広島市立大学博士審査学位論文

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE CLASSROOM ROLE PERCEPTIONS

OF UNIVERSITY ENGLISH TEACHERS IN JAPAN

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate School of International Studies,

Hiroshima City University

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

By

Hiroshi Moritani

September, 2021

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE CLASSROOM ROLE PERCEPTIONS

OF UNIVERSITY ENGLISH TEACHERS IN JAPAN

By

Hiroshi Moritani

Dissertation Committee Members:

    Dr. Chiaki Iwai (Hiroshima City University), Chair

    Dr. Nobuyuki Aoki (Hiroshima City University), Member

    Dr. Luke Carson (Hiroshima City University), Member

    Dr. Akira Tajino (Nagoya University of Foreign Studies), External member

Abstract

Teachers enact a number of roles in the classrooms. Accordingly, the classroom role perceptions of English language teachers have been explored and described in the literature. However, to the best of the author's knowledge, no studies have explored the classroom role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan. Furthermore, previous studies on classroom role perceptions conducted in non-Japanese contexts did not investigate any factors that influence classroom role perceptions or other teacher factors to which classroom role perceptions are related.

To fill these gaps, the present study explored and compared the classroom role perceptions of two groups of English teachers at Japanese universities: Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and non-Japanese teachers of English (NJTEs). In addition, it investigated the factors influential in the construction of their classroom role perceptions and the relationship between these perceptions and the level of teacher self-efficacy. The latter was investigated because it has been identified as being related to teachers' instructional orientations, which can be represented by classroom role perceptions.

The present study adopted an exploratory sequential mixed-method research design consisting of two phases: qualitative and quantitative. In the qualitative phase, individual interviews with 34 university English teachers (12 JTEs and 22 NJTEs) were conducted in two stages: a preliminary study and a main qualitative study. The interview data were analyzed thematically, resulting in the identification of 22 role perceptions and 20 influential factors in the construction of classroom role perceptions. In the quantitative study, an online survey was administered to 328 university English teachers (170 JTEs and 158 NJTEs), comprising a questionnaire based on the findings from the qualitative phase. The responses were subjected to statistical analysis, where the results indicated that participant classroom role perceptions were more oriented towards learner centeredness

rather than teacher centeredness and that NJTEs exhibited greater learner centeredness. Further, it was revealed that the participants recognized the importance of teacher professional development activities, suggesting that they can have a strong influence on classroom role perceptions. Lastly, the Pearson correlation coefficients demonstrated that the "motivator" role perception was moderately correlated with the level of teacher self-efficacy. The recognition of the purposes of university English education was also slightly different between the two teacher groups. These findings not only portray the current university English teachers in Japan, but also provide educational implications in terms of teacher professional development.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Appendices

List of Abbreviations

General terms (in alphabetical order)

EFL:	English as a foreign language
EIL	English as an international language
ELF:	English as lingua franca
ELT:	English language teaching
ESL:	English as a second language
JACET	The Japan Association of College English Teachers
JALT	The Japan Association for Language Teaching
JTE:	Japanese teacher of English
L2	Second language
LTC:	Language teacher cognition
MEXT	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology
M-GTA:	Modified grounded theory approach
NEST:	Native English-speaking teacher
NJTE:	Non-Japanese teacher of English
NNEST:	Non-native English-speaking teacher
SLA:	Second language acquisition
TESOL	Teaching English to speakers of other languages
WE:	World Englishes

Abbreviations used for the survey results (in order of appearance)

LM:	Language model
EE:	English expert
TK:	Transmitter of knowledge
CR:	Cultural representative
MO:	Motivator
FA:	Facilitator
LA:	Learning advisor
DE:	Designer
PE:	Past language learning experiences
TE:	Teacher education and training
IT:	Involvement with teacher organizations
CO:	Discussion with coworkers
EXP:	Expectations
STU:	Student characteristics
SELF:	Self-understanding
GT:	Beliefs about grammar teaching
Effi:	Teacher self-efficacy for engagement

Chapter 1: Introduction

This is a study of classroom role perceptions (hereafter, "role perceptions"). They are briefly defined here as teachers' perceptions of their classroom roles as English language teachers[1], such as transmitters of knowledge and organizers (see Section 1.2.1 for a more detailed definition). Role perceptions can be regarded as one of the constructs of language teacher cognition (LTC), which is a cognitive basis for teacher instructions (see Section 1.2.1). This can be because role perceptions "are central to the beliefs, assumptions, values, and practices that guide teacher actions both inside and outside the classroom" (Farrell, 2011, p. 54). Thus, an exploration of teachers' role perceptions can provide insights into their instructional orientations.

Using role perceptions as a central construct, the present study explored the LTCs of university English teachers in Japan, an under-researched group of teachers (Nagatomo, 2012). According to Nagatomo (2012), a large part of their instructional practices and the LTCs underpinning them have not been fully explored despite their significant position for students' learning experiences. Additional insights into these teachers seem to be beneficial to improve English education in this context. The present study examined both Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and non-Japanese teachers of English (NJTEs)[2] teaching compulsory English courses for first- and second-year students in the general education program at Japanese universities (hereafter, "university English teachers").[3] An exploration into their role perceptions could provide, at the very least, a baseline picture of English teachers in this context.

---

[1] Hereafter, "English teachers" is used to refer to English language teachers in this dissertation.

[2] JTEs and NJTEs are used to refer only to those teaching at universities in this dissertation.

[3] This indicates that a wide range of university English teachers were included in this study because these teachers vary in terms of home institutions, student majors, employment status, teaching experiences, etc. These factors could be influential to their LTCs. Thus, it may be arguable whether or not inclusion of all of these different types of teachers is appropriate. However, the author decided to include these teachers regardless of their differences, as the present study aimed to provide a general picture of current university English teachers.

The study had the following aims: (1) describe the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan and compare two groups of university English teachers: JTEs and NJTEs, (2) identify the factors that influence the construction of role perceptions, and (3) examine any relationship between participants' role perceptions and their level of teacher self-efficacy. A brief definition of self-efficacy is a teacher's judgment of their capabilities (see Section 1.2.1 for more details).

This introductory chapter begins with a contextual background of the present study, followed by a presentation of the theoretical background in Section 1.2. The research problems and purposes are explained in Section 1.3, followed by an explanation of the research methods in Section 1.4. This opening chapter closes with the organization of the dissertation.

1.1 Contextual Background of the Study

In this section, the context of university English language education[4] is briefly described. It is widely believed that Japanese students achieve poor levels of performance when learning English. According to the English Proficiency Index released by Education First (a private English education service) in 2014, Japan ranked 26th among 60 countries and regions where English was not used as a first language and the proficiency level was assessed as moderate. In 2019, Japan ranked 53rd out of 100 with a proficiency assessment of low (EF, 2019).[5]

---

[4] In this dissertation, "English education" is used instead of English language education, and "university English education" refers to compulsory English education programs offered in the general education program.
[5] As discussed by Terasawa (2015), the results of this type of survey may not represent actual population because these survey reports are based on convenience sampling, in which samples are taken from an accessible group of people. However, these results suggest that the English abilities of Japanese individuals are generally far from excellent.

With respect to university English education, the low motivation of Japanese learners toward English has often been cited as a reason for unsuccessful English learning (Ushioda, 2013). As it has repeatedly been portrayed, Japanese students' motivation to learn English tends to diminish after matriculation to university because many Japanese secondary school students only study English to prepare for university entrance examinations (Berwick & Ross, 1989). Once they have entered university and have been released from the pressure of exams, many do not have a reason to continue their English learning (Warrington, 2006). Except for a few students who major in English or its related fields,[6] university English education in Japan tends to reflect the attitudes of teaching English with no apparent reason.

Under such a challenging situation, teachers with various cultural and academic backgrounds teach compulsory English courses, including both JTEs and NJTEs. Traditionally, Japanese academics in the fields of linguistics or literature taught these courses (Nagasawa, 2004; Nagatomo, 2012; Oda, 2018). More recently, communicative English courses taught by NJTEs have become increasingly more common (Hale & Wadden, 2019; JACET,[7] 2018).[8] Unlike primary and secondary school teachers, university English teachers are not required to have a teaching certificate[9] or to use textbooks approved by the government. While they may be required to use textbooks

---

[6] According to Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology (MEXT) (2019), of approximately 2.6 million students enrolled at universities in 2019, 14% (364,000 students) were humanities majors. As a humanities faculty can include literature, history, and philosophy, the number of students majoring in English or its related fields were considerably less than 364,000.

[7] The Japan Association of College English Teachers.

[8] To name a few reasons for the shift in popularity, the Japanese government recommended increasing the number of foreign faculties to promote internationalization and enhancing the international competitiveness of Japanese universities (MEXT, 2013). Private universities, which have been dealing with a decrease in the 18-year-old population, have attempted to enhance their marketability by boosting their international image with NJTEs (Hale & Wadden, 2019; Tsuneyoshi, 2013).

[9] Individual universities have their own criteria for hiring English teachers. Candidates are expected to be specialists in their academic areas (JACET, 2011) and are assumed to possess high English proficiency. In general, candidates are supposed to have a master's degree, a minimum of three research publications, and two to three years of teaching experience. Recently, they have also been required to teach a demonstration lesson at interviews to showcase their teaching skills (Larsen-Hall & Stewart, 2019).

designated by their universities, there is a large degree of freedom regarding what and how they teach (Prichard & Moore, 2016). Thus, their lessons will probably embody their own knowledge, beliefs about teaching, and their previous experiences as learners and/or teachers, which then become significant influences on their students' learning experiences. However, little attention has been given to LTCs of university English teachers (Nagatomo, 2012).

1.2 Theoretical Background of the Study

In this section, the theoretical background of the present study is explained. Three key terms are defined in Section 1.2.1: *language teacher cognitio*n *(LTC)*, *role perceptions*, and *teacher self-efficacy*. These terms are defined first because they are used when explaining the theoretical background in Section 1.2.2.

1.2.1 Key terms used in this dissertation

Language teacher cognition (LTC)

Language teacher cognition (LTC)[10] is the cognitive basis that individual teachers possess and use for their classroom practice (Borg, 2003, 2006). In this dissertation, LTC is used as an umbrella term encompassing broad mental constructs, such as knowledge, beliefs, thoughts, attitudes, values, and identities, which language teachers draw on in their work. It includes role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy, as described in Figure 1.1.

---

[10] A number of researchers have used different terms to refer to LTC (for example, Borg, 2006; Feryok, 2008; Woods, 1996; Woods & Çakir, 2011). These terms include theoretical orientations (Johnson, 1992), personal practical knowledge (Golombek, 1998), and pedagogical principles (Breen et al., 2001). In this dissertation, whatever terms were used in the original works are used when referring to previous studies.

```
                            LTC
knowledge   beliefs   thoughts          role perceptions
        attitudes  emotions      ·  ·  ·
assumptions    values    identities       teacher self-efficacy
```
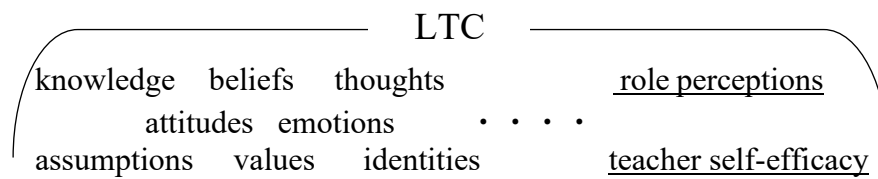
Figure 1.1 The conceptual relationship among LTC, role perceptions, and teacher self-efficacy. Underlining indicates the constructs that are investigated in the present study.

LTC has been researched to understand teachers' classroom instructions. Teachers make numerous decisions for their classes, including lesson flow, activities and materials used, time spent on each activity, and methods of providing instructions. To make these decisions, teachers use their LTCs that they formed through their experiences as students, teachers, teacher-trainees, or parents. Moreover, these decisions are also influenced by the individual teachers' perceptions of the teaching context, such as the age, proficiency levels, and learning purposes of their students. Instructional decisions are made based on these complex mental processes. Thus, to understand teachers' instructional practices, it is essential to examine their LTCs (Freeman & Richards, 1996).

Role perceptions

The key construct used in this dissertation is *role perceptions*.[11] They are treated as one of the LTC constructs (see Figure 1.1) and are defined as "the configuration of interpretations that language teachers attach to themselves, as related to the different roles they enact" (Farrell, 2011, p. 55). Farrell (2011) argues that this configuration is multifaceted and unique to individual teachers. Role perceptions can be pre-determined,

---

[11] Previous researchers have used different terms to refer to this construct, such as beliefs regarding teacher roles (Wan et al., 2011) and professional role identity (Farrell, 2011). However, neither of these terms are used in this dissertation because the use of these terms may evoke preconceived notions about the concept. Instead, the term *role perceptions* is used.

individualized, and created through teachers' experiences, and are subjectively interpreted by individual teachers (Farrell, 2011).

Role perceptions are related to other LTC constructs such as beliefs and values (Farrell, 2011). For example, teachers' beliefs regarding the effectiveness of foreign language teaching methods and cultural assumptions regarding teaching can influence how teachers perceive themselves playing their teaching roles (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). To accomplish the act of teaching, some teachers think that they need to be lecturers to make students understand, whereas others think that they need to be entertainers to make learning fun. Thus, identifying role perceptions can provide insights into teachers' LTC and instructional orientations.

Teacher self-efficacy

Another LTC construct used in this dissertation is *teacher self-efficacy*. It is based on the concept of *self-efficacy*, which is defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Put simply, it is the extent to which individuals think that they can accomplish something successfully. Bandura (1997) claims that self-efficacy influences human behavior. People with high self-efficacy are likely to engage in and commit to a task and recover quickly if they fail. Conversely, people with low self-efficacy may prefer not to initiate any actions or solve problems.

Accordingly, teacher self-efficacy can be defined as a "teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 223). In other words, it is the extent to which a teacher thinks that they can teach successfully.

Further, teachers with high self-efficacy are likely to be more committed to their teaching than those with low self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

1.2.2 Theoretical background

Until the 1980s, applied linguists searched for the best methods for teaching a second language (L2) effectively. Theorizers and methodologists successively proposed new methods, such as audiolingual methods and communicative language teaching. These methods were adopted and practiced by many teachers teaching L2, who were regarded as specialists who had mastered prescribed instructional procedures and techniques. However, due to both ideological and pedagogical dissatisfaction with these methods, a shift away from these prescribed methods was encouraged in the early 1990s.[12]

Current English language teaching (ELT) exists in the postmethod era (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2006; Prabhu, 1990; Richards, 1990). The postmethod era is where local language teachers' autonomous decision making is emphasized rather than the prescribed language teaching methods developed by theorizers and methodologists (Akbari, 2008; Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2006;). Moreover, teachers are regarded as explorers who develop professionally throughout their careers (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Kumaravadivelu, 1994). They are encouraged to develop their own teaching theories by making use of their knowledge regarding language and pedagogy and their previous experiences as learners, teachers, and individuals. Further, they are expected to

---

[12] There were both ideological and pedagogical dissatisfactions. From an ideological perspective, a number of researchers raised concerns. That is to say, the spread of prescribed methods represented a top-down colonial ideological relationship between theorists/methodologists (in Western countries) and practitioners and teachers in actual classrooms (mostly in Asia) (e.g., Holliday, 2005; Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2006). From a pedagogical perspective, the effectiveness of prescribed foreign language teaching methods was questioned (Prabhu, 1990). Further, the effectiveness of the methods depends on teaching contexts. A method that works in one context might not work in another context simply because teaching contexts are different, including learners, leaning purposes, learning environment, and learner-teacher relations. These prescribed methods neglected the complex and dynamic nature of actual classroom teaching and of traditions in varied teaching contexts around the world.

provide principled and context-specific instruction that is beneficial to student learning in their specific teaching contexts, including learners, their learning purposes, and the learning environment (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2006). Due to this paradigm shift in L2 education, LTC has gained increasing attention over the last two decades.

Numerous LTC studies have demonstrated the complex relationships between LTC and actual classroom practices (Johnson, 1992; Woods, 1996). These studies examined English teacher cognition from such practical perspectives as grammar instruction, error correction, and communicative language teaching (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Borg, 1998; Nishino, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Sanchez, 2014). However, the exploration of LTC has been more complicated in recent years due to the global contextual changes in ELT and specific contextual constraints on individual teachers (Barnard & Burns, 2012).[13] To understand teachers under such situations, recent LTC research has expanded its scope to other constructs such as identity and emotion (Borg, 2012). Role perceptions are one of these relatively new LTC constructs.

Previous studies explored English teachers' role perceptions in different contexts (Atai et al., 2018; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Farrell, 2011; Wan et al., 2011). These studies have demonstrated at least two points. First, role perceptions of English teachers are multifaceted (Farrell, 2011). English teachers perceive multiple roles of different functions. Some of these roles are pre-determined, whereas others are created individually. English teachers must play some roles because they are English teachers, but individual teachers develop certain roles as they gain more experience. Previous studies indicated that their participants' role perceptions differed from each other, indicating that role

---

[13] According to Barnard and Burns (2012), global contextual changes included the changing awareness regarding the status of English, such as English as an international language (EIL), English as a lingua franca (ELF) and world Englishes (WE), and the changing goals of learning English from the understanding the structure of the language to intercultural communicative competence.

perceptions are influenced by the contexts in which individual teachers are located (Atai et al., 2018; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Farrell, 2011; Wan et al., 2011). Thus, role perceptions can be context sensitive and created individually (Farrell, 2011). Second, an exploration of role perceptions can provide insights into the teachers' instructional orientations. Exploring their participants' role perceptions, previous studies informed their instructional orientations. As teacher roles are fundamentally related to learning theories and foreign language teaching methods that individual teachers believe to be effective (Richards & Lockhart, 1996), an exploration of role perceptions can provide insights into the instructional orientations of English teachers.

English teacher instructional orientations have been shown to be related to the level of teacher self-efficacy (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008). These studies reported that teachers with higher levels of self-efficacy tended to possess more learner-centered instructional orientations. If this is the case, role perceptions can be related to the level of teacher self-efficacy, because role perceptions can represent a teacher's instructional orientations. However, the relationship between the two has remained unexplored.

Despite the growing interest in LTC, a large part of LTCs of university English teachers in Japan has remained unexplored (Nagatomo, 2012). Previous studies mainly highlighted their participants' professional identities, emotions, perceptions of student motivation, perceptions of student characteristics and attitudes, and perceptions regarding important instructional areas (Cowie, 2011; Cowie & Sakui, 2012; Fuisting, 2017; Matsuura et al., 2001; Nagatomo, 2012; Sakui & Cowie, 2012; Shimo 2016, 2018). However, cognitions closely linked to instructional practices have not been fully explored.

Previous studies on university English teachers in Japan have indicated the instructional differences between JTEs and NJTEs[14] (Matsuura et al., 2001; Shimo, 2016, 2018). Matsuura et al. (2001) compared the two teacher groups and discovered that NJTEs perceived speaking as a more important instructional area. Shimo (2016, 2018) investigated the different perceptions of these two teacher groups regarding Japanese university students and concluded that the differences were related to the proficiency levels of their students (JTEs taught at lower levels, whereas NJTEs taught at higher levels of students) and instructional areas (JTEs taught reading, whereas NJTEs taught speaking). These two studies suggest that JTEs and NJTEs are likely to differ in terms of their LTCs and, consequently, their role perceptions.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

Research into the instructional orientations of English teachers at Japanese universities is likely to provide useful implications for English education in this context because they plan and implement their lessons based on their own teaching theories (Nagatomo, 2012). However, as Nagatomo argued, little has been known about their instructional orientations. Furthermore, as far as the author of this dissertation examined previous studies on role perceptions, university English teachers in Japan have not been explored. In addition, previous studies have suggested that JTEs and NJTEs may have different instructional orientations (Matsuura et al., 2001; Shimo 2016, 2018), but, to the best of the author's knowledge, the differences in their role perceptions have remained unexplored.

---

[14] In this dissertation, JTEs and NJTEs are used instead of NESTs (native English-speaking teachers) and NNESTs (non-native English-speaking teachers) because non-Japanese non-native English-speaking teachers are also involved in university English education. NJTEs include native- and non-native English-speaking teachers. However, NESTs/NNESTs are used when reviewing studies that used these terms.

To address these research problems, the present study had the following primary purpose:

> (1) to describe the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan and to compare JTEs and NJTEs in this regard.

With this purpose, the present study aimed to provide a baseline picture of current university English teachers' instructional orientations. Understanding the role perceptions of these teachers was likely to provide insights into their approach to daily classroom practices. This seems to be useful for English teachers who are new to and/or who are struggling in the context of Japanese university English education, aiding them in university English education and professional development.

The secondary purposes were as follows:

> (2) to identify the factors influential in the construction of role perceptions and to compare JTEs and NJTEs in this regard.
>
> (3) to examine the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy and to compare JTEs and NJTEs in terms of their level of teacher self-efficacy.

By incorporating (2), the present study aimed to further explore role perceptions. It was likely that identifying factors related to role perceptions would provide insights into university English teachers' professional development. In addition, possible factors could be identified if JTEs and NJTEs differed in terms of their role perceptions. By incorporating (3), it examined how role perceptions can be related to other teacher factors. Previous studies have suggested that role perceptions can be related to teacher self-efficacy (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008). These studies found that teacher self-efficacy and teachers' instructional orientations are related. As role perceptions represent teachers' instructional orientations, role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy are likely

to be related to each other. In addition, exploring the levels of teacher self-efficacy in university English teachers could provide implications for improving self-efficacy, despite unfavorable students' attitudes towards learning English at Japanese universities (Anderson, 1993, 2019; Berwick & Ross, 1989; Ryan & Makarova, 2004).

In addition, it should be noted that the comparison between JTEs and NJTEs was done for educational purposes. It does not emphasize the dichotomization between the two, as the dichotomization has resulted in discrimination and negative self-perceptions (Rivers, 2013).[15] Although the issue is unarguably important, it is beyond the concern of the present study.

1.4 Research Design

For the outlined purposes, an exploratory sequential mixed-methods research approach (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) was used in the present study (Figure 1.2). In this approach, both qualitative and quantitative data are collected in separate phases of the research. More specifically, qualitative data are collected first, and quantitative data are collected later.

Figure 1.2 Visual diagram of an exploratory sequential mixed-methods research approach.

---

[15] In the field of ELT, there has been a prejudice that native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) are ideal teachers, known as Native-speakerism (Holliday, 2006), placing non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in the periphery of the ELT field. In the Japanese context, there have been cases where NESTs tended to be placed in weaker positions, mainly due to an employment tradition of the country. For example, universities have offered them teaching positions with non-standard contracts, such as limited-term contracts with limited benefits (Houghton, 2013; Masden, 2013), and they have been placed in lower status positions in university organizations (Rivers, 2013). Some of them felt that they were hired solely to promote the university's international image (Whitsed & Wright, 2011), while others felt they were treated as institutional decorations (Amundrud, 2008).

First, a qualitative research method was used to explore the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan. This method allows researchers to interpret the phenomena or human experiences under investigation and to approach research problems without preconceived assumptions or hypotheses (Dörnyei, 2007). There were no preconceived assumptions or hypotheses in the present study, as participants were likely to have already developed their unique role perceptions, reflecting the postmethod era. Thus, their role perceptions were qualitatively explored first.

A quantitative research method was then used to obtain generalizable results for role perceptions, influential factors, teacher self-efficacy, and any differences between JTEs and NJTEs. Quantitative research methods are suitable here because they can reveal relationships between the constructs and statistically compare the groups (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Dörnyei, 2007).

1.5 Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation consists of six chapters. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 presents a literature review, which is conducted from both theoretical and methodological perspectives. The research questions are then formulated at the end of the chapter. Chapters 3 and 4 are concerned with the present study. The qualitative phase is presented in Chapter 3, followed by the quantitative phase in Chapter 4. In Chapter 5, the findings are summarized and a discussion is developed in light of the previous studies. Finally, Chapter 6 provides a summary of the study, the limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this chapter, extant research relevant to the present study is reviewed. The chapter consists of seven sections, beginning with a discussion of the knowledge necessary for L2 teachers to understand the importance of LTC research. Following this, empirical LTC studies are reviewed in Section 2.2 to provide an overview of LTC research. Then, studies on role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy are reviewed in Sections 2.3 and 2.4, respectively. Subsequently, studies on the distinction between non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs, equivalent to JTEs in the present study) and native English-speaking teachers (NESTs, equivalent to NJTEs in the present study) are reviewed in Section 2.5. A review of LTC studies conducted in the Japanese university context is presented in Section 2.6. This includes a review of studies on the distinction between JTEs and NJTEs in the Japanese university context, which is another focus of the present study. This chapter concludes with Section 2.7, where the research questions are posited and the research design is outlined.

2.1 L2 Teachers' Knowledge

The knowledge necessary for L2 teachers has traditionally incorporated two broad areas: linguistic and pedagogical knowledge (Freeman et al., 2009). More recently, the importance of a third type has been recognized—practitioner knowledge (i.e., LTC) (Burns & Richards, 2009).

Teachers' linguistic knowledge can be divided into two types: knowing language and knowing about language (Freeman et al., 2009). Knowing language refers to a teacher's practical abilities in using the language (English in the case of the present study), whereas knowing about language refers to a teacher's metalinguistic knowledge of the language.

A teacher's practical ability to use English can include both general English proficiency and instructional language use. Regarding the former, NESTs have acquired it naturally, whereas NNESTs need to acquire it consciously and intentionally. Regarding the latter, both NESTs and NNESTs need to acquire the ability deliberately, because instructional language use is different from general English proficiency. Further, teachers need this ability to manage the classroom, communicate lesson content, and provide feedback (Freeman et al., 2015).[16] Regarding metalinguistic knowledge, English teachers are required to have knowledge of the underlying system of English, such as grammar and vocabulary, and how the language is used socially and culturally. This kind of metalinguistic knowledge distinguishes professional English teachers from those who can simply speak the language. Using this knowledge, professional teachers are able to explain the language to answer students' linguistic questions, evaluate materials, and develop courses (Svalberg, 2016). Furthermore, teachers' metalinguistic knowledge has been found to be crucial for structuring lesson points in classes (Andrews, 1999), and their confidence in it has been found to influence their teaching behavior in class (Borg, 2001). In addition, previous studies indicated that NESTs and NNESTs have different qualities in their linguistic knowledge, which are further discussed in Section 2.5.

Pedagogical knowledge is another area of L2 teacher knowledge. Teachers need solid knowledge about how to teach a target language and how it is learned. Previously, pedagogical knowledge was viewed as being the same as knowing the language. According to this view, those who could speak English could teach English. However, this view was questioned because teaching English is not just about explaining the

---

[16] To clarify this ability, researchers have attempted to establish frameworks for assessing teachers' English ability for instructional use (for example, Freeman et al., 2015). In the Japanese context, researchers have also proposed benchmarks for English ability for instruction (for example, Kimura et al., 2017) in addition to the desired level of general English proficiency clarified by MEXT (2003).

language; it also involves helping students to learn the language (Freeman et al., 2009). Thus, based on the scientific evidence regarding language learning and teaching, i.e., second language acquisition (SLA), teachers are required to have pedagogical knowledge to teach effectively.

Freeman and Johnson (1998) promoted the importance of the third kind of knowledge. They argued that although SLA-based pedagogical knowledge should be the foundation of a teacher's pedagogical knowledge, L2 teachers' practical knowledge about how they teach the language in the classroom and how they think about it is a crucial element for their practice. Freeman and Johnson further argued that SLA research neglected the social aspect of learning. For example, SLA-based pedagogical knowledge is based on the cognitions of individual learners, whereas language learning usually occurs in sociocultural communities, such as the classroom. Accordingly, discontinuity between theory and practice often occurs. Frequently, teachers cannot apply the outcomes of SLA research in class because classrooms involve a number of contextual factors, including the school, class sizes, learners, and their learning goals. These factors can deter teachers from adopting SLA-based pedagogical options or alter expected learning outcomes even if such options are chosen. Rather, teachers learn from participating in the classroom and from their experiences therein. In other words, they have practical knowledge for successful language teaching. This suggested research into their practical pedagogical knowledge, which can be part of LTC.

2.2 Language Teacher Cognition (LTC)

In this section, LTC studies are reviewed. Early LTC studies are reviewed in Section 2.2.1, followed by a review of Borg's (2006) conceptual framework in LTC and supporting studies in Section 2.2.2. Subsequently, LTC studies in Japanese secondary

school settings are reviewed in Section 2.2.3, followed by a review of the development of LTC studies in Section 2.2.4 (LTC studies regarding university English teachers in Japan are reviewed in Section 2.6.).

2.2.1 Early LTC studies

Since the early 1990s, LTC studies have investigated teachers' (practical) pedagogical knowledge and revealed its relation to classroom practice. To indicate how LTC was a foundation of teachers' classroom practice, the following two studies are reviewed as examples of these early LTC studies.

In the study by Johnson (1992), the relationship between teachers' knowledge and beliefs (or "theoretical orientations" in her term) and their classroom practice was examined. Using a questionnaire, she collected data from English as a second language (ESL) teachers (n = 30) and divided the participants into three groups based on their theoretical orientations: skill-, rule-, and function-based. Then, she observed their lessons and found that participants' classroom practice was consistent with their theoretical orientations.[17]

In the study by Breen et al. (2001), teacher knowledge (or "pedagogical principles" in their term) and their actual teaching behavior were examined. They conducted interviews with ESL teachers (n = 18) and class observations to identify the participants' pedagogical principles. As a result of the class observations, they found that actual teaching behavior was supported by certain pedagogical principles. However, the relationships were complex and personal. One principle could be realized in several types of behavior, and one type of behavior could be supported by several principles. Further,

---

[17] For example, participants with a skill-based orientation spent a considerable amount of time on student skill development, those with a rule-based orientation spent more time on the grammatical structure of English, and those with a function-based orientation spent more time on communicative activities.

individual teachers developed a variety of practices, and the relationships between practices and principles differed individually and were distinct from those of other teachers. From these findings, Breen et al. concluded that teachers' pedagogical principles were complexly and personally constructed based on their classroom experiences, suggesting LTC and classroom practices were mutually informing.

These findings indicated that LTC functions as a strong basis for classroom practices and suggested that language teachers developed their LTCs uniquely and in complex ways. The question remained as to what kind of factors influence the construction of an individually unique LTC.

2.2.2 Borg's (2006) conceptual framework

Borg (2006) described LTC and its influential factors in detail. The following review presents a description of his conceptual framework and explains each of the influential factors with exemplar supporting studies.

Figure 2.1 displays Borg's (2006) conceptual framework of LTC. The framework was developed based on the synthesis of extant teacher cognition research in both general education and ELT. It describes what LTC includes and what kind of factors influence LTC. The framework consists of five elements of the central concept labeled LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION: schooling (in the upper left corner), professional coursework (in the upper right corner), classroom practice (at the bottom), and contextual factors (at the bottom). The influential relationships among elements are expressed with arrows. Lines with one arrow indicate a unidirectional influence, while those with two arrows indicate mutually influential relationships.

As indicated on the left side of the central concept labeled "LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION," LTC covers a wide range of teachers' internal mental

activities. These mental activities include the language teachers' beliefs, knowledge, attitudes, and decision-making processes with respect to themes indicated on the right side, such as teaching, teachers, learners, subject matter, curricula, and self. Role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy, which the present study focused on, are included in LTC.

Personal history and specific experience of classrooms which define preconceptions of education (i.e., teachers, teaching).

May impact existing Cognitions, though, especially when unacknowledged; these may limit its impact.

Schooling → Professional Coursework

Beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, thinking, decision-making

LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION

About teaching, teachers, learners, learning, subject matter, curricula, materials, activities, self, colleagues, assessment, context

Contextual ↕ Factors

Classroom Practice
including practice teaching

Around and inside the classroom, context mediates cognitions and practice. May lead to changes in cognitions or create tension between cognitions and classroom practices.

Defined by the interaction of cognitions and contextual factors. In turn, classroom experience influences cognitions unconsciously and/or through conscious reflection.

Figure 2.1. Borg's conceptual framework of LTC (adapted from "elements and processes in language teacher cognition" in Borg [2006]).

Classroom practice

Classroom practice represents teachers' actual teaching practice in class. As mentioned previously, teachers' classroom practices are based on their LTC, and the experiences of the actual classroom modify the LTC in return.

Schooling

Schooling represents teachers' previous experiences in school as students or previous learning experiences. The experiences as students impart preconceptions about teachers and teaching in a student's mind, which may initially form LTC.

For example, Bailey et al. (1996) explored the relationship between previous learning experiences and teachers' teaching philosophies. They analyzed the autobiographical essays and journal entries of pre-service teachers ($n = 7$). They found in the participants' journal entries that the teaching philosophies of participants, such as favorable teacher personality, appropriate methods, and the concepts of good and bad teaching, were formed by their previous learning experiences.

More recently, Moodie (2016) examined the relationship between previous learning experiences and teaching practice. He analyzed data from the reflective writing of and interviews with in-service teachers ($n = 18$) in South Korea. Moodie reported that participants had experienced boring, non-communicative classes as students, because of which they tried to implement fun, communicative lessons as teachers. This indicated that while the participants' former teachers were viewed as negative examples of teaching, previous learning experiences were influential to their LTCs.

The findings supported the theory that schooling can influence LTC. Moreover, Borg (2006) further argued that schooling forms an individual's initial state of LTC.

Professional coursework

Professional coursework represents pre-service and in-service teacher training and education programs. As a two-arrow line in the figure indicates, professional coursework influences LTC, and an individual teacher's receptiveness to professional coursework is influenced by their state of LTC. Receptiveness to these programs is also influenced by previous learning experiences, as shown by an arrow from schooling. Previous studies have examined the effectiveness of professional coursework on LTC, with mixed results.

The following two studies reported that professional coursework did not outweigh the influence of schooling (Borg, 2011; Peacock, 2001). Peacock (2001) investigated whether a three-year pre-service teacher education program could change participants' beliefs. He conducted questionnaire surveys with ESL pre-service teachers ($n = 146$) before and after the program. Peacock reported very few changes and that teacher education programs did not have a strong impact on participants' beliefs constructed by previous learning experiences.

Borg (2011) investigated whether an eight-week in-service teacher education program could transform participants' beliefs. He conducted a questionnaire and a series of interviews with in-service teachers ($n = 6$) and reported that the program made his participants more aware of their beliefs. However, it did not make a sufficiently strong enough to alter the participants' beliefs. Borg concluded that the in-service ESL teacher education program had limited influences on LTC.

By contrast, the next two studies investigated reported the positive influence of professional coursework on English teachers. The first is a study by MacDonald et al. (2001). They investigated the effectiveness of a one-semester course in SLA studies. They administered a pair of questionnaires to pre-service teachers ($n = 55$) to view changes in participants' beliefs before and after the program. The results revealed differences

between the pre- and post-course surveys. For example, participants' behaviorist beliefs in language learning reduced during the course, demonstrating the effectiveness of the program in transforming students' beliefs.

The second study is by Kurihara and Samimy (2007). They described the effectiveness of a six-month teacher education program. They analyzed data obtained by interviews and written documents from in-service JTEs at secondary schools ($n = 8$). As a result, it was discovered that the program had positive influences on participants' beliefs regarding English teaching, which changed from teaching grammatical rules and vocabulary to developing students' communicative abilities in English.

Although numerous studies have examined the effectiveness of professional coursework, the results are rather inconclusive. This is probably because it is difficult to compare these teacher education programs directly because they vary in terms of their participants, length, and content. Moreover, the studies also varied in terms of research methodologies, rendering it difficult to reach conclusions.

Contextual factors

Contextual factors include influences from both outside and inside the classroom that can affect LTC and classroom practice. The classroom is seen as part of the context, as it is encompassed by contextual factors in the figure. These contextual factors include examinations, curricula, syllabi, classroom-related factors (such as large class sizes and time constraints), and student-related factors. The following three studies identified that one or more of these factors created an incongruence between LTC and actual teaching practice.

Richards and Pennington (1998) highlighted a prescribed syllabus and large class sizes as contextual factors. They collected data from novice secondary English teachers

in Hong Kong ($n = 5$) through class observations, interviews, and questionnaires to determine why secondary English teachers in Hong Kong tended to implement textbook-based instruction rather than communicative language instruction. The researchers reported the contextual factors mentioned previously as impediments to implementing communicative language teaching.

Ng and Farrell (2003) found that time constraints and high-stakes examinations interfered with teachers' ideal teaching practices. They examined the classroom practices of secondary school English teachers in Singapore ($n = 4$) and participants' beliefs expressed in interviews. In the interviews, teachers expressed knowing and believing that students needed to notice their mistakes by themselves. However, they contradictorily provided explicit error corrections during classes because they needed to teach efficiently to prepare their students for exams.

Finally, Phipps and Borg (2009) singled out student factors as being the cause for incongruence between teachers' beliefs and actual classroom behavior. They conducted interviews with teachers at a university preparatory course in Turkey ($n = 3$) and observed their classes over a period of 18 months. In the study, one of their participants commented that although sentence-level grammar practice did not benefit students, his students worked on sentence-level gap-filling tasks because he thought the students preferred such activities. Another participant stated her belief that grammar should be taught in context, although she actually used a more expository style of presenting grammar because this is what her students expected. Thus, students' preferences can be contextual factors that restrict teachers' decision making.

Numerous studies have reported the strong influence of contexts on LTC. Every teacher is in their own unique teaching context, including both macro and micro contextual factors. Likewise, a number of LTC studies conducted in Japanese secondary

school settings identified the influence of contextual factors on teachers' classroom practices, which is reviewed next.

2.2.3 Contextual factors identified in Japanese secondary school settings

A number of LTC studies have been conducted in Japanese secondary school settings and have identified contextual factors that can affect both LTC and teaching behavior, as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Contextual Factors Identified in LTC Studies in Japanese Secondary School Settings

	Identified contextual factors				
Studies	Entrance exams	Expectations toward entrance exams	School culture (local syllabus)	Class size	Student factors
Gorsuch (2000)	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔
Sakui (2004)	✔				
Sato and Kleinsasser (2004)	✔		✔		
Kurihara and Samimy (2007)	✔	✔			
Nishino (2011)	✔			✔	
Cook (2012)	✔	✔			✔
Nishimuro and Borg (2013)	✔		✔		

Note. Check marks (✔) in the table indicate the contextual factors that each study identified.

It can be observed from the table that the influence of entrance exams was identified by all the studies. This is because teachers need to prepare students for them, which influences teachers' classroom practice. For example, Sakui (2004) conducted interviews with secondary school teachers (n = 14: lower secondary = 11, upper secondary = 3) and observed their classes. She found that when JTEs taught solo,[18] they implemented grammar instruction using Japanese (known as *Yakudoku*) because they thought they needed to provide accurate knowledge to prepare students for entrance exams.

The second contextual factor is expectations toward entrance exams. This is slightly different from the influence of entrance exams, and three studies identified this factor. For example, Kurihara and Samimy (2007) analyzed interview data and the written documents of upper secondary school teachers (n = 8) who participated in a long-term in-service teacher education program in the United States. By participating in the program, these teachers adopted beliefs that English should be taught as a communicative tool. However, after resuming teaching at their respective schools, the participants expressed difficulties in implementing what they had learned during the program because schools and students wanted them to prepare their students for entrance exams.

The third contextual factor is school culture, including the syllabus used at a school. Sato and Kleinsasser (2004) collected data from upper secondary school teachers (n = 19) through a questionnaire, interviews, and class observations. They explained that their participants had collective goals and used the same tests for these goals, meaning they needed to keep pace with other teachers during the semester. This restricted what teachers were able to do in class. The same factor was identified in Nishimuro and Borg (2013).

The fourth contextual factor is class size. Nishino (2011) conducted a questionnaire

---

[18] They also implemented team-teaching by a pair of JTE and a foreign assistant language teacher. They conducted communicative language teaching in such occasions.

survey that included secondary school teachers (n = 21: lower secondary = 6, upper secondary = 11, both = 4) regarding their attitude toward communicative language teaching. The results demonstrated that participants had relatively solid knowledge of communicative language teaching and wanted to implement more communicative activities. However, they believed that class sizes were too large for communicative language teaching and used *Yakudoku* instead, which was viewed as more efficient in large classes.

The final one is student factors. Cook (2012) investigated secondary school teachers (n = 10) regarding the use of *Yakudoku*, audiolingual activities, and communicative language teaching by using a questionnaire and interviews. From the data, Cook suggested that Japanese teachers remained hesitant at implementing communicative language teaching, with one reason being their students. They thought that their students might not behave appropriately during pair work and that communicative activities might be too difficult for the students, potentially causing their students to have inferior feelings.

As reviewed, the LTC studies on Japanese secondary school English teachers indicated that contextual factors greatly influenced their teaching practices and decision making. However, the context of university English education in Japan may be different from that of the secondary English education. For example, university English teachers are likely to be free from pressures relating to entrance exams. Thus, research on university English teachers is necessary to understand them (see Section 2.6).

2.2.4 Recent developments in LTC research

As mentioned previously, LTC research has expanded its scope to understand the nature of LTC more comprehensively (Borg, 2012). To explore this expansion, the research foci of more recent LTC studies were investigated.

In identifying LTC studies, the search used the following data repositories and was limited to studies published in the last 10 years (2010 to 2019).

(1) Google Scholar

(2) CiNii[19]

(3) Publishers of journals regarding language teaching and learning (Elsevier, Oxford University Press, Taylor & Francis, and Wiley)

(4) Domestic journals (JACET Journal, JACET LTC SIG Bulletin, and JALT Journal[20])

Table 2.2 presents the keywords used to identify sources.

Table 2.2

Keywords Used for the Search

English teacher	and	language teacher cognition teacher beliefs teacher knowledge teacher decision-making
英語教師 (English teachers)	and	教師認知 (language teacher cognition) 信念・信条 (teacher beliefs) 知識 (teacher knowledge) 意思決定 (teacher decision-making)

An initial database consisting of 462 articles was compiled, with further selections being made by limiting sources using the following criteria:

(1) Studies on teachers of English as a second or foreign language (studies on teachers of English as a first language were excluded);

---

[19] CiNii (Scholarly and Academic Information Navigator) is a domestic database service that provide information regarding academic publication. https://ci.nii.ac.jp/en
[20] JALT Journal is published by the Japan association for language teaching (JALT)

(2) Journal articles (books, book chapters, and unpublished dissertations were

removed due to difficulties in collecting the materials);

(3) Empirical studies (review studies and methodological studies were excluded

because the former were likely to contain multiple studies and the latter

were not likely to include a research focus in terms of LTC).

As a result, a list of 137 studies was created, and the abstracts of these studies were examined from two perspectives: the research focus and participants. Table 2.3 depicts the classifications.

Table 2.3

Research Foci in LTC Studies (2010–2019)

Focus	Participants (Pre-/in-service teachers)	Number of studies	Studies
Beliefs in grammar and grammar instruction	Pre-service	2	Nagaratnam and Al-Mekhlafi (2013), Ong (2017)
	In-service	13	Ahmad (2018), Hong (2012), Hos and Kekec (2014), Jean and Simard (2011), Nishimuro and Borg (2013), Sanchez (2014), Sanchez and Borg (2014), Sharabyan (2011), Soontornwipast (2010), Underwood (2012, 2016), Uysal and Bardakci (2014)[d], Wong and Barrea-Marlys (2012)[d]
Beliefs in lexis and vocabulary instruction	Pre-service	2	Gießler (2012), Macalister (2012)
	In-service	4	Alipoor and Jadidi (2016), Gerami and Noordin (2013), Lau and Rao (2013), Maisa and Karunakaran (2013)
Beliefs in pronunciation and pronunciation instruction	Pre-service	4	Fielding-Barnsley (2010), Burri (2015), Buss (2017), Shizuka (2012)
	In-service	4	Baker (2014), Burri et al. (2017)[e], Couper (2017), Yokomoto (2017)

<div align="right">(continued)</div>

(Table 2.3 continued)

Focus	Participants (Pre-/in-service teachers)	Number of studies	Studies
Beliefs in speaking instruction	Pre-service	1	Dincer and Yesilyurt (2013)
	In-service	2	Baleghizadeh et al. (2014), Chen and Goh (2014).
Beliefs in reading instruction	Pre-service	n/a	
	In-service	3	Gilje (2014), Kuzborska (2011a), Macalister (2010)
Beliefs in writing instruction	Pre-service	2	Nguyen and Hudson (2010), Yigitoglu and Belcher (2014)
	In-service	4	Lee (2010), Melketo (2012), Ngo (2018), Yang and Gao (2013)
Beliefs in teaching methods (CLT, TBLT, CLIL)[a]	Pre-service	n/a	
	In-service	13	Asassfeh et al. (2012), Cook (2012), Ellili-Cherif (2014), Lin and Wu (2012), Nishino (2011, 2012), Rahman et al. (2018), Tajeddin and Aryaeian (2017)[e], Viet (2014), Woods and Çakir (2011), Wyatt and Borg (2011), Zeng (2012), Zheng and Borg (2014)
Beliefs in feedback	Pre-service	1	Junqueira and Payant (2015)
	In-service	5	Couper (2019), Junqueira and Kim (2013)[f], Mahoney (2011), Wang et al. (2018), Yoshida (2010)
	Both pre- and in-service	1	Rahimi and Zhang (2015)
Beliefs in assessment	Pre-service	n/a	
	In-service	2	Bullock (2011), Yin (2010)
Beliefs in EAP/ESP	Pre-service	n/a	
	In-service	2	Alexander (2012), Kuzborska (2011b)[g]

(continued)

(Table 2.3 continued)

Focus	Participants (Pre-/in-service teachers)	Number of studies	Studies
Beliefs in intercultural competence/ intercultural communication	Pre-service	n/a	
	In-service	3	Cheng (2012), Göbel and Helmk (2010), Young and Sachdev (2011)
	Both pre- and in-service	1	Llurda and Lasagabaster (2010)
Beliefs in medium of instruction (English only instruction, use of L1, code-switching)	Pre-service	1	Tam (2013)
	In-service	8	Briggs et al. (2018), Chimbutane (2013), Hiller (2010), Inbar-Lourie (2010), Nakamura (2017), Ogura (2019), Turnbull, (2018), Ueno (2018)
Beliefs in global English, world Englishes, ELF[b], multilingualism	Pre-service	1	Curran and Chern (2017)
	In-service	3	Griva and Chostelidou (2011), Pan and Block (2011), Young and Walsh (2010)
Beliefs in policy/ educational reform/ curriculums	Pre-service	n/a	
	In-service	8	Chang and Su (2010)[d], Fang and Garland (2013), Glasgow (2016), Hawanti (2014), McMillan and Rivers (2011), Yan (2012), Zhang and Liu (2014), Zhu and Shu (2017)
Beliefs in ICT[c]	Pre-service	1	Sardegna and Dugartsyrenova (2014)
	In-service	4	Aydin (2013), Li and Ni (2011), Saiful (2019), Shelley et al. (2013)
	Both pre- and in-service	1	Polat and Mahalingappa (2013)
Beliefs in learner autonomy	Pre-service	1	Balçıkanlı (2010)
	In-service	3	Al Asmari (2013), Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012), Nakata (2011)

(Table 2.3 continued)

Focus	Participants (Pre-/in-service teachers)	Number of studies	Studies
Emotion	Pre-service	n/a	
	In-service	6	Benesch (2018), Cowie (2011), Golombek and Doran (2014), Loh and Liew (2016), Miller and Gkonou (2018), Song (2016)[e]
Teacher identity	Pre-service	5	Hosoda and Aline (2010), Kanno and Stuart (2011), Morton and Gray (2010), Trent (2011), Zare-ee and Ghasedi, (2014)
	In-service	12	Canh (2013), Cowie and Sakui (2012), Ellis (2016), Golombek and Klager (2015), Kung (2015), Liu and Xu (2011), Ma (2012), Ruohotie-Lyhty (2013), Trent (2010, 2012), Trent and DeCoursey (2011), Wolff and De Costa (2017)
Teacher roles (Role perceptions)	Pre-service	n/a	
	In-service	3	Atai et al. (2018) [g], Farrell (2011), Wan, Low, and Li (2011)
Others[h]	Pre-service	1	Savas (2012)
	In-service	10	Chappell, Bodis, and Jackson (2015), Harfitt (2012), Ikeda (2013), Muñoz and Ramirez (2015), Ruesch et al. (2012), Shimo (2016, 2018), Tanabe (2019), Yamaji (2019), Yorozuya et al. (2017)

Note. [a]CLT = communicative language teaching, TBLT = task-based language teaching, CLIL = content and language integrated learning. [b]ELF = English as a lingua franca. [c]ICT = information and communication technology. [d]The study also focused on teaching methods. [e]The study also focused on identity. [f]The study also focused on writing. [g]The study also focused on EAP. [h]Others included foci, such as multiple intelligences, test preparation, class sizes, motivation, team-teaching, textbooks, and students.

As shown in Table 2.3, these studies included both conventional LTC studies, which investigated the relationship between LTC and classroom practices, and newly emerging LTC studies that investigated unexplored dimensions of LTC. For example, conventional

LTC studies addressed beliefs in grammar (15 studies), beliefs in teaching methods (12 studies), and beliefs in the medium of instruction (8 studies). By contrast, newly emerging LTC topics included beliefs in policies/educational reform/curriculums (8 studies), emotion (6 studies), and teacher identity (17 studies). Studies on teacher identity and the distinction between JTEs and NJTEs in particular are relevant to the present study and are reviewed in Section 2.5.

As identified in the analysis, teacher roles (role perceptions) represent one of the recently emerging topics, and three studies explored this concept. Teachers' conceptions of their roles are "central to the beliefs, assumptions, values, and practices that guide teachers both inside and outside the classroom" (Farrell, 2011, p. 54). Accordingly, role perceptions are likely to function as significant factors that determine teacher behavior. This construct is relatively recent within LTC research and appears to have been explored insufficiently, which is reviewed next.

2.3 Role Perceptions

The purpose of this section is twofold: To provide theoretical discussions on teacher roles in relation to learning theories and foreign language teaching methods and to review studies on role perceptions. By reviewing theoretical discussions regarding teacher roles in ELT, the relationship between teacher roles and instructional orientations is explained in Section 2.3.1. This helps interpret the findings of empirical LTC studies on role perceptions in Section 2.3.2.

2.3.1 Teacher roles

Theoretical discussions on English teacher roles in relation to learning theories and foreign language teaching methods are reviewed here. Teacher roles refer to the different

functions teachers play in class to perform their duties (Walkington, 2005). According to Wright (1987), teachers play multiple roles that can be classified into two major functions: management and instructional. The management function is "to create the conditions under which learning can take place" (p. 51), while the instructional function is "to impart, by a variety of means, knowledge to their learners" (p. 51). Management is related to interpersonal relationships in the classroom and is necessary for all teachers in any subject. By contrast, the instructional function includes task-related roles and is influenced by subject matter and the skills to which classroom tasks can be related. Until the 1980s, exploring more effective teaching methods, applied linguists focused on instructional aspects of teacher roles adopted in such methods.

These instructional aspects of teacher roles (as well as the methods themselves) were discussed within foreign language teaching approaches and methods that were influenced by the development of learning theories (Nunan, 2014, Richards & Rodgers, 2014).[21] Table 2.4 summarizes the learning theories, their instructional orientations (process of learning), major foreign language teaching methods within these learning theories, and required teacher roles for these methods.

According to Kohonen (1992), when learning was viewed as the formation of an association between behavior and a specific environmental stimulus, known as behaviorism, students were expected to learn new knowledge of facts, concepts, and skills. The role of the teacher was to provide frontal or teacher-centered instruction as an authority. Subsequently, learning theories shifted from behaviorism to post-behaviorism learning theories, such as cognitivism, constructivism, humanism, and sociocultural theory. Here, students were expected to construct knowledge themselves, and the

---

[21] Linguistic theories have strongly influenced the development of foreign language teaching methods (Nunan, 2014). However, learning theories are focused here because they are more relevant to the roles of teachers.

instruction focused on how students learned by placing them at the center of the learning process. Accordingly, teachers were regarded as facilitators who provided learner-centered instruction.

Table 2.4

Teacher Roles in the Two Theoretical Foundations

Learning theories	Behaviorism	Post-behaviorism
Instruction (Process of learning)	Teacher-centered	Learner-centered
Major foreign language teaching methods	Audiolingual method, Oral approach (Situational language teaching).	Communicative language teaching, Content-based instruction
Teacher roles	Expert, authority, linguist, model, manipulator, pace controller, monitor, corrector	Facilitator of communication process, needs analyst, counselor, process manager, organizer, supporter, task setter, consciousness raiser, task creator, resource

Note. This table was created by the author of the present study based on Brown (1994), Harmer (1991), Kohonen (1992), Legutke and Thomas (1991), Nunan (1989), Tudor (1993), and Voller (1997).

The development of learning theories greatly influenced foreign language teaching approaches and methods, which consequently influenced teacher roles (Nunan, 2014, Richards & Lockhart, 1996).[22] Foreign language was traditionally taught in the grammar translation method, and teachers played the role of knowledge-givers and needed to be experts and authorities (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). With behaviorism providing the theoretical foundation, the audiolingual method, and the oral approach (situational language

---

[22] Richards and Lockhart (1996) indicated three other elements: personal views on teaching, institutional factors, and cultural assumptions about teaching. However, these are not included in this review because they are more appropriately regarded as LTC factors because they correspond to beliefs, microcontextual factors, and macrocontextual factors, respectively. These seemed to be more influential on role perceptions.

teaching) were developed. In these methods, teachers' roles were to organize the repetitive practice of various sentence structures and play the roles of expert, linguist, and manipulator (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). These roles can be considered as typical teacher-centered roles. With post-behaviorism methods, such as communicative language teaching and content-based instruction, teachers were expected to facilitate learners' communication processes by engaging them in various tasks and by monitoring their performance. Language teachers no longer have the roles of experts in foreign languages who provide teacher-fronted instruction. Instead, they were required to enact roles necessary for learner-centered instruction, as facilitators, organizers, counselors, and so on. These roles can be considered as typical learner-centered roles.

Methodologists such as Tudor (1993) and Voller (1997) tended to focus on the nonlinguistic aspects of language teaching. For example, Tudor (1993) highlighted whole-person education and viewed teacher roles from a wider perspective, beyond the language class. Utilizing a humanistic theory of learning, Tudor argued that language learners should not be seen simply as people learning a target language; rather, they should also be perceived as whole people with intentions and resources. In this regard, it is important for teachers to serve as learning counselors for students. Teachers help learners reach their goals by developing students' awareness of being language learners, of learning goals, and of learning options. Voller (1997) underscored the teacher's role in promoting learner autonomy. He argued that there were three teacher roles: facilitator, counselor, and resource. Voller explained that the role of language teachers was not simply to implement certain teaching methods or to accomplish certain tasks in learner-centered classrooms. The role also incorporated helping students to become independent learners as an overall goal. These scholars argued that teachers' attitudes toward learner-centered education, rather than actual methods, were also influential on teacher roles.

The review in this section has indicated that the functional aspect of teacher roles is related to learning theories, foreign language teaching methods, and teachers' attitudes toward learner-centeredness. These learning theories, methods, and discussions regarding teacher roles can be a significant influence on teachers' instructions and role perceptions, accordingly. However, actual teacher instructions and role perceptions cannot be understood unless they are empirically explored because LTCs, which underpins teachers' classroom instructions, are under the influence of teachers' past experiences as learners, as teacher-trainees, and as teachers (see Section 2.2.2). Because of this, role perceptions have been empirically explored, which is reviewed next.

2.3.2 Studies on role perceptions

In this section, empirical studies on role perceptions are reviewed. As mentioned earlier, current L2 teachers have been in the postmethod era, where their autonomy, rather than prescribed methods, is emphasized to pursue suitable instructions for their students. Thus, teachers are likely to develop their own instructions and role perceptions. Teacher roles are also influenced by personal views on teaching, institutional factors, and cultural assumptions about teaching (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Thus, theoretical discussions on teacher roles reviewed above cannot explain everything about actual teachers' role perceptions. To understand these teachers, previous researchers have investigated role perceptions in different contexts.

In the following, four empirical studies regarding English teachers' role perceptions are reviewed (Atai et al., 2018; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Farrell, 2011; Wan et al.,

2011).[23] The review indicates what English teacher role perceptions the previous studies have identified and how they have identified them. First, each of these studies is reviewed and the similarities and differences between studies are revealed. Then, the research methods used in these studies are reviewed.

De Guerrero and Villamil (2000)

De Guerrero and Villamil (2000) investigated the role perceptions of Puerto Rican ESL teachers ($n = 22$). By investigating the participants' metaphors for teacher roles, De Guerrero and Villamil aimed to identify these teachers' conceptualizations of their profession and to determine whether theoretical assumptions of language teaching were reflected in their conceptualizations. To achieve these goals, they used a metaphor-completion task.[24] They provided their participants, who were taking part in an English teaching workshop, with the sentence starter "An ESL teacher is like…," and asked them to complete the sentence. The participants were then asked to elaborate on their sentences. By analyzing these data, De Guerrero and Villamil identified nine role categories. Table 2.5 summarizes their findings.

With these findings, they explained that their participants perceived both teacher- and learner-centered roles. For example, *cooperative leader*, *challenger/agent of change*, and *nurturer* could be classified as learner-centered roles, while *provider of knowledge* and *gym instructor* could be classified as teacher-centered roles. Their participants were

---

[23] Other studies regarding role perceptions include Karavass-Dukas (1995, as cited in Hedge, 2000) and Nagamine (2012). According to Hedge (2000), Karavass-Dukas conducted a questionnaire survey and asked what roles they performed as teachers. However, this is an unpublished work and the researcher of the present study was not able to obtain the original work. Nagamine (2012) investigated role perceptions of four pre-service teachers during their teaching practicum. This study is not included because it focused on pre-service teachers.

[24] A metaphor-completion task is a sentence-completion task to elicit participant metaphors. In this task, sentence starters are provided to participants, who then produce metaphors and complete the sentence. Researchers then analyze the elicited metaphors.

ESL teachers, and while they were reported as oriented toward communicative language instruction, their role perceptions also reflected traditional notions of a teacher. With these results, De Guerrero and Villamil concluded that their participants perceived themselves as playing multiple roles and indicated that teacher-centered roles were not necessarily disregarded by teachers, even in a learner-centered classroom.

Table 2.5

English Teacher Role Taxonomy by De Guerrero and Villamil (2000)

Roles	Definitions
Cooperative leader	Cooperative leader guides and directs students, helping them achieve goals; places herself or himself next to the students, not above as an authoritarian figure; establishes an atmosphere of trust in the classroom.
Provider of knowledge	Provider of knowledge is the source and/or conduit of language; dispenses language knowledge to students.
Challenger/agent of change	Challenger or agent of change serves as a transformative agent in the students' learning process by creating challenge, bringing about change, and procuring opportunities for learning.
Nurturer	Nurturer fosters the potential capabilities of students; facilitates growth and development; mediates the language learning process by giving feedback and constant support.
Innovator	Innovator keeps abreast of new methods and developments in the field and strives to implement them in the classroom.
Provider of tools	Provider of tools makes language available to students as a tool to construct meaning and participates in the language learning process as a co-constructor of language.
Artist	Artist approaches teaching as an aesthetic experience requiring a high degree of skill and creativity; molds learners into works of art.
Repairer	Repairer corrects students' language, strategies, and attitudes.
Gym instructor	Gym instructor treats learners' minds as muscles that need to be trained and exercised.

Note. The table was created by the author of the present study based on De Guerrero and Villamil (2000, p. 344). The original role names and definitions used in De Guerrero and Villamil (2000) are provided.

Wan et al. (2011)

Wan et al. (2011) examined the role perceptions held by Chinese English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers (*n* = 33). The purpose of their study was to examine whether their role perceptions were different from those of their students (*n* = 70). They used a metaphor-completion task as their data collection tool, and participants were asked to complete the sentence "An English teacher is… because…" Then, they analyzed their data and categorized them. As a result, Wan et al. created eight teacher-role categories. Table 2.6 displays their findings.

Table 2.6

English Teacher Role Taxonomy by Wan et al. (2011)

Roles	Definitions
Provider	Teacher as provider either conveys knowledge in various ways or assists students in learning.
Nurturer	Nurturer takes care of students and nourishes their potential abilities (e.g., gardener, parent).
Devotee	Teacher as devotee is devoted to his or her job.
Instructor	Instructor is responsible for finding the right track for students to reach their targets and helps students set study goals.
Cultural transmitter	Cultural transmitter passes or bridges the English culture with the language knowledge to the students.
Authority	(Not mentioned.)
Interest-arouser	Interest-arouser organizes classroom activities for the purpose of attracting students' attention (e.g., entertainer, magnet, and collaborator).
Co-worker	(Not mentioned.)

Note. The table was created by the author of the present study based on Wan et al. (2011, pp. 408–410). The original role names and definitions used in Wan et al. (2011) are provided. The author of the present study did not find definitions for *authority* and *co-worker* roles in the Wan et al. (2011) paper.

With these findings, they reported that their participants had more learner-centered views of teaching. For example, teacher participants tended to perceive themselves as *interest arousers* and *co-workers* and viewed attracting students' attention to class activities as an important task. None of the teacher participants perceived themselves as *authorities*, and only 3 of the 33 teachers regarded themselves as *instructors*. Both *authorities* and *instructors* can be viewed as traditional teacher roles, although the teacher participants were generally against this view. They were more likely to form amicable relationships with their students by working together with them and motivating them to learn autonomously by stimulating their interest. Wan et al. concluded that the teacher participants teaching in Chinese university EFL contexts tended to possess learner-centered views of teacher roles.

Farrell (2011)

Farrell (2011) explored the role perceptions of experienced Canadian ESL teachers at a Canadian university ($n = 3$). To examine role perceptions, he conducted 12 reflective group meetings over a 2-year period with the participants to collect data occurring naturally in teachers' verbalization of their reflections. In the data, he identified 16 roles. Table 2.7 indicates roles he identified and his definitions for these roles.

Table 2.7

English Teacher Role Taxonomy by Farrell (2011)

Roles	Definitions
Manager	Manager attempts to control everything that happens in classroom.
Vendor	Vendor is a seller of "learning" of English; selling a particular teaching method.
Entertainer	Entertainer tells jokes and stories to class.

(continued)

(Table 2.7 continued)

Roles	Definitions
Communication controller	Communication controller attempts to control classroom communication and classroom interaction dynamics (turn taking etc.)
Juggler	Juggler is a multitasker in the classroom.
Motivator	Motivator motivates students to learn; keeps students on task.
Presenter	Presenter delivers information.
Arbitrator	Arbitrator offers feedback (positive and negative) in classroom.
Acculturator	Acculturator helps students get accustomed to life outside class.
Socializer	Socializer socializes with students; attends functions outside class with students.
Social worker	Social worker offers advice and support to students on matters related to living in another country or culture.
Care provider	Care provider takes care of students.
Professional	Professional teachers are dedicated to their work; take it seriously.
Collaborator	Collaborator works and shares with other teachers.
Learner	Learner continuously seeks knowledge about teaching and self as teacher.
Knowledgeable person	Knowledgeable person is knowledgeable about teaching and subject matter.

Note. The table was created by the author of the present study based on Farrell (2011, p. 57). The original role names and definitions used in Farrell (2011) are provided.

Farrell (2011) analyzed the data and noted that role perceptions could be multifaceted. He argued that his participants played multiple roles and these roles can be placed on a continuum with ready-made roles at one end and individually created roles at the other. He characterized ready-made roles as those that teachers should fit into and individually created roles as those that teachers develop throughout their careers. In his data, the participants were not comfortable with roles such as *vendor*, *entertainer*, and *care provider*, although they were expected to play these roles at the institutions where they taught. Accordingly, it was institutions and context that created these roles, not

individual teachers. By contrast, *collaborator*, *knowledgeable person*, and *learner* were viewed as individually created roles, as his participants willingly participated in various professional development meetings. They collaborated with other teachers, learned new ideas, and became more knowledgeable through these professional development activities. Moreover, teachers develop their roles depending on their experiences. With this observation, Farrell concluded that role perceptions are context sensitive and dynamic throughout a teacher's career.

Atai et al. (2018)

Atai et al. (2018) investigated the role perceptions of Iranian in-service English as academic purposes teachers (n = 9). They aimed to explore how the participants understood their roles, responsibilities, and qualifications. For this purpose, the researchers conducted a narrative inquiry in which they asked the participants to write their life history of previous learning language learning experiences. Based on these life history essays, the researchers conducted individual interviews with their participants.

As a result of thematic analysis,[25] they identified eight role perceptions (Table 2.8). Atai et al. (2018) stated from their findings that the participants placed high value on the task of maximizing students' learning opportunities. They argued that this reflected their participants' role perceptions as *creators and users of learning opportunities, selectors and users of teaching/ learning materials, realizers of and facilitators of the development of students' full potentials,* and *researchers.* With these roles, the participants considered that their task was to create conditions in which students could construct rather than

---

[25] Thematic analysis is a qualitative data analysis method that focuses on what is said to identify common themes within the data (Willig, 2014)

transfer knowledge, which was the foundation of the learner-centered philosophy of teaching.

Table 2.8

English Teacher Role Taxonomy by Atai et al. (2018)

Roles	Definitions
Creators and users of learning opportunities	Creators and users of learning opportunities represent teachers' task of creating and using learning opportunities.
Selectors and uses of teaching/ learning materials	Selectors and uses of teaching/ learning materials need to select and use materials which are rich in content that are taken from materials other than the prescribed ones.
Assessors and evaluators	Assessor and evaluator represent teachers' task of assessment of students' performance.
Researchers	Researchers need to do needs analysis and to be responsive to learners' needs.
Realizers of and facilitators of the development of students' full potentials	Realizers of and facilitators of the development of students' full potentials attend to students' whole person and psychological emotional aspects and treat students as solution seekers rather than receivers of information
Observers of ethicality	Observers of ethicality need to use and create power relations justly.
Learners	Learners need to commit to their learning and professional development.
Teacher educators	Teacher educators not only teach English, but also educate future EFL teachers.

Note. The table was created by the author of the present study based on Atai et al. (2018, p. 104–109).

Comparison among four studies

Table 2.9 displays similar roles among the four studies. These similarities were examined by the author of the present study based on definitions provided by the respective researchers.

Table 2.9

Similarities between the Four Studies regarding Role Perceptions

Role	Definition
Provider of knowledge/Provider/Presenter	
Provider of knowledge (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000)	Provider of knowledge is the source and/or conduit of language; <u>dispenses language knowledge</u> to students.
Provider (Wan et al., 2011)	Teacher as provider either <u>conveys knowledge</u> in various ways or assists students to learn.
Presenter (Farrell, 2011)	Presenter <u>delivers information</u>.
Cooperative leader/ Instructor	
Cooperative leader (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000)	Cooperative leader <u>guides and directs students, helping them achieve goals.</u>
Instructor (Wan et al., 2011)	Instructor is responsible for <u>finding the right track for students to reach their targets</u> and helps students set study goals.
Challenger/agent of change	
Challenger/agent of change (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000)	Challenger or agent of change serves as a transformative agent in the students' learning process by <u>creating challenge, bringing about change, and procuring opportunities for learning.</u>
Creators and users of learning opportunities (Atai et al., 2018)	Creators and users of learning opportunities represent teachers' task of <u>creating and using learning opportunities</u>.
Nurturer/Nurturer/ Realizers of and facilitators of the development of students' full potentials	
Nurturer (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000)	Nurturer <u>fosters the potential capabilities of students;</u> facilitates growth and development; mediates the language learning process by giving feedback and constant support.
Nurturer (Wan et al., 2011)	Nurturer takes care of students and <u>nourishes their potential abilities</u> (e.g., gardener, parent).
Realizers of and facilitators of the development of students' full potentials (Atai et al., 2018)	<u>Realizers of and facilitators of the development of students' full potentials</u> attend to students' whole person and psychological emotional aspects and treat students as solution seekers rather than receivers of information

(continued)

(Table 2.9 continued)

Role	Definition
Repairer/Arbitrator/ Assessors and evaluators	
Repairer (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000)	Repairer corrects students' language, strategies, and attitudes.
Arbitrator (Farrell, 2011)	Arbitrator offers feedback (positive and negative) in classroom.
Assessors and evaluators (Atai et al., 2018)	Assessor and evaluator represent teachers' task of assessment of students' performance.
Devotee/Professional	
Devotee (Wan et al., 2011)	Teacher as devotee is devoted to his or her job.
Professional (Farrell, 2011)	Professional teachers are dedicated to their work; take it seriously.
Interest-arouser/Motivator	
Interest-arouser (Wan et al., 2011)	Interest-arouser organizes classroom activities for the purpose of attracting students' attention (e.g., entertainer, magnet, and collaborator).
Motivator (Farrell, 2011)	Motivator motivates students to learn; keeps students on task.
Learner/ Learners	
Learner (Farrell, 2011)	Learner continuously seeks knowledge about teaching and self as teacher.
Learners (Atai et al., 2018)	Learners need to commit to their learning and professional development.

Note. Underlining was added by the author of the present study to indicate any similarities.

These similarities were examined with the following two steps. In the first step, both role names and their definitions were examined, as follows:

(1) Similar role names were identified by comparing the roles in all four studies,

(2) the definitions of the similar roles were compared and phrases and expressions that conveyed similar meanings in the definitions were identified, and

(3) the similar phrases and expressions were identified in the definitions of the rest of the roles in the four studies.

For example, the roles of *provider of knowledge* and *provider* were identified as similar role names during (1). Then, as indicated with underlining in the table, phrases such as "dispenses language knowledge" and "conveys knowledge" were identified during (2). Finally, the phrase "delivers information" in the definitions of *presenter* was identified during (3). These phrases were all related to transferring information, suggesting the meaning is similar. Thus, they were identified as similar roles. With this procedure, roles of *nurturer/ nurturer/ realizers of and facilitators of the development of students' full potentials* and *learners/ learners* were identified.

In the second step, the definitions of the remaining roles were compared and similar phrases and expressions were identified. For example, the definitions of *cooperative leader* and *instructor* include "guides and directs students, helping them achieve goals" and "finding the right track for students to reach their targets." Similar words such as "goals" and "target" are used with the meaning that teachers need to help students. These two roles were identified as a similar single teacher role. Likewise, the roles of *repairer/arbitrator/ assessors and evaluators, devotee/ professional, interest-arouser/ motivator* were identified as similar roles.

Highlighting these similarities has also clarified some differences. The roles in Table 2.9 were only identified in two or three studies, which means the participants in the other studies did not perceive these roles. For example, while the roles of *nurturer, nurturer, and realizers of and facilitators of the development of students' full potentials* appeared in De Guerrero and Villamil (2000), Wan et al. (2011), and Atai et al. (2018), they did not appear in Farrell (2011). Similarly, *Interest-arouser* and *motivator* only appeared in Wan et al. (2011) and Farrell (2011), whereas the participants in Guerrero and Villamil (2000) and Atai et al. (2018) did not perceive them at all. Similar patterns can be observed

in the other roles in the table. Differences were also found in roles that only appeared in

single studies, as shown in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10

Differences among the Four Studies regarding Role Perceptions

Roles	Definitions
Guerrero and Villamil (2000)	
Innovator	Innovator keeps abreast of new methods and developments in the field and strives to implement them in the classroom.
Provider of tools	Provider of tools makes language available to students as a tool to construct meaning and participates in the language learning process as a co-constructor of language.
Artist	Artist approaches teaching as an aesthetic experience requiring a high degree of skill and creativity; molds learners into works of art.
Gym instructor	Gym instructor treats learners' minds as muscles that need to be trained and exercised.
Wan et al. (2011)	
Cultural transmitter	Cultural transmitter passes or bridges the English culture with the language knowledge to the students.
Authority	(Not mentioned.)
Co-worker	(Not mentioned.)
Farrell (2011)	
Manager	Manager attempts to control everything that happens in classroom.
Vendor	Vendor is a seller of "learning" of English; selling a particular teaching method.
Entertainer	Entertainer tells jokes and stories to class.
Communication controller	Communication controller attempts to control classroom communication and classroom interaction dynamics (turn taking etc.)

(continued)

(Table 2.10 continued)

Roles	Definitions
Farrell (2011) (continued)	
Juggler	Juggler is a multitasker in the classroom.
Acculturator	Acculturator helps students get accustomed to life outside class.
Socializer	Socializer socializes with students; attends functions outside class with students.
Social worker	Social worker offers advice and support to students on matters related to living in another country or culture.
Care provider	Care provider takes care of students.
Collaborator	Collaborator works and shares with other teachers.
Knowledgeable person	Knowledgeable person is knowledgeable about teaching and subject matter.
Atai et al. (2018)	
Selectors and uses of teaching/ learning materials	Selectors and uses of teaching/ learning materials need to select and use materials which are rich in content that are taken from materials other than the prescribed ones.
Researchers	Researchers need to do needs analysis and to be responsive to learners' needs.
Observers of ethicality	Observers of ethicality need to use and create power relations justly.
Teacher educators	Teacher educators not only teach English, but also educate future EFL teachers.

Looking at the table, at least two factors are highlighted. First, given the number of roles identified in each study, the number of the roles that only appeared in one study is relatively large. Guerrero and Villamil (2000) identified nine roles, four of which were not shared with the other studies. Wan et al. (2011) identified eight roles, one of which did not appear in the other studies and two of which were not compared due to the lack of definitions. Farrell (2011) identified 16 roles, 11 of which only appeared in his study. Finally, Atai et al. (2018) identified eight roles, of which four only appeared in their study. Second, figurative expressions in role names can be observed. Examples include artist (Guerrero & Villamil, 2000), gym instructor (Guerrero & Villamil, 2000), juggler (Farrell,

2011), and observers of ethicality (Atai et al., 2018). These differences could be caused by interpretive research methods, which are discussed later in the next section.

These similarities and differences provided the following two implications about role perceptions. First, they may support the assertions made by Farrell (2011). Similarities in roles suggest that there are some roles that English teachers universally perceive ("ready-made roles" according to Farrell, 2011, p. 59), despite any differences in teaching context. Second, the differences suggest that role perceptions are context-sensitive. Further, findings from the previous studies indicated that different teachers in different contexts perceive their roles differently. Another possible reason for the disparities could be attributed to the research methods used in each of the studies, which is reviewed next.

Research methods used in the studies of role perceptions

In this section, research methods used in the four studies are reviewed. As discussed below, the review indicates a methodological challenge to identify participants' multifaceted role perceptions comprehensively.

Table 2.11 summarizes the research methods used in the four studies. Although qualitative data were collected in the four studies, the quality of said data varied substantially. De Guerrero and Villamil (2000) and Wan et al. (2011) used a metaphor completion task to enable the collection of a relatively large amount of data ($n = 22$ and 33, respectively) in a relatively short time. However, both studies identified relatively few roles. De Guerrero and Villamil (2000) obtained 28 responses from 22 participants, while Wan et al. (2011) collected 32 responses from 33 participants, with one participant failing to provide an appropriate response. By contrast, Farrell (2011) conducted 12 reflective group meetings over a two-year period. The longitudinal data collection procedures

enabled him to collect 16 roles from 3 participants naturally occurring in a series of the group discussions. However, the number of participants was limited. Atai et al. (2018) collected verbal data in a single study with the use of additional materials, which functioned as prompts for the interviews. Although role perceptions are not readily articulated and participants usually need time to reflect on their roles (Farrell, 2011), the use of these materials enabled them to collect data in single interviews.

Table 2.11

Data Collection Methods in Four Studies

	De Guerrero and Villamil (2000)	Wan et al. (2011)	Farrell (2011)	Atai et al. (2018)
Methods	Metaphor-completion task	Metaphor-completion task	12 group discussions	Narrative inquiry with life history essays, individual, and interviews
Period	one day	one day	two years	n/a
Number of participants	22	33	3	9
Number of collected responses	28	32	n/a	n/a
Number of extracted roles	9	8	16	8

Note. The data collection period was not mentioned in Atai et al. (2018). The number of collected responses was not applicable to the data format of Farrell (2011) and Atai et al. (2018).

Data analysis methods were also different among the studies. In De Guerrero and Villamil (2000), Wan et al. (2011), and Atai et al. (2018), the researchers interpreted the data and classified them into categories accordingly. This resulted in them presenting a relatively small number of role perceptions compared to the data they obtained. By contrast, Farrell (2011) presented the actual utterances that occurred naturally in teachers'

verbalizations of their reflections about roles.[26] This reflected the multiple roles of his participants. These methodological differences may be partial causes for the differences in the findings of the four studies.

More importantly, these studies suggested that comprehensive investigation of role perceptions involves a methodological challenge: How can role perceptions be collected exhaustively and efficiently from participants? Considering that teachers play multiple roles (Wright, 1987), the method should collect multiple roles exhaustively from every participant. As explained, a metaphor completion task is not sufficient because both studies with this method elicited few roles from their participants. In addition, researchers' views may be reflected in the findings with this method (and the method used in Atai et al. [2018] as well) because researchers need to translate participants' metaphors into roles. By contrast, Farrell (2011) identified multifaceted role perceptions of individual participants by having a series of group discussions. However, this method also has at least two drawbacks. First, it takes long time to collect data. Second, the data are collected from a small number of participants. For researchers, it is difficult to keep a large number of participants involved in a study for a long time.

In summary, role perceptions could represent what language teachers think they do as professionals. Thus, they could be a useful perspective from which to explore their instructional orientations. The previous studies exhibited similarities and differences in their participants' role perceptions, indicating their context-sensitive nature (Farrell, 2011). However, these studies were rather descriptive and did not attempt to explore how role perceptions are constructed. Consequently, any contextual factors that were involved

---

[26] Farrell (2011) subsequently classified these roles into three broad categories: teacher as *manager,* as *acculturator,* and as *professional.*

in causing the differences remained unclear. It also remains unclear whether factors other than contexts can be involved in the construction of role perceptions. Given the centrality of role perceptions in LTC (Farrell, 2011), they are likely to be related to other teacher factors, although this remains unexplored. In addition to these, the exploration into role perceptions involves a methodological challenge.

2.4 Research on Teacher Self-efficacy

In this section, studies regarding teacher self-efficacy are reviewed. This is another key concept examined in the present study, and it is used to explore how role perceptions are related to other teacher factors. As explained below, the review suggests that teacher self-efficacy can be related to role perceptions.

Section 2.4.1 contains an explanation of the theoretical foundation of self-efficacy and teacher self-efficacy. Empirical studies on teacher self-efficacy are reviewed in Section 2.4.2.

2.4.1 Theoretical foundation of self-efficacy and teacher self-efficacy

Self-efficacy has been posited as a key component of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986); hence, this theory is clarified before explaining self-efficacy. After that, teacher self-efficacy is defined and explained.

Social cognitive theory is a psychological theory that explains human behavior. It explains how human behavior is related to human thoughts and environmental stimuli. Bandura (1986) claimed that whether people engage in certain behaviors depends on personal factors and the environment, and that there is a reciprocal relationship between behavior, the environment, and personal factors, as shown in Figure 2.2. An interpretation of a person's own personal factors can result in actual behavior, and a positive

interpretation of this behavior can influence personal factors. A person's behavior influences the environment, and the environment influences a person's behavior. Further, the environment changes a person's cognitive, affective, and biological competencies, and such competencies influence the environment.
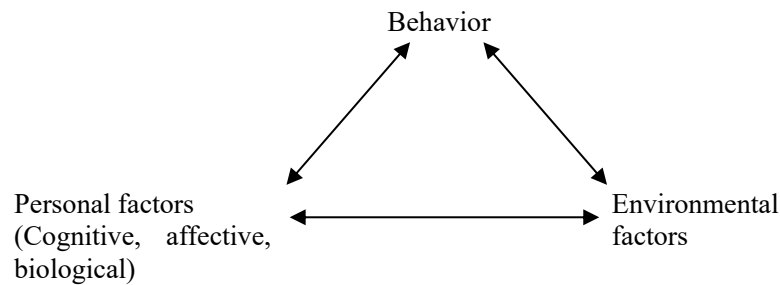
Figure 2.2. Triadic reciprocal causation (Bandura, 1986).

Self-efficacy is included in personal factors and is defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). It is an extent to which individuals believe they can accomplish a certain task, and whether people can commit to a certain task depends on whether or not they perceive it is achievable. People with high self-efficacy are likely to initiate actions, maintain their commitments, and be more resilient. Conversely, people with low self-efficacy may prefer not to initiate any actions, develop themselves, or solve problems. For example, if individuals believe that they can learn to speak English (personal factors), they are likely to practice (behavior). Further, if the individuals are successful in practicing English (behavior), they are likely to be more interested in practicing English (personal factors) and may join an English conversation group (environmental factor). The relationship is also reciprocal: joining an English conversation group and being with other members (environmental factor) can reinforce

positive attitudes toward practicing English (personal factors), contributing to extra efforts being made in practicing English (behavior). This theory can also explain teacher behavior.

Teacher self-efficacy is based on self-efficacy. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) defined teacher self-efficacy as a "teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (p. 22). It is an extent to which individual teachers believe they can teach successfully, and whether teachers can teach successfully depends on whether or not they perceive it is achievable. In the case of the present study, teacher self-efficacy is about how successfully university English teachers believe they can teach English to Japanese university students.

Teacher self-efficacy has three dimensions: *efficacy for instructional strategies*, *efficacy for classroom management*, and *efficacy for engagement* (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Efficacy for instructional strategies is concerned with the extent to which teachers think they can use a variety of instructional strategies, while efficacy for management refers to the extent to which teachers think they can manage unexpected and problematic student behavior. Finally, efficacy for engagement relates to the extent to which teachers think they can foster a positive student attitude towards learning. Previous ELT studies used this framework and explored English teachers' self-efficacy (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008), which is reviewed next.

2.4.2 Empirical studies on teacher self-efficacy

In this section, empirical studies on teacher self-efficacy in ELT contexts are reviewed. These ELT studies reported that levels of teacher self-efficacy are related to teachers' instructional orientations and teachers' English proficiency. (Chacón, 2005;

Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Faez et al., 2019; Karas & Faez, 2020; Thompson & Woodman, 2019).

Chacón (2005) conducted a questionnaire survey ($n = 100$) and follow-up interviews ($n = 20$) to explore teacher self-efficacy. The participants were non-native English-speaking teachers of EFL in Venezuela. Teacher self-efficacy was explored in relation to their self-assessed English proficiency and to the frequency of certain pedagogical choices, such as selecting more communication or more grammar-oriented instruction. The results indicated that the participants with the high level of teacher self-efficacy for engagement used both communicative language teaching and grammar-based traditional teaching, whereas the participants with low self-efficacy for engagement mainly used the latter. In other words, teachers who believe they can improve students' attitudes toward English learning tended to implement more communicative instructions. The results also indicated that participants' self-assessed English proficiency was positively correlated with their efficacy for engagement and for instructional strategies. In other words, teachers with higher self-assessed English proficiency tended to feel that they could enhance students' attitudes toward English learning and could use more varied instructional strategies.

Eslami and Fatahi (2008) replicated Chacón's (2005) study in the Iranian high school context, with the participants being high school English teachers ($n = 40$). Despite both studies using the same materials, their results were somewhat different from those of Chacón (2005). Eslami and Fatahi (2008) corroborated the findings of Chacón (2005) by stating that teacher self-efficacy for engagement was correlated with the use of communicative language teaching. However, Eslami and Fatahi (2008) found that participants' self-assessed English proficiency was correlated with efficacy for instructional strategies, not with efficacy for engagement.

Following these studies, a number of ELT studies have highlighted the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and their self-assessed English proficiency level (Zan & Go, 2011; Choi & Lee, 2016; Yilmaz, 2011). To examine this relationship further, Faez et al. (2019) conducted a meta-analysis with these studies using statistical procedures.[27] They used 19 studies, including 15 that focused on English teachers and 4 that focused on other foreign language teachers. Their analysis revealed that teacher self-efficacy and teachers' self-assessed English proficiency levels were moderately correlated ($r = .37$), which explained 13% of the variance in teacher self-efficacy. They concluded that 13% was not a small value, contrary to the apparent value because teacher self-efficacy is a complex construct in which a number of other factors are involved.[28]

In the Japanese context, Thompson and Woodman (2019) examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and teachers' self-assessed English proficiency level of JTEs teaching at upper secondary schools ($n = 141$). They conducted a questionnaire survey and investigated the five dimensions of teacher self-efficacy: in using English, in communicative English instruction, in teamwork, in student achievement, and in managing workload. They found that self-efficacy in using English positively correlated with self-assessed English proficiency, while self-assessed English proficiency positively correlated with self-efficacy in communicative English instruction.

In summary, previous studies on teacher self-efficacy have indicated at least two points. First, teacher self-efficacy and teachers' instructional orientations are related. Chacón (2005) and Eslami and Fatahi (2008) showed that teacher self-efficacy for

---

[27] This meta-analysis included a study focusing on foreign language teachers other than English in English speaking countries.

[28] Faez et al. (2019) also included teachers' educational background (degree) and teaching experiences in their analysis, which did not exhibit any statistical significance.

engagement was related to teacher-centered instructional orientations. Their findings suggested that the level of teacher self-efficacy for engagement can be related to role perceptions, as role perceptions can represent teachers' instructional orientations. Second, the level of teacher self-efficacy is related to teachers' English proficiency levels (Faez et al., 2019; Thompson & Woodman, 2019). This suggests that the differences in their English proficiency between NESTs and NNESTs may cause the differences in their level of teacher self-efficacy for engagement and their role perceptions. In the next section, studies that compare NESTs and NNESTs are reviewed, including those which compared their level of teacher self-efficacy.

2.5 Teacher Identity: NESTs and NNESTs

Teacher identity is another emerging theme in LTC research (see Table 2.3). Among the many definitions regarding teacher identity (Varghese et al., 2005), this section only focuses on NEST and NNEST identities, which are the most relevant to the present study, which investigates JTEs and NJTEs. First, studies that compared NESTs and NNESTs are reviewed in Section 2.5.1, then studies examining teacher self-efficacy between two linguistic groups are reviewed in Section 2.5.2. Following these, a recent development regarding native-speakerism[29] is presented in Section 2.5.3.

2.5.1 NESTs and NNESTs

Although the dichotomy between NESTs and NNESTs has been ideologically problematized, a number of studies have revealed pedagogical differences between these two groups of teachers. (Andrews, 1999; Ma, 2012; McNeil, 2005; Medgyes, 1992; Reves

---

[29] Native-speakerism is the belief that native speakers of English are representative of western cultures, English language, and teaching methods (Holliday, 2006). It regarded NESTs as ideal teachers, placing non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in the periphery of the ELT field. See also FN13.

& Medgyes, 1994). For example, Reves and Medgyes (1994) investigated the self-perceived teaching behavior of NNESTs and NESTs in an international survey ($n = 216$, mostly NNESTs). The results indicated that 67% of participants believed their behavior was somewhat different from those of the other group, and 92% of the NNEST participants experienced language difficulties. They further identified differences in teaching behavior between NESTs and NNESTs, as perceived by the participants (Table 2.12).

Table 2.12

Perceived Differences between NESTs and NNESTs by Reves and Medgyes (1994)

NESTs	NNESTs
Speak better English	Speak poorer English
Use real language	Use "bookish" language
Are more confident	Are less confident
Are more flexible	Are more dependent on guidance
Are more innovative	Are more cautious
Are less emphatic	Are more empathetic
Attend to pre-conceived needs	Attend real needs
Have unrealistic expectations	Have realistic expectations
Are more indulgent	Are stricter
Are less committed to teaching	Are more committed to teaching
Have less insight	Have more insight
Focus on	Focus on
fluency	accuracy
meaning	form
language in use	grammar rules
oral skills	printed word
colloquial register	formal register
Teach items in context	Teach items in isolation
Prefer free activities	Prefer controlled activities
Favor group/pairwork	Favor frontal work
Use a variety of materials	Use a single textbook
Tolerate errors	Correct every error
Set fewer classroom tests	Set more classroom tests
Use no or less L1	Use more L1
Resort to no or less translation	Resort to more translation
Assess less homework	Assess more homework
Supply more information on target language culture	Supply less information on target language culture

Note. The table was adapted from "Perceived Differences in teaching behavior between NESTs and non-NESTs" in Reves and Medgyes (1994).

As seen in Table 2.12, the participants perceived NESTs' characteristics as teachers of learner-centered instructions in contrast to themselves as teachers of teacher-centered instructions. For example, they perceived that NESTs focused on language in use, preferred free activities, and favored group/pairwork. By contrast, they perceived that NNESTs focused on grammar rules and preferred controlled activities and frontal work. A number of studies have corroborated the findings of Reves and Medgyes (1994), including the following three examples.

Andrews (1999) demonstrated that NNESTs have more insights into the English language compared to NESTs. He compared the metalinguistic knowledge of in-service NNESTs ($n = 20$), pre-service NNESTs ($n = 20$), and pre-service NESTs ($n = 20$) and found that NNESTs had superior metalinguistic knowledge. He explained that NNESTs developed more metalinguistic knowledge than NESTs because they learned English in classroom conditions where metalanguage is used, unlike NESTs who learned English in natural conditions.

McNeil (2005) compared Chinese NNESTs and NESTs with regard to predicting lexical difficulty for their Chinese learners of English and reported that NNESTs were more empathetic toward their students. Four groups of teachers were investigated: expert NNESTs ($n = 25$), novice NNESTs ($n = 20$), expert NESTs ($n = 20$), and novice NESTs ($n = 20$). The results demonstrated that the predictions of the NNEST groups displayed a higher correlation with student test results compared to the NEST groups.

Ma (2012) demonstrated that NNESTs attended real needs and had realistic expectations of students compared to NESTs. Ma investigated how NNESTs in Hong Kong perceived the strengths and weaknesses of NNESTs and NESTs by conducting open-ended questionnaire surveys ($n = 53$) and interviews ($n = 3$) with NENSTs. The results indicated that participants perceived NNESTs as being more able to understand

students' difficulties and needs, although they felt inadequate regarding their linguistic performance. The participants also perceived that NESTs had linguistic strengths and pedagogical weaknesses. These weaknesses included a lack of understanding of local education systems and difficulties in communicating with students, such as understanding students' difficulties and needs.

As reviewed, these studies indicated that English teachers believed there were differences between NESTs and NNESTs. Students also perceived the differences between the two teacher groups, as illustrated by the following two studies (Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Guerra, 2017).

Benke and Medgyes (2005) demonstrated that Hungarian learners of English perceived NESTs and NNESTs differently. They conducted a questionnaire survey ($n =$ 422), the results of which indicated that participants thought NNESTs had a more structured approach to grammar and could better prepare students for exams because of their familiarity with local educational policies. By contrast, NESTs were regarded as a model for imitation and as being more capable of getting students to speak. However, their lessons were regarded as too difficult for lower-level students.

Guerra (2017) reported that Portuguese university students perceived differences between the two groups of teachers. Guerra conducted a questionnaire survey and interview studies ($n = 34$) with students majoring in English-related fields such as literature and tourism. The results indicated that participants thought NESTs had more intelligible pronunciation and better vocabulary compared to NNESTs and thought NNESTs had better awareness of students' needs, were more committed to teaching, and were stricter.

With regard to these differences between the two groups, the researchers were concerned that NNESTs might have negative self-perceptions based on their linguistic

limitations (Medgyes, 1992). Medgyes (1992) argued that it is important that both groups of teachers complement each other because both groups of teachers have their own strengths and weaknesses. In particular, NNESTs should not feel inferior to NESTs. However, paradoxically, this position admits that there is a clear difference between the two teacher groups (Kamhi-Stein, 2014).

2.5.2 NESTs and NNESTs: Teacher self-efficacy

The findings from the reviewed studies on NEST/NNEST suggested that linguistic identity can influence teacher self-efficacy. The following two studies investigated this point and compared the level of teacher self-efficacy of different linguistic identities.

Mills and Allen (2007) explored the self-efficacy of graduate students teaching French as teaching assistants ($n = 12$). The participants included native French-speaking teachers ($n = 4$) and non-native French-speaking teachers ($n = 8$), all working in the United States. The researchers administered questionnaire surveys and conducted interviews with the participants and revealed that three of the four teachers who felt the highest self-efficacy were native French speakers. By contrast, three of the four teachers who felt the lowest self-efficacy were non-native French speakers. In the interview data, four of the eight non-native French-speaking teachers mentioned their French proficiency in relation to their teacher self-efficacy. In these instances, the four teachers assessed their French proficiency positively and had positive teacher self-efficacy.

More recently, Karas and Faez (2020) compared the self-efficacy of ESL teachers with three different linguistic identities in Canada. Their participants were monolingual NESTs ($n = 28$), multilingual NESTs ($n = 63$), and NNESTs ($n = 31$). The researchers administered online questionnaire surveys, and the results indicated differences in the level of self-efficacy between the groups. Multilingual NESTs and NNESTs felt

statistically significantly higher self-efficacy compared to monolingual NESTs. The researchers indicated two possible explanations for their results. First, their study took place in an ESL setting. They explained that NEST/NNEST distinctions are less evident in ESL settings than EFL settings and that being native English speakers cannot be a characteristic unique to English teachers in ESL settings. Rather being multi-lingual was more important for teachers, which was the second reason that Karas and Faez noted. They explained that multilingual teachers were successful language learners and had successful language learning experiences, which improved their self-perceptions as ESL teachers and self-efficacy accordingly. By contrast, monolingual teachers did not value self-perception, being monolingual with native speaker norms. The researchers concluded that a shift away from native-speakeristic beliefs may be gradually occurring within the ELT field.

2.5.3 Toward post-native-speakerism

Recently, scholars have claimed a shift from native-spearkerism toward post-native-speakerism is necessary (Houghton, 2018). To understand the current argument, two studies are reviewed in this section.

Llurda (2016) argued that teachers should be viewed as one of the following two types instead of NESTs and NNESTs: essentialists and ELF-aware teachers. The former comprises teachers who value the idea that English is possessed by native speakers, whereas the latter includes teachers who identify themselves as L2 users. The gradual permeation of concepts such as ELF and WE suggest that the goal for English language teaching and learning has shifted from obtaining native-like proficiency to becoming a proficient L2 user. Teachers who are aware of this changing status of English have tended to perceive the goal of English-language teaching as building students' confidence in

using English in diverse situations. This shift from essentialists to ELF-aware teachers is expected to mitigate native-speakerism (Llurda, 2016).

The second study presents an argument for *post-native-speakerism*. Using interview data with experts in the field of ELF and WE (*n* = 24), Houghton (2018) provided six necessary pedagogical changes to overcome native speakerism:

(1) From native-speaker model to diverse models,

(2) from predetermined norms to L2 as [a] vehicle for mutual exchange of people,

(3) from accuracy to communication flexibility,

(4) from target culture to intercultural orientation,

(5) from top-down decision making (such as publishing materials) to teacher-selected, and

(6) from teacher- to learner-centered.

To achieve these changes, Houghton (2018) argued that English teachers are required to undergo cognitive transformation of their knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and attitudes. Further, scholars have indicated that the shift toward post-native-speakerism may be necessary in English education at Japanese universities to reflect the actual status of English as a global language (Houghton, 2018).

Although a gradual shift from native-spearkerism toward post-native-speakerism may be observed in the ELT field, the distinction between NESTs and NNESTs persists in many EFL contexts (Medgyes, 2017). The roles that NESTs and NNESTs play are typically divided, such as communicative English for NESTs and reading and grammar for NNESTs (Oda, 2018). This division is likely to persist if traditional role distinctions are continually practiced, because such beliefs will likely be ingrained within future students' minds (Uzum, 2018). To avoid this, it is necessary to consider whether or not

this distinction is useful from the perspective of teachers' actual instructional orientations. To understand the current practices of English education at Japanese universities, studies regarding English teachers in this context are reviewed next.

2.6 Research on University English Teachers in Japan

In this section, LTC studies regarding university English teachers in Japan are reviewed. To provide the overview of current university English teachers, their educational background and the courses that they teach are presented first in Section 2.6.1. In Section 2.6.2, LTC studies on university English teachers, including those that compared JTEs and NJTEs are reviewed to demonstrate that the LTC of these teachers has not been fully explored in this context.

2.6.1 Current university English teachers in Japan

With regard to university English teachers, JACET (2018) conducted a status quo survey about who taught and what was taught in university English courses (JTEs: $n =$ 629; NJTEs: $n = 210$; N/A: $n = 26$[30]). As JACET (2018) covered a wide range of background information of English teachers in this context, this section only provides information that is relevant to the present study, that is, teachers' educational and academic backgrounds and the course content that they taught. This information helps provide understanding about what university English teachers know and do.

JACET (2018) indicated that the majority of teachers were likely to possess sufficient pedagogical knowledge. This was inferred from the results regarding

---

[30] In JACET (2018), participants were asked about their mother tongue (either Japanese or English). The number of JTEs indicates those who responded that their mother tongue was Japanese, and the number of NJTEs indicated those who responded that their mother tongue was English. While the majority of N/A answers were probably non-Japanese non-native English speakers, it could include those who perceive themselves as multilingual speakers. Thus, these answers were not included for NJTEs.

participants' educational and academic backgrounds. The results indicated that the majority had their academic backgrounds in applied linguistics or teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) (62.8%). When compared with a previous JACET survey conducted in 2003, more teachers with applied linguistics or TESOL backgrounds (34.9% in 2003 vs. 62.8% in 2018) and fewer teachers with a linguistics (23.5% in 2003 vs. 15.6% in 2018) or a literature background (27.4% in 2003 vs. 8.6% in 2018) were involved in current university English education.

The survey results demonstrated that the majority of teachers were involved in courses that included productive skills. For example, compared to the 2003 survey, more teachers were involved in four skills-integrated courses (28.3% in 2003 vs. 62.1% in 2018[31]), speaking courses (7.8% in 2003 vs. 42.8% in 2018), and in writing courses (20.1% in 2003 vs. 49.8% in 2018). However, reading courses were still taught by more than 50 % of the participants (50.6% in 2003 vs. 55.9% in 2018).

These results suggest that there have been changes in university English education. Previously, university English courses were taught by Japanese academics and scholars in the fields of linguistics or literature using the *Yakudoku* method (Nagasawa, 2004), while the communicative aspects of English were taught by NJTEs (Nagatomo, 2012). The survey results (JACET, 2018) suggested that this may no longer be a typical portrayal of university English classrooms. As the majority of participants were JTEs ($n = 629$, 74.2%), more JTEs were involved in courses with communicative aspects of English at Japanese universities than previously, in addition to reading courses.

---

[31] The percentages were not provided in the 2018 survey—the author of the present study calculated them based on the data they provided.

2.6.2 LTC studies on university English teachers

In this section, LTC studies regarding university English teachers are reviewed. As mentioned previously, little has been explored regarding the LTC of teachers in Japanese university contexts. Table 2.13 shows the list of LTC studies. Each study is reviewed here.

Table 2.13

LTC Research on University English Teachers in Japan

Source	Participants	Focus	Research method
Nagatomo (2012)	8 JTEs	Professional identity	Narrative inquiry, Class observations
Fuisting (2017)	7 JTEs 10 NJTEs	Professional identity (of limited-term contract teachers)	Questionnaire, Interviews
Cowie (2011)	1? JTE 8? NJTEs	Emotion	Interviews
Sakui and Cowie (2012)	7 JTEs 25NJTEs	Perceptions on students' motivation	Questionnaire
Cowie and Sakui (2012)	1 JTE 2 NJTEs	Perceptions on students' motivation, motivational strategies, and teacher identity	Interviews
Matsuura et al. (2001)	41 JTEs 41 NJTEs	Beliefs regarding important instructional areas	Questionnaire
Shimo (2016, 2018)	170 JTEs 154 NJTEs	Perceptions regarding students	Questionnaire

Note. ? = the number was not specified.

Nagatomo (2012) described the identity formation of JTEs. She conducted interviews with JTEs ($n = 8$) and held a class observation of one of her participants to understand university English education from the perspective of teachers. Nagatomo noted that participants' professional identities were inclined toward being English teachers rather than researchers. This is unlike the traditionally portrayed university

English teachers at Japanese universities, who were more academics than teachers. She further explained that experience in actual classroom practice might have contributed to this inclination because she found relatively less-experienced participants struggled more with the dual identity as a teacher and researcher compared to relatively experienced participants. Nagatomo described the class of a participant who was struggling with this dual identity. The participant's classroom practice was portrayed as teacher-centered, where the structures and expressions of English passages were explained in Japanese. Nagatomo explained that her classroom practice was based on her strong beliefs that an accurate understanding of English passages was most important for research at universities, even for students. The interview data also revealed that this was the way she had learned English. From this narrative, Nagatomo argued that the teacher's professional identity as a researcher and her previous learning experiences had influenced her teaching practice.

Fuisting (2017) explored the professional identities of university English teachers on limited-term contracts. His focus was to investigate the extent to which his participants felt they were valued as English teachers. In his findings, 12 out of 19 participants (JTEs: $n = 7$; NJTEs: $n = 12$) stated that their professional identities improved after they were hired as limited-term contract teachers. However, there was a difference between JTEs and NJTEs. Only two of the seven JTEs reported an improvement, compared to 10 of the 12 NJTEs. Fuisting also noted the dual identity issue relating to the roles of English teacher and researcher. As his participants were on limited-term contracts, they needed to conduct research and publish to guarantee their future jobs. This resulted in internal conflicts—they wanted to be good teachers in class but had to spend a lot of time on their own research projects rather than on class preparation.

Cowie (2011) explored emotions related to the professional lives of university English teachers. Through understanding experienced university English teachers' emotions, Cowie aimed to determine how teachers dealt with emotions that influenced their professional growth. Cowie conducted interviews with university English teachers ($n = 9$[32]) and placed the emotions expressed in the interviews into seven categories: emotions toward colleagues, institutions, professional networks, warmth toward students, student progress, anger toward students, and emotion toward teacher identity as a moral guide. While emotions toward students included both positive and negative aspects, teachers felt that they should be moral guides for their students. They also perceived that English teachers should go beyond teaching English, providing students with opportunities to think about life and social issues. Their role as a whole-person educator could be seen in their emotions.

Sakui and Cowie (2012) investigated the perceptions of English teachers regarding the low motivation levels of university students toward English learning. They conducted an open-ended questionnaire survey in which 32 university English teachers (JTEs: $n = 7$; NJTEs: $n = 25$) participated to explore how participants made sense of the situation when they felt limited in their ability to motivate students. With regard to low motivation in their students, Sakui and Cowie summarized three kinds of limitations that their participants perceived: institutional systems (i.e., the nature of compulsory English courses), student attitudes and personalities (i.e., disinterest in English and shyness), and teacher-student relationships (i.e., difficulty in creating a personal bond). The findings indicated that university English teachers have a sense of helplessness in motivating their students.

---

[32] Both JTEs and NJTEs were included, but the numbers in each group were not mentioned.

In the following study, Cowie and Sakui (2012) investigated strategies that teachers used to motivate their students and their relationship with teacher identity. They conducted in-depth interviews with three university English teachers (JTE: $n =1$; NJTE: $n = 2$) and found that JTE and NJTE participants used different motivational strategies. The Japanese participant used a more Japanese style of teaching to motivate her students. Further, even though she was aware of communicative instructions, she tended to provide a thorough explanation of the material. She thought that her students' motivation decreased when they felt uneasy or did not understand some parts of the material, even if such parts were small or unimportant. Cowie and Sakui explained that her belief was drawn from her experiences as a learner. By contrast, the NJTE participants used strategies that emphasized the cultural aspect of language learning, thus utilizing their cultural identities. By arousing their students' interests in their cultural identity, they attempted to enhance student motivation toward English learning.

These reviewed studies suggested that JTEs and NJTEs at Japanese universities had somewhat different perspectives. Nagatomo (2012) and Cowie and Sakui (2012) suggested that JTE participants tended to have more teacher-centered views on teaching. In contrast, Fuisting (2017) reported that their JTE and NJTE participants differed in terms of how they felt their identities changed. However, it should be noted that these studies were descriptive in nature without the intention of comparing JTEs and NJTEs. Therefore, the remainder of this section contains a review of two studies that sought to compare JTEs and NJTEs.

Matsuura et al. (2001) compared the beliefs of JTEs and NJTEs regarding the perceived importance of instructional areas. Although the main purpose of their survey study was to examine any differences in beliefs between Japanese university students and their teachers, it also reported interesting differences between JTEs ($n = 41$) and NJTEs

(n = 41). Participants' beliefs and attitudes with regard to five instructional areas were investigated: (1) important instructional areas in communicative language learning and teaching, (2) goals and objectives, (3) teaching styles and methods, (4) teaching materials, and (5) cultural matters. The researchers found statistically significant between-group differences in speaking and nonverbal cues as important instructional areas. Further, NJTEs valued both items more than JTEs. Accordingly, the results indicated that these two teacher groups held different attitudes toward instruction in certain areas[33] and also indicated that the two teacher groups were different in terms of the perceived importance of instructional areas. However, the researchers did not examine the causes of such differences.

More recently, Shimo (2016) compared the two teacher groups (JTEs: n = 170; NJTEs: n = 154) with respect to their perceptions of Japanese university students' personalities and attitudes. She used a questionnaire survey and found two main differences between the groups. First, a smaller proportion of the JTE group perceived their students as "cheerful" (JTE = 37.1%, NJTE = 63.0%) and "willing to communicate in English" (JTE = 10.0%, NJTE = 45.5%). Next, Shimo (2016) found between-group differences regarding participants' perceptions of their students' preferred class format. The JTE group perceived more strongly that their students preferred class formats in which they had frequent opportunities to initiate activities. However, the NJTE group believed more strongly that their students preferred to receive explanations from teachers.

---

[33] Matsuura et al. (2001) set a severe significance level ($p < .001$), because they conducted multiple t-testing. They also indicated that several instructional areas had group differences at a generally significant level ($p < .05$). The author of the present study calculated the effect size (Cohen's d) using the data they provided in the paper regarding these instructional areas. As a result, a medium effect size of the difference was found in the perceived importance regarding language functions, listening, and cultural differences. In addition, NJTEs valued these aspects more than JTEs in all these variables. Effect size informed that these two groups were likely to be different.

Shimo (2018) performed further analysis of the data from her previous study (Shimo, 2016) and found seven between-group differences. The JTE participants believed the following about their students more strongly than the NJTE participants:

(1) They wanted teachers to use more Japanese in class,

(2) they should learn English instead of other foreign languages,

(3) they should practice translating from English to Japanese, and

(4) they should practice translating from Japanese to English.

By contrast, the NJTE participants believed the following about their students more strongly than the JTE participants:

(5) They wanted to learn English from native English-speaking teachers,

(6) they wanted to do speaking activities in class, and

(7) they wanted teachers to use more English in class.

With regard to the factors that caused the between-group differences, Shimo (2016, 2018) suggested two. First, she suggested that teachers' assigned classes could be a factor. Shimo (2016) provided data on the courses that her participants were teaching, with 31.8% of JTE participants teaching speaking courses compared to 79.5% of the NJTEs. Similarly, 67.1% of JTE participants taught reading courses compared to 31.8% of the NJTEs. Second, she indicated that more NJTEs were assigned to classes of students with higher proficiency levels in her survey. She also mentioned that the learning goals of the courses affected the results. Drawing upon these two factors, Shimo (2018) made the assumption that teachers' views regarding the purpose of university (compulsory) English education might be different between the two groups.

To summarize, there have been few LTC studies regarding university English teachers. Moreover, LTC studies that compared JTEs and NJTEs found that these two

groups of teachers differed in certain areas of their cognition (Cowie & Sakui, 2012; Matsuura et al., 2001; Nagatomo, 2012; Shimo, 2016, 2018). However, given the complexity of LTC, there are other LTC areas that should be examined to determine the distinctiveness of these two teacher groups. Accordingly, an intention of the present study was to investigate these two teacher groups further from the perspective of role perceptions.

2.7 Research Questions and Research Design

Based on the literature review, the research problems are presented in section 2.7.1. Then, the research questions are presented and the research design is outlined in Sections 2.7.2 and 2.7.3, respectively. A fuller explanation of the methods is provided in the chapters that follow.

2.7.1 Research problems

In reviewing the literature, the following research problems can be identified. There were few LTC studies on university English teachers, and to the best of the author's knowledge, neither the role perceptions of university English teachers nor the differences between JTEs and NJTEs regarding their role perceptions were previously examined.

In addition, previous research regarding role perceptions did not examine how individual teachers construct their role perceptions or how role perceptions can be related to other teacher factors. Consequently, influential factors on the differences between JTEs and NJTEs regarding their role perceptions (if any) are unclear.

2.7.2 Research questions

To address these research problems, the following three research questions were formulated:

Research Question 1 (RQ1):

What are the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan?

Research question 2 (RQ2)

How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of their role perceptions?

Research Question 3 (RQ3):

What are the influential factors in the construction of role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan?

Research question 4 (RQ4):

How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of influential factors affecting role perceptions and of their recognition regarding the purposes of university English education?

Research Question 5 (RQ5):

What is the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement?

Research Question 6 (RQ6):

How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of the level of teacher self-efficacy for engagement?

RQ1: What are the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan?

RQ2: How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of their role perceptions?

These two research questions are related to each other. The first research question was asked to describe the role perceptions of current university English teachers in Japan.

Given that role perceptions can be context sensitive (Farrell, 2011), the findings of the present study could be somewhat different from those of previous studies that were conducted in different contexts (see Section 2.3.2). The present study aims to identify the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan.

With respect to RQ2, previous studies regarding both NEST/NNEST and JTE/NJTE distinctions have suggested there could be differences between the groups (see Sections 2.5.1 and 2.6.2). The present study aims to examine the differences between JTEs and NJTEs regarding their role perceptions.

RQ3: What are the influential factors in the construction of role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan?

RQ4: How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of influential factors affecting role perceptions and of their recognition regarding the purposes of university English education?

RQ3 and RQ4 are related. The present study aims to identify factors that influence the construction of role perceptions. Given the complexity of LTC (Section 2.2.2), multiple factors are likely to be involved in the construction of role perceptions.

If the role perceptions are different between the two groups (RQ2), the identified influential factors could be involved in differences in their role perceptions. The present study investigates whether there are differences in influential factors in the construction of role perceptions between the two groups.

Previous studies have suggested that JTEs and NJTEs have different views on university English education (see Section 2.6.2). Their views on it may influence their role perceptions because teacher roles are enacted to achieve instructional goals. The

present study examines how these two groups of teachers consider the purposes of university English education.

RQ5: What is the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement?

RQ6: How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of the level of teacher self-efficacy for engagement?

These two research questions are related. Previous studies have indicated that teacher self-efficacy for engagement and teachers' instructional orientations are in a correlational relationship (see Section 2.4.2). Different instructional orientations require teachers to take on different roles (see Section 2.3.1). Thus, there is also likely a relationship between role perceptions and self-efficacy for engagement.

If role perceptions are somewhat different between the two groups (RQ2) and teacher self-efficacy and role perceptions are related, the levels of teacher self-efficacy for engagement may also differ. The present study compares JTEs and NJTEs in terms of their level of teacher self-efficacy for engagement.

2.7.3 An outline of the research design

To answer these questions, the present study was planned and conducted. It adopted an exploratory sequential mixed-method research design, which consists of a qualitative and a quantitative phase in sequence. Figure 2.3 presents an outline of the overall research design.
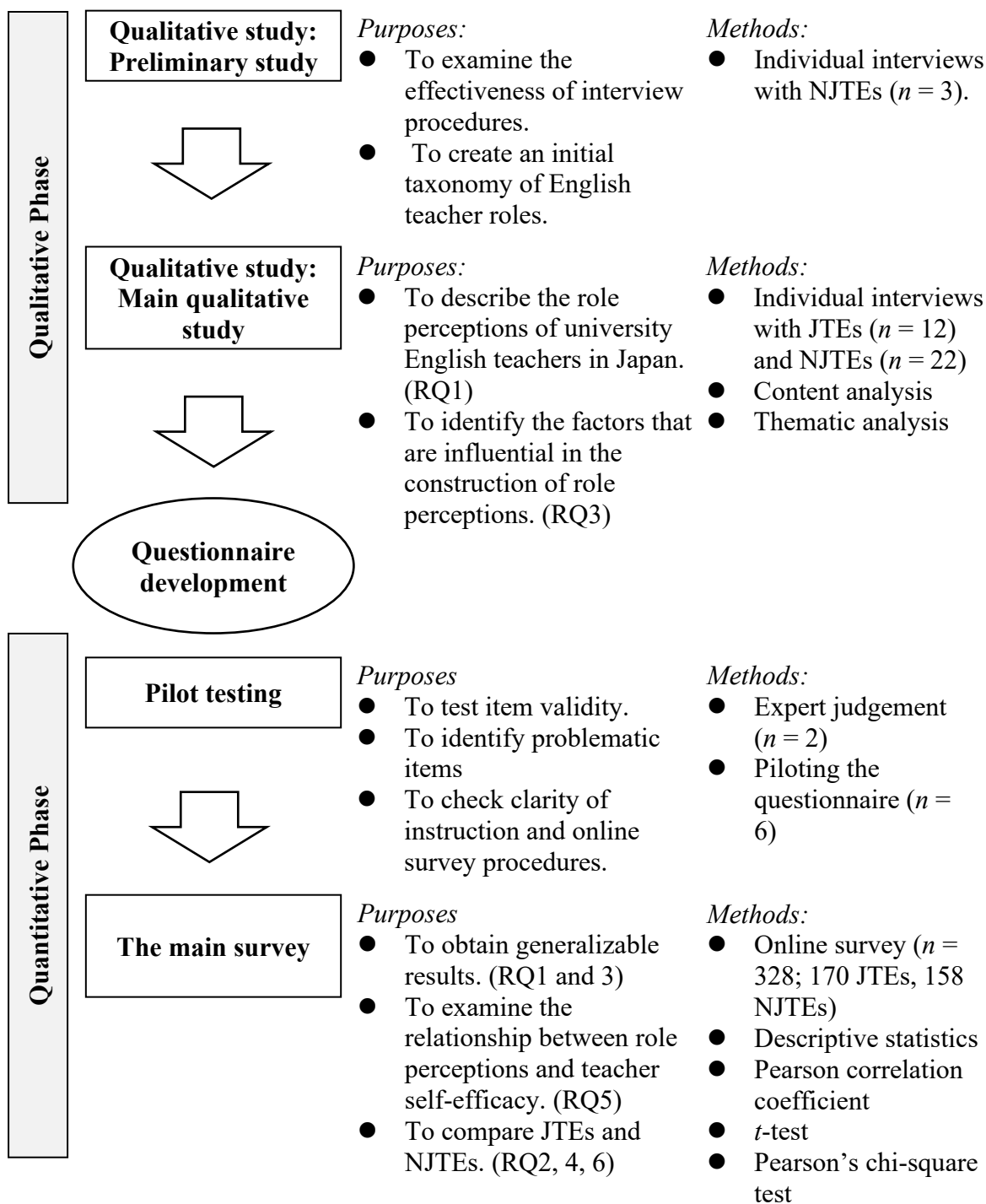
Figure 2.3 Summary of the research design.

The aim of the qualitative phase was to explore and identify university English teachers' role perceptions and factors influencing their construction. As role perceptions of university English teachers were not explored before, their role perceptions were

explored without any preconceived assumptions or hypotheses. Qualitative research methods were used because they are useful for exploring new areas of study, making sense of complexity, and providing possible interpretations of human experiences (Dörnyei, 2007). The qualitative phase comprises two studies—a preliminary study and a main qualitative study. In these studies, interviews were conducted because participants' multiple role perceptions were likely to be captured by collecting oral accounts from participants, as seen in Farrell (2011). In the preliminary study, interviews with NJTEs (n = 3) were conducted to examine the interview procedures and to create an initial taxonomy of English teacher roles, which can be used as an example of teacher roles in the main qualitative study. In the main qualitative study, interviews with JTEs (n = 12) and NJTEs (n = 22) were conducted to explore university English teachers' role perceptions and the factors that influence them in greater detail. The data obtained from the interviews were analyzed with content analysis and thematic analysis to identify role perceptions and to determine factors that influence the construction of role perceptions. The actual procedures are described in Chapter 3.

The aim of the quantitative phase was to obtain generalizable results regarding university English teachers' role perceptions and influential factors. Another aim was to examine the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement. To achieve these aims, an online questionnaire survey was conducted. Prior to the main survey, pilot testing was conducted in the following two stages: expert judgment and piloting. In the first stage, the validity of the developed questionnaire items was established. Experts in the fields of applied linguistics and educational psychologists (n = 2) participated in this process. The second stage was to determine if there were any instructions or items that might be misunderstood by participants (Japanese: n = 3; non-Japanese: n = 3). After making any necessary revisions, the main survey was conducted

using an online survey service (SurveyMonkey Inc.[34]). The participants included 328 university English teachers (JTE: $n = 170$; NJTEs: $n = 158$), and the obtained data were subject to statistical analysis. The actual procedures are detailed in Chapter 4.

---

[34] https://jp.surveymonkey.com/

Chapter 3: The Qualitative Phase

In this chapter, the qualitative phase is described. The purposes of this phase were the following:

- To describe the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan

- To identify the factors that are influential in the construction of role perceptions.

To fulfil these purposes, which partially correspond to RQ1 and RQ3, interview studies were conducted in two stages: a preliminary study and a main qualitative study. The preliminary study is described in Section 3.1, and Section 3.2 contains a description of the main qualitative study.

3.1 A Preliminary Study

The preliminary study was planned and conducted to address methodological challenges in studies of role perceptions. More specifically, the purposes were the following:

- To examine the effectiveness of interview procedures (i.e., piloting)

- To create an initial taxonomy of English teacher roles

- To identify necessary methodological improvements for the main study.

First, interview procedures were examined. Interviews were chosen to elicit participants' oral accounts because, as reviewed in Section 2.3.2, collecting oral accounts better enabled the elicitation of multiple role perceptions compared to metaphor completion tasks. However, it was time consuming. To address this, research instruments were prepared for use to facilitate participant reflections on their roles. Thus, interview procedures including research instruments used were examined. Second, the findings of the preliminary study were used to create an initial taxonomy of English teacher roles,

which can be used as examples of English teacher roles in the subsequent main qualitative study. Looking at the taxonomy as examples of English teacher roles, participants were likely to reflect on their roles promptly in the main qualitative study. Finally, the experience in this preliminary study was likely to provide useful methodological implications for the main qualitative study.

The method is explained in Section 3.1.1. Then, the findings are described in Section 3.1.2, followed by a presentation of an initial taxonomy of English teacher roles and a comparison with the findings of previous studies. The section closes with a discussion of the methodological considerations for the main qualitative study.

3.1.1 Method

This section explains the methods, including the participants, instruments, procedures, and analysis.

Participants

Three experienced NJTEs teaching at Japanese universities participated in the study. Table 3.1 provides a summary of participant information, including their pseudonyms. These participants were selected from different universities using a convenience sampling method; they were the author's professional acquaintances.[35]

Only NJTEs were included for the following two reasons. First, the author wanted to ascertain whether or not he could satisfactorily conduct interviews in English, which is his second language. He expected that interviews in his second language would be more difficult than those in his first language. As completing the interviews in English was critical for the entire research project, this was examined in the preliminary study. Second,

---

[35] Their participation to the study was voluntary.

roles expressed in English were expected to be more useful for creating an initial taxonomy of English teacher roles because previous studies used English terms for these roles. This would allow the findings to be compared to those in the previous studies (Atai et al., 2018; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Farrell, 2011; Wan et al., 2011).[36]

Table 3.1

Summary of Participant Information

Name (pseudonym)	Age	Teaching experience at university level (years)	Academic background
Andy	40s	19	MA in TESOL Ph.D. in applied linguistics
Brian	30s	12	MA in TESOL
Christine	40s	21	MA in TESOL Ph.D. in applied linguistics

Instruments

The intention of including instruments was to facilitate participant reflections on their roles and to elicit their multiple role perceptions efficiently with interviews. As reviewed in Section 2.3.2, individual teachers' multiple role perceptions cannot be elicited with metaphor completion tasks, whereas collecting participants' natural reference to their roles was a time-consuming process and cannot be achieved in a limited time of interviews. Thus, to collect participants' multiple role perceptions within a limited time of interviews, the following research instruments were used and examined in this preliminary study:

- Pre-interview questionnaire
- Brainstorming sheet

---

[36] At this point in the project, the author only intended to examine the role perceptions of NJTEs, which was another reason why only NJTEs were included.

- Mind map sheet

A pre-interview (written) questionnaire asked participants questions about their background (see Appendix A1). This included their age group, the length of time living in Japan, educational background, teaching experiences, previous language learning experiences, and Japanese language learning experiences. This information helped in understanding the participants' experiences that they recounted.

The brainstorming sheet was presented on A4 paper (see Appendix B). With this sheet, the participants took notes about any ideas regarding their roles while brainstorming. The participants used their notes when drawing a mind map.

The final instrument was a mind map (see Appendices C1 and C2), which uses diagrams and lines to depict and explore the relationships among concepts[37] (Davies, 2011). This can be considered as a type of visual methods (Pain, 2012). Visual methods, such as photographs, films, paintings, or drawings that participants produced, can be used as stimuli for researchers to elicit data from participants. Further, they can help participants to express tacit knowledge and to promote their reflections (Pain, 2012).[38]

This technique has been used in ELT studies (Borg et al., 2014; Kalaja, 2016). For example, Kalaja (2016) used drawings when exploring how pre-service teachers conceptualized teaching a foreign language. Kalaja asked pre-service teachers in Finland ($n = 60$) to draw images (complete with explanations) of their future selves as teachers teaching in foreign language classrooms. Drawing images helped her participants envisage their future classroom experiences.

---

[37] There are other mapping techniques, including the concept map. Davies (2011) defines a mind map and concept map distinctively. The former is a spontaneous way of depicting the relationship between ideas and can be pictorial. By contrast, a semantic mapping is deliberately structured to show the relationship between ideas and can indicate causal relationships with arrows.

[38] Pain (2012) also highlighted other purposes, such as building a rapport with participants. This facilitates communication between participants and researchers and allows researchers to engage with places or groups of people that are difficult to access.

In the present study, drawing a mind map was used to encourage participants to reflect on their roles. As role perceptions are tacit concept, eliciting participants' multiple role perceptions can be time-consuming process (Farrell, 2011). It required methods that enable to do so in interviews. Drawing a mind map was expected to help the participants to reflect on their roles and explore any relationships between them. Further, their mind map can be used when the participants explain reasoning behind their role perceptions and any factors that influence each of their roles. Further, mind maps that the participants drew were helpful for the author to understand their role perceptions by seeing their mind maps.

Procedures

Before the interviews, a few e-mail messages were exchanged that explained the purpose of the study and contained a written consent attachment (see Appendix D1 for a consent form). After obtaining written consent, the participants filled out a pre-interview questionnaire that was returned to the author. Following these preparatory procedures, two individual interviews were conducted with each participant at their respective workplaces to help them feel at ease.

The first interviews adopted an unstructured format, which was based on the suggestions of Golombek (1998). She noted that allowing individuals to speak freely about their experiences provides opportunities to discover their perspectives; hence, more roles were expected to appear. In the interviews, the participants talked freely about their experiences as university English teachers, including their roles as teachers, their responsibilities within the affiliated university community, and their research interests. During this process, the author occasionally provided prompts to maintain a natural dialogue and aid their reflections. However, every effort was made not to impose any of

the author's own views regarding teacher roles. After this process, the participants drew mind maps and then explained their meaning.

The second interviews with Andy and Brian took place approximately one month after the first interviews, and Christine's was two months after the first interview. The interview with Andy was conducted using an internet video calling tool[39], while face-to-face interviews were conducted with Brian and Christine. The interviews specifically focused on the factors that influenced the participants' role perceptions, which was not explored sufficiently during the first interviews due to time constraints. The participants were asked to explain why certain roles that they described in their mind maps were important and when they became aware of their importance.[40]

Each interview lasted approximately 90 minutes. All interviews were conducted in the participants' first language (English) and were audio-recorded. The audio-recorded data were transcribed verbatim. Unnecessary data, such as fillers, false starts, and hesitations, were subsequently removed from the analysis because it focused on what the participants said rather than how it was told.

Analysis

To identify participant role perceptions, the data were analyzed in two steps. Referring to Cohen (2008), who explored the professional identities of teachers using narrative data, only explicitly stated teacher roles were identified in the first step. An example of an explicitly stated teacher role can be observed in "I am an entertainer in the class." Here, "entertainer" is expressed explicitly, and roles such as this were coded first. In the second step, implicitly stated teacher roles were coded through repeated reading.

---

[39] https://www.skype.com/
[40] These data were concerned with the influential factors in the construction of role perceptions. Thus, the findings of this process are described in the report of the main qualitative study (see Section 3.2.2).

An example of an implicitly stated role would be "I tell jokes to the students." In this example, the participants did not explicitly mention a teacher role or name. Utterances such as this were coded as implicitly expressed roles (in this example, "entertainer").[41] The credibility of the analysis was assured by two approaches. One was member-checking (Maxwell, 1992),[42] where each participant confirmed the author's interpretation.[43] This was done via e-mail. The other was based on researcher triangulation, where the created codes were reviewed by an experienced applied linguist, and disagreements were solved by discussion.

3.1.2 Findings

This section presents the findings of the analysis. First, the roles identified in the present study are described. Subsequently, these roles are presented as an initial taxonomy of English teacher roles and are compared with the findings of previous studies. However, role perceptions may be context-sensitive (Farrell, 2011), meaning that the findings were not expected to be completely compatible. Nevertheless, the appearance of similar roles can provide possible justification for the methods used. Finally, methodological considerations for the main qualitative study are discussed.

Twelve roles

From the analysis, 12 roles were identified (Table 3.2). Each of these roles is summarized with their definitions and illustrated with excerpts from the actual data.

---

[41] The data analysis regarding the participant accounts of their role perceptions is reported in Section 3.22, which describes the main qualitative study.

[42] Member-checking is one of the strategies to secure credibility of data analysis (Maxwell, 1992). In member-checking, actual participants check the researchers' interpretation of their data.

[43] Member-checking was mainly carried out to confirm my interpretations of the reasoning underlying their role perceptions. The findings of this analysis are reported in Chapter 4.

Table 3.2

Twelve Roles

1) English expert	2) Cultural representative	3) Lecturer (Transmitter of knowledge)
4) Facilitator	5) Designer	6) Native speaker
7) Language model	8) Motivator	9) Caregiver
10) Entertainer	11) Assessor	12) Learning advisor

(1) English expert

An English expert is a teacher who has extensive knowledge of the English language and English language skills. Two of the participants (Andy and Christine) talked quite often about their role as an "English expert," using phrases such as "expert of English," "expert of language," or "language authority." These variations were all categorized as an "English expert." Andy noted that this was his prime role as an English teacher:

> I would think that language authority [English expert] should be the number one. Language authority relates to my education.[44]

Andy mentioned his academic background while talking about his role, indicating that the construction of role perceptions is influenced not only by current classroom practices but also by past career trajectories. The role may sound like a quality rather than an actual teacher role, but it was decided to regard it as a role because participants' subjective interpretations of roles were emphasized in the present study (see Section 1.2.1).

---

[44] Brackets ([　]) around a segment represent an addition by the author of the present study. When a participant used a different role term, it is replaced by a role term established in the present study surrounded by brackets ([　]). When an element from excerpts is omitted, an ellipsis ("…") is used.

(2) Cultural representative

A cultural representative refers to a person who represents and teaches information about a foreign culture in the classroom. Andy explicitly expressed this role. Variations such as "cultural ambassador" and "representative of a culture" observed in the data were classified into the same category. Andy stated the following:

> I have a role as a cultural ambassador. I think students want to learn about my culture. They want to see things. They want to be exposed to music or some videos, or even just hear me talk what life is like in my hometown.

In providing cultural materials for his students to learn about the culture of English-speaking societies, Andy believed that he played this role.

(3) Lecturer (Transmitter of knowledge)

A lecturer is a person who transmits their knowledge to students. It was expressed explicitly in the interviews. Andy discussed a situation in which he had to give lectures:

> The class I teach is vocabulary based, and it's a big class of 50 students, so sometimes it is slightly more lecture oriented… If I have to introduce a topic like plagiarism or how to paraphrase, sometimes I have to lecture to the students.

This role corresponds to a somewhat traditional understanding of the teacher's role since English teachers are required to give lectures to transmit knowledge if the course demands it.

(4) Facilitator

A facilitator guides and supports students in achieving their learning goals. Brian explicitly expressed it in relation to his technique for guiding and supporting his students' learning. He talked about this role in the following way:

> I try to be more of a facilitator by giving students problems and letting them try to do as much as they can until they get stuck. And when they ask for help, then I ask questions to help them solve the problems by themselves.

As Brian explained, teachers as facilitators set learning goals for students and guide them to achieve these goals.

(5) Designer

A designer creates language courses and teaching materials. Brian expressed this role explicitly as follows:

> I look at the class as a designer first, and I try to make language necessary for students. If I could do a good job at this, the rest goes smoothly.

Brian emphasized that a designing stage was important for smooth class activities. Although this role is generally performed prior to a class outside the classroom, it was still included as a teacher role. This is because, as seen in this case, a teacher may perceive this role as important.

(6) Native speaker

A native speaker speaks English as a first language. Andy described the native speaker role as follows:

> I know I am teaching some classes because I am a native speaker. For example, there is a TOEFL class in my university, and the two Japanese teachers teach the reading and listening, and the two native speakers of English teach speaking and writing. I think students have expectations about something like speaking. I think they do expect to be taught by a native speaker. And for writing, I think they expect that, too.

Andy's response indicates that roles as native speakers were expected from universities and students, regardless of whether teachers are willing to take on that role. Strictly speaking, being a native speaker was not a teaching role, but as the following excerpt indicates, the term "native speaker" was explicitly utilized in the interviews.

(7) Language model

A language model is a person whom students see as a model for their learning goals. This role tended to be expressed implicitly, as the following excerpt from Christine indicates:

> Students need to really listen when native speakers around them are talking. They should try to understand and listen carefully to how they speak.

In this excerpt, Christine implied that native speakers' speech was a model for students.[45] This role may be related to the native speaker role mentioned above, but a language model is not solely for native speakers, as Christine states:

> Near-native speakers, who are Japanese, are also a good model. Students can go "If this teacher can speak English, I can do that, too."

As she said, teachers can be models regardless of whether they are native or non-native speakers. The role as a model was separate from the native speaker role, and it was labeled as "language model."

---

[45] This interpretation was confirmed during the second interview with Christine.

(8) Motivator

A motivator enhances students' motivation to learn English. Brian explicitly commented about students' motivation as follows:

> I'm trying to encourage students and help them find motivation and passion for language learning.

As mentioned earlier, low motivation is one of the primary concerns faced by Japanese university English teachers (see Section 1.1.1), and all the participants acknowledged its importance in the interviews.

(9) Caregiver

A caregiver is a person who cares for students and get them to do work in class. Andy implicitly explained that he provided students with care, using the phrase "parental role." Andy described this role as follows:

> As I get older, now I am their father's age. I think there is more of a parental role, which in a way makes teaching sometimes more comfortable. I feel that there is definitely an element of that now.

It indicates that he sometimes cares about students expressing empathy or behaves authoritatively to lead his students to do work. The term "caregiver" was developed to represent this category.

(10) Entertainer

An entertainer ensures that students in the class have fun. The entertainer role was explicitly expressed by all the participants. Christine noted the following:

> I felt like I had to entertain [students], because the students were too quiet. They would just stare at me and look at me. They wouldn't say anything, so I tried to entertain them.

Christine felt it necessary to play this role in her context. It could be important for teachers to adopt this role to create a friendly class atmosphere and ensure students have a fun time.

(11) Assessor

An assessor monitors students' output and gives them feedback. All the participants mentioned that they corrected errors in students' oral or written performance. Christine commented:

> I want students to make mistakes, and then I want to help them become accurate, for them to notice. That's what I want them to do, to notice, "oh I should not use 'goed'; it should be 'went.'" And then they will remember. So, the next time they will be a little bit more accurate. That's what I care about.

As Christine explained, active teacher behavior in the classroom includes assessing students' performance and giving appropriate feedback, so the category of "assessor" was created.

(12) Learning advisor

A learning advisor gives students advice on how to learn English. When the participants mentioned giving students some advice, such utterances were identified with as a "learning advisor." Christine explained:

> Learning English, Spanish, whatever, you [have] got to do it every day. That's important. One way to do it is shadowing or talking by themselves. Skills to teach how to study are important. I give them advice: do shadowing and talk to themselves.

The learning advisor role highlights that the teacher helps students to learn, not by teaching a language but by teaching how to learn.

Developing an initial taxonomy of English teacher roles

The findings were used to create an initial taxonomy of English teacher roles. As shown in Table 3.3, the identified English teacher roles are accompanied by their definitions.

Table 3.3

Initial Taxonomy of English Teacher Roles

Role	Definition
1) English expert	English expert has extensive knowledge of the English language and English language skills.
2) Cultural representative	Cultural representative represents and teaches about a foreign culture in the classroom.
3) Lecturer (Transmitter of knowledge)	Lecturer transmits their knowledge to students.
4) Facilitator	Facilitator guides and supports students in achieving their learning goals.
5) Designer	Designer creates language courses and teaching materials.
6) Native speaker	Native speaker speaks English as a first language.
7) Language model	Language model is someone who students see as a model for their learning goals.
8) Motivator	Motivator enhances students' motivation to learn English.
9) Caregiver	Caregiver cares for students and gets them to do work.
10) Entertainer	Entertainer ensures students in the class have a fun time.
11) Assessor	Assessor monitors students' output and gives them feedback.
12) Learning advisor	Learning advisor gives students advice on how to learn English.

Two things are noticeable when observing the taxonomy. First, the taxonomy included both typical teacher- and learner-centered roles discussed in the literature (see

Section 2.3.1). For example, *English expert* and *lecturer (transmitter of knowledge)* can be found as roles for teacher-centered instructions such as the grammar translation and behaviorist foreign language teaching methods (oral approaches and audiolingual methods). In contrast, roles such as *facilitator* and *learning advisor* represent typical learner-centered instruction. Second, the identified roles also appear to vary in terms of their level of abstraction. Roles such as *English expert* and *cultural representative* may be rather abstract and not representative of what teachers do in class, whereas roles such as *lecturer* and *assessor* may represent their actual behavior. This suggests that role perceptions are configured as roles with different levels of abstraction.

Let us now compare the findings of this preliminary study with the findings identified in previous studies (Atai et al., 2018; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Farrell, 2011; Wan et al., 2011). Table 3.4 juxtaposes the similarities in role perceptions identified in the five studies (including the present study).

Table 3.4

Similarities among the Five Studies Regarding Role Perceptions

Role	Definition
Cultural representative/ Cultural transmitter	
Cultural representative (Present study)	Cultural representative <u>represents and teaches about a foreign culture</u> in the classroom.
Cultural transmitter (Wan et al., 2011)	Cultural transmitter <u>passes or bridges the English culture</u> with the language knowledge to the students.
Lecturer (Transmitter of knowledge)/ Provider of knowledge/Provider/Presenter/	
Lecturer (Transmitter of knowledge) (Present study)	Lecturer <u>transmits their knowledge</u> to students.
Provider of knowledge (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000)	Provider of knowledge is the source and/ or conduit of language; <u>dispenses language knowledge</u> to students.
Provider (Wan et al., 2011)	Teacher as provider either <u>conveys knowledge</u> in various ways or assists students to learn.
Presenter (Farrell, 2011)	Presenter <u>delivers information</u>.

(continued)

(Table 3.4 continued)

Role	Definition
Facilitator/ Cooperative leader/ Instructor	
Facilitator (Present study)	Facilitator <u>guides and supports students to achieve their learning goal</u>.
Cooperative leader (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000)	Cooperative leader <u>guides and directs students, helping them achieve goals</u>
Instructor (Wan et al., 2011)	Instructor is responsible for <u>finding the right track for students to reach their targets</u> and helps students set study goals.
Motivator/Motivator	
Motivator (Present study)	Motivator <u>enhances students' motivation to learn English</u>.
Interest-arouser (Wan et al., 2011)	Interest-arouser <u>organizes classroom activities for the purpose of attracting students' attention</u> (e.g., entertainer, magnet, and collaborator).
Motivator (Farrell, 2011)	Motivator <u>motivates students to learn</u>; <u>keeps students on task</u>.
Repairer/Arbitrator/Assessor	
Assessor (Present study)	Assessor monitors students' output and <u>gives them feedback</u>.
Repairer (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000)	Repairer <u>corrects students' language, strategies</u>, and attitudes.
Arbitrator (Farrell, 2011)	Arbitrator <u>offers feedback (positive and negative)</u> in classroom.
Assessors and evaluators (Atai et al., 2018)	Assessor and evaluator represent <u>teachers' task of assessment of students' performance</u>.

Note. Underlining was added by the author of the present study to indicate any similarities. Two other roles found by Wan et al. (2011) were excluded because their definitions were not provided.[46] Although the role of *entertainer* was identified in Farrell (2011) and the present study, they were not included because they were defined differently (despite having the same label. While c*are provider* (Farrell, 2011) and *caregiver* (present study) were similarly labeled, they were not included because of the differences in their definitions. Although s*electors and uses of teaching/ learning materials* (Atai et al., 2018) and *designer* (present study) were similar, they were not included because the former was defined as a selector and user of materials and the latter was defined as a creator of courses and materials.

In the table, similar roles are classified on the left, and the definitions of each role

are added on the right. There are five groups (indicated in bold), meaning five roles

---

[46] These two roles are authority and co-worker. The former may be similar to knowledgeable person (Farrell, 2011) and English expert (present study), and the latter may be similar to collaborator (Farrell, 2011).

identified in this preliminary study had similar roles in one or more previous studies. For example, one was found in a *cultural representative* (present study) and *cultural transmitter* (Wan et al., 2011). In the definitions, phrases such as "represents and teaches about a foreign culture" and "passes or bridges the English culture" can refer to transmitting cultural information to students. Similarities of this type can also be found in the other four groups.

There were roles that were identified only in this preliminary study. Comparing the 12 roles in this study (Table 3.3) and similarities among the five studies (Table 3.4), such roles as *English expert*, *designer*, *native speaker*, *language model*, *caregiver*, *entertainer*, and *learning advisor* were only identified in this study. There are two possible interpretations for this. One is that these may be unique characteristics of the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan. Due to the context-sensitive nature of role perceptions (Farrell, 2011), these roles could be perceived only by the participants in this study. The other is that previous studies may have failed to elicit these roles possibly due to methodological limitations in their studies (see Section 2.3.2).

Methodological considerations for the main qualitative study

In this section, the methodological considerations for the main qualitative study are discussed. As shown, the findings constituted the initial taxonomy and provided support for the methods used in the preliminary study. However, methodological challenges were encountered during the study. The use of interviews for studying role perceptions is initially examined, followed by a discussion on the instruments used, and possible improvements for the main qualitative study.

Role perceptions were elicited from the interviews, but the length of interviews needed consideration. Compared to metaphor completion tasks used in the previous

studies (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Wan et al., 2011), the use of interviews enabled to elicit multiple role perceptions from each participant, proving that interviews can be a useful (if not perfect) method. However, two interviews of approximately 90 minutes with each participant were necessary, although the intention of the second interviews was to explore influential factors on role perceptions. Compared to a series of group discussions used in Farrell (2011), two interviews may be efficient. However, given that more participants were expected to participate in the main qualitative study, more efficient interview procedures were needed. One of the possible causes for the excessive length of the interviews was that it took too long to reach the focus of the study—teacher roles in classes. The use of the initial taxonomy in the main qualitative study was expected to prompt participants to be aware of their roles.

The mind map sheet was helpful for the author when attempting to understand the participants' descriptions of their role perceptions. With the use of a mind map, the author was able to understand what part of their multiple role perceptions the participants were explaining.

However, a mind map cannot express the historical development of role perceptions. Therefore, the mind maps of the participants only represented their role perceptions at the time of the interviews and were expressed statically. While the participants often implied their previous role perceptions, it was unclear if they had fully reflected on their development. Thus, asking participants to discuss their role perceptions based on a single mind map might fail to obtain information about the development of their role perceptions. This means that the explanation of a single mind map is not sufficient to capture factors that influence the construction of role perceptions.

In summary, it was determined that interviews were likely to be more effective if the following two points were resolved. First, the participants' initial reflections on their roles should be prompted to ensure they are aware of what is being asked. Second, participant reflections on the development of their role perceptions should be facilitated to ensure they can be more aware of influential factors on their role perceptions. After considering these points, the main qualitative study was conducted, which is described in the next section.

3.2 The Main Qualitative Study

To begin with, the purposes of the qualitative study are restated:

- To describe role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan
- To identify the factors that are influential in the construction of role perceptions.

For these purposes, another interview study was conducted. The method is explained in Section 3.2.1. A description of the findings, role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan and a list of recognized influential factors, is then presented in Section 3.2.2.

3.2.1 Method

This section explains the methods in the main qualitative study, including the participants, instruments, procedures, and analysis.

Participants

A total of 34 experienced university English teachers (JTEs: $n = 12$; NJTEs: $n = 22$) participated in the main qualitative study. The initial plan was to recruit at least 10

participants in each group; thus, 20 in total. Participants were recruited using snowball sampling (Dörnyei, 2007), which is a nonprobability sampling strategy where research participants introduce future participants. It was used because teachers were more likely to participate in the interviews if the author was an acquaintance of their colleagues rather than a total stranger. With this strategy, data collection continues until data saturation, which is the point at which no new information (role perceptions in this study) is produced by further data collection (Flick, 2009).[47] As a result, 34 participants were included in the study.[48] In the following, a summary of the JTE and NJTE participants is provided.

JTE participants

Table 3.5 presents a summary of information regarding the JTE participants. All the JTE participants were experienced teachers with 10 years of teaching experience at Japanese universities. Three participants were part-time and taught at more than two universities. One teacher led a seminar course on English literature, and another taught English teacher education courses in addition to compulsory English language courses. These two teachers were asked to consider only their compulsory English courses while participating in the study. Regarding their academic backgrounds, five teachers had completed TESOL programs overseas and one specialized in domestic English teacher education. Four had academic backgrounds in English literature and an English teaching certification for secondary schools. One teacher had a linguistics background, while another teacher's academic background was not in an English-related field, and they did not have language teaching certificates.

---

[47] As mentioned previously, the author of the present study intended to focus on NJTEs at this phase of the study. During the data collection, NJTEs tended to introduce more prospective participants. As a result, imbalance in the sample size occurred.
[48] Honorarium payments were given to the participants, except for the three NJTE participants in the preliminary study.

Table 3.5

Summary of JTE Participant Information

Participant code	Gender	Teaching experience	Employment	Workplace	Academic background
JTE01	F	19 years	Part-time	Not singular	TESOL
JTE02	F	13 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.	TESOL
JTE03	F	26 years	Part-time	Not singular	TESOL
JTE04	F	17 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.	TESOL
JTE05	F	12 years	Full-time	Private univ.	Literature
JTE06*	M	11 years	Full-time	Public univ.	Literature
JTE07	F	13 years	Full-time	Private univ.	Literature
JTE08	M	28 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.	Literature
JTE09	F	13 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.	Non-English-related field
JTE10	M	14 years	Full-time	Private univ.	Linguistics
JTE11**	M	27 years	Full-time	Private univ.	English education
JTE12	F	11 years	Part-time	Not singular	TESOL

Note. *This participant also led a seminar course. **This participant was involved in an English teacher education program.

NJTE participants

Table 3.6 presents a summary of the NJTE participants. All of them had lived in Japan for more than 10 years, with the duration of residency varying from 10 to 35 years. The length of their teaching experience at Japanese universities varied from 7 to 30 years at the time of the interviews. Of the participants, 15 were full-time teachers with the remaining 7 working part-time. All the part-time teachers taught in two or more different universities. All the participants had undergone some form of English teacher education, such as a private language school program, a TESOL program, or a master's level English teacher education program. While their academic backgrounds varied at the undergraduate level, no members of the NJTE group solely specialized in linguistics or literature.

Table 3.6

Summary of NJTE Participant Information

Participant code	Gender	Duration of residency in Japan	Teaching experience	Employment	Workplace
NJTE01(Andy)	M	19 years	19 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.
NJTE02 (Brian)	M	14 years	12 years	Full-time	Public univ.
NJTE03(Christine)	F	24 years	21 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.
NJTE04	F	29 years	15 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.
NJTE05	F	32 years	22 years	Full-time	Private univ.
NJTE06	F	17 years	9 years	Full-time	Private univ.
NJTE07	F	25 years	25 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.
NJTE08	M	25 years	25 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.
NJTE09	M	25 years	21 years	Full-time	Private univ.
NJTE10	F	35 years	17 years	Part-time	Not singular
NJTE11	M	15 years	7 years	Part-time	Not singular
NJTE12	M	30 years	20 years	Full-time	Private univ.
NJTE13	M	16 years	12 years	Full-time	Private univ.
NJTE14	F	20 years	6 years	Full-time	Public univ.
NJTE15	M	16 years	11 years	Part-time	Not singular
NJTE16	F	31 years	30 years	Part-time	Not singular
NJTE17	M	27 years	21 years	Full-time	Private univ.
NJTE18	M	10 years	10 years	Part-time	Not singular
NJTE19	M	32 years	22 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.
NJTE20	F	21 years	9 years	Part-time	Not singular
NJTE21	M	10 years	8 years	Part-time	Not singular
NJTE22	M	25 years	15 years	Full-time	Nat'l univ.

Note. NJTE01, NJTE02, and NJTE03 were the participants in the preliminary study. Part-time teachers teach at two or more universities.

Instruments

In addition to a pre-interview questionnaire (see Appendices A1 and A2), the following three paper-based data collection instruments were used:

- List of teacher roles

- Mind map

- Time-series sheet

The first instrument was a list of teacher roles (see Appendices E1 and E2), where 12 roles from in the initial taxonomy developed in the preliminary study were listed on an A4 sheet of paper. It was expected that this list would help participants to understand what they were being asked about quickly and would facilitate reflection on their own roles. To avoid restricting participant reflections by providing examples, two additional blank spaces were added at the end of the list for participants to add their own ideas regarding their roles. The list of roles could then be updated with any new roles that participants added in the blank spaces as the data collection proceeded. This list was expected to help when conducting interviews about role perceptions within a limited length of time with more participants in the qualitative study.

The second instrument was a mind map sheet (Appendix C1). This technique was used in the preliminary study and it was also used in the main qualitative study.

The final instrument was a time series sheet (see Appendix F for a completed time-series sheet). This was used to allow participants to reflect on their previous role perceptions. On this sheet, the vertical axis indicated the perceived importance of roles—the top signified high importance, and the bottom signified low importance—and the horizontal axis indicated the time sequence—the far left signified the beginning of their university teaching career, and the far right signified the present. The participants chose certain roles that changed during their careers and depicted these changes in terms of importance. This was expected to make participants aware of the development of role perceptions and to help the author explore factors that caused the development.

Procedures

Before interviews, e-mails were exchanged with the participants to explain the purpose of the study. The meetings were scheduled after receiving written consent from

the participants (see Appendices D1 and D2), and interviews were conducted either at the participant's university office or at any place of their choosing.

Each interview followed the procedures below and lasted approximately 90 minutes.

(1) Small talk (rapport building) and explanation of the purpose of the study (oral consent) (approx. 10 min),

(2) review of a list of teacher roles (see Appendices E1, E2) and provision of a brief definition of each role (approx. 5 min),

(3) participants add other roles (if any) and select roles that they could perceive playing (approx. 5 min),

(4) participants rank the chosen items from the most important to least important (participants were allowed to select multiple roles for the same rank when they perceived those roles as having the same importance) (see Appendix E3 for an example) (approx. 5 min),

(5) participants draw a mind map (see Appendices C1 and C2) (approx. 15 min),

(6) participants explain the mind map (approx. 30 min), and

(7) participants reflect on changes in their role perceptions using a time-series sheet (see Appendix F). After completing the time-series sheet, the participants are asked to explore the reasons for the identified changes (approx. 20 min).

To obtain accounts for their role perceptions, questions such as "Why is it (a certain role) important?" and "When did you become aware of its importance?" were asked in (6) to determine whether participant explanations contained influential factors in the construction of role perceptions.

The following questions were then asked if the topics did not arise in the explanation of their role perceptions during the interviews:

(a) What do you do to motivate your students?

(b) Do you have freedom on what to teach and how to teach?

(c) Do you think that it is important to have Japanese language skills to be an effective teacher at a Japanese university?

(d) What do you think are some objectives of English education at Japanese universities?

These questions are related to the following: (a) students' motivation, (b) teachers' autonomy, (c) an instructional language, and (d) the purposes of university English education. These questions were prepared based on a review of the literature and the relevance of the research questions. Question (a) was asked because student motivation has been one of the challenges for university English teachers (Ushioda, 2013) (see Chapters 1 and 2). Question (b) was asked to determine whether or not these teachers generally have autonomy in their courses (Prichard & Moore, 2016) and whether or not the course content they designed was likely to influence their role perceptions. Question (c) was asked to contrast the two teacher groups. The final question was suggested by Matsuura et al. (2001) and by Shimo (2016, 2018), who found differences between JTEs and NJTEs in terms of their beliefs, arguing that differences in course objectives were one factor that caused these differences. Because the participants were likely to teach different courses, the overall objectives of a university English education were inquired about instead of the objectives of each course that they taught.

The interviews were conducted in the participants' first language (Japanese for JTEs and English for NJTEs). All the interviews were audio-recorded and subsequently transcribed verbatim for analysis. The participants were contacted via e-mail to ask for clarification when the meaning in the recorded data was unclear. Finally, unnecessary

data such as fillers, false starts, and hesitations were removed, which will be explained next.

Analysis

Two types of data analysis were conducted to account for the two types of data obtained. One was data regarding participants' role perceptions (from the instruments used during the interviews), while the other was interview transcriptions. The following explanation contains a description of how these two types of data were analyzed.

Role perceptions

To identify the role perceptions, a list of teacher roles that participants completed (*n* = 28[49]) was analyzed (see Appendix E3). First, all roles that participants perceived they played were extracted by hand. More specifically, new roles added by the participants using the blank spaces were identified. Then, a quantitative content analysis was conducted to identify roles that were commonly perceived as the most important by the participants. It is a type of qualitative data analysis whereby "researchers establish a set of categories and then count the number of instances that fall into each category (Silverman, 2001, p. 123). In this part of the analysis, roles written on the filled-out list of teacher roles that were ranked as most important were extracted and counted by hand. The participants were allowed to rank multiple roles as their first choice, meaning the number of roles perceived as most important was greater than the number of participants. The findings of this analysis were then presented numerically.

---

[49] Twelve JTEs and 16 NJTEs. Only 16 completed sheets were collected from the NJTEs. The first three participants had been involved in the preliminary study and did not use the list of teacher roles. Three other teachers used the list of teacher roles but chose not to rank them.

Influential factors in the construction of role perceptions

A thematic analysis was conducted using the interview transcripts. Thematic analysis is a qualitative data analysis method to "identif[y] themes in the data that capture meaning that is relevant to the research question" (Willig, 2014, p. 147). Thematic analysis focuses on meaning, and researchers examine the data to identify common themes, topics, and ideas that repeatedly appear across the dataset. Identified themes are then categorized into more abstract levels. In other words, researchers can discover key features relevant to different research participants using this method. Further, the method can go beyond each case and produce a more generic interpretation of the data that pertains to an entire participant group.

The reason for using thematic analysis was to determine influential factors in the construction of the role perceptions that are more relevant to these participants (as a group of university English teachers) rather than those specific to a given participant. Individual participants had their own unique experiences, and the beliefs and episodes that they conveyed were never the same as those of others. To determine influential factors on role perceptions more relevant to a wider population of university English teachers, it was preferable to extract meanings from what they said as themes rather than focusing on the details of any individual cases.

The analysis procedures followed the modified grounded theory approach (M-GTA; Kinoshita, 2003, 2007).[50] M-GTA is a systematic method that inductively constructs a theory or hypothesis as it emerges from the data and is a widely used data analysis method (Saiki, 2014). There have also been ELT studies using M-GTA in Japan (Kambaru, 2016; Nishida, 2012; Shibata, 2010; Shimamura, 2017). Shibata (2010), citing Kinoshita (2003),

---

[50] GTA is not merely a set of data collection and analysis methods or techniques for qualitative studies—it is an entire research methodology.

stated that the method is appropriate for explaining and predicting human behavior. Shimamura (2017) further argued that the method enables researchers to "obtain richer insights for categorization" (Shimamura, 2017, p. 199) by being informed with contextual information. Given that contextual information can help with interpreting the meanings of participant statements more accurately (Kinoshita, 2003), the M-GTA analysis procedures were used to identify common themes in the data (and the generation of theory or hypothesis was not intended).

The actual analysis is a bottom-up process and comprises two stages in the coding process: open coding and selective coding (Figure 3.1). As shown in Figure 3.1, open coding involves concept creation (the identification of themes), where concepts are created by identifying important themes in the raw data. In the selective coding stage, concepts are categorized into larger topics (categories and core-categories) to construct a grounded theory.
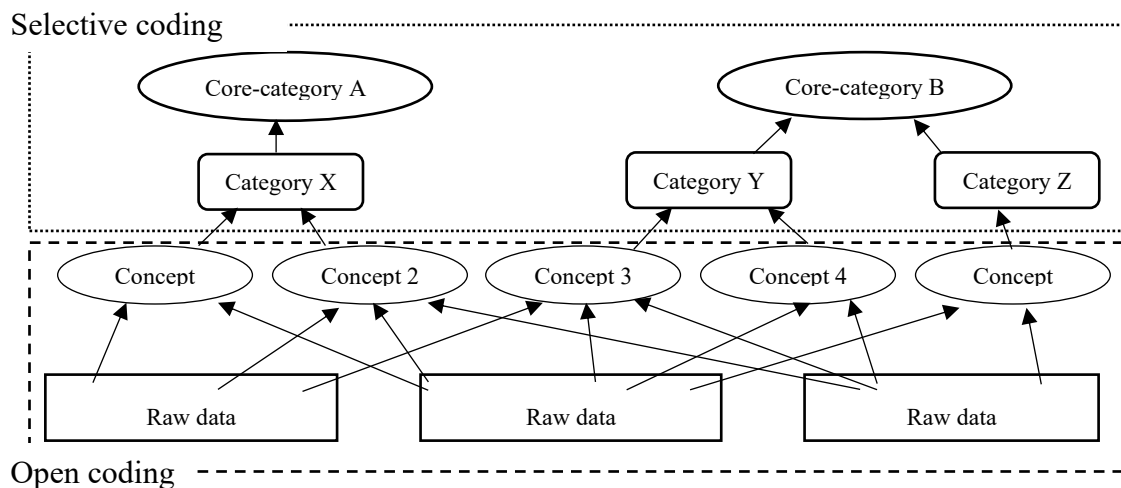
Figure 3.1. Visual diagram of the analysis procedures (Created based on Kinoshita, 2003).

Open coding consists of identifying *variations* and creating *concept. Variation* refers to actual data segments (identified themes), while *concept* refers to a group of similar

variations. After a variation is identified, similar variations are sought in other parts of the data obtained from other participants, known as a constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1996[51]), which are subsequently placed into a concept. During this process, systematic notes, referred to as an *analysis worksheet* (Figure 3.2) are recorded.

Concept	*Past language learning experience*
Definition	過去の（外国語）学習経験、教師が指導方法の基礎になること Teachers' past (foreign language) learning experiences and teachers shape the base of teaching styles.
Variations	● 私、最初英語の教員じゃなかったので。アメリカで英語、勉強したから、それもあって、やっぱり自分が ESL で教えられたようにやりたいっていうのがあって。 (I was not an English teacher at the beginning. I learned English in America. Because of that experience, I want to teach the way I was taught at an ESL school.) (JTE02, 34) ● これまでの英語の先生って全部覚えていますね。中学から大学まで。… 強く印象に残っていますよ、教え方についても。やっぱ、影響大きいでしょうね。やっぱそれが元になってるのは大きいと思いますね。 (I remember all the English teachers I had before, from junior high school until university… They gave me a strong impression. It influenced my teaching practices a great deal, which are based on my experiences.) (JTE05, 58)
Theoretical memo	<Opposite examples> ● 私は英語好きだったので、思い返す中学校も高校の英語の先生もみんな大好きなんですけれども。申し訳ないですが反面教師ですよね。 (I liked English, so I liked all the English teachers I had, but they are examples of how not to do it, sorry to say.) (JTE04, 58) ● 教えられたように教えるって言いますからね。やっぱり違うとは思います。訳読が多かったですからね。それは今はやらないですから。リーディングの授業やっても。ですので、教授法っていうことに関して言うと、やっぱり変えていると思います。 (It's often said that we teach in ways we were taught, but I think differently. Grammar translation was the focus. We don't use that now, even in reading classes. So, regarding teaching method, it's different.) (JTE03, 55)

Figure 3.2. Analysis worksheet for the concept "past language learning experience." The wavy line indicates an omission from the sheet.

Figure 3.2 depicts the actual analytical worksheet used in this main qualitative study. In the worksheet, the concept name was provided in the first row from the top ("past

---

[51] The original work was published in 1967, and the Japanese translation was published in 1996. As the source is the Japanese translation the publication year of the translation is cited.

language learning experience"). The definition of the concept was provided in the second row. Variations are recorded in the third row. Data segments where participants talked about the influences of past learning experiences while explaining their role perceptions were stored in this space. For example, the data segment "I was not an English teacher at the beginning. I learned English in America. Because of that experience, I want to teach the way I was taught at an ESL school" was recorded as a variation. In the fourth row, which is labeled as *theoretical notes*, researcher notes regarding opposite examples of variations were stored. For example, the no-influence or negative influence of "past language learning experience" was expressed in "I liked English, so I liked all the English teachers I had, but they are examples of how not to do it, sorry to say." The data segments were accompanied by the location in the data with participant codes (such as JTE02 or JTE04) and numbers indicating the line in the data (such as 34 or 58). The analysis was a bottom-up process. Variations were identified first and their concept name and definition were provided after that. Analysis worksheets were created every time a new concept was established.

After open coding, selective coding was implemented, which involves the categorization of concepts. With analysis worksheets and memos, one concept is compared with other concepts, and all concepts are then systematically grouped into *categories* (Kinoshita, 2003). Categories were subsequently compared to each other and grouped into *core-categories* (Kinoshita, 2003).

In the main qualitative study, member checking and researcher triangulation were also conducted to ensure credibility of the analysis (Figure 3.3). After the initial concepts were identified in the data from the first three participants, variations from the author's interpretations were sent to each of the three participants via e-mail. The participants then verified that the interpretations were correct (member checking). The interpretations were

also checked by an applied linguist (researcher triangulation). After all the initial concepts were identified with the remainder of the participants ($n = 31$), the applied linguist checked my interpretation again (researcher triangulation). After the selective coding, the applied linguist reviewed the categorization again (researcher triangulation).

```
                        ┌─────────────────────┐
                        │     Open coding      │
                        │      (n = 3)         │
                        └─────────────────────┘
                    ↙                          ↘
    ┌─────────────────────┐      ┌─────────────────────────┐
    │   Member-checking    │      │ Researcher triangulation │
    └─────────────────────┘      └─────────────────────────┘
                    ↘                          ↙
                        ┌─────────────────────┐
                        │     Open coding      │
                        │      (n = 31)        │
                        └─────────────────────┘
                                  ↓
                        ┌─────────────────────────┐
                        │ Researcher triangulation │
                        └─────────────────────────┘
                                  ↓
                        ┌─────────────────────┐
                        │   Selective coding   │
                        └─────────────────────┘
                                  ↓
                        ┌─────────────────────────┐
                        │ Researcher triangulation │
                        └─────────────────────────┘
```
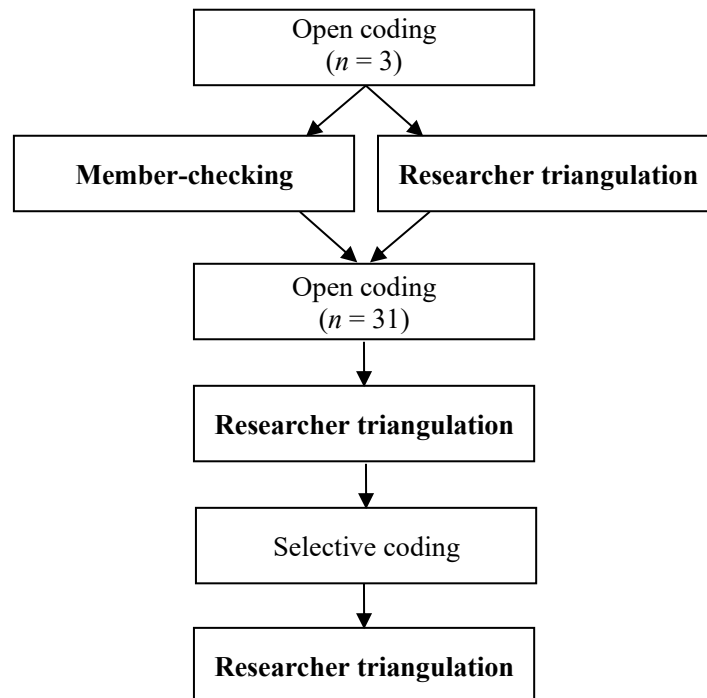
Figure 3.3. Strategies used to ensure the credibility of the analysis. The processes expressed with letters in **boldface** indicate the implemented strategies.

3.2.2 Findings

In this section, a taxonomy of the 28 participants' role perceptions is presented, including an indication of roles that were perceived as being the most important. The findings of the thematic analysis are then described. The concepts are illustrated with sample excerpts from the data (variations). Subsequently, the question of how these concepts formed (core-) categories is explained. Finally, the established categories are compared with Borg's (2006) framework.

Role perceptions

Table 3.7 displays all the roles the participants selected (or added) on a list of teacher roles, where it can be observed that 22 roles were perceived by 28 participants. Among these 22 roles, (1)–(6) and (8)–(13) were the same roles that were identified in the preliminary study. The additional 10 roles of (7) and (14)–(22) were newly identified.

Table 3.7

Roles that the Participants Perceived to Play (n = 28)

(1) English expert	(2) Cultural representative	(3) Lecturer (Transmitter of knowledge)
(4) Facilitator	(5) Designer	(6) Native speaker of English
(7) Japanese	(8) Language model (including communication model)	(9) Motivator
(10) Caregiver (Discipliner)	(11) Entertainer	(12) Assessor
(13) Learning advisor	(14) Organizer (Prompter)	(15) Counsellor
(16) Coach/mentor	(17) Socializer (Event organizer)	(18) Administrator (Outside the class)
(19) Vendor (To sell good English education)	(20) Researcher*	(21) Friend
(22) Actor		

Note. *Researcher in this context does refer to academic/scientific researchers, it means research for lesson preparation. The definitions were not provided for newly identified roles.[52]

Similar to the findings in the preliminary study, these newly identified roles differed in terms of the level of abstraction. Roles such as (14) and (15) can represent what

---

[52] The focus was to explore influential factors. Hence, asking about them took priority over talking about how participants enacted or defined these roles.

teachers do, whereas roles such as (21) and (22) cannot represent teacher behavior. The role of (22) was rather metaphorical and suggested that teaching resembles a performance.

Among the 10 newly identified role perceptions, similarities with previous findings were observed in 4 of them. Here, (14), (17), and (19) could be considered similar to communication controller, socializer, and vendor in Farrell (2011), respectively. Further, (20) could be considered similar to the researcher in Atai et al. (2018). The remainder of the role perceptions (including (7), (15), (16), (18), (21), and (22)) were not observed in previous studies.

Table 3.8 presents a summary of the roles perceived as the most important by each participant, where it can be observed that identified role perceptions were different in terms of perceived importance. Of the 28 roles, 12 were perceived as the most important (listed on the left). Total responses by both the JTE and NJTE groups are reported.

Table 3.8

Summary of the Most Important Teacher Roles

Most important roles	Total ($n = 28$)		JTE ($n = 12$)		NJTE ($n = 16$)	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Facilitator	14	50.0%	5	41.6%	9	56.3%
Motivator	8	28.6%	5	41.6%	3	18.8%
English expert	5	17.9%	2	16.7%	3	18.8%
Lecturer (Transmitter of knowledge)	3	10.7%	1	8.3%	2	12.5%
Language model	3	10.7%	2	16.7%	1	6.3%
Cultural representative	2	7.1%	2	16.7%	0	-
Designer	2	7.1%	0	-	2	12.5%
Learning advisor	2	7.1%	0	-	2	12.5%
Organizer	1	3.6%	0	-	1	6.3%
Entertainer	1	3.6%	1	8.3%	0	-
Japanese	1	-	1	8.3%	n/a	
Native speaker	1	-	n/a		1	6.3%

Note. Multiple responses were allowed. Percentages include consideration of participants.

Looking at the total responses, 50% of the participants (*n* = 28) thought *facilitator* was the most important role. *Motivator* was selected by 28.6%, followed by *English expert* (17.9%), *lecturer* (10.7%), *language model* (10.7%), *cultural representative* (7.1%), *designer* (7.1%), and *learning advisor* (7.1%). Although *organizer*, *entertainer*, *Japanese*, and *native speaker* were chosen as most important, this was only by a few participants.

The participants were more likely to be slightly oriented to learner-centered instructions. This was assumed by the number of responses for *facilitator* and *motivator*. However, teacher-centered roles were not completely neglected, as seen in responses for *English expert* and *lecturer* (*transmitter of knowledge*). This suggested that participant role perceptions were not completely teacher centered or learner centered.

A comparison of JTEs and NJTEs revealed differences between them. Although both groups of teachers perceived *facilitator* as the most important role, the tendency was slightly different between the groups in that the proportion of JTEs who chose *facilitator* was smaller. Moreover, the proportion of JTEs who chose *motivator* was the same as for *facilitator*, whereas fewer NJTEs chose *motivator*. The proportion of JTEs who chose *lecturer* was smaller than for NJTEs. Although previous studies characterized JTEs as lecture oriented (Nagatomo, 2011), this was not evident in the present study. *Language model* and *cultural representative* were mostly chosen by JTEs, whereas none of the NJTEs chose *cultural representative* as being most important. While this could easily have been done by NJTEs, they did not perceive this role as most important. By contrast, only NJTEs chose *designer*, *learning advisor*, and *organizer*. This is because these can be roles in a learner-centered approach, with the responses implying that NJTEs may be slightly oriented toward learner-centered instructions.

In summary, the most important roles were both teacher- and learner-centered. The findings also suggested that NJTEs may have slightly more learner-centered instructional orientations, as evidenced in the response pattern for the roles of *facilitator*, *designer*, *learning advisor*, and *organizer*. However, this analysis is part of a qualitative study, and the number of participants was far too small to allow generalization of the results.

Influential factors in the construction of role perceptions

For influential factors, themes were identified and categorized into the three levels of abstraction: Concepts (open coding), categories (selective coding 1), and core-categories (selective coding 2). As a result, 20 concepts, 8 categories, and 5 core-categories were drawn. Each process is depicted below with the concepts explained first.

Concepts: Results of opening coding

Table 3.9 presents the 20 concepts and definitions created with open coding. In the following, the participant statements that constitute these concepts will be explained. The explanations include the concept name, the number of variations and opposite examples (data segments), definitions, and variations to illustrate the concepts. Only representative variations are presented for brevity, while all variations and opposite examples for all the concepts are presented in Appendix G.

Table 3.9

List of Concepts and Definitions: Findings of Open Coding

Concept number	Concept name	Definitions
1	*Past language learning experiences*	Teachers' past (foreign) language learning experiences and prior teachers.
2	*Teacher education and training*	Teachers' experiences of undergraduate and graduate teacher education or the teacher training programs provided by employers or academic associations.
3	*Involvement with teacher organizations*	Teachers' experiences of attending conferences and workshops.
4	*Self-study*	Teachers' self-study experiences for improving teaching skills.
5	*Discussion with coworkers*	Teachers learning through advice from and discussion with other teachers.
6	*Struggles and challenges as a novice teacher*	Teachers' experiences as a novice teacher.
7	*Trial and error in the classroom*	Teachers' experiences of teaching throughout their career.
8	*Beliefs about English as a tool for communication*	Teachers' convictions that they are teaching English as a tool for communication.
9	*Beliefs about creating a learning environment*	Teachers' convictions that teachers are responsible for creating a learning environment.
10	*Beliefs about learner-centeredness*	Teachers' convictions that learning is a student responsibility.
11	*Beliefs about grammar teaching*	Teachers' convictions that they must teach grammar rules to students.
12	*Self as Japanese with English ability (JTE)* *Self as a native English speaker (NJTE)*	Teachers' perceptions about themselves having English abilities (JTEs). Teachers' perceptions about themselves being native speakers of English (NJTEs).
13	*Self as a foreigner living in Japan (NJTE)*	Teachers' experiences of living in Japan have greatly influenced their teaching practices and perceptions.
14	*Attrition of cultural background*	Teachers' understanding of themselves as someone who has lost their cultural identity.
15	*Self as someone getting older*	Teachers' understanding of themselves as someone who is becoming older.
16	*Expectations from the university*	Teachers' feelings that they must change their teaching due to university pressure.
17	*Expectations from the students*	Teachers' feelings that they must change their teaching because of student pressure.
18	*Characteristics of Japanese people*	Teachers' impressions of Japanese people in general.
19	*Characteristics of Japanese students*	Teachers' impressions of Japanese students in general.
20	*Lack of students' motivation to learn English and/or purpose for English learning*	Teachers' awareness of their students' low motivation and/or lack of purpose for learning English.

Note. The order of the concepts was reordered for succinct presentation of the results. The list is not the same as the temporal order of the actual concept creation. It should also be noted that finalized concept names are used. During the data analysis, I relabeled concept names as the analysis progressed.

1. *Past language learning experiences* (6 variations/ 8 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' past (foreign) language learning experiences and teachers shape the base of teaching styles. This concept was established with variations such as the following:

> 私、最初英語の教員じゃなかったので。アメリカで英語、勉強したから、それもあって、やっぱり自分が ESL で教えられたようにやりたいっていうのがあって。
> (I was not an English teacher at the beginning. I learned English in America. Because of that experience, I want to teach the way I was taught at an ESL school.) (JTE02)

JTE02 clearly expressed that JTE02's classroom experiences shaped her teaching practices. In the following variation, NJTE16 experienced a model language teacher when she was in university. Although it was unclear whether she used the same teaching methods as her former teacher, it showed the influence of NJTE16's teacher on NJTE16.

> She (NJTE16's former teacher) might have been the first model, but maybe the real model was in college. When I was a French major, I had a French teacher who was really a model. I mean he was incredible – he made it so interesting, he became a motivator and he was, yes, he was fabulous. (NJTE16)

Teachers' past [foreign] language learning experiences do not necessarily function as positive influence, but negative influences can be influential on teachers' role perceptions. There were teachers who recalled their classroom experiences as learners as more negative, or they tried to not to model their former teachers. For example, NJTE12 remembered that he did not learn a foreign language when he was in schools.

> Thinking about my own experiences of learning a language, I didn't respond very well to the very one way didactic methods of the teacher in a way that I learned. (NJTE12)

In the following, JTE04 commented that her past teachers were negative examples for her. JTE04 commented:

私は英語好きだったので、思い返す中学校も高校の英語の先生もみん
な大好きなんですけれども。申し訳ないですが反面教師ですよね。
(I liked English, so I liked all the English teachers I had, but they are
examples of how not to do it, sorry to say.) (JTE04)

These variations showing both positive and negative influence indicated that past
language learning experiences can influence the participants' conceptions of teaching,
including their role perceptions. In this way, the concept of past language learning
experience was established.

2. *Teacher education and training* (8 variations/ 4 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as the teachers' experiences of undergraduate and graduate
teacher education or the teacher training programs provided by employers or academic
associations. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

I still view myself as a facilitator, and I try to follow that. And my
MA course made a very strong impression on me. (NJTE15)

In NJTE15's case, it was evident that the educational program he completed affected his
perception as a facilitator, which stayed with him ever since.

Similar comments were also made by JTE participants. JTE12, for example, talked
about the significant influence of *teacher education and training* on her teaching as
follows:

TESOLに入ったんですけど、そこでの経験ですね。そこでやっぱり習
ったことっていうのは、大学で教えることに関しては非常に影響を与
えてくれてます。
(Things I learned [during TESOL program] have influenced me a
great deal regarding my teaching at the university level.) (JTE12)

In other cases, *teacher education and training* did not affect teaching practices. An
opposite example can be seen in the following:

教え始めた頃って結構、教職の知識もあんまりない。役に立たないというか覚えてないという。
(When I started teaching, I did not really have lots of knowledge of pedagogy. Or perhaps I should say I didn't remember a thing.)
(JTE06)

As indicated in these comments above, the influence of *teacher education and training* was noticeable in many participants' remarks, and thus the concept was established. In addition, *teacher education and training* included any pre-service teacher education programs which the participants participated in when they started their teaching careers (e.g., teacher preparatory courses, teacher education courses in undergraduate and graduate programs, and courses provided by private language schools). Although the content and length of these programs varied, they were all included in the same concept because even short programs can have a strong influence, as in NJTE12's case.

3. *Involvement with teacher organizations* (6 variations/ 3 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as the participants' experiences of attending professional conferences and workshops. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

I have been involved with a teacher organization for the last 20 years or so. Through that, little by little, I have become more aware of what I have been doing. (NJTE17)

By attending events such as conferences and workshops, NJTE17 enhanced his understanding of his work.

In the following example, JTE09 regarded herself as a facilitator and stated that her role perceptions were reinforced by attending a professional development workshop. She commented:

アクティブラーニングのワークショップはとっても面白くて、まさに
ファシリテイターの部分が勉強になりましたね。
(A workshop on active learning was really interesting. That's exactly
what I do—facilitate. I learned a lot from it.) (JTE09)

As a result of these variations, *involvement with teacher organizations* was established as a concept.

4. *Self-study* (5 variations/ 2 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' self-study experiences to improve teaching skills. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

Q: Do you think your roles have changed during your career? What
brought you such changes?
A: Yes… Maybe a lot of reading. Reading about studies and
approaches, like psychology. (NJTE14)

Q: これまで教えてこられて、ご自分の教師役割が変わったと思われ
ますか。またそのきっかけは何でしょうか。
(Do you think your roles have changed during your career? What
brought you such changes?)
A: 読むことですね。特に SLA の本読むようになってから。
(Reading, especially, after I started reading about second language
acquisition.) (JTE11)

NJTE14 and JTE11 talked about their self-study when they were asked about changes in their role perceptions, indicating that gaining new knowledge could change how they perceived their teaching roles.

5. *Discussion with coworkers* (9 variations/ 0 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' learning through advice from and discussion with other teachers, including observations of other teachers' classes. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

最初は、もともとおられた先生方に最初はどういう授業をしてらっしゃるかを聞いて、それを全部まねていたんですよね。
(At the beginning, I asked teachers who had already been here about how they taught. And I imitated everything they said.) (JTE05)

This variation clearly showed that JTE05 learned teaching skills by following what her predecessors did.

The following variation indicated that NJTE19 benefitted from both class observation and discussion with other teachers. NJTE19 remarked:

> I worked with other teachers, Japanese teachers. I think that's how I have learned, by observing, talking to, seeing other teachers … I think the way I have developed teaching skills is by observing and talking with other teachers. That worked really well for me. (NJTE19)

Both JTE05 and NJTE19 only commented on teaching skills and techniques, but through this, they learned what to do in class and how to do it. Thus, their role perceptions were likely influenced by watching other teachers teach. Using all the variations just alluded to, the concept *discussion with coworkers* was established.

6. Struggles and challenges as a novice teacher (3 variations/ 0 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' experiences as a novice teacher. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> I didn't like it [my initial classroom experience]. I would just get angry at the students because of their attitude and everything. And I realized that I had to change [my teaching style]. I couldn't keep going like that. I had to do something different so they would react differently. (NJTE08)

As these excerpts illustrate, NJTE08's expectations for the class were challenged by the reality of the situation, which made him feel like he had to change himself as a teacher.

In the following, NJTE15 also had to reconceptualize teaching when he taught Japanese university students and adjust his roles as an English teacher to be more of a guide. NJTE15 noted:

> They [the students] have studied English in junior high and high school. I thought it would be easy to teach them, and I thought they would be more mature. So my first university teaching experience… The reality is…well, they were not adults yet. I need to be more of a guide and in some cases, maybe, hold their hand a little bit and help them… In my first and second year of teaching, I realized my expectation and reality were not the same; reality was very different. (NJTE15)

As seen in these examples, teachers' early experiences shape and reshape their behaviors and attitudes as English teachers.

7. *Trial and error in the classroom* (5 variations/ 0 opposite examples)

This concept referred to teachers' experiences of teaching throughout their careers. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> I could just not be very good at things. It could take me longer than most people, but trial and error over a long period of time, that's the most important thing… My beliefs came from really just my experience, just it was a long slow process, and it is still happening. (NJTE09)

NJTE09 recounted his negative classroom experiences, describing them as learning opportunities. As NJTE09 commented, classroom experiences keep reshaping teachers' perceptions.

In the following example, JTE03, who perceived herself as a motivator, explained that she gained confidence through classroom experiences. JTE03 explained:

> やっぱり経験でやることはものすごく多いです。授業で経験したから
> 今のやり方があるって感じです。

(There are many things that I do based on my experiences. I gained
my teaching style from my experiences in class.) (JTE03)

Thus, trial and error can be seen as an ongoing process that continues to influence participants' role perceptions.

8. *Beliefs about English as a tool for communication* (5 variations/ 1 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' conviction that they were teaching English as a tool for communication. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> [I hope to change] their mindset. English is not a subject. It's a tool of communicating, not just talking but communicating with someone. (NJTE07)

> 英語がコミュニケーションのために、意思伝達のために使われている
> ということを教えていかないといけないと思うんですよ。それをやっ
> ぱり共通教育の英語の授業できちんと学生に伝えていかないといけな
> いですよね。
> (We have to teach students the fact that English is used for communication. That is the purpose of English courses in general education curriculum.) (JTE11)

In these variations, these participants explicitly indicated that the purpose of learning English was communication. NJTE10 and JTE11 contrasted English as a tool of communication with English as a subject. The variations imply that students tend to see English as only a subject and that changing students' mindset is one of the challenges facing teachers.

9. Beliefs about creating a learning environment (8 variations/ 0 opposite examples)

This concept referred to teachers' conviction that teachers are responsible for creating a learning environment. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> I would say entertainer, yes. I try to make the students laugh in my class to give a much lighter atmosphere. I am not much for yelling at them. (NJTE04)

In this variation, NJTE04 explained that NJTE04 creates a light atmosphere for students by playing entertainer role.

In the following, NJTE12 used the expression "create the environment" to describe his job, and related it to his role as a guide and supporter. NJTE12 noted:

> My basic philosophy is, "Don't be a barrier to the students learning. Set them up with something and get out of the way, and let them take control of how much or how well they want to do." … My role is to guide them and support them, create the environment, create the mindset, so that they can do it by themselves. (NJTE12)

The variations suggest that these participants believed that a teacher's role was to create a learning environment and that learning was effective when students were in a positive psychological state.

10. Beliefs about learner-centeredness (5 variations/ 0 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' conviction that learning was a student responsibility. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> It's up to them to learn; it is up to me to create an environment and activities and to watch them carefully and to give them constant feedback. I cannot learn for them. They've got to learn for themselves. (NJTE09)

According to NJTE09, creating an environment is the teacher's job, and learning is the student's job. JTE09 and NJTE14 had similar beliefs:

> 学生が自分でスキルアップをしていかないとどうしようもないので、教師のできる役割っていうのは、ファシリテイターに限られてるっていうか、外から学生が学ぶ過程を援助してやるっていうこと以外に以上にはあまり踏み込めないかなと思ってます。
> (Students have to improve their skills by themselves. The role that teachers can play is limited to facilitator. We can only support their learning processes from the outside. There is not much we can do other than that.) (JTE09)

> You can only guide them [the students] by giving them the right tools, whether that is the right materials or the right motivation or whatever those tools are. All that you can do is to sort of give those tools to the students and then guide them in using them. (NJTE14)

JTE09 emphasized that students have to improve by themselves, and NJTE14 stressed that teachers cannot control what students do or learn. Both variations highlighted the importance of students taking the initiative to learn. In other parts of the interview responses, phrases like "students have to be responsible" were common.

11. Beliefs about grammar teaching (2 variations/ 1 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' conviction that they had to teach grammar rules to students. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> やっぱり文法とか、本文でこの副詞節とか、節はここからここまでだとかそういう文法的な知識というのは日本語でやったほういいんですよね。そのほうが断然効率がいいと思うんです。英語でたくさん例を出して、学生に抽象化させるよりも、まず抽象的な概念として日本語で説明した上で事例を紹介するっていうふうにしないと、時間が限られているんでね。
> (Grammar or grammatical knowledge like adverbial clauses, or where such clauses end in the reading passages, should be instructed in Japanese. It is absolutely more efficient than giving a lot of examples and having students figure out such abstract concepts. Teachers should explain abstract concepts in Japanese first and then give examples because class time is limited.) (JTE06)

文法はやっぱ教えないといけない。そしたら関係代名詞とか受動態は、学生にとって難しいんですよ。そういうときに今日難しいのやりますよとか授業の始めに言ったりするんです。で、日本語にこういう文法が無いから難しいんですよ。だけん難しいのはみんな一緒ですよ。当然できないんだから初めてなんで前向きにやりましょうっていう感じで。そういうのって日本人教師にしかできんから。

(We have to teach grammar. Relative clauses and passive constructions are difficult for Japanese. At the beginning of the class, I occasionally say things like "we are learning difficult items today" and explain, "They are difficult because English and Japanese are different. It is difficult for all the Japanese, so learn it with a positive attitude." That is what only Japanese teachers can do.) (JTE07)

Teachers such as JTE06 and JTE07 above, believed that teaching grammar was one aspect of their job. In these excerpts, they used words like "teach" and "instruct" in relation to grammar, and it was quite evident that they advocated explicit grammar instruction. Such beliefs appeared to be related to certain role perceptions (e.g., the lecturer and the English expert). Interestingly, beliefs about grammar teaching were only mentioned by JTEs (see Appendix G), this may suggest that this influence can result in the differences in the role perceptions between JTEs and NJTEs if any.

12. *Self as Japanese with English ability (JTE)/ Self as a native English speaker (NJTE)* (8 variations/ 3 opposite examples)

This concept had two definitions. For JTEs, the definition was teachers' understanding of themselves as having English abilities, and for NJTEs, the definition was teachers' understanding about themselves as native speakers of English. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

なんか英語を使うモデルという感じですかね。「日本人だけど、こんなに英語が使える」っていうか。そうやって動機づけになると思うんですよね。わりと学生さんからそういうコメントももらう「先生みたいになりたい」とか、そういうコメントが。外国人の先生とは違うコメントがありますので。

(It's like a model of a Japanese person who uses English. "I am Japanese but I can use English like this." It could motivate students.

In fact, I get comments from students, like "I want to become like you."
I get comments different from those foreign teachers get.) (JTE04)

As seen, JTE04 perceived herself as a fluent English speaker, and it influenced her role perceptions as a model for students.

NJTEs participants also commented on their language identity. The following variations demonstrated that they served as language models in relation to their identities as native speakers:

They [the students] need a native speaker as a model. I am guiding them towards what they need to strive for, which is more fluent and practical English. (NJTE15)

I am a native speaker. The pronunciation of a native English speaker is so valuable, so important. It is a major point to be a native English speaker because of pronunciation and because of the culture. (NJTE21)

These participants regarded themselves as models for English pronunciation: Both NJTE15 and NJTE21 believed being a native speaker was important for them and their students.

By contrast, there were NJTEs who mentioned their language identity, but they did not think that being a native speaker provided them any advantages as a model; in fact, it was an antimodel:

As a model, my role is actually weaker because I am just like watching a TV. I can model, and I can show them a foreigner speaking, but I look just like a movie. I sound just like a CD. I am a model but an antimodel. This is where you can come eventually, but you are never going to be me because you didn't grow up 50 years ago in Canada. (NJTE13)

Most of my students won't be talking to native speakers anyway. They will be talking to other people whose language is English as a lingua franca. So I think it is not an advantage to teach the native English norms. (NJTE16)

This revealed the divergence in teachers' role perceptions in relation to being a language model and a native speaker. However, these variations demonstrated that NJTEs' awareness of their nativeness and that their awareness did influence role perceptions.

13. *Self as a foreigner living in Japan (NJTE)* (4 variations/ 0 opposite examples)

This concept applied only to NJTE participants. This concept was defined as participants' experiences living in Japan greatly influencing their teaching practices and perceptions. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> I give students survival skills and communication management techniques that are necessary to communicate. I'm thinking [to] myself, "What can they take from this class to bring and go outside" … [In everyday life], I am trying to communicate. I am not so high [in Japanese], so I have to struggle. And there are situations that I don't understand, but I have to understand. I have no choice. I have to do something and to try to understand. A lot of students will have the same problems using English outside, so I tell them, "These are some things you can do to manage these kinds of problems." (NJTE08)

NJTE08 clearly stated that he "gave survival skills and communication management techniques" because he needed such skills in his life.

Similar experiences were described by NJTE 19. NJTE19 explained:

> I use my incomplete second language every day, and that's why my focus is what it is, I think. Well, that's what I need. I need to check. I need to be appropriate. I need to ask for words. I need to ask for things I don't know. I need to repeat phrases to make sure they are correct… I don't use English except in the classroom. You know, those things affect my view of my role. (NJTE19)

Their experiences influenced the content and practices of their lessons, which in turn influenced their role perceptions. Based on these variations, the concept of *self as a foreigner living in Japan* was established.

14. *Attrition of cultural background* (3 variations/ 0 opposite examples)

This concept applied only to NJTEs. This concept was defined as teachers'

understanding of themselves as someone who have been losing their cultural identity. The

concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> One of the things that is probably consistent with some of the people
> you have met is their inability to be representative of another culture,
> because I have been in Japan for so long. I have been in Japan for over
> 20 years. I also worked in the UK very recently and really felt I
> actually represented more of Japanese culture than the UK when I
> went to the UK. (NJTE22)

> I am kind of in a difficult place because culturally, I am American,
> but I have lived in Japan for 32 years, so there are a lot of things that
> I don't know about the American culture. (NJTE05)

> When I first came, I was someone representing someone from
> England or whatever. But my students, probably most of my students
> don't know which country I come from. (NJTE17)

There were NJTE participants who had lived in Japan long enough that they had almost

lost their original cultural identity. NJTE22 was originally from the UK, but he confessed

he felt that he represented Japanese culture more than the British culture because he had

lived in Japan for so long. Similarly, NJTE05 felt there was a lot she did not know about

American culture. As NJTE17 remarked, NJTEs might have played the role of cultural

representative when they first came to Japan, but gradually that role decreased.

15. *Self as someone getting older* (6 variations/ 0 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' understanding of themselves as someone

getting older. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> 歌のユニットのところは、すごいやりやすいユニットだったんですよ。
> ところが、ここ数年うまくいかなくなってきたのが、私と学生の世代

> ギャップが大きくなってまったく共通項がなくなったっていうのがあ
> ると思うんです。
> (A song unit used to be a very easy unit to teach, but it has not gone
> well for the last several years because of the age gap between the
> students and me. We have nothing in common about music.) (JTE01)

> I used to think it was important to be in class and be genki,[53] for
> example, a big smile, and so forth. Not anymore. My next birthday is
> 50, and I don't do that because of just less energy… I used to think it
> was very important to be entertaining. (NJTE22)

JTE01's remarks imply that age differences could influence her teaching practice, and NJTE22 admitted that he had "less energy" to do the same things as he did when he was younger. Thus, he no longer played the role of entertainer. The following variation shows that parental experiences as well as age can influence role perceptions:

> My motherly experience gets involved. When the students are not
> motivated, come to school late, and don't do their homework. I said
> to them, "Who is paying for your tuition?" "Oh, my parents" [the
> students responded]. "And they both work, right?" "Yes." And I used
> to tell them, "Kawaiso [poor parents]. You are not trying hard. Your
> parents are trying hard for you." Yes, [I perform] all these roles:
> motivator, care giver. (NJTE04)

As illustrated here, *self as someone getting older* can diminish certain role perceptions and raise or reinforce other role perceptions.

16. *Expectations from the university* (4 variations/ 3 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' feeling that they must change their teaching because the university wants them to do so. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> Definitely, I was an entertainer and motivator. My identity as a native
> speaker and cultural ambassador was the main reason why I was hired.

---

[53] Genki is a Japanese word that means cheerful and energetic.

They [the university] told me that…I think they wanted this [motivator]. (NJTE01)

I think my main role at the moment is being a native speaker... That's why I'm in the job. (NJTE10)

Both NJTE01 and NJTE10 expressed that their universities' expectation that native speakers should be hired was obvious. In NJTE01's case, the university's expectation was directly related to his roles as an English teacher, entertainer, and motivator. In this category, almost all variations were found in the data from NJTEs, and they all concerned being a native speaker.

17. *Expectations from the students* (6 variations/ 0 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' feeling that they must change their teaching because the students want them to do so. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

I am a native speaker, and they [students] are expecting something from that. They are expecting me to model an accent or speak in perfect grammar or something. So I think that is a high expectation of the students that they want a native speaker. (NJTE20)

I think students also might expect sometimes that the native speaker teaches them the speaking part [of TOEFL], too. (NJTE01)

NJTE20 and NJTE01 both felt that their students expected them to be language models. In both cases, it was unclear whether they were directly told this by their students. However, regardless, such expectations could influence their perceptions concerning their teaching roles.

18. Characteristics of Japanese people (3 variations/ 1 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' impressions of Japanese people in general.

The concept was created based on the following variations:

> At the other very basic level, there is still a lot of degree of stigma and fear with especially young people of foreigners. They are afraid of foreigners. (NJTE21)

> [My role is] to help people communicate with foreigners, frankly. And that's something that Japanese are not very good at, unfortunately. (NJTE10)

> If a foreigner comes up to a Japanese person on the street and asks a question or they ask something in a shop, they often get very hesitant to reply. (NJTE20)

Remarks like these were noticeable in the data obtained from the NJTEs. They wanted their students to overcome their weaknesses, and they were happy to take on a foreigner role to achieve this.

19. Characteristics of Japanese students (9 variations/ 2 opposite examples)

This concept referred to teachers' impressions of Japanese students in general. The concept was created based on the following and similar variations:

> Students in Japan are kind of passive; they are used to not doing anything unless they are told to do it. And if they are told to do it, they do it, but they are afraid of mistakes. (NJTE08)

> 今日日の学生は、いつの時代も「近頃の若者は」と言うのかもしれないですが、ちょっと幼稚化が進んでいますよね。言われていることがちゃんと理解できないとか。指示されていることがわからないとか。で、学生が甘やかされてますよね。
> (Recently, students are becoming more childish. They do not understand what is being said to them. They don't understand instructions. They are too spoiled.) (JTE01)

> I noticed that, in Japan, those between 18 to 21, that kind of age group, are much more immature than in any other country. (NJTE21)

最近の大学生はマチュアじゃないですね。本当にノットマチュ・マチュです。なぜかっていうと、手取り足取りしてやらないといけない。(Pointing to care provider role on her mind map sheet) (Students are not mature, really not mature. I have to spoon-feed them.) (JTE12)

NJTE08 talked about the passive attitudes of Japanese students, and JTE01, NJTE21, and JTE12 discussed the immaturity of Japanese university students. JTE12 described how she had to act as a care provider, as if she were her students' parent. As these variations show, the participants adjusted their roles as teachers to match their students' needs.

20. *Lack of student motivation to learn English and/or purpose for English learning*

    (11 variations/ 0 opposite examples)

This concept was defined as teachers' awareness of their students' low motivation and/or lack of purpose for learning English. The concept was created based on variations such as the following:

> They cannot see how they are going to use English...Saying that, teaching required English classes and trying to motivate them, you know... I had to become more of a motivator for my classes here. (NJTE07)

> They are not very motivated students, so sometimes I do entertaining things. I don't like to do that. Well, I mean, I don't mind doing it, but I would rather have them be engaged by the lesson. That is the best lesson, if I have done nothing silly to get their attention, and they have been completely focused. (NJTE09)

NJTE09's role was strongly influenced by having to deal with low motivation and interest among students. Based on this and other variations on this idea, the concept of *lack of motivation to learn English and/or no purpose for English learning* was established

As explained in Figure 3.3 in Section 3.2.1, these concepts were subjected to researcher triangulation, in which the experienced applied linguist reviewed the concepts

and variations with the filled-out worksheets. These concepts were subsequently categorized, as explained next.

Categories: Results of selective coding 1

Selective coding was performed for creating the categories. During the process, concepts were constantly compared and concepts with relevant themes were grouped into eight categories. The results of the selective coding are presented in Table 3.10, the table contains the names of the established categories and concepts that were included in each category with the definitions of the concepts. In the following, the process of how these categories were established is described.

Table 3.10

Results of Selective Coding: A List of Categories (Including Concepts)

Category name *Concept number: concept name*	Definitions of concepts
Category: Classroom experiences as a learner	
Concept 1: Past language learning experiences	Teachers' past (foreign) language learning experiences and prior teachers.
Category: Formal teacher education/training	
Concept 2: Teacher education and training	Teachers' experiences of undergraduate and graduate teacher education or the teacher training programs provided by employers or academic associations.
Category: Ongoing professional development	
Concept 3: Involvement with teacher organizations	Teachers' experiences of attending conferences and workshops.
Concept 4: Self-study	Teachers' self-study experiences to improve teaching skills.
Concept 5: Discussion with coworkers	Teachers' learning through advice from and discussions with other teachers.
Category: Classroom experiences as a teacher	
Concept 6: Struggles and challenges as a novice teacher	Teachers' experiences as a novice teacher.
Concept 7: Trial and error in the classroom	Teachers' experiences of teaching throughout their career.

(continued)

(Table 3.10 continued)

Category name *Concept number: concept name*	Definitions of concepts
Category: Beliefs	
Concept 8: Beliefs about English as a tool for communication	Teachers' convictions that they are teaching English as a tool for communication.
Concept 9: Beliefs about creating a learning environment	Teachers' convictions that teachers are responsible for creating a learning environment.
Concept 10: Beliefs about learner-centeredness	Teachers' convictions that learning is a student responsibility.
Concept 11: Beliefs about grammar teaching	Teachers' convictions that they have to teach grammar rules to students.
Category: Self-understanding	
Concept 12: Self as Japanese with English ability (JTE)	Teachers' perceptions about themselves having English abilities (JTEs).
Self as a native English speaker (NJTE)	Teachers' perceptions about themselves being native speakers of English (NJTEs).
Concept 13: Self as a foreigner living in Japan (NJTE)	Teachers' experiences living in Japan have greatly influenced their teaching practices and perceptions.
Concept 14: Attrition of cultural background	Teachers' understanding of themselves as someone who has lost their cultural identity.
Concept 15: Self as someone getting older	Teachers' understanding of themselves as someone getting older.
Category: Expectations	
Concept 16: Expectations from the university	Teachers' feelings that they must change their teaching because the university wants them to do so.
Concept 17: Expectations from the students	Teachers' feelings that they must change their teaching because the students want them to do so.
Category: Student related factors	
Concept 18: Characteristics of Japanese people	Teachers' impressions of Japanese people in general.
Concept 19: Characteristics of Japanese students	Teachers' impressions of Japanese students in general.
Concept 20: Lack of (students') motivation to learn English and/or purpose for English learning	Teachers' awareness of their students' low motivation and/or lack of purpose for learning English.

Note. Underlining indicates category names, and *italics* indicate concept.

The first category only includes Concept (1) and is related to teacher experiences as a language learner, as indicated by the definition. When comparing this concept with the other concepts, none of them were related to teachers' experiences as a language learner. Thus, Concept (1) was established as an independent category and labeled as .

Concept (2) involves teachers' experiences of teacher education or teacher training programs. Although there were other concepts related to teacher activities aimed at improving their teaching skills (such as (3), (4), and (5)), Concept (2) was treated as distinct. This is because only Concept (2) refers to the teachers' experiences before becoming teachers. As there were no other concepts that concern teachers' experiences of preparing to be an English teacher, Concept (2) can be classed as another independent category.

As mentioned, Concepts (3), (4), and (5) are similar. They are related to teachers' activities with respect to improving their teaching. Because these activities can be ongoing processes, these three concepts can be categorized together.

Concepts (6) and (7) are similar and are related to teachers' classroom experiences as teachers. Although concepts (16)–(20) may be related to the classroom, they are different because their definitions indicate that they refer to a teacher's feelings, impressions, or awareness. Thus, Concepts (6) and (7) can be considered different categories.

Although Concepts (8)–(20) are all related to what teachers hold in their minds, they are also somewhat different. Concepts (8)–(11) are concerned with teacher instructions. Moreover, unlike Concepts (12)–(15), Concepts (8)–(11) are concerned with what teachers believe about teaching. Because of the word "conviction" in the definitions, they are held in teachers' minds more strongly than expectations using the word "feeling" for the definitions of Concepts (16) and (17). Although Concepts (18)–(20) may give strong impressions to teachers, these are more about students rather than teacher instructions. Thus, Concepts (8)–(11) can be categorized together.

Concepts (12)–(15) are related to teachers' selves. Although Concept (13) only applies to NJTEs and is related to their experiences, it is similar to the other three. As the

definition indicates, such experiences can be related to their perceptions of themselves. Accordingly, they can be categorized together.

It can be seen that Concepts (16) and (17) and Concepts (18)–(20) can be categorized together. The former concepts are concerned with expectations, and no other concepts are related to expectations. The latter three share similarities with respect to Japanese people and students.

Given the reasons outlined, 20 concepts were integrated into eight categories. These categories were labeled as follows: <u>classroom experiences as a learner</u>,[54] <u>formal teacher education/training</u>, <u>ongoing professional development</u>, <u>expectations</u>, <u>student-related factors</u>, <u>classroom experiences as a teacher</u>, <u>beliefs</u>, and <u>self-understanding</u>. After this process was completed, additional selective coding was performed, as described next.

Core-categories: Results of selective coding 2

When observing the aforementioned eight categories, it was noticed that they could be further grouped into more abstract categories (core-categories). After comparing these eight categories, five core-categories were created. Table 3.11 presents these five core-categories with the categories. In the following, it is described how these five core-categories were established.

The core-category of classroom experiences as a learner includes the category of <u>the classroom experiences as a learner</u>, representing teachers' experiences in class. Comparing it with the other categories, it is noticeable that the category of <u>classroom experiences as a teacher</u> is also related to teachers' experiences in class. However, they differ because experiences as a student and as a teacher are different. As there were no

---

[54] Underlining is used to indicate categories.

other categories related to teachers' experiences as learners, this category can be established as a core-category.

Table 3.11

Results of Selective Coding 2: A list of Core-Categories (Including Categories)

Core-category: Classroom experiences as a learner
<u>Category: Classroom experiences as a learner</u>
Core-category: Teacher learning and professional development
<u>Category: Formal teacher education/training</u>
<u>Category: Ongoing professional development</u>
Core-category: Classroom experiences as a teacher
<u>Category: Classroom experiences as a teacher</u>
Core-category: Teacher-internal factors
<u>Category: Beliefs</u>
<u>Category: Self-understanding</u>
Core-category: Contextual factors
<u>Category: Expectations</u>
<u>Category: Student related factors</u>

Note. Core-categories are indicated in **bold,** while <u>underlining</u> indicates category names.

With regard to the second core-category, both categories of <u>formal teacher education/training</u> and <u>ongoing professional development</u> are related to teacher activities for acquiring or improving teaching skills. Although the former refers to previous experiences and the latter can be related to ongoing processes, both are linked to teachers' experiences of teacher education and professional development. No other categories are related to such experiences; hence, they can be integrated into a single core-category.

As mentioned, <u>classroom experiences as a teacher</u> was established as the third core-category. This refers to experiences and is different from convictions, perceptions, feelings, or impressions, suggesting this category can be established as a core-category.

With regard to the fourth core-category, <u>beliefs</u> and <u>self-understanding</u> are teachers' internal factors. These involve what teachers hold in their minds and how they perceive themselves and are different from experiences in class or their professional development activities.

As for the fifth core-category, <u>expectations</u> and <u>student-related factors</u> represent external factors that teachers cannot control. Although the definitions suggest these could be teacher-internal factors, they are closer to contextual factors. Expectations and student characteristics can differ in different contexts. Teachers may or may not perceive many expectations regarding their instructions, and students can differ in terms of their proficiency levels, motivation, and characteristics depending on context. Thus, the fifth core-category can differ from beliefs and self-understanding.

For the reasons mentioned above, five core-categories from eight categories were created and labeled as follows: classroom experiences as a learner, teacher learning and professional development, classroom experiences as a teacher, teacher-internal factors, and contextual factors. Subsequently, triangulation was conducted to finalize the results.

A summary of the findings is presented in Table 3.12, which includes the 5 core-categories, 8 categories, and 20 concepts. These factors were identified as influential when constructing the role perceptions.

Table 3.12

Results of the Thematic Analysis of Influential Factors in the Role Perceptions

Core-category: Classroom experiences as a learner

Category: Classroom experiences as a learner

Concept 1: Past language learning experiences

Core-category: Teacher learning and professional development

Category: Formal teacher education/training

Concept 2: Teacher education and training

Category: Ongoing professional development

Concept 3: Involvement with teacher organizations

Concept 4: Self-study

Concept 5: Discussion with coworkers

Core-category: Classroom experiences as a teacher

Category: Classroom experiences as a teacher

Concept 6: Struggles and challenges as a novice teacher

Concept 7: Trial and error in the classroom

Core-category: Teacher-internal factors

Category: Beliefs

Concept 8: Beliefs about English as a tool for communication

Concept 9: Beliefs about creating a learning environment

Concept 10: Beliefs about learner-centeredness

Concept 11: Beliefs about grammar teaching

Category: Self-understanding

Concept 12: Self as Japanese with English ability (JTE)
Self as a native English speaker (NJTE)

Concept 13: Self as a foreigner living in Japan (NJTE)

Concept 14: Attrition of cultural background

Concept 15: Self as someone getting older

Core-category: Contextual factors

Category: Expectations

Concept 16: Expectations from the university

Concept 17: Expectations from the students

Category: Student related factors

Concept 18: Characteristics of Japanese people

Concept 19: Characteristics of Japanese students
Concept 20: Lack of motivation to learn English and/or purpose for English learning

Note. Core-categories are indicated with **bold** letters, underlining indicates category names, and *italics* indicate concept.

The established core-categories share similarities with Borg's (2006) LTC framework. To compare, Borg's framework is presented again.

Personal history and specific experience of classrooms which define preconceptions of education (i.e., teachers, teaching).

May impact existing cognitions, though, especially when unacknowledged; these may limit its impact.

Schooling → Professional Coursework

Beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, thinking, decision-making

LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION

About teaching, teachers, learners, learning, subject matter, curricula, materials, activities, self, colleagues, assessment, context

Contextual Factors

Classroom Practice
including practice teaching

Around and inside the classroom, context mediates cognitions and practice. May lead to changes in cognitions or create tension between cognitions and classroom practices.

Defined by the interaction of cognitions and contextual factors. In turn, classroom experience influences cognitions unconsciously and/or through conscious reflection.

Figure. 2.1. Borg's conceptual framework in LTC (adapted from "elements and processes in language teacher cognition" in Borg [2006]).

Although the terms used in Borg (2006) and this qualitative study are different from each other, the meanings of each category are similar. The classroom experiences as a learner in this main qualitative present study are similar to schooling in Borg's (2006) framework, and professional development is similar to professional coursework. Contextual factors are coincident in terms of both labeling and content, and classroom

experiences as a teacher in this main qualitative study may correspond to classroom practice in Borg's framework. These similarities suggest that the factors identified in the main qualitative study can be significant factors on LTC including role perceptions.

Two teacher-internal factors established in the main qualitative study (beliefs and self-understanding) can be elements in LTC of Borg's (2006) framework. The identification of these factors can support Farrell's (2011) assertion that role perceptions are "central to the beliefs, assumptions, values, and practices that guide teacher actions both inside and outside the classroom" (p. 54), as these factors were expressed when the participants explain their role perceptions.

In summary, the findings of the present study suggested that 20 factors were likely to influence the construction of participants' role perceptions, which were corroborated by the work of Borg (2006). However, the present study did not identify which factors are particularly influential or less influential. In addition, owing to the nature of qualitative research, the findings of the present study cannot be generalized. These considerations indicated that further study was required.

Chapter 4: A Quantitative Phase

In this chapter, the quantitative phase is described. The purpose of the quantitative study was to answer the following research questions.

RQ1: What are the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan?

RQ2: How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of their role perceptions?

RQ3: What are the influential factors in the construction of role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan?

RQ4: How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of influential factors affecting role perceptions and of their recognition regarding the purposes of university English education?

RQ5: What is the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement?

RQ6: How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of the level of teacher self-efficacy for engagement?

To answer these research questions, a quantitative phase consisting of three stages was conducted: questionnaire development, pilot testing, and the main survey. The questionnaire development is described in Section 4.1, the pilot testing is explained in Section 4.2, and the main survey is described in Section 4.3.

4.1 Questionnaire Development

The questionnaire consisted of previously existing scales and scales specifically constructed for the present study based on the findings from the qualitative phase. In Section 4.1.1, the questionnaire items are summarized and the inclusion and exclusion of items are explained. Item creation is then described in Section 4.1.2.

4.1.1 Summary of questionnaire items

In this section, the developed questionnaire is explained. The questionnaire items covered the following 5 content areas with 45 items

       (1) Participant background,

       (2) Role perceptions,

       (3) Influential factors in the construction of role perceptions,

       (4) Teacher self-efficacy,

       (5) The purpose of university English education.

The questionnaire items did not reflect all the findings of the qualitative study to keep it to a reasonable length, as data collected by long questionnaires are more likely to be contaminated by fatigue effects and dishonest responses (Dörnyei, 2010).

The reasons for inclusion of these categories are explained next, with actual questionnaire items, the number of items, the abbreviations used in the dissertation, and response formats for each content area (also see Appendix H for an abridged list of questionnaire items and appendices I1 and I2 for the actual questionnaire used in the survey).

(1) Participant background (eight multiple choice items)

Participant background included eight items.

    1. Gender
- Male   男性
- Female   女性
- Prefer not to say   回答したくない

    2. Age
- 20s   20代
- 30s   30代
- 40s   40代
- 50s   50代
- ≥60s   60代以上

3. Employment status
- Full-time 常勤
- Part-time 非常勤

4. English-teaching experiences (Teaching experience)
- ≤5 years 5年以下
- 6–10 years 6–10年
- 11–15 years 11–15年
- 16–20 years 16–20年
- 21–25 years 21–25年
- 26–30 years 26–30年
- ≥31 years 31年以上

5. English-teaching experiences at university (University experience)
- ≤5 years 5年以下
- 6–10 years 6–10年
- 11–15 years 11–15年
- 16–20 years 16–20年
- 21–25 years 21–25年
- 26–30 years 26–30年
- ≥31 years 31年以上

6. Student types
- Only students majoring in fields where English is emphasized.
  英語を重視した分野を専攻している学生
- Mainly students majoring in fields where English is emphasized, but I also taught students majoring in other fields.
  主に英語を重視した分野を先行している学生を担当、一部他分野を専攻する学生
- Only students majoring in other fields.
  他分野を専攻する学生のみ
- Mainly students majoring in other fields, but I also taught students majoring in fields where English is emphasized.
  主に他分野を専攻する学生を担当、一部英語を重視した分野の学生

7. Course types
- Only compulsory English courses in the general education program.
  一般教育課程の必修英語科目のみ
- Mainly taught compulsory English courses in the general education program, but I also taught content courses.
  専門科目も担当しているが、主には一般教育課程の必修英語科目
- Mainly content courses, but I also taught compulsory English courses.
  一般教育課程の必修英語も担当しているが、主には専門科目

8. Researcher or teacher identity
- English teacher 英語教師
- Researcher 研究者
- Both of the above 上記の両方

The participants' backgrounds are crucial when determining whether generalization is appropriate (Dörnyei, 2007). Teaching experiences both as an English teacher and university English teacher, student majors, and course types that teachers teach were included. These may also influence role perceptions, as demonstrated by the previous studies (Shimo, 2016, 2018). As the present study focused on university English teachers (not solely on researchers), an item that asked about researcher or teacher identity was also necessary. The multiple-choice response format was used to collect information about participant backgrounds; hence, they could be categorized into groups based on their background information.

(2) Role perceptions (eight items plus one distractor item using a seven-point Likert scale)

Items regarding role perceptions included eight items. Each item assessed one role perception.

Language model (LM):
I perceive myself as a language model for students.
私は、英語の授業で自分のことを学生が見習うべき英語の見本（モデル）であると捉えている。

English expert (EE):
In the classroom, I perceive myself as an English expert.
私は、英語の授業で自分のことを英語の専門家であると捉えている。

Transmitter of knowledge (TK):
In the classroom, I perceive myself as a transmitter of knowledge (of English).
私は、英語の授業で自分のことを（英語の）知識の伝達者であると捉えている。

Cultural representative (CR):
In the classroom, I perceive myself as a cultural representative of my home country.
私は、英語の授業で自分のことを外国（主に英語圏）の文化の伝達者であると捉えている。

Motivator (MO):
In the classroom, I perceive myself as a motivator for my students.
私は、英語の授業で自分のことを学生のモティベーター（動機づけを高める役割）であると捉えている。

Facilitator (FA):
> In the classroom, I perceive myself as a facilitator (guide, supporter).
> 私は、英語の授業で自分のことをファシリテーター（ガイド、援助者）であると捉えている。

Learning advisor (LA):
> In the classroom, I perceive myself as a learning advisor for my students.
> 私は、英語の授業で自分のことを学習アドバイザーであると捉えている。

Designer (DE):
> I perceive myself as a designer (courses/materials).
> 私は、自分を（授業や教材の）デザイナーだと捉えている。

Distractor item:[55]
> In the classroom, I perceive myself as a careprovider (parental role).
> 私は、英語の授業で自分のことを世話役（親のような役割）であると捉えている。

These eight roles were included because they were the eight roles that were perceived as most important in the main qualitative study (see Section 3.2.2). In the main qualitative study, the total ranking showed these eight roles were perceived as most important by multiple participants. Although slight differences were found between JTEs and NJTEs in terms of the number of participants who chose these roles, the ranking was the same between the two (see Table 3.8). Using these roles perceived as most important was considered more appropriate than using the roles that were not perceived as most important (those that did not appear in Table 3.8) to compare JTEs and NJTEs. By comparing roles perceived as most important, the differences (if any) were likely to illuminate the fundamental differences between JTEs and NJTEs regarding their instructional orientations.

For these items, a seven-point Likert scale was used, and participants' responses to the items were expressed on a scale ranging from strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), somewhat disagree (3), neither agree nor disagree (4), somewhat agree (5), agree (6) to

---

[55] One distractor item was used. As the eight items were roles that were perceived as important, participants were likely to perceive playing them to varying degrees. If survey participants kept agreeing with these items, they might not pay enough attention to them. To avoid this, one distractor item was included.

strongly agree (7). With this response format, responses were expressed numerically, and the two groups were compared.

(3) Influential factors in the construction of the role perceptions[56]

Eight categories of influential factors in the construction of the role perceptions were included in the questionnaire.

- Past language learning experiences
- Teacher education and training
- Involvement with teacher organizations
- Discussion with coworkers
- Beliefs about grammar teaching
- Self as Japanese with English ability (JTE)/Self as a native English speaker (NJTE)
- Expectations from the university
- Student-related factors

Only eight categories of twenty influential factors identified in the main qualitative study were included. As explained in each of these categories below, these eight categories were chosen based on the relevancy to the present study and previous LTC studies.

For these factors, a multi-item scale was used to examine these influential factors, which is a strategy to secure accurate assessments in a survey. In a multi-item scale, at least three items are used to assess one construct because the wording of the questionnaire items can affect participant responses when abstract topics are investigated. If there is only one item that investigates an abstract construct, this may fail to assess it accurately

---

[56] In an actual questionnaire, items in this category and in teacher self-efficacy were asked in random order because some of the items in the same category may appear similar.

(Dörnyei, 2007, 2010). As the influences identified in the main qualitative study were summarized in abstract themes, items in this content area adopted a multi-item scale.[57] A total of 25 items were used, with one category including four items.

Past language learning experiences (PE, three items). Items in this category assessed participant evaluations of their previous language learning experiences, as follows:

> PE1: There are foreign language teachers I had in school who served as models for how to teach.
> 学生時代の外国語の先生のなかに、自分の教え方のモデルとなった先生がいる。
>
> PE2: My teaching style is based on what I experienced in learning foreign language(s) in school.
> 私の指導方法は、私自身が学校の外国語学習で経験したことが基になっている。
>
> PE3: My own foreign language learning experience in school has been useless for me in my teaching. (Reversed worded item.)
> 私自身の学校での外国語学習経験は、自分が教えるのに役に立っていない。(Reversed worded item.) [58]

The influence of past language learning experiences on role perceptions was evident in the main qualitative study (see Section 3.2.2) and has been frequently discussed in previous LTC studies (see Section 2.2.2). This category was included to determine the extent to which this factor influenced role perceptions.

Teacher education and training (TE, three items). The items in this category asked the participants to evaluate their experiences of undergraduate and graduate teacher

---

[57] A total of 31 items in 10 categories of influential factors were prepared and used in the questionnaire. However, six items in two categories were removed from the analysis of the survey because they were found to be statistically invalid during the analysis of the main survey (see Section 4.3.1 Data screening). The description herein only includes questionnaire items that were used for the actual analysis.
[58] These items were accompanied by a note providing additional explanations about the "school" used in the statements. The note was "この質問での「学校」には、中・高校、予備校、大学（一般教育）、その他語学学校を含みますが、大学の専門教育課程、教員養成やその他職業訓練などは含みません。('School' in this question includes secondary school, university prep school, university, and other language schools.)"

education or the teacher training programs provided by employers or academic associations, as follows:

> TE1: Education that I received related to language teaching and/or language learning deepened my understanding about foreign language teaching.
> 私が受けた語学教育・学習に関する専門教育は、外国語教育についての私の理解を深めてくれた。

> TE2: I learned a lot about how to teach from education that I received related to language teaching and/or language learning.
> 私は、自分が受けた語学教育・学習に関する専門教育から、教え方について多くを学んだ。

> TE3: Education that I received related to language teaching and/or language learning has been useless in my teaching. (Reversed worded item.)
> 自分が教えるうえで、私が受けた語学教育・学習に関する専門教育は役に立っていない。(Reversed worded item.)[59]

Teacher education and training should be included in the questionnaire because they were identified as important in the qualitative study and were controversial topics in previous LTC studies. These previous LTC studies produced mixed results regarding the influence of teacher education programs (see Section 2.2.2). Accordingly, including these items was likely to contribute to understanding the influences of these factors on both role perceptions and LTC.

Involvement with teacher organizations (IT, three items). These items asked about participants' experiences of attending conferences and workshops, as follows:

> IT1: Participating in self-development activities such as workshops and academic conferences deepened my knowledge about foreign language teaching.
> ワークショップ、学会などの自己研鑽の活動に参加することは、外国語教育について、私の知識を深めてくれた。

> IT2: I learned a lot about how to teach by participating in self-development activities such as workshops and academic conferences.

---

[59] These items were accompanied by a note that provides additional explanations about "education" used in the statements. The note was "この質問での「専門教育」とは、大学、大学院でのプログラム、企業や学術団体などが提供する研修・職業訓練などを含みます。('Education' in this question refers to undergraduate and graduate programs as well as any training or professional development provided by employers or academic associations.)"

私は、ワークショップ、学会などの自己研鑽の活動に参加することで、教え方について多くを学んだ。

IT3: Participating in self-development activities such as workshops and academic conferences has been useless in my teaching. (Reversed worded item.)
自分が教えるうえで、ワークショップ、学会などの自己研鑽の活動に参加することは役に立っていない。(Reversed worded item.)

Discussion with coworkers (CO, three items). These items assessed how participants utilized advice from and discussions with other teachers, as follows:

CO1: I have improved my teaching skills by talking with the other teachers at my workplace(s) about how to teach.
私は、職場で他の先生と話すことで、指導技術を高めた。

CO2: I have talked a lot with other teachers at my workplace(s) about how to teach.
職場の他の先生と教え方について、よく話す(した)。

CO3: I have had few opportunities to talk with other teachers at my workplace(s) about how to teach. (Reversed worded item.)
職場の他の先生と教え方について話す機会はあまりなかった。(Reversed worded item.)

Involvement with teacher organizations and discussions with coworkers were related to ongoing professional development and can be a source for a teacher's professional development. Role perceptions can develop along with a teacher's professional development; thus, these factors should be included.

Beliefs about grammar teaching (GT, three items). Three items explored participants' general beliefs about grammar instruction, as follows:

GT1: In English classes, explicit grammar/vocabulary instruction in class enhances student learning outcomes.
英語の授業では、はっきりとした文法・語彙指導が学生の学習成果を高める。

GT2: In English classes, students understand English better when teachers explain grammatical rules explicitly in class.
英語の授業では、教師がはっきりと文法規則を説明すると、学生は英語をよりよく理解する。

GT3: In English classes, students do not understand English well if teachers do not provide explicit grammar/vocabulary instruction in class.
(Reversed worded item.)

英語の授業では、教師がはっきりとした文法・語彙指導をしないと、学生が十分に英語を理解できない。(Reversed worded item.)

Beliefs about grammar teaching were only mentioned by the JTEs in the qualitative study, meaning this may be a factor that creates differences in role perceptions between JTEs and NJTEs. To investigate this concept further, this category was included.

Self-understanding (SELF, three items). The items in this category related to how the participants viewed themselves. More specifically, the items explored whether they thought that being Japanese or being a (near-) native speaker of English was a significant factor with regard to being an English teacher. The self-understanding of both groups of teachers was different in the main qualitative study (see Section 3.2.2), requiring this to be investigated in a larger population.

As explained below, items for JTEs and for NJTEs were different.

For JTEs,

SELF1: 自分が日本人であるということは、大学英語教師としての自分にとって重要な点だ。(Being Japanese is an important aspect of my role as a university English teacher.)
SELF2: 日本人学生に教えるのに、自分が日本人であることは自分自身にとって重要だと感じている。(It is important to me that I am Japanese in my teaching of Japanese students.)
SELF3: 自分が日本人だということは、日本人学生に英語を教えるのに、あまり関係のないことだ。(The fact that I am Japanese makes no difference to me in my teaching of Japanese students.) (Reversed worded item.)

For NJTEs,

SELF1: Being a native speaker of English (or near-native English-speaking foreign teacher) is an important aspect of my role as a university English teacher.
SELF2: It is important to me that I am a native speaker (or near-native English speaker) in my teaching of Japanese students.
SELF3: The fact that I am a native speaker of English (or near-native English-speaking foreign teacher) makes no difference to me in my teaching of Japanese students. (Reversed worded item.)

It can be observed that the wording used for JTEs and NJTEs was different. For example, "Being Japanese is an important aspect of my role as a university English teacher" was used for JTEs, whereas "Being a native speaker of English (or near-native English-speaking foreign teacher) is an important aspect of my role as a university English teacher" was used for NJTEs. The former asked about being Japanese, which implied Japanese nationality and/or experiences growing up and receiving an education in Japan rather than simply speaking the language. In contrast, the latter asked about being a (near-) native speaker of English, regardless of cultural background. The wording aligned with statements identified in the main qualitative study and incorporated both the participants' intentions and meanings. In the qualitative study, Japanese participants commented that sharing a first language and experiences of being Japanese with students was important to them as English teachers, and there were cases where non-Japanese participants emphasized the importance of being a native speaker of English.

Expectations (EXP, three items). These items asked the participants about the strength of their university's expectations regarding teaching, as follows:

EXP1: I feel a certain expectation from the university regarding my teaching style.
指導方法に関して、大学からの何らかの期待を感じる。

EXP2: I feel that my university expects me of certain teaching style (to be strict, to teach entertainingly, to introduce foreign cultures, etc.).
私の大学は、私に特定の指導方法を期待していると感じる。（厳しくする、面白く教える、英語圏の文化を紹介する等）

EXP3: I hardly feel expectations from the university regarding my teaching style. (Reversed worded item.)
指導方法に関して大学からの期待を特に感じない。(Reversed worded item.)

Expectations from the university were only mentioned by NJTE participants and could influence their role perceptions. To investigate this concept further, this category was included.

Student-related factors (STU, four items). These items assessed the general opinions and impressions of participants about their students. These needed to cover two student-related factors such as characteristics of Japanese students and lack of motivation to learn English and/or purpose for English learning. To do this, four items were allotted, as follows:

SC1: Most of the students tended to be passive in class.
多くの学生は、授業で受け身がちだった。

SC2: Most of the students showed low interest in learning English.
多くの学生は、英語学習にあまり興味がなかった。

SC3: Most of the students were proactive in class. (Reversed worded item.)
多くの学生は、授業で積極的だった。(Reversed worded item.)

SC4: Most of the students were highly motivated to learn English. (Reversed worded item.)
多くの学生は、英語を学ぶことへの動機づけが高かった。(Reversed worded item.)[60]

Student-related factors (characteristics of Japanese students and lack of motivation to learn English and/or the purpose for English learning) needed to be covered. Student characteristics and low motivation have frequently been discussed in the previous literature and were some of the influential factors on teachers' instructional practices (Anderson, 1993, 2019). Teachers' perceptions of their students were found to be different between JTEs and NJTEs (Shimo, 2016; 2018). Thus, these factors can be influential on role perceptions and can be different between groups.

Similar to items in role perceptions, a seven-point Likert scale was used for these items above to compare the two groups.

---

[60] These items were accompanied with a note because teachers teach different students every year and were likely to feel difficulty in determining which students they should think of when answering. The note was "2018年度に先生がご担当の最も典型的な必修英語クラスを想定してお答えください。(Please refer to the most typical compulsory English courses that you taught in the 2018 academic year.)"

(4) Teacher self-efficacy for engagement (Effi, three items)

Exploring the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy was one of the overall purposes of the present study, which particularly focused on teacher self-efficacy for engagement.

There were three items in this category. These were adopted from a previously validated questionnaire (Chacón, 2005; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) and slightly modified to match the response format of this questionnaire. The actual items were as follows:[61]

> Effi 1: I can help my students to value English learning.
> 私は、私の学生に英語学習の価値を感じさせることができる。
>
> Effi 2: I can get my students to believe they can do well in English learning.
> 私は、私の学生に英語学習がうまくいくと信じさせることができる。
>
> Effi 3: I can motivate students who show low interest in learning English.
> 私は、英語学習にあまり興味がない学生の動機づけを高めることができる。

In this category, a seven-point Likert scale was used to allow group comparison.

(5) The purposes of university English education

The purposes of university English education were included. Previous studies have suggested that JTEs and NJTEs have different perspectives on the important areas to teach and teach different courses in terms of content and student s' proficiency levels. If this is the case, these teachers may have different views on the purpose of university English education. Moreover, such views may create differences in their role perceptions.

---

[61] The original statements used by Chacón (2005) were as follows: "How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in learning English?"; "How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in English?"; and "How much can you do to help your students to value learning English?" The items were slightly modified to match the response format in the present study.

Nine statements regarding the purposes of university English education were asked in one multiple-response format. These items covered linguistic aspects and non-linguistic attitudinal aspects of purposes.

Five statements represented linguistic aspects of the purposes of university English education:

(1) To develop students' knowledge of English (grammar, vocabulary, etc.). (Henceforth, knowledge of English.)
学生の英語の知識（文法、語彙など）を養成する。

(2) To develop students' practical communication skills in English. (Henceforth, communication skills in English.)
学生の英語での実用的なコミュニケーション能力を養成する。

(3) To develop students' English abilities to meet established standards (e.g., desirable TOEIC scores). (Henceforth, established standard.)
学生が確立された基準（望ましいとされるTOEICスコアなど）を満たせる英語力を養成する。

(4) To develop the English skills that are necessary for the students' majors (English for academic/specific purposes). (Henceforth, academic/specific purposes.)
学生が専攻分野で必要となる英語力（アカデミック英語、特定目的英語）を養成する。

(5) To develop students' English skills so that they can be leaders in international settings. (Henceforth, international leadership.)
国際的な場面でリーダーシップを発揮できるための英語力を養成する。

Four purposes had non-linguistic attitudinal aspects:

(6) To help students become autonomous and/or lifelong learners. (Henceforth, autonomous/ lifelong learners.)
学生を自律学習者、生涯学習者に養成する。

(7) To develop students' ability to understand and adapt to social diversity and different cultures. (Henceforth, social diversity.)
学生が多様な社会異文化を理解し適応できる能力を養成する。

(8) To increase students' interest in using and learning English. (Henceforth, motivation.)
学生の英語使用・学習に対する興味を深める。

(9) To develop students' logical and/or critical thinking skills. (Henceforth, critical/logical thinking skills.)
学生の論理的・批判的思考力を養成する。

Five of these statements were created in reference to JACET (2018)[62] and four novel statements were added. The two new statements were created based on a statement in JACET (2018). Further, one statement was divided into three:[63] one was about knowledge of English, one was about English skills, and the other was about English ability measured by outside standards. Two non-linguistic attitudinal statements were also added: one about student motivation toward English learning and one about nurturing students' thinking skills mentioned by a participant in the qualitative study.

4.1.2 Item creation

Original items for the present study were created through translation and back-translation processes. First, all the questionnaire items were written in English and then translated into Japanese by the author. Subsequently, the Japanese version was translated back into English by a native English-speaking university teacher who had passed the Japanese Language Proficiency Test N-1.[64] The original English items and the back-translated items were then compared by the author, and revisions were made on items in Japanese when inconsistencies were found. This cycle of translation and back translation was repeated until all the inconsistencies were resolved to ensure that all items were accurate and consistent in both languages.

---

[62] The JACET survey (2018) contained the following six question items regarding the purposes of university English education: (1)To develop students' basic English skills, (2) to develop students' English skills for receiving or sending f\global knowledge and information, (3) to develop students' advanced communication skills so that they will be able to take leadership positions in the global society, (4) to increase students' ability to participate in the diverse societies and different cultures, (5) to broaden students' outlook and to increase their general knowledge, and (6) to develop students' English skills necessary for studying their majors

[63] The native English-speaking university teacher who helped me with item translation pointed out differences in meanings between Japanese and English used in one statement in JACET (2018). His point was that 「学生の基本的な英語能力を養成する」 is not the same as the statement "to develop students' basic English skills" used in JACET (2018). 「英語能力(English ability)」 in the Japanese statement can include more than just English skills. Following his suggestion, this statement was divided into three different statements.

[64] This teacher had an academic background in environmental studies. He also taught compulsory English courses. He did not participate in the main survey as a respondent.

4.2 Pilot Testing

In this section, the two steps of the pilot testing conducted to finalize the questionnaire items are described. The purpose of the pilot testing was two-fold:

- To establish the validity of questionnaire items
- To examine the procedural and wording aspects of the questionnaire through piloting

The processes of the first and second purposes are described in Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2, respectively.

4.2.1 Expert judgment task: Establishing the validity of questionnaire items

After the questionnaire items were developed, their validity needed to be established. In other words, developed questionnaire items needed to be examined whether or not they were expressed in words appropriately to assess influential factors in the construction of role perceptions (categories) that the items were intended to assess.

For this purpose, an expert judgment task was conducted. Expert judgment is a method whereby experts provide judgment on a certain subject based on a specific set of criteria. In the field of applied linguistics, this has been used to compare English tests (Bachman et al., 1995) and to assess grammatical difficulties for learners (Robinson, 1996; Scheffler, 2011). In the present study, the expert judgment task was used to ensure the validity of the questionnaire items.

One strategy of expert judgment is a sorting task (Agarwal, 2011). The experts are given questionnaire items and categories with labels and definitions, and then they are asked to classify items into appropriate categories. This process can exclude items that do not represent the intended category. In the following, the actual procedures, including participants and instruments, are explained.

Participants

Two experienced researchers participated in this task. One was an applied linguist and the other was an educational psychologist. The former was Japanese, and the latter was non-Japanese and a speaker of English as a first language. Both had Ph.D. degrees and had sufficient experience in research.

Instruments and procedures

The expert judgment task was conducted using an online survey service. On the survey site, the participants read a developed questionnaire item regarding influential factors and selected the best answer from the listed categories (A–I) (see Figure 4.1 for a sample page).

The list covered the eight categories (see Section 4.1.1 [3]) and included an "Other (specify)" category that the experts used when they found developed items that did not fit any specified category. A comment space was also provided for experts to record questions, comments, and suggestions.

Both Japanese and English versions were prepared, with Japanese participants using the Japanese version and non-Japanese participants using the English version. The participants completed the task individually.

To identify valid and invalid items, the obtained data were categorized based on the following groups:

(a) Items that both experts classified as intended categories (valid).

(b) Items that experts classified into different categories (invalid).

(c) Items that one or both experts classified into "Other (specify)" category (invalid).

Items in (a) were retained as valid items, whereas those in (b) and (c) were either abandoned or revised based on the comments provided by the participants. The same participants then examined the revised items again with the same procedures.

Please read each numbered statement first and then select the psychological construct category that you think is most appropriate for that statement.

For example, you read the following statement.
"English is a difficult language to learn."
If you think this statement represents a teacher's "beliefs regarding learning, teaching, and classes" in the list. Please select "G. Beliefs regarding learning, teaching, and classes."

1. My teaching style is based on what I experienced in learning foreign language(s) in school.

○A. Past language learning experiences: A statement about a teacher's own past experience of language learning.
○B. Formal teacher training/education: A statement about a teacher's past experience involving teacher training/education.
○C. Professional development: A statement about a teacher's past and/or present out-of-class activities to improve his/ her teaching skills.
○D. Expectations: A statement about a teacher's awareness of expectations from others regarding teaching styles and practices.
○E. Characteristics of Japanese students: A statement about a teacher's perceptions and impressions regarding students and/or Japanese people in general.
○F. Classroom experiences as a teacher: A statement about a teacher's reflection on their teaching experience in class.
○G. Beliefs regarding learning, teaching, classes: A statement about teacher's convictions and ideas regarding language teaching, language learning, and/or classes.
○H. Self-concept: A statement about teachers' opinions and ideas concerning how individual teachers see themselves and their influence on actual teaching practices.
○I. Other (specify)

Comments?

Figure 4.1. Sample page of the sorting task (English version). In this example, statement (1) is a developed questionnaire item, and categories A–I are answer choices.

Through this process, questionnaire items regarding influential factors were qualitatively validated. After this process, all the items and instructions were collated and piloting of the questionnaire was conducted, which is explained next.

4.2.2 Piloting the developed questionnaire

The purpose of the piloting was to examine the procedural and wording aspects of the questionnaire. To reveal any parts that were ambiguous or difficult to understand, the participants were asked to answer the questionnaires on an online site. The actual procedures, including the participants and instruments, are described in this section.

Participants

Six experienced English teachers/researchers participated in the piloting (three Japanese and three non-Japanese). The Japanese participants included two university English teachers/researchers and the applied linguist who participated in the expert judgment task. The non-Japanese participants included two university English teachers/researchers and the education psychologist who participated in the expert judgment task.

Instruments & Procedures

The piloting was administered online. A near-final version of the questionnaire was used. All the instructions and questionnaire items were given, and comment spaces were provided for each questionnaire item. This allowed participants to comment on problematic items as soon as they had responded to a questionnaire item. Both Japanese and English versions were prepared, with Japanese participants using the Japanese

version and non-Japanese participants using the English version. The participants completed the task individually.

After the participants had completed the questionnaire, any necessary changes were made based on their comments. The participants' comments included clarification of wording in the instructions and questionnaire items. The revised instructions and items were then examined by the applied linguist who participated in the expert judgment task. After removing the comment spaces, the questionnaire was finalized for use.[65]

4.3 The Main Survey

With the developed questionnaire explained above, the online survey was conducted. The method is explained in Section 4.3.1, and the findings are presented in Section 4.3.2.

4.3.1 Method

In this section, the data collection procedures, participants, preliminary examination of the data, and analysis method are explained.

Data collection procedures

The data were collected between February 22 and May 10, 2019, using an online survey service. An invitation to the survey was sent via e-mail to the participants.

---

[65] To finalize a questionnaire, a final piloting with more than 100 samples is preferable (Dörnyei, 2007, 2010). This allows the researchers to verify how the questionnaire works statistically. However, I did not conduct a larger scale pilot because unlike the students, the number of teachers was limited. It was highly likely that both the pilot and the main survey would primarily include the same teachers. If the same participants repeatedly answered the pilot questionnaire, the data contamination caused by repeated exposure to the questionnaire would become a concern, as they would be able to identify the anticipated desirable responses and respond accordingly (Dörnyei, 2007; 2010).

The participants were selected using convenience sampling, which is a type of non-probability sampling.[66] In convenience sampling, participants who meet the practical criteria and are accessible to a researcher are selected (Dörnyei, 2010). In the present study, a practical criterion was that the participants should be university English teachers. To fulfill this criterion, two convenience sampling strategies were used. First, the invitation was sent to university English teachers that the author knew personally. They were asked to participate in the survey and to forward the information to other teachers that they knew. The other sampling method was using the directory for an English teachers' organization and the program handbook of an annual English teachers' academic conference.[67] E-mails were sent to the university English teachers listed in the directory and in the program handbook.

A consent form and a link to the questionnaire were attached to the e-mail. The front page of the website also contained a consent form. Both consent forms indicated that the survey was conducted on a voluntary basis and that participants could leave the website at any time if they wanted to withdraw from the survey (see Appendices I1 and I2).

Participants

In total, 328 university English teachers participated in this study. E-mails were sent to 1,602 teachers, of which 342 responded (a response rate of 21.3%). Out of these 342 responses, 14 were excluded because the respondents characterized themselves solely as researchers or only taught the content courses. As this study focused on university English teachers, respondents had to identify themselves as either English teachers or English

---

[66] Non-probability sampling refers to sampling strategies that obtain a "reasonably representative sample using resources that are within the means of the ordinary researcher" (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 60).

[67] The author only sent e-mails to English teachers who worked at universities. He did not e-mail any whose workplace was not a university or not listed.

teachers and researchers. Further, it was a requirement that they taught compulsory English courses. As a result, the final sample for analysis included the responses of 328 participants (JTEs: $n = 170$ and NJTEs: $n = 158$). Table 4.1 provides background information on the participants.

Table 4.1

Summary of the Participants

		Total ($n = 328$)	JTE ($n = 170$)	NJTE ($n = 158$)
Gender	Male	178 (54.3%)	71 (41.8%)	107 (67.7%)
	Female	142 (43.3%)	98 (57.6%)	44 (27.8%)
	Prefer not to say	8 (2.4%)	1 (0.6%)	7 (4.4%)
Employment	Full-time	275 (83.8%)	134 (78.8%)	141 (89.2%)
	Part-time	53 (16.2%)	36 (21.2%)	17 (10.8%)
Age	30s	58 (17.7%)	20 (11.8%)	38 (24.1%)
	40s	109 (33.2%)	51 (30.0%)	58 (36.7%)
	50s	118 (36.0%)	69 (40.6%)	49 (31.0%)
	≥60	43 (13.1%)	30 (17.6%)	13 (8.2%)
Teaching experience	≤5 years	11 (3.6%)	7 (4.1%)	4 (2.5%)
	6–10 years	32 (9.8%)	14 (8.2%)	18 (11.4%)
	11–15 years	63 (19.2%)	31 (18.2%)	32 (20.3%)
	16–20 years	63 (19.2%)	25 (14.7%)	38 (24.1%)
	21–25 years	65 (19.8%)	33 (19.4%)	32 (20.3%)
	26–30 years	50 (15.2%)	29 (17.1%)	21 (13.3%)
	≥31 years	44 (13.4%)	31 (18.2%)	13 (8.2%)
University experience	≤5 years	44 (13.4%)	15 (8.8%)	29 (18.4%)
	6–10 years	66 (20.1%)	31 (18.2%)	35 (22.2%)
	11–15 years	78 (23.8%)	39 (22.9%)	39 (24.7%)
	16–20 years	45 (13.7%)	25 (14.7%)	20 (12.7%)
	21–25 years	54 (16.5%)	33 (19.4%)	21 (13.3%)
	26–30 years	27 (8.2%)	19 (11.2%)	8 (5.1%)
	≥31 years	14 (4.3%)	8 (4.7%)	6 (3.8%)

(continued)

(Table 4.1 continued)

		Total ($n = 328$)	JTE ($n = 170$)	NJTE ($n = 158$)
Student types	Only English related majors	49 (14.9%)	18 (10.6%)	31 (19.6%)
	Mainly English related majors	65 (19.8%)	30 (17.6%)	35 (22.2%)
	Only other majors	117 (35.7%)	77 (45.3%)	40 (25.3%)
	Mainly other majors	97 (29.6%)	45 (26.5%)	52 (32.9%)
Course types	Only compulsory English	120 (36.6%)	82 (48.2%)	38 (24.1%)
	Mainly compulsory English	150 (45.7%)	57 (33.5%)	93 (58.9%)
	Mainly content courses	58 (17.7%)	31 (18.2%)	27 (17.1%)

The summary of participants displays their characteristics, in which at least five points were noticeable. First, most of the participants were full-time teachers. Second, most of the participants were in their 40s and 50s. Third, most of the participants were experienced English teachers with relatively few novice teachers. Fourth, most of the JTEs taught students majoring in non-English-related fields, whereas more NJTEs taught students majoring in English-related fields. Finally, approximately 50% of the JTE participants only taught compulsory English courses, whereas more than 50% of the NJTEs taught mainly compulsory English courses with some content courses. These background characteristics could imply that the representativeness of the sample was limited.

Data Screening

The obtained data were screened before the main analysis. After examining a whole dataset for any inappropriate responses, two types of screening were conducted. First, it ensured that the participants' background factors were not critical influences on their role perceptions. Second, questionnaire items regarding influential factors in the construction

of role perceptions were subject to factor analysis to examine whether or not the items statistically fit into intended categories.

The data obtained by a seven-point Likert scale were converted to indicate numerical values (strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, somewhat disagree = 3, neither agree nor disagree = 4, somewhat agree = 5, agree = 6, strongly agree = 7), [68] and they were analyzed statistically using IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences Statistics (SPSS) (Version 26).

Examination of the influence of background factors on role perceptions

The first screening was performed to confirm that the background factors were not the primary factors in the participants' role perceptions. As one of the purposes of the present study was to examine the differences in role perceptions between JTEs and NJTEs, there should not be critically significant differences between the groups based on these background factors. To confirm this, a series of one-way between-subject analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests was performed with the background information as the independent variables and the role perceptions as the dependent variables. The independent variables included (1) age, (2) teaching experience, (3) university experience, (4) student types, and (5) course types. As explained below, the effect of these variables was not practically significant. The descriptive statistics and the effect sizes calculated are provided below (see Appendix J for the ANOVA results).

---

[68] The responses were treated as interval data. The responses obtained by Likert scales are considered to be ordinal data. However, it is now common to treat the data obtained from Likert scales with more than four points as interval data and to analyze them statistically (Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2010). Following this, the author of the present study conducted a statistical analysis because the data were obtained by seven-point Likert scales.

Table 4.2 shows the descriptive statistics for the role perceptions according to age. The analysis revealed no statistically significant differences between the age groups for all the items of role perception.

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics for Role Perceptions by Age

| | ≤ 30s (*n* = 58) | | 40s (*n* = 109) | | 50s (*n* = 118) | | ≥60s (*n* = 43) | |
Roles	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
LM	4.10	1.79	4.54	1.64	4.47	1.71	4.28	1.69
EE	4.78	1.46	5.02	1.57	5.11	1.48	5.12	1.27
TK	4.84	1.48	4.97	1.19	4.97	1.54	5.19	1.18
CR	4.52	1.73	4.89	1.49	4.64	1.61	4.65	1.29
MO	5.98	.94	5.76	1.07	5.92	1.02	5.79	.89
FA	6.40	.67	6.25	.92	6.22	.77	5.98	1.08
LA	5.86	.95	5.91	.91	5.86	.86	5.53	.91
DE	5.62	1.49	5.56	1.38	5.71	1.35	5.12	1.35

Note. LM = language model; EE = English expert; TK = transmitter of knowledge; CR = cultural representative; MO = motivator; FA = facilitator; LA = learning advisor; DE = designer. The effect sizes (η^2) are interpreted as follows: ≥ .01 = small; ≥ .06 = medium; ≥ .14 = large. (Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2008).

Table 4.3 presents the descriptive statistics for the role perceptions according to English teaching experience. The analysis identified no statistically significant differences except in LM, $F (5, 322) = 2.73$, $p = .02$. The effect size was small ($\eta^2 = .04$). *Post hoc* comparisons using the Tukey HSD identified the differences between two pairs related to LM (between "≤ 10 years" and "16–20 years" and between "≤ 10 years" and "21–25 years").

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics for Role Perceptions by Teaching Experience

Roles	≤ 10 years (n = 43)		11–15 years (n = 63)		16–20 years (n = 63)		21–25 years (n = 65)		26–30 years (n = 50)		≥31 years (n = 44)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
LM	3.93	1.84	4.41	1.75	4.62	1.58	4.65	1.55	4.54	1.71	4.39	1.70
EE	4.47	1.75	5.08	1.47	4.90	1.56	5.17	1.35	5.14	1.38	5.30	1.29
TK	4.70	1.68	5.14	1.20	5.03	1.18	4.72	1.49	5.10	1.49	5.16	1.18
CR	4.49	1.87	4.89	1.58	4.90	1.25	4.51	1.68	4.62	1.56	4.75	1.40
MO	5.72	1.05	5.90	1.13	5.87	.94	5.83	1.02	5.72	1.05	6.11	.75
FA	6.35	.68	6.16	.97	6.27	.81	6.25	.79	6.20	.78	6.16	1.09
LA	5.67	.86	5.81	.95	5.94	.92	5.85	.94	5.74	.96	5.98	.73
DE	5.23	1.60	5.70	1.36	5.67	1.15	5.66	1.35	5.44	1.64	5.57	1.30

Note. LM = language model; EE = English expert; TK = transmitter of knowledge; CR = cultural representative; MO = motivator; FA = facilitator; LA = learning advisor; DE = designer. The effect sizes (η^2) are interpreted as follows: ≥ .01 = small; ≥ .06 = medium; ≥ .14 = large. (Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2008).

Table 4.4 shows the descriptive statistics for the role perceptions according to English-teaching experience at universities. The analysis showed no statistically significant differences between the groups for any role perceptions.

Table 4.5 presents the descriptive statistics for the role perceptions according to student types. The analysis did not identify any statistically significant differences except in CR, $F(3, 324) = 3.65$, $p = .01$, and LA, $F(3, 324) = 3.40$, $p = .01$. However, the calculated effect sizes in both cases were small ($\eta^2 = .03$). *Post hoc* comparisons using the Tukey HSD identified the differences in two pairs related to CR (between "mainly English related majors" and "only English related majors" and between "mainly English related majors" and "only other majors") and two pairs related to LA (between "only English related majors" and "only other majors" and between "only English related majors" and "mainly other majors").

Table 4.4

Descriptive Statistics for Role Perceptions by University-teaching Experience

	≤ 5 years (n = 44)		6–10 years (n = 66)		11–15 years (n = 78)		16–20 years (n = 45)		21–25 years (n = 54)		≥25 years (n = 41)	
Roles	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
LM	3.96	1.87	4.30	1.84	4.47	1.58	4.44	1.60	4.78	1.51	4.39	1.79
EE	4.91	1.58	4.82	1.59	4.96	1.52	5.02	1.36	5.24	1.45	5.29	1.25
TK	5.05	1.38	4.95	1.34	4.99	1.38	4.73	1.47	5.11	1.42	5.00	1.28
CR	4.41	1.76	4.89	1.47	4.83	1.44	4.56	1.66	4.46	1.65	4.95	1.43
MO	5.80	1.05	5.95	1.03	5.92	.85	6.00	1.07	5.83	.82	5.54	1.31
FA	6.25	.719	6.36	.74	6.21	1.01	6.31	.70	6.19	.67	6.00	1.18
LA	5.93	.82	5.82	.94	5.72	1.08	6.00	.77	5.76	.82	5.90	.80
DE	5.50	1.30	5.74	1.51	5.58	1.29	5.64	1.45	5.56	1.27	5.27	1.58

Note. LM = language model; EE = English expert; TK = transmitter of knowledge; CR = cultural representative; MO = motivator; FA = facilitator; LA = learning advisor; DE = designer. The effect sizes (η^2) are interpreted as follows: ≥ .01 = small; ≥ .06 = medium; ≥ .14 = large. (Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2008).

Table 4.5

Descriptive Statistics for Role Perceptions by Student Types

	Only English related majors (n = 49)		Mainly English related majors (n = 65)		Only other majors (n = 117)		Mainly other majors (n = 97)	
Roles	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
LM	4.73	1.67	4.65	1.56	4.27	1.63	4.23	1.86
EE	5.16	1.41	5.00	1.53	5.11	1.41	4.86	1.57
TK	5.12	1.03	5.11	1.30	4.97	1.35	4.82	1.59
CR	4.53	1.40	5.23	1.34	4.47	1.64	4.72	1.59
MO	5.86	.98	5.89	1.08	5.95	.81	5.73	1.18
FA	6.33	.75	6.29	.74	6.19	.90	6.19	.94
LA	6.12	.73	5.98	.86	5.74	.89	5.71	.99
DE	5.90	1.03	5.62	1.37	5.54	1.45	5.40	1.48

Note. LM = language model; EE = English expert; TK = transmitter of knowledge; CR = cultural representative; MO = motivator; FA = facilitator; LA = learning advisor; DE = designer. Only English related majors = Students majoring in fields where English is emphasized; Mainly English related majors = Mainly students majoring in fields where English is emphasized, but I also taught students majoring in other fields; Only other majors = Only students majoring in other fields; Mainly other majors = Mainly students majoring in other fields, but I also taught students majoring in fields where English is emphasized. The effect sizes (η^2) are interpreted as follows: ≥ .01 = small; ≥ .06 = medium; ≥ .14 = large. (Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2008).

Table 4.6 shows the descriptive statistics for role perceptions according to course types. The analysis did not identify any statistically significant differences except in FA, F (2, 325) = 7.43, p = .00 and DE, F (2, 325) = 5.74, p = .00. However, the effect sizes in both cases were small (η^2 = .04 and .03, respectively). *Post hoc* comparisons using the Tukey HSD identified the differences in one pair related to FA (between "only compulsory English" and "mainly compulsory English"), and one pair related to DE (between "only compulsory English" and "mainly compulsory English").

Table 4.6

Descriptive Statistics for Role Perceptions by Course Types

Roles	Only compulsory English (n = 120)		Mainly compulsory English (n = 150)		Mainly content courses (n = 58)		Effect size
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	η^2
LM	4.34	1.73	4.45	1.64	4.41	1.79	.00
EE	4.88	1.55	5.09	1.47	5.16	1.35	.01
TK	4.99	1.30	5.01	1.41	4.86	1.44	.00
CR	4.69	1.56	4.71	1.53	4.72	1.65	.00
MO	5.82	.99	5.87	.99	5.91	1.08	.00
FA	6.01	1.09	6.41	.62	6.22	.75	.04
LA	5.85	.72	5.80	1.07	5.90	.76	.00
DE	5.25	1.51	5.82	1.23	5.57	1.43	.03

Note. LM = language model; EE = English expert; TK = transmitter of knowledge; CR = cultural representative; MO = motivator; FA = facilitator; LA = learning advisor; DE = designer. Only compulsory English = Only compulsory English courses in the general education program; Mainly compulsory English = Mainly taught compulsory English courses in the general education program, but I also taught content courses; Mainly content courses = Mainly content courses, but I also taught compulsory English courses. The effect sizes (η^2) are interpreted as follows: ≥ .01 = small; ≥ .06 = medium; ≥ .14 = large. (Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2008).

As shown, statistically significant differences were found for five role perception items within the three variables of English-teaching experience, student types, and course types. However, only small effect sizes were observed in all cases, requiring careful interpretation to decide whether or not the differences had practical effects. Given the

number of items and groups that were compared, the influence of the background factors was small. Put differently, the background factors did not play a primary function in the construction of role perceptions in the present study. Thus, this study compared JTEs and NJTEs without considering their background factors. (This point is further discussed in Chapter 6: Conclusion).

Factor analysis of the influential factors

Items for influential factors used multi-item scales, and three to four items constituted each category. The content of these questionnaire items was qualitatively proved to fit the intended categories in the pilot testing (see Section 4.2.1); however, they were not statistically examined. To examine whether or not these 25 items statistically fitted the intended eight categories, an exploratory factor analysis with maximum likelihood estimation with promax rotation was conducted. [69]

The solution was supported by the results of the KMO and Barlett's tests (Table 4.7) The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test for sampling adequacy score (.714) revealed the sample size was sufficient, and the result of Barlett's test of sphericity, $\chi^2 (300) = 3736.67$, $p = .000$, showed statistical significance and supported the factor analysis.

Table 4.7

Results of the KMO and Barlett's Tests for Influential Factors

KMO	.714
Barlett's test of sphericity (approx. Chi-square)	3736.672
Degree of freedom	300
Significance	.000

Note. The KMO values are interpreted as follows: ≥ .90 is excellent; .89 ≥ .80 is very good; .79 ≥ .70 is good; .69 ≥ .50 is fair; and ≤ .50 is unacceptable (Field, 2009, cited in Hirai, 2012).

---

[69] As mentioned previously (see FN 57), six items in two categories were removed with this process.

Table 4.8 shows the summary of factor analysis results.

Table 4.8

Summary of the Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Influential Factors

Items for influential factors	Factors								Commu-nalities
	1: PE (α = .769)	2: TE (α = .719)	3: IT (α = .800)	4: CO (α = .879)	5: GT (α = .829)	6: SELF (α = .842)	7: EXP (α = .831)	8: STU (α = .845)	
PE1	**.965**	-.019	-.012	-.009	.020	.028	-.017	.049	.940
PE2	**.436**	.156	-.050	.023	-.029	-.036	.076	-.004	.248
PE3	**.832**	-.038	.014	-.007	-.024	-.019	-.013	-.045	.672
TE1	.021	**.762**	-.020	-.048	.017	-.015	.045	.008	.566
TE2	-.016	**.770**	.026	.005	-.034	.011	.019	.003	.612
TE3	.071	**.463**	.124	.085	.039	-.039	-.111	-.014	.323
IT1	.040	.079	**.706**	-.072	.045	.039	.014	-.024	.537
IT2	-.027	.037	**.921**	.017	-.040	.036	.026	-.014	.903
IT3	-.044	-.036	**.670**	.012	.010	-.042	-.028	.025	.433
CO1	.029	-.051	.124	**.785**	-.034	-.064	.047	.082	.675
CO2	.014	.041	-.041	**.967**	.048	.016	-.017	-.022	.932
CO3	-.039	.010	-.100	**.796**	-.006	.058	-.013	-.053	.618
GT1	-.017	-.019	.083	.081	**.777**	-.035	-.080	.032	.600
GT2	.008	.000	.014	-.002	**.872**	-.024	.039	-.025	.748
GT3	-.021	.030	-.090	-.073	**.728**	.067	.054	.001	.582
SELF1	.047	.020	-.044	-.027	.082	**.790**	.009	-.024	.689
SELF2	-.050	-.002	.020	.024	-.061	**.816**	.037	.044	.641
SELF3	-.007	-.044	.044	.017	-.009	**.797**	-.060	-.002	.630
EXP1	.008	.068	-.022	-.060	.012	-.015	**.703**	.022	.476
EXP2	-.029	-.001	.015	.010	.017	-.038	**.916**	.027	.819
EXP3	.054	-.086	.014	.076	-.024	.048	**.748**	-.057	.650
STU1	.043	-.157	.119	-.034	.028	-.012	.018	**.735**	.544
STU2	-.017	.097	-.075	.039	-.073	.030	-.010	**.759**	.599
STU3	-.028	-.032	-.037	-.005	.039	-.082	-.026	**.796**	.661
STU4	.001	.092	-.016	-.003	.014	.087	.020	**.771**	.613
Factor interrelations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Factor 1	1.000								
Factor 2	-.155	1.000							
Factor 3	.029	.034	1.000						
Factor 4	-.184	.216	.118	1.000					
Factor 5	.004	.162	-.101	.000	1.000				
Factor 6	.021	.016	.142	.240	.130	1.000			
Factor 7	.043	-.004	.341	-.005	-.080	.131	1.000		
Factor 8	-.149	.274	-.010	.087	.419	-.001	-.052	1.000	

Note. Factor loadings over .45 are bolded. The loadings are interpreted as follows: ≥ .71 (50% overlapping variance) is excellent; .71 ≥ .63 (40% overlapping variance) is very good; .62 ≥ .55 (30% overlapping variance) is good; .54 ≥ .45 (20% overlapping variance) is fair; and .44 ≥ .32 (10 % variance) is poor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In this study, the cutoff line was set at .45. PE = Past language learning experiences; TE = teacher education and training; IT = involvement with teacher organizations; CO = discussion with coworkers; EXP = expectations; STU = student-related factors; SELF = self-understanding; GT = beliefs about grammar teaching.

The procedures yielded eight factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. These eight factors accounted for 62.9% of the total variance. The factor loadings for all items in these eight factors were higher than .45 (Table 4.8). Table 4.8 also depicts Cronbach's α for the internal consistency of each factor, showing that each factor revealed sufficient consistency. Thus, the results of factor analysis supported the validity of items in the eight predetermined categories.

Analysis

Following data screening, the data were analyzed to answer the research questions. A seven-point Likert scale—with response options used to assess participants' role perceptions, influential factors in the construction of role perceptions, and teacher self-efficacy—was converted to indicate numerical values (strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, somewhat disagree = 3, neither agree nor disagree = 4, somewhat agree = 5, agree = 6, strongly agree = 7).[70] As the measurement of influential factors and teacher self-efficacy used multi-item scales, the mean values of the constituent items in the eight categories were calculated in each case (i.e., each respondent).

The responses were then analyzed statistically. Descriptive statistics were calculated for each category, and the following three statistical analyses were performed using SPSS (Version 26):

> (1) A *t*-test to compare the JTE and NJTE responses to all the variables. Owing to the need for a series of *t*-tests with several dependent variables, the significance level was set at $p < .0062$ to avoid a type I error and Bonferroni correction was used.[71]

---

[70] The data were treated as interval data (See FN 68, p. 164).
[71] Bonferroni correction can be used to control the significance level, where a significance level is divided by the number of tests (variables). In the present study, there were 8 categories (variables); hence, a

(2) The percentages of respondents regarding nine items from the list of purposes of university English education were calculated. Then, the responses in both groups were statistically compared with Pearson's chi-square test to examine any significant differences.

(3) The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was employed to examine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and role perceptions.

4.3.2 Findings

Results regarding role perceptions, influential factors, purposes of university English education, and teacher self-efficacy are presented in this section.

Role perceptions

Descriptive statistics and *t*-test results regarding the differences between JTEs and NJTEs pertaining to role perceptions are presented in Table 4.9 and Figure 4.2.

As shown in Table 4.9 and Figure 4.2, the overall results indicate that MO, FA, LA, and DE were relatively highly rated compared to LM, EE, TK, and CR, which received moderately high ratings. In addition, the *SD* values indicated that participants had similar opinions regarding MO, FA, and LA, as they were relatively small. By contrast, those of LM and CR indicated that opinions varied as they were relatively large.

regular significance level of 0.05 was divided by eight. Thus, a significance level of 0.0062 was set as the cutoff point.

Table 4.9

*Descriptive Statistics and T-test Results for Role Perceptions*

Role perceptions	Total (n = 328)		JTE (n = 170)		NJTE (n = 158)				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
LM	4.40	1.70	4.32	1.66	4.49	1.74	.93	.350	
EE	5.02	1.48	5.05	1.45	4.99	1.51	.32	.745	
TK	4.98	1.37	4.94	1.31	5.05	1.44	.95	.341	
CR	4.70	1.56	4.74	1.48	4.66	1.64	.44	.657	
MO	5.86	1.00	5.82	0.94	5.90	1.07	.67	.500	
FA	6.23	.86	5.96	0.97	6.52	0.60	6.22	.000*	.69‡
LA	5.84	.90	5.69	0.93	5.99	0.85	3.09	.002*	.34†
DE	5.57	1.39	5.23	1.48	5.93	1.19	4.73	.000*	.52‡

Note. LM = language model; EE = English expert; TK = transmitter of knowledge; CR = cultural representative; MO = motivator; FA = facilitator; LA = learning advisor; DE = designer. * = $p < .0062$, two-tailed. † = small effect size; ‡ = medium effect size. The effect sizes (*d*) are interpreted as follows: ≥ .20 = small; ≥ .50 = medium; ≥ .80 = large. (Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2008).
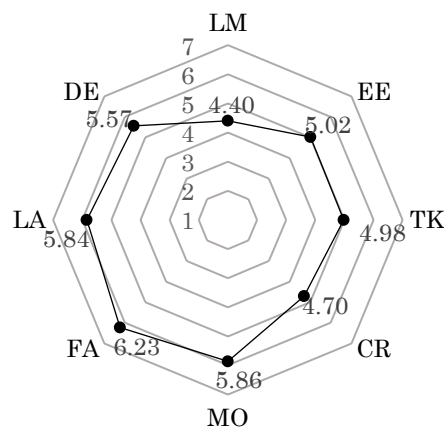
Figure 4.2 Mean values for the participants' role perceptions. LM = language model; EE = English expert; TK = transmitter of knowledge; CR = cultural representative; MO = motivator; FA = facilitator; LA = learning advisor; DE = designer.

With regard to the group differences, statistically significant differences were observed in FA, LA, and DE (see also Figure 4.3). The mean values of these roles for the JTE group were not as high as those of the NJTE group for FA. Medium effect sizes were observed for FA and DE, and a small effect size was found for LA, which was considered to be practically unimportant.
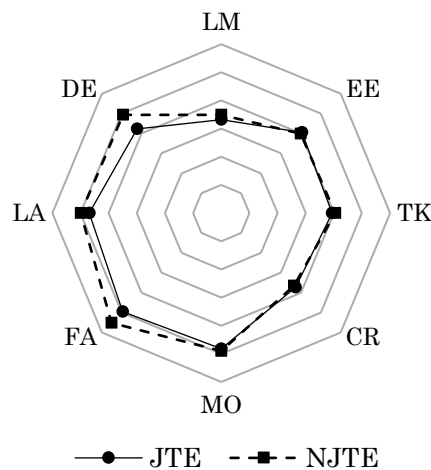
Figure 4.3 The comparison between JTEs and NJTEs regarding their role perceptions. LM = language model; EE = English expert; TK = transmitter of knowledge; CR = cultural representative; MO = motivator; FA = facilitator; LA = learning advisor; DE = designer.

In summary, both the JTE and NJTE groups assessed the MO, FA, LA, and DE roles higher than the other four roles, and the NJTEs assessed the FA and DE roles higher than the JTEs.

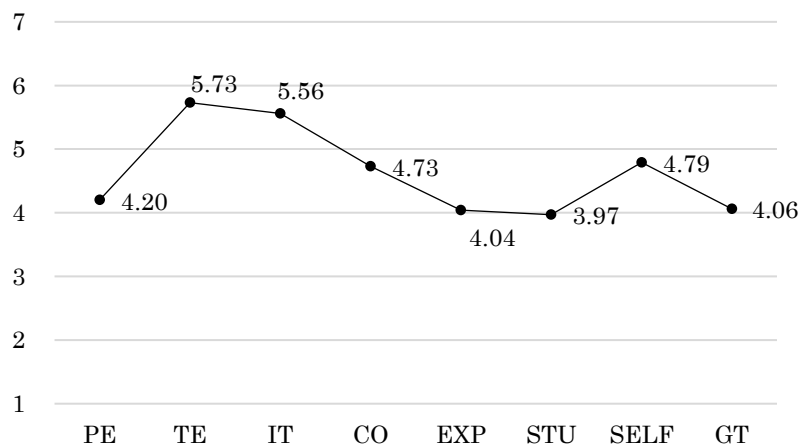### *Influential factors on role perceptions*

Table 4.10 and Figure 4.4 display the mean values of all participants for the eight categories regarding influential factors. TE and IT were rated relatively highly. CO and SELF values were moderately high. The mean values for PE, EXP, STU, and GT were located around the mid-point of the scale.

Table 4.10

*Descriptive Statistics and T-test Results for Influential Factors*

Influential factors	Total (n = 328)		JTE (n = 170)		NJTE (n = 158)		t	p	d
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
PE	4.20	1.32	4.22	1.29	4.19	1.35	.22	.827	
TE	5.73	1.11	5.62	1.13	5.84	1.09	1.80	.072	
IT	5.56	1.26	5.48	1.24	5.65	1.27	1.22	.223	
CO	4.73	1.55	4.54	1.45	4.94	1.63	2.40	.017	
EXP	4.04	1.42	4.11	1.44	3.96	1.41	.98	.327	
STU	3.97	1.29	3.83	1.25	4.13	1.33	2.15	.033	
SELF	4.79	1.43	5.21	1.25	4.35	1.49	5.69	.000*	.63‡
GT	4.06	1.26	4.42	1.19	3.68	1.23	5.50	.000*	.61‡

Note. PE = past language learning experiences; TE = teacher education and training; IT = involvement with teacher organizations; CO = discussion with coworkers; EXP = expectations; STU = student characteristics; SELF = self-understanding; GT = beliefs about grammar teaching. * = $p < .0062$, two-tailed. † = small effect size; ‡ = medium effect size. The effect sizes (*d*) are interpreted as follows: ≥ .20 = small; ≥ .50 = medium; ≥ .80 = large. (Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2008).

Figure 4.4 Mean values of the influential factors on role perceptions. PE = past language learning experiences; TE = teacher education and training; IT = involvement with teacher organizations; CO = discussion with coworkers; EXP = expectations; STU = student characteristics; SELF = self-understanding; GT = beliefs about grammar teaching.

The *t*-test results revealed significant differences in SELF and GT (Table 4.10 and Figure 4.5). The mean values of the JTE were higher than those of the NJTE group for SELF and for GT. Further, medium effect sizes were found in both cases.
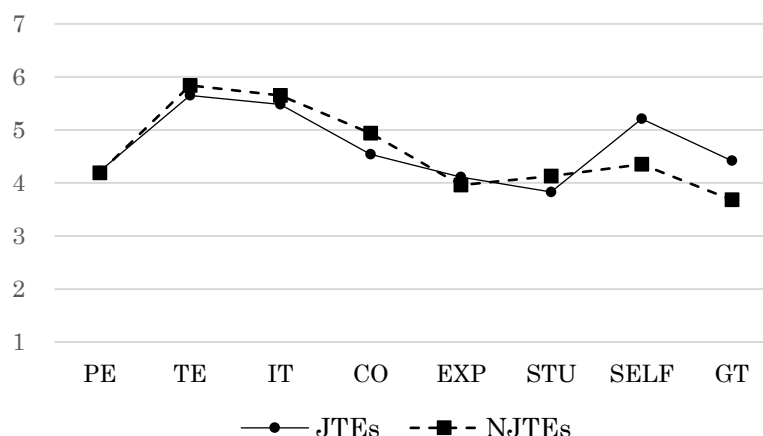
Figure 4.5 The comparison between JTEs and NJTEs regarding the influential factors on the role perceptions. PE = past language learning experiences; TE = teacher education and training; IT = involvement with teacher organizations; CO = discussion with coworkers; EXP = expectations; STU = student characteristics; SELF = self-understanding; GT = beliefs about grammar teaching.

In summary, both the JTE and NJTE groups assessed TE and IT higher than the others. Moreover, although the total scores for SELF and GT were not very high, the JTEs assessed them statistically significantly higher than the NJTEs.

Purposes of university English education

Figure 4.6 indicates the percentage of respondents who selected the presented purposes of university education. In total, more participants selected non-linguistic attitudinal aspects of purposes except for communication skills in English from the linguistic aspects of purposes.
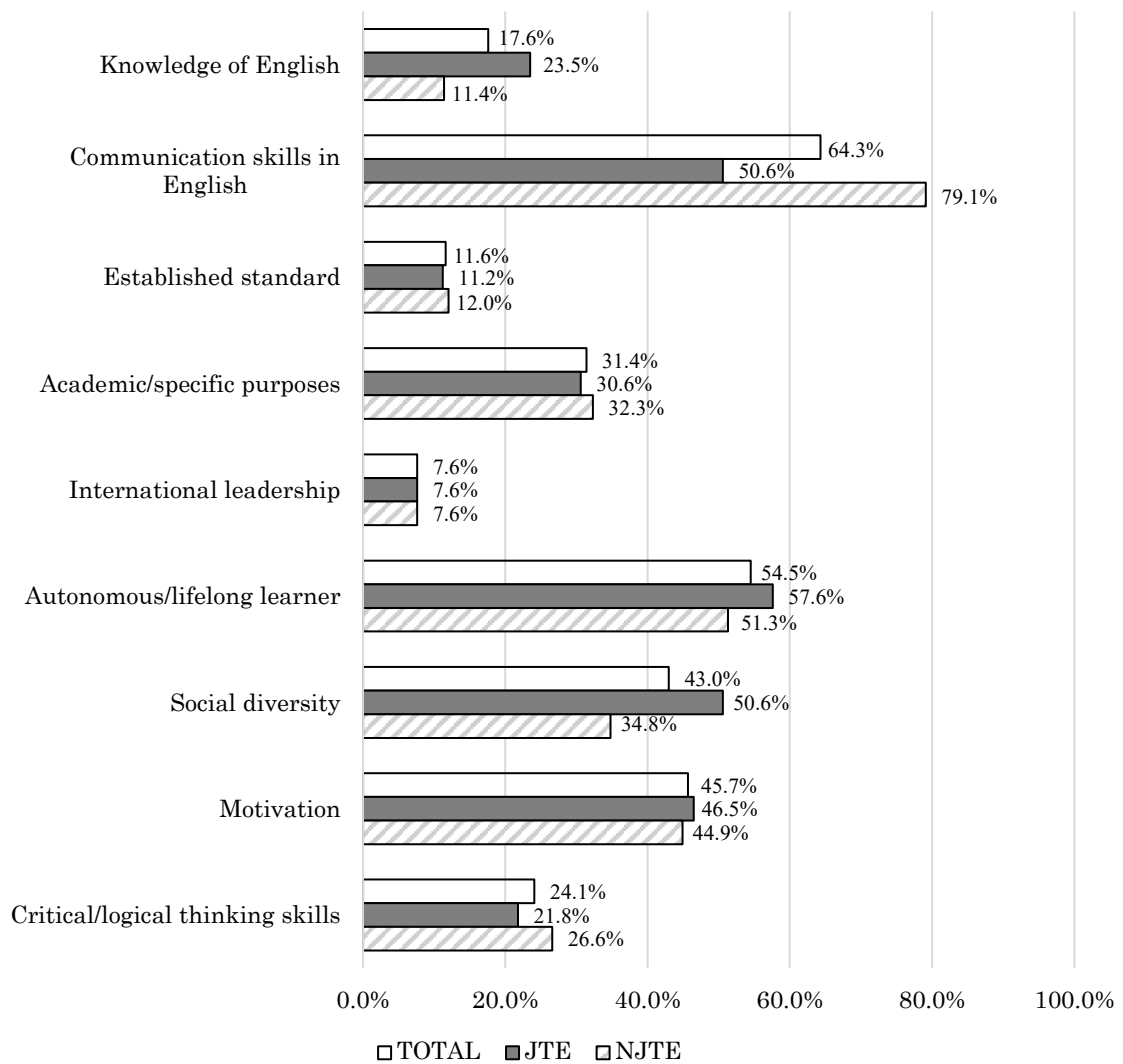
Figure 4.6 Results of the item concerning the purposes of university English education. The percentages are of the participants (*n* = 328 [170 JTEs and 158 NJTEs]). Multiple responses (three choices) were allowed.

Among the linguistic aspects, the percentages were different among purposes. Communication skills in English were selected by 64.3% of participants, whereas international leadership was only selected by 7.6%. Knowledge of English and established standards were selected by relatively few participants (17.6% and 11.6%), whereas academic/specific purposes were selected by 31.4%.

With regard to non-linguistic attitudinal aspects, there were no clear differences between purposes except for critical and logical thinking skills, which was selected by

24.1%. Autonomous/lifelong learner was selected the most (54.5%), followed by motivation (45.7%) and social diversity (43.0%).

Looking at the groups, the overall response patterns are similar between groups. However, the Pearson's chi-square test (two-tailed) revealed significant differences between the groups regarding knowledge of English, communication skills in English, and social diversity, with the most salient difference being for communication skills in English. The percentage of JTEs who selected knowledge of English was 23.5% ($n = 40$), and that of the NJTEs was 11.4% ($n = 18$), χ^2 (1, $n = 328$) = 8.29, $p = .00$. The percentage of JTEs who selected communication skills in English was 50.6% ($n = 86$), whereas that of NJTEs was much higher at 79.1% ($n = 125$), χ^2 (1, $n = 328$) = 29.04, $p = .00$. The percentage of JTEs who selected social diversity was 50.6% ($n = 86$), whereas that of NJTEs was 34.8% ($n = 55$), χ^2 (1, $n = 328$) = 8.32, $p = .00$.

In summary, both groups of teachers similarly recognized the purposes of university English education except for developing students' knowledge of English, developing students' communication skills in English, and developing students' ability to understand and adapt to social diversity and different cultures. More JTEs than NJTEs selected developing students' knowledge of English, and developing students' ability to understand and adapt to social diversity and different cultures. By contrast, more NJTEs than JTEs selected developing students' communication skills in English.

Teacher self-efficacy for engagement

The Pearson's correlation coefficient (*r*) was calculated to reveal any relationship between teacher self-efficacy for engagement (Effi) and role perceptions, with the results listed in Table 4.11. It was found that Effi and MO were moderately positively correlated,

while Effi and LM, CR, FA, LA, and DE were found to be weakly positively correlated, respectively.

Table 4.11

Correlations between Teacher Self-efficacy for Engagement and Role Perceptions

	LM		EE		TK		CR		MO		FA		LA		DE	
	r	*p*	*r*	*p*	*r*	*p*	*r*	*p*	*r*	*p*	*r*	*p*	*r*	*p*	*r*	*p*
Effi	.20	.00*	.08	.13	.17	.00*	.25	.00*	.50	.00*	.33	.00*	.33	.00*	.30	.00*

Note. n = 328. LM = language model; EE = English expert; TK = transmitter of knowledge; CR = cultural representative; MO = motivator; FA = facilitator; LA = learning advisor; DE = designer. Strong correlation: $\pm 1.0 \geq r \geq \pm .70$; moderate correlation: $\pm .70 \geq r \geq \pm .40$; weak correlation: $\pm .40 \geq r \geq \pm .20$; No correlation: $\pm .20 \geq r \geq \pm .00$ (Tanaka & Yamagiwa, 1992, cited in Hirai, 2012). * = $p < .05$, two-tailed.

Descriptive statistics were calculated, and a *t*-test was performed to examine the differences between JTEs and NJTEs pertaining to Effi. Table 4.12 indicates that the total score for the participants was relatively high (TOTAL: *M* = 4.98). The *t*-test results revealed the group difference (Table 4.12 and Figure 4.7). The JTE group rated self-efficacy lower than the NJTE group, and there was a significant difference between the groups. A medium effect size was found.

Table 4.12

Descriptive Statistics and T-test Results for Teacher Self-efficacy for Engagement

	Total (*n* = 328)		JTE (*n* = 170)		NJTE (*n* = 158)				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Effi	4.98	1.02	4.71	.98	5.27	.99	5.07	.000*	.57‡

Note. * = $p < .05$, two-tailed. ‡ = medium effect size. The effect sizes (*d*) are interpreted as follows: ≥ .20 = small; ≥ .50 = medium; ≥ .80 = large. (Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2008).
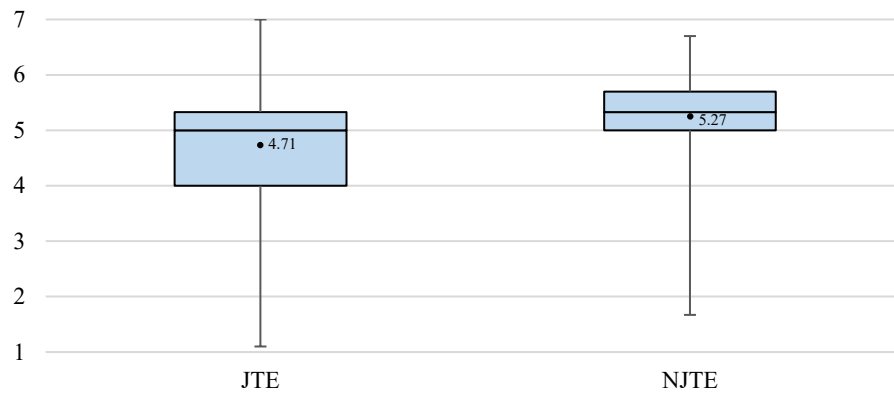
Figure 4.7 Box-and-whisker plot for the comparison between JTEs and NJTEs regarding their levels of teacher self-efficacy for engagement.

In summary, Effi was moderately positively correlated with MO, and it was also weakly correlated with learner-centered roles such as FA, LA, and DE. The NJTE group assessed Effi higher than the JTE group.

This section presented the findings from the main survey, which are used in the next chapter to answer the research questions.

Chapter 5: Discussion

In this chapter, the research questions are answered and discussions are developed in light of previous studies. To begin, the purposes of the present study are restated:

(1) to describe the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan and to compare JTEs and NJTEs in this regard.

(2) to identify the factors that are influential in the construction of role perceptions and to compare JTEs and NJTEs in this regard.

(3) to examine the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy and to compare JTEs and NJTEs in terms of their level of teacher self-efficacy.

For these purposes, six research questions were posed, which were answered by using the qualitative data from the interviews and the quantitative data from the survey.

Section 5.1 presents answers to the research questions. Section 5.2 presents a discussion on the construction of role perceptions of university English teachers, while Section 5.3 presents a discussion on JTEs and NJTEs from the perspective of native-spearkerism. Sections 5.4 and 5.5 present contributions and pedagogical implications, respectively.

5.1 Answers to the Research Questions

RQ1: What are the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan?

RQ2: How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of their role perceptions?

RQ1 was a primary research question. With the findings of the present study, it is possible to say that the role perceptions of university English teachers could be multiple, with varying degrees of importance and learner centeredness (see Tables 3.7, 3.8, 4.9, and

Figure 4.2). In the qualitative phase, the participants tended to mention their multiple role perceptions and were able to differentiate the importance of each of the perceived roles.

The survey results indicated that both the JTE and NJTE groups assessed the MO, FA, LA, and DE roles higher than the other four roles. As the MO, FA, LA, and DE roles can theoretically be defined as learner-centered roles (see Section 2.3.1), the results suggested that the role perceptions of the participants were understood as being more learner-centered. The roles that were typically considered to be under teacher-centered instructions, such as English expert (EE) and transmitter of knowledge (TK), were not completely neglected. In the qualitative study, English expert (EE) and transmitter of knowledge (TK) were chosen as the most important by 5 and 3 out of 28 participants, respectively (see Table 3.8). In the quantitative study, the mean values for roles such as language model (LM), English expert (EE), transmitter of knowledge (TK), and cultural representative (CR) were slightly above the midpoint of the scale (see Table 4.9 and Figure 4.2). This suggests that university English teachers need to adopt both teacher- and learner-centered roles to accomplish their teaching responsibilities. However, as larger *SD* values were shown in LM and CR compared to those in MO, FA, and LA, opinions varied among the participants regarding their teacher-centered role perceptions, implying that interpreting their teacher-centeredness only with the mean values may not accurately represent their role perceptions.

The findings also indicated that participants perceived themselves as taking on a motivator role (MO). This may be a reflection of their teaching context. As mentioned previously, the attitudes of Japanese university students toward English learning are not positive (Anderson, 1993, 2019; Berwick & Ross, 1989; Ryan & Makarova, 2004). Accordingly, many university English teachers may perceive that motivating students is

one of their roles, regardless of whether or not their role perceptions are teacher- or learner-centered or whether they liked adopting a motivator role.

Are role perceptions different between JTEs and NJTEs (RQ2)? The answer is not straightforward. It could be posited that although the overall tendency is similar, learner centeredness is stronger in NJTEs' role perceptions than in JTEs' role perceptions. In the qualitative phase, more NJTEs than JTEs chose learner-centered roles, such as facilitator (FA) and designer (DE), implying that NJTEs may perceive learner-centered roles more strongly than JTEs (see Table 3.8). This was corroborated by the quantitative study in which a different response format was used to assess their role perceptions. NJTE participants tended to perceive such roles as facilitator (FA) and designer (DE) more strongly than the JTEs (see Table 4.9). Thus, NJTEs' role perceptions can be said to be more learner centered than JTEs'.

The findings can highlight the differences to support the findings from the previous studies (Matsuura et al., 2001; Shimo, 2016, 2018). These studies reported that the two teacher groups were different in terms of perceived importance of instructional areas and perceptions of their students, which suggested differences in instructional orientations between the two groups of teachers. Given that role perceptions are closely linked with instructional orientations, the findings of the present study support the argument that JTEs and NJTEs are different in terms of their instructional orientations.

The findings also suggested that most of current JTEs may be different from those previously portrayed. Previous studies described JTEs as teachers with strong teacher-centered instructional orientations (Nagatomo, 2012; Cowie & Sakui, 2012). If this is actually still the case, the JTE participants may perceive such roles as English expert (EE) and transmitter of knowledge (TK) more strongly. However, this was not evident, and the findings suggested that JTEs' role perceptions tended to be more learner centered rather

than teacher centered (see Figure 4.3), which was similar to the NJTEs. The previous portrait of JTEs may no longer be accurate for the majority of current JTEs.

In summary, the findings of the present study suggested that role perceptions of JTEs and NJTEs are similarly learner-centered, although the tendency is a little stronger for NJTEs. The possible factors for the differences are discussed next.

RQ3: What are the influential factors in the construction of role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan?

RQ4: How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of influential factors affecting role perceptions and of their recognition regarding the purposes of university English education?

The findings indicated that multiple influential factors seemed to contribute in varying degrees to the construction of role perceptions (RQ3). With regard to influential factors, the qualitative study identified 20 factors and the quantitative study analyzed how the participants recognized influential factors. As explained in the following paragraphs, professional development activities such as teacher education/training programs (TE) and involvement with teacher organizations (IT) could be strong influences in the construction of role perceptions. JTEs and NJTEs slightly differently recognized self-understanding (SELF) and beliefs about grammar teaching (GT) and purposes of university English education, which may be related to the slight differences between the role perceptions of JTEs and NJTEs.

Professional development activities such as TE and IT could be strong influences in the construction of learner-centered role perceptions. These factors were assessed higher than the other factors (see Table 4.10 and Figure 4.4). As seen previously, the majority of current university English teachers have applied linguistics or other language teaching

related fields as their educational academic background (JACET, 2018). Thus, university English teachers will probably be familiar with learner-centered instructions through their experiences in teacher education/training programs. Moreover, their learner-centered instructional orientations would probably be reinforced by their experiences involving teacher organizations. However, the present study did not examine the causal relationship between role perceptions and influential factors. Thus, the influence of these factors is inconclusive, but they could be potentially strong influences.

Inconsistent with previous LTC studies, the findings from the present study did not suggest that contextual factors such as expectations (EXP) and student-related factors (STU) are primary influences on teachers in this context. Previous studies indicated that contextual factors were extremely influential. Further, teachers adjusted their instructions depending on expectations from schools and students' preferences, which is contradictory to the beliefs that the teachers held (Gorsuch, 2000; Phipps & Borg, 2009). However, the participants in the present study did not highly assess these contextual factors. This may reflect the context of university English education. Unlike secondary school settings, in which previous LTC studies reported the influence of contexts, university English teachers do not need to prepare their students for examinations. The findings from the present study could confirm that university English teachers are less restricted than secondary school teachers and that university English teachers' decision-making is particularly important for students' learning experiences.

With regard to the differences between JTEs and NJTEs regarding influential factors (RQ4), the findings indicated that beliefs about grammar teaching (GT) and self-understanding (SELF) were recognized differently between the two groups (see Table 4.10 and Figure 4.5). Although the overall influence of these two factors was not assessed as high, the JTE participants assessed them statistically higher than the NJTE participants.

This may suggest these two factors may be involved in the process to differentiate the degree of learner centeredness of the two groups.

If this is the case, beliefs about grammar teaching may weaken the degree of learner-centeredness. Theoretically, learner-centered instructions are associated with implicit learning (Nunan, 2014), which implies that teacher learner-centeredness and beliefs about grammar teaching can be negatively correlated. This was observed in the present study. The NJTE participants' beliefs about grammar teaching were weaker than those of the JTE participants, and their learner-centeredness was more evident than in the JTE participants. By contrast, the JTE participants' beliefs about grammar teaching were stronger than those of the NJTEs, and the degree of learner-centeredness was less evident than in the NJTE participants. In addition, beliefs about grammar teaching do not appear to influence teacher-centeredness because there were no differences between the two groups in language model (LM), English expert (EE), and transmitter of knowledge (TK). Thus, the degree of beliefs about grammar teaching can function to weaken the degree of learner-centered role perceptions.

The JTEs' relatively strong beliefs about grammar teaching (GT) could be related to their self-understanding (SELF). As suggested by previous LTC studies, their beliefs about grammar teaching were shaped by their learning experiences (Borg, 2006). Supposedly, they learned English in rather explicit ways because implicit instructions were not prevalent when they learned English. The JTE participants may have valued their experiences as Japanese learners of English as part of their self-understanding.

This interpretation apparently contradicts the finding that participants did not strongly recognize the influence of their past language learning experiences (PE). However, the items in this factor inquired about participants' classroom experiences rather than their learning experiences. It is possible that while their classroom experiences

were not influential, their learning experiences were influential on LTC. In fact, negative comments regarding how they were taught in class were found in the qualitative study. For example, JTE04 noted: "I liked English, so I liked all the English teachers I had, but they are examples of how not to do it, sorry to say." Rather than how they were taught English in class, their learning experiences outside the class may have shaped the JTEs' relatively strong beliefs about grammar teaching and self-understanding.

By contrast, NJTEs did not seem to be greatly influenced by beliefs about grammar teaching. Further, none of the NJTE participants mentioned grammar teaching in their accounts for their role perceptions in the qualitative study. As previous studies on NEST/NNEST characteristics suggested (see Table 2.12 in Section 2.5.1), NJTEs in the present study focus more on fluency, meaning, and language in use rather than on accuracy, form, and grammar rules.

With regard to self-understanding, the findings of the qualitative study suggested that NJTEs' perspectives vary. For example, NJTE15 recognized that self-understanding is important for a native speaker, noting "They [the students] need a native speaker as a model. I am guiding them towards what they need to strive for, which is more fluent and practical English." By contrast, NJTE16 had a different opinion about self-understanding as a native speaker, noting "Most of my students won't be talking to native speakers anyway. They will be talking to other people whose language is English as a lingua franca. So, I think it is not an advantage to teach the native English norms." It can be observed that NJTEs' perspectives regarding their native identity vary.

As explained, the findings indicated that JTEs and NJTEs recognized the influences of beliefs about grammar teaching (GT) and self-understanding (SELF) differently. Although these factors were not assessed strongly compared to factors such as teacher

education/training programs (TE) and involvement with teacher organizations (IT), they may function as factors when determining the degree of learner-centered role perceptions.

Finally, with regard to the recognitions of the purposes of university English education, although the overall tendency was similar between the groups, significant differences were found in the perceived importance of developing their knowledge of English, developing their ability to understand and adapt to social diversity and different cultures, and developing students' practical communication skills in English, (see Figure 4.6).

The findings indicated that more JTE participants recognized developing students' knowledge of English compared to NJTEs. JTEs' beliefs about grammar teaching may be involved in their recognition of this purpose. Previous studies indicated that JTEs thought their students wanted them to use more Japanese and that they should be engaged in translation work (Shimo, 2018). This can be interpreted as JTEs believing they need to use Japanese to explain difficult concepts such as grammar and should focus on accuracy through translation. This was also evidenced by the JTEs' beliefs about grammar teaching found in the present study, implying they believe meticulous understanding of English is important for language learning.

Also, more JTEs than NJTEs valued developing students' ability to understand different cultures and adapt to social diversity. This may be related to their self-understanding (SELF), which JTEs tended to value. The emphasis on their Japanese identities may have created the dichotomous view of Japanese and foreign in their beliefs. This view may have influenced their recognitions of developing students' ability to understand different cultures and adapt to social diversity.

By contrast, the findings indicated that more NJTE participants recognized practical communication skills in English as an important purpose compared to the JTEs, which

can be consistent with the previous findings (Matsuura et al., 2001). Matsuura et al. reported that more NJTE participants viewed speaking as an important instructional area than JTE participants, and speaking skills can be regarded as part of practical communication skills in English. The emphasis on developing practical communication skills in English could reinforce NJTEs' learner-centered role perceptions because teachers need to engage students in communicative tasks and other activities, which requires teachers to serve as facilitators and designers (Nunan, 2014).

In summary, role perceptions are constructed with a number of factors in a very complex manner. Among such factors, professional development, beliefs about grammar teaching, self-understanding, and the recognitions of the purposes of university English education may function as critical influences in the construction of role perceptions.

RQ5: What is the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement?

RQ6: How do JTEs and NJTEs differ in terms of the level of teacher self-efficacy for engagement?

The present study found correlational relationships between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement (RQ5), and it also indicated that the NJTE participants perceived higher levels of teacher self-efficacy for engagement (Effi) compared to the JTEs (RQ6).

With regard to the correlational relationship, motivator was moderately correlated with the level of teacher self-efficacy for engagement. Moreover, typical learner-centered roles such as facilitator (FA), learning advisor (LA), and designer (DE) were weakly correlated with teacher self-efficacy, while typical student-centered roles such as

language model (LM), English expert (EE), and transmitter of knowledge (TK) did not suggest a correlational relationship with teacher self-efficacy for engagement (Effi).

The findings were found to be mostly consistent with the previous studies, which demonstrated that teachers with higher levels of teacher self-efficacy tended to implement more learner-centered instructions (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008). The findings of the present study supported their argument. However, the relationship was not as strong as previous studies had suggested. One possible explanation for this could be differences in the constructs measured between the previous studies and the present study. The former used teachers' self-assessment of their teaching behaviors, whereas the latter used teachers' self-assessment of their role perceptions. These two types of self-assessment may not be completely compatible. Accordingly, assessment of typical learner role perceptions might indicate a weak correlation with teacher self-efficacy for engagement. The NJTE participants perceived higher levels of teacher self-efficacy for engagement (Effi) compared to the JTEs (Table 4.12 and Figure 4.7). If the distinction between JTEs and NJTEs is simply an issue of language proficiency, the findings support those of previous studies (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Mills & Allen, 2007; Thompson & Woodman, 2019). These studies reported that participants' language proficiency is one factor that determines the level of teacher self-efficacy. The findings also support the claim that multilingual identities may not contribute to higher levels of teacher self-efficacy in EFL settings, where the distinction of native and non-native English speaker can be emphasized (Faez et al., 2019), indicating that native speakeristic view persists among JTEs (This is further discussed in Section 5.3). This is also plausible from Bandura's theory which explains environmental factors affect person's cognitive, affective, and biological factors (see Section 2.4.1).

The findings are consistent with other findings in the present study. NJTEs' higher levels of teacher self-efficacy compared to JTEs can be expected because of their slightly stronger learner-centered role perceptions (Figure 4.3) because they are correlated with each other (see Table 4.11). Although the relationship is not a causal relationship, the findings suggested that role perceptions may be one of the factors that differentiate JTEs and NJTEs regarding their teacher self-efficacy.

In summary, by indicating the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement and the fact that NJTEs felt higher levels of teacher self-efficacy, these findings suggested that role perceptions may be one of the factors that contribute to the level of teacher self-efficacy.

5.2 Construction of Role Perceptions for University English Teachers in Japan

The author considers that the findings of the present study can offer insights into the construction of role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan. The following four points can be summarized

- Complex configuration of role perceptions
- Context-sensitive nature of role perceptions
- The influence of teachers' professional and personal experiences on role perceptions
- The relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement

First, the configuration of role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan appears to be rather complex. Farrell (2011), in his study of Canadian ESL teachers, explained the complex configuration of role perceptions from the perspective of ready-made and individually created roles. The former represents roles entailed in teaching or

the roles that teachers are expected to adopt, whereas the latter represents roles that individual teachers develop throughout their careers. The findings of the present study can provide other perspectives for understanding the configuration of role perceptions, such as core/peripheral and abstract/concrete role perceptions. The participants in the present study perceived different roles with different degrees of importance (see RQ1). Roles such as facilitator, learning advisor, and motivator were perceived as more important compared to roles such as language model and cultural representative (Table 4.9 and Figure 4.2). In other words, the former roles can be considered core roles, whereas the latter can be considered peripheral roles. In addition, role perceptions were constructed with roles having different levels of abstraction. For example, roles such as transmitter of knowledge and organizer can describe what teachers actually do in class, whereas roles such as English expert, cultural representative, and native speaker (or Japanese) cannot represent teachers' actions. These can be perceived as qualifications, abilities, or identities; however, the participants perceived these abstract concepts as roles. This seems to suggest that role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan are concerned with what teachers do and who they are and are configured in multiple and multifaceted ways.

Second, the findings of the present study could be understood as roles sensitive to the context of Japanese university English education. Farrell (2011) asserted that role perceptions are context sensitive. He explained that his findings described a particular group of teachers in a particular context, while different teachers in a different context would possess different role perceptions. The findings from previous studies on role perceptions were somewhat different from each other (see Section 2.3.2), indicating context-specific role perceptions. The present study identified 22 role perceptions, which are also somewhat different from those of previous studies. Although methodological

differences in these studies could have caused these variations in role perceptions among studies, differences found in the present study can also be understood as being caused by role perceptions that are specific to the context of university English education in Japan. This appears to indicate that English teachers at Japanese universities adjusted their instructions according to the context.

Third, the findings of the present study indicate that both professional and personal experiences could influence the construction of role perceptions. The qualitative study identified 20 influential factors, including professional and personal experiences (see Table 3.12). In particular, the participants tended to agree regarding the influence of professional experiences such as teacher education/training programs and involvement with teacher organizations regarding their teaching practices, suggesting that they constitute a strong influence on their practices. This may be considered as supporting evidence for the effectiveness of professional development activities, for which previous LTC research produced mixed results (see Section 2.2.2). In addition, the findings suggest that teacher-internal factors, such as beliefs and self-understanding, can be developed based on teachers' personal experiences. These factors may function as critical factors in differentiating the role perceptions of JTEs and NJTEs, as seen in the influence of beliefs about grammar teaching and self-understanding (see RQ4).

Finally, the findings indicate that role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan are related to teacher self-efficacy. Based on previous studies on teacher self-efficacy (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008), the present study examined a correlation between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement (see RQ5). In the present study, teachers with role perceptions of motivators and learner-centeredness perceived higher levels of self-efficacy for engagement. It should be noted that the analysis did not examine the causal relationship. Rather, it is probably a bi-directional

reciprocal relationship, as suggested by Bandura (1986) (see Section 2.4.1). In his theory, teacher self-efficacy (personal factor), human behavior, and environment are reciprocally influential. Accordingly, because role perceptions can represent instructional orientations and actual teaching behaviors, the correlational relationship found in the present study can be understood within Bandura's theory. The findings of the present study may suggest that role perceptions are related to other teacher factors, such as multilingual identities and teachers' perceptions of their students.

In summary, the findings of the present study suggest that role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan can be both multiple and multifaceted. Moreover, they can be constructed by both the context and English teachers' professional and personal experiences. Further, role perceptions may be related to other teacher factors, as suggested by the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement. Although these were observed in the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan, they may also be applicable to teachers in other contexts.

5.3 JTEs, NJTEs, and Native-speakerist beliefs

In this section, the author would like to discuss current university English teachers in Japan from the perspective of native-speakerism by comparing JTEs and NJTEs. As indicated, the overall tendency regarding role perceptions of the two groups is similar. Thus, the differences between the two should not be emphasized in the context of university English education in Japan. However, the small differences in their role perceptions may be caused by persistent native-speakeristic beliefs among teachers in this context. This can be observed in self-understanding, and the purposes of university English education, as seen in RQ4.

First, the difference found in self-understanding (SELF) can be seen as an example of native-speakeristic beliefs among university English teachers. The JTE participants tended to recognize self-understanding as Japanese more than the NJTE participants recognized their self-understanding as their (near-) native speakers. This can be perceived as native-speakeristic, because the emphasis that non-native English speakers place on their identity as being non-native speakers can reinforce the distinction between native and non-native speakers (Rivers, 2018). Rivers (2018) further claimed that native-speakerism is not simply perceiving native speakers of English and their culture as ideal teachers, models, or norms. The emphasis placed on non-native speakers' linguistic or national identities by themselves can also be native-speakerism because such views already involve distinctions between the two. Thus, JTEs' strong recognition of their self-understanding can be understood as an indication of their native speakeristic beliefs. By contrast, the NJTE participants' native speakeristic beliefs cannot be observed in the quantitative data. However, the qualitative study suggested that native-speakeristic beliefs may vary. As explained in RQ4, there were two opposite opinions regarding NJTEs being a language model for students. There were NJTEs who believed that native speakers are the model for students to aim for. This would indicate that native-speakeristic beliefs remain within their minds.

Second, the different recognitions of the purposes of university English education between the two groups appear to represent native-speakeristic beliefs. In other words, traditional course assignments based on native-speakeristic beliefs may have influenced the teachers' different recognitions of the purposes. Stereotypically, the roles of NESTs and NNESTs are divided in EFL settings (Medgyes, 2017). Based on this stereotype, NNESTs have traditionally been assigned to teach reading or grammar, whereas NESTs have traditionally been assigned to teach productive or speaking skills (Oda, 2018; Uzum,

2018). If traditional course assignments remain prevalent in current university English education, it is unsurprising that JTEs tend to focus on developing students' knowledge of English and NJTEs tend to focus on practical communication skills in English. This is a deep-rooted structural issue. If the native-speakeristic role and course assignment practices remain, the differences are likely to prevail. Moreover, JTEs and NJTEs will be stereotypically perceived by students as having certain strengths and weaknesses (Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Uzum, 2018), and native-speakerism will persist in student beliefs.

In summary, the slight differences between JTEs and NJTEs regarding influential factors on their role perceptions may be a result of beliefs that teachers have. Their beliefs may be reinforced by stereotypical roles and course assignments. Despite the fact that both groups of teachers had similarities regarding their role perceptions, the distinction between the two might perpetuate by the current practices of university English education

5.4 Contributions

The author considers that the present study has the potential to contribute to the field of LTC research on university English teachers and to the field of research on role perceptions in the broader context, both theoretically and methodologically. These points are discussed below with the findings of the present study.

The present study provided additional descriptions about university English teachers in Japan who are under researched. Although researchers had documented these teachers previously, these studies were limited both in quality and quantity (Nagatomo, 2012). Moreover, to the best of the author's knowledge, no researcher explored role perceptions of these teachers. By exploring their role perceptions, the present study provided additional descriptions regarding their general instructional orientations.

Furthermore, the author attempted to present the similarities and differences between JTEs and NJTEs regarding their role perceptions. As mentioned, their overall role perceptions were similarly learner centered (but NJTEs tended to be more learner centered than JTEs). Previous research stereotypically described JTEs as those with strong teacher-centered instructional orientations (Nagatomo, 2012; Cowie & Sakui, 2012), but the findings of the present study suggested that old descriptions of JTEs cannot be applicable to current JTEs.

In addition to the previous points, the author believes that the present study expanded the knowledge on role perceptions. Previous studies have only explored participants' role perceptions; they did not investigate how role perceptions were constructed, what factors influenced role perceptions, and how role perceptions were related to other teacher factors. By contrast, the present study addressed these gaps by identifying multiple influential factors in the construction of role perceptions and the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy.

With regard to influential factors, the findings indicated that teacher education/training and professional development activities appeared to be vital parts of a teacher's professional growth. Previous LTC studies have produced mixed results regarding the effectiveness of pre- and in-service teacher education programs. However, the present study added further evidence to support the theory that teacher education/training and professional development activities can override a teacher's past language learning experiences. Through a comparison of JTEs and NJTEs, the present study revealed that teacher-internal factors could create differences in participants' role perceptions, proving the influence of LTC on instructional orientations. Teachers' beliefs, self-understanding, and the recognition of the purposes of university English education were also identified as possible critical factors that affect role perceptions.

Further, role perceptions were shown to be related to teacher self-efficacy. Role perceptions of motivator and learner-centered teacher were found to be related to teacher self-efficacy for engagement. This implies that role perceptions could be related to other teacher factors. By revealing these possibilities, the author believes that the present study has expanded the scope of future research on role perceptions.

Methodologically, the present study could serve as an example of how to explore role perceptions, or other LTC constructs that participants find difficult to express. When investigating such constructs, it is necessary for participants to reflect on the issue in question, which could be a time-consuming process (Farrell, 2011). The present study used a mind map and a time-series sheet to enhance their reflections. The mind map was particularly helpful for eliciting data from participants and for understanding complex relationships among roles that the participants perceived themselves to play. This demonstrates the advantage of using visual methods in addition to interviews.

5.5 Pedagogical implications

In this section, the author would like to discuss pedagogical implications drawn from the present study. This includes implications for English teachers, including new entries to university English education.

University English teachers, including those new to university English education, should perceive themselves as playing leaner-centered roles rather than teacher-centered roles in order to achieve higher levels of self-efficacy for engagement. As shown, role perceptions as a motivator, facilitator, designer, and learning advisor correlate to the level of teacher self-efficacy for engagement (see RQ 5). Thus, as suggested by the correlational relationship between the two, having learner-centered role perceptions may enhance teacher self-efficacy for engagement. If teacher self-efficacy for engagement

could really be enhanced through role perceptions, it would probably change teacher behavior because self-efficacy and human behavior are reciprocally influential (Bandura, 1986, 1997). In Bandura's theory, someone with a high level of self-efficacy can accomplish tasks successfully. To accomplish their teaching tasks successfully, university English teachers in Japan could be advised to change a challenging situation where their students tend to not be highly motivated to learn English; having learner-centered role perceptions could be one possible solution for this.

One plausible strategy for increasing learner-centered role perceptions would be to become involved with teacher organizations and keep in touch with English teacher colleagues. These activities were found to be influential on role perceptions in the present study. English teachers new to university English teaching could learn strategies to motivate their students and to implement learner-centered instructions from experienced teachers, which is likely to improve their learner-centered role perceptions and their teacher self-efficacy for engagement subsequently. Different university English teachers must have undertaken different teaching strategies to meet their local needs. In other words, they might have gained abundant experiences and knowledge to share with other teachers. Thus, the author considers that sharing their teaching strategies is helpful for other teachers, especially those new to Japanese university settings. Placing themselves in an environment where they can talk with or observe other English teachers is also supported by Bandura's (1986) theory, in which the environment is one of the three components that can influence both self-efficacy and teacher behavior.

Observing and interacting with other teachers could be done at the respective universities in which they teach. As mentioned, university English teachers have a large degree of freedom about what and how they teach (Prichard & Moore, 2016), and the instructions in the postmethod era encourage them to develop their own theories of

teaching. This implies that there can be many perspectives, ideas, and opinions about instructions within English teacher communities at the respective universities. As the findings of the present study indicate, discussions with co-workers were found to be an influential factor in role perceptions. The exchange of ideas could enhance the quality of their instructions.

JTEs and NJTEs should also exchange ideas. They could exchange their teaching ideas without being constrained by preconceived and entrenched beliefs regarding their roles. As the findings of the present study indicate, JTEs and NJTEs have similar role perceptions. They may already have many ideas that can be shared by both groups of teachers. Importantly, the interaction between them could enhance the mutual understanding between them.

Teachers need to transform their LTCs before they change their teaching behavior (Borg, 2006). The transformation may not occur overnight, but placing themselves in a collaborative environment where teachers can exchange ideas can be one of the strategies for improving their teaching qualities. It is desirable that program coordinators at the respective universities create such opportunities.

.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

University English teachers in Japan generally have a large degree of freedom regarding what and how they teach (Prichard & Moore, 2016). It can be said that these teachers shape Japanese university students' learning experiences. However, Nagamoto (2012) argues that little attention has been paid to the LTCs of these teachers. In an attempt to understand their LTCs, the present study explored their role perceptions with the following three research purposes:

> (1) to describe the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan and to compare JTEs and NJTEs in this regard.
>
> (2) to identify the factors that are influential in the construction of role perceptions and to compare JTEs and NJTEs in this regard.
>
> (3) to examine the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy and to compare JTEs and NJTEs in terms of their level of teacher self-efficacy.

To achieve these purposes, an empirical study was planned and conducted. This concluding chapter provides a summary of the study, illustrates its contributions and limitations, and offers suggestions for areas of future research.

6.1 Summary of the Study

The present study was conducted in the form of an exploratory sequential mixed-methods research design in which both qualitative and quantitative research methods were utilized.

The qualitative phase consisted of the preliminary study and the main qualitative study. In the preliminary study, individual interviews with NJTEs ($n = 3$) were conducted to examine the interview procedures and to create an initial taxonomy of English teacher

roles. The created taxonomy contained 12 teacher roles and was subsequently employed as a research instrument in the main qualitative study. The main qualitative study involved an exploration of role perceptions and influential factors in their construction. Individual interviews with JTEs ($n = 12$) and NJTEs ($n = 22$) were conducted using visual methods (i.e., mind maps), and the data were analyzed using quantitative content and thematic analyses. As a result, 22 roles (as perceived by the participants) and 20 influential factors were identified, which were then classified into categories and core-categories. These findings were then employed for the quantitative study.

In the quantitative phase, an online questionnaire survey was conducted. For the survey, a questionnaire specific to the present study was developed and piloted. Using the developed questionnaire, the survey was conducted and the data were collected from 328 university English teachers (JTEs: $n = 170$; NJTEs: $n = 158$). The data were statistically analyzed to examine their role perceptions, influential factors, and teacher self-efficacy.

Ultimately, the present study revealed the following six points:

(1) University English teachers in Japan perceived both learner- and teacher-centered roles, and their role perceptions were oriented toward learner-centeredness.

(2) Overall, NJTEs perceived learner-centered roles slightly more strongly than JTEs.

(3) Professional development (such as teacher education/training programs and involvement with teacher organizations) was assessed as being important, suggesting that it could be a primary influence on participants' role perceptions.

(4) Self-understanding, beliefs about grammar teaching, and the purposes of university English education were recognized differently between JTEs and

NJTEs, which may have influenced the different degrees of learner-centeredness between groups.

(5) Motivator and learner-centered role perceptions were found to be related to levels of teacher self-efficacy.

(6) Higher levels of teacher self-efficacy were perceived by NJTEs compared to JTEs.

The author believes that the present study has the potential to contribute to the existing knowledge regarding LTC research on university English teachers and research on role perceptions in the broader context. The present study provided additional descriptions about current university English teachers in Japan, describing their role perceptions. It also presented the similarities and differences between JTEs and NJTEs regarding their role perceptions. Moreover, it identified multiple influences in the construction of role perceptions and revealed the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement.

6.2 Limitations

Despite the contributions of the present study, the author acknowledges the following limitations:

- Generalizability of the findings
- Influence of social desirability and idealistic beliefs
- Scope of the questionnaire
- Response formats in the questionnaire
- Analysis methods for quantitative data

These limitations are explained in the following paragraphs.

First, the generalizability of the findings is limited. It is debatable whether or not the sample collected in the present study was an accurate representation of university English teachers. This limitation was caused by the convenience sampling strategies employed, resulting in a limited number of part-time teachers. For example, 16.2% of the sample in the present study were part-time, compared to 25.1% in JACET (2018). Although there is no accurate consensus about the number of part-time teachers, their representative percentage in the present study was clearly small. In addition, the backgrounds of JTEs and NJTEs were found to be different (see Section 4.3.1). The JTE group included older and more experienced teachers (compared to the NJTE group), and the majority taught students in non-English-related fields and only compulsory English courses. By contrast, the NJTE group included 41% who were teaching English-related majors, with the majority also teaching content courses. Although the influence of background on role perceptions was limited (see Section 4.3.1), the two groups may not be comparable in terms of their background.

The second limitation concerns the inherent limitation of self-reporting. The data were collected by interviews and questionnaire surveys, meaning they were based on participant self-reporting. Thus, the obtained data may have been influenced by the social desirability and idealistic beliefs of participants (Borg, 2015). Accordingly, it is important to be aware of this limitation when interpreting the findings.

The third limitation concerns the scope of the questionnaire. The questionnaire could not encompass all the findings from identified in the main qualitative study because it was constrained to a reasonable length. Hence, important role perceptions and critical influential factors in the construction of role perceptions might have been omitted from the questionnaire.

The fourth limitation involves the response formats in the questionnaire. A multiple-response format was used to assess the recognitions of the purpose of university English education. It was chosen because university English teachers tended to assess the purposes rather positively and exhibited no differences between related items in JACET (2018). However, the use of a categorical response format rendered it impossible to examine the relationship between role perceptions and the recognitions of the purpose of university English education. The findings from this analysis were limited to discuss any relationship between role perceptions and the recognitions of the purpose of university English education.

The final limitation concerns the statistical methods employed. Although they successfully revealed group differences and the correlation between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement, methods that could examine any causal relationships between these variables were not used. Thus, the extent to which each of the influential factors contributed to the construction of role perceptions remains unclear. Consequently, factors that created the differences between JTEs and NJTEs regarding their role perceptions were inconclusive in the present study. Accordingly, future studies should use more sophisticated statistical methods to address this issue.

6.3 Suggestions for Future Research

Based on the findings and limitations of the present study, future research should

- investigate role perceptions in other teaching contexts,
- include greater detail on part-time university English teachers in Japan,
- scrutinize the influence of participant background on role perceptions,

- investigate other influential factors identified in the main qualitative study and examine the causal relationships between role perceptions and influential factors,

- explore the relationship between role perceptions and other teacher factors,

- examine the relationship between role perceptions and actual teaching practices, and

- explore the relationship between role perceptions and student learning experiences.

First, the role perceptions of English teachers in other teaching contexts could be investigated in Japan, where the role perceptions of primary and secondary English teachers are likely to be different from those of university English teachers. Given that these teachers are involved with younger cohorts and that the present study highlighted students as an influential factor on role perceptions, different role perceptions would be probable. Moreover, previous LTC research has suggested that contextual factors (such as entrance examinations, school culture, and class sizes) can also be a significant influence on their LTC and teaching practices (see Section 2.2.3). Thus, their role perceptions could be different from those identified in the present study.

Second, more part-time university English teachers should be included when exploring the role perceptions of university English teachers in Japan in more detail. It is assumed that a considerable number of part-time teachers are involved in university English education. Hence, to elicit an accurate understanding of English education in this context, these teachers' role perceptions should be investigated. The implications drawn from such studies will be especially helpful for program coordinators at their respective universities to support these teachers more effectively. Further, this could help new

teachers within the university English education system because most of them will probably begin their university English teaching careers as part-time teachers.

Third, the influences of student and course types on role perceptions should be scrutinized. Although participant background was not considered a primary factor affecting role perceptions in the present study, it was suggested that student and course types could be influential during the data screening process (see Section 4.3.1). Students' English proficiency levels and course types were found to be influential on the LTCs of university English teachers (Shimo, 2016). This suggests that students in English-related fields could influence teachers differently from those in other fields. Similarly, the views of English teachers who only teach compulsory English courses can differ from those who also teach content courses.

Fourth, future research should incorporate a quantitative investigation of the factors that were identified in the main qualitative study and were excluded from the main survey. These factors were identified as influential in the main qualitative study, meaning they could be critical in the construction of role perceptions. To understand the construction of role perceptions in greater depth, these factors need to be examined. Such quantitative studies should be planned to examine the causal relationship between role perceptions and influential factors. The findings from such studies would help to provide a more accurate understanding of the construction of role perceptions, further advancing our knowledge in this area.

Fifth, the relationship between role perceptions and other teacher factors should be explored. The present study identified the relationship between role perceptions and teacher self-efficacy for engagement, suggesting that role perceptions may be related to other teacher factors. For example, they may be related to two other dimensions of teacher self-efficacy that were not examined in the present study (see Section 2.4.1). Role

perceptions could also be related to English teachers' self-perceptions as multilingual (or monolingual) English teachers, which was found to be related to teacher self-efficacy (Karas & Faez, 2020).

Sixth, classroom observations should be employed to examine the relationship between role perceptions and actual teaching practices. The present study indicated that learner-centered role perceptions are related to higher levels of teacher self-efficacy for engagement. However, the process of how university English teachers embody their learner-centered role perceptions was not described. Future research should address this issue because the findings from such studies can provide helpful illustrations for new entries to university English education about how to embody learner-centered role perceptions. Subsequently, this would also help them to enhance their teacher self-efficacy for engagement.

Finally, future research could explore the relationship between teacher role perceptions and student learning experiences. The present study indicated that teachers with stronger role perceptions as motivators tended toward higher levels of teacher self-efficacy for engagement. However, this does not necessarily mean that having the role perception of a motivator can improve student attitudes toward English learning. Researching how English teachers' role perceptions are understood by their students could provide useful implications about English teachers and their instruction. This is particularly important because teachers are in a significant position to enhance students' learning experiences.

6.4 Concluding remarks

The importance of LTC has been recognized for more than two decades, and studies regarding teachers' role perceptions provided insights into their LTCs. However, there

was little LTC research regarding university English teachers. The present study has tried to take a step forward to understand the LTCs of university English teachers by exploring their role perceptions. The author hopes that the findings in the present study provide a starting point in which further investigation into the LTCs (including role perceptions) of university English teachers in Japan begins.

University English education takes place in actual classrooms throughout the nation. In every classroom, teachers implement classroom activities based on their LTCs. They are one of the significant factors in determining students' learning experiences and the quality of university English education. Thus, more attention should be paid to these teachers. The author believes that LTC research will provide useful implications for enhancing university English education in Japan.

References

Agarwal, N. K. (2011). Verifying survey items for construct validity: A two-stage sorting procedure for questionnaire design in information behavior research. *Proceedings of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, *48*(1), 1-8. https://doi.org/10.1002/meet.2011.14504801166

Ahmad, I. (2018). Teacher cognition and grammar teaching in the Saudi Arabian context. *English Language Teaching, 11*(12), 45–57. https://doi.org/10.5539/ elt.v11n12p45

Akbari, R. (2008). Postmethod discourse and practice. *TESOL quarterly*, *42*(4), 641–652. https://doi.org/10.2307/40264492

Al Asmari, A. (2013). Practices and prospects of learner autonomy: Teachers' perceptions. *English Language Teaching, 6*(3), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n3p1

Alexander, O. (2012). Exploring teacher beliefs in teaching EAP at low proficiency levels. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 11*(2), 99–111. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.jeap.2011.12.001

Alipoor, R., & Jadidi, E. (2016). The relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflection and their cognition about vocabulary teaching style. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 232*, 769–775. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.104

Amundrud, T. (2008). Talking about the roles of non-Japanese teachers of English. In K. Bradford Watts, T. Muller, & M. Swanson (Eds.), *JALT2007 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 90–102). Tokyo, Japan: JALT. https://jalt-publications.org/ archive/ proceedings/2007/E010.pdf

Anderson, F. E. (1993). The enigma of the college classroom: Nails that don't stick up. In P. Wadden (Ed.). *A handbook for teaching English at Japanese colleges and universities* (pp. 101-110). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Anderson, F. E. (2019). Nails that (still) don't stick up: Revisiting the enigma of the Japanese college classroom. In P. Wadden & C.C. Hale (Eds.), *Teaching English at Japanese universities: A new handbook* (pp.125–136). Abingdon, England: Routledge.

Andrews, S. (1999). 'All these like little name things': A comparative study of language teachers' explicit knowledge of grammar and grammatical terminology. *Language Awareness, 8*(3), 143–159. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658419908667125

Asassfeh, S. M., Alshaboul, Y. M., & Alodwan, T. A. (2012). In-service EFL teachers' views of form-focused instruction (FFI) and communicative meaning-oriented instruction (MOI): The case of Jordan. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 30*(1), 78–91.

Atai, M. R., Babaii, E., & Lotfi Gaskaree, B. (2018). A narrative study of in-service EAP teachers' cognition on language teacher role identities. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research, 6*(2), 97–115. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ EJ1183792.pdf

Aydin, S. (2013). Teachers' perceptions about the use of computers in EFL teaching and learning: The case of Turkey. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 26*(3), 214–233. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2012.654495

Bachman, L. F., Davidson, F., Ryan, K., & Choi, I. (1995). *An investigation into the comparability of two tests of English as a foreign language.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Bailey, K. M., Bergthold, B., Braunstein, B., Fleischman, N. J., Holbrook, M. P., Tuman, J., Waissbluth, X., & Zambo, L. J. (1996). The language learner's autobiography: Examining the "apprenticeship of observation." In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 11–29). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Baker, A. (2014). Exploring teachers' knowledge of second language pronunciation techniques: Teacher cognitions, observed classroom practices, and student perceptions. *TESOL Quarterly, 48*(1), 136–163. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.99

Balçıkanlı, C. (2010). Learner autonomy in language learning: Student teachers' beliefs. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *35*(1), 90–103. http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2010v35n1.8

Baleghizadeh, S., & Nasrollahi Shahri, M. N. (2014). EFL teachers' conceptions of speaking competence in English. *Teachers and Teaching, 20*(6), 738–754. https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2014.885702

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1997) *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: W. H. Freeman and Company.

Barnard, R., & Burns, A. (2012). *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies*. Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 25*(2), 243–272. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/25.2.243

Benesch, S. (2018). Emotions as agency: Feeling rules emotion labor, and English language teachers' decision-making. *System, 79*, 60–69. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2018.03.015

Benke, E., & Medgyes, P. (2005). Differences in teaching behaviour between native and non-native speaker teachers: As seen by the learners. In E. Llurda, (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers* (pp. 195–215). Boston, MA: Springer

Berwick, R., & Ross, S. (1989). Motivation after matriculation: Are Japanese learners of English still alive after exam hell? *JALT Journal, 11*(2), 193–210. https://jalt-publications.org/sites/default/files/pdf-article/jj-11.2-art3.pdf

Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' pedagogical systems and grammar teaching: A qualitative study. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(1), 9–38. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587900

Borg, S. (2001). Self-perception and practice in teaching grammar. *ELT Journal, 55*(1), 21–29. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/55.1.21

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching, 36*(2), 81–109. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903

Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice.* London, England: Continuum.

Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System, 39*(3), 370–380. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.009

Borg, S. (2012). Current approaches to language teacher cognition research: A methodological analysis. In R. Barnard, & A. Burns (Eds.), *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies* (pp. 11–29). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Borg, S. (2015). Researching teachers' beliefs. In B. Paltridge, & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Research methods in applied linguistics: A practical resource* (pp. 487–504). London, England: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Borg, S., & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). Learner autonomy: English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *ELT Journal, 12*(7), 1–45. https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/b459%20ELTRP%20Report%20Busaidi_final.pdf

Borg, S., Birello, M., Civera, I., & Zanatta, T. (2014). The impact of teacher education on pre-service primary English language teachers. *ELT Research Papers, 14*(3), 1–32. https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/ pub_E142%20ELTRP%20report _FINAL_V2.pdf

Breen, M. P., Hird, B., Milton, M., Oliver, R., & Thwaite, A. (2001). Making sense of language teaching: Teachers' principles and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 22*(4), 470–501. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/22.4.470

Briggs, J. G., Dearden, J., & Macaro, E. (2018). English medium instruction: Comparing teacher beliefs in secondary and tertiary education. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 8*(3). 673–696. https://doi.org/10.14746/ ssllt.2018.8.3.7

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Communicative competence: Principles of language learning and teaching*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Bullock, D. (2011). Learner self-assessment: An investigation into teachers' beliefs. *ELT Journal, 65*(2), 114–125. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccq041

Burns, A., & Richards, J. C. (2009). *Second language teacher education*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Burri, M. (2015). Student teachers' cognition about L2 pronunciation instruction: A case study. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 40*(10), 66–87. https://doi.org/10.14221/ ajte.2015v40n10.5

Burri, M., Chen, H., & Baker, A. (2017). Joint development of teacher cognition and identity through learning to teach L2 pronunciation. *The Modern Language Journal, 101*(1), 128–142. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12388

Buss, L. (2017). The role of training in shaping pre-service teacher cognition related to L2 pronunciation. *Ilha do Desterro, 70*(3), 201–226. https://doi.org/10.5007/2175-8026.2017v70n3p201

Canh, L. V. (2013). Native-English-speaking teachers' construction of professional identity in an EFL context: A case of Vietnam. *Journal of Asia TEFL, 10*(1), 1–23.

Chacón, C. T. (2005). Teachers' perceived efficacy among English as a foreign language teachers in middle schools in Venezuela. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *21*(3), 257–272. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2005.01.001

Chang, C., & Su, Y. (2010). Educational reform in Taiwan: Beliefs about EFL teaching and learning. *International Journal of Learning, 17*(2), 265–277.

Chappell, P., Bodis, A., & Jackson, H. (2015). Impact of teacher cognition and classroom practices on IELTS test preparation courses in the Australian ELICOS sector, *IELTS Research Reports Online Series,* 1–61.

Chen, Z., & Goh, C. (2014). Teacher knowledge about oral English instruction and teacher profiles: An EFL perspective. *Teacher Development, 18*(1), 81–99. https://doi.org/10. 1080/13664530.2013.854270

Cheng, C. (2012). The influence of college EFL teachers' understandings of intercultural competence on their self-reported pedagogical practices in Taiwan. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique, 11*(1), 164–182. https://files.eric.ed.gov/ fulltext/EJ970259.pdf

Chimbutane, F. (2013). Codeswitching in L1 and L2 learning contexts: Insights from a study of teacher beliefs and practices in Mozambican bilingual education programmes. *Language and Education*, *27*(4), 314–328. https://doi.org/10.1080/ 09500782.2013. 788022

Choi, E., & Lee, J. (2016). Investigating the relationship of target language proficiency and self-efficacy among nonnative EFL teachers. *System*, *58*, 49–63. https:// doi.org/ 10.1016/j.system.2016.02.010

Cohen, J. L. (2008). 'That's not treating you as a professional': Teachers constructing complex professional identities through talk. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 14*(2), 79–93. https://doi.org/10.1080/13540600801965861

Cook, M. (2012). Revisiting Japanese English teachers' (JTEs) perceptions of communicative, audio-lingual, and grammar translation (yakudoku) activities: Beliefs, practices, and rationales. *Asian EFL Journal, 14*(2), 79–98. https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/main-editions-new/revisiting-japanese-english-teachers-jtes-perceptions-of-communicative-audio-lingual-and-grammar-translation-yakudoku-activities-beliefs-practices-and-rationales/

Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1996). Cultures of learning: Language classrooms in China. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Society and the language classroom* (pp. 169–206). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Couper, G. (2017). Teacher cognition of pronunciation teaching: Teachers' concerns and issues. *TESOL Quarterly, 51*(4), 820–843. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.354

Couper, G. (2019). Teachers' cognitions of corrective feedback on pronunciation: Their beliefs, perceptions and practices. *System, 84*, 41–52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.04.003

Cowie, N. (2011). Emotions that experienced English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers feel about their students, their colleagues and their work. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(1), 235–242. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.08.006

Cowie, N., & Sakui, K. (2012). Three tales of language teacher identity and student motivation. *JALT Journal, 34*(2), 127–150. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ34.2-3

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Curran, J. E., & Chern, C. (2017). Pre-service English teachers' attitudes towards English as a lingua franca. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 66*, 137–146. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.04.007

Davies, M. (2011). Concept mapping, mind mapping and argument mapping: what are the differences and do they matter? *Higher Education*, *62*(3), 279-301. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-010-9387-6

De Guerrero, M. C., & Villamil, O. S. (2000). Exploring ESL teachers' roles through metaphor analysis. *TESOL Quarterly, 34*(2), 341–351. https://www.jstor.org/stable/3587960

Dincer, A., & Yesilyurt, S. (2013). Pre-service English teachers' beliefs on speaking skill based on motivational orientations. *English Language Teaching, 6*(7), 88–95. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n7p88

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. with Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Ellili-Cherif, M. (2014). Integrated language and content instruction in Qatar independent schools: Teachers' perspectives. *Teacher Development, 18*(2), 211–228. https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2014.900819

Ellis, E. M. (2016). "I may be a native speaker but I'm not monolingual": Reimagining all teachers' linguistic identities in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 50*(3), 597–630. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.314

EF (English First] (2019). *EF English Proficiency Index 2019.* https://www.ef.com/assetscdn/WIBIwq6RdJvcD9bc8RMd/legacy/__/~/media/centralefcom/epi/downloads/full-reports/v9/ef-epi-2019-english.pdf

Eslami, Z. R., & Fatahi, A. (2008). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy, English proficiency, and instructional strategies: A study of nonnative EFL teachers in Iran. *TESL-EJ, 11*(4), 1–19. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ898136.pdf

Faez, F., Karas, M., & Uchihara, T. (2019). Connecting language proficiency to teaching ability: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research*, 1362168819868667. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168819868667

Fang, X., & Garland, P. (2013). Teachers and the new curriculum: An ethnographic study in a Chinese school. *Education as Change, 17*(1), 53–62. https://doi.org/10.1080/16823206.2013.773925

Farrell, T. S. C. (2011). Exploring the professional role identities of experienced ESL teachers through reflective practice. *System, 39*(1), 54–62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.01.012

Feryok, A. (2008). An Armenian English language teacher's practical theory of communicative language teaching. *System, 36*(2), 227–240. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2007.09.004

Fielding-Barnsley, R. (2010). Australian pre-service teachers' knowledge of phonemic awareness and phonics in the process of learning to read. *Australian Journal of Learning Difficulties*, 15(1), 99–110. https://doi.org/10.1080/19404150903524606

Flick, U. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(3), 397–417. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588114

Freeman, D., Katz, A., Garcia Gomez, P., & Burns, A. (2015). English-for-teaching: Rethinking teacher proficiency in the classroom. *ELT Journal, 69*(2), 129–139. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccu074

Freeman, D., Orzulak, M. M., & Morrissey, G. (2009). Assessment in second language teacher education. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Second language teacher education* (pp. 77–90). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Freeman, D & Richards, J. C. (1996). *Teacher learning in language teaching*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Fuisting, B. (2017). Professional identity among limited-term contract university EFL teachers in Japan. In P. Clements, A. Krause & H. Brown (Eds.), *Transformation in language education* (pp. 45–54). Tokyo: JALT. https://jalt-publications.org/sites/default/files/pdf-article/jalt2016-pcp-007.pdf

Gerami, M. R., & Noordin, N. B. (2013). Teacher cognition in foreign language vocabulary teaching: A study of Iranian high school EFL teachers. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies, 3*(9), 1531–1545. https://doi.org/10.4304/TPLS.3.9.1531-1545

Gießler, R. (2012). Teacher language awareness and cognitive linguistics (CL): Building a CL-inspired perspective on teaching lexis in EFL student teachers. *Language Awareness, 21*(1-2), 113–135. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2011.639891

Gilje, T. M. (2014). Teacher cognition and the teaching of EFL reading in Norwegian upper primary classrooms. *Acta Didactica Norge, 8*(2), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.5617/adno.1141

Glasgow, G. P. (2016). Cognition and language-in-education policy implementation in Japan: New perspectives in teachers' interpretations of the senior high school course of study. *Language Teacher Cognition Research Bulletin 2016* (JACET 言語教師認

知 研 究 会 研 究 集 録 2016), 1–19. https://jacetltc.jimdofree.com/app/ download/9509464965/LTC+Research+Bulletin+2016.pdf?t=1585578958

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1996). *Deeta taiwagata riron no hakken—chousa kara ikani riron wo umidasuka* [*The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative theory*]. (T. Goto, H. Oode, & S. Mizuno, Trans.). Tokyo, Japan: Shinyousha (original work published 1967).

Göbel, K., & Helmke, A. (2010). Intercultural learning in English as foreign language instruction: The importance of teachers' intercultural experience and the usefulness of precise instructional directives. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *26*(8), 1571–1582. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.05.008

Golombek, P. R. (1998). A study of language teachers' personal practical knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(3), 447–464. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588117

Golombek, P., & Doran, M. (2014). Unifying cognition, emotion, and activity in language teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 39*, 102–111. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2014.01.002

Golombek, P., & Klager, P. (2015). Play and imagination in developing language teacher identity-in-activity. *Ilha do Desterro, 68*(1), 17–32. https://doi.org/10.5007/ 2175-8026.2015v68n1p17

Gorsuch, G. J. (2000). EFL educational policies and educational cultures: Influences on teachers' approval of communicative activities. *TESOL Quarterly, 34*(4), 675–710. https://www.jstor.org/stable/3587781

Griva, E., & Chostelidou, D. (2011). English language teachers' conceptions and attitudes to multilingual development in education. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 15*, 1780–1785. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.04.002

Guerra, L. (2017). Students' perceptions and expectations of native and non-native speaking teachers. In J. D. D. M. Agudo (ed) Agudo, (Ed.). (2017). *Native and non-native teachers in English language classrooms: Professional challenges and teacher education* (Vol. 26). (pp. 183–204). Boston, MA: Walter de Gruyter.

Hale, C. C., & Wadden, P. (2019). The landscape of Japanese higher education: An introduction. In P. Wadden & C.C. Hale (Eds.), *Teaching English at Japanese universities: A new handbook* (pp. 3–10). Abingdon, England: Routledge.

Harfitt, G. J. (2012). An examination of teachers' perceptions and practice when teaching large and reduced-size classes: Do teachers really teach them in the same way? *Teaching and Teacher Education, 28*(1), 132–140. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2011.09.001

Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching, new edition*. London, England: Longman.

Hawanti, S. (2014). Implementing Indonesia's English language teaching policy in primary schools: The role of teachers' knowledge and beliefs. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning, 9*(2), 162–170. https://doi.org/10.1080/18334105.2014.11082029

Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom.* Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Hiller, S. (2010). Language choice in the classroom: The instructor's voice. *Educational Studies*（国際基督教大学学報教育研究）, *52*, 207–215. https://icu.repo.nii.ac.jp/?action=repository_action_common_download&item_id=2399&item_no=1&attribute_id=22&file_no=1

Hirai, A. (2012). *Kyouiku shinrikei kenkyuu no tameno deeta bunseki nyuumon, Dai 2 han* [*Introduction to data analysis for research in education and psychology (2nd ed.)*] Tokyo, Japan: Tokyotosho.

Holliday, A. (2005). *The struggle to teach English as an international language*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Holliday, A. (2006). Native-speakerism. *ELT Journal, 60*(4), 385–387. https://doi.org/ 10.1093/elt/ccl030

Hong, N. C. (2012). Teacher cognition and grammar teaching approaches. *Southeast Asia: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 12*, 17–31. http://www.ubd.edu.bn/academic/faculty/FASS/SEA/vol12/SEA-v12-ng.pdf

Hos, R., & Kekec, M. (2014). The mismatch between non-native English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' grammar beliefs and classroom practices. *Journal of Language Teaching & Research, 5*(1), 80–87. https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.5.1.80-87

Hosoda, Y., & Aline, D. (2010). Learning to be a teacher: Development of EFL teacher trainee interactional practices. *JALT Journal, 32*(2), 119–147. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ32.2-1

Houghton, S. A. (2013). The overthrow of the foreign lecturer position, and its aftermath. In S. A. Houghton & D. J. Rivers (Eds.), *Native-speakerism in Japan: Intergroup dynamics in foreign language education* (pp. 60–74). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Houghton, S. A. (2018). The post-native-speakerist language teacher. In S. A. Houghton, D. J. Rivers, and K Hashimoto (eds.), *Beyond native-speakerism: Current explorations and future visions* (pp. 161–181). New York, NY: Routledge.

Ikeda, C (2013). Shougakkou "gaikokugo katsudo" heno moji oyobi shokiyomishidou dounyuu ni taisuru kyouin ishiki [Teachers' beliefs and principles about the

introduction of letters and early reading into Japanese elementary school English education]. *Bulletin of the Graduate School of International Cultural Studies Aichi Prefectural University* (愛知県立大学大学院国際文化研究科論集), 14, 1–23. http://doi.org/10.15088/00001582

Inbar-Lourie, O. (2010). English only? The linguistic choices of teachers of young EFL learners. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 14*(3), 351–367. https://doi.org/10.1177/1367006910367849

JACET (The Japan Association of College English Teachers) (2011). Eigokyoushi no seichou: Motomerareru senmonsei [*developing professional competences of English language teachers: From Pre-service training to lifelong learning*]. Tokyo, Japan: Taishuukanshoten.

JACET (The Japan Association of College English Teachers) (2018). *Daigakueigokyouiku no ninaite ni kansuru sougouteki kenkyuu* [*A status-quo survey on English education in Japan*].Tokyo, Japan: JACET.

Jean, G., & Simard, D. (2011). Grammar teaching and learning in L2: Necessary, but boring? *Foreign Language Annals, 44*(3), 467–494. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2011.01143.x

Johnson, K. E. (1992). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices during literacy instruction for non-native speakers of English. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 24*(1), 83–108. https://doi.org/10.1080/10862969209547763

Junqueira, L., & Kim, Y. (2013). Exploring the relationship between training, beliefs, and teachers' corrective feedback practices: A case study of a novice and an experienced ESL teacher. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 69*(2), 181–206. https://doi.org/10.3138/CMLR.1536

Junqueira, L., & Payant, C. (2015). "I just want to do it right, but it's so hard": A novice teacher's written feedback beliefs and practices. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 27*, 19–36. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JSLW.2014.11.001

Kalaja, P. (2016). 'Dreaming Is Believing': The teaching of foreign languages as envisioned by student teachers. In P Kalaja, A.M.F. Barcelos, M., Aro, & M. Ruohotie-Lyhty (Eds.), *Beliefs, agency and identity in foreign language learning and teaching* (pp. 124–146). Basingstoke, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

Kambaru, A. (2016). Japanese elementary school teachers' perceptions about English teaching. *The Tsuru University Review*（都留文科大学紀要）, *83*, 11–20. http://trail.tsuru.ac.jp/dspace/handle/trair/739

Kamhi-Stein, L. D. (2014). Non-native English-speaking teachers in the profession. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th ed., pp.586–600). Boston, MA: Heinle Cengage Learning.

Kanno, Y., & Stuart, C. (2011). Learning to become a second language teacher: Identities-in-practice. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*(2), 236–252. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01178.x

Karas, M., & Faez, F. (2020). Self-efficacy of English language teachers in Ontario: The impact of language proficiency, teaching qualifications, linguistic identity, and teaching experience. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, e20200012 https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr-2020-0012

Kimura, Y., Nakata, Y., Ikeno, O., Naganuma, N., & Andrews, S. (2017). Developing classroom language assessment benchmarks for Japanese teachers of English as a foreign language. *Language Testing in Asia, 7*(1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-017-0035-2

Kinoshita, Y. (2003). *Guraundeddo seori apurochi no jissen: Sitsutekikenkyu heno sasoi* [*Practice of the grounded theory approach: Invitation to qualitative research*]. Tokyo, Japan: Kobundo.

Kinoshita, Y. (2007). *Raibu kougi M-GTA jissenteki shitsuteki kenkyuho shuuseiban Guraundeddo seori apurochi no subete* [*The live lectures on M-GTA: The practical qualitative research methodology, all of modified grounded theory approach*]. Tokyo, Japan: Kobundo.

Kohonen, V. (1992). Experiential language learning: Second language learning as cooperative learner education. In D. Nunan (Ed.), *Collaborative language learning and teaching* (pp. 14–39). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The postmethod condition:(E) merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly, 28*(1), 27–48. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587197

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod.* Abingdon, England: Routledge.

Kung, F. (2015). Reexamining the NS and NNS dichotomy in Taiwanese higher EFL education. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher, 24*(1), 27–34. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-013-0155-0

Kurihara, Y., & Samimy, K. K. (2007). The impact of a US teacher training program on teaching beliefs and practices: A case study of secondary school level Japanese teachers of English. *JALT Journal, 29*(1), 99–122. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ29.1-5

Kuzborska, I. (2011a). Links between teachers' beliefs and practices and research on reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 23*(1), 102–128. https://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/April2011/articles/kuzborska.pdf

Kuzborska, I. (2011b). Teachers' decision-making processes when designing EAP reading materials in a Lithuanian university setting. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 10*(4), 223–237. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.07.003

Larson-Hall, J., & Stewart, J. (2019). Making a career of university teaching in Japan: Getting (and keeping) a full-time job. In P. Wadden & C.C. Hale (Eds.), *Teaching English at Japanese universities: A new handbook* (pp.11–24). Abingdon, England: Routledge.

Lau, C., & Rao, N. (2013). English vocabulary instruction in six early childhood classrooms in Hong Kong. *Early Child Development and Care, 183*(10), 1363–1380. https://doi.org/10.1080/03004430.2013.788815

Lee, I. (2010). Writing teacher education and teacher learning: Testimonies of four EFL teachers. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 19*(3), 143–157. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.05.001

Legutke, M., & Thomas, H. (1991). *Process and experience in the language classroom*. Harlow, England: Longman.

Li, G., & Ni, X. (2011). Primary EFL teachers' technology use in China: Patterns and perceptions. *RELC Journal, 42*(1), 69–85. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688210390783

Lin, T., & Wu, C. (2012). Teachers' perceptions of task-based language teaching in English classrooms in Taiwanese junior high schools. *TESOL Journal, 3*(4), 586–609. https:// doi.org/10.1002/tesj.35

Liu, Y., & Xu, Y. (2011). Inclusion or exclusion?: A narrative inquiry of a language teacher's identity experience in the 'new work order' of competing pedagogies. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(3), 589–597. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.TATE.2010.10.013

Llurda, E. (2016). 'Native speakers', English and ELT: Changing perspectives. In G. Hall (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 69–81). Abingdon, England: Routledge.

Llurda, E., & Lasagabaster, D. (2010). Factors affecting teachers' beliefs about interculturalism. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 20*(3), 327–353. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00250.x

Loh, C. E., & Liew, W. M. (2016). Voices from the ground: The emotional labour of English teachers' work. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *55*, 267–278. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.01.016

Ma, L. P. F. (2012). Strengths and weaknesses of NESTS and NNESTs: Perceptions of NNESTs in Hong Kong. *Linguistics and Education, 23*(1), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2011.09.005

Macalister, J. (2010). Investigating teacher attitudes to extensive reading practices in higher education: Why isn't everyone doing it? *RELC Journal, 41*(1), 59–75. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688210362609

Macalister, J. (2012). Pre-service teacher cognition and vocabulary teaching. *RELC Journal, 43*(1), 99–111. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688212439312

MacDonald, M., Badger, R., & White, G. (2001). Changing values: What use are theories of language learning and teaching? *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*(8), 949–963. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(01)00042-7

Mahoney, S. (2011). Exploring gaps in teacher and student EFL error evaluation. *JALT Journal, 33*(2), 107–130. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ33.2-1

Maisa, S., & Karunakaran, T. (2013). Idioms and importance of teaching idioms to ESL students: A study on teacher beliefs. *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social*

Sciences   *(AJHSS),*   *1*(1),   110–122. http://ajhss.org/pdfs/Idioms%20and%20Importance%20of%20Teaching...pdf

Masden, K. (2013). Kumamoto general union vs. the prefectural university of Kumamoto: Reviewing the decision rendered by the Kumamoto District Court. In S. A. Houghton & D. J. Rivers (Eds.), *Native-speakerism in Japan: Intergroup dynamics in foreign language education* (pp. 42–59). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Matsuura, H., Chiba, R., & Hilderbrandt, P. (2001). Beliefs about learning and teaching communicative English in Japan. *JALT Journal, 23*(1), 69–91. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ23.1-4

Maxwell, J. A. (1992). Understanding and validity in qualitative research. *Harvard Educational Review, 62*(3), 279–301. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412986274.n2

McMillan, B. A., & Rivers, D. J. (2011). The practice of policy: Teacher attitudes toward "English only". *System, 39*(2), 251–263. https://doi.org/1016/j.system. 2011.04.011

McNeil, A. (2005). Non-native speaker teachers and awareness of lexical difficulty in pedagogical texts. In E. Llurda, (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp. 107–128). Boston, MA: Springer.

Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: Who's worth more? *ELT Journal, 46*(4), 340–349. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/46.4.340

Medgyes, P. (2017). *The non-native teacher* (3rd ed.). Callander, Scotland: Swan Communication.

Melketo, T. A. (2012). Exploring tensions between English teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching writing. *The International HETL Review, 2*(11), 98–114. https://www.hetl.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/HETLReviewVolume2 Article11.pdf

MEXT [Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology] (2003) *"Eigo ga tsukaeru nihonjin" no ikusei no tameno koudoukeikaku* [*Regarding the establishment of an action plan to cultivate "Japanese with English abilities"*]. Tokyo, Japan: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology. Retrieved from https://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chukyo/chukyo3/ 004/siryo/04031601/005.pdf

MEXT [Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology] (2013). *Wagakuni no daiogaku no kokusaika no joukyou nitsuite* [Regarding the internationalization of universities in Japan] Tokyo, Japan: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology. Retrieved from https://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chousa/koutou/57/siryo/__icsFiles/afieldfil e/2013/11/28/1341936_07_1.pdf

MEXT [Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology] (2019). Gakkou kihon chousa: Reiwa gan'nendo [Basic survey of schools 2019] Tokyo, Japan: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology. Retrieved from https://www.mext.go.jp/content/20191220-mxt_chousa01-000003400_3.pdf

Miller, E. R., & Gkonou, C. (2018). Language teacher agency, emotion labor and emotional rewards in tertiary-level English language programs. *System*, *79*, 49–59. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2018.03.002

Mills, N., & Allen, H. W. (2007). Teacher self-efficacy of graduate teaching assistants of French. In J. Sisken (Ed.), *From thought to action: exploring beliefs and outcomes in the foreign language program* (pp. 213–234). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Mizumoto, A., & Takeuchi, O. (2008). Kenkyuuronbun niokeru koukaryou no houkoku notameni —kisogainen to chuuiten— [Basics and considerations for reporting effect

sizes in research papers]. *Eigokyouikukenkyu* (*SELT*)（関西英語教育学会紀要）*, 31*, 57–66. https://mizumot.com/files/EffectSize_KELES31.pdf

Mizumoto, A. & Takeuchi, O. (2010). Comparing frequency and trueness scale descriptors in a Likert scale questionnaire on language learning strategies. *JLTA Journal*（日本言語テスト学会研究紀要）*, 12*, 116–136.

Moodie, I. (2016). The anti-apprenticeship of observation: How negative prior language learning experience influences English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *System, 60*, 29–41. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.05.011

Morton, T., & Gray, J. (2010). Personal practical knowledge and identity in lesson planning conferences on a pre-service TESOL course. *Language Teaching Research, 14*(3), 297–317. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168810365243

Muñoz, A., & Ramirez, M. (2015). Teachers' conceptions of motivation and motivating practices in second-language learning: A self-determination theory perspective. *Theory and Research in Education, 13*(2), 198–220. https://doi.org/10.1177/1477878515593885

Nagamine, T. (2012). A metaphor analysis of preservice EFL teachers' beliefs regarding professional identity. *The Asian EFL Journal, 14*(2), 141–171. https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/main-editions-new/a-metaphor-analysis-of-preservice-efl-teachers-beliefs-regarding-professional-identity/

Nagaratnam, R. P., & Al-Mekhlafi, A. (2013). Attitudes towards EFL grammar instruction. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network, 1*(2), 78–105.

Nagasawa, K. (2004). Teacher training and development. In V. Makarova, & T. Rodgers (Eds.), *English language teaching: The case of Japan.* (pp. 280–295). Munich, Germany: Lincom Europa.

Nagatomo, D. H. (2012). *Exploring Japanese university English teachers' professional identity*. Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Nakamura, K. (2017). Kouritsu koukou ni okeru "eigo ni yoru jugyou" ni taisuru eigokyoushi no ishiki chousa [A survey on English teachers' attitude toward "classes taught in English" at public high schools]. *Sophia University Junior College Division Faculty Journal* (上智大学短期大学部紀要), *38*, 31–46. https://www.jrc.sophia.ac.jp/ uploads/2017/05/38.03-Nakamura.pdf

Nakata, Y. (2011). Teachers' readiness for promoting learner autonomy: A study of Japanese EFL high school teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(5), 900– 910. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2011.03.001

Ng, E., & Farrell, T. (2003). Do teachers' beliefs of grammar teaching match their classroom practices? A Singapore case study. In D. Deterding, A. Brown & E. L. Low (Eds.), *English in Singapore: Research on grammar* (pp. 128–137). Singapore: McGraw Hill.

Ngo, X. M. (2018). A sociocultural perspective on second language writing teacher cognition: A Vietnamese teacher's narrative. *System, 78*, 79–90. https://doi.org/ doi:10.1016/j.system.2018.08.002

Nguyen, H. T. M., & Hudson, P. (2010). Preservice EFL teachers' attitudes, needs, and experiences about teaching writing and learning to teach writing before their practicum: A case study in Vietnam. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, *12*(2), 43– 66. https://eprints.qut.edu.au/27588/1/27588.pdf

Nishida. H. (2012). Ondoku ni yoru tadoku jissen gakushuusha no taiken purosesu [The experience process of learners practicing extensive reading by reading aloud]. *JACET Journal*, *55*, 129–138. https://dl.ndl.go.jp/view/download/digidepo_ 10501774_po_ART0009998473.pdf?contentNo=1&alternativeNo=

Nishimuro, M., & Borg, S. (2013). Teacher cognition and grammar teaching in a Japanese high school. *JALT Journal, 35*(1), 29–50. https://doi.org/10.37546/ JALTJJ35.1-2

Nishino, T. (2011). Japanese high school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding communicative language teaching. *JALT Journal, 33*(2), 131–155. https://jalt-publications.org/recentpdf/jj/2008a/art2.pdf

Nishino, T. (2012). Modeling teacher beliefs and practices in context: A multimethods approach. *The Modern Language Journal, 96*(3), 380–399. https://doi.org/10.1111/ j.1540-4781.2012.01364.x

Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (2014). Task-based teaching and learning. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th ed., pp. 455–470). Boston, MA: Heinle Cengage Learning.

Oda, M. (2018). Collaboration and collaborative practices. In J. Liontas (Ed.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching* (pp. 1022–1027). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley Blackwell.

Ogura, M. (2019). Eigo no jugyou ni okeru nihongo no shiyou ni tsuite no kousatsu [Consideration on the use of L1 in English classes in Japan]. *The Journal of Inter-Departmental Education Center, Nihon Fukushi University* (日本福祉大学全学教育センター紀要), 7, 19–29. http://id.nii.ac.jp/1274/00003143/

Ong, C. T. (2017). Pre-service teachers' beliefs about the teaching and learning of grammar. *The English Teacher, XL*, 27–47. https://journals.melta.org.my/ index.php/tet/article/view/260/157

Pain, H. (2012). A literature review to evaluate the choice and use of visual methods. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *11*(4), 303-319. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/160940691201100401

Pan, L., & Block, D. (2011). English as a "global language" in China: An investigation into learners' and teachers' language beliefs. *System, 39*(3), 391–402. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.011

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System, 29*(2), 177–195. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(01)00010-0

Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System, 37*(3), 380–390. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.03.002

Polat, N., & Mahalingappa, L. (2013). Pre-and in-service teachers' beliefs about ELLs in content area classes: A case for inclusion, responsibility, and instructional support. *Teaching Education, 24*(1), 58–83. https://doi.org/10.1080/ 10476210.2012.713930

Prabhu, N. S. (1990). There is no best method—Why? *TESOL Quarterly, 24*(2), 161–176. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586897

Prichard, C., & Moore, J. (2016). Coordination, teacher autonomy, and collaboration in EFL programs in Japanese higher education. *JALT Journal*, *38*(2), 75–96. https://jalt-publications.org/files/pdf-article/jj2016b-art1.pdf

Rahimi, M., & Zhang, L. J. (2015). Exploring non-native English-speaking teachers' cognitions about corrective feedback in teaching English oral communication. *System, 55*, 111–122. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.09.006

Rahman, M. M., Singh, M. K. M., & Pandian, A. (2018). Exploring ESL teacher beliefs and classroom practices of CLT: A case study. *International Journal of Instruction, 11*(1), 295–310. https://doi.org/10.12973/iji.2018.11121a

Reves, T. & Medgyes, P. (1994). The non-native English speaking EFL/ESL teacher's self-image: An international survey. *System, 22* (3), 353–367. https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(94)90021-3

Richards, J. C. (1990). Beyond methods. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *The language teaching matrix: Curriculum, methodology, and materials* (pp. 35–49). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1996). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Pennington, M. (1998). The first year of teaching. In J. C. Richards (Ed.) *Beyond Training* (pp. 173–190). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (3rd ed.) Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Rivers, D. J. (2013). Institutionalized native-speakerism: Voice of dissent and act of resistance. In S. A. Houghton & D. J. Rivers, (Eds.), *Native-speakerism in Japan: Intergroup dynamics in foreign language education* (pp. 75–91). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Rivers, D. J. (2018). The sociohistorical foundations of Japan's relationship with the native speaker of foreign languages. In S. A. Houghton, D. J. Rivers, and K. Hashimoto (eds.), *Beyond native-speakerism: Current explorations and future visions* (pp. 37–58). New York, NY: Routledge.

Robinson, P. (1996). Learning simple and complex second language rules under implicit, incidental, rule-search, and instructed conditions. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18*(1), 27–67. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100014674

Ruesch, A., Bown, J., & Dewey, D. P. (2012). Student and teacher perceptions of motivational strategies in the foreign language classroom. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 6*(1), 15–27. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229. 2011.562510

Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. (2013). Struggling for a professional identity: Two newly qualified language teachers' identity narratives during the first years at work. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 30*, 120–129. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.11.002

Ryan, S. M., & Makarova, V. (2004). Japanese learners of English: Myths and reality. In V. Makarova, & T. Rodgers (Eds.), *English language teaching: The case of Japan.* (pp. 49–64). Munich, Germany: Lincom Europa.

Saiful, J. A. (2019). EFL teachers' cognition in the use of YouTube vlog in English language teaching. *Journal of Foreign Language Education and Technology, 4*(1), 72–91. http://jflet.com/jflet/index.php/jflet/article/view/133

Saiki, C. S. (2014). *Guraundeddo seori apurochi wo motiita deeta shuushuuhou* [*Data collection methods using the grounded theory approach*]. Tokyo, Japan: Shinyousha.

Sakui, K. (2004). Wearing two pairs of shoes: Language teaching in Japan. *ELT Journal, 58*, 155–163. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/58.2.155

Sakui, K., & Cowie, N. (2012). The dark side of motivation: teachers' perspectives on 'unmotivation.' *ELT Journal*, *66*(2), 205–213. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccr045

Sanchez, H. S. (2014). The impact of self-perceived subject matter knowledge on pedagogical decisions in EFL grammar teaching practices. *Language Awareness, 23*(3), 220–233. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2012.742908

Sanchez, H. S., & Borg, S. (2014). Insights into L2 teachers' pedagogical content knowledge: A cognitive perspective on their grammar explanations. *System, 44*, 45–53. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.02.005

Sardegna, V. G., & Dugartsyrenova, V. A. (2014). Pre-service foreign language teachers' perspectives on learning with technology. *Foreign Language Annals, 47*(1), 147–167. https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12078

Sato, K., & Kleinsasser, R. C. (2004). Beliefs, practices, and interactions of teachers in a Japanese high school English department. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 20*(8), 797–816. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2004.09.004

Savas, P. (2012). Pre-service English as a foreign language teachers' perceptions of the relationship between multiple intelligences and foreign language learning. *Learning and Individual Differences, 22*(6), 850–855. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2012.05.003

Scheffler, P. (2011). Rule difficulty: Teachers' intuitions and learners' performance. *Language Awareness, 20*(3), 221–237. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2011.570349

Sharabyan, S. K. (2011). Experienced and very experienced Iranian English language teachers: Beliefs about grammar instruction. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 30*, 1081–1085. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.10.211

Shelley, M., Murphy, L., & White, C. J. (2013). Language teacher development in a narrative frame: The transition from classroom to distance and blended settings. *System, 41*(3), 560–574. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.06.002

Shibata, S (2010). Self-Access Center (SAC) wotsuujita jiritsugakushuu purosesu: kouzoukouseishugi wo rirontekiwakugumi toshite [Structuring the autonomous learning process for a Self-Access Center (SAC): Applying structural constructivism

as the framework]. *Language Education & Technology*, *47*, 113-133. https://doi.org/10.24539/let.47.0_113

Shimamura, K (2017). Nihonjin koutougakkou eigo kyoushi niyoru "komyunikeeshon eigo" no toraekata: beteran kyoushi no iken [Japanese high school English teachers' perceptions on 'Communication English': Voices from experienced teachers]. *Kumamotodaigaku Shakaibunka Kenkyuu* (熊本大学社会文化研究), *15*, 197–217. https://kumadai.repo.nii.ac.jp/?action=pages_view_main&active_action =repository_view_main_item_detail&item_id=29841&item_no=1&page_id=13&b lock_id=21

Shimo, E. (2016). English teachers' perceptions of students' personalities and attitudes: Comparing English L1 and Japanese L1 teachers. *Applied Sociology Research Review Kinki University* (近畿大学総合社会学部紀要)*, 4*(2), 35–55. https://kindai. repo.nii.ac.jp/?action=repository_uri&item_id=14230&file_id=40&file_no=1

Shimo, E. (2018). Teachers' perceptions of their students' English abilities and attitudes towards learning English: A comparison of English L1 and Japanese L1 teachers. *Applied Sociology Research Review Kinki University* (近畿大学総合社会学部紀要)*, 7*(1), 15–30. https://kindai.repo.nii.ac.jp/?action=repository_uri&item_id=19953 &file_id=40&file_no=1

Shizuka, T. (2012). "Kyoushoku nyumon" oyobi "eigokashidouhou" no jukoukouka no kenshou: Hatsuonshidou to eigokyoushi ni kansuru biri-hu no henka wo ou [An examination of the impact of a series of Japanese TEFL courses: Tracing changes in the participants' beliefs about pronunciation teaching and English teachers]. *Journal of Saitama University. Faculty of Education* (埼玉大学紀要/教育学部) 61(1), 41–56, https://doi.org/10.24561/00017608

Silverman, D. (2001). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods for analysing talk, text and interaction* (2nd ed.). London, England: Thousand Oaks.

Song, J. (2016). Emotions and language teacher identity: Conflicts, vulnerability, and transformation. *TESOL Quarterly, 50*(3), 631–654. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.312

Soontornwipast, K. (2010). EFL teachers' beliefs about grammar and grammar teaching: A case study of a language institute at a Thai university. *International Journal of the Humanities*, *8*(8), 143-152. https://doi.org/10.18848/1447-9508/CGP/v08i08/42972

Svalberg, A. M-L. (2016) Language Awareness. In G. Hall (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 399–412)*.* Abingdon, England: Routledge.

Tajeddin, Z., & Aryaeian, N. (2017). A collaboration-mediated exploration of nonnative L2 teachers' cognition of language teaching methodology. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 42*(6), 6. 81-99. https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2017v42n6.6

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Tam, A. C. F. (2013). Pre-service teachers' beliefs about the switch of medium-of-instruction and their influence on lesson planning and teaching practice. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 33*(4), 476–492. https://doi.org/10.1080/ 02188791.2013.809693

Tanabe, N. (2019). Shogakkou no ALT tono team teaching nitaisuru ishiki nikansuru shitsuteki kenkyuu [A qualitative study on the elementary school teachers' awareness of team teaching with ALTs]. *JACET Chugoku-Shikoku Chapter research bulletin* (大学英語教育学会中国・四国支部研究紀要), *16*, 85–102.

Terasawa, T. (2015). *"Nihonjin to eigo" no shakaigaku* [*Learning English in Japan: Myths and Realities*]. Tokyo, Japan: Kenkyuusha.

Thompson, G., & Woodman, K. (2019). Exploring Japanese high school English teachers' foreign language teacher efficacy beliefs. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 47*(1), 48–65. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359866X.2018.1498062

Trent, J. (2010). Teacher identity construction across the curriculum: Promoting cross-curriculum collaboration in English-medium schools. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 30*(2), 167–183. https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791003721622

Trent, J. (2011). Learning, teaching, and constructing identities: ESL pre-service teacher experiences during a short-term international experience programme. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 31*(2), 177–194. https://doi.org/10.1080/ 02188791.2011. 566997

Trent, J. (2012). Becoming a teacher: The identity construction experiences of beginning English language teachers in Hong Kong. *The Australian Educational Researcher, 39*(3), 363–383. https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2015.1037336

Trent, J., & DeCoursey, M. (2011). Crossing boundaries and constructing identities: The experiences of early career mainland Chinese English language teachers in Hong Kong. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 39*(1), 65–78. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359866X.2010.540893

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*(7), 783–805. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/S0742-051X(01)00036-1

Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, A. W., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, *68*(2), 202–248.

Tsuneyoshi, Communicative English in Japan and 'native speakers of English' In S. A. Houghton, D. J. Rivers, and K. Hashimoto (eds.), *Beyond native-speakerism: Current explorations and future visions* (pp. 119–131). New York, NY: Routledge.

Tudor, I. (1993). Teacher roles in the learner-centred classroom. *ELT Journal, 47*(1), 22–31. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/47.1.22

Turnbull, B. (2018). Is there a potential for a translanguaging approach to English education in Japan? Perspectives of tertiary learners and teachers. *JALT Journal, 40*(2), 101–134. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ40.2-3

Ueno, I. (2018). Jugyounai eigoshiyou nitaisuru nihonnjin eigokyoushi to daigakusei no biri-hu: Kongou kenkyuuhou niyoru hikakuchousa [A comparative study of non-native English speaking teachers' and university students' beliefs about target language use only in the class by the mixed-methods approach]. *Journal of Osaka Jogakuin 4 year College* (大阪女学院大学紀要), *14*, 69–84. http://hdl.handle.net/ 10775/3484

Underwood, P. (2012). Teacher beliefs and intentions regarding the instruction of English grammar under national curriculum reforms: A theory of planned behaviour perspective. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 28*(6), 911–925. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.04.004

Underwood, P. (2016). Towards the integration of grammar teaching with communicative work: A case study of a Japanese senior high school English teacher. *Language Teacher Cognition Research Bulletin 2016* (JACET 言語教師認知研究会研究集録 2016), 20–39. https://jacetltc.jimdofree.com/app/download/ 9509464965/LTC+Research+Bulletin+2016.pdf?t=1585578958

Ushioda, E. (2013). Foreign language motivation research in Japan: An 'insider perspective' from outside Japan. In M. T. Apple, D. Da Silva, & T. Fellner (Eds.), *Language learning motivation in Japan* (pp. 1–14). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Uysal, H. H., & Bardakci, M. (2014). Teacher beliefs and practices of grammar teaching: Focusing on meaning, form, or forms? *South African Journal of Education, 34*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.15700/201412120943

Uzum, B. (2018). Attitudes of students toward NESTs and NNESTs. In J. Liontas (Ed.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching* (pp. 1001–1007). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley Blackwell.

Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 4*(1), 21–44. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327701jlie0401_2

Viet, N. G. (2014). Forms or meaning? Teachers' beliefs and practices regarding task-based language teaching: A Vietnamese case study. *Journal of Asia TEFL, 1*(1), 1-36.

Voller, P. (1997). Does the teacher have a role in autonomous language learning? In p. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 98–113). Harlow, England: Pearson Education.

Walkington, J. (2005). Becoming a teacher: Encouraging development of teacher identity through reflective practice. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 33*(1), 53–64. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ691008

Wan, W., Low, G. D., & Li, M. (2011). From students' and teachers' perspectives: Metaphor analysis of beliefs about EFL teachers' roles. *System, 39*(3), 403–415. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.012

Wang, B., Yu, S., & Teo, T. (2018). Experienced EFL teachers' beliefs about feedback on student oral presentations. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education, 3*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-018-0053-3

Warrington, S. D. (2006). The time in between: Socialization training as a learning priority for Japanese university students. *Asian EFL Journal, 12*(3), 2–14.

Whitsed, C., & Wright, P. (2011). Perspectives from within: Adjunct, foreign, English-language teachers in the internationalization of Japanese universities. *Journal of Research in International Education, 10*(1), 28–45. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240910396332

Willig, C. (2014). Interpretation and Analysis. In U. Flick, W. Scott, & K. Metzler (Eds.), *SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Data Analysis* (pp. 136–149). London, England: SAGE Publications.

Wolff, D., & De Costa, P. I. (2017). Expanding the language teacher identity landscape: An investigation of the emotions and strategies of a NNEST. *The Modern Language Journal, 101*(S1), 76–90. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12370

Wong, C. C. Y., & Barrea-Marlys, M. (2012). The role of grammar in communicative language teaching: An exploration of second language teachers' perceptions and classroom practices. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 9*(1), 61–75. https://pdf4pro.com/view/the-role-of-grammar-in-communicative-language-a1059.html

Woods, D. (1996). *Teacher cognition in language teaching: Beliefs, decision-making, and classroom practice*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Woods, D., & Cakir, H. (2011). Two dimensions of teacher knowledge: The case of communicative language teaching. *System, 39*(3), 381–390. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.010

Wright, T. (1987). *Roles of teachers and learners*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Wyatt, M., & Borg, S. (2011). Development in the practical knowledge of language teachers: A comparative study of three teachers designing and using communicative tasks on an in-service BA TESOL programme in the middle east. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 5*(3), 233–252. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2010.537340

Yamaji, R. (2019). Jukuren eigokyoushi no kyoukasho shiyou ni eikyou wo ataeru youin niokeru gengokyoushininchikenkyu [Language teacher cognition research on factors affecting expert English teachers' textbook consumption]. *Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan*（全国英語教育学会紀要）, *30*, 225–240. https://doi.org/10.20581/arele.30.0_225

Yan, C. (2012). "We can only change in a small way": A study of secondary English teachers' implementation of curriculum reform in China. *Journal of Educational Change, 13*(4), 431–447. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-012-9186-1

Yang, L., & Gao, S. (2013). Beliefs and practices of Chinese university teachers in EFL writing instruction. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 26*(2), 128–145. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2013.794817

Yigitoglu, N., & Belcher, D. (2014). Exploring L2 writing teacher cognition from an experiential perspective: The role learning to write may play in professional beliefs and practices. *System, 47*, 116–124. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.09.021

Yilmaz, C. (2011). Teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy, English proficiency, and instructional strategies. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 39*(1), 91–100. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2011.39.1.91

Yin, M. (2010). Understanding classroom language assessment through teacher thinking research. *Language Assessment Quarterly, 7*(2), 175–194. https://doi.org/10.1080/15434300903447736

Yokomoto, K. (2017). EFL teachers' interests and beliefs as determiners of their instructional decisions in the teaching of pronunciation. *Language Teacher Cognition Research Bulletin 2017* (JACET 言語教師認知研究会研究集録 2017), 51–68. https://jacetltc.jimdofree.com/app/download/9509464765/LTC+Research+Bulletin+2017.pdf?t=1585578958

Yorozuya, R., Shimura, A., & Nakamura, K. (2017). Gaikokugokatsudou no seika ni taisuru chuugakkou eigokyoushi no ishiki—Hisshuuka chokugo to genzai niokeru ishiki no hikaku—[How junior high school teachers' perceptions of outcomes of foreign language activities have changed after its implementation]. *JES Journal* (小学校英語教育学会誌), *17*(2), 69–84. https://doi.org/10.20597/jesjournal.17.02_69

Yoshida, R. (2010). How do teachers and learners perceive corrective feedback in the Japanese language classroom? *The Modern Language Journal, 94*(2), 293–314. https://doi.org/1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01022.x

Young, T. J., & Sachdev, I. (2011). Intercultural communicative competence: Exploring English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Awareness, 20*(2), 81–98. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2010.540328

Young, T. J., & Walsh, S. (2010). Which English? Whose English? An investigation of 'non-native' teachers' beliefs about target varieties. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 23*(2), 123–137. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908311003797627

Zan, C., & Goh, C. (2011). Teaching oral English in higher education: Challenges to EFL teachers. *Teaching in Higher Education, 16*(3), 333–345. https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2010.546527

Zare-ee, A., & Ghasedi, F. (2014). Professional identity construction issues in becoming an English teacher. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 98*, 1991–1995. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.633

Zeng, Z. (2012). Convergence or divergence? Chinese novice EFL teachers' beliefs about postmethod and teaching practices. *English Language Teaching, 5*(10), 64–71. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n10p64

Zhang, F., & Liu, Y. (2014). A study of secondary school English teachers' beliefs in the context of curriculum reform in China. *Language Teaching Research, 18*(2), 187–204. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168813505940

Zheng, X., & Borg, S. (2014). Task-based learning and teaching in China: Secondary school teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Teaching Research, 18*(2), 205–221. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168813505941

Zhu, Y., & Shu, D. (2017). Implementing foreign language curriculum innovation in a Chinese secondary school: An ethnographic study on teacher cognition and classroom practices. *System, 66,* 100–112. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2017.03.006

Appendix A1: Pre-interview Questionnaire (for NJTEs)

Background questionnaire

General

- To which age group do you belong?

    20s   30s   40s   50s   60s

- How long have you lived in Japan?

- What was the main reason for choosing to come to Japan?

- Do you intend to reside in Japan permanently?   Yes or No   why/why not?

Academic qualifications & ELT experience

- What was your major at the university?

- What is your academic qualification? (e.g., M.A. in Literature)

- How long have you been teaching English in Japan?

- Can you list the institutions you have taught before and the dates (years) you taught there? (e.g. AA English school, BB College 1998-2002, CC university 2003-present)

- Do you have an experience of taking a formal teacher training? If yes, where and when?

Language learning experience

- Did you learn any foreign languages? What language(s) /where/ when?

- Your Japanese ability.

    Excellent   Good   Fair   Poor   None

- Where and when did you learn Japanese?

- Do you intend to continue studying Japanese? Why/ why not?

Appendix A2: Pre-interview Questionnaire (for JTEs)

ご経歴に関する質問

● 以下のどの年齢層に属しておられますか。

　　　　20代　　30代　　40代　　50代　　60代

● 大学学部時代の専攻は何でしたか。

● お持ちの学位は何ですか。(例:修士（文学）)

● 英語教育歴は何年ですか。（大学に限りません。）

● 過去に英語を教えておられた教育機関名ならびに期間を書いてください。(例: AA 短大- 1998-2000、BB 大学 2000-2005)

● 英語科目の教員養成の受講経験はありますか。それはどこで、いつのことでしたか。

● これまでの外国語学習経験についてお尋ねします。どのような外国語をどのような機関でどれくらいの期間学習されましたか。

Appendix B: A Brainstorming Sheet

The purpose of this study is to explore how university English teachers perceive their roles in English education at the university level.

Teachers play multiple roles. Please list roles that you can think of in relation to your students, colleagues including your boss, the administration, and other communities that you are in.

My roles are…

Appendix C1: A Mind Map Sheet

Please draw a concept map (see "Example") regarding your roles as an English teacher.
Please draw bigger diagrams for more important roles and smaller ones for less important roles.

Your role as an English teacher.

Appendix C2: A Completed Mind Map

Please draw a mind map (see "Example") regarding your roles as an English teacher.
Please draw bigger diagrams for more important roles and smaller ones for less important roles.

LANGUAGE MODEL

EXPERT OF ENGLISH KNOWLEDGE

EXPERT OF ENGLISH SKILLS

REPRESENTATIVE CULTURE

Your role as an English teacher.

COACH/MENTOR

MOTIVATOR

LEARNING ADVISOR

CARE GIVER

LECTURER

ASSESSOR

NATIVE SPEAKER

FACILITATOR

DESIGNER

VENDOR

RESEARCHER

ORGANIZER

ADMINISTRATOR
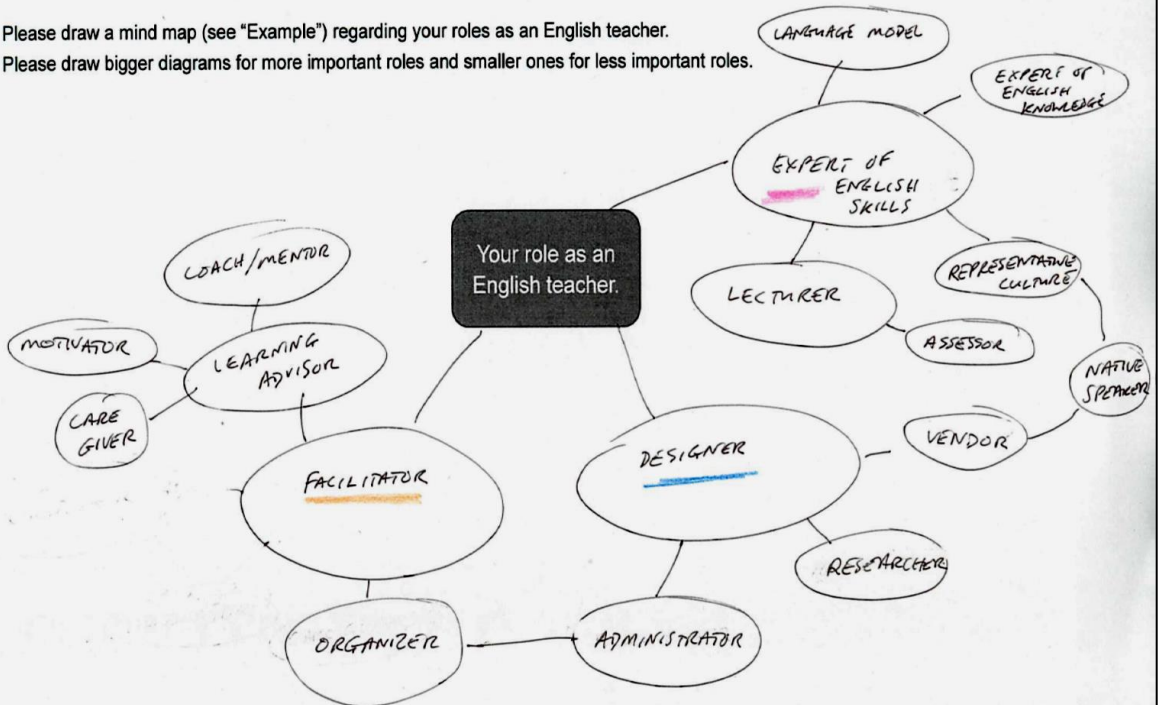
Appendix D1: A Consent Form (for NJTEs)

Consent Form for Interviews

The purpose of this form is to provide you with information so you can decide whether or not to participate in this study.

Researcher: Hiroshi Moritani

Purpose of the research: To explore the roles of English teachers at Japanese universities.

What you will do in this research: If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to participate in an interview. You will be asked to provide answers to background questions in written form, draw some simple images, and then asked to answer questions in an interview. Most of them will be about your perspective on your roles as an English teacher at a Japanese university. There are no right or wrong answers. With your permission, I will audio record the interview. You may be asked follow up questions for clarification using email after the interview data is transcribed.The interview will last approximately 90 minutes.

Confidentiality: Your responses to interview questions will be kept confidential. You will not be asked to state your name on the recording. When the results of this study are published or presented, any personally identifiable information will not be used. Anyone who helps me transcribe responses will only know you by a random numerical code. The recording will be destroyed when the research is completed. The transcript and the consent form will be kept for 10 years.

Participation and withdrawal: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary, and you may refuse to participate or withdraw from the study at any time. If you do not wish to answer some of the questions, you can refuse to answer. If you have questions or concerns about this research after the interview, please contact me at the contact information below.

To Contact:
Researcher: Hiroshi Moritani

Phone:
E-mail:

Agreement:
The nature and purpose of this research has been sufficiently explained and I agree to participate in this study. I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time without incurring any penalty.
For my own records, I will be given a copy of this form after the interview.

Participant signature: _____ Date: _____

Name (print): _____

Researcher signature: _____ Date: _____

Name (print): _____Hiroshi   Moritani_____

Appendix D2: A Consent Form (for NJTEs)

「大学英語教員の主観的役割認識に関する研究」の説明・同意書

この説明・同意書は、研究の目的や実施内容を説明し、説明を聞いたうえで、参加するかしないかを
あなた自身に決めていただくためのものです。

研究者氏名: 森谷浩士（もりたに　ひろし）

研究の意義・目的: 大学英語教育における教師の役割を探索することを目的としています。

研究方法・内容: 研究へ参加されることになったら、質問に回答する形で調査へ参加していただきま
す。書面にて経歴に関する質問に回答し、また、口頭インタビュー調査では簡単な図を描いたり、質
問に回答したりしていただきます。それらの質問はすべて、大学で英語を教える教師としてのあな
た自身の主観的な回答が求められ、正解・不正解はありません。インタビューの内容は録音され、
録音データは逐語録として書き起こされます。後日、回答内容を明確にするために再度質問をさ
せていただく場合がございます。インタビューは約90分を予定しています。

守秘義務: 質問に対するあなたの回答はすべて極秘情報として扱われます。録音中、名前を名乗る必要
はありません。本研究の結果が公表される際、個人を特定しうる情報が使用されることはありませ
ん。逐語録の書き起こしにあたり、外部に依頼することがありますが、個人が特定される恐れの
ある情報については予め数値による符号化を行います。録音データ、書き起こした逐語録ならび
に同意書は10年間保管されます。

研究への参加と撤回: 研究への参加は、研究の趣旨をご理解のうえ、ご自身で決定してください。
研究への参加を断ることや途中で撤回することも可能です。話したくない内容について尋ねられ
た場合は無理に回答する必要はありません。インタビュー後、本研究について質問や懸念される
ことがある場合、次の問合せ先に連絡してください。

連絡先:
研究者氏名: 森谷浩士
住所: ███████████████████████████████
Phone: ███████████
E-mail: ███████████████████

同意書:
本研究の意義・目的ならびに方法について十分な説明が行われ、私自身の判断で研究へ参加する
ことに同意いたします。研究途中で撤回する場合も何ら不利益を被ることはないと理解していま
す。記録として、この同意書のコピーを希望します。

参加者（署名）: _____　　　日付: _____

参加者（楷書）: _____

研究者（署名）: _____　　　日付: _____

研究者（楷書）: _____森谷 浩士_____

Appendix E1: A List of Teacher roles (for NJTEs)

The purpose of this study is to explore how English teachers perceive their roles in English education at Japanese universities.

Examples of roles:
- ✦ Expert of English
- ✦ Representative of a culture
- ✦ Lecturer (transmitter of knowledge)
- ✦ Native speaker
- ✦ Language model
- ✦ Entertainer
- ✦ Motivator
- ✦ Care giver (parental role)
- ✦ Facilitator (guide and assist students)
- ✦ Assessor (giving feedback etc.)
- ✦ Designer(course design/material design)
- ✦ Learning advisor
- ✦ Other (specify:)
- ✦ Other (specify:)

Appendix E2: A List of Teacher roles (for JTEs)

本研究の目的は、大学英語教育に携わる教員が自身の役割をどのように認識しているか（主観的な役割認識）を探索するものです。

Examples of roles:
- ✦ Expert of English (英語の専門家)
- ✦ Representative of a culture (文化の体現者)
- ✦ Lecturer (transmitter of knowledge) (知識の伝達者)
- ✦ 日本人教師 (英語母語話者と比較して)
- ✦ Language model (モデル)
- ✦ Entertainer (楽しませる人)
- ✦ Motivator (動機づける人)
- ✦ Care giver (parental role) (世話をする人)
- ✦ Facilitator (ガイド、援助者)
- ✦ Assessor (評価し、フィードバックを与える人)
- ✦ Designer(コースを設計したり、教材を設計したりする人)
- ✦ Learning advisor (学習方法の指導)
- ✦ Other (specify:)
- ✦ Other (specify:)

Appendix E3: A Filled-out List of Teacher roles

The purpose of this study is to explore how English teachers perceive their roles in English education at Japanese universities.

Examples of roles:

- ✧ Expert of English (Linguistic knowledge)
- ✧ Expert of English (Linguistic skills)
- 4 ✧ Representative of a culture
- ✧ Lecturer (transmitter of knowledge)
- ✧ Native speaker
- 2 ✧ Language model
- ✧ Entertainer
- 3 ✧ Motivator   *Mentor*
- ✧ Care giver (parental role)
- 1 ✧ Facilitator (guide and assist students)
- ✧ Organizer (organize students to do activities)
- ✧ Assessor (giving feedback etc.)
- ✧ Researcher (research things to improve teaching/ materials)
- ✧ Designer(course design/material design)
- ✧ Administrator (outside the class)
- ✧ Vendor (to sell good English education)
- ✧ Socializer (school party)
- ✧ Learning advisor
- ✧ Other (specify: *actor*   )
- ✧ Other (specify:)

Appendix F: A Completed Time-series Sheet

More
important

Facilitator

Design /research.

Less
important

"Expert"

Start of you career   present
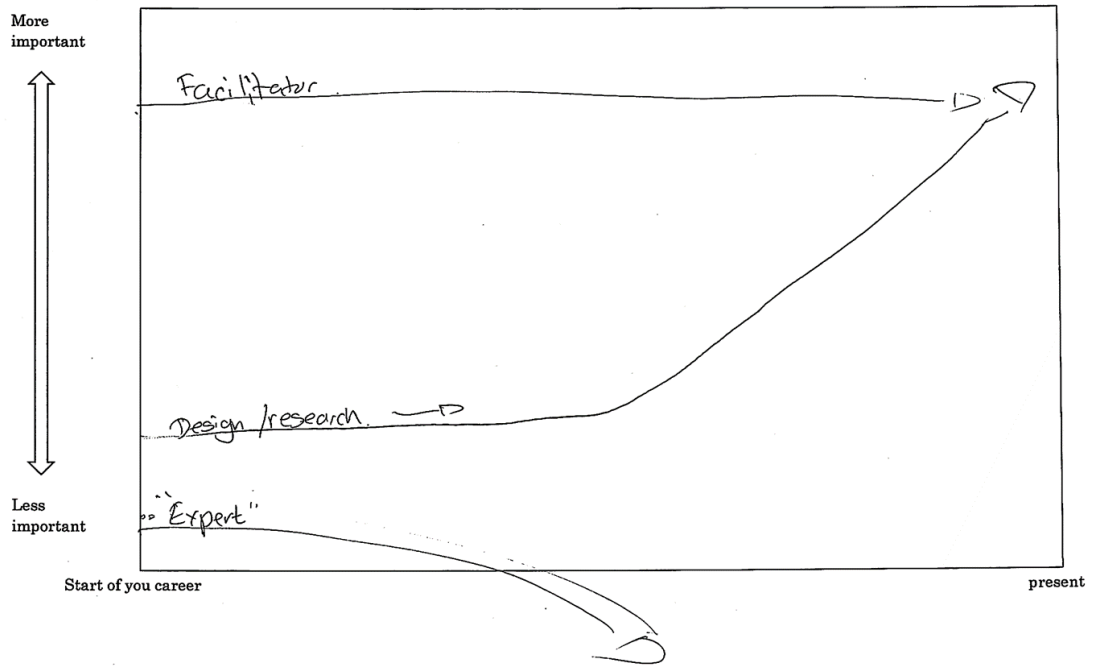
Appendix G: All the Concepts including Variations and Opposite Examples

Concept 1	*Past language learning experience*
Definition	Teachers' past [foreign] language learning experiences and teachers shape the base of teaching styles.
Variations	● 私、最初英語の教員じゃなかったので。アメリカで英語、勉強したから、それもあって、やっぱり自分が ESL で教えられたようにやりたいっていうのがあって。私その先生みたいに本当なりたいってずっと思っていることなので。 (I was not an English teacher at the beginning. I learned English in America. Because of that experience, I want to teach the way I was taught at an ESL school.) (JTE02, 34) ● これまでの英語の先生って全部覚えていますね。中学から大学まで。… 強く印象に残っていますよ、教え方についても。やっぱ、影響大きいでしょうね。やっぱそれが元になってるのは大きいと思いますね。 (I remember all the English teachers I had before, from junior high school until university…. They gave me a strong impression. It influenced my teaching practices a great deal, which is based on the experiences I had.) (JTE05, 55) ● 教え始めた頃って結構、教職の知識もあんまりない。役に立たないというか覚えてないという。でも、やっぱり予備校の時の英語の教え方は、多分今の教え方のベースになってて、…、そういうベースは多分予備校の英語の授業だったですかね。 (When I started teaching, I did not really have lots of knowledge of pedagogy. Or perhaps I should say I didn't remember a thing. But the way the way university preparatory school teaches taught English is probably the base of my teaching style…the base is English classes at university preparatory school) (JTE06, 8) ● 見本はうちの大学で受けた教育ですよね。訳読の、本当にいわゆるオーソドックスというか、テキストがあって、それ訳していって。ずっとそうでしたね。(A model is the education I had at my university. Grammar-translation. What should I say, orthodox? There was a textbook and we translated it. That is the way it was.) (JTE10, 29) ● 自分のスタイルはアメリカのときの先生のですね。ちょっと変えたりしてるんですけれども。ああいうふうにやればいいんだっていうのはあります。(My style is my teacher's when I was in America. I arrange a bit. But, I have an image of how I should do.) (JTE04, 51) ● She might have been the first model, but maybe the real model was in college. When I was a French major, I had a French teacher who was really a model. I mean he was incredible – he made it so

	interesting, he became a motivator and he was, yes, he was fabulous. (NJTE16, 83)
Theoretical memo	<Opposite examples>
● 私は英語好きだったので、思い返す中学校も高校の英語の先生もみんな大好きなんですけれども。申し訳ないですが反面教師ですよね。。
(I liked English, so I liked all the English teachers I had, but they are examples of how not to do it, sorry to say.) (JTE04, 58)

● 教えられたように教えるって言いますからね。やっぱり違うとは思います。訳読が多かったですからね。それは今はやらないですから。リーディングの授業やっても。ですので、教授法っていうことに関して言うと、やっぱり変えていると思います。
(It's often said that we teach in ways we were taught, but I think it's different. Grammar-translation was the main focus. We don't use that now, even in reading classes. So regarding a teaching method, it's different). (JTE03, 55)

● I learned French and Spanish by being immersed in the language, and so that is a question of creating an environment, in which you can actually have contact with the language and use the language. (NJTE12, 54)

● My kind of philosophy of teaching when I came here. Thinking about my own experiences of learning a language, I didn't respond very well to the very one way didactic methods of the teacher in a way that I learned. (NJTE12, 54) The reason I became a teacher was really because I had some French classes at school and I didn't pick up much at all. (NJTE12, 127)

● At that time . . .well, there was no communication based learning. When I was in junior high school that was a way before that idea. So I just saw there's something wrong, and I didn't like it, and I hated French. (NJTE03, 56)

● The students in my class were four years ahead of me in French. I was overwhelmed from the very first day. And the teachers taught only in French. I was completely overwhelmed. There was no translation allowed at all… So I have learned from my own experience as a French learner. (NJTE06, 192)

● I studied French in high school but you know it's just something I sort of had to do, and I studied Italian in two years of university but it was something I had to do. If I was given a choice, I probably would not have studied any language at university but I didn't have a choice. (NJTE15, 238) |

Theoretical memo	• I dropped [out] very quickly after one or two years. We can give it up, so I gave it up at my first chance. We had to keep one language for five years, and so I kept French (NJTE20, 62) … I hated it, and I was not good at it. (NJTE20, 66)

Concept 2	Teacher education and training
Definition	Teachers' experiences of undergraduate and graduate teacher education or the teacher training programs provided by employers or academic associations.
Variations	• I was teaching at A university, and I think I learned a lot of things through trial and error. And then I went back to finish my Master's degree, a lot of things made sense. I was able to look at different ideas with a critical eye. (NJTE01, 32) • And then I went to graduate school and that's what really – after I got here for about three years, I went back to America and I went to a graduate school and got a master's degree. Then I thought much more deeply about my teaching and that helped. (NJTE09, 78) • Some things [that I learned during MA course] are more useful than others, probably like the communitive language teaching task-based learning, those kind of things have kind of stayed with me and things that I use in my teaching. (NJTE14, 76) …The communicative language teaching is all about facilitating rather than teaching. And student-centered learning, I probably learned about that there, during my Masters about 10 years ago. (NJTE14, 24) • I still view myself as a facilitator and I tried to follow that and my M.A. course had a very strong impression on me because prior to that I had a very little experience in teaching and I had no experience about how to teach, so teaching strategies and learners strategies. So, yes my M.A. course really sort of opened my eyes a lot and very, very strongly influenced me and I think influenced my way of thinking about education and English education. (NJTE15, 68) • Partly I think it was also the training that I had. I had a one month preparatory certificate in English language teaching and I think that was also very instructive and that it's – I think their message was, it is not just about teaching the rules of the language and teaching how to manipulate the language, but it's also about, using the methodological aspects of language teaching to get students to learn, almost without realizing that they are learning. (NJTE12, 58)

Variations	• I was grateful for all of that (MA course) experience because as I learned new ideas, I could try them out or I could reflect on what I had been doing, like "Oh, Okay. Yes. That's task-based learning. That's kind of a style that I use a lot." Put names to the things that I had been doing or identified the pattern more easily and continue doing it. So I think the formal education was very useful. (NJTE02, 152) • TESOLに入ったんですけど、そこでの経験ですね。そこでやっぱり習ったことっていうのは、大学で教えることに関しては非常に影響を与えてくれてます。(Things I learned [during TESOL program] have influenced me a great deal regarding my teaching at the university level.) (JTE12, 152) • コミュニケーション重視って、私がTESLに行っているその頃からいわれてきたあれだったんで、そういう自然のコミュニケーションを促すような……Communicative Englishというのが最初の全盛の頃で、そういうとこの基本的なところはスタンスは変わってないです。(Emphasis on communication has been something that people suggested since the time when I was in TESL......Something like encouraging natural communication… Communicative English was at the first peak. My stance is still essentially the same.) (JTE01,36)
Theoretical memo	<Opposite examples> • 教え始めた頃って結構、教職の知識もあんまりない。役に立たないというか覚えてないという。(When I started teaching, I did not really have lots of knowledge of pedagogy. Or perhaps I should say I didn't remember a thing.) (JTE06, 18) • （大学での教職は）教育心理学とか英語科教育法とかありましたね。でも、実際やってみないとほとんど役に立たないと感じてました。で、教育実習に行ったら、学生さんが優秀だったんで、何も困ることなく、ただ教えるっていうのは楽しいなっていうのはあったんですけど。教授法とかあんまりためになったとは思わないですね。私自身、もともと文学とか文化が好きで、英語教育畑じゃないんですよね。で、理論をやったら授業がうまくなるっていう保証もないですしね。(I took courses like educational psychology and English teaching methodology during teacher education program at university. But I was thinking that it would be almost useless unless I actually taught it. When I went to a teaching practicum, the students were excellent and I had no problems, and I just felt teaching was fun. I don't think English teaching methodology helped me very much. I was interested in literature and culture [of English speaking countries] in the first place, and so I don't have a background in English teaching. Plus, there's no guarantee that learning theory will make you successful in class) (JTE07, 58).

Theoretical memo	● 教員養成で多分心理学とか一通り受けたはずなので、何か習ったと思うんですけど記憶に全くないということは、何学んだのかなあという感じです。(I think I must have taken psychology during my teacher education, but I don't remember any of it. I really wonder what I learned.) (JTE11, 13)
	● I think the M.A. was less about teaching and more about researching, anyway. At the beginning of the course, I felt a little disappointed, but I didn't really feel like the course is teaching me to be a better teacher, it is teaching me to be a better researcher. (NJTE20, 138)

Concept 3	Involvement with teacher organization
Definition	Teachers' experiences of attending conferences and workshops.
Variations	● I think probably more important is just being, for example, involvement with language teaching organizations, conference, so that's ongoing professional development. (NJTE12, 123)
	● I have been involved with XXX group for the last -- may be last 20 years and so. Through that, little by little I have become more aware of what I have been doing. (NJTE17, 133)
	● I would much rather be a student or be a teacher or see something new or feel something new, rather than have someone who present the paper, that really doesn't interest me. (NJTE09, 102)
	● JALT is a good place to go. You learn up to date techniques and activities. Just go to the conference, listen to the presentations, look at the poster presentations look at the JALT articles. Just kind of explore. Teaching is the skill you have to learn every day. You have to change. (NJTE03,)
	● ワークショップに行くとかっていうのが今の教育につながっているかなと思うんですけどね。(I think going to workshops has helped current education.) (JTE10, 49)
	● アクティブラーニングのワークショップはとっても面白くて、まさにファシリテイターの部分が勉強になりましたね。(A workshop on active learning was really interesting. That's exactly what I do—facilitate. I learned a lot from it.) (JTE09, 72)
Theoretical memo	<Opposite examples> ● Most of the things that arise on XXX don't necessarily fit with my needs as a teacher. (NJTE20, 144)

Theoretical memo	• Just because after being a teacher for a while, a lot of the things on the conferences are familiar or not stretching me so much. (NJTE14, 99)
	• Now, looking back, I realized that I did disservice to myself. I shouldn't have spent so much money going to conferences because most of the time, most of the workshop – some were interesting, but all of it was just socializing. (NJTE05, 129)

Concept 4	Discussion with coworkers
Definition	Teachers' learning through advice from and discussion with other teachers.
Variations	• I would observe the class, watch other teachers teach. And I think that is a really good idea. It could be a very small thing but very helpful. And then, yes I came to understand my students more, understand me more, understand the limits of this type of teaching. Then I realized, "Well, they [students] do not have any goals." So I moved over to a little more like direct style teaching, focusing on the speech acts and the situation, and how to use. (NJTE08, 87)
	• I worked with other teachers, Japanese teachers and that was – I think that's how I have learned by observing, talking to, seeing other teachers and of course, later on reading about research and I think the way I have developed teaching skills is by observing and talking with other teachers like, you know, that worked really well for me (NJTE19, 243)
	• I learned methodology just from other teachers, going to conferences and reading, stuff like that. I don't remember--but just reading other textbooks and just listening to how teachers teach that's how I learned it and then through experience. (NJTE03, 72)
	• That was primarily due to the professor there. He is sort of one of the heads of the English Department and it was from him. You know, talking to him and talking about the courses with him that I realized, you know, that I need to do more than just teach English, but you know, to prepare the young people for their life. (NJTE15, 218).
	• When you are a teacher seeing how others teach is one of the best, most valuable teaching experience, learning experiences for you, so I certainly didn't want to be like my French teacher. (NJTE20, 148)

Variations	• In between classes, I would go and visit a different professor every day. Try not to visit one professor too many times, and just ask questions and listen and learn about how they teach and about their research. (NJTE02, 31) • ここに来てからいろんな先生にアイデアを聞いたり、特に私の隣の研究室の先生には来た当時、いろいろアドバイスもらったり、教えてもらったりです。そういう意味では、ここに来ていろいろ教え方も改善されたかなと自分では思います。(After I came here, I've heard ideas from a lot of teachers, and I really learned a lot and got advice from the teacher in the next office. In that sense, I think that the way I teach has been improved.) (JTE04, 66) • 最初は、もともとおられた先生方に最初はどういう授業をしてらっしゃるかを聞いて、それを全部まねていたんですよね。(At the beginning, I asked teachers who had already been here about how they taught. And I imitated everything they said.) (JTE05, 36) • 教えるのも英語教師になってから同僚の先生方に教えていただいたり、見て学んだり、どういうふうにされてますかとか聞いて教わってたりとかですね。(After becoming an English teacher, I learned teaching from other teachers, from watching others, and asking them the ways they taught.) (JTE09, 39)
Theoretical memo	\<opposite examples\> None

Concept 5	Self-study
Definition	Teachers' self-study experiences to improve teaching skills.
Variations	• I learned methodology just from other teachers, going to conferences and reading, stuff like that. I don't remember--but just reading other textbooks and just listening to how teachers teach that's how I learned it and then through experience. (NJTE03, 72) • Yes, and maybe a lot of reading about studies and approaches and, like psychology. (NJTE14, 87) • JALT is a good place to go. You learn up to date techniques and activities. Just go to the conference, listen to the presentations, look at the poster presentations, look at the JALT articles.

Variations	● 読むことですね。特にSLAの本読むようになってから。(Reading, especially, after I started reading about second language acquisition.) (JTE11, 39) ● SLA とか勉強しているうちに、ここはこうだなとか、なんでこういうことしてるのかなとか、いろいろそういうのは自分自身が気付いたり、もちろん見えてくるところはありますよね。As I studied SLA [second language acquisition], I started realizing and noticing things on my own, and my perspective was widened quite a bit. (JTE05, 47)
Theoretical memo	\<Opposite examples> ● … the type of research I often read is, just to me, not relevant to me. Me and my classes, it just doesn't seem relevant. And that is maybe because I don't read enough. Maybe if I read more, maybe there is a lot of something that is relevant. But I think that for sure there is a lot that is not relevant. (NJTE09, 122) ● I mean I read a lot, but I read magazines, and these studies, books and these journals, and it doesn't connect in the classroom. (NJTE08, 91)

Concept 6	Struggles and challenges as a novice teacher
Definition	Teachers' experiences as a novice teacher.
Variations	● My classroom experiences were so…, I didn't like it. I would just get angry at the students because of their attitude and their – and I realized if I had to change, I couldn't keep going like that. I had to do something different, so they would react different. (NJTE08, 139)… So I came with the image of education that happens in America, how the teachers are, how the students are, and I thought that is how it should be. I thought, "I cannot keep going like this or I am going to go crazy or I will leave. They're not having fun, I am not having fun. They are not learning anything, so that means I am not teaching anything. So we are wasting our time, I am wasting my time, that my efforts are just nothing. I do not want this to continue," so I had to find ways.(NJTE08, 183) ● They [students] have studied English in junior high and high school, I thought it would be easy to teach them and I thought they would be more mature so my first university teaching experience…The reality is... well these are not adults yet. I need to be more of a guide and in some cases may be holding their hand and little bit and helping them. So yes I think it was – it would be I mean my first and second year of teaching I realized my expectation and reality were not the same, reality was very different. (NJTE15, 128)

Variations	• If you are a young teacher, like I was and you are not a particularly good teacher like I was, I tended to fall back on that [being a representative of a culture]. I would say, "well okay, I don't know how to teach English, but I am a representative of the United States." (NJTE09, 294)
Theoretical memo	<opposite examples> None

Concept 7	Trial and error in the classroom
Definition	Teachers' experiences of teaching throughout their career.
Variations	• I could just not be very good at things, it could take me longer than most people, but trial and error over a long period of time, that's most important thing. (NJTE09, 118)…My beliefs came from really just my experience. Just it was a long slow process and it is still happening. (NJTE09, 226) • I think experience was the big one. I would just hear teachers do it, and then I try it. I think maybe the big source was from other teachers. They do this in their class. I should try that whether that works or not. It didn't change the way that goes with my teaching. (NJTE03, 71) • I am learning from them and the more classes I teach, the better teacher I have become, because they have taught me, what works with the students, what makes them happy and what they don't like. (NJTE06, 257) • I realized that it takes a long time to develop any confidence and skills, so I realized, ah that's what I'm really focused on. A lot of teachers think it's not really very important. They think if you teach something, students will remember and also that students have the ability to interact for meaning but from my experience, a lot really don't. (NJTE19, 219) • やっぱり経験でやることはものすごく多いです。授業で経験したから今のやり方があるって感じです。(There are many things that I do based on my experiences. I gained my teaching style from my experiences in class.) (JTE03, 36)
Theoretical memo	<opposite examples> None

Concept 8	Beliefs about English as a tool for communication
Definition	Teachers' conviction that they are teaching English as a tool for communication.
Variations	• Language is for communication. It's not about right or wrong and it doesn't matter if you make mistakes. The idea is that you communicate and only by communicating you can understand people from other cultures, you can recognize that basically we are all the same human beings with the same sort of aspirations, the same problems. (NJTE10, 23) • Sometimes I end up having my students to stop studying in English and start using English. You know, you studied English long enough. Let's stop this, let's stop looking at the book, let's use English, let's talk, let's communicate in English. That's the purpose of language, the verbal communication. So let's use English what it is meant to be used for. (NJTE15, 142) • So hopefully changing their mindset to English is not a subject. It's a tool of communicating, not just talking but communicating with someone. (NJTE07, 44) • 英語をメインにする子っていうのはほとんどいないわけで、いわゆるコミュニケーションのツールとして使えればいいわけで、そのレベルまで上げてやるということが私たちの使命かなと。(There are hardly any students who focus their studies on English, and for the most part, it is fine if they can use it as a tool for communication. And it's our job as teachers to get them to that point.) (JTE03, 40) • 英語がコミュニケーションのために、意思伝達のために使われているということを教えていかないといけないと思うんですよ。それをやっぱり共通教育の英語の授業できちんと学生に伝えていかないといけないですよね。(We have to teach students the fact that English is used for communication. That is the purpose of English courses in general education curriculum.) (JTE11, 29)
Theoretical memo	\<opposite examples\> • やっぱりコミュニケーション力だと思うんですよ、それは日本語でも同じですよね。たまたま英語っていうだけのこと、何語でもいいと思うんですけども結局それを使ってコミュニケーションってことはもちろん4技能入ってきますし、それを使って何をこれからしていくのかっていう、それを使って自分のやりたいことを成し遂げるために今やっているので。そこが大切かなと思ってます。(I think communication skills are important, and it's the same thing when they use Japanese as well. It just happened to be English. It doesn't matter what language you to speak, but you need four skills if you use it for communication. They are learning to meet your goals with a language. I think that is what's important.) (JTE04, 37)

Concept 9	Beliefs about creating a learning environment
Definition	Teachers' conviction that teachers are responsible for creating a learning environment.
Variations	- Creating that environment, facilitating that environment through the development of materials and activities is what I am trying to achieve. (NJTE12, 58) - Facilitator in terms of – I am assuming facilitator is someone who kind of mediates the language for the students, basically creating the environment in which the students can study and learn productively. (NJTE12, 50) - Trying to create an atmosphere and environment that's safe and comfortable and free of distractions, so students can focus and learn effectively and enjoy. (NJTE02, 8) - It's up to them to learn, it is up to me to create an environment and activities and to watch them carefully and to give them constant feedback. I cannot learn for them, they've got to learn for themselves. (NJTE09, 218) - The emphasis is placed on creating that learning environment, not just teaching the text, and so the text should be a guideline, not the Holy Grail, not everything. (NJTE21, 43) - I have that good relationship with the students, then it's easy to get them to do try to speak in English or to communicate because they want too.(NJTE10, 2) - I have to get them to feel like they want to do it and enjoy doing it, if they arrive at class not motivated and not enjoying it then they will leave without knowing anything, they won't try to remember. (NJTE20, 78) - I think that the large part of our job is to help students to be willing and wanting to learn the language and use a language in class. (NJTE17, 46)
Theoretical memo	\<opposite examples\> none

Concept 10	Beliefs about learner-centeredness
Definition	Teachers' conviction that learning is a student responsibility.
Variations	● The most important, because you cannot control what students do or learn. You can only guide them, by giving them the right tools, whether that is the right materials or the right motivation or whatever those tools are. All that you can do is to sort of give those tools to the students and then guide them in using them. (NJTE14, 22) ● I think teaching is not going to help. I think students have to be responsible for their learning as well, regardless whether they like the class or not. I mean, if they don't like mathematics, they're responsible for that learning and I just think that I will support you, but you've got to do the work. (NJTE03, 64) ● I think students need to be responsible for their learning and also be able to choose, what they want to learn. So facilitator is probably my strongest role. (NJTE06, 7) People do not learn well unless they are seeking to learn. They can learn things when they are forced to, for example to get a credit to pass a test, that sort of thing, the day after they forget. And it is not useful later in their life. So it is really kind of a waste of time. (NJTE06, 40) ● Japanese University students can be very immature and is very different from the United States. You know, first year university students and they are still like children and they don't realize it, they have to be more responsible for their learning for their own education and after I tell them you know, I am not going to baby you, I am not going to be your mom or dad and so it's up to you and do the work. So, that's what, what I mean by facilitator is. (NJTE15, 52) Something I tell my students to start, "okay, every turn, it's up to you. Your progress, your education, your enjoyment, everything we do is up to you and as your teacher I am here to help you." …. This is sort of for me this phrases is a great key, it's up to you and it's important to make the students aware. (NJTE15,, 52) ● 学生が自分でスキルアップをしていかないとどうしようもないので、教師のできる役割っていうのは、ファシリテイターに限られてるっていうか、外から学生が学ぶ過程を援助してやるっていうこと以外に以上にはあまり踏み込めないかなと思ってます。 (Students have to improve their skills by themselves. The role that teachers can play is limited to facilitator. We can only support their learning processes from the outside. There is not much we can do other than that.) (JTE09 23)
Theoretical memo	<opposite examples> none

Concept 11	Beliefs about grammar teaching
Definition	Teachers' conviction that they have to teach grammar rules to students.
Variations	● やっぱり文法とか、本文でこの副詞節とか、節はここからここまでだとかそういう文法的な知識というのは日本語でやったほういいんですよね。そのほうが断然効率がいいと思うんです。英語でたくさん例を出して、学生に抽象化させるよりも、まず抽象的な概念として日本語で説明した上で事例を紹介するっていうふうにしないと、時 間 が 限 ら れ て い る ん で ね 。(Grammar or grammatical knowledge like adverbial clauses, or where such clauses end in the reading passages, should be instructed in Japanese. It is absolutely more efficient than giving a lot of examples and having students figure out such abstract concepts. Teachers should explain abstract concepts in Japanese first and then give examples because class time is limited.) (JTE06) ● 文法はやっぱ教えないといけない。そしたら関係代名詞とか受動態は、学生にとって難しいんですよ。そういうときに今日難しいのやりますよとか授業の始めに言ったりするんです。で、日本語にこういう文法が無いから難しいんですよ。だけん難しいのはみんな一緒ですよ。当然できないんだから初めてなんで前向きにやりましょうっていう感じで。そういうのって日本人教師にしかできんから。(We have to teach grammar. Relative clauses and passive constructions are difficult for Japanese. At the beginning of the class, I occasionally say things like "we are learning difficult items today" and explain, "They are difficult because English and Japanese are different. It is difficult for all the Japanese, so learn it with a positive attitude." That is what only Japanese teachers can do.) (JTE07)
Theoretical memo	NJETには文法の話は出てこない。 <opposite examples> ● 私の授業では、文法は自分から進んで説明はあまりしないんですね。しっかりと文法を覚えて、語彙を覚えて、さあ使ってみようっていう考え方じゃなくて、音楽とか体育の授業と一緒で、今できる範囲でいいからジェスチャーとか交えて使いながらやってると徐々に、それこそ文法とか語彙っていうのは後で成長してくるって私は思ってるので、そういうスタンスで指導してるんです。まずとにかくやってみようと。(In my classes, I don't really explain grammar. It's not a matter of memorizing grammar and vocabulary and then trying to use it, but rather it's the same as in music and physical education classes, where if you use it with gestures to the extent that you're able, and gradually improve from there, saying "try it out first.") (JTE11,4)

Concept 12	Self as Japanese with English ability (JTE) Self as a native English speaker (NJTE)
Definition	Teachers' perception about themselves having English abilities (JTEs). Teachers' perception about themselves being a native speaker of English (NJTEs).
Variations	● The pronunciation of native English speaker is so valuable, so important. It is a major point to be a native English speaker because of pronunciation and because of the culture. (NJTE21, 95) ● The fact that I am speaking English all the time… and I have the correct accent.(NJTE10, 59) ● Native speakers are at an advantage to know what sounds natural. So, high and low English – slang, appropriate responses, non-appropriate responses. (NJTE11, 49) ● Native speakers know what is appropriate or not, because they have had a lifetime of 24 hours a day seven days a week experience. (NJTE06, 101) ● They need a native speaker as a model, a model for the students. I am guiding them towards what they need to strive for, what they should strive for which is more fluent and practical English. (NJTE15, 32) ● なんか英語を使うモデルという感じですかね。「日本人だけど、こんなに英語が使える」っていうか。そうやって動機づけになると思うんですよね。わりと学生さんからそういうコメントももらう「先生みたいになりたい」とか、そういうコメントが。外国人の先生とは違うコメントがありますので。(It's like a model of a Japanese person who uses English. "I am Japanese but I can use English like this." It could motivate students. In fact, I get comments from students, like "I want to become like you." I get comments different from those foreign teachers get.) (JTE04, 13) ● モデルですね。日本人としての。「ああなりたい」と思わせたいですね。(It's a model as a Japanese person. I want to make my students think "I want to be like that.")(JTE03, 6) ● 日本人の英語教師がしっかりと高い英語力付けて見本を見せるっていうのは絶対なくならないと思うんですね。(I think that the idea that Japanese English teachers attain a high level of English and show a model will never go away.) (JTE11, 9)
Theoretical memo	<Opposite examples> ● Most of my students won't be talking to native speakers anyway. They will be talking to other people whose language – English as

Theoretical memo	a lingua franca. So I think it is not an advantage to teach the native English norms. (NJTE16, 163)
	● They [Japanese teachers]can also be a good model for the Japanese students who feel like I can never be a native speaker, but they see a Japanese teacher, this is how far I could go with my language, and it's something realistic for them. (NJTE20, 112)
	● As a model, my role is actually weaker because I am just like watching a TV. I can model, and I can show them a foreigner speaking, but I look just like a movie. I sound just like a CD. I am a model but and an anti-model. This is where you can come eventually but you are never going to be me because you didn't grow up 50 years ago in Canada. (NJTE13, 25)
	<JTEs' opinions about native speakers>
	● ネイティブの方が圧倒的に優れてるんじゃないですかね。やっぱり英語を面白く伝えるし、習熟度で分けて、と真ん中ぐらいは日本人が良いと思うんです。本学でも一番上クラスの学生は、ネイティブの先生の方がいいとかって言ったり面白いって言ったりするんで。それはやっぱりネイティブの方が魅力があると思うんです。(I think native speakers are far superior. I think it's better to have a Japanese teacher for students in lower and mid class. Native speakers can make English more interesting. In my university, the students in the higher class say that native English teachers are better and more interesting. I think that native speakers are more attractive to students.)(JTE07, 76)
	● それこそ私が感じるネイティブの私の先生のイメージはエンターテイナーなんですよね。私が大学生のころでしたけど、ネイティブの先生はなんて授業が上手なんだろうというか、面白いんだろうって常々思っていました。語学力もそうでしたけど、生徒をのせるのが上手だなって思いながら授業をずっと受けてたので、一番印象に残ってるのはそこですよね。(That's the image I have of native English teachers: they are entertainers. When I was a college student, I always thought about how good and interesting native teachers were. I was impressed at their ability to get students involved in the class in addition to their language skills. Their ability to get the students involved in the class is what I remember most.) (JTE07, 42)

Concept 13	Self as a foreigner living in Japan (NJTE)
Definition	Teachers' experiences living in Japan greatly influencing their teaching practices and perceptions.
Variations	● [in everyday life], I am trying to communicate. I look around, and that I am not so high, so I have to struggle, and there are situations that I don't understand, and but I have to understand. I have no choice. I cannot go home. I have to do something, to try to

Variations	understand and a lot of them – will have the same problems using English outside, so this is – these are some things you can do to manage this kind of problems. (NJTE08,, 47) ● I would say, but I have lived here for a long time, I did not speak any Japanese when I came here, but in daily life, I can manage. And I said, so those kind of experiences, it is about dealing with the other person. (NJTE07, 43) ● I use my incomplete second language every day and that's why my focus is what it is. I think. Well that's what I need. I need to check, I need to be appropriate, I need to ask for words, I need to ask for things I don't know; I need to repeat phrases to make sure they are correct….. I don't use English except in the classroom. You know, those things affect my view of my role. (NJTE19, 391) ● As a foreigner living in the Japanese countryside, language is necessary and useful. (NJTE02,, 82)
Theoretical memo	\<Opposite examples\> None Related examples ● I went to live and work in France on and off for two years and it was kind of wow, a whole new world. When I got the language, it was a whole new world. And the same and I was travelling in South America, I arrived in South America with no Spanish whatsoever and then little by little I started studying and got again self-taught just talking to people. And when I could communicate, it was like, wow, whole new world,... So that personal experience is probably at the foundation of everything. (NJTE12, 127) ● I say (to students), "well in Australia, we have a lot of I guess non-English, well, where English isn't the first language." And say "we grow up with that in schools and everywhere." And say, "so we are not expecting perfect English all the time." (NJTE07, 42)

Concept 14	Attrition of cultural background
Definition	Teachers' understanding of themselves as someone who has lost their cultural identity.
Variations	● One of the things is probably consistent with some of the people you have met is their inability to be representative of other culture, because I have been in Japan for so long. So, you already know that, I am in Japan for over 20 years, but I also worked in the UK very recently and really felt I actually represented more of Japanese culture than the UK when I went to the UK. (NJTE22, 11)

Variations	● I am kind of in a difficult place because, culturally, I am American, but I have lived in Japan for 32 years, so there are a lot of things that I don't know about the American culture. (NJTE05, 165) ● When I first came, I was someone representing someone from England or whatever. But my students, probably most of my students don't know which country I come from. (NJTE17, 208)
Theoretical memo	\<opposite examples\> None

Concept 15	Self as someone getting older
Definition	Teachers' understanding of themselves as someone getting older.
Variations	● I think my motherly experience gets involved. Like the students are not motivated, come to school late, doesn't do their homework. I said to them, "Who is paying for your tuition?" "Oh, my parents." "And they both work, right?" "Yes." And I used to yell at them, "Kaiwaiso. You are not がんばる。 Your parents are がんばる for you." I reared all these roles; motivator, care giver, but yes. (NJTE04, 14) ● As I get older and now I could be my students' father literally. I am their father's age, so I think obviously there is more of a parental role which in a way makes teaching sometimes more comfortable. (NJTE01, 38) A lot of them also have their own children. I think as they get older they take on a more motherly role maybe and I think a good teacher wants a student to learn so I think the motivator role is probably something. (NJTE01, 19) ● I used to think it was important to be in class and be "Ginki," for example, and a big smile, and so forth, No, not at all. My next birthday is 50, and I don't do that because of just less energy. I don't think so … but I used to think it was very important to be entertaining. (NJTE22, 231) ● 年齢重ねてきましたので、気分はモチベーターで寄り添いたいんですけど、若いときのようなみんなを湧かしたいみたいな気持ちはもうなくなってきてるかもしれません。 (I would like to support students as a motivator, but as I'm getting older, I am losing the feeling that I want to get students excited, like I did when I was younger. (JTE02, 106) ● 歌のユニットのところは、すごいやりやすいユニットだったんですよ。ところが、ここ数年うまくいかなくなってきたのが、私と学生の世代ギャップが大きくなってまったく共通項がなくなったっていう伊野があると思うんです。 (A song unit used to be a very easy

Variations	unit to teach, but it has not gone well for the last several years because of the age gap between the students and me. We have nothing in common about music.) (JTE01, 51)
	● 学生と年齢的にも離れてきて、学生が寄ってこなくっjust たなあと思ったときに、やっぱり自分の教育力とか指導力とかをもっと上げないといけないなあっていうのを感じ始めましたね。(Once I realized that students rarely come to me due to an age gap between students and me, I started to feel that I needed to improve my educational and instructional abilities.) (JTE11, 11)
Theoretical memo	<opposite examples> None

Concept 16	Expectations from the university
Definition	Teachers' feeling that they must change their teaching because the university wants them to do so.
Variations	● The reason why I am hired was a native speaker. Because they [students] need a language model with someone who speaks the language as the first language. (NJTE15, 10)
	● I think my main role of course at the moment is I'm a native – because I'm a native speaker, that's why I'm in the job.(NJTE10, 14) Here in Japan the reason I have been employed as an English teacher is because I am a native speaker. (NJTE10, 15)
	● Definitely I was an entertainer and motivator. My identity as a native speaker and cultural ambassador was the main reason why I was hired. They told me that. …. in reality I think they wanted this [motivator]. (NJTE01, 14)
	● At times, I am hired because I am a native speaker. Actually I am not sure that it is actually being a native speaker. I'll be frank, I think maybe it is because I look like a native speaker. I think in Japan if you look a certain type, if you look American or British or whatever. 'You look like you can speak English, therefore I am going to hire you.' I think it's unfortunate and discriminatory, but I think that is the way of it in Japan, living in Japan. I hope things can change and people are hired based on their skills not their looks. (NJTE07, 177)
Theoretical memo	<opposite examples> ● I think you should be hired because of your qualifications, because you are a good teacher and that means that you should have English ability and you should be aware of methodology. So I

Theoretical memo	think this [language authority] matters the most, but everything else is just so small. (NJTE01, 10)
	● At times, I am hired because I am a native speaker. Actually I am not sure that it is actually being a native speaker. I'll be frank, I think maybe it is because I look like a native speaker. I think in Japan if you look a certain type, if you look American or British or whatever. 'You look like you can speak English, therefore I am going to hire you.' I think it's unfortunate and discriminatory, but I think that is the way of it in Japan, living in Japan. I hope things can change and people are hired based on their skills not their looks. (NJTE07, 177)
	● I don't think it is the most important thing for me that I am a native speaker. I think that the language skill and expertise is important, and I don't have to be a native speaker for that. (NJTE20, 111)

Concept 17	Expectations from the students
Definition	Teachers' feeling that they must change their teaching because the students want them to do so.
Variations	● I think students want to learn about my culture, they want to see things, they want to be exposed to music or some videos or things like that or even just hear me talk, you know, what life is like in Ohio, something like that. (NJTE01, 3)
	● I think students also might expect sometimes that the native speaker teaches them the speaking part (of TOEFL), too. (NJTE01, 10)
	● Just by being a native speaker of the language I don't know if that gives us any particular advantage, maybe other than in the students' perception. (NJTE12, 103)
	● I think they still come to class with this idea that, "oh 90 minutes with a native speaker, I will be able to speak English." And they – I think they just don't realize how challenging it is to become proficient in a second language. (NJTE12, 82)
	● I am a native speaker, and they [students] are expecting something from that. They are expecting me to model accent or speak in perfect grammar or something. So I think that is a high expectation of the students that they want a native speaker. (NJTE20, 111)
	● I think the students still desire it [to be taught by a native speaker] and they would feel let down if they never had a native speaker class. (NJTE20, 113)

Theoretical memo	<Opposite examples> None

Concept 18	Characteristics of Japanese people
Definition	Teachers' impressions of Japanese people in general. (Reticent/ xenophobic)
Variations	● I am a native speaker and therefore I suppose maybe my prime role is so the students can hear the native accent, the native language spoken and to help people communicate with foreigners frankly. And that's something that Japanese are not very good at unfortunately. They learn, they have lots and lots of linguistic knowledge, but somehow there is a big wall when it comes to speaking, there is a big barrier. And I like to try and break down the barrier so that they can speak. (NJTE10, 22) ● In Japan, I think the level is still much lower, if a foreigner comes up to a Japanese person on the street and asks a question or they ask something in a shop, they often get very hesitant to reply, very not confident. (NJTE20, 179) ● At the other very basic level, there is still a lot of degree of stigma and fear with especially young people of foreigners. They are afraid of foreigners. ... But how native English speakers teaching you English and about their culture and different styles, that [fear] disappears. So by the time these students finish university and they go into the work environment, they have a lot more idea about the world in general and the fear of strangers of a lot different countries is not so much. (NJTE21, 134)
Theoretical memo	<opposite examples> ● One of the very, very great elements of Japanese culture despite what people might say from the outside is that Japanese people are reticent. They don't really speak their minds, I disagree. I think if you do speak, they will tell you. They will actually, generally speaking, if asked in the right way. (NJTE22, 143)

Concept 19	Characteristics of Japanese students
Definition	Teachers' impressions of Japanese students in general.
Variations	● Maybe just for me, my goal for my students is that they can talk because they are too quiet. (NJTE20, 58) ● In terms of teaching, students they are going to be really quiet or they're going to passive and all that. I can't be frustrated for who they are or what they are, it's a bit shocking I would say but I can't. (NJTE03, 73) ● Students in Japan are a kind of passive, they are used to not doing anything unless they are told to do it and if they are told to do it, they are doing it, they are afraid of mistakes and this kind of things. (NJTE08, 15) ● Japanese University students can be very immature and is very different from the United States. You know, first year university students and they are still like children and they don't realize it, they have to be more responsible for their learning for their own education and after I tell them you know, (NJTE15, 52) ● I think also in Japan, I noticed that the age, 18 to 21, 22, that kind of age group, they are much more immature than any other countries. If you talk to an 18-year-old student about a subject in Japan, then it would be very textbook. It won't be from experience or imagination. (NJTE21, 30) ● Well in the Japanese side very often accuracy is not so much a problem. People prepare what they want to say but they hesitate and they miss chances and there is too much silence. So in that case your goal is first start speaking, speak more and then we can work on that [accuracy]. (NJTE17, 172) ● Sometimes I do entertaining things. I don't like to do that. Well, – I mean, I do not mind doing it, but I would rather have them be engaged by the lesson. That is the best lesson if I have done nothing silly to get their attention and they have been completely focused. (NJTE09, 130) ● 今日日の学生は、いつの時代も「近頃の若者は」と言うのかもしれないですが、ちょっと幼稚化が進んでいますよね。言われていることがちゃんと理解できないとか。指示されていることがわからないとか。で、学生が甘やかされてますよね。(Recently, students are becoming more childish. They do not understand what is being said to them. They don't understand instructions. They are too spoiled.) (JTE01, 15)

Variations	• 最近の大学生はマチュアじゃないですね。本当にノットマチュ・マチュアです。なぜかっていうと、手取り足取りしてやらないといけない。(Pointing to care provider role on her mind map sheet) (Students are not mature, really not mature. I have to spoon-feed them.) (JTE12, 218)
Theoretical memo	\<opposite examples\> • My experience of teaching Italian students is that they don't hesitate to speak and so in that case we would be saying okay, you're willing to speak, you're good at speaking but you're not accurate. So the goal is how can we do it better."(NJTE20, 79) • They were basically European students who were travelling in the UK or going to take a course in the UK, so we had Italian and French and other countries. I didn't need to be a facilitator so much, they were quite happy to talk. (NJTE20, 85)

Concept 20	Lack of motivation to learn English and/or purpose for English learning
Definition	Teachers' awareness of their students' low motivation and/or lack of purpose for learning English.
Variations	• Obviously, they are not English majors. So they are motivated for other things…. English is a bump they have to get over. (Ellen 133) • A lot of the students are doing English as a compulsory course, they haven't opted to do it. (NJTE20, 74) • I think most of the university students do not really see – the people that are interested in English can see how it can affect them, but other students cannot see how that happen, so I think sometimes, I think it is really, I try to yes, show them by talking about examples or something how it can change their life. (NJTE07, 32) • Whether the students like it or not, they have to learn English, whether they like it or not. I understand the feelings involved. (NJTE06, 192) • I am very much aware that there are students who are not interested and do not need English. I am not going to make their life hell. I am not going to make coming to my class hell. …(NJTE15, 242) • They cannot see how they are going to use English...Saying that, teaching required English classes and trying to motivate them, you know... I had to become more of a motivator for my classes here.

Variations	(NJTE07, 102) ● やっぱり中学校、高校までで英語に対して否定的な感情を持って、（大学に）入ってくる学生ってのがかなりいますので。(There are a lot of university students with negative feelings toward English that they held during middle and high school.) (JTE11, 4) ● 共通教育（general education curriculum）の英語ですと、全学部のあらゆる学部の学生が取っていますので、英語が得意で好きなっていう子ももちろん学部によってはいるんですけど、そうでないっていう学生も多いのですよね。(Regarding English courses in the general education curriculum, all students in all faculties take these courses. There are some students who really like English depending on faculties, but there are a lot that do not.(JTE04, 23) ● もう英語がもともと嫌いで苦手で入ってきた学生がものすごく、もう大半を占めていて、それはもう間違いなくて、そういう状況で、英語が好きな、あるいは苦手ではない学生と同じように授業を始めていいかと言ったらそうじゃないと思うんです。(There are a lot of students who come in already hating English, and they account for half of the students, without a doubt. In such situation, you can't teach classes in the same way as you do for students who like English or are not poor at English. (JTE05, 27) ● ある学校に行ったら、英語が必修だからしかたなく授業に来てるっていう学生がかなりいる状態になったんです。そのころは、場合によってこのエンターテイナーにもならなくちゃいけないし。In some school, a lot of students were showing up because English is compulsory and they had to take it. Then, I had to become a sort of entertainer. (JTE11, 11) ● They cannot see how they are going to use English...Saying that, teaching required English classes and trying to motivate them, you know... I had to become more of a motivator for my classes here. (NJTE07, 102)
Theoretical memo	\<opposite example\> None \<related example\> ● In some situations, I pretend to teach English and the students pretend to learn English… the university is not so serious about the course (English), it's just another hoop that the students had to jump through, so I don't really teach. I just want to pretend to teach, the students pretend to learn. (NJTE15, 8)

Appendix H: An Abridged List of Questionnaire Items

---

(1) Participant background (eight multiple choice items)

Gender
- Male　　男性
- Female　　女性
- Prefer not to say　回答したくない

Age
- 20s　　　20代
- 30s　　　30代
- 40s　　　40代
- 50s　　　50代
- ≥60s　　　60代以上

Employment status
- Full-time　　常勤
- Part-time　　非常勤

English-teaching experiences (Teaching experience)
- ≤5 years　　　5年以下
- 6–10 years　　　6–10年
- 11–15 years　　　11–15年
- 16–20 years　　　16–20年
- 21–25 years　　　21–25年
- 26–30 years　　　26–30年
- ≥31 years　　　31年以上

English-teaching experiences at university (University experience)
- ≤5 years　　　5年以下
- 6–10 years　　　6–10年
- 11–15 years　　　11–15年
- 16–20 years　　　16–20年
- 21–25 years　　　21–25年
- 26–30 years　　　26–30年
- ≥31 years　　　31年以上

Student types
- Only students majoring in fields where English is emphasized
  英語を重視した分野を専攻している学生
- Mainly students majoring in fields where English is emphasized, but I also taught students majoring in other fields
  主に英語を重視した分野を先行している学生を担当、一部他分野を専攻する学生Only students majoring in other fields
  他分野を専攻する学生のみ
- Mainly students majoring in other fields, but I also taught students majoring in fields where English is emphasized
  主に他分野を専攻する学生を担当、一部英語を重視した分野の学生

Course types
- Only compulsory English courses in the general education program
  一般教育課程の必修英語科目のみ
- Mainly taught compulsory English courses in the general education program, but I also taught content courses
  専門科目も担当しているが、主には一般教育課程の必修英語科目
- Mainly content courses, but I also taught compulsory English courses
  一般教育課程の必修英語も担当しているが、主には専門科目

Researcher or teacher identity
- English teacher　　　英語教師
- Researcher　　　研究者
- Both of the above　　　上記の両方

---

(2) Role perceptions (eight items plus one distractor item, a seven-point Likert scale)

Language model (LM)

I perceive myself as a language model for students.

私は、英語の授業で自分のことを学生が見習うべき英語の見本（モデル）であると捉えている。

English expert (EE):

In the classroom, I perceive myself as an English expert.

私は、英語の授業で自分のことを英語の専門家であると捉えている。

Transmitter of knowledge (TK):

In the classroom, I perceive myself as a transmitter of knowledge (of English).

私は、英語の授業で自分のことを（英語の）知識の伝達者であると捉えている。

Cultural representative (CR):

In the classroom, I perceive myself as a cultural representative of my home country.

私は、英語の授業で自分のことを外国（主に英語圏）の文化の伝達者であると捉えている。

Motivator (MO):

In the classroom, I perceive myself as a motivator for my students.

私は、英語の授業で自分のことを学生のモティベーター（動機づけを高める役割）であると捉えている。

Facilitator (FA):

In the classroom, I perceive myself as a facilitator (guide, supporter).

私は、英語の授業で自分のことをファシリテーター（ガイド、援助者）であると捉えている。

Learning advisor (LA):

In the classroom, I perceive myself as a learning advisor for my students.

私は、英語の授業で自分のことを学習アドバイザーであると捉えている。

Designer (DE):

I perceive myself as a designer (courses/ materials).

私は、自分を（授業や教材の）デザイナーだと捉えている。

(3) Influential factors in the construction of the role perceptions (25 items, a seven-point Likert scale)

Past language learning experiences (PE, three items)

PE1: There are foreign language teachers I had in school who served as models for how to teach.

学生時代の外国語の先生のなかに、自分の教え方のモデルとなった先生がいる。

PE2: My teaching style is based on what I experienced in learning foreign language(s) in school.

私の指導方法は、私自身が学校の外国語学習で経験したことが基になっている。

PE3: My own foreign language learning experience in school has been useless for me in my teaching. (Reversed worded item)

私自身の学校での外国語学習経験は、自分が教えるのに役に立っていない。(Reversed worded item)

Teacher education and training (TE, three items)

TE1: Education that I received related to language teaching and/or language learning deepened my understanding about foreign language teaching.

私が受けた語学教育・学習に関する専門教育は、外国語教育についての私の理解を深めてくれた。

TE2: I learned a lot about how to teach from education that I received related to language teaching and/or language learning.

私は、自分が受けた語学教育・学習に関する専門教育から、教え方について多くを学んだ。

TE3: Education that I received related to language teaching and/or language learning has been useless in my teaching. (Reversed worded item)

自分が教えるうえで、私が受けた語学教育・学習に関する専門教育は役に立っていない。(Reversed worded item)

(continued)

(Appendix H continued)

Involvement with teacher organizations (IT, three items)
- IT1: Participating in self-development activities such as workshops and academic conferences deepened my knowledge about foreign language teaching.
  ワークショップ、学会などの自己研鑽の活動に参加することは、外国語教育について、私の知識を深めてくれた。
- IT2: I learned a lot about how to teach by participating in self-development activities such as workshops and academic conferences.
  私は、ワークショップ、学会などの自己研鑽の活動に参加することで、教え方について多くを学んだ。
- IT3: Participating in self-development activities such as workshops and academic conferences has been useless in my teaching. (Reversed worded item)
  自分が教えるうえで、ワークショップ、学会などの自己研鑽の活動に参加することは役に立っていない。(Reversed worded item)

Discussion with coworkers (CO, three items)
- CO1: I have improved my teaching skills by talking with the other teachers at my workplace(s) about how to teach.
  私は、職場で他の先生と話すことで、指導技術を高めた。
- CO2: I have talked a lot with other teachers at my workplace(s) about how to teach.
  職場の他の先生と教え方について、よく話す(した)。
- CO3: I have had few opportunities to talk with other teachers at my workplace(s) about how to teach. (Reversed worded item)
  職場の他の先生と教え方について話す機会はあまりなかった。(Reversed worded item)

Beliefs about grammar teaching (GT, three items)
- GT1: In English classes, explicit grammar/ vocabulary instruction in class enhances student learning outcomes.
  英語の授業では、はっきりとした文法・語彙指導が学生の学習成果を高める。
- GT2: In English classes, students understand English better when teachers explain grammatical rules explicitly in class.
  英語の授業では、教師がはっきりと文法規則を説 明すると、学生は英語をよりよく理解する。
- GT3: In English classes, students do not understand English well if teachers do not provide explicit grammar/ vocabulary instruction in class. (Reversed worded item)
  英語の授業では、教師がはっきりとした文法・語彙指導をしないと、学生が十分に英語を理解できない。(Reversed worded item)

Self-understanding (SELF, three items)
- SELF1: Being a native speaker of English (or near-native English-speaking foreign teacher) is an important aspect of my role as a university English teacher.
  自分が日本人であるということは、大学英語教師としての自分にとって重要な点だ。
- SELF2: It is important to me that I am a native speaker (or near-native English speaker) in my teaching of Japanese students.
  日本人学生に教えるのに、自分が日本人であることは自分自身にとって重要だと感じている。
- SELF3: The fact that I am a native speaker of English (or near-native English-speaking foreign teacher) makes no difference to me in my teaching of Japanese students. (Reversed worded item)
  自分が日本人だということは、日本人学生に英語を教えるのに、あまり関係のないことだ。(Reversed worded item)

Expectations (EXP, three items)
- EXP1: I feel a certain expectation from the university regarding my teaching style.
  指導方法に関して、大学からの何らかの期待を感じる。
- EXP2: I feel that my university expects me of certain teaching style (to be strict, to teach entertainingly, to introduce foreign cultures, etc.).
  私の大学は、私に特定の指導方法を期待していると感じる（厳しくする、面白く教える、英語圏の文化を紹介する等）
- EXP3: I hardly feel expectations from the university regarding my teaching style. (Reversed worded item)
  指導方法に関して大学からの期待を特に感じない。(Reversed worded item)

(continued)

(Appendix H continued)

Student related factor (STU, four items)

STU1: Most of the students tended to be passive in class.
多くの学生は、授業で受け身がちだった。

STU2: Most of the students showed low interest in learning English.
多くの学生は、英語学習にあまり興味がなかった。

STU3: Most of the students were proactive in class. (Reversed worded item)
多くの学生は、授業で積極的だった。(Reversed worded item)

STU4: Most of the students were highly motivated to learn English. (Reversed worded item)
多くの学生は、英語を学ぶことへの動機づけが高かった。(Reversed worded item)

(4) Teacher self-efficacy for engagement (Effi, three items, a seven-point Likert scale)

Effi 1: I can help my students to value English learning.
私は、私の学生に英語学習の価値を感じさせることができる。

Effi 2: I can get my students to believe they can do well in English learning.
私は、私の学生に英語学習がうまくいくと信じさせることができる。

Effi 3: I can motivate students who show low interest in learning English.
私は、英語学習にあまり興味がない学生の動機づけを高めることができる。

(5) The purposes of university English education (one multiple-response item, three choices)

Linguistic aspects

(1) Knowledge of English
To develop students' knowledge of English (grammar, vocabulary, etc.).
学生の英語の知識（文法、語彙など）を養成する。

(2) Communication skills in English
To develop students' practical communication skills in English.
学生の英語での実用的なコミュニケーション能力を養成する。

(3) Established standard
To develop students' English abilities in order to meet established standards (e.g., desirable TOEIC scores).
学生が確立された基準（望ましいとされるTOEICスコアなど）を満たせる英語力を養成する。

(4) Academic/specific purposes
To develop the English skills that are necessary for the students' majors (English for academic/specific purposes).
学生が専攻分野で必要となる英語力（アカデミック英語、特定目的英語）を養成する。

(5) International leadership
To develop students' English skills so that they can be leaders in international settings (henceforth, international leadership).
国際的な場面でリーダーシップを発揮できるための英語力を養成する。

Non-linguistic attitudinal aspects

(6) Autonomous/ lifelong learner
To help students to be autonomous and/or lifelong learners.
学生を自律学習者、生涯学習者に養成する。

(7) Social diversity
To develop students' ability to understand and adapt to social diversity and different cultures.
学生が多様な社会異文化を理解し適応できる能力を養成する。

(8) Motivation
To increase students' interest in using and learning English.
学生の英語使用・学習に対する興味を深める。

(9) Critical/logical thinking skills
To develop students' logical and/or critical thinking skills.
学生の論理的・批判的思考力を養成する。

Appendix I1: Actual Questionnaire (for JTEs)

本調査の目的は、大学の一般教育課程の（必修）英語科目を担当している先生方が、授業での自身の役割をどのように捉えているか、そして、その形成に影響を与える要因を探ることです。

ご協力いただきたい先生は、「一般教育課程の英語」、または「一般教育課程の英語と専門科目の両方（非常勤も含む）」をご担当の先生です。
※「専門科目のみ」をご担当の先生方は対象としていません。これに該当される先生方には、本サイトにアクセスいただき、お礼申し上げます。

全ての質問が選択肢式で、ほとんどの質問が各記述文に対するご意見を「全くそう思わない」から「非常にそう思う」の中から選んでいただくものです。正解や不正解はありません。
この調査は任意の調査です。協力を強制するものではありません。
完全な無記名式で、回答者を特定するような質問は一切ありません。
先生のご回答の機密性は厳守されます。
回答開始後、回答したくない、あるいは不快に感じる項目があれば、その時点でページを閉じて回答をやめていただいても構いません。
52問（回答時間約10-15分）

お時間を取ってくださることに心よりお礼申し上げます。

広島経済大学・講師
森谷浩士

* 1. 現在の雇用形態はどちらですか。

　　◯　常勤

　　◯　非常勤

* 2. ご自身をどのように捉えておられますか。

　　◯　英語教師

　　◯　研究者

　　◯　上記の両方

* 3. 項目3～8は、2018年度に先生がご担当の最も典型的なクラス（必修英語）についてお尋ねします。

　　主に教えられた学生は次のうちどれですか。

　　◯　英語を重視した分野を専攻している学生（例:英語専攻、国際ビジネス、観光）のみを担当

　　◯　主に英語を重視した分野を専攻している学生を担当（一部、他分野を専攻する学生も担当）

　　◯　他分野を専攻している学生のみを担当

　　◯　主に他分野を専攻している学生を担当（一部、英語を重視した分野の学生も担当）

＊4. 何の授業を教えられましたか。 （常勤の先生で、学外で非常勤の授業をお持ちの場合、その授業も含めてご回答ください。）

○ 一般教育課程の（必修）英語科目のみ

○ 専門科目（例：英文学、コミュニケーション、英語科教員養成）も担当しているが、主には一般教育課程の（必修）英語科目

○ 一般教育課程の（必修）英語科目も担当しているが、主には専門科目（例：英文学、コミュニケーション、英語科教員養成）

＊5. 以下の記述文にどの程度共感できますか。先生が2018年度にご担当になった最も典型的な一般教育課程の（必修）英語クラスを想定して、以下の[全くそう思わない一非常にそう思う]の選択肢の中から最もあてはまるものをお選びください。

多くの学生は、授業で受け身がちだった。
2018年度に先生がご担当の最も典型的な必修英語クラスを想定してお答えください。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

＊6. 多くの学生は、英語学習にあまり興味がなかった。
2018年度に先生がご担当の最も典型的な必修英語クラスを想定してお答えください。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 7. 多くの学生は、授業で積極的だった。

2018年度に先生がご担当の最も典型的な必修英語クラスを想定してお答えください。

- ◯ 全くそう思わない
- ◯ そう思わない
- ◯ あまりそう思わない
- ◯ どちらともいえない
- ◯ 少しそう思う
- ◯ そう思う
- ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 8. 多くの学生は、英語を学ぶことへの動機づけが高かった。

2018年度に先生がご担当の最も典型的な必修英語クラスを想定してお答えください。

- ◯ 全くそう思わない
- ◯ そう思わない
- ◯ あまりそう思わない
- ◯ どちらともいえない
- ◯ 少しそう思う
- ◯ そう思う
- ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 9. 残りの項目は、一般教育課程の（必修）英語の授業を想定して、どの程度共感できるか、「全くそう思わない」ー「非常にそう思う」の中から最もあてはまるものをお選びください。

私は、英語の授業で自分のことを学生が見習うべき英語の見本（モデル）であると捉えている。

- ◯ 全くそう思わない
- ◯ そう思わない
- ◯ あまりそう思わない
- ◯ どちらともいえない
- ◯ 少しそう思う
- ◯ そう思う
- ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 10. 私は、英語の授業で自分のことを世話役（親のような役割）であると捉えている。
  ◯ 全くそう思わない
  ◯ そう思わない
  ◯ あまりそう思わない
  ◯ どちらともいえない
  ◯ 少しそう思う
  ◯ そう思う
  ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 11. 私は、英語の授業で自分のことを（英語の）知識の伝達者であると捉えている。
  ◯ 全くそう思わない
  ◯ そう思わない
  ◯ あまりそう思わない
  ◯ どちらともいえない
  ◯ 少しそう思う
  ◯ そう思う
  ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 12. 私は、英語の授業で自分のことを外国（主に英語圏）の文化の伝達者であると捉えている。
  ◯ 全くそう思わない
  ◯ そう思わない
  ◯ あまりそう思わない
  ◯ どちらともいえない
  ◯ 少しそう思う
  ◯ そう思う
  ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 13. 私は、英語の授業で自分のことをファシリテーター（ガイド、援助者）であると捉えている。
  ◯ 全くそう思わない
  ◯ そう思わない
  ◯ あまりそう思わない
  ◯ どちらともいえない
  ◯ 少しそう思う
  ◯ そう思う
  ◯ 非常にそう思う

285

* 14. 私は、英語の授業で自分のことを学習アドバイザーであると捉えている。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 15. 私は、英語の授業で自分のことを英語の専門家であると捉えている。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 16. 私は、英語の授業で自分のことを学生のモティベーター（動機づけを高める役割）であると捉えている。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 17. 私は、自分を（授業や教材の）デザイナーだと捉えている。

　○　全くそう思わない

　○　そう思わない

　○　あまりそう思わない

　○　どちらともいえない

　○　少しそう思う

　○　そう思う

　○　非常にそう思う

* 18. ワークショップ、学会などの自己研鑽の活動に参加することは、外国語教育について、私の知識を深めてくれた。

　○　全くそう思わない

　○　そう思わない

　○　あまりそう思わない

　○　どちらともいえない

　○　少しそう思う

　○　そう思う

　○　非常にそう思う

　○　そのような活動に参加したことがない

* 19. 私の大学は、私に特定の指導方法を期待していると感じる（厳しくする、面白く教える、英語圏の文化を紹介する等）。

　○　全くそう思わない

　○　そう思わない

　○　あまりそう思わない

　○　どちらともいえない

　○　少しそう思う

　○　そう思う

　○　非常にそう思う

* 20. 自分が教えるうえで、私が受けた語学教育・学習に関する専門教育は役に立っていない。

注：この質問での「専門教育」とは、大学、大学院でのプログラム、企業や学術団体などが提供する研修・職業訓練などを含みます。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

○ そのような専門教育は受けたことがない

* 21. 自分が日本人であるということは、大学英語教師としての自分にとって重要な点だ。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 22. 私は、職場で他の先生と話すことで、指導技術を高めた。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 23. 英語の授業では、はっきりとした文法・語彙指導が学生の学習成果を高める。

  ◯ 全くそう思わない

  ◯ そう思わない

  ◯ あまりそう思わない

  ◯ どちらともいえない

  ◯ 少しそう思う

  ◯ そう思う

  ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 24. 学生時代の外国語の先生のなかに、自分の教え方のモデルとなった先生がいる。

  注：この質問での「学生時代」には、中・高校、予備校、大学（一般教育）、その他語学学校を含みますが、大学の専門教育課程は含みません。

  ◯ 全くそう思わない

  ◯ そう思わない

  ◯ あまりそう思わない

  ◯ どちらともいえない

  ◯ 少しそう思う

  ◯ そう思う

  ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 25. より良い教師になるために、外国語教育/学習についての本をたくさん読んだ。

  ◯ 全くそう思わない

  ◯ そう思わない

  ◯ あまりそう思わない

  ◯ どちらともいえない

  ◯ 少しそう思う

  ◯ そう思う

  ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 26. 英語の授業では、教師がはっきりと文法規則を説明すると、学生は英語をよりよく理解する。
- ◯ 全くそう思わない
- ◯ そう思わない
- ◯ あまりそう思わない
- ◯ どちらともいえない
- ◯ 少しそう思う
- ◯ そう思う
- ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 27. 私は、私の学生に英語学習の価値を感じさせることができる。
- ◯ 全くそう思わない
- ◯ そう思わない
- ◯ あまりそう思わない
- ◯ どちらともいえない
- ◯ 少しそう思う
- ◯ そう思う
- ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 28. 効果的な学びのために、教師はクラス全体に学習内容・過程（方法）について、細かく指示する必要がある。
- ◯ 全くそう思わない
- ◯ そう思わない
- ◯ あまりそう思わない
- ◯ どちらともいえない
- ◯ 少しそう思う
- ◯ そう思う
- ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 29. 職場の他の先生と教え方について話す機会はあまりなかった。

  ◯ 全くそう思わない

  ◯ そう思わない

  ◯ あまりそう思わない

  ◯ どちらともいえない

  ◯ 少しそう思う

  ◯ そう思う

  ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 30. 指導方法に関して、大学からの何らかの期待を感じる。

  ◯ 全くそう思わない

  ◯ そう思わない

  ◯ あまりそう思わない

  ◯ どちらともいえない

  ◯ 少しそう思う

  ◯ そう思う

  ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 31. 私自身の学校での外国語学習経験は、自分が教えるのに役に立っていない。

  注：この質問での「学校」には、中・高校、予備校、大学（一般教育）、その他語学学校を含みます。大学の専門教育課程は含みません。

  ◯ 全くそう思わない

  ◯ そう思わない

  ◯ あまりそう思わない

  ◯ どちらともいえない

  ◯ 少しそう思う

  ◯ そう思う

  ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 32. 外国語教育・学習について本、雑誌、記事などを読むことで、指導技術を高めた。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 33. 教師が学習内容の説明をたくさんすると、学生の知識は増える。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 34. 私が受けた語学教育・学習に関する専門教育は、外国語教育についての私の理解を深めてくれた。

注：この質問での「専門教育」とは、大学、大学院でのプログラム、企業や学術団体などが提供する研修・職業訓練などを含みます。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

○ そのような専門教育は受けたことがない

* 35. 日本人学生に教えるのに、自分が日本人であることは自分自身にとって重要だと感じている。

　　◯ 全くそう思わない

　　◯ そう思わない

　　◯ あまりそう思わない

　　◯ どちらともいえない

　　◯ 少しそう思う

　　◯ そう思う

　　◯ 非常にそう思う

* 36. 自分が教えるうえで、ワークショップ、学会などの自己研鑽の活動に参加することは役に立っていない。

　　◯ 全くそう思わない

　　◯ そう思わない

　　◯ あまりそう思わない

　　◯ どちらともいえない

　　◯ 少しそう思う

　　◯ そう思う

　　◯ 非常にそう思う

　　◯ そのような活動に参加したことがない

* 37. 私は、私の学生に英語学習がうまくいくと信じさせることができる。

　　◯ 全くそう思わない

　　◯ そう思わない

　　◯ あまりそう思わない

　　◯ どちらともいえない

　　◯ 少しそう思う

　　◯ そう思う

　　◯ 非常にそう思う

* 38. 英語の授業では、教師がはっきりとした文法・語彙指導をしないと、学生が十分に英語を理解できない。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 39. 私の指導方法は、私自身が学校の外国語学習で経験したことが基になっている。

注：この質問での「学校」には、中・高校、予備校、大学（一般教育）、その他語学学校を含みますが、大学の専門教育課程、教員養成やその他職業訓練などは含みません。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 40. 教え方を上達させるために自分自身で勉強することは、役に立っていない。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 41. 私は、自分が受けた語学教育・学習に関する専門教育から、教え方について多くを学んだ。

注：この質問での「専門教育」とは、大学、大学院でのプログラム、企業や学術団体などが提供する研修・職業訓練などを含みます。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

○ そのような専門教育を受けたことがない

* 42. 私は、ワークショップ、学会などの自己研鑽の活動に参加することで、教え方について多くを学んだ。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

○ そのような活動に参加したことがない

* 43. グループワークは、学生の効率的な学びを妨げる。

○ 全くそう思わない

○ そう思わない

○ あまりそう思わない

○ どちらともいえない

○ 少しそう思う

○ そう思う

○ 非常にそう思う

* 44. 指導方法に関して大学からの期待を特に感じない。

- ◯ 全くそう思わない
- ◯ そう思わない
- ◯ あまりそう思わない
- ◯ どちらともいえない
- ◯ 少しそう思う
- ◯ そう思う
- ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 45. 自分が日本人だということは、日本人学生に英語を教えるのに、あまり関係のないことだ。

- ◯ 全くそう思わない
- ◯ そう思わない
- ◯ あまりそう思わない
- ◯ どちらともいえない
- ◯ 少しそう思う
- ◯ そう思う
- ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 46. 職場の他の先生と教え方について、よく話す(した)。

- ◯ 全くそう思わない
- ◯ そう思わない
- ◯ あまりそう思わない
- ◯ どちらともいえない
- ◯ 少しそう思う
- ◯ そう思う
- ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 47. 私は、英語学習にあまり興味がない学生の動機づけを高めることができる。

- ◯ 全くそう思わない
- ◯ そう思わない
- ◯ あまりそう思わない
- ◯ どちらともいえない
- ◯ 少しそう思う
- ◯ そう思う
- ◯ 非常にそう思う

* 48. 次に挙げる大学英語教育（必修英語科目）の目的のうち、ご自身が最も重要だと思われる項目を三つ選んでください。

☐ 学生の英語の知識（文法、語彙など）を養成する。

☐ 学生の英語での実用的なコミュニケーション能力を養成する。

☐ 学生が確立された基準（望ましいとされるTOEICスコアなど）を満たせる英語力を養成する。

☐ 学生が専攻分野で必要となる英語力（アカデミック英語、特定目的の英語）を養成する。

☐ 国際的な場面でリーダーシップを発揮できるための英語力を養成する。

☐ 学生を自律学習者、生涯学習者に養成する。

☐ 学生が多様な社会や異文化を理解し、適応できる能力を養成する。

☐ 学生の英語使用・学習に対する興味を深める。

☐ 学生の論理的・批判的思考力を養成する。

* 49. ご自身の性別をお答えください。

◯ 男性

◯ 女性

◯ 回答したくない

* 50. ご年齢は、次の年齢層のうちどちらですか?

◯ 20代

◯ 30代

◯ 40代

◯ 50代

◯ 60代以上

* 51. これまで、日本の大学（大学、短大）で英語教師として何年勤務されていますか。

◯ －5年

◯ 6－10年

◯ 11ー15年

◯ 16－20年

◯ 21－25年

◯ 26－30年

◯ 31年以上

* 52. これまで何年英語を教えてこられましたか（高等教育機関以外の学校、民間の語学学校等を含みます）。

◯　 – 5年

◯　6 – 10年

◯　11 – 15年

◯　16 – 20年

◯　21 – 25年

◯　26 – 30年

◯　31年以上

Appendix I2: Actual Questionnaire (for NJTEs)

The purpose of the study is to explore how university English teachers teaching compulsory English courses in the general education curriculum perceive their professional roles and to identify factors relating to such perceptions.

The survey is intended for English teachers who teach compulsory English courses (or those who teach both compulsory English courses and content courses using English), but it is not intended for teachers who only teach content courses.
Note: I thank teachers who teach only content courses for visiting this website, but please understand that this survey is meant for those teaching compulsory English.

This questionnaire takes approximately 10-15 minutes to complete (52 items). All the items in this questionnaire are multiple-choice type questions and most questions seek your opinions regarding statements with respect to a 7 point scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." There are no right or wrong answers.

This survey is completely anonymous, and your responses will be kept confidential.
Your participation is voluntary. You may withdraw from the survey at any time if there are items that you feel uncomfortable to answer or do not want to answer. In such case, please leave this website.

I really appreciate you taking the time for this questionnaire.

Hiroshi Moritani
Hiroshima University of Economics

* 1. What is your current employment status?

◯ Full-time

◯ Part-time

* 2. How do you characterize yourself?

◯ English teacher

◯ Researcher

◯ Both of the above

* 3. Items 3 – 8 refer to the most typical classes (compulsory English courses) that you taught in the 2018 academic year.

What kind of students did you mainly teach?

○ Only students majoring in fields where English is emphasized (e.g., English, international business, tourism)

○ Mainly students majoring in fields where English is emphasized, but I also taught students majoring in other fields

○ Only students majoring in other fields

○ Mainly students majoring in other fields, but I also taught students majoring in fields where English is emphasized

* 4. What courses did you mainly teach? (For full-time teachers, please include courses you taught as a part-time position outside of your main workplace, if any.)

○ Only compulsory English courses in the general education curriculum

○ Mainly compulsory English courses in the general education curriculum, but I also taught content courses (such as English, intercultural communication, and tourism)

○ Mainly content courses, but I also taught compulsory English courses

* 5. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements. Choose the option that best represents your opinion.

Most of the students tended to be passive in class.

Please refer to the most typical compulsory English courses that you taught in the 2018 academic year.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 6. Most of the students showed low interest in learning English.

Please refer to the most typical compulsory English courses that you taught in the 2018 academic year.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 7. Most of the students were proactive in class.

Please refer to the most typical compulsory English courses that you taught in the 2018 academic year.

( ) Strongly disagree

( ) Disagree

( ) Slightly disagree

( ) Neither agree nor disagree

( ) Slightly agree

( ) Agree

( ) Strongly agree

* 8. Most of the students were highly motivated to learn English.

Please refer to the most typical compulsory English courses that you taught in the 2018 academic year.

( ) Strongly disagree

( ) Disagree

( ) Slightly disagree

( ) Neither agree nor disagree

( ) Slightly agree

( ) Agree

( ) Strongly agree

* 9. In your context of teaching compulsory English courses at your university(ies), to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

In the classroom, I perceive myself as a language model for students to emulate.

( ) Strongly disagree

( ) Disagree

( ) Slightly disagree

( ) Neither agree nor disagree

( ) Slightly agree

( ) Agree

( ) Strongly agree

* 10. In the classroom, I perceive myself as a careprovider (parental role).

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 11. In the classroom, I perceive myself as a transmitter of knowledge (of English).

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 12. In the classroom, I perceive myself as a cultural representative of my home country.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 13. In the classroom, I perceive myself as a facilitator (guide, supporter).

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 14. In the classroom, I perceive myself as a learning advisor for my students.

- ○ Strongly disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Slightly disagree
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree
- ○ Slightly agree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly agree

* 15. In the classroom, I perceive myself as an English expert.

- ○ Strongly disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Slightly disagree
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree
- ○ Slightly agree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly agree

* 16. In the classroom, I perceive myself as a motivator for my students.

- ○ Strongly disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Slightly disagree
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree
- ○ Slightly agree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly agree

* 17. I perceive myself as a designer (courses/ materials).

- ○ Strongly disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Slightly disagree
- ○ Neither agree nor disagree
- ○ Slightly agree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly agree

* 18. Participating in self-development activities such as workshops and academic conferences deepened my knowledge about foreign language teaching.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

○ I have never participated in such activities

* 19. I feel that my university expects me of certain teaching style (to be strict, to teach entertainingly, to introduce foreign cultures, etc.).

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 20. Education that I received related to language teaching and/or language learning has been useless in my teaching.
* Note: "Education" in this question refers to undergraduate and graduate programs as well as any training or professional development provided by employers or academic associations.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

○ I have never received such education

* 21. Being a native speaker of English (or near-native English speaking foreign teacher) is an important aspect of my role as a university English teacher.

- ( ) Strongly disagree
- ( ) Disagree
- ( ) Slightly disagree
- ( ) Neither agree nor disagree
- ( ) Slightly agree
- ( ) Agree
- ( ) Strongly agree

* 22. I have improved my teaching skills by talking with the other teachers at my workplace(s) about how to teach.

- ( ) Strongly disagree
- ( ) Disagree
- ( ) Slightly disagree
- ( ) Neither agree nor disagree
- ( ) Slightly agree
- ( ) Agree
- ( ) Strongly agree

* 23. In English classes, explicit grammar/ vocabulary instruction in class enhances student learning outcomes.

- ( ) Strongly disagree
- ( ) Disagree
- ( ) Slightly disagree
- ( ) Neither agree nor disagree
- ( ) Slightly agree
- ( ) Agree
- ( ) Strongly agree

24. There are foreign language teachers I had in school who served as models for how to teach.

*Note: "School" in this question includes secondary school, university prep school, university, and other language schools.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 25. I have read a lot of books, journals, articles, etc. about foreign language teaching/ learning in order to become a better teacher.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 26. In English classes, students understand English better when teachers explain grammatical rules explicitly in class.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 27. I can help my students to value English learning.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 28. For effective learning, teachers need to provide a whole class with detailed instructions about the contents and processes of learning.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 29. I have had few opportunities to talk with other teachers at my workplace(s) about how to teach.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 30. I feel a certain expectation from the university regarding my teaching style.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 31. My own foreign language learning experience in school has been useless for me in my teaching.

*Note: "School" in this question includes secondary school, university prep school, university, and other language schools.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 32. I have improved my teaching skills by reading books, journals, articles, etc. about foreign language teaching/ learning.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 33. Students gain more knowledge when teachers provide a lot of explanations of the subject matter.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 34. Education that I received related to language teaching and/or language learning deepened my understanding about foreign language teaching.

* Note: "Education" in this question refers to undergraduate and graduate programs as well as any training or professional development provided by employers or academic associations.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

○ I have never received such education

* 35. It is important to me that I am a native speaker (or near-native English speaker) in my teaching of Japanese students.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 36. Participating in self-development activities such as workshops and academic conferences has been useless in my teaching.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

○ I have never participated in such activities

* 37. I can get my students to believe they can do well in English learning.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 38. In English classes, students do not understand English well if teachers do not provide explicit grammar/ vocabulary instruction in class.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 39. My teaching style is based on what I experienced in learning foreign language(s) in school.

*Note: "School" in this question includes secondary school, university prep school, university, and other language schools, but it does not include teacher education programs or other professional development programs.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 40. Studying on my own about teaching has been useless for me to improve my teaching skills.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 41. I learned a lot about how to teach from education that I received related to language teaching and/or language learning.

* Note: "Education" in this question refers to undergraduate and graduate programs as well as any training or professional development provided by employers or academic associations.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

○ I have never received such education

* 42. I learned a lot about how to teach by participating in self-development activities such as workshops and academic conferences.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

○ I have never participated in such activities

* 43. Group work hinders efficient student learning.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 44. I hardly feel expectations from the university regarding my teaching style.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 45. The fact that I am a native speaker of English (or near-native English speaking foreign teacher) makes no difference to me in my teaching of Japanese students.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 46. I have talked a lot with other teachers at my workplace(s) about how to teach.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 47. I can motivate students who show low interest in learning English.

○ Strongly disagree

○ Disagree

○ Slightly disagree

○ Neither agree nor disagree

○ Slightly agree

○ Agree

○ Strongly agree

* 48. Which of the following purposes of university (compulsory) English education do you think are most important. Please indicate three (3).

☐ to develop students' knowledge of English (grammar, vocabulary, etc.)

☐ to develop students' practical communication skills in English

☐ to develop students' English abilities to meet established standards (e.g., desirable TOEIC score)

☐ to develop students' necessary English skills (English for academic purposes/ English for a specific purposes) for their majors

☐ to develop students' English skills for them to be able to take leadership in international settings.

☐ to develop students to be autonomous and/or lifelong learners

☐ to develop students' ability to understand and adapt to social diversity and different cultures

☐ to develop students' interest in using and learning English

☐ to develop students' logical/ critical thinking skills

* 49. Please identify your gender

○ Male

○ Female

○ Prefer not to say

* 50. Which age group do you belong to?

○ 20's

○ 30's

○ 40's

○ 50's

○ 60's –

* 51. How many years have you worked as an English teacher at the tertiary level in Japan (university, junior college, technical college)?

○ – 5 years

○ 6 – 10 years

○ 11－15 years

○ 16 – 20 years

○ 21 – 25 years

○ 26 – 30 years

○ 31 years –

* 52. How many years have you taught English (including all types of public schools and private language schools in or outside Japan)?

- ( ) – 5 years
- ( ) 6 – 10 years
- ( ) 11 – 15 years
- ( ) 16 – 20 years
- ( ) 21 – 25 years
- ( ) 26 – 30 years
- ( ) 31 years –

Appendix J: ANOVA results

(1) Age (5 groups: ≤30s [*n* = 58], 40s [*n* = 109], 50s [*n* = 118], ≥60s [*n* = 43]).

Roles		df	Mean square	F	p	Effect size (η^2)
Language model (LM)	Between groups	3	2.80	.97	.40	.01
	Within groups	324	2.89			
	Total	327				
English expert (EE)	Between groups	3	1.60	.73	.53	.01
	Within groups	324	2.19			
	Total	327				
Transmitter of knowledge (TK)	Between groups	3	.96	.51	.67	.01
	Within groups	324	1.89			
	Total	327				
Cultural representative (CR)	Between groups	3	2.11	.87	.45	.01
	Within groups	324	2.42			
	Total	327				
Motivator (MO)	Between groups	3	.83	.82	.48	.01
	Within groups	324	1.01			
	Total	327				
Facilitator (FA)	Between groups	3	1.47	2.00	.11	.02
	Within groups	324	.73			
	Total	327				
Learning advisor (LA)	Between groups	3	1.53	1.89	.13	.02
	Within groups	324	.81			
	Total	327				
Designer (DE)	Between groups	3	3.79	1.97	.11	.02
	Within groups	324	1.92			
	Total	327				

(2) Teaching experiences (6 groups: ≤10 years [$n = 43$], 11–15 years [$n = 63$], 16–20 years [$n = 63$], 21–25 years [$n = 65$], 26–30 years [$n = 50$], ≥30 years [$n = 44$]).

Roles		df	Mean square	F	p	Effect size (η^2)
Language model (LM)	Between groups	5	7.68	2.73	.02*	.04
	Within groups	322	2.82			
	Total	327				
English expert (EE)	Between groups	5	3.96	1.83	.11	.03
	Within groups	322	2.16			
	Total	327				
Transmitter of knowledge (TK)	Between groups	5	2.33	1.24	.28	.02
	Within groups	322	1.88			
	Total	327				
Cultural representative (CR)	Between groups	5	1.92	.79	.55	.01
	Within groups	322	2.43			
	Total	327				
Motivator (MO)	Between groups	5	.97	.95	.44	.02
	Within groups	322	1.01			
	Total	327				
Facilitator (FA)	Between groups	5	.26	.35	.88	.02
	Within groups	322	.74			
	Total	327				
Learning advisor (LA)	Between groups	5	.63	.76	.57	.01
	Within groups	322	.82			
	Total	327				
Designer (DE)	Between groups	5	1.58	1.76	.54	.01
	Within groups	322	1.94			
	Total	327				

Note. *= statistically significant difference: $p \leq .05$. The overall ANOVA indicated a significant difference on LM, $F (5, 322) = 2.73$, $p = .02$, $\eta^2 = .04$. *Post hoc* comparisons using Tukey HSD identified the differences two pairs: between ≤ 10 years and 16–20 years groups and between ≤ 10 years and 21–25 years groups.

(3) University experience (6 groups: ≤5 years [*n* = 44], 6–10 years [*n* = 66], 11–15 years [*n* = 78], 16–20 years [*n* = 45], 21–25 years [*n* = 54], ≥26 years– [*n* = 41]).

Roles		df	Mean square	F	p	Effect size (η^2)
Language model (LM)	Between groups	5	3.66	1.28	.27	.02
	Within groups	322	2.87			
	Total	327				
English expert (EE)	Between groups	5	1.83	.83	.52	.01
	Within groups	322	2.19			
	Total	327				
Transmitter of knowledge (TK)	Between groups	5	.78	.41	.84	.01
	Within groups	322	1.90			
	Total	327				
Cultural representative (CR)	Between groups	5	2.82	1.17	.32	.02
	Within groups	322	2.41			
	Total	327				
Motivator (MO)	Between groups	5	1.25	1.24	.28	.02
	Within groups	322	1.01			
	Total	327				
Facilitator (FA)	Between groups	5	.76	1.03	.39	.02
	Within groups	322	.73			
	Total	327				
Learning advisor (LA)	Between groups	5	.64	.78	.56	.02
	Within groups	322	.82			
	Total	327				
Designer (DE)	Between groups	5	1.23	.63	.65	.01
	Within groups	322	1.95			
	Total	327				

(4) Students' majors (4 groups: Students majoring in fields where English is emphasized [n = 49], mainly students majoring in fields where English is emphasized [n = 65], only students majoring in other fields [n = 117], mainly students majoring in other fields [n = 97]).

Roles		df	Mean square	F	p	Effect size (η^2)
Language model (LM)	Between groups	3	4.74	1.64	.18	.02
	Within groups	324	2.87			
	Total	327				
English expert (EE)	Between groups	3	1.54	.70	.55	.01
	Within groups	324	2.19			
	Total	327				
Transmitter of knowledge (TK)	Between groups	3	1.47	.77	.50	.01
	Within groups	324	1.89			
	Total	327				
Cultural representative (CR)	Between groups	3	8.64	3.65	.01*	.03
	Within groups	324	2.36			
	Total	327				
Motivator (MO)	Between groups	3	.86	.84	.46	.01
	Within groups	324	1.01			
	Total	327				
Facilitator (FA)	Between groups	3	.37	.49	.68	.01
	Within groups	324	.74			
	Total	327				
Learning advisor (LA)	Between groups	3	2.72	3.40	.02*	.03
	Within groups	324	.79			
	Total	327				
Designer (DE)	Between groups	3	2.75	1.42	.23	.01
	Within groups	324	1.93			
	Total	327				

Note. * = statistically significant difference: $p \leq .05$. The overall ANOVA indicated significant differences on CR, $F (3, 324)$ = 3.65, p = .01, η^2 = .03 and on LA, $F (3, 324)$ = 3.40, p = .01, η^2 = .03. However, *post hoc* comparisons using Tukey HSD were not able to identify the differences.

(5) Course types (3 groups: Only compulsory English courses in the general education program [$n = 120$], mainly compulsory English courses in the general education program [$n = 150$], mainly content courses [$n = 58$]).

Roles		df	Mean square	F	p	Effect size (η^2)
Language model (LM)	Between groups	2	.37	.12	.88	.00
	Within groups	325	2.90			
	Total	327				
English expert (EE)	Between groups	2	2.12	.96	.38	.01
	Within groups	325	2.19			
	Total	327				
Transmitter of knowledge (TK)	Between groups	2	.46	.24	.78	.00
	Within groups	325	1.89			
	Total	327				
Cultural representative (CR)	Between groups	2	.02	.01	.99	.00
	Within groups	325	2.42			
	Total	327				
Motivator (MO)	Between groups	2	.21	.21	.81	.00
	Within groups	325	1.01			
	Total	327				
Facilitator (FA)	Between groups	2	5.29	7.43	.00	.04
	Within groups	325	.712			
	Total	327				
Learning advisor (LA)	Between groups	2	.21	.26	.79	.00
	Within groups	325	.82			
	Total	327				
Designer (DE)	Between groups	2	10.89	5.74	.00	.03
	Within groups	325	1.88			
	Total	327				

Note. *= statistically significant difference: $p \leq .05$. The overall ANOVA indicated a significant difference on FA, $F (2, 325) = 7.43$, $p = .00$, $\eta^2 = .04$ and on DE, $F (2, 325) = 7.43$, $p = .00$ $\eta^2 = .03$..