graduate courses on communication skills, ELT didactics. Her scholarly interests focused on ELT didactics.
5	Dr. E	Dr. E was an assistant professor at a university. His teaching experience at the university level was less than 10 years. He taught undergraduate and graduate courses on ELT methodology and sociolinguistics. His scholarly interests focused on sociolinguistics, language practice and ELT methodology.
6	Dr. F	Dr. F had served as an associate professor at a university. Her teaching experience at the university level was more than 21 years. She taught undergraduate and graduate courses on teaching foreign language to pupils with special Educational needs and ELT didactics. Her scholarly interests focused on pronunciation teaching, testing and assessment.

Chinese participants

1	Dr. G	Dr. G was a professor in Pedagogy. He earned Ph.D. in Education in 1995 at Northwest Normal University of China with professor Li Bingde- a famous professor in Curriculum and Pedagogy in China. At time of this writing Dr. G had served at a university level more than 25 years. Prior to that, he taught at primary school and secondary schools.

		Currently, he taught undergraduate, graduate and doctor courses on pedagogical principle and multicultural education. His research focused on how to develop education in order to help children develop common knowledge and an ability to live a fulfilling life in a multicultural society.
2	Dr. H	Dr. H was a professor in Curriculum and Pedagogy. He earned Ph.D. at Beijing Normal University in 2003. At time of this writing Dr. H had served at a university level more than 11 years. Prior to that, he taught English at secondary schools for 4 years. Currently, he taught undergraduate, graduate and doctor courses on curriculum and teaching theory and educational evaluation. His scholarly interests focused on classroom teaching design, the logic of power in classroom field, and the foreign language classroom teaching reform.
3	Dr. I	Dr. I was a professor in Curriculum and Pedagogy. She earned Ph.D. at Northwest Normal University of China in 2005. At time of this writing Dr. I had served at a university level more than 20 years. Currently, she taught undergraduate, graduate and doctor courses on curriculum theory. Her scholarly interests focused on classroom language, teacher assessment and teacher profession.
4	Ms. J	Ms. J was a senior lecturer at a college. Prior to that, she taught English at primary school for 10 years. She earned her master's degree in 2009. She was in charge of National Training Plan (2010)—Sichuan Province short-term training programmes for rural primary and secondary English teachers. Her scholarly interests focused on teaching materials development and evaluation as well as evaluation in English teaching.
5	Dr. K	Dr. K was a professor at university. He had served at a university level more than 20 years. Currently, he taught undergraduate and graduate courses on L2 development, material development, ELT classroom studies and comparative studies of ELT curriculum. His scholarly interests focused on classroom studies, material development, comparative studies of ELT curriculum, standards and materials, and ELT teacher development.

Note: The pseudonyms are used.

Appendix E. Sample Interview Transcript

Sample a

R: What professional knowledge is needed by a preservice teacher?
Dr. A: I think it's well described in the competences that every teacher should have – generally vocationally subjects, didactic, diagnostic. To some extent, a teacher is required to have gained knowledge from all these disciplines before he starts teaching.

R: What are necessary competences for primary and secondary teachers to be the creators of school curriculum? What is needed to support their competences development in teacher education programmes?
Dr. A: In my personal opinion, that the faculty should enable its students to gain rich experience. I think it is not like that at our faculty, because, if I compare current situation with the time when I started studying, I had two 8-week practices plus another class teacher practice, socio-political practice, I had to participate in the camp etc. So I spent a lot of time working with children. Nowadays, it is only 3 weeks when students as well as teachers tend to cut corners. I think a longer practice would be useful for creating of curriculum documents, in order to connect the experience from schools with what we teach at faculties. If this happened, I would find it great, the students would gain experience and theoretical knowledge and they would be doing something.

R: What are the central tasks of preservice preparation?
Dr. A: I think this question partially coincides with the previous one. Again, I think, in order to achieve teaching competences, future teachers should develop their abilities at the faculties, i.e. if they are to become good teachers of English, they have to speak good English and we have to show them the right way to achieve this. We not only have to teach them English, we also have to teach them how to pass their knowledge to the pupils and also how to act properly when it comes to didactics. All this is associated with the competences.
Students should have more practice.

R: Can you briefly describe your course? Why do you feel the course successful?
Dr. A: This question is partially easy and partially difficult. Easy – there are certain plans according to which we are supposed to teach. Difficult – in the way that e.g. I only teach didactic seminars or didactics, one of the colleagues has the lectures. We don't attend each other's lessons, of course, that's why it's possible that some information coincides an, at the same time, some information is not mentioned. I am probably the most experienced one here, that's why she wants me to focus on practice and she focuses on the theory.

I use microteaching – students present a specific part of the curriculum that they have prepared. We don't film the presentations because female students would think more about how they look in the video than about didactics as a subject. That's why I

rely more on the collective assessment – what is right, what is wrong, etc. So we can do it this way. Students bring pretty nice equipment sometimes. It's obvious that when they're really interested in this subject, they can do unbelievable things. On the other hand, it is difficult when a student doesn't have any interest.

R: Why are you teaching the way you teach? What was the stimulus?
Dr. A: Definitely the long years of my experience, because between 1970 and 1985, I was teaching (except for kindergarten) at all types of schools, so, I know what is necessary. I had talented teachers who gave me a lot. In some cases I let myself get inspired by them, in other cases by my colleagues. I combined this all my own approach, as you may call it "easy-going" because, as I say, one shouldn't overdo it.

R: Are there aspects of your educational practice you would like to develop? If yes, for which competences would do like to get support?
Dr. A: I am not going to develop much because, as you know, this year is my last in active service and from the next year I only have 0.2 part time, so I won't be developing much, but, nevertheless, I'll try to keep doing everything how I've been doing it and when something new or revolutionary shows up, I'm certainly not going to refuse it.

Sample b

R: What professional knowledge is needed by a preservice teacher?
Dr. B: It is important to be familiar with the pedagogical and didactical disciplines and when the didactical disciplines serve as the main tool. By that, we can mean subject (matter) didactics, school didactics, or general didactics. To deal with these disciplines, the teacher should have adequate knowledge of the content of the lessons, course objectives, but he should also know how to enlighten the students. The requirements also include the knowledge of the forms, organizational and teaching methods, teaching techniques and approaches, school system, the ability to analyze current school system and its issues, issues of education, approach to the students who are handicapped or require a specific treatment. Every teacher is supposed to be aware of the educational problems – e.g. nowadays we deal with issues like drugs and truancy.

R: What are necessary competences for primary and secondary teachers to be the creators of school curriculum? What is needed to support their competences development in teacher education programmes?
Dr. B: The question is whether teachers are the ones who are to create the curriculum. They have not been trained or lead to do so and thus they are not qualified to accomplish such a task. For this reason, the schools were differentiated in the sense that teachers who have been dealing with creating the curriculum, had to perform their duties as teachers, i.e. to teach and educate – a large number of responsibilities. Moreover, working time of teachers does not only include 20 hours of teaching. According to the researches, teachers' working time is usually higher than 40 hours

per week it sometimes exceeds 46 or even 49 hours per week. Thus, in my opinion, if a teacher does what he is supposed to, it is not right to burden him with creating the curriculum and it would not be the right decision from the Ministry of Education.

About the curriculum – naturally, there are also textbooks and other different materials for creating the curriculum, for the teacher always collaborates on it. Teachers take ideas from the curriculum they might have worked on in the past and, of course, by doing so, they contribute to the alterations or the development of the curriculum. If creating the curriculum, the teacher is supposed to have mastered the competences which are described in such textbooks. If I decided to create a curriculum, I should know who is going to be my target audience – for example, a version for combined studies for secretaries is going to look different from a version for combined studies of miners. Every curriculum ought to start with a survey of educational needs.

R: What are the central tasks of preservice preparation?

Dr. B: The concept of teacher education should also be based on the educational needs – what we actually want, what our perspectives are, what are the students supposed to know, whether we teach what we are supposed to teach. Let's equip them with sufficient knowledge to make able to succeed in modern society. That is a question related to all pedagogical faculties.

First of all, my field of study, i.e. a field of study that intends to teach. However, there are more of us who think that a teacher should be able to teach as well as to educate, and only pedagogy and didactics (possibly also disciplines associated with these two) are fields of study that can prepare you for this mission. But I don't think that is a prevailing opinion – specialized departments and specialized institutes protect their expertise, they are trying to get as many credits as possible, as many lessons for their students as possible from their specialized subjects, and it is very hard for them to fight let's say 20% or 25% points, credits, hours for the didactical and psychological part. Thus, teachers' education should be in the spirit of teachers who are going to teach something or who are going to teach anything. By this I am talking about primary schools, because the higher expertise should be rather implemented for secondary school and university teachers.

R: Can you briefly describe your course? Why do you feel the course successful?

Dr. B: I would choose school didactics which is not lectured at all faculties for future teachers. It is a specific feature of our faculty and it forms a bridge between the theoretical general didactics and specific didactics of individual subjects. In my opinion, this is the core subject to prepare the students for their future profession at the faculty of education in Olomouc.

The most successful subject in terms of students who enjoyed it the most was "Dealing with educational situations", because their goal was to search for answers on the internet and we were also dealing with discipline, with actual events at schools. These are beautiful, interesting, curious cases and the students were the

ones searching for them. That's why last year this was the most entertaining course for them.

R: Why are you teaching the way you teach? What was the stimulus?
Dr. B: Every teacher has his own style of teaching or his own approach to teaching, based on what he himself experienced when he was still a student and which of his teachers inspired him. These thoughts can be conscious or unconscious. Of course, styles of teaching also vary, depending whether it is a seminar, field work, or a theoretical lecture. My style of teaching – I prefer to give lecture, but my lectures are not just lectures, because I am trying to incorporate a little bit of practice into them – what do these situations and issues look like at schools? How does the staff there deal with them? When I introduce some issue to the students, I also want them to find out how it reflects on schools. When you spent a long time working as a teacher at a secondary school, then you also know what it looks like at secondary schools in real life. And now I also know how it works in theory. However, the most challenging part is to combine theory and practice.

R: Are there aspects of your educational practice you would like to develop? If yes, for which competences would do like to get support?
Dr. B: For example, I would like to implement the aspect of electronic learning and teaching with digital teaching aids, but it is difficult for me since it's not easily available or hard to understand how to operate with. But most of all, my personal attitude towards it is not directly negative, rather fearful. So that's one of the thing I'd like to implement, but considering I'm limited by time, I won't be able to do so. I would like to get some training in everything associated with working with computers. If I had a long future in teaching, which I do not, this kind of training would probably help me a lot.

Appendix F. Questionnaire Item Content Validation Form

Dear colleague,

I am currently in the process of ascertaining the face and content validity of a survey for my doctoral dissertation. My dissertation is a comparative study on EFL student teachers' competence in curriculum development. I really appreciate your serving on my panel of experts to help determine its face and content validity.

The questionnaire will be administered to students who are in the first year and in the last year of teacher education before they are eligible to become English teachers in lower secondary schools in the Czech Republic and in China. In this study, these students will be referred to as "student teachers". The purpose of this survey it to investigate what Czech and Chinese student teachers' competence in curriculum development is like. To be more concrete, it can be described into three questions: (a) what understanding do EFL student teachers have about curriculum; (b) what competence do EFL student teachers have to use of curriculum materials; and (c) what competence do EFL student teachers have to implement a lesson?

The survey questionnaire consists of seven sections. Section one is related to demographic data. The other sections are the main body of the questionnaire with 70-item. Section two concerns student teachers' understanding of curriculum. Sections three to six concern their competence for various resources, contexts, learners' needs and implementation of a lesson. Section seven is about their reflection of language teacher's role. The five point Likert-type Scale method is being used for the main body of the survey questionnaire. Subjects will be asked to indicate the level of their certainty of the agreement and disagreement by placing their response to the item on a five-point scale.

Please review and comment the proposed items based upon the following criteria:

Face Validity: Does the instrument "look like" it is measuring what it is supposed to measure?

Content Validity: Are the items representative of concepts related to the dissertation topic?

Clarity: Is each item in the instruments clear? Is the language/wording appropriate?

Format: Logical flow? Suggestions

Other: Please make any additional suggestions as warranted?

On the following pages are listed 70 items. Please circle your response.

1) Is the item appropriate?

YES = Appropriate

NO = Inappropriate

2) Is the item clear?

YES = Meaning Clear

NO = Meaning Unclear

In addition, if the item is appropriate but unclear, please reword the item on the blank lines below the item. If the item is inappropriate and not clear, please indicate the item

should be deleted from the questionnaire by writing the word "Delete" on the lines.

Sincerely,
LIU LI 刘莉
Ph.D. Candidate
Faculty of Education
Palacky University in Olomouc, Czech Republic

Section 2: EFL student teachers' understanding of curriculum

Item	**Appropriate**		**Clear**	
1. During the teaching-learning process, it is most important to give students opportunities to think about problems.	Yes	No	Yes	No
2. Selection of curriculum content and teaching activities for every school subject should be based on the learning objectives.	Yes	No	Yes	No
3. Curriculum should let students understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society.	Yes	No	Yes	No
4. For curriculum design, the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which students have attained the intended learning objectives.	Yes	No	Yes	No
5. Curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each student.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____

	Appropriate		Clear	
6. The most important curriculum content of primary and secondary school students is subject knowledge.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

7. Curriculum should stress refinement of students' intellectual abilities.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

8. Curriculum should require teachers to teach thinking skill systematically.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

9. Students' interests and needs should be the organizing center of curriculum.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

10. Curriculum contents should focus on societal problems such as pollution, population explosion, energy shortage, racial discrimination, and crime.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

Section 3: Towards various resources	Appropriate		Clear	
11. I can identify a range of coursebooks/materials appropriate for the age, interests and the language level of the learners.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

12. I can select texts and language activities from coursebooks appropriate for my learners.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

	Appropriate		Clear	
13. I can make use of ideas and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

14. I can design learning materials and activities appropriate for my learners.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

15. I can use ICT (Information and Communications Technology) materials and activities in the classroom which are appropriate for my learners.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

16. I can select listening and reading materials appropriate for the needs of my learners from a variety of sources, such as literature, mass media and the Internet.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

17. I can select a variety of materials to stimulate speaking activities (visual aids, texts, authentic materials etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

18. I can select a variety of materials to stimulate writing (authentic materials, visual aids etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

	Appropriate		Clear	
19. I can recommend books appropriate to the needs, interests and language level of the learners.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

Section 4: Towards the contexts	Appropriate		Clear	
20. I can understand the requirements set in the FEP BE (Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education)/ NECS (National English Curriculum Standards for nine-year compulsory education).	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

21. I can design English courses around the requirements of the FEP BE/ (NECS).	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

22. I can adapt my teaching according to the recognition of the organisational constraints and resource limitations existent at my school.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

23. I can relate what I teach to current events in local and international contexts.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

24. I can relate the language I am teaching to the culture of those who speak it.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

25. I can create a supportive atmosphere that invites learners to take part in speaking activities.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____

_____
_____

Section 5: Towards the needs	**Appropriate**		**Clear**	
26. I can understand the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning English.	Yes	No	Yes	No
27. I can take into account differing motivations for learning English.	Yes	No	Yes	No
28. I can take into account the cognitive needs of learners (problem solving, drive for communication, acquiring knowledge etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No
29. I can take into account the affective needs of learners (sense of achievement, enjoyment etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No
30. I can take into account the expectations and impact of educational stakeholders (employers, parents, funding agencies etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No

Section 6: Towards implementation of a lesson	**Appropriate**		**Clear**	
Lesson planning				
31. I can set learning aims and objectives suited to my learners' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements.	Yes	No	Yes	No

	Appropriate		Clear	
32. I can plan specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or for a period of teaching.	Yes	No	Yes	No
33. I can structure lesson plans and/or plan for periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content.	Yes	No	Yes	No
34. I can plan activities to ensure the interdependence of listening, reading, writing and speaking.	Yes	No	Yes	No
35. I can plan activities to emphasise the interdependence of language and culture.	Yes	No	Yes	No
36. I can plan activities which link grammar and vocabulary with communication.	Yes	No	Yes	No
37. I can plan to teach elements of other subjects using English (cross- curricular teaching, CLIL etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No
Using Lesson Plans and Content 38. I can be flexible when working from a lesson plan, such as respond to learner interests as the lesson progresses.	Yes	No	Yes	No

	Appropriate		Clear	
39. I can adjust my time schedule when unforeseen situations occur.	Yes	No	Yes	No
40. I can present language content (new and previously encountered items of language, topics etc.) in ways which are appropriate for individuals and specific groups of learners.	Yes	No	Yes	No
41. I can relate what I teach to learners' knowledge and previous language learning experiences.	Yes	No	Yes	No
Methodology				
42. I can select different activities to help learners to use different text types (telephone conversations, transactions, speeches etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No
43. I can select a range of meaningful writing activities to help learners use appropriate language for different text types (letters, stories, reports etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No
44. I can select writing activities to consolidate learning (grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No

	Appropriate		Clear	
45. I can design different activities in order to practise and develop different listening strategies (listening for gist, specific information etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No
46. I can select a variety of post-listening tasks to provide a bridge between listening and other skills.	Yes	No	Yes	No
47. I can set different activities in order to practise and develop different reading strategies according to the purpose of reading (skimming, scanning etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No
48. I can select grammatical exercises and activities, which support learning and encourage oral and written communication.	Yes	No	Yes	No
49. I can select tasks which help learners to use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts.	Yes	No	Yes	No
50. I can select activities (role plays, simulated situations etc.) which help learners to develop their socio-cultural competence.	Yes	No	Yes	No
51. I can select a variety of texts and activities to make learners aware of the interrelationship between culture and language.	Yes	No	Yes	No

_____
_____
_____

Classroom Management and Language	**Appropriate**		**Clear**	
52. I can take on different roles according to the needs of the learners and requirements of the activity (resource person, mediator, supervisor etc.).	Yes	No	Yes	No
53. I can create opportunities for and manage individual, partner, group and whole class work.	Yes	No	Yes	No
54. I can keep and maximise the attention of learners during a lesson.	Yes	No	Yes	No
55. I can cater for a range of learning styles.	Yes	No	Yes	No
56. I can decide when it is appropriate to use the target language and when not to.	Yes	No	Yes	No
57. I can use various strategies when learners do not understand the target language.	Yes	No	Yes	No
58. I can encourage learners to use English in their activities.	Yes	No	Yes	No

	Appropriate		Clear	
59. I can plan how to use the target language, including metalanguage I may need in the classroom.	Yes	No	Yes	No
Evaluation				
60. I can select valid assessment procedures (tests, portfolios, self-assessment etc.) appropriate to learning aims and objectives.	Yes	No	Yes	No
61. I can use in-class activities to monitor and assess learners' participation and performance.	Yes	No	Yes	No
62. I can assign grades for tests and examinations using procedures which are reliable and transparent.	Yes	No	Yes	No
63. I can help learners to set personal targets and assess their own performance.	Yes	No	Yes	No
64. I can help learners to engage in peer assessment.	Yes	No	Yes	No

Section 7: Towards language teacher's role	Appropriate		Clear	
65. I can promote the value and benefits of English learning to learners.	Yes	No	Yes	No

	Appropriate		Clear	
66. I can draw on appropriate theories of language, learning, culture etc. and relevant research findings to guide my teaching.	Yes	No	Yes	No
67. I can accept feedback from my peers and mentors and build this into my teaching.	Yes	No	Yes	No
68. I can critically assess my teaching on the basis of experience, learner feedback and learning outcomes, and related theoretical principles.	Yes	No	Yes	No
69. I can offer constructive feedback to my peers by recognising different methodological aspects of their teaching.	Yes	No	Yes	No
70. I can identify specific pedagogical/ didactic issues related to my learners or my teaching in the form of action research.	Yes	No	Yes	No

Appendix G. Questionnaire of EFL Student Teachers' Competence in Curriculum Development

Welcome! Thank you for taking part in this survey. We hope that by answering these questions, you are able to learn more about yourself and reflect on your own competence and on the underlying knowledge and skills which feeds the competence. To get to know you better, we will need a little background information. Please respond to the following questions. We will ensure you that the questionnaire is absolutely anonymous and just will be used in the research. Thanks for your cooperation.

The questionnaire combines close-ended statements and open-ended questions.

The 5-point Likert scale is used in the close-ended statements. It provides for each close-ended response as follows:

- 5= Strongly Agree
- 4=Agree
- 3= I have no chance to find if I have this competence (or neutral)
- 2= Disagree
- 1= Strongly Disagree

Please read the statements carefully and circle the number which represents your point of view.

Section 1: Demographic

1. I am: a. male b. female
2. I am years old.
3. Teaching practicum experiences:_____
   _____
   (eg. in-school experiences, 3 weeks in summer semester of 2012 at ** school, including structured observations, course-related field experiences, student teaching; or/and micro-practice in every semester, etc.)
4. Do you have teaching experiences out of school study programme? a. yes b. no
   (if "Yes", please write more details about it, eg. time and type): _____
   _____
5. I prefer to be an English teacher at a _____ school.
   a. lower secondary b. upper secondary c. primary
6. What is your another subject? (eg. music, history, etc.) [1]_____

Section 2: Understanding of curriculum

1. During the teaching-learning process, it is most important to give students opportunities to think about problems.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Selection of curriculum content and teaching activities for	5	4	3	2	1

[1] The survey in China didn't include this question.

	every school subject should be based on the learning objectives.					
3.	Curriculum should let students understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society.	5	4	3	2	1
4.	For curriculum design, the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which students have attained the intended learning objectives.	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each student.	5	4	3	2	1
6.	The most important curriculum content of primary and secondary school students is subject knowledge.	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Curriculum should stress refinement of students' intellectual abilities.	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Curriculum should require teachers to teach thinking skill systematically.	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Students' interests and needs should be the organizing center of curriculum.	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Curriculum contents should focus on societal problems such as pollution, population explosion, energy shortage, racial discrimination, and crime.	5	4	3	2	1

Section 3: Towards various resources

11.	I can identify a range of coursebooks/materials appropriate for the age, interests and the language level of the learners.	5	4	3	2	1
12.	I can select texts and language activities from coursebooks appropriate for my learners.	5	4	3	2	1
13.	I can make use of ideas and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books.	5	4	3	2	1
14.	I can design learning materials and activities appropriate for my learners.	5	4	3	2	1
15.	I can use ICT (Information and Communications Technology) materials and activities in the classroom which are appropriate for my learners.	5	4	3	2	1
16.	I can select listening and reading materials appropriate for the needs of my learners from a variety of sources, such as literature, mass media and the Internet.	5	4	3	2	1
17.	I can select a variety of materials to stimulate speaking activities (visual aids, texts, authentic materials etc.).	5	4	3	2	1
18.	I can select a variety of materials to stimulate writing (authentic materials, visual aids etc.).	5	4	3	2	1
19.	I can recommend books appropriate to the needs, interests and language level of the learners.	5	4	3	2	1

Section 4: Towards the contexts

20. I can understand the requirements set in the FEP BE (Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education)/ NELCS (National English Language Curriculum Standards for nine-year compulsory education).	5	4	3	2	1
21. I can design English courses around the requirements of the FEP BE/ (NELCS).	5	4	3	2	1
22. I can adapt my teaching according to the recognition of the organisational constraints and resource limitations existent at my school.	5	4	3	2	1
23. I can relate what I teach to current events in local and international contexts.	5	4	3	2	1
24. I can relate the language I am teaching to the culture of those who speak it.	5	4	3	2	1
25. I can create a supportive atmosphere that invites learners to take part in speaking activities.	5	4	3	2	1

Section 5: Towards the needs

26. I can understand the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
27. I can take into account differing motivations for learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
28. I can take into account the cognitive needs of learners (problem solving, drive for communication, acquiring knowledge etc.).	5	4	3	2	1
29. I can take into account the affective needs of learners (sense of achievement, enjoyment etc.).	5	4	3	2	1
30. I can take into account the expectations and impact of educational stakeholders (employers, parents, funding agencies etc.).	5	4	3	2	1

Section 6: Towards implementation of a lesson

Lesson planning

31. I can set learning aims and objectives suited to my learners' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements.	5	4	3	2	1
32. I can plan specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or for a period of teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
33. I can structure lesson plans and/or plan for periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content.	5	4	3	2	1
34. I can plan activities to ensure the interdependence of listening, reading, writing and speaking.	5	4	3	2	1

35. I can plan activities to emphasise the interdependence of language and culture.	5	4	3	2	1
36. I can plan activities which link grammar and vocabulary with communication.	5	4	3	2	1
37. I can plan to teach elements of other subjects using English (cross- curricular teaching, CLIL etc.).	5	4	3	2	1
Using Lesson Plans and Content					
38. I can be flexible when working from a lesson plan, such as respond to learner interests as the lesson progresses.	5	4	3	2	1
39. I can adjust my time schedule when unforeseen situations occur.	5	4	3	2	1
40. I can present language content (new and previously encountered items of language, topics etc.) in ways which are appropriate for individuals and specific groups of learners.	5	4	3	2	1
41. I can relate what I teach to learners' knowledge and previous language learning experiences.	5	4	3	2	1
Methodology					
42. I can select different activities to help learners to use different text types (telephone conversations, transactions, speeches etc.).	5	4	3	2	1
43. I can select a range of meaningful writing activities to help learners use appropriate language for different text types (letters, stories, reports etc).	5	4	3	2	1
44. I can select writing activities to consolidate learning (grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc.).	5	4	3	2	1
45. I can design different activities in order to practise and develop different listening strategies (listening for gist, specific information etc.).	5	4	3	2	1
46. I can select a variety of post-listening tasks to provide a bridge between listening and other skills.	5	4	3	2	1
47. I can set different activities in order to practise and develop different reading strategies according to the purpose of reading (skimming, scanning etc.).	5	4	3	2	1
48. I can select grammatical exercises and activities, which support learning and encourage oral and written communication.	5	4	3	2	1
49. I can select tasks which help learners to use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts.	5	4	3	2	1
50. I can select activities (role plays, simulated situations etc.) which help learners to develop their socio-cultural competence.	5	4	3	2	1
51. I can select a variety of texts and activities to make learners aware of the interrelationship between culture	5	4	3	2	1

and language.					
Classroom Management and Language					
52. I can cater for a range of learning styles.	5	4	3	2	1
53. I can decide when it is appropriate to use the target language and when not to.	5	4	3	2	1
54. I can use various strategies when learners do not understand the target language.	5	4	3	2	1
55. I can encourage learners to use English in their activities.	5	4	3	2	1
56. I can plan how to use the target language, including metalanguage I may need in the classroom.	5	4	3	2	1
Evaluation					
57. I can select valid assessment procedures (tests, portfolios, self-assessment etc.) appropriate to learning aims and objectives.	5	4	3	2	1
58. I can use in-class activities to monitor and assess learners' participation and performance.	5	4	3	2	1
59. I can assign grades for tests and examinations using procedures which are reliable and transparent.	5	4	3	2	1
60. I can help learners to set personal targets and assess their own performance.	5	4	3	2	1
61. I can help learners to engage in peer assessment.	5	4	3	2	1

Section 7: Towards language teacher's role

62. I can promote the value and benefits of English learning to learners.	5	4	3	2	1
63. I can draw on appropriate theories of language, learning, culture etc. and relevant research findings to guide my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
64. I can accept feedback from my peers and mentors and build this into my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
65. I can critically assess my teaching on the basis of experience, learner feedback and learning outcomes, and related theoretical principles.	5	4	3	2	1
66. I can offer constructive feedback to my peers by recognising different methodological aspects of their teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
67. I can identify specific pedagogical/ didactic issues related to my learners or my teaching in the form of action research.	5	4	3	2	1

~Thank you very much for your participation and contribution!~

Appendix H. Descriptive Statistical Tables of Czech Survey Results

Table 1 Demographic Information of Czech Respondents (n=123)

Variable	CZ1 (n=62)			CZ2 (n=61)		
	Male n	Female n	Total %	Male n	Female n	Total %
University						
Charles University	4	11	24.2	7	23	49.2
Masaryk University	1	19	32.3	1	16	27.8
Palacky University	3	14	27.4	3	11	23.0
University of Pardubice	4	6	16.1	/	/	/
Total n (%)	12 (19.3)	50 (80.7)	62 (100.0)	11 (18.0)	50 (82.0)	61 (100.0)
Other subject						
Education	1	8	14.5	0	15	24.6
Arts	1	4	8.1	4	4	13.1
Humanities	2	1	4.8	1	4	8.2
Languages	1	24	40.4	2	18	32.8
Social and behaviour sciences	2	2	6.5	2	7	14.8
Physical sciences	0	1	1.6	/	/	/
Mathematics and statistics	0	3	4.8	1	2	4.9
Information & Communication Technologies	1	0	1.6	1	0	1.6
None	4	7	17.7	/	/	/
Total	12	50	100.0	11	50	100.0

Table 2 The Responses of Czech Student Teachers' Understanding of Curriculum

Questionnaire Section II EFL student teachers' understanding of curriculum	CZ1 (n=62)					CZ2 (n=61)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. During the teaching-learning process, it is most important to give students opportunities to think about problems.	22.6	54.8	21.0	1.6		24.6	59.0	16.4		
2. Selection of curriculum content and teaching activities for every school subject should be based on the learning objectives.	9.7	48.4	35.5	6.4		21.3	63.9	14.8		
3. Curriculum should let students	6.5	43.5	***46.8***	***3.2***		14.8	45.9	26.2	11.5	1.6

understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society.									
4. For curriculum design, the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which students have attained the intended learning objectives.	40.3	45.2	14.5			9.8	44.3	39.3	6.6	
5. Curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each student.	19.4	54.8	19.4	6.4		54.1	37.7	6.6	1.6	
6. The most important curriculum contents of primary and secondary school students is subject knowledge.	9.7	61.3	27.4	1.6		8.2	31.1	***21.3***	***36.1***	***3.3***
7. Curriculum should stress refinement of students' intellectual abilities.	19.4	59.6	21.0			11.5	59.0	26.2	3.3	
8. Curriculum should require teachers to teach thinking skill systematically.	24.2	38.7	14.5	22.6		18.0	57.4	18.0	6.6	
9. Students' interests and needs should be the organizing center of curriculum.	19.4	41.9	21.0	17.7		26.2	27.9	29.5	16.4	
10. Curriculum contents should focus on societal problems such as pollution, population explosion, energy shortage, racial discrimination, and crime.	22.6	62.9	14.5			14.8	57.4	26.2	1.6	

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentages of neutral and disagreement are together more than or equal to 50%.

Table 3 The Responses of Czech Student Teachers towards the Resources

Questionnaire Section III Towards various resources	CZ1 (n=62)					CZ2 (n=61)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
11. I can identify a range of coursebooks /materials appropriate for the age, interests and the language level of the learners.	27.4	58.1	11.3	3.2		24.6	49.2	16.4	9.8	
12. I can select texts and language	30.7	54.8	12.9	1.6		26.2	63.9	6.6	3.3	

activities from coursebooks appropriate for my learners.										
13. I can make use of ideas and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books.	24.2	53.2	14.5	8.1		31.1	62.3	6.6		
14. I can design learning materials and activities appropriate for my learners.	24.2	56.5	14.5	4.8		21.3	67.3	9.8	1.6	
15. I can use ICT (Information and Communications Technology) materials and activities in the classroom which are appropriate for my learners.	22.6	59.7	16.1	1.6		23.0	57.4	14.7	4.9	
16. I can select listening and reading materials appropriate for the needs of my learners from a variety of sources (literature, mass media, Internet, etc.)	12.9	56.5	25.8	4.8		19.7	59.0	21.3		
17. I can select a variety of materials to stimulate speaking activities (visual aids, texts, authentic materials etc.).	9.7	50.0	33.9	6.4		23.0	60.6	11.5	4.9	
18. I can select a variety of materials to stimulate writing (authentic materials, visual aids etc.).	3.2	45.2	***40.3***	***8.1***	***3.2***	18.0	41.0	36.1	4.9	
19. I can recommend books appropriate to the needs, interests and language level of the learners.	3.2	29.1	***48.4***	***17.7***	***1.6***	16.4	41.0	31.2	9.8	1.6

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentages of neutral and disagreement are together over 50%.

Table 4 The Responses of Czech Student Teachers towards the Contexts

Questionnaire Section IV Towards the Contexts	CZ1 (n=62)					CZ2 (n=61)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
20. I can understand the requirements set in the FEP BE (Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education).	3.2	40.3	***48.4***	***6.5***	***1.6***	6.6	47.6	31.1	13.1	1.6
21. I can design English courses around the requirements of the FEP BE.	8.1	46.8	35.4	6.5	3.2		27.9	***55.7***	***13.1***	***3.3***

22. I can adapt my teaching according to the recognition of the organisational constraints and resource limitations existent at my school.	11.3	46.8	38.7	3.2		3.3	52.4	37.7	6.6
23. I can relate what I teach to current events in local and international contexts.	17.7	58.1	21	3.2		19.7	49.2	22.9	8.2
24. I can relate the language I am teaching to the culture of those who speak it.	35.5	54.8	8.1	1.6		11.5	60.6	21.3	6.6
25. I can create a supportive atmosphere that invites learners to take part in speaking activities.	24.2	58.1	12.9	4.8		37.7	34.4	24.6	3.3

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentages of neutral and disagreement are together over 40%.

Table 5 The Responses of Czech Student Teachers towards the Needs

Questionnaire Section V Towards the Needs	CZ1 (n=62)					CZ2 (n=61)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26. I can understand the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning English.	22.6	54.8	21.0	1.6		49.2	45.9	4.9		
27. I can take into account differing motivations for learning English.	16.1	67.8	14.5	1.6		32.8	44.2	23.0		
28. I can take into account the cognitive needs of learners (problem solving, drive for communication, acquiring knowledge etc.).	8.1	45.2	37.0	9.7		19.7	44.3	29.5	6.5	
29. I can take into account the affective needs of learners (sense of achievement, enjoyment etc.).	9.7	62.9	24.2	3.2		26.2	52.5	18.0	3.3	
30. I can take into account the expectations and impact of educational stakeholders (employers, parents, funding agencies etc.).	14.5	61.3	21.0	3.2		8.2	41.0	***47.5***	***3.3***	

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentages of neutral and disagreement are together over 50%.

Table 6 The Responses of Czech Student Teachers towards Language Teachers' Role

Questionnaire Section VII Towards Language Teachers' Role	CZ1 (n=62)					CZ2 (n=61)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
62. I can promote the value and benefits of English learning to learners.	51.6	38.7	8.1	1.6		22.9	57.4	16.4	3.3	
63. I can draw on appropriate theories of language, learning, culture etc. and relevant research findings to guide my teaching.	58.1	24.2	16.1	1.6		3.3	41.0	***42.6***	***11.5***	***1.6***
64. I can accept feedback from my peers and mentors and build this into my teaching.	45.2	51.6	3.2			45.9	41.0	11.5	1.6	
65. I can critically assess my teaching on the basis of experience, learner feedback and learning outcomes, and related theoretical principles.	38.7	38.7	19.4	3.2		42.6	47.5	6.6	3.3	
66. I can offer constructive feedback to my peers by recognising different methodological aspects of their teaching.	9.7	38.7	***46.8***	***4.8***		11.5	45.9	31.1	11.5	
67. I can identify specific pedagogical/ didactic issues related to my learners or my teaching in the form of action research.	4.9	40.3	***41.9***	***11.3***	***1.6***	3.3	34.4	***45.9***	***11.5***	***4.9***

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentages of neutral and disagreement are together over 50%.

Table 7 The Responses of Czech Student Teachers towards Lesson Planning

Questionnaire Section VI Towards Lesson Planning	CZ1 (n=62)					CZ2 (n=61)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
31. I can set learning aims and objectives suited to my learners' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements.	8.1	54.8	33.9	3.2		9.8	41.0	39.4	9.8	

32. I can plan specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or for a period of teaching.	14.5	58.1	27.4			16.4	65.6	13.1	4.9	
33. I can structure lesson plans and/or plan for periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content.	6.5	59.7	30.6	3.2		16.4	50.8	26.2	6.6	
34. I can plan activities to ensure the interdependence of listening, reading, writing and speaking.	22.6	61.3	14.5	1.6		19.7	44.3	29.4	6.6	
35. I can plan activities to emphasise the interdependence of language and culture.	16.1	45.2	21.0	17.7		13.1	49.2	36.1	1.6	
36. I can plan activities which link grammar and vocabulary with communication.	16.1	54.8	25.9	3.2		21.3	67.2	9.9	1.6	
37. I can plan to teach elements of other subjects using English (cross- curricular teaching, CLIL etc.).	12.9	48.4	29.0	9.7		11.5	36.0	***42.6***	***6.6***	***3.3***

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentages of neutral and disagreement are together over 50%.

Table 8 The Responses of Czech Student Teachers towards Using Lesson Plans and Content

Questionnaire Section VI Towards Using Lesson Plans and Content	CZ1 (n=62)					CZ2 (n=61)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
38. I can be flexible when working from a lesson plan, such as respond to learner interests as the lesson progresses.	12.9	43.6	***40.3***	***3.2***		31.1	52.5	16.4		
39. I can adjust my time schedule when unforeseen situations occur.	8.1	59.7	29.0	3.2		32.8	45.9	18.0	3.3	
40. I can present language content (new and previously encountered items of language, topics etc.) in ways which are appropriate for individuals and specific groups of learners.	16.1	54.8	27.5	1.6		18.0	59.0	19.7	3.3	
41. I can relate what I teach to learners' knowledge and previous language learning experiences.	9.7	59.7	22.5	8.1		9.8	63.9	23.0	3.3	

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentage of neutral is over 40%.

Table 9 The Responses of Czech student teachers towards Teaching Methodology

Questionnaire Section VI Towards Teaching Methodology	CZ1 (n=62)					CZ2 (n=61)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
42. I can select different activities to help learners to use different text types (telephone conversations, transactions, speeches etc.).	6.5	56.4	***32.3***	4.8		21.3	50.8	23.0	4.9	
43. I can select a range of meaningful writing activities to help learners use appropriate language for different text types (letters, stories, reports etc).	9.7	56.4	27.4	6.5		18.0	42.6	***32.8***	6.6	
44. I can select writing activities to consolidate learning (grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc.).	4.8	59.7	***32.3***	3.2		13.1	59.0	19.7	8.2	
45. I can design different activities in order to practise and develop different listening strategies (listening for gist, specific information etc.).	4.8	50.0	***40.4***	4.8		19.7	45.9	27.8	6.6	
46. I can select a variety of post-listening tasks to provide a bridge between listening and other skills.	11.3	64.5	21.0	3.2		19.7	41.0	29.5	9.8	
47. I can set different activities in order to practise and develop different reading strategies according to the purpose of reading (skimming, scanning etc.).	11.3	64.5	21.0	3.2		9.8	57.4	24.6	8.2	
48. I can select grammatical exercises and activities, which support learning and encourage oral and written communication.	17.7	51.6	24.2	6.5		18.0	60.7	18.0	3.3	
49. I can select tasks which help learners to use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts.	11.3	48.4	***33.8***	6.5		21.3	60.7	14.7	3.3	
50. I can select activities (role plays, simulated situations etc.) which help learners to develop their socio-cultural competence.	14.5	54.8	24.2	6.5		19.7	45.9	27.8	6.6	
51. I can select a variety of texts	16.1	48.4	***30.7***	4.8		14.8	37.7	***37.7***	9.8	

and activities to make learners aware of the interrelationship between culture and language.	

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentage of neutral is over 30%.

Table 10 The Responses of Czech student teachers towards Classroom Management

Questionnaire Section VI Towards Classroom Management	CZ1 (n=62)					CZ2 (n=61)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
52. I can cater for a range of learning styles.	11.3	56.5	30.6	1.6		14.8	55.7	22.9	6.6	
53. I can decide when it is appropriate to use the target language and when not to.	14.5	43.6	37.1	4.8		24.6	47.5	19.7	8.2	
54. I can use various strategies when learners do not understand the target language.	3.2	38.7	***45.2***	***11.3***	***1.6***	16.4	63.9	16.4	3.3	
55. I can encourage learners to use English in their activities.	6.5	38.7	***50.0***	***3.2***	***1.6***	24.6	49.2	21.3	4.9	
56. I can plan how to use the target language, including metalanguage I may need in the classroom.	11.3	53.2	33.9	1.6		11.5	47.5	32.8	6.6	1.6

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentages of neutral and disagreement are together over 50%.

Table 11 The Responses of Czech student teachers towards Evaluation

Questionnaire Section VI Towards Evaluation	CZ1 (n=62)					CZ2 (n=61)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
57. I can select valid assessment procedures (tests, portfolios, self-assessment etc.) appropriate to learning aims and objectives.	9.7	30.6	***50.0***	***6.5***	***3.2***	6.6	37.7	***44.2***	***11.5***	
58. I can use in-class activities to monitor and assess learners' participation and performance.	29.0	46.8	21.0	3.2		14.8	45.9	32.7	6.6	
59. I can assign grades for tests and	24.2	50.0	25.8			13.2	44.3	31.1	9.8	1.6

examinations using procedures which are reliable and transparent.									
60. I can help learners to set personal targets and assess their own performance.	8.1	41.9	***45.2***	***4.8***		8.2	24.6	***45.9***	***21.3***
61. I can help learners to engage in peer assessment.	4.8	33.9	***50.0***	***9.7***	***1.6***	11.5	39.3	36.1	13.1

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentages of neutral and disagreement are together more than or equal to 50%.

Appendix I. Descriptive Statistical Tables of Chinese Survey Results

Table 12 Demographic Information of Chinese Respondents (n=401)

Variable		CN1 (n=222)			CN2 (n=179)			TOTAL n (%)
		Male n	Female n	Total %	Male n	Female n	Total %	
University								
Sichuan University	Normal	13	75	39.6	12	80	51.4	180 (44.9)
Leshan University	Normal	10	124	60.4	16	71	48.6	221 (55.1)
Total	n (%)	23 (10.4)	199 (89.6)	222 (100.0)	28 (15.6)	151 (84.4)	179 (100)	401(100)

Table 13 The Responses of Chinese Student Teachers' Understanding of Curriculum

Questionnaire Section II EFL student teachers' understanding of curriculum	CN1 (n=222)					CN2 (n=179)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. During the teaching-learning process, it is most important to give students opportunities to think about problems.	52.7	40.1	6.3	0.9		38.6	56.4	5.0		
2. Selection of curriculum content and teaching activities for every school subject should be based on the learning objectives.	37.8	49.1	11.3	1.8		39.7	41.3	15.1	3.4	0.5
3. Curriculum should let students understand societal problems and take action to establish a new society.	55.0	37.8	5.4	1.8		38.0	45.8	12.3	3.9	
4. For curriculum design, the main function of instructional assessment is to find out the extent to which students have attained the intended learning objectives.	26.1	38.7	25.7	9.0	0.5	27.4	41.9	27.9	2.8	
5. Curriculum should try to provide satisfactory learning experiences for each student.	17.1	39.2	27.9	15.8		17.3	49.2	26.8	5.6	1.1
6. The most important curriculum contents of primary and	8.6	25.7	***22.5***	***41.4***	***1.8***	7.3	33.5	***35.2***	***23.5***	***0.5***

secondary school students is subject knowledge.										
7. Curriculum should stress refinement of students' intellectual abilities.	33.8	45.5	15.3	4.9	0.5	30.7	44.7	21.8	2.2	0.6
8. Curriculum should require teachers to teach thinking skill systematically.	40.5	42.4	14.4	2.7		26.8	50.3	21.2	0.6	1.1
9. Students' interests and needs should be the organizing center of curriculum.	25.7	40.1	23.9	10.3		25.7	53.1	17.3	3.4	0.5
10. Curriculum contents should focus on societal problems such as pollution, population explosion, energy shortage, racial discrimination, and crime.	21.2	42.8	34.2	1.8		16.2	48.0	30.7	4.5	0.6

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentages of neutral and disagreement are together over 50%.

Table 14 The Responses of Chinese Student Teachers towards the Resources

Questionnaire Section III Towards various resources	CN1 (n=222)					CN2 (n=179)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
11. I can identify a range of coursebooks/materials appropriate for the age, interests and the language level of the learners.	24.3	41.9	***33.3***	0.5		22.9	55.9	20.6	0.6	
12. I can select texts and language activities from coursebooks appropriate for my learners.	17.1	55.0	26.1	1.8		19.0	57.5	22.9	0.6	
13. I can make use of ideas and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books.	15.8	53.6	26.6	4.0		22.3	58.1	17.9	1.7	
14. I can design learning materials and activities appropriate for my learners.	15.8	42.8	***39.1***	2.3		22.9	48.6	21.2	7.3	
15. I can use ICT (Information and Communications Technology) materials and activities in the classroom which are appropriate for my learners.	23.4	36.9	***37.4***	2.3		13.4	60.3	25.7		0.6
16. I can select listening and reading materials appropriate for	27.0	44.2	28.8			25.1	60.3	14.0	0.6	

the needs of my learners from a variety of sources, such as literature, mass media and the Internet.										
17. I can select a variety of materials to stimulate speaking activities (visual aids, texts, authentic materials etc.).	22.5	49.1	28.4			15.6	59.3	22.3	2.8	
18. I can select a variety of materials to stimulate writing (authentic materials, visual aids etc.).	22.1	47.7	27.9	2.3		29.1	46.4	18.4	6.1	
19. I can recommend books appropriate to the needs, interests and language level of the learners.	30.2	46.4	21.6	1.3	0.5	20.1	63.7	12.3	3.3	0.6

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentage of neutral is over 30%.

Table 15 The Responses of Chinese Student Teachers towards the Contexts

Questionnaire Section IV Towards the Contexts	CN1 (n=222)					CN2 (n=179)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
20. I can understand the requirements set in the NELCS (National English Language Curriculum Standards for nine-year compulsory education).	19.4	48.2	27.9	3.6	0.9	20.7	55.3	22.3	1.7	
21. I can design English courses around the requirements of the NELCS.	15.8	45.5	***36.4***	1.8	0.5	19.6	46.3	***33.5***	0.6	
22. I can adapt my teaching according to the recognition of the organisational constraints and resource limitations existent at my school.	20.3	50.0	27.9	1.8		20.1	53.6	25.7	0.6	
23. I can relate what I teach to current events in local and international contexts.	18.0	35.2	***45.0***	1.8		12.3	46.9	***34.6***	5.6	0.6
24. I can relate the language I am teaching to the culture of those who speak it.	24.3	50.5	23.4	1.8		25.1	49.2	25.1	0.6	
25. I can create a supportive atmosphere that invites learners to take part in speaking activities.	32.0	44.6	22.9	0.5		24.0	57.5	17.9		0.6

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentage of neutral is over 30%.

Table16 The Responses of Chinese Student Teachers towards the Needs

Questionnaire Section V Towards the Needs	CN1 (n=222)					CN2 (n=179)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26. I can understand the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning English.	30.2	51.8	15.3	2.7		27.4	59.2	12.8	0.6	
27. I can take into account differing motivations for learning English.	23.4	56.8	18.4	1.4		23.5	48.6	27.3	0.6	
28. I can take into account the cognitive needs of learners (problem solving, drive for communication, acquiring knowledge etc.).	26.1	47.8	25.2	0.9		31.3	46.9	21.8		
29. I can take into account the affective needs of learners (sense of achievement, enjoyment etc.).	27.5	54.9	16.7	0.9		20.1	63.7	12.8	3.4	
30. I can take into account the expectations and impact of educational stakeholders (employers, parents, funding agencies etc.).	24.8	45.9	27.9	0.9	0.5	25.7	49.7	18.5	6.1	

Table 17 The Responses of Chinese Student Teachers towards Language Teachers' Role

Questionnaire Section VII Towards Language Teachers' Role	CN1 (n=222)					CN2 (n=179)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
62. I can promote the value and benefits of English learning to learners.	28.4	41.9	28.8	0.9		35.2	46.4	14.5	3.9	
63. I can draw on appropriate theories of language, learning, culture etc. and relevant research findings to guide my teaching.	19.8	41.4	***36.5***	2.3		11.2	49.1	***36.3***	3.4	
64. I can accept feedback from my peers and mentors and build	19.4	53.1	26.6	0.9		25.7	49.7	22.9	1.1	0.6

this into my teaching.										
65. I can critically assess my teaching on the basis of experience, learner feedback and learning outcomes, and related theoretical principles.	27.5	44.6	27.0	0.9		27.9	56.4	15.1	0.6	
66. I can offer constructive feedback to my peers by recognising different methodological aspects of their teaching.	16.2	48.7	***33.3***	1.8		21.8	55.3	18.4	4.5	
67. I can identify specific pedagogical/ didactic issues related to my learners or my teaching in the form of action research.	24.8	45.9	27.9	1.4		28.5	55.9	11.7	2.8	1.1

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentage of neutral is over 30%.

Table 18 The Responses of Chinese Student Teachers towards Lesson Planning

	CN1 (n=222)					CN2 (n=179)				
Questionnaire Section VI Towards Lesson Planning	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
31. I can set learning aims and objectives suited to my learners' needs and interests according to curriculum requirements.	25.2	48.2	25.2	1.4		27.4	50.8	21.2	0.6	
32. I can plan specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or for a period of teaching.	22.5	48.2	29.3			17.9	59.2	21.8	1.1	
33. I can structure lesson plans and/or plan for periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content.	17.6	43.2	***37.4***	1.8		33.5	34.1	28.5	3.9	
34. I can plan activities to ensure the interdependence of listening, reading, writing and speaking.	20.7	46.0	***31.5***	1.8		29.6	54.2	12.8	3.4	
35. I can plan activities to emphasise the interdependence of language and culture.	26.1	40.1	***32.8***	0.5	0.5	29.1	55.8	14.5	0.6	
36. I can plan activities which link grammar and vocabulary with communication.	19.4	37.8	***35.6***	7.2		21.7	53.6	23.5	0.6	0.6
37. I can plan to teach elements of other subjects using English	15.8	37.8	***40.5***	5.9		25.1	38.0	26.3	10.0	0.6

(cross- curricular teaching, CLIL etc.).	

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentage of neutral is over 30%.

Table 19 The Responses of Chinese Student Teachers towards Using Lesson Plans and Content

Questionnaire Section VI Towards Using Lesson Plans and Content	CN1 (n=222)					CN2 (n=179)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
38. I can be flexible when working from a lesson plan, such as respond to learner interests as the lesson progresses.	20.7	50.0	29.3			27.9	54.2	17.3	0.6	
39. I can adjust my time schedule when unforeseen situations occur.	16.7	45.9	***36.0***	1.4		23.5	58.7	15.6	2.2	
40. I can present language content (new and previously encountered items of language, topics etc.) in ways which are appropriate for individuals and specific groups of learners.	19.4	46.4	***32.8***	1.4		28.5	55.9	15.0		0.6
41. I can relate what I teach to learners' knowledge and previous language learning experiences.	17.6	49.1	***32.4***	0.9		30.2	38.0	28.5	3.3	

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentage of neutral is over 30%.

Table 20 The Responses of Chinese student teachers towards Teaching Methodology

Questionnaire Section VI Towards Teaching Methodology	CN1 (n=222)					CN2 (n=179)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
42. I can select different activities to help learners to use different text types (telephone conversations, transactions, speeches etc.).	25.2	38.8	***34.2***	1.8		30.7	41.4	25.7	2.2	
43. I can select a range of meaningful writing activities to help learners use appropriate language for different text types	19.8	49.1	27.9	3.2		26.8	53.1	18.4	1.7	

(letters, stories, reports etc).										
44. I can select writing activities to consolidate learning (grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc.).	25.2	46.0	27.0	1.8		31.8	41.4	22.9	3.9	
45. I can design different activities in order to practise and develop different listening strategies (listening for gist, specific information etc.).	21.6	49.6	27.9	0.9		30.2	43.0	25.7	1.1	
46. I can select a variety of post-listening tasks to provide a bridge between listening and other skills.	18.9	50.0	29.3	1.8		22.9	51.4	21.2	3.4	1.1
47. I can set different activities in order to practise and develop different reading strategies according to the purpose of reading (skimming, scanning etc.).	20.7	46.4	***30.6***	2.3		17.9	63.1	17.3	0.6	1.1
48. I can select grammatical exercises and activities, which support learning and encourage oral and written communication.	19.4	45.9	***30.6***	4.1		21.3	44.1	***33.5***	1.1	
49. I can select tasks which help learners to use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts.	19.8	50.0	28.8	1.4		35.8	38.5	24.0	1.7	
50. I can select activities (role plays, simulated situations etc.) which help learners to develop their socio-cultural competence.	22.1	45.0	***30.2***	2.7		33.5	49.7	15.6	0.6	0.6
51. I can select a variety of texts and activities to make learners aware of the interrelationship between culture and language.	21.6	41.4	***33.8***	3.2		26.8	43.0	25.7	3.9	0.6

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentage of neutral is over 30%.

Table 21 The Responses of Chinese student teachers towards Classroom Management

Questionnaire Section VI Towards Classroom Management	CN1 (n=222)					CN2 (n=179)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
52. I can cater for a range of learning styles.	21.2	45.9	29.3	3.6		24.0	45.8	25.7	3.4	1.1
53. I can decide when it is	21.6	46.0	28.8	3.6		31.3	50.8	12.8	4.5	0.6

appropriate to use the target language and when not to.										
54. I can use various strategies when learners do not understand the target language.	25.2	43.7	29.7	1.4		35.8	40.2	22.3	0.6	1.1
55. I can encourage learners to use English in their activities.	23.4	50.0	25.7	0.9		30.7	47.5	20.1	1.7	
56. I can plan how to use the target language, including metalanguage I may need in the classroom.	23.9	41.9	31.5	2.7		19.0	53.1	26.2	1.1	0.6

Table 22 The Responses of Chinese student teachers towards Evaluation

Questionnaire Section VI Towards Evaluation	CN1 (n=222)					CN2 (n=179)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
57. I can select valid assessment procedures (tests, portfolios, self-assessment etc.) appropriate to learning aims and objectives.	17.6	51.8	28.8	1.8		31.3	45.8	21.2	1.1	0.6
58. I can use in-class activities to monitor and assess learners' participation and performance.	18.5	53.1	27.0	1.4		21.2	52.5	21.2	4.5	0.6
59. I can assign grades for tests and examinations using procedures which are reliable and transparent.	20.3	49.1	28.3	2.3		27.4	52.5	19.0	1.1	
60. I can help learners to set personal targets and assess their own performance.	18.0	50.9	***30.2***	0.9		19.0	53.0	24.6	1.7	1.7
61. I can help learners to engage in peer assessment.	17.1	54.1	25.6	2.7	0.5	33.0	40.2	17.9	7.8	1.1

Note: Bold italics indicate that the percentage of neutral is over 30%.

Appendix J. Statistical Results of Research Hypothesis Testing

Table 23 Difference in Student Teachers' Understanding of Curriculum between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups (Details)

Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	3.98	.713	4.45	.655	-4.592	.000
2	3.61	.754	4.23	.716	-5.928	.000
3	3.53	.671	4.46	.683	-9.486	.000
4	4.26	.700	3.81	.942	4.101	.000
5	3.87	.799	3.58	.952	2.455	.016
6	3.79	.631	2.98	1.044	7.637	.000
7	3.98	.640	4.07	.853	-.887	.377
8	3.65	1.088	4.21	.786	-3.801	.000
9	3.63	.996	3.81	.937	-1.332	.184
10	4.08	.609	3.83	.775	2.654	.009

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 24 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Resources between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups (Details)

Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
11	4.10	.718	3.90	.766	1.803	.072
12	4.15	.698	3.87	.701	2.698	.007
13	3.94	.847	3.81	.743	1.132	.259
14	4.00	.768	3.72	.751	2.543	.013
15	4.03	.677	3.82	.817	2.128	.035
16	3.77	.734	3.98	.749	-1.940	.053
17	3.63	.752	3.94	.713	-3.015	.003
18	3.37	.814	3.90	.763	-4.724	.000
19	3.15	.807	4.05	.783	-7.947	.000

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 25 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Contexts between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups (Details)

Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
20	3.37	.730	3.82	.817	-3.873	.000
21	3.50	.864	3.74	.756	-2.169	.031
22	3.66	.723	3.89	.737	-2.143	.033
23	3.90	.718	3.69	.782	1.992	.049
24	4.24	.670	3.97	.742	2.574	.011
25	4.02	.757	4.08	.751	-.601	.548

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 26 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Needs between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups (Details)

Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
26	3.98	.713	4.09	.746	-1.043	.298
27	3.98	.614	4.02	.689	-.400	.690
28	3.52	.784	3.99	.743	-4.265	.000
29	3.79	.656	4.09	.687	-3.068	.002
30	3.87	.689	3.94	.776	-.606	.545

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 27 Difference in Student Teachers' Self-reflection about Language Teacher's Role between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups (Details)

Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
62	4.40	.712	3.98	.781	3.865	.000
63	4.39	.817	3.79	.782	5.280	.000
64	4.42	.560	3.91	.700	5.279	.000
65	4.13	.839	3.99	.764	1.271	.205
66	3.53	.740	3.79	.726	-2.488	.013
67	3.35	.812	3.94	.762	-5.284	.000

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 28 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence to Implement a Lesson between Czech and Chinese First-Year Groups (Details)

Variable	Item	CZ1 (n=62)		CN1 (n=222)		T-test for Equality of Means	
		M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Lesson planning	31	3.68	.672	3.97	.749	-2.808	.005
	32	3.87	.640	3.93	.718	-.610	.543
	33	3.69	.642	3.77	.755	-.687	.493
	34	4.05	.664	3.86	.759	1.955	.053
	35	3.60	.966	3.91	.802	-2.337	.022
	36	3.84	.729	3.69	.865	1.328	.187
	37	3.65	.832	3.64	.817	.085	.932
Using Lesson Plans and Content	38	3.66	.745	3.91	.703	-2.472	.014
	39	3.73	.657	3.78	.731	-.520	.603
	40	3.85	.698	3.84	.743	.161	.872
	41	3.71	.755	3.83	.715	-1.190	.235
Methodology	42	3.65	.680	3.87	.809	-2.035	.043
	43	3.69	.737	3.86	.765	-1.488	.138
	44	3.66	.626	3.95	.771	-2.671	.008
	45	3.55	.670	3.92	.726	-3.611	.000
	46	3.84	.658	3.86	.733	-.210	.834
	47	3.84	.658	3.86	.765	-.175	.862
	48	3.81	.807	3.81	.792	.001	.999
	49	3.65	.770	3.88	.727	-2.246	.025
	50	3.77	.777	3.86	.784	-.806	.421
	51	3.76	.783	3.82	.806	-.498	.619
Classroom Management	52	3.77	.663	3.85	.792	-.660	.510
	53	3.68	.785	3.86	.794	-1.568	.118
	54	3.31	.781	3.93	.775	-5.572	.000
	55	3.45	.739	3.96	.726	-4.848	.000
	56	3.74	.676	3.87	.805	-1.139	.256
Evaluation	57	3.37	.873	3.85	.719	-3.974	.000
	58	4.02	.799	3.89	.706	1.232	.219
	59	3.98	.713	3.87	.750	1.031	.303
	60	3.53	.718	3.86	.708	-3.218	.001
	61	3.31	.781	3.85	.745	-4.995	.000

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 29 Difference in Student Teachers' Understanding of Curriculum between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups (Details)

Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	4.08	.640	4.34	.570	-2.901	.004
2	4.07	.602	4.16	.842	-.969	.334
3	3.61	.936	4.18	.794	-4.279	.000
4	3.57	.763	3.94	.815	-3.066	.002
5	4.44	.696	3.76	.844	5.694	.000
6	3.05	1.071	3.23	.912	-1.310	.191
7	3.79	.686	4.03	.817	-2.068	.040
8	3.87	.785	4.01	.779	-1.230	.220
9	3.64	1.049	4.00	.786	-2.459	.016
10	3.85	.679	3.75	.799	.984	.327

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 30 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Resources between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups (Details)

Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
11	3.89	.896	4.01	.679	-1.004	.318
12	4.13	.670	3.95	.664	1.838	.067
13	4.25	.567	4.01	.687	2.403	.017
14	4.08	.614	3.87	.848	2.085	.039
15	3.98	.764	3.86	.651	1.220	.224
16	3.98	.645	4.10	.637	-1.235	.218
17	4.02	.741	3.88	.692	1.333	.184
18	3.72	.819	3.98	.851	-2.095	.037
19	3.61	.936	3.99	.715	-2.956	.004

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 31 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Contexts between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups (Details)

Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
20	3.44	.866	3.95	.705	-4.128	.000
21	3.08	.737	3.85	.730	-7.070	.000
22	3.52	.673	3.93	.692	-4.008	.000
23	3.80	.853	3.65	.789	1.300	.195
24	3.77	.739	3.99	.727	-2.018	.045
25	4.07	.873	4.04	.685	.170	.866

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 32 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence for the Needs between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups (Details)

Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
26	4.44	.592	4.13	.639	3.315	.001
27	4.10	.746	3.95	.729	1.367	.173
28	3.77	.844	4.09	.724	-2.893	.004
29	4.02	.764	4.01	.683	.104	.918
30	3.54	.697	3.95	.830	-3.453	.001

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 33 Difference in Student Teachers' Self-reflection about Language Teacher's Role between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups (Details)

Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
62	4.00	.730	4.13	.800	-1.158	.250
63	3.33	.790	3.68	.714	-3.249	.001
64	4.31	.743	3.99	.764	2.868	.005
65	4.30	.738	4.12	.664	1.754	.081
66	3.57	.846	3.94	.762	-3.027	.003
67	3.20	.872	4.08	.782	-7.378	.000

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 34 Difference in Student Teachers' Competence to Implement a Lesson between Czech and Chinese Last-Year Groups (Details)

Variable	Item	CZ2 (n=61)		CN2 (n=179)		T-test for Equality of Means	
		M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Lesson planning	31	3.51	.809	4.05	.713	-4.654	.000
	32	3.93	.704	3.94	.663	-.041	.967
	33	3.77	.804	3.97	.883	-1.574	.117
	34	3.77	.844	4.10	.743	-2.716	.008
	35	3.74	.705	4.13	.665	-3.958	.000
	36	4.08	.614	3.96	.725	1.223	.223
	37	3.46	.905	3.77	.959	-2.225	.027
Using Lesson Plans and Content	38	4.15	.679	4.09	.684	.519	.604
	39	4.08	.802	4.03	.694	.452	.652
	40	3.92	.714	4.12	.689	-1.933	.054
	41	3.80	.654	3.95	.850	-1.394	.166
Methodology	42	3.89	.798	4.01	.811	-1.005	.316
	43	3.72	.839	4.05	.721	-2.736	.007
	44	3.77	.783	4.01	.841	-1.963	.051
	45	3.79	.839	4.02	.779	-2.000	.047
	46	3.70	.901	3.92	.820	-1.618	.109
	47	3.69	.765	3.96	.690	-2.461	.016
	48	3.93	.704	3.85	.758	.748	.456
	49	4.00	.707	4.08	.813	-.768	.444
	50	3.79	.839	4.15	.738	-3.210	.002
	51	3.57	.865	3.92	.854	-2.696	.008
Classroom Management	52	3.79	.777	3.88	.850	-.777	.438
	53	3.89	.877	4.08	.817	-1.563	.119
	54	3.93	.680	4.09	.837	-1.446	.151
	55	3.93	.814	4.07	.757	-1.208	.228
	56	3.61	.842	3.89	.733	-2.329	.022
Evaluation	57	3.39	.781	4.06	.787	-5.736	.000
	58	3.69	.807	3.89	.804	-1.721	.086
	59	3.57	.903	4.06	.712	-3.832	.000
	60	3.20	.872	3.86	.799	-5.474	.000
	61	3.49	.868	3.96	.962	-3.369	.001

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 5.