

**Exploring the Beliefs of EFL instructors in Japanese Higher Educational Institutions:
How they are Formed and their Influences on their Practices**

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ABSTRACT

Exploring the Beliefs of EFL instructors in Japanese Higher Educational Institutions:
How they are Formed and their Influences on their Practices

This study concerns the teaching “beliefs” that EFL instructors in Japanese higher educational institutions (HEIs) have. It looks into the stated beliefs of six EFL teachers that vary in terms of their academic background, work experience prior to starting their careers as EFL instructors in Japanese HEIs. Unlike many studies looking in certain teaching practices through a combination of classroom observation and interviews, this study employs life story approach in which the participants had the initiative when sharing their stories rather than answering interview questions by the author. The primary purpose of the study is to explore how the teaching beliefs of EFL instructors in Japanese HEIs may have been formed or what they may have been influenced by. Conventional research on teacher beliefs have investigated their beliefs on specific teaching approach or practices; however, this study attempted to explore the variety of beliefs that the EFL teachers have towards their classroom practices and in teaching English in Japanese HEIs. These were explored through the analysis of the description of the classes that the participants shared. In the literature review, “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975) and studies concerning factors that influence teacher beliefs are examined.

Each participant’s stories that were collected through individual interviews are reported in this study. These stories included not only the participant’s stories related to teaching but also their stories on when they were learners and their experiences before and after becoming EFL instructors in Japanese HEIs.

The results did not necessarily confirm the view of teachers being influenced by their own teachers from when they were students in schools but provided some insights into the factors that do influence do influence EFL teachers when forming their beliefs. It did, however, identify further limitations to Lortie’s (1975, 2002) theory of apprenticeship of observation in addition to those presented in the previous studies (Tomlinson, 1999; Conner & Vary, 2017).

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The origin of the choice of my research interest goes back to my early years when I started teaching as an EFL instructor at a university in Japan. With no particular qualification or education in teaching, I remember thinking back and reminding myself of how the instructors taught me when I was a student and tried to follow it. For me, it was very important to get some input from the others during breaks in between classes or at lunchtime.

The university had a system of shared teaching in which one class of students were taught by more than one teacher. Japanese teachers taught them reading and grammar classes, discussion and presentation were taught by the so-called native English-speaking teachers (NEST), and phonetics classes were taught by mainly Japanese teachers. Putting aside the discussion of the rationale of assigning class responsibility depending on the teachers' nationality, one positive aspect of sharing a class of students by multiple teachers is that student information could be shared amongst multiple teachers. Teachers would be able to see if the students are doing well in all the classes or are struggling in only some of the classes or struggling in all of them. One particular problem that was shared with me was that all the students were having problems with a discussion class. According to the students, they found out that their discussion class was different from how the other students were taught. While the students in other classes actually had discussions in groups, my students were taught how to have a discussion. The students sat in the lecture-style classroom layout, with the podium in the front of the classroom and the students sat facing the podium where the teacher stood and gave a lecture as opposed to students sitting in small groups. After hearing this issue being brought up, I shared the information with the programme manager, who took care of the situation.

What surprised me with this incident was that an experienced NEST with a degree from a TESOL programme had been teaching a practical class in a lecture style. I had two preconceptions. Firstly, that NEST would do less of lecture-style teaching for a practical class as opposed to, especially, Japanese teachers who are likely to dominate the classroom and do not let the students have interactions with each other. And secondly, I had assumed that a teacher with a TESOL degree would have studied relevant classroom activities and classroom management that would best develop

students' skills would meet the goals of the course. I believed that as a teacher, one would do what is good for the students and meet the students' needs. It was later in the years that I became more aware of the differences between being an expert and being an experienced teacher that Hattie (2003) describes. He asserts that expert teachers do differ from experienced teachers particularly in the way they "represent their classrooms, the degree of challenges that they present to students, and most critically, in the depth of processing that their students attain." (p.15)

Not having studied in a language-teaching programme or the field of education, I base my teaching on what I remember from how I was taught when I was a student in a Japanese higher education institution. With this experience, I was intrigued by what influences the teachers to decide what is best for them to conduct their classes.

As I continued my career as an EFL teacher in Japanese higher education institutions and worked in different institutions, I became aware of a few things regarding EFL teachers. Firstly, regardless of the positions, they hold in the HEI, and also regardless of their first language, it is not rare to come across teachers who are not trained in teaching English or did not major in TESOL or TEFL for their graduate degrees. Some of them decide to pursue an academic degree in the field of English language teaching, as seen in the interview result of this study, but some teachers pursue their own research that is not necessarily related to TESOL, TEFL or education. Some EFL teachers in Japanese HEIs consider teaching English as a steppingstone to start their careers or to keep themselves connected with HEIs. Nagasawa (2004) writes that teachers that teach the English language in Japanese universities, who teach students that will obtain a teaching license, specialize in English related subjects such as literature or linguistics rather than in TESOL or TEFL that focus on the practical aspect of the teaching.

It is, however, true that teachers, their attitudes, and their classroom practices have influences on the learners' development (e.g. Fives & Gill, 2015; Hattie, 2003; Kagan, 1992b; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). This is not to state that the teachers who have been trained or have a degree related to the profession are higher quality than those who were not, as can be seen in the previously mentioned example. Hattie (2003) refers to a study by Hattie and Jaeger (1998) in distinguishing differences between expert and experienced teachers and classified them into the following five

categories (p.5)

1. can identify essential representations of their subject,
2. can guide learning through
3. classroom interactions,
4. can monitor learning and provide feedback,
5. can attend to affective attributes, and
6. can influence student outcomes

and found that students taught by expert teachers display a higher level of understanding.

Another factor that added to my interest in researching the topic was in module two in the EdD programme. With my background not providing me any insight into various learning theories, I was intrigued when I came across the idea of a constructivist approach in learning. Allen (2008) and Merriam et al. (2007) discuss that the constructivist approach, including problem-solving or learning through individual thoughts, making connections with their previous knowledge, encourages developing critical thinking skills. I was reminded of how some of my English classes that were taught by non-Japanese teachers, seem to have followed this approach consisting of a lot of group work and interactions with classmates, rather than sitting in a lecture-style classroom listening to the teacher. Having been educated mostly in Japan where behaviourist orientation is the mainstream, especially up to secondary schools, this was a new style of learning and more motivating. Those against behaviourist orientation have asserted that the teachers' tendency to plan their classes around measurable outcomes, such as examination results, has led to the decline of the quality of the education (Kohn, 2001). Reflecting on my own experience of having been a student, I was able to make a connection with why I teach my classes the way I do. In addition, engagement with the literature on learning theories made me question why some teachers may choose their teaching practices (e.g. behaviourist or constructivist). I do not intend to debate on which orientation is better than the other. This is because the choice of which orientation to take may have been based on different contexts and I am in no position to gain the full understanding of such situations. Holt-Reynolds (1999) looked into how a pre-service teacher developed her understanding of the role of a teacher. She cautions against student-centred classrooms as it may lead to misinterpretation by

prospective teachers, however, acknowledging that constructivist pedagogies are increasing in teacher education course work (p.22).

1.2 Significance of the Study

The primary focus of this study was to look into what constitutes a good teaching practice, and how people learn them. In addition, it was to look into how the stated beliefs of EFL teachers in Japanese HEIs are expressed in their classroom practices. The context of the study was limited to HEIs in Japan for two reasons. Firstly, because of the possible influence of the difference of cultural context and cultural expectations of the setting that may influence the teachers' beliefs and secondly, I am familiar with the context, which Miles and Huberman (1994) identify to be a benefit in conducting research due to the amount of background information that I am aware of.

Beliefs of EFL teachers in Japanese HEIs should be investigated especially because of the variation in the background and reasons for choosing the profession, unlike those that teach in other formal educational institutions, such as elementary schools and secondary schools. Becoming a teacher in most elementary, secondary education institution in Japan requires completion of a certain number of required courses during undergraduate school, teaching practicum for a certain period of time, and also to pass an examination to acquire the license, while the requirement for teaching at Japanese HEIs is more lenient (see section 1.4.1). Considering the influence that teachers have on the students' learning, a closer look at them is crucial to maintain and improve the quality of education provided.

My inquiry into the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975, 2002) and its influence on the teachers' beliefs and teaching practices uncovers further limitations to this theory. Lortie (1975, 2002) focused on the length of the apprenticeship of observation influencing the teachers' beliefs or their teaching practices; however, this study suggests that the timing of the observation (i.e. observation after entering the profession) may matter more than the length. In addition, the overall inquiry into the beliefs of EFL teachers that initially emerged from my own interest and concerns will contribute to the maintenance of the quality of English teachers as well as English language education in Japanese HEIs, through teachers' professional development.

1.3 Context of the Study

The context of this study was limited to higher education institutions (HEIs) in Japan. As will be explained in the following section, education in Japan is centralised around high-stakes examinations (e.g. university entrance examinations). Hence, there are fewer institutional factors that influence the teachers' beliefs in HEIs as the students no longer have to take examinations.

1.4 English Language Teaching in Japan

This section briefly discusses the English language teaching in Japan. It is roughly grouped into two categories, formal English teaching that takes place in schools and informal English teaching that takes outside the formal school setting, for example, schools run by the private sector.

1.4.1 Formal English Language Teaching

As Shohamy, Donista-Schmidt, and Ferkman (1996) note, in Japan, strong emphasis is placed on high-stakes testing, especially for university entrance examinations. There is intense competition among the students so that they will be admitted to universities (Mori, 2002; Tsuruta, 2013). The exams usually consist of multiple-choice questions that are of unbelievably difficult. Students are demanded to study for many hours to prepare for these tests in order to absorb the knowledge that is expected of them to pass. This is one factor, out of many, that influences the environment in which the learners are passive (McVeigh, 2004, p. 96). Hence, students are used to being taught to the text and to pass the exams. The teaching method is common in secondary education in Japan is what is commonly known as the Grammar Translation Method, in which students read the English textbooks by translating each sentence and following what the teacher says. Perhaps this situation is due to the Confucian culture that favours students to be more adaptive rather than being creative. Following the teacher is rewarded while bad behaviour not following the teacher is punished. Being educated in such an environment, students stay quiet in classrooms, which continues to be a common case in Japanese HEIs.

Gorsuch (1998) describes this grammar-translation method as “translation reading” in which the English classes are taught in Japanese with a focus on translations and techniques for translations of

complex English passages. This method, essentially, employs teacher-centred teaching, students listen to the teacher's lecture, and has been continued in English classrooms in Japan for its necessity in order for the students to succeed in university entrance exams and has been a way for the teachers to both motivate and to encourage students to study English (McVeigh, 2004; Stewart, 2009). Hence, a lot of the students are not familiar with or expect other ways to study English when they enter universities. Though some teachers continue to teach in the grammar-translation method in university, with the belief that it is the best method, students tend to be overwhelmed when English is taught in a way that is not designed to pass a test and emphasis is on developing skills such as those that are useful for communication.

LoCastro (1996) gives the following example of a Japanese ELT classroom:

... an overwhelming proportion of class time is composed of teacher talk... The teacher asks a question, apparently addressing it to a student, but then answers it, makes an assessment or comment on the answer, and then gives an acknowledgment in the form of a common listener response such as "hai, so desu" (yes, that is so) (p.52).

According to Littlewood (1999) students expressing their opinion during class is less valued than being silent in collectivist-oriented academic cultures, such as those in East Asia. Chen's (2000) study revisited Asian, especially East Asian, students' reserved behaviour in ESL/EFL classrooms and confirmed that one of the causes is the differences in the methodology taken by the teachers and that if the students had been taught for a long period of time in an environment where teacher-centred teaching and learning takes place, then they are apt to develop a passive behaviour. A striking example shared in Chen's (2000) study is that in an English reading skills class, students were perplexed when a Western teacher attempted to include discussions, which to them seemed irrelevant in increasing vocabulary and developing reading strategies.

Past studies have shown the influences of Confucian tradition on educational systems, especially in that it has a strong focus on examinations in order to identify people that have high ability leading them to a successful future. Japan has, thus, developed an exam-based education that

filters students before entering universities, and this has created intense competitions amongst the students (Arimoto, 2009; Marginson, 2011; Mori, 2002, Oshio Sano & Suetomi, 2010; Oshio, Sano, Ueno, & Mino, 2010; Bjork, 2011; Tan, 2013; Tsuruta, 2003; Yoshino, 2012). This was particularly the case for the students that desire to enrol into a university that is considered more prestigious as it would help them after graduation.

Combined with the reserved characteristics of the Japanese students in EFL classrooms and the valued silence in the classrooms (Littlewood, 1999), Confucian tradition puts more value on students' adaptiveness rather than their creativeness or having the ability to think critically. This does not encourage Japanese higher education institutions to develop a progressive method for English language teaching (Amano & Poole 2005). Therefore, English exams for university entrance examinations are based on grammar-translation methods.

With the trend of globalisation and internationalisation of higher education, Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) released a guideline that calls for the development of English communication ability and encouraged courses to be taught in English-only by providing funding (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), 2011). This guideline caused a big debate in Japan and a lot of the teachers in junior high schools and senior high schools reacted in a negative way as their focus has always been on teaching to the university entrance exams and they could not think of where they will fit the communication aspect of English into their English curriculum and they believed that English communication skills could only be acquired at the university level.

English language teachers in Japanese higher education institutions have been trying to search for ways to adapt to the international trends in language teaching and the educational culture in the classrooms (Hashimoto, 2009; Kubota, 2011, Tsuruta, 2013). Hence, there is value in looking into the experiences of the EFL teachers in Japanese universities.

On the other spectrum of difficulties of teaching in Japanese universities is the quality of the students. Berwick and Ross (1989) mention that high school students lose motivation after entering university. Due to the competitiveness of entering prestigious universities in Japan, students' main purpose has become entering the university rather than what they do after entering the university. This

situation is similar to what Beaty, Gibbs, and Morgan (2007) describe as collegiate or vocational orientation. They describe that students conduct rote learning only to pass a test as they consider that to be the goal of their learning, thus controlled by extrinsic motivation, which does not last for a long time. In addition, due to the declining young population, it is now possible for some students to enter certain universities (i.e. those that are financially facing difficulties) even though they may not have been able to enrol in higher education due to “academic reasons”. Some universities have had to lower the entry requirements in order to have enough students. Ford (2009b) introduces a phenomenon in which some students entering a university to major in English without having sat English exam at the entrance exam or not having the basic knowledge of grammar.

Students are used to being taught through an instructive approach that is widely utilized within a secondary school, in which teachers act as the provider of knowledge in their pacing and are strongly focused on memorization and preparing the students for high-stakes testing (Porcaro, 2011). Nakayasu (2011) pointed out that such an approach has been problematized in the recent years as it does not provide students enough opportunities for them to utilize the knowledge that they have resulting from the lack of skills such as discussion and critical thinking. The introduction of more output focused methods of teaching has been resisted by both students and teachers primarily due to the entrance exams for secondary education and universities have maintained their grammar-translation focus (Koike & Tanaka, 1995). This suggests that a large number of Japanese students enter university with either limited or no experience of learning English through a communicative approach.

1.4.2 JET Programme

Another factor that encouraged native speakers of English to teach English in Japan was the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) programme. This was a programme that was implemented by the Ministries of Education, Foreign Affairs and Home Affairs that brought in university graduates from Inner Circle countries to public secondary schools in Japan (Kikuchi & Browne, 2009; McConnell, 2000; Sasaki, 2008). Sasaki (2008) writes that one of the reasons for the implementation was to help “increase motivation” for studying English. As a consequence of the implementation, it has brought

about “internationalisation” to more rural areas in Japan. The JET programme homepage states that it:

... aims to promote grass roots internationalisation at the local level by inviting young overseas graduates to assist in international exchange and foreign language education in local governments, boards of education and elementary, junior and senior high schools throughout Japan. It seeks to foster ties between Japanese citizens (mainly youth) and JET participants at the person-to-person level

(Council of Local Authorities for International Relations, 2015).

According to Flynn (2009), the use of the JET programme reduced the concerns and the time for the local Boards of Education in taking care of the young, inexperienced teachers that have very limited Japanese language skills that would make it difficult for the non-Japanese teachers to survive in the area.

Browne and Wada (1998) report on the role of the JETs that acted as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) in secondary school classrooms. They found that majority of the JTEs (Japanese teachers of English) in their study found it useful to team-teach with ALTs, however, the main role of ALTs was to act as “tape recorders” (Geluso, 2013) to read English texts upon the JTEs’ requests. Some other ALTs spent long hours planning and actually delivering lessons (Breckenridge & Erling, 2011), despite the lack of sufficient training.

1.4.3 Informal English Language Teaching

Eikaiwa [private English conversation schools] have provided Japanese people with opportunities to develop their English skills through a communicative language learning approach. As English language education in Japanese schools utilised a grammar-translation method that gave them little practicality, the Eikaiwa industry grew from the 1960s to the 1980s, especially in the major cities (Ike, 1995). As seen in the name, “conversation” school, its focus was on speaking. The classes were designed so that the teachers provide minimum input (Howatt, 1984). The only qualification that was required to teach at these schools were for the teachers to be native speakers of English (Tsuneyoshi, 2013) or to have educational experience in an Inner Circle country (Kachru, 1995), where English is

the first language, and with the completion of the minimum formal education of a Bachelor's degree. Hence, it was a popular way for the native speakers of English to travel to or to consider starting their careers in Japan.

1.4.4 Employment in Japanese HEIs

EFL teachers' positions at Japanese HEIs could be roughly classified into two groups, tenured position that provides lifetime employment and non-tenured position. The non-tenured positions could further be classified into limited-term contracts and part-time employment. Part-time employment is where most teachers start their careers in HEIs. Though completion of a master's degree is one of the current requirements for a job application, teachers with an undergraduate degree were also eligible to apply and are hired. Therefore, teachers in Eikaiwa schools and JET programmes could make the transition quite easily. Positions for limited contracts and tenured positions require more qualifications such as a doctorate degree and publications. According to Rivers (2013), the number of contract years for the non-tenured positions advertised were between three to five years. Previously, there were possibilities of such contracts to be renewed until the Labour Contract Law was amended in 2013. Rivers (2013) notes that the consequence of this could be the teachers' less dedication to the institution that they work in.

1.5 Teachers' Influence on Students' Learning

Hattie's (2003, 2004) study describes that teachers have one of the most remarkable influences on the students' learning outcomes. Barber and Mourshed (2007) also argue that teachers' have the most influential factor in the quality of education. Dornyei (2001) writes that the teacher is a complex and key figure who influences the motivational quality of learning (p.35) and Ushioda (2005) adds that they play a crucial role in mediating the growth of motivation (p.96).

Teachers are expected to adopt different roles depending on the level of the educational institutions and the environment they work in. For example, the main role of teachers in elementary schools would be to motivate the students to study, which may be the case for teachers in Japanese higher educational institutions, due to the current situation of the students being in collegiate

orientation or vocational orientation (see Beaty, Gibbs & Morgan, 2007), and engage in minimum learning as their goal is to pass the test in order to graduate the university.

Despite the fact of influences that teachers have on the students' learning, not a lot of attention has been given to the professional identities of teachers in Japanese higher education institutions, especially compared to the attention given to the technical aspects of teaching and its effects on the learners (Simon-Maeda, 2004).

1.6 Thesis Structure

Chapter two reviews three strands of literature. Firstly, Lortie's (1975) idea of "apprenticeship of observation" is examined, followed by the concept of beliefs illustrating the difficulty of its definition. The chapter also reviews the literature on teacher beliefs and their influence on their classroom practices.

Chapter 3 describes the research design employed in this study. It looks into the use of a life story approach as well as its justification. The chapter also provides methodological information on the participants, data collection, interview procedure. In addition, the chapter provides consideration of why alternative methods were not employed in the study. The chapter finishes with how the interview data was analysed as well as introduce the themes that emerged from the interviews.

Chapter 4 presents the six participant's stories that were collected through interviews. For each participant, their stories are categorised into the following nine parts based on the themes that emerged from the analysis: the participant's profile, their English teaching history and reason for becoming a teacher of English in Japanese HEIs, Classes that they enjoy teaching, teachers that they remember well, description of a good and a bad teacher, their experiences of studying a foreign language, the struggles of studying that they have had as a student, the usefulness of the teaching-related programme completed for those relevant, and the difficulties that they face in teaching in Japanese HEIs.

Chapter 5 presents the findings from the interview and attempts to answer the research questions. Finally, Chapter 6 summarises the study and draws recommendations for

researchers, teachers, TESOL programmes, and for Japanese HEIs that employ EFL teachers.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter 1 introduced how and from where the interest for this research emerged. This chapter will review the following three strands of literature. Firstly, the literature on the apprenticeship of observation is reviewed followed by the concept of beliefs illustrating the difficulty of its definition; followed by the literature on studies on teacher beliefs and the influence of teacher beliefs on their classroom practices. A review of the literature on reflective teaching and quality of education is also included. Reflections are considered as a method for teachers to become aware of the beliefs leading to professional development, which leads to the improvement of the quality of education.

2.1 “Apprenticeship of Observation”

“Apprenticeship of observation” is a term that was coined by Dan Lortie in his book *Schoolteacher*, which was first published in 1975 and reprinted in 2002. As Borg (2006) writes that those outside the teacher education field might not be widely known, teachers would recognize it instantly. It was after I had interviewed the participants for this study, that I came across this term and literature.

On “apprenticeship of observation”, Lortie writes:

One often overlooks the ways general schooling prepares people for work.... Participation in school has a special occupational effect on those who do move to the other side of the desk.

There are ways in which being a student is like serving an apprenticeship in teaching.”(p.61).

And he further describes:

Those who teach have normally had sixteen continuous years of contact with teachers and professors. American young people, in fact, see teachers at work much more than they see any other occupational group; we can estimate that the average student as spent 13,000 hours in direct contact with classroom teachers by the time he graduates from high school. (p.61).

He writes that the socialization into teaching begins when the teachers were students and describe this stage as an “apprenticeship of observation”. Lortie (2002) writes that this study lies in

the tradition and the methods of symbolic interactionism used to provide persuasive documentation of genuine insights into the nature of teaching as an occupation. For his data collection, he conducted intensive interviews, observations and surveys over a period of time. The survey data he used were both first hand, which he collected in 1964 and the secondary sources of data such as the ones from the National Education Association that were published in 1963, 1967 and 1972. And the interviews took place in 1963. Despite his various data collection, rather than referring to the quantitative data, he mostly focused on utilising data collected in the interviews and quotes a lot of excerpts from the participants' responses. Lortie considered teaching career to be a flat career in which teachers stay at the same stage regardless of the years spent and analysed various points regarding the teacher culture. He describes three orientations that prevent teaching from developing: individualism, presentism, conservatism (p.228). For Lortie, individualism was led by the teachers relying on themselves to set their goals depending on their "own capacities and interests" (p. 210). Presentism adds to individualism and he notes that this can be seen in teachers being reluctant in "working together to build a technical culture" (p.211). Of the three orientations, Lortie asserts that conservatism as the biggest hindrance in enabling teachers to change. He noted that there is a strong consistency between the teachers' preferences and conservatism. Their preferences for change was summed up to more or less the same or "preference for doing things as they have been done in the past"(p.209).

Tomlinson (1999) argued that with apprenticeship of observation, the student teachers' practices are based on what they had been presented with; through their observation of what their teachers did in their classrooms. The observation by the students does not include insights into, such as, why the teachers decided to do what they did.

Similarly, Conner and Vary (2017) present three challenges that apprenticeship of observation has on educators, both aspiring and in-service. Firstly, the limited ideas or imagination of what best works for learners that are different from themselves; secondly, the narrower range of the teaching practices due to the limited amount of experiences that they have been exposed to as learners. Finally, not being able to see the behind-the-scenes of what goes into the classroom practices, similar to the point that Tomlinson (1999) brought up.

2.2 Definition of “Belief” in this Study

In reviewing the past research on teacher beliefs, one concern that emerged was that a universal definition of the concept could not be identified or not referred to at all. Clandinin and Connelly (1987) called this lack of consistency in the definition as “simply different words naming the same thing” (p.488). With all the difficulty in separating one concept from another, and in considering what constituted a belief, in a more recent study, Borg (2006) also asserted that knowledge and beliefs are closely interconnected, suggested the use of the term teacher cognition, which includes what teachers know, believe and think (Borg, 2003).

It was also considered that the use of a concept without a universal definition was not relevant for this current study as it included participants with various cultural backgrounds and also those whose first language is not English. This would also cause an issue in the understanding of the concept. For example, if the term, belief, is translated to Japanese, for the interviews with local participants, some of the translations include 信念(Shin-nen), 信条 (Shin-jyo), 所信 (Sho-shin), which do have a similar meaning but not the same, and people have a different understanding of each word. 信念(Shin-nen) is mostly defined as a strong cognition or thoughts that are the basis of a person’s attitude. 信条 (Shin-jyo) is a belief that an individual follows and influences their personality and it originates from a religious term. And finally, 所信 (Sho-shin) is a term that is used to indicate a belief that is presented in front of the others. However, since the difference is subtle and many may not be even aware of the actual meaning of each, the researcher’s choice of the word may not be the same as that of the participant.

For this study, I interpreted the term belief as to how one thinks as “how things should be” (Lindes,1980). This may seem to be distant from the general definition of the term found in dictionaries such as; “A feeling of being certain that something exists or true” (Cambridge English Dictionary) and “An acceptance that something exists or is true, especially one without proof.” (Oxford English Dictionary). My positioning for this study of social constructivism considers that one’s action is not solely limited to what has traditionally been considered true, and what is true, but that truth could be interpreted differently by different people (Gergen & Gergen, 2004). Hence, this

study sees the term teacher beliefs as what teachers thought should be done to teach their students in the best way and in ways which are acceptable in their classrooms.

To avoid any confusion or misinterpretation of the concept by the participants in the study, the use of the word belief or believe was avoided during the interview. Instead, phrases such as “What do you think is [most] important?” have been used in replacement both when interacting with the participants and in this study.

2.2.1 Beliefs of Teachers of English

Studies on teacher beliefs could roughly be categorised into three kinds: studies on pre-service teachers’ beliefs, studies on in-service teachers’ beliefs about certain teaching approaches, and studies that examine the relationship between teacher beliefs and their classroom practices.

2.2.2 Beliefs of Pre-service Teachers or Teachers in Training

Studies on beliefs of pre-service teachers examine the changes in the beliefs over the teacher training programmes that they attend. Peacock (2001) reports on a longitudinal study that looked into the changes in the beliefs of trainee teachers of English as Second Language (ESL) in Hong Kong using Horwitz’s Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). Though he initially hoped that the trainees’ “mistaken” beliefs would change over the course of the three-year training programme, he found that there was little change. This implies that though training programmes may have an influence on teacher beliefs to a certain extent, there are other factors that have a stronger influence. Karavas and Drossou (2008) also conducted research, in Greece, attempting to identify changes in the student teachers’ beliefs before and after their teaching practice experience, which was a part of a teacher training programme at University of Athens. 20 item Likert-type attitude scale, was given to student teachers before and after their teaching practice placements for their study. The result confirmed the past research that there was no significant change in the students’ beliefs towards teaching, and suggest the possibility of the effect of their mentor’s beliefs or practices having “inadvertently contributed to the stability of student-teacher beliefs” (p.274).

2.2.3 Beliefs of In-service Teachers

Farrell and Kun (2007) presented a case study of three primary school English language teachers in Singapore on the impact of a top-down imposed English language policy; the use of a non-standardised form of English, namely Singlish (a local variety of English, Singapore Colloquial English). They state the complexity of beliefs held by teachers as well as the differences in the influences of their beliefs on their actual classroom practices. The results of the study confirmed that the teachers' reaction to language policy needs to be examined carefully in understanding the roles that they have in the enactment of language policy.

Farrell and Bennis's (2013) case study of the beliefs of two teachers that work in the same institution presented a range of beliefs. Both teachers were similar in their backgrounds of being certified in the Cambridge Certificate in English Teaching to Adults (CELTA) and their work experience. The stated difference between them was the amount of experience in teaching. The classes examined for the study did not seem comparable in terms of the content and the contact hours with the students, which may have influenced the teacher-student relationship and the teaching practices. The study does not specify any policy for teaching practices set by the institution; however, the similarity of the participants' background implies a similar source for the formation of their beliefs and lacking in variety. This was not an issue for this particular study, as the purpose of the study was to compare the divergence between the stated beliefs and the classroom practice of the experienced and the novice teachers, and not to explore the different kinds of beliefs that the teachers may have. Their findings suggest that teachers have beliefs that cannot be reflected in their teaching practices for various complicated reasons including that of contextual factors .

Rabbidge (2017) conducted a study based on semi-structured interviews looking into the development of teachers' beliefs on the usage of the Target Language (TL) and the students' first language (L1) in classrooms. He interviewed five South Korean English teachers that had at least five years of English language teaching experience, except for one, and aged between 30-40 years old. The participants had a similar background in cultural heritage and professional experience. He looked into the possible factors of the participants' use of L1 and TL in their

classrooms. The factors he looked into were participants' pre-service teacher training programs, in-service teacher training programs, interaction with their colleagues, and students' ability to operate in the TL. He concluded in his study that the participants in his study's beliefs towards the use of L1 and TL in an EFL classroom was significantly influenced by what they had experienced as learners prior to becoming a teacher.

Farrell & Lim's (2005) case study on a primary school in Singapore focused on two teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching. Their study consisted of interviews, observation, and examination of the students' written work. Through their study, they found some divergence between the content of the interview and the observation, implying that the teachers' beliefs not being the sole influence on their practices. Their findings suggest that teachers have beliefs that cannot be reflected in their teaching practices for various complicated reasons including that of contextual factors .

Hawley-Nagatomo(2012), after her study in 2011 that gave a description of beliefs and practices of a Japanese EFL teacher in a Japanese HEI, explored various beliefs held by three Japanese EFL teachers in Japanese HEIs. She found the influence of teachers' learning histories on their teaching styles as well as the possible difference in professional identity of male university English teachers and female university English teachers in Japanese HEIs, in that for female teachers, becoming an English language teacher was to meet the gendered expectations from the society that have limited women in the careers they can aspire to.

2.3 Influences of Beliefs on Teachers' Practices

The value in the studies of teacher beliefs lies in its influence on their practices. As Pajares (1992) puts it, "Beliefs are the best indicators of the decisions individuals make throughout their lives" (p.307). and also mentioned that "few would argue that the beliefs teachers hold influence their perceptions and judgments, which in turn affect their behaviour in classrooms" (p.307). Many studies (e.g., Allen, 2008, Borg, 2006; Fang, 1996; Kagan, 1990, 1992; Met, 2006; Munby, 1986; Nespor, 1987, Pajares, 1992; Peacock 2001; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Williams, 1997, Woods, 1995) support this. She's study (2000) also confirms the earlier findings that the teachers' instructional practice reflects their belief.

Li and Walsh (2011) through their qualitative study involving interviews and classroom observation of two Chinese secondary school teachers (one novice and one experienced) attempted to investigate the relationship between the teachers' stated beliefs and their actual practice. They found a complex yet strong relationship between what they stated as important and in the classroom practices for both teachers.

Some studies, however, found that teachers' stated beliefs do not necessarily relate to their teaching practices. Li (2013) attempted to investigate the relationship between teacher beliefs and their classroom practice through a single case study of a primary school teacher in China. Her study revealed the inconsistency between the participant's theory of learning English and his teaching practice, but she notes that the relationship between the two is complex. With this study, her purpose was not only to investigate the stated inquiry but also to contribute to the literature, which lacked enough research on non-native English speaker teachers (NNEST) in non-anglophone settings.

Kamiya's (2016) study investigated the relationships between the teachers' stated beliefs and their oral corrective feedback. His study consisted of observation and interviews, and he found that the participants' beliefs to be mostly in accordance with the practice. He concludes that the relationship between stated beliefs and classroom practices are "fluid" (p.218) and that teachers should see and acknowledge the divergence to be an opportunity for professional development and not as a shortcoming.

2.4 Difficulties in Changing Beliefs

Some research has shown that changing beliefs of in-service teachers to be challenging. Phuong-Mai, Terlouw and Pilot et al. (2005) found in their study that Confucius culture heritage countries promote an idea of collectivist cultures in East Asia, which makes it difficult for some teaching approaches to be adopted in classrooms due to the teachers' unwillingness and students not feeling comfortable. Butler (2011) reviews such example of the Asian schools' conflicts to implement communicative language teaching (CLT) methods. CLT methods have advantages and are widely recognized in language classrooms (Kelch, 2011). Butler (2011)

points out three main challenges that inhibit CLT to be implemented in the Asia- Pacific region.

Firstly, the Confucian ideal that regards students to be the passive recipients of the knowledge that is passed down from the teachers in the teacher-centred approach. Secondly, teachers cannot facilitate and monitor students to stay on task in the large class sizes in Asian countries. In addition, teachers do not know how to or are not confident in implementing CLT in their classrooms. And finally, Asian countries are entrance-exam oriented, which pressures the teachers to teach their students to perform well in the exams.

Confucius culture regards the acquisition of knowledge residing mainly in books and education through literature was traditionally considered important. However, Butler (2011) also introduces the criticism of cultural-valued explanation in that there is diversity across the different cultures across Asia and that it is an oversimplified view (McKay, 2002). Butler (2011) concludes that rather than attempting to change the teachers' beliefs, having flexibility in implementing the CLT approach would be the key.

2.5 Professional Development and Japanese HEIs

Research on teachers in Japanese HEIs, such as those by Phan Le Ha (2008, 2013) looks at issues surrounding English in Japan and in Asian Pacific region, however it is still limited. Some universities have implemented new curriculum or established a new faculty in order to attract more students in competition with the other domestic universities. Japanese HEIs need to put more focus on their teachers if they are to maintain the quality of the education they provide, to compete with the universities in the world. It is the teachers that influence the students' understanding of what is taught in their classes (Hattie, 2003). One of the differences between teachers of other subjects and English language teachers is that there is a rapid change in its introduction of teaching approach and the teachers would be expected to move on from one approach to another. The transition may not be easy, as explained in the section above. HEIs are, however, expected to offer an up-to-date education through innovative teaching methods and instructions. Teachers should be in an environment where they can consistently develop their practices. Lunenberg, Dengerink, and Korthagen (2014) review 137 articles on teacher educators and their professions. They considered the quality of the teacher

educator to influence teachers' quality and provide insights on the roles of teacher educators and the work that they do. They conclude that though the number of studies in teacher education is increasing, the studies need to be structured and that a coherent research programme on teacher education needs to be created to inform the design of such programmes. Though the studies reviewed in Lunenberg, Dengerink and Korthagen (2014) took place in many parts of the world and included some in Asian countries, no article was in the context of Japan. The limited amount of literature on the development of the teachers in Japanese HEIs may imply that it is not valued, or that the HEIs do not consider its value.

2.6 Reflection as Professional Development

Numerous authors have asserted the importance of reflections (e.g. Farrell, 2005, 2008; Richards, 2003) and on various methods for reflections (Lee, 2009; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Reflections tend to be considered as a problem-solving method for the classes taught. However, reflections are not simply on the practices as by reflecting, teachers become aware of their own practice in the classroom. According to Brockbank and McGill (2007), it is only after one is aware of their own practice, they can reflect on it (p.77). In addition, referring to the process, they cite Griffin stating the importance of "naming 'it'" in order to have the power of using it (Griffin, as cited in Brockbank & McGill, 2007, p.77). According to Dewey (1933), reflective action involves active, purposeful, and careful consideration of any belief or practice taking into consideration of the reasons that support it as well as the consequences it leads to (Dewey, 1933, as cited in Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p.8). Reflections could take various forms. It could take the form of self-reflection, for example by writing journals (Farrell & Kun, 2008; Lee, 2007) or it could be a dialogue when practiced with their colleagues. Alternatively, it could be expanded to an informally formed community within the HEIs. This "community of practice" (Wenger, 2000) formed on the shared domain of interest could lead to the professional development of those in the community.

2.7 Gaps in the Research

Lortie (1975, 2002) asserted that influence of apprenticeship of observation and that the student teachers not having seen the backstage of the classroom practices and Tomlinson (1999) similarly argued that the student teachers' practices were based on what they had been presented with, this study will further look into the teacher's "beliefs" of their practices.

As Pintarch (1968) pointed out the value of research in the field of teacher beliefs, there has been a growing interest. A lot of research on teacher beliefs take place in the context of pre-service teacher programmes looking at the changes in their beliefs over time, such as Karavas and Dorssou (2010). Pajares (1992) emphasises the importance of understanding the beliefs of preservice teachers as it would provide teacher educators with insight into how to design the curricula and the programme (e.g. Weinstein, 1988, 1989; Woolfolk et al., 2006; Farrell & Kun, 2001).

However, considering the context of EFL teaching in Japanese HEIs, it is important to examine the beliefs of experienced teachers, who may have already established their own beliefs about teaching. In a rather fluid employment situation, teachers could start working in a new environment or a new programme at any time. In addition, because of the lack of requirement specifically in terms of the "qualification", many English teachers in Japanese HEIs have various backgrounds and working experiences other than teaching. There is value in looking into what influences that may have in the EFL classrooms.

Past research on in-service teachers' beliefs looked into specific areas of beliefs, which were chosen on the basis of the researchers' interest. For example, Farrell & Kun's (2008) study examined the teachers' beliefs about English only classroom. The context of the study was under the government imposing an English-only policy. The teachers did not have the choice of choosing the language to teach their classes. This study will explore what EFL teachers in Japanese HEIs believe to be important in an EFL classroom rather than a reactive perspective to a certain aspect of the classroom practice or to the policy set by the institution or the government.

2.8 Conclusion

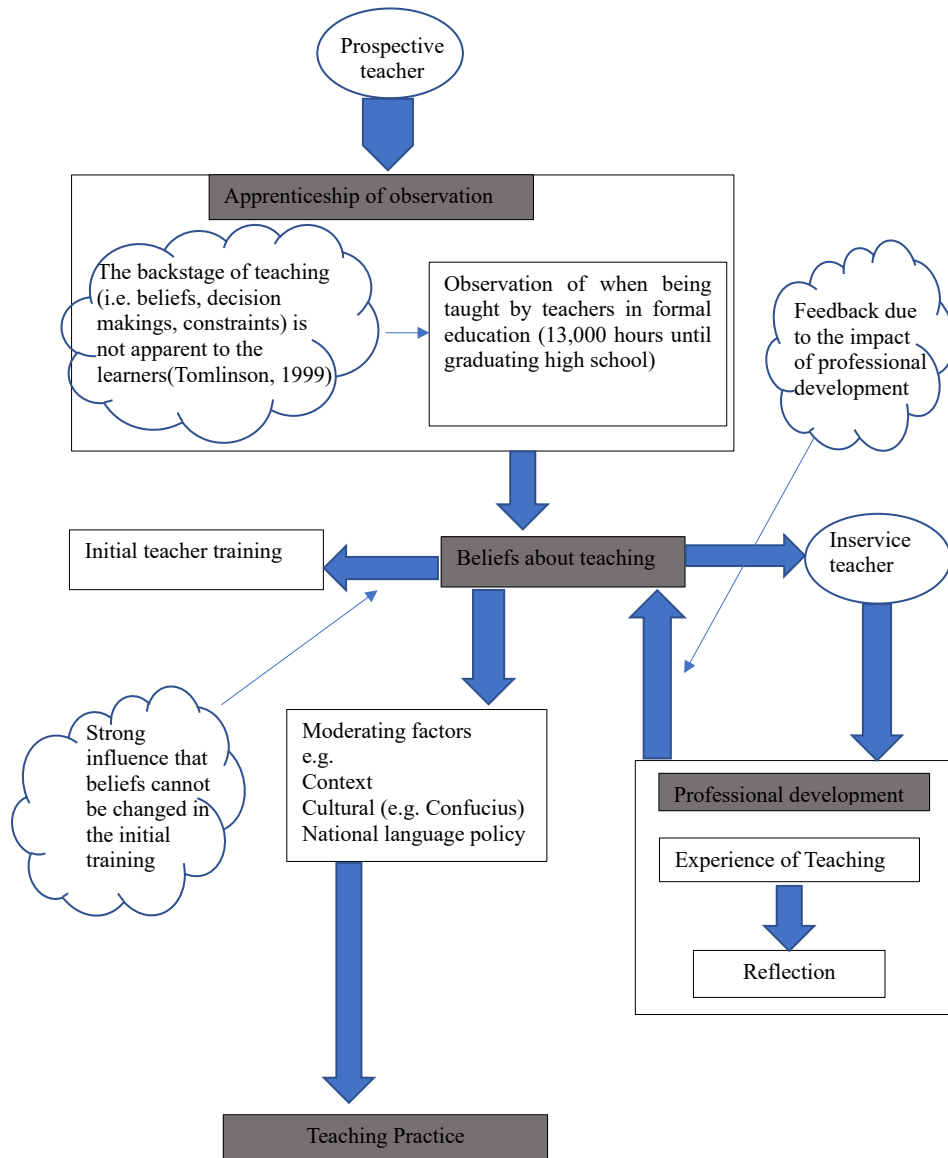
This chapter has looked at the three main concepts for this study; apprenticeship of observation, belief and professional development, both as a programme provided by an institution and the role of reflection as professional development. Lortie's (2002) "apprenticeship of observation" emphasised the amount of the students' direct contact with the teacher and wrote, "an average student has spent 13,000 hours in direct contact with classroom teachers by the time he graduates from high school."(p.61) The definition of the term belief formed the second group of literature to be reviewed. Although many studies, including studies on teacher beliefs, use the term without a definition, and even when some studies defined the term, I could not reach a universal definition. However, the inclusion of this concept was important for this study. Its importance can be represented by studies by Kagan (1992) and She (2000) that showed how teachers' practices are influenced by their beliefs. In addition, for this study, I have considered beliefs to be part of the backstage of the classroom teachings that Tomlinson (1999) asserts. Professional development, the third group of literature reviewed, is another element that can be seen as a part of the backstage of teachings that take place in classrooms. Both what is learned in the process of teachers' professional development and its outcome, the actual teaching practice in the classroom, are important in improving the teachers' quality and English language education in Japanese HEIs. Hattie (2003) has shown in his study that teachers have a significant influence on learning. The quality of professional development is especially important in Japanese HEIs considering that teachers enter the profession without any prior teaching experience (see Section 1.4.4).

The following Diagram 2.1 shows how the key ideas in the literature review can be synthesised. Individuals enter the teaching profession having spent many years as learners in classrooms and observing their teachers, consequently serving an apprenticeship (Lortie, 1975, 2002). This is indicated in the diagram by the arrow from 'Prospective teacher' to 'Apprenticeship of observation'. Though they are not aware of the backstage of the teaching, such as why the teacher decided on certain classroom practices (Tomlinson, 1999), prospective teachers form beliefs of how

teaching should be, based on what they see. The arrow from 'Beliefs about teaching' points to several directions but lead to 'Moderating factors' before reaching 'Teaching practice'. However, the arrow pointing to 'Initial teacher training' stops there and does not go any further. This indicates that the influence of such beliefs are so strong that student teachers' beliefs did not change before and after the teaching training programme, such example suggested by Karavas and Dorossou (2008). The arrow pointing from 'Beliefs about teaching' to 'Inservice teacher' onto 'Professional development' and then back to 'Beliefs about teaching' shows that 'Professional development', specifically 'Reflections' after the 'Inservice teacher's' 'Experience of teaching' have an impact on the 'Beliefs about teaching'. Farrell (2005; 208) has emphasised the importance of reflection as a method of professional development as it has an impact on inservice teachers' view about how teaching should be.

Some studies have shown that the teachers' beliefs are reflected in their classroom practices (e.g. Pajares, 1992; She, 2000), other studies have shown that teachers have to adapt their teaching due to a complexity of other influence factors including those related to culture, context and Factors that are beyond their control such as the national language (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Li, 2013). However, the mechanisms of how the teachers' beliefs might change, and whether their practice is also changed overtime by the extraneous factors is not clear from the literature. My study attempts to contribute to provide an insight on whether such mechanisms are operating.

Diagram 2.1 Synthesis of the key ideas (Apprenticeship of observation, beliefs about teaching, and Professional development)



Chapter 3: Research Design

3.1 Research Questions

Following the reading of literature, the inquiry that emerged from my interest, considering the contribution to the maintenance of the quality of English education in Japanese HEIs, through teachers' professional development, my study addressed the following questions:

1. How have in-service teacher's beliefs been formed?
2. How do the teachers stated beliefs present themselves in their stated classroom practices?

3.2 Life Story and Life History Approach

According to Roberts (2002), terms such as “personal narrative, biography, life story, life history” are often used interchangeably and Denzin (1989) writes that there are many “biographical methods or many ways of writing about life” (p.7). Roberts (2002) and Denzin (1989) simplify the difference between life story and life history as the life story being that narrated by the teller and is the result of an interactive relationship [between the teller and the researcher] and the life history is based on a collection of a written account requested by the researcher, and work later interpreted and presented by the researcher.

3.3 Life Story Approach

This study employs a life story approach, a model of narrative inquiry. According to Atkinson (2002), Murray (1938, 1955) is considered to have been one of the earliest to study the lives of individuals with the use of narratives, in which he studied personality development. From then onwards, use of life stories has been accepted in many academic areas including psychology that value the use of personal narratives in understanding development and personality (McAdams, 1993), in sociology to understand and define group interactions (Linde, 1993) as well as in education as a new method to introducing knowledge and in educating teachers (Noddings, 1997).

Denzin (1989) describes that this methodology includes: “life, self, experience epiphany, case, autobiography, ethnography, autoethnography, biography, ethnography story, discourse, narrative,

narrator, fiction, history, personal history, oral history, case history, case study, writing presence, difference, life history, life story, and personal experience story” (1989, p.27).

3.3.1 Narrative Inquiry

Many narrative researchers have asserted that narrative inquiry is a ‘tool’ that provides ways to look into issues that cannot be otherwise looked into (Bruner, 1988; Clandin & Connelly, 2000). Compared to other forms of qualitative research, narrative research has a custom of devoting much more space to fewer individuals and aims to look into a deeper understanding of them (Chase, 2008). Therefore, the findings of the studies cannot be generalised to a bigger population. To this point, Bruner (1987) asserts that though good stories, narratives are different from well-formed arguments, they can both be convincing in different ways. Stories convince of their “lifelikeness” (p.11), which is more appealing to the criteria of verisimilitude while arguments convince of its truth through empirical truth (Bruner, 2004). Narratives are deeply rooted in people’s everyday life, and Riessman (1993) considers telling stories about past events is a “universal human activity” (p.3), and Polkinghorne (1988) asserts narratives as “the primary form by which human experience is made meaningful” (p.1).

One of the strengths of narratives is to be able to have the participants share their personal stories; their lived experiences. Stories are used so that phenomena can be understood from the perspectives of those that actually experienced them (Lieblich et al., 1998, p.7). Doing this, however, requires the researchers to develop a high level of trust with the participants. Riessman (2008) highlights the following points regarding a narrative study:

The story being told to particular people: it might have taken a different form if someone else were the listener. In this case, I am not simply representing the experience on the beach from some neutral place, but in a specific conversation with a mentor or friend and his partner, who mean something to me. In telling about an experience, I am also creating a self--how I want to be known by them (p.11).

I was not aware whether I was trying to “create a self” either before or while conducting interviews.

However, at one of the interviews I conducted, one of my participants, John, had a long silence after I asked him a question, and when he broke the silence he said:

“Wow, you are good. I can never wait this long for my participant to give an answer to my question. I would probably break the silence by asking if my question wasn’t clear or adding another question.”

The silence actually did not bother me at all, or perhaps I was just following what I had decided before conducting interviews; to consider myself as a listener and to limit myself to asking questions (see section 3.6). Atkinson (2002) also emphasises the importance of life story to be told in the form, shape, and style that is most comfortable to the person telling it. However, I may have wanted my participants to see me as a patient, good listener, as Atkinson (2002) notes the type or quality of the relationship between interviewer and interviewee may influence the data collected; stories that would be shared for my study.

3.3.2 Definition of a Story

Bruner (1987) writes that by telling stories, we organize, interpret, and create meaning from our own experiences. Gibbs (2007) suggests that stories bring information to life and that because stories are evidence-based, they are effective in enabling the researchers to speculate causality, as well as to consider how the participant chose the words that they use. Stories help us make sense of the world we live in. Fisher (1987) asserts that meaningful communication is often in the form of storytelling, and we experience and see life as a series of narratives. Atkinson (2002) emphasises the importance of stories being told in that they bring meaning to the lives of each individual through the stories. He discusses that there are four functions to a life story: incremental guidance to an entire life course, validation and a clarification of the relationships in an individual life, recognition of the feelings that surround each individual, and the aid in the individual’s understanding of the society and the world that they belong to. Bruner (1987) points out that though the act of telling stories is common across different cultures, there are differences in how the stories are being told. Hence, this brings up the

question of the accurateness and the relationship between the life that was actually lived and the life that was told as a story. Bruner (1984) defines life as follows:

A life lived is what actually happens. A life experienced consists of the images, feelings, sentiments, desires, thoughts, and meanings known to the person whose life it is... A life as told, a life history, is a narrative, influenced by the cultural conventions of telling, by the audience and by the social context.

It is, however, only through the stories being told that we know the life of others. In this regard, Atkinson (2002) notes that a life story is “the story a person chooses to tell about the life he or she has lived, told as completely and honestly as possible, what the person remembers of it and what he or she wants others to know of it” (p.125) and the importance lies in whether the story was told in the form, shape, and style that is most comfortable to the person telling it.

McAdams (2009) includes coherence, openness, and credibility as standards of good life story form. Coherence refers to how much a given story makes sense on its own terms and openness, which are a difficult criterion to judge in life narrative. This is because there is always the danger that too much openness reflects a lack of commitment (p.423).

3.3.3 Justification for using Life Story Approach

I chose the life story approach as the most suitable for my study on how teachers’ beliefs on EFL classroom practices may have been formed and how they are present in their stated beliefs. I have defined what belief refers to in this study (section 2.2), but it is a concept that each individual defines in their own way and have different meaning depending on the experiences that they have. Goodson (1981) writes, “in understanding something so intensely personal as teaching, it is critical we know about the person the teacher is.” (p.69) The Life story approach would let me look deeply into the experiences that the participants share as well as beyond what they share.

In addition, Goodson & Sikes (2001) infer that life story research appeals to “to the incurably curious who are interested in, and fascinated by, the minutiae of others’ lives, and particularly in how people make sense of their experiences and of the world around them.” (p.20) Considering the nature of how my research interest emerged, this was the most appropriate approach.

Rokeah (1968) cautioned that it requires making inferences about individuals' underlying states to understand beliefs. These inferences include evidence such as behaviour related to the belief in question. Pajare (1992) puts it as "inferences fraught with difficulty" (p.314), as individuals may be unable to or be unwilling to accurately represent their beliefs. He also writes that it is for this reason that beliefs "cannot be directly observed or measured by must be inferred from what people say, intend, and do"(p.314).

The concepts of life story model of identity draw on the theories of McAdams (2009) which centre around the view that constructs narratives as an interpretive story as narratives develop an understanding of the speakers themselves. This process includes reconstructing one's experiences from the past, through an understanding of the current (present) experience. These will lead to anticipations of their future.

Considering how I became interested in what a teacher thinks as important in an EFL classroom in Japanese HEIs and how they put those into their practice through a senior colleague's classroom practices (see section 1.1), I decided that this approach will serve best for my study. I was interested in other people's lives and how they "make sense of their experiences and the world around them" (Goodson & Sikes, 2001).

3.4 My Positioning in the Study

My approach for this study was qualitative within the social constructivist paradigm. There was no reality, speaking ontologically, that could be generated by itself as realities differ even within the same person depending on various factors such as time. I attempted to represent and explain the complex experiences of the participant through my lenses (Cresswell, 2007; Schwandt, 1994). As explained in section 1.1, I work in a similar context, that is, in HEIs in Japan, as the participants in the study. With no academic background in education or teaching, most of my classroom practices were based on my own memory of how I was taught as a student ("apprenticeship of observation" explained in section 2.1). Later in my teaching career, I completed a certificate programme in English language teaching to substantiate my own career. Through this experience, not only was I able to confirm what I had been doing in my classroom was not a mistake, but I was also able to learn some

methods for teaching. Thus, my teaching after attending the programme, was significantly different, and I was more confident in my classrooms. This was why I was surprised when I encountered the situation, in which the classroom practices of an experienced teacher with a master's degree in TESOL did not seem to meet the goals of the course, and not being able to maintain a comfortable or satisfactory learning atmosphere for the students (described in section 1.1).

I hoped to gain an understanding of what factors influence teachers' beliefs and how they are present in their classroom practices. I attempted to interpret the participants' narratives by listening attentively to what is being said and beyond. Epistemologically, I see that what is true and real is the result of the participant and the researcher's co-construction and shared interpretation, rather than a result earned through experimental methodologies. The truth was earned through processes such as clarification of responses during the interview, the participants confirming the content of the interview, and additional questions in confirming the interview summary.

Goodson & Sikes (2001) assert that anyone using the life story approach would be subscribing to the epistemological views that "the social world is an interpreted world" (Altheide & Johnson, 1994, p.489). Therefore, they are able to accept the possibilities that different interpreters with different life experiences producing different interpretations resulting in the description of "different realities" (Goodson & Sikes, 2001, p.39). They also add that life story researchers decide what is considered as data as they confide that "we attempt to make sense of our lives and give the meaning." (p.40). This sense-making is made through the construction, telling, and retelling of personal stories.

3.5 Considering Alternative Methods for Data Collection

3.5.1 Use of Biographies

Initially, when considering the most appropriate way to collect data for this study, I thought about having the participants write biographies about their lives as teachers. Merrill (2002) writes that biographies enable the researchers to reveal the relationship between the private and the public worlds that individuals experience. This seemed ideal as I am interested in looking at both the participants' private and public lives, and the participants would be able to write their biography when they have time. However, several possible factors made me decide not to take this approach. Firstly, one positive

reason for having the participants to write a biography is that they would be using the time that is most convenient for them, which on the other side of the coin meant this would be relying on the participants to complete the biography by the date I set. Being in the same profession, I am aware of the unexpected incidents that occur from time to time on top of the amount of workload during the teaching period. Therefore, there is always a risk of not being able to have data in time. In addition, considering my research interest, the participants were required to look back on their life when they were a student. At the time of thinking about the data collection, I needed to take into consideration the age of the participants, and the difficulty they may have in trying to remember, by themselves alone, what may have happened over a considerable number of years had they had to write it down on a computer or on a paper. After considering these two points, interviews seemed to be a more rational and trustworthy method for collecting data. Firstly, the participants would be choosing the time that is convenient for them and would spend a maximum of two hours for the interview. Secondly, in a life story approach interview, the interviewer asks only a limited number of questions in order to enable the participants to share their stories comfortably with limited interruption. The interviewer only intervenes in order to prompt the participants and/or for clarification. With the role of the interviewer as “meaning-maker” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the participant and the researcher would be able to co-construct the participants’ story through the process of making meaning.

3.5.2 Use of Observation and its Possible Issues

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011) mention the importance of using multiple methods in order to avoid bias or over-reliance on one method, essentially leading to increasing the credibility and validity of the research data. Li and Walsh (2011) share the strength of using interviews and classroom observation. Their research attempted to investigate the relationship between the participants’ stated teacher beliefs and their interaction with the students in the classroom. Their data consisted of interviews with the students and classroom observation. They insist that their success in the research was due to the combination of the data they had collected and asserted that teacher beliefs cannot be “fully understood when considered in isolation by using, for example, interview or questionnaire data alone” (p.53).

Conducting observations may have provided a more direct piece of information and actual evidence of the participants' beliefs in action. However, teachers' stated beliefs may not be the same as what can be seen in the actual classrooms or may not be present due to various circumstances. I have chosen not to include observation as my method for the following reasons. Firstly, the possibility of changing the dynamics in the classrooms. With an unnatural environment, the students may feel uncomfortable and behave in a different way, which may lead to the participants (teachers) to act differently.

Secondly, the participant may do something different from their usual classes in order to follow what they had shared with me in the interview. It is natural for teachers to want to be seen as 'good' teachers. Hence, even if the participants were told in advance that they will not be judged on their practices in the classroom, they may plan something different and act in a different way, especially as I am in the same profession.

Finally, the life story approach emphasises the co-construction of meaning between the participant and the researcher, and that is where the 'reality' lies. The purpose of this study is not to provide a generalisation of certain teachers' beliefs in Japanese HEIs. Not all studies need to be generalisable, as there are some events and individuals that are unique (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). In addition, Basturkmen's (2012) review of research indicates that the gap between the teachers' stated belief and their teaching practices was smaller for the more experienced teachers. Therefore, though this study aimed to have participants with a range of teaching experience, novice teachers were not considered.

Likewise, I did not interview the students in the participants' classes to confirm whether what the participant had shared in the interview is true or not. Contacting the students would be through the participant, and this may also lead to participants' unnatural or unusual behaviours during their classes. In addition, the students may not share what they really think assuming that I might pass it on to their teachers [participants].

3.6 Preliminary Study

All the interviews were anticipated to be in English as all the participants were expected to

have the ability to converse in English, and it would cause less issue in translating the interview questions and the response. However, considering the possibility of the local Japanese participants wishing to have the interview conducted in Japanese rather than in English, I felt the need to practice the interview questions in Japanese as they were all prepared in English. In addition, I had never done a research interview in Japanese. Hence, I decided to conduct a preliminary study with one of my former colleagues, Anna, who has some experience of teaching English in Japanese higher education institutions. The purpose of the preliminary study was two-fold, first, to see whether the translated questions would function smoothly, and second, to see if the questions would draw out responses that would be relevant for the purpose of the study. (See Appendix 1 for the summary of the interview for the preliminary study)

The interviews were planned in a way so that the participants would be able to share their story as it comes to their mind, rather than a short question and answer sessions. Therefore, a minimum number of questions were prepared based on my assumption of what kind of stories might be shared. I considered my role to be the listener of stories told by the participants, and my questions would mostly be something like prompts, asking for clarification, and asking for elaboration. However, according to the result of the preliminary study, the order of the interview questions was changed, and some questions needed not to be asked, as the participants automatically provided responses. In addition, the study revealed that some wordings to be ambiguous for the participants to respond to, therefore some were modified so that it would be less ambiguous and not make them confused. Some, however, were left unchanged leaving it for the participants to decide its interpretations as it was also possible for the researcher to ask additional questions if the participant interpreted the question in an unexpected way.

The preliminary study sheds light on an interesting aspect. Anna, at the end of the interview, shared that it was the first time for her to look back on her teaching life and how she became interested in English. Neither had she reflected on her own classroom practices. From the listener's perspective, the researcher could trace some similarities between the way Anna taught and attended her students and the way she described the teachers she had as a student. It was when the researcher pointed that out to Anna that she mentioned

“I had never thought about that. I was doing what students might appreciate, but now that I think about it, I may have been doing what I appreciated from my teachers’ practices.”

Considering the likelihood of a similar situation coming up with the participants in the study, the researcher made a note to ask the participants, after the interview, what may have influenced their teaching practices in the classroom and their thoughts about teaching.

3.7 Participants

3.7.1. Selecting the Participants

All the participants in this study teach English at a higher education institution based in various parts of Japan. Some of them have tenured positions, and others were either hired on a limited number of contract years while some others were part-time university instructors at more than one educational institution.

As soon as I started thinking about this study, I knew that I would like to have a variety of participants in my study. Variety, in terms of their nationality, first language, and educational background including whether they had been involved in an education or teaching related programme. I also limited the participants to be teaching in Japan-based higher education institutions. Miles and Huberman (1994) mention that the researcher’s background knowledge is beneficial in seeing and deciphering details and the complexities that the context holds. In addition, researchers would be able to make decisions on what kind of questions to ask and to what kind of incidents they should attend more closely to. As I am familiar with teaching English in higher education institutions in Japan, I decided that I would like my participants to be in a similar circumstance so that I would better understand their contexts. In addition, I was aware that in Japan, teachers in higher education institutions would have more flexibility in managing their classrooms and planning their lessons. This is because the Ministry of Education, cultural sports, and science and technology (MEXT) sets strict guidelines for what to teach and how to teach in their earlier education institutions, such as

elementary, junior, and senior high schools. (see for example MEXT, 2008 “Chuugakkou Gakushuu Shidou Youryou Kaisetsu- Gaikokugohen” Explanation on how foreign language should be taught in junior high schools”).

3.7.2 Selection Criteria

The selecting criteria I established for the selection of the participants are as follows:

- EFL teachers in higher education institution in Japan, and
- EFL teachers that have an educational background in TEFL/TESOL, or
- EFL teachers that do not have an educational background in TEFL/TESOL, or
- EFL teachers that are local (Japanese) and have been educated in Japan, or
- EFL teachers that are local (Japanese) and have been educated outside Japan, or
- EFL teachers that are non-local (non-Japanese) and have been educated in the country of their nationality, or
- EFL teachers that are non-local (non-Japanese) and have been educated (partially) in the country, not of their nationality, or
- EFL teachers that are experienced in their career

I aimed to have six to seven participants considering that some may drop out during the data collecting process. Upon selecting the participants, it was partially purposive, since having a variety of backgrounds is relevant for the purpose of the study. As the study focused on a specific context (i.e. Japanese HEIs), it required the participants to have the appropriate knowledge and experience (Usher, 1998). Additional points to consider for the selection included gender balance, their language background (native speaker or non-native speaker of English), and educational background, especially whether they have a background of completing TESOL/TEFL courses. Having a previously established relationship with the participants may enable a rapid establishment of trusting relationship (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007); however, my own colleagues, current or former, were not selected to be the participants for the study considering the possible influences it may have on the content of the interview. In addition, in order to maintain a similar degree of intimacy with all the participants,

and to maintain the validity of data, I avoided selecting my friends or acquaintances. Gruet (1991) notes the risk of telling a story to a friend saying that “the better the friend, the riskier the business” (p.69). Goodson (2001) explains the significant power that the researchers could gain when the research requires information that is personal.

3.7.3 Participants in the Study

The participants were the following six persons: Tom, Peter, Michael, Mary, John, Hana. The interview results in this study are organised according to the order of the interview that took place. The participants were introduced by colleagues or former colleagues, and therefore I did not know any of my participants before the interview. First, I provided a brief explanation of my study and the selection criteria (see section 3.7.2) to my colleagues and former colleagues. And then I asked them to pass on my contact information to potential participants. When I asked them, I made sure that participation in my study is completely voluntary and that the participants should be fully exercising their free will. By doing this, I presumed that the participants contacted me on a completely voluntary basis, but I was not in a position to guarantee that that was the case with every participant. After receiving their interest to participate in my study, I sent them the Participant Information Sheet (PIS) (Appendix 2) and Participant consent form (PCF) (Appendix 3). Upon their confirmation, I replied to them that I would bring a hardcopy of PIS and PCF for them to sign and sent them a pre-interview questionnaire (Appendix 4) for them to complete and to send back to me before the interview. Table 3 presents the background of the six participants. Although the participants took part in the study on a voluntary basis, I expressed my gratitude for their participation by paying for their transportation, food, and drinks at the interviews.

Table 3.1 Participants' Backgrounds

Participant	Gender	Years teaching in Japanese HEI (at the time of interview)	Graduate degree	Employment status
Tom	Male	11 years	MLitt. International Security Studies MA Applied Linguistics & TESOL	Tenured
Peter	Male	31 years	MA TESOL	Part-time
Michael	Male	10 years	MA TESOL	Semi-tenured
Mary	Female	8 years	MA Sociolinguistics and language education	Semi-tenured
John	Male	7 years	MA Education / MA Comparative Education	Adjunct [full-time non-tenured]
Hana	Female	14 years	MA Humanities / MA Intercultural Communication	Adjunct [full-time non-tenured]

3.7.4 Participant Withdrawal from the Study

During the process of confirmation of the interview summary, one participant decided to withdraw from the study. Although they participated in the study understanding the content of the study after reading the explanation of the study and signed the Consent Form to participate in the study, they thought that they would be identified with the information that will be included in the study, even with the use of pseudonyms.

3.8 Data Collection Method

3.8.1 Pre-interview Questionnaire

The pre-interview questionnaire (See Appendix 4) consisted of both multiple-choice questions and open-ended questions. The questionnaire included questions asking the participants' nationality, age group, the experience of teaching in Japanese HEIs and other countries, educational background, and current employment situation. It was designed so that I would be able to gain some general information about the participant and so that the participants will be able to set their minds and be prepared for the interview.

3.8.2 Semi-structured Interviews

All the interviews were originally intended to be conducted in English, as all the participants

are capable of using the language. This would have been convenient to minimise the loss of meaning or misinterpretation due to the translation process. Also, it would have been efficient in not having to translate the interview questions or to translate the transcription and summaries of the interview results. There would still be a negotiation of meanings even if the same language was used due to differences in interpretation of words and concepts. One participant, however, preferred and chose to have the entire interview in Japanese. This was not an issue, as the interview questions were already translated into Japanese and practiced in Japanese in the preliminary study.

The interview, regardless of the language that the participants chose to have the interview in, included some words in Japanese as the participants had always been using the Japanese term rather than the English one, and could not really come up with a relevant translation. Equally, the interview that was conducted in Japanese included some words in English as the participant was more familiar with the term or concept in English. Table 2 presents information regarding the dates, length, and location of the interview.

Due to the purpose of the research, the participants were asked to share their memories from when they were students, which may include unhappy ones, and they were warned about such situations in the consent form that they had signed in prior to the interview. I decided that even those unhappy experiences and memories would play an important role in the formation of teacher beliefs and/or the participants themselves as teachers. The PIS included a warning that the participants may be reminded of the unhappy memories in the past during the interview. The participants had two chances to read the PIS prior to the interview, first when I had sent them the sheet via e-mail upon their agreement to participate in the interview and second when we actually met for the interview.

Table 3.2. Interview Schedule

Participant	Date	Length	Location
Tom	1 November, 2017	60 mins	Participant's office
Peter	3 November, 2017	60 mins	A Café (of the participant's choice)
Michael	21 November, 2017	70 mins	Participant's office
Mary	21 November, 2017	65 mins	A Café (of the participant's choice)
Hana	8 February, 2018	80 mins	Participant's office
John	10 February, 2018	60 mins	A Café (of the participant's choice)

After each interview, I wrote down some notes and comments on the interview session. This made me aware of some difficulties in conducting interview research. For example, some participants interpreted my questions in an unexpected way producing a response that I could not predict. Even in those cases, I held back and waited until the participants finished the story, lest it should impede the participants' train of thoughts and the story that they were sharing, or give any influence on how the participants may respond. My notes enabled me to be prepared for the possibility of participants' misinterpretation of the questions I ask them. In addition, some interview questions required the participants to share their judgments, and I also kept in mind not to express my own criteria even if it may differ from that of the participants'. My intervention during the interview was solely limited to clarifying the participants' responses that made it difficult for me to ask further questions. One participant, John, commented during the interview.

You are good at listening and waiting for answers or response. I can never do that, I tend to urge prompt response when I'm conducting interview research.

Hence, the responses in the interview emerged from the participants with very little interference from me.

3.8.2.a Interview Questions

The questions I asked in the interviews were minimal and mostly acted as prompts for the participants to share their stories (See Appendix 5 for questions prepared for the interview). The questions prepared for all the participants were aimed to let them share their stories on the following points. As previously noted, new questions were added depending on the participants' story. Some questions were omitted if the participant had already shared a response to the question.

1. Stories on how the participants became an English teacher in Japanese higher education
2. Details on one of the classes that the participant currently teaches or have taught in the past
3. Description of a teacher that the participant remembers well from when they were a student

4. Experiences of studying a foreign language
5. Experiences of struggles the participants may have had when they were a student
6. Experiences of a teaching-related programme in their education (when applicable)
7. The difficulty of working in Japanese HEIs

3.8.2.b Setting the Context for the Interview

Jovchelovitch and Bauer (2000) point out that the context of the interview being unrealistic and that the quality of the narration provided by the participant depends on how the interview begins. In order to minimize this unrealistic and unnatural context, I attempted to start the interview with a small conversation on classes that the participant taught that day or the day before. The participants would also ask me about my work and my classes and gradually made a transition to the actual interview in order to avoid the unnatural, sudden start of the participants' storytelling. This informal conversation was not audio-recorded, and the recording started with my asking: "Could I start the recording now?"

At the beginning of the interview, an outline of the research purpose was explained. After confirming that the participants did not have any questions, they were then given time to skim the Consent Form that had already been sent to them by e-mail, when they agreed to participate in the study and to sign it. They were ensured that pseudonyms would be used to protect their identity and that whatever information they share in the interview will not be disclosed to any other party. I had not, however, thought about what pseudonym to use for each participant.

3.8.2.c The First Interview

The interview typically began with a general question regarding the participants' work situation at the time of the interview and moved on to the explanation of the study, I then asked the participants to read and sign the consent form for participation in the study. I also clarified some points in the pre-interview questionnaire that the participant answered and sent it back to me prior to the interview (see section 3.8.1). Throughout the interview, I would refer to the pre-interview questionnaire, as I followed the story shared by the participant. It occasionally helped me ask questions after the participant had finished sharing certain segments of the story, and this helped me obtain the necessary

information that was not clear. As I refrained from interrupting the participants while they were talking, and they were talking from their memory, their stories were not always in chronological order. Sometimes their stories moved back and forth, in the timeline, between the few questions that I asked.

3.8.2.d Following up the First Interview

Mainly due to the physical distance and time restriction between the researcher and the participants, the follow-ups of the interview took the form of Skype interaction or e-mails. Prior to the follow-ups, I transcribed the interview and wrote up a summary. The participants were given the opportunity to amend or delete what was in there, and I listed up points that needed to be clarified, explained in more detail, and to confirm the accuracy of what was shared in the first interview.

3.9 Preparing for Data Analysis

3.9.1 Transcribing the Interviews

The recording gathered in the interviews were transcribed for analysis. I played the interview recordings into MS Word files. Both the questions I asked, and the participants' responses were transcribed. Hall and Rist (1999) point out that one of the caveats of interview studies is that it may involve "selective recall, self-delusion, perceptual distortions, memory loss from the respondent, and subjectivity in the researcher's recording and interpreting of the data" (p.297-298). To minimise this disadvantage, the interviews were recorded with the permission of the participants. The interview recordings were transcribed.

The participants were then given a choice of whether they wished to check the transcript, or the summary of the interview recording produced by the researcher. Cohen et al. (2011) write that transcriptions would need to be checked by the participant for accuracy. Considering the nature of the data collected in qualitative research, having the transcriptions checked by the participant would probably increase the credibility and reliability. However, participants in this study were given the option of either checking their transcripts or the summary of the transcription prepared by the researcher. Kvale (1996) states that participants often find reading transcriptions to be boring, and having them read such documents would take up more of their time. In addition, I had expected to

have one or possibly two follow-up interviews or e-mail correspondence after the first interview. This expectation was based on my assumption that I might need to ask for clarification, either due to the quality of the recording, not asking for enough elaboration or detail during the interview, or the participants wishing to add more details because they were reminded of a few things after the interview. In addition, as I will not be doing a conversation analysis, there was no need for a precise text of what the participants said in the interview. Furthermore, Kvale (1996) points out that transcriptions are not the “rock-bottom” data of the interview. He proved this through a study of two transcribers producing different transcription from the same interview, which was caused because of the different styles of transcribing. Rather than the long, word-for-word transcription, what would be more valuable for the researcher, and presumably for the participant, is the “bigger picture” (Silverman, 2010) of the interview, for example, the participants choice of words, the length of silence after being asked a question and the emotion of the participants.

One of the issues experienced in the process of data collection, especially in the dealing of interview transcriptions, was that I could not transcribe all the data immediately after the interviews as has been suggested by Kvale (1996). He writes that the researcher’s immediate memory will include visual information and interactions that took place (p.160). With the research interviews taking place one after another, and with my own full-time work commitments it was not always possible.

3.9.2 Writing up Interview Summaries

Being given the option to choose to check the transcripts or to check the interview summary produced by the researcher, all the participants chose to check the interview summary and not the transcripts. After completing the transcription for the interviews, I listened to the recordings and read the transcripts at least two times with the main purpose of familiarising myself with the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and for preparing the summary for the participants to check for accuracy. As previously mentioned, the transcribing could not take place right after the interview, therefore, I wanted to make sure that I could create the summary as detailed as possible so as to make my interpretation clear enough and for the participants to be able to remind themselves of the interview and to add more information or details if in need.

When I decided to conduct interviews for my study, several colleagues recommended me to use computer software such as NVivo to aid the creation of transcripts. However, after having debated on the use, especially considering the time restriction I had in completing the study, I decided not to use it. The reasons for deciding against the use was because the maximum number of participants I was considering was eight, and to have possibly two interviews with each, and because I had assumed that listening to the recordings many times to create the transcripts would be beneficial for me to absorb the content of the interviews.

The interview summaries included excerpts of the interview, which were taken from the transcripts. In this way, participants had the opportunity to check how much detail of their interviews will be used in the study without having to read the whole transcription, which includes parts that will not be included in the study. By taking a look at the write-up, participants were able to check the accuracy of my interpretation of their story as well as provide them the opportunity to make any corrections they want to make, change wordings or remove what they are uncomfortable with, as mentioned by Oliver (2003).

3.9.3 Making Annotations on the Transcriptions

In writing up a summary for the participants to check, the transcripts were printed out. Notes, comments, and questions were hand-written. Comments included those that described how the participants told their stories. For example, whether they sounded enthusiastic, spoke carefully choosing words, or sounded confident. Comments were also made on whether the participants took a moment to think after being asked a question. Examples of questions that were noted were asking for further details or for clarifications. A few questions were noted for each participant as I had refrained from asking too many questions so as not to interrupt the participant sharing their stories.

3.10 Quality of the Data

Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research does not aim for generalisability so that the study could be replicated. Goodson (1992) describes how life historians decide to use this approach because of their particular epistemological position which values “subjective, emic and ideographic”

(p.9). This positioning comes from social constructivism that considers that when one considers truth it is generated from one certain tradition or culture and that it cannot be generalised (Gergen & Gergen, 2004). Rapport (1999) and Polkinghore (1988) put it, personal narrative is a means by which individuals existentially apprehend their own lives (e.g. Polkinghore, 1988, Bruner, 1990). However, this does not imply that qualitative researchers are exempt from considering issues such as credibility and dependability of data (Smith, 2011; Whittemore, Chase, & Mandle, 2001).

3.10.1 Credibility and Dependability of this Study

Consideration was given for credibility/reliability, validity, and practicality of this study. Firstly, credibility was thought through prolonged engagement. Lincoln and Guba (1985) define prolonged engagement as “spending sufficient time in the field to learn or understand the culture” (p.158). According to Charmaz (2006), credibility can be gained by familiarity with the setting of the research. In this regard, I had the advantage of knowing the situations of Japanese HEIs well as a native and having worked in the similar context, and in a similar employment situation as most of the participants for about ten years. In addition, a preliminary study was conducted to test out the pre-interview questionnaire and interview questions, participants were carefully selected along with the criteria, the content of the interview was reviewed by the participants, and communication with the participants was maintained.

3.10.2 Ethical Consideration

Participants in the study were provided the explanation of the study prior to their participation. They were informed that they would be able to withdraw from the study at any point and that whatever information they provide in the interview would be protected and that pseudonyms would be used so that they would not be identified. As a result, one participant decided to withdraw from the study as explained in section 3.7.4, and one participant, Mary, after checking the interview summary requested that her nationality and home country should not be used. Therefore, the region of her home country is used instead, with her consent.

3.10.3 Outsider or Insider

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011) write that researchers tend to choose topics that come from their personal experience. Dwyer and Buckle (2009) advise that researchers should be careful of how they can be both an insider and outsider. Unluer (2012) examines the advantages and disadvantages of being an insider or an outsider in conducting qualitative research. If working in a similar context is considered as being an insider (Breen, 2007), my position in this study would be from an insider point of view. As mentioned in the introduction chapter, the topic for this study is in the setting of HEIs in Japan that I am familiar with. Therefore, one of the advantages is that it can be assumed that participants and I share some understanding of the environment that we work in, which made it easier for me to establish rapport with the participants. The researchers are advised to share their own experiences and perceptions (Oakley, 1981). This is one of the strategies in order to establish and maintain a positive and trusting relationship between interviewer and the participant.

On the other hand, one of the disadvantages may be that the participants may be unwilling to share details in order to protect their identity. Hence, participants have been ensured anonymity to address this issue.

3.11 Analysis

3.11.1 Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted after all the interviews have been transcribed, summaries were written up, and were checked by the participants. The analysis followed the thematic analysis described by Braun and Clarke (2006). They summarise this analysis as a way to search “across a dataset to find repeated patterns of meaning” (p.86) and explain that themes “capture something important about the data in relation to the research question” (p.82). In conducting thematic analysis, researchers are required to be familiar with the data, code the data, see across the data set to search for themes, define and name the themes, and finally to write up the themes (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

3.11.2 Identifying Main Themes and Sub-themes

As all the participants did not share their stories in the same order or chronological order, reading and re-reading the transcripts was crucial in searching themes and connecting their stories. Notes were made in the margins of the transcript which were mainly labels that later became sub-themes and afterward put in groups in order to set the main themes. The following Table 3.3 shows the main themes and sub-themes that emerged from the transcripts.

1. Apprenticeship observation: All the participants had attended their formal education up until completion of an undergraduate degree before they started their teaching career. The stories of the student experience and the memories of the teachers they had included both positive and negative ones. Considering that some participants became students (i.e. attending professional development programmes or learning a language) after they entered their teaching career, this period, despite short, is also included as an apprenticeship of observation for the purpose of this study.

2. Professional development programmes: Though at different stages of their teaching career, participants attended a professional development programme. Some participants indicated the value and its influence while the others were not able to recall much.

3. Other factors: Participants' stories included factors that may have influenced either their belief or their teaching practices that were not necessarily from the apprenticeship of observation or the professional development programmes they had completed.

Table.3.3 Main themes and sub-themes

Main Theme	Apprenticeship of Observation	Professional Development Programmes	Other factors
Sub-themes	Positive memories of the period Negative memories Memories of good teachers Memories of bad teachers Struggles as learners Experience of learning a foreign language	Awareness of the content (strong/weak) Awareness of its influence on the teaching (strong/weak)	Family Teaching context Student motivation Students' proficiency level Context of Japanese HEIs (Japanese) culture

3.12 Conclusion

This chapter has explained the appropriateness of choosing a life story approach for the methodology for this study as well as why the inclusion of other methodology has been considered less appropriate. I have also referred to the preliminary study that has led me to modify interview questions so that the participants will be less confused by the questions. I have, then, explained the design of the study and conducted the interview. I have also mentioned a participant's withdrawal from the study which is further discussed as a weakness of not only this study but of a qualitative study (see section 6.5). I have also explained my positions in this study. The following chapter will provide a summary of the interview data collected with the methods I have detailed in this chapter.

Chapter 4: Interview Summaries

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the summaries of the interviews in this study. For each participant, the first part provides their background information including their reasons for becoming EFL teachers at Japanese HEIs, their work experience both teaching and non-teaching related, and their academic background, which are all summarized and presented in a table. The second part is the description of the class(es) that they enjoy teaching. This includes what they consider to be important in their class as well as their approach to teaching those classes. The third part concerns the participant's experiences of being a student and also as a learner of a foreign language in their adulthood. The participants' concept of both good and bad teachers is included as well as the difficulties that they may have had either related to language learning or their studies in general. The next part regards the usefulness of the teaching-related programme if the participants had the experience. The summary ends with any difficulties that the participants face working in Japanese HEIs.

4.2 Participant Tom

4.2.1 Profile

Tom is a British, tenured associate professor in his late 40s and had been teaching English in Japanese HEIs for 16 years by the time of the interview. The first interview took place in his office on the evening of 1 November 2017. The interview lasted for about 50 minutes and was conducted completely in English. Due to time and distance restrictions, follow-up inquiries were made via e-mail correspondence. The following Table 4.1 presents a summary of Tom's background.

Tom was very proactive since when he agreed to participate in this study. Upon meeting on the interview day, he welcomed me with a smile and as we sat down, he said

“You might find it weird, but I love being interviewed [for different purposes]. I have participated in other research-related interviews. I sometimes got questions that I hadn't thought about but it's been a good opportunity to think. Please feel free to ask whatever you need to ask.”

Table 4.1 Summary of Tom's profile

Gender	Male
Age group	46-50
Years teaching in Japanese HEI	16 years
Undergraduate degree	Geography
Graduate degree	MLitt International Security Studies MA Applied Linguistics & TESOL
Employment status	Tenured
Current position	Associate professor
Other foreign language learning experience	French Japanese

4.2.2 English Teaching History and Reason for Becoming a Teacher of English in Japanese HEIs

Tom did not originally think of becoming a teacher of anything. When he was in his late twenties when he was working in the UK, he decided that he wanted to move overseas. He had both worked and travelled after finishing his undergraduate school.

“To be honest, I didn't think of becoming a teacher. I vaguely started think that I wanted to move overseas at some point in the near future. This was when I was twenty-eight or nine. I'd been living in Britain for all my life and having travelled a bit after graduating undergrad school, I was getting bored with my life and career.”

In choosing the destination, he thought about which country would be interesting to live in.

“I also thought about I would need to earn money so I can pay off my credit card debts.”

That was when he came across an advertisement for teaching positions at *Eikaiwa* [private English language schools] in Japan, which did not require a specific qualification besides an undergraduate degree as long as they were a native speaker of English. He thought Japan would be an interesting destination as Japan had some elements of western living standards but have a totally different culture from what he was used to. He arrived in Japan after being offered a position.

“So, it wasn’t so much of a decision to become a teacher, but more of that being a teacher was the choice I had to move overseas.”

He taught in the English language school for five years, and in his final year, he also taught two classes in the mornings once a week as a part timer at a university. After the English language school went bankrupt, with an excellent timing, Tom was offered a full-time schedule to teach at a university as a part-time teaching staff. Tom now has a secure tenured position at this private university.

“It would have been nice to have a couple-of- months’ break, but things worked just fine.”

4.2.3 Classes that Tom Enjoys Teaching

Tom has enjoyed teaching classes that are more focused on speaking, which may be due to his background of having started his teaching career at an English language school and teaching English conversation. He, especially, enjoys doing lots of role-plays with his students. Not necessarily against what seems to be a trend in a lot of the universities in Japan that over-focus on presentations, which are of course valid, important, and useful, he also feels that in life, opportunities to give presentations or formal speeches are limited. In contrast, he thinks that we spend a vast amount of time speaking, just conversations.

“A vast majority of students in Japanese universities are not sufficiently good at English or comfortable to operate in an environment in which they can make a conversation easily, so I think a lot of universities need to focus more on that.”

He also mentioned that speaking classes seem to be looked down on as some people see speaking classes as just sitting around chatting. Seen from the teachers’ perspective, it may be less work for them compared to teaching, for example, a writing class. However, it does not mean that speaking classes are less important for the students, in fact, Tom believes that it is more important in many

ways. He further explained that while the lack of writing skills may be a problem at work, the lack of speaking skills would have a wider negative impact on the students' whole life.

"I think in life in general, outside of education, we are judged more on our spoken interactions than our written ones. We spend vast amount of time speaking. Most of the things we do in real life is conversation. And the vast majority of students, Japanese university students, are not sufficiently good at English and comfortable to operate in an environment in which they can make conversation easily, so I think a lot of universities need to focus more on that. You may probably find this yourself within the environment of university teaching."

Another reason Tom thinks he likes to teach speaking classes is because other people do not value them as much.

"Speaking classes tend to be looked down on [by colleagues or by others in the same profession] . In addition, some students may think that all they have to do in a speaking class is to sit around and chat with each other."

However, Tom thinks that if the class is organized well enough, students may appreciate the complexity of maintaining a conversation; structures, and formula which comes up in different genres of conversations.

He described one of the classes that he enjoys teaching; his business English class, in which he teaches second-year students that have completed their first-year English courses including general English speaking class. He uses a textbook that includes a lot of languages that could be useful in business conversations. He recently used the units on negotiation and leading a meeting and he particularly focused on the skills of interrupting and dealing with interruption.

"It's quite a good textbook and includes a lot of languages that could be used I these [negotiation and leading a meeting] situations. I've particularly chosen these chapters in the

textbook that focus on interrupting and dealing with interruption. These skills are particularly difficult for Japanese, for, I think, cultural reasons and they tend to let the speaker go on for as long as they want in a formal meeting situation. Or in other cases, it kind of goes round and round with students taking turns in speaking. This is obviously completely different from how it will be done in Europe or North America or lots of other places. So, I think this is a skill that students really need.”

His class generally consists of two parts. In the first part, the students study the language that could be used in each situation, which may include a listening activity of what could work as a model. In the second part, the students spend time on role-play activity. The situations are chosen from the textbook. In order to prepare the students with some idea of what they could talk about, Tom had the students brainstorm ideas on what they could talk about, what their position might be, and how they might conduct the negotiation. After the students have understood their roles, students work in pairs and start the negotiation. Their target is to get as close as possible to their goals within a limited time. This would require the students to use their imagination by not only focusing on the main point and considering related factors so that they would be able to convince the other party.

“For example, two companies are merging so they need to create one new system for employees for the new company and what these two people had to negotiate was how many holidays they would get in a year... the company should be giving their employees. So, company A had 20 days for holiday pre-merger. Company B had 35 days. So the target of the negotiation is to come to an agreement on how many days the employees in the new merged company should have. Basically, what I tell the students was ‘OK, your target is to get it as close to 20 days to one side [Company A]’ and to the other [Company B] ‘ Get it to as close as 35 days as possible.’ Also to think about other things that could be added to the negotiation, such as performance related payment, or flexible time. “

Tom also reminds the students that negotiation is not a win or lose situation and that it has to be a win-win situation for both parties.

One difficulty that Tom faces with this class is the time restriction. He would add activities that would enable the students to analyse the conversation they had by looking at the structure after having them transcribe it and think about how it could be improved and then have them do the same negotiation again. This would enable the students to reflect on their own for improvement. Tom has thus far been fortunate to have a relatively small number of students in this class and has been able to monitor all pairs of students. However, if the class size were to be bigger it would be very difficult for him to conduct the class in the way that he has. It would be much harder for him to pick up on specific points that the students could be improving in either the language or their communicative competence.

“I cannot imagine doing this kind of role-play class with 16 different pairs. There will probably be more variation in the students’ [proficiency] levels and lower level students could go off track either because they don’t understand properly or because they are not interested so much. I cannot decide the number of students in each class because they are just given to me. I don’t think that it’s going to be a huge class. Students per class tend to stay around 20 or so.”

4.2.4 Teachers that Tom Remembers Well

It took a while for Tom to recall any teacher he had as a student. He then shared his memory about a teacher he had in the final year of primary school. The reason why he thought about his teacher from primary school and not from an undergraduate school, which was the most recent, was because, in primary school, he had one teacher for all the classes (about 30 to 40 hours a week) as opposed to one teacher for each subject. In addition, the classes he took at university were mostly lecture style and had no interaction with the teacher. The teacher in primary school that he remembered was friendly, interesting, and played guitar and was in charge of musical events. Though Tom was not musical at all, the teacher was very keen on getting the students to do performances. The teacher was also in

charge of the football team that Tom also played. What Tom remembers is about the teacher's extra-curricular activities and not much of the teacher's classroom practices.

"I struggle to remember what he did in class or what we did in class... Things I remember... We made a Roman villa from kind of balsa wood. I think it was just a few kids working on individual projects. I don't specifically remember... I remember doing things like math's tests. We had to take this every year... just a system in Britain, but maybe just his class. I remember this because me and the other boy, we were racing to be the first to finish. And one of us was usually the first [to finish]. But we weren't necessarily the best."

Another thing he recollected, which does not really focus on the teacher's input, was drawing lots of maps of Britain through little stencil.

"The outline could be easily prepared. And then we [the students] filled in distribution of crops, where are oats grown, where is wheat grown, where is barley grown and then colouring them in. We could focus on the details rather than worrying about drawing an accurate map of Britain."

Though he was able to remind himself of the activity, he does not know why those stick to his mind.

4.2.5 Description of a 'Good' Teacher

For Tom, a theoretically good teacher, specifically in the context of teaching English in a Japanese university, is someone that is able to build rapport with the students. If one is not able to do that then it is impossible to set up the class.

"I personally think it's an over-blown notion of expecting the students to respect you. I think it's a very 'American way' of looking at things like that. Some people say that it is important."

This does not mean that Tom thinks that it is not important to be respected by the students, but it is one thing that may probably not be necessary. He thinks it is more important to be liked as a teacher, as this would create a good classroom atmosphere and encourage the students to put in sufficient effort in their studies. One of the things that Tom keeps in mind is that students at the university level will not necessarily be taught something new, for example, new vocabulary or new English grammar. They should already have them, and what teachers should do is to encourage them to be more confident in using the language that they already have but have not quite internalized or is in the process of internalizing. He feels that the Japanese education up till university is heavily input focused and the students do not have many opportunities to produce either spoken or written English. To let the students do these, Tom thinks that the class needs to be set up in such a way that they are comfortable in the atmosphere. And a good teacher would be the ones that could do this.

Another feature of a good teacher is being able to manage the logistics of the class. According to what may seem small things such as setting up of the physical classroom layout will generate a huge difference. For example, in a classroom layout of a horseshoe, the teacher will have to stand in the front and is likely to create a teacher centred atmosphere while if the students sit in groups of a certain number, it creates a more student centred atmosphere. Therefore, a good teacher is aware of how and why they set up the classroom like that depending on the purpose rather than setting up a classroom in a certain just as a default.

“I’m not an expert of, and you obviously know better than I do, but my impression of Japanese education up to university, is very much input focussed. And students don’t have a huge amount of opportunity to produce either their spoken or written language in extent and form. So I think it’s really important to give them the opportunity to balance out. Maybe they’re lacking in their education up to that point. And I think in order to get them to do that, you have to set up the classroom in such a way that they are comfortable in the atmosphere of the class.”

The final point of a good teacher is someone that would be able to learn from their own experiences. Tom tries to remember this and thinks about how he felt about teachers’ certain practices when he

observed in his colleagues' classrooms or in the Japanese language classes that he took after moving to Japan. He referred to a part of his work duty, which is to observe teachers working in his programme.

“Basically, we think that it’s important that we know what is going on to some extent in the classrooms. How people are teaching, and whether they are using the textbook enough and whether they’re giving students enough speaking time. To me that’s a ‘Atarimae (similar meaning to ‘natural’), can’t think of an English phrase. Whoever is in charge of the programme should be observing teachers. It surprised me in Japan that only at one of the universities I’ve been at observed me teach. I could have been doing anything! Because I think it’s difficult to understand your own strengths and weakness. In the classroom, you can’t be a participant and observer at the same time. So I actually like people coming in to observe me and to get feedback.

4.2.6 Description of a ‘Bad’ Teacher

A bad teacher for Tom is primarily someone that is not aware of what the students are doing, how much the students are understanding, and whether or not the students are focused on the task. Such teachers are focused too much on what they are doing and probably feel that they are the centre of the class.

“Regardless of how much you say you want to make the class more student-centred, in reality, teachers are still the centre of the class in many ways.”

The students are not in the classroom just to listen to one person talk whether it is a teacher or a student. Tom mentioned that they might as well put the radio on and that may be more interesting for the students. A teacher that is aware of what is going on in the classroom would be able to notice when there is a problem and would be dealing with it and not let it go on for the whole class. One example that he shared was a teacher that he had when he was taking a Japanese class.

“So, from one of my experiences of being a student of Japanese [taking a class]. I found it incredibly confusing when a teacher says ‘Look at page X’, or to look at a certain part in a textbook, or to look at the screen, and they explain it in a completely different way. So then, I don’t know if I’m supposed to be looking at this textbook or to be listening to what the teacher is saying. And if they want me to be looking at the textbook, why did they... are they explaining it to me in a different way. Or the teacher tells us to work in groups and then immediately just continue talking. I cannot work with my group members if the teacher is talking in the background. But maybe these are something that you don’t really realised until you see someone doing it. I hope I’m not doing it in my class. I think I don’t do it, I’ve become more aware of things like this through my own experiences and as a learner and as an observer.”

4.2.7 Experience of Studying a Foreign Language

Tom studied French in secondary school from age 11-16. He recalls:

“I remember that the class was conducted in a fairly typical language class for Britain in the early 80s. It was conducted in English, focused on remembering grammar and vocabulary, and it was teacher-centred.”

Looking back, he now feels that it was like studying a language as an academic exercise, rather than as a skill to be utilised in life. He got good scores on his exams and feels that he was good at it, but with almost no experience in using it in a conversation, he did not feel that he could use it in a conversation and he does hardly remember anything now.

He also studied Japanese and he described that the experience was very different from the way that he studied French. Firstly, his studies took place entirely in Japan and mainly through semi-private lessons and self-study. Though he has taken quite a lot of classes from various teachers, he has not been impressed with the way they taught. As seen in the examples

of the bad teachers above, a lot of the teachers he had spent a lot of time talking themselves and very few active student-student communications. Mainly due to this issue, Tom stopped going to several classes. One positive aspect of studying in the country is that he was able to use what he learned in a class immediately in his real life, which is a huge difference from his experience of studying French.

4.2.8 Struggles of Studying as a Student

Tom had not really struggled with his studies academically. The only struggles he had faced was due to him not putting in the effort. When he did his first MA degree, in international security studies, he had not started working on his dissertation until the day of the deadline. He, along with his friend, went to his supervisor and asked for an extension.

“My friend asked the supervisor if we could have a short extension, and the professor said ‘how long would you like?’ My friend said ‘How long could you give us?’ and the professor said ‘How about three weeks?’” That was when I started working on my dissertation and completed it within the three-weeks’ extension that was granted. It was when the computers were not available and I wrote the dissertation by hand. This was entirely through my own poor organisation and laziness at that point.”

When Tom did his second MA, in TESOL, it was also a struggle but that was because of time management as he was already working. However, he found the content of the study stimulating and enjoyable. Although he did not struggle with his studies in his formal education, he has been struggling with studying Japanese.

“I think I plateaued seven or eight years ago. Although I speak Japanese daily and still take weekly lessons, I can’t imagine my ability significantly improving from now on. I don’t really know why this is...”

4.2.9 Usefulness of the Teaching Related Programme Completed

Tom started and completed his MA in Applied Linguistics & TESOL after he started teaching in universities in Japan. He remembers that at that time, he felt that he was “getting stuff from the programme”, for example, the way teaching and learning work and about the language itself, he cannot remember if there was anything specifically that he directly applies to his classes.

“Sorry, nothing comes to mind that I directly applied something from what I learned in my course, I’m sure there were a few things...definitely...”

4.2.10 Difficulties in Teaching in Japanese Universities

Prior to getting a tenured position, Tom did not think he had any difficulties in his job, both inside and outside the classrooms. However, because of the nature of the position, he needs to interact with people in Japanese. He feels that his Japanese is good enough for daily communication, however, he finds it not good enough to attend meetings, writing reports, or work-related e-mails. He, currently, avoids having to speak at meetings but if the meetings were in English, he thinks that he would probably contribute quite a lot, and he spends about ten to fifteen minutes in writing a response to work-related e-mails written in Japanese, which may take him about two minutes if they were in English. Language seems to be the sole difficulty that Tom has in his job, working as a tenured teaching staff at a Japanese university.

“It probably depends on where you’re working at. I’ve taught at different universities with different positions, but I’ve generally found it pleasant to work with. I think this is really important because you spend a lot of your time with students than with other teachers at work. If you compared it with other jobs, our relationships with our colleague is not as crucial as it is in other jobs. In other jobs you’d be working directly with your colleagues. We do have to cooperate with our colleagues to but not to the same extent.”

4.3 Participant Peter

4.3.1 Profile

Peter is an American male English instructor in his mid-fifties and teaches at three universities in addition to teaching children at an international school once a week. He has been teaching in Japanese HEIs for 31 years by the time of the interview, which took place at a café of his choice on 3 November 2017. The interview lasted for about 60 minutes, and due to the distance and time restrictions, follow up inquiries were made via e-mails. Both the interview and e-mail correspondence were completely in English. The following Table 4.2 shows the background of Peter.

Table 4.2 Summary of Peter's profile

Gender	Male
Age group	51-60
Years teaching in Japanese universities	31 years
Undergraduate degree	Music education
Other language teaching related qualifications	None
Employment status	Part-time
Current position	Part-time instructor
Foreign language learning experience	German, Spanish, Japanese

4.3.2 English Teaching History and Reason for Becoming a Teacher of English in Japanese HEIs

“The reason why I became a teacher...is kind of a long story”, Peter started. He already knew that he would have a teaching job when he arrived in Japan.

“I was in the US, teaching music in a high school. It was a “a dead-end job”. My girlfriend at that time had left the US for Japan. She called me one day and asked ‘Why don’t you come to Japan and you could teach English?’ and then I told her that I cannot speak the language at all, and then she told me that that’s what they want; teachers who can’t speak Japanese to teach English. And so I said I’ll come. By the time I arrived in Japan, she had already line me up with 5 or 6 classes to teach in a week at a university. So the first teaching position I had in Japan was in university. The only thing you needed was an undergraduate degree and that your first language is English.”

Though he could teach at the university level, Peter did not have a master's degree upon his arrival.

4.3.3 Class that Peter Enjoys Teaching

Peter's favourite class to teach, thus far in his career, is presentation classes. He thinks the reason for the preference is because his Bachelor's degree was in music education and he thinks that a presentation is a form of performance; being on a stage. Therefore, he enjoys teaching students how to act with postures and gestures; and to speak in a clear and loud voice. In addition, he feels that students like presentation class the most, of all the other English classes that they take. Peter enthusiastically described the structure of his presentation class.

“Basically, the students have three presentations that they have to do, and the first one is something like that they are familiar with, like they introduce themselves, they introduce the place that they like, something that they have a lot of knowledge about so that they don't get nervous in the presentation because they can't use any notes or papers of anything. And in the second one, it's a persuasive presentation where they have to persuade the audience to believe their point of views, some of the topics I have are 'Is XXX good or bad', 'Should high school students wear uniforms in Japan or not?' The students have to explain two or three reasons why they feel that way. Again it's a short presentation no notes, so they focus mainly on simple transitions, like 'first reason...', 'second reason...'. And the final presentation is a pair presentation. They have to present on a dream vacation. The pair has to decide on the place, outside of Japan, they have to do some research about the place, like what can you see, what can you do there, they have to talk about where to stay and they talk, maybe, about the best airline to use to get there, and so on and so forth. But the main focus is for them to talk about what they can see, what they can do what they can eat there. Since it's a team presentation, I have the students focus on working as a team. For example, students are also required to have a smooth transition between their partners by introducing each other. You know, like 'Now my partner is going to talk about...'. ”

Peter also feels that presentation classes to be most useful for the students' future.

“When they (=students) start working, they probably have to do presentations whatever company they are working for. When they are dealing with customers, it’s always a sort of presentation, and they have to present themselves in an attractive way. I think presentation classes help them do that.”

After stating the positive aspects of presentation classes for the students, Peter also referred to some difficulties that he has in teaching in presentation classes. Though he believes gestures are important in conveying messages during a presentation, he noticed that Japanese students do not know how to gesture.

“Gesturing, I think, is a pretty natural thing that somebody does, and it comes through time and experience, it’s really something that can’t be taught. I don’t know why, but the Japanese students just do not know how to gesture. If you try to teach gesture, sometimes students use them too much. And it looks awkward. Unless it’s a really high-level class then I’ll teach gestures, but for a general English presentation class, I’ll touch on it, but I don’t make it a 90-minute class out of it.”

4.3.4 A Teacher that Peter Remembers Well

When asked about a teacher that Peter remembers well, he instantly said, “Ms. R, my music teacher.” He remembers well because she was energetic, and she was always able to get the students highly motivated into what the students were expected to do. One example to show this was the system she set up for the high school choir in that she was in charge. She created two levels in the choir. And with the system she had set up, she made sure that freshmen would not be able to get into the advanced group that could go to sing at various events and enter in competitions. The goal for the freshmen was to get into the advanced choir in their sophomore year by passing the auditions.

“She really worked hard, knew her stuff and taught us how to sing as a team. By following her assistance, students would usually be able to get in the advanced choir by the final year. I know that she worked during the summer too. I don’t know if she got paid extra, maybe she got paid a little extra for all that work.”

Peter added that she had a summer music classes for individuals that wished to attend. It was a one on one private lesson that she taught rhythms, drills, and music theory. This system she had designed, really motivated the students to try hard to get into the advanced choir. She was the one that inspired Peter to major in music when he went into university.

4.3.5 Description of a ‘Good’ Teacher

“A good teacher in general?” Peter for a while before he described a good teacher as someone who understands what students want from a course or a class, and also to be able to provide that to them. In addition, they would be able to listen to what students have to say about the course, both good and bad. Not only through a questionnaire at the end of the course but verbally talk with the students. They would also be someone that would take into consideration the students’ feedback for the next time they teach the course because the next students will probably have the same feelings.

“This will probably improve their teaching and that is something a good teacher wants to do, [to improve their teaching].”

He referred to Mrs. R, his music teacher in high school.

“There was this one part a music piece that we couldn’t get. And she couldn’t understand why we couldn’t get it., and we explained to her why we couldn’t get it. And then she understood why we wouldn’t get it. And she would adjust her teaching styles so we can... we will be able to sing that particular part of the song. She always listened to us.

4.3.6 Description of a ‘Bad’ Teacher

An example of a bad teacher, according to Peter is someone that would spend twenty or even thirty minutes lecturing on the focus of the lesson, and then tells the students to work on the activity in the textbook for the following thirty minutes and then gives students a quiz at the end of the lesson. In short, Peter considers a teacher to be a bad teacher if they do not have interactions with the students at all or someone that sits in the front doing something not related to that class. This description comes, not from his personal experience but from overhearing conversations amongst his colleagues in the teachers’ room. *“They were talking about how to have an easy class.”*

4.3.7 Experience of Studying a Foreign Language

Peter, himself, has a long history and a lot of experience in studying foreign languages. He first learnt German through his German mother. He was not actually taught but through communication with his mother as she did not respond to him if he talked to her in English.

“As a young kid of 3,4,5 years old, I didn’t study Grammar. It just came naturally to you. So I didn’t really study German, it just came naturally.”

This experience became useful to him when he later studied German in his university.

He also studied Spanish as he lived in a border town, it was taught to him in elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school. For him, it was necessary to study Spanish for what he referred to as “survival”. For example, when he was a university student, it was quite difficult to get a part-time job if you could not speak Spanish.

He also spent a year of learning Italian, and French, and aforementioned German when he studied opera in university. He studied another year of German when he had to choose one of the three languages for his final year in university. When he learned a foreign language, he did not learn how to speak it but focussed on the vocabulary and pronunciation as that was what he needed to sing opera. In addition to studying in the classrooms, he picked up the languages when he spent six months each in France, Germany and Italy through his daily life.

“I wouldn't say I'm perfect in any of those languages, but I can get by if I have to.”

4.3.8 Struggles of Studying as a Student

Peter had not experienced any struggles in regard to studying until he started studying Japanese seriously about three years ago. He takes a private lesson and told his teacher that he wanted to learn how to speak and not read or write. However, he recently started to study *Kanji* [ideographic that are used in the Japanese writing system] using online software that he found out through his friend. The software enables him to study the meaning of the Kanji in English.

“Writing Kanji is an impossibility for me, I'm not a good artist, as far as drawing is concerned. I mean, I can't even draw stick figure much less trying to draw Kanji characters. But I don't think I need to know how to write Kanji, but being able to read it is important.”

4.3.9. Usefulness of the Teaching Related Programme Completed

Though Peter's teaching since his arrival in Japan has been at the university level without a master's degree, he decided to attend a master's programme in TESOL persuaded by his friend. Though Peter did not really like the idea at first, he admits that he actually found it to be a valuable experience.

“A friend told me that if I don't get a Master's, I won't survive in the future. Especially if I wanted to keep teaching at universities, I was really going to need one. I didn't want to do it because it's really expensive. But my friend, he dragged me into doing one. I'm now so glad I did it. It became much easier to get a job. I put out 25-30 resumes and I'd get 20 responses back asking me to come in for an interview.”

He doesn't remember what he learned from the programme that he actually applies to his teaching.

“After I finished the programme, in my brain, everything just went out. Pretty much. But let me see...”

One of the things he learnt was preparing supplementary materials. Though he had never liked the way activities were designed in the commercial textbooks, he just followed the instructions in the textbooks or the teacher’s material. He now prepares his own supplementary materials adjusting the level of the activities for the students.

“For example, I didn’t know about ‘cloze activities’, and I use that quite often now. I was able to learn how to design them and how to develop them in a way that it actually helps the students.”

4.3.10 Difficulties in Teaching in Japanese HEIs

One of the difficulties that Peter faces teaching in Japanese universities is the communication with the administration office. Though some of the departments that Peter works at are English departments, the administration offices refuse to correspond with him in English. He feels that this causes a lack of communication between the higher-ups in the university and the teachers, and sometimes leads to a big problem if the information being handed down need to be conveyed to the students. He gave an example of how this has influenced his teaching in the past. At K university, the university created a vocabulary book and the students would take a vocabulary quiz prepared from the book every week. This continued for a year. At the beginning of the next academic year, Peter told his new group of students about the vocabulary book and the quiz. However, the students did not understand what Peter was talking about, so he told the students to check with someone else at the university. A student found out the details and emailed Peter that the vocabulary book and the quiz no longer existed and that there was a different assignment in replacement. Peter was not aware of either of these as the information had been sent to him in Japanese.

“I can’t help my students if my students have a question about something that the university send me in Japanese. I have to direct them too go to the university administration office.”

4.4 Participant Michael

4.4.1 Profile

Michael is an Irish semi-tenured lecturer in his mid-thirties. He had been teaching English for 10 years at the time of the interview. The interview took place at his office on the morning of 12 November 2017. The interview lasted for about 30 minutes and was conducted completely in English. Follow-up inquiries were made over e-mail correspondences due to time restriction and distance.

Table 4.3 Summary of Michael’s Profile

Gender	Male
Age group	36-40
Years teaching in Japanese HEI	10 years
Undergraduate degree	Mathematics
Graduate degree	MA TESOL
Employment status	Semi-tenured
Current position	Lecturer
Other foreign language learning experience	Irish, French, Japanese

4.4.2 English Teaching History and Reason for Becoming a Teacher of English in Japanese HEIs

Michael had no plans to become an English teacher or to come to Japan.

“I don’t know about the other people [foreign teachers teaching English in Japan], but for me, it was the other way round. I just wanted to come to Japan.”

After completing his undergraduate degree in mathematics, he simply wanted to travel around the world. However, he did not have any savings that allowed him to do so. Therefore, he searched for ways that he could work while travelling. That was when he found the opportunity to teach at an

English conversation school in Japan. Therefore, becoming an English teacher was the way to facilitate his desire to travel. In addition to getting an offer from an English conversation school in Japan, another reason why he came to Japan was that he wanted something different.

“I guess it was sort of a coincidence in a way. It wasn’t specifically Japan that I wanted to come to. there were a lot of Irish people that go to the USA or Australia and I wanted something different.”

Michael did not have any specific career goals when he decided his undergraduate major.

“Like a lot of other young people, I thought I’d just go to university because I thought that’s what I should do. With the Irish system, you apply for different courses on a single application form, it’s a bit different from the Japanese system, and I went to the course that I got accepted to. So I thought I’ll go to university and figure out things. I thought the same way after I graduated. I still didn’t know what I wanted to do, so that’s why I decided to travel. I thought I might find something while I’m travelling.”

Michael started working in an Eikaiwa school after he arrived in Japan and worked there for four years until the school went bankrupt. In his final year at the Eikaiwa school, he had already started working as a part-time instructor at a university. He soon picked up additional classes as a part-time instructor.

“I was lucky. Some guy left [a position at] University R in the middle of the term so I got another couple of classes there and that got me started. The following year I picked up more classes at another university.”

Michael had a full five-day schedule of teaching at universities only, for some of the universities that Michael taught at, he was hired directly by the university while for some others, he

was sent to the university through dispatch companies. One of the major differences between the two kinds of employment was that he was paid at a lower salary when working through a dispatch company. He then decided that he would need a master's degree; "a proper qualification" as Michael puts it, in order to gain direct hire from universities. He was also interested in professional development and hoped to improve his teaching through further study as he had never been formally trained as a teacher.

4.4.3 Classes that Michael Enjoys Teaching

Although it was by coincidence that Michael found out that he loves teaching, and he likes all his classes he particularly enjoys teaching content-based classes. Hired mainly to teach EFL classes, he finds content-based classes especially rewarding because he gets to teach topics that are interesting to him as well as to the students.

"I understand that we're hired to teach a lot of EFL classes. But it gets repetitive. With content based classes, I get to teach classes like Irish culture and corpus linguistics."

When teaching the content-based classes, Michael and his students have access to computers and the students do a lot of self-directed research that Michael sets, and is a very student-centred class with a small number of students. With the motivated students that Michael has had thus far, the students were able to learn by themselves and report to Michael on what they had learnt.

"There's so much information and material on the Internet that I don't feel I need to explain every small details to the students. If my students were less motivated, then I might have to teach more to the students."

What Michael had to do was to instruct the students on how to use the tools available to them and to set the task. There are no guidelines or methodologies, set by the university for the course, hence Michael could design the syllabus and teach the course the way he wishes to.

4.4.4 Teachers that Michael Remembers Well

Michael shared a story about a teacher he had for his Irish language, as a subject, class. He remembers that though he did not enjoy studying Irish, he did well with his class up till he finished his primary school. However, he had a very bad teacher in secondary school.

“Looking back on the experience, I’ve felt that’s what I want to avoid if I really ever became a teacher. You know, students not wanting to take my class. I think that’s one thing that guided my teaching.”

He recalled that during class time, the teacher had the students read a text and did not communicate with them. He now assumes that what was going on then, is probably similar to what is going on in the Japanese high education. After completing his master’s degree in TESOL and having read the related literature extensively, he realised that what she did in the Irish classroom was boring and was not appropriate to keep students motivated. As a teenager in the classroom, he simply thought “Oh, that was a boring class.” Michael does not exactly remember what sort of things the teacher was doing as he was asleep half the time because of boredom. However, he recalls that she did not have a good knowledge of either the methodology or approach to teaching language. Moreover, he felt that she was a little bit lazy in that she did not have any supplementary materials. He concluded that she may not have been interested in teaching.

4.4.5 Description of a ‘Good’ Teacher

During the interview, Michael could not think of a teacher that he had that had inspired him.

“I don’t know that there’s any teacher that has inspired me. But generally, leaving things aside, I think as a teenager, you don’t really get inspired by a teacher. I don’t think you’d remember a teacher forever. I don’t specifically remember a certain teacher, but I did have some teachers that were caring, but not necessarily remember their teaching styles or anything like that.”

For Michael, an ideal teacher, in general, is someone that is both caring and strict. As a language teacher, a good teacher would be someone that enables the students to communicate rather than trying to teach them, especially for university students in Japan. He feels that the students have been taught English a lot and hence have a lot of latent English knowledge. What the students need is someone to bring out what they have learnt rather than someone that stands in front of the classroom and teach them things they already know such as grammar.

4.4.6 Description of a ‘Bad’ Teacher

Referring to the aforementioned teacher he had in his secondary school, Michael considers a bad teacher to be those who do not consider the benefits of their students. Michael believes that teachers enter the classroom with certain expectations, experiences, and beliefs, as do students. He believes that a bad teacher will only consider his own beliefs, experiences, and expectations when planning/teaching and that this failure to consider students is the trait of a bad teacher.

4.4.7 Experience of Studying a Foreign Language

According to Michael, the way Irish as a second language is taught is very similar to how English is taught in Japan; a lot of grammar and text-focused activities and very little communication. On the other hand, French, which he studied throughout his six years of secondary school, was taught in a more communicative way including role-plays and he found those fun and interesting.

After arriving in Japan, he studied Japanese. He went to classes run by volunteers that consisted of people that had retired from their work and that did not have any experience in teaching. He found those classes to be useful when he had specific questions, as he would usually get those questions answered.

“Of all my language learning experience, learning French has been the most positive experience. But the way I studied Japanese is ultimately the most efficient by learning it in the country by myself. But French was fun. It was probably the most enlightening

learning through communicative activities.”

4.4.8 Struggles of Studying as a Student

Michael did not struggle with studies as a student due to a lack of academic ability. The struggles he had were due to his own choices, such as not keeping up and failing some courses, which were caused by his not being interested in what he was studying.

“So if I went back and redid my undergraduate degree, with the level of knowledge and maturity I have now, I think I would breeze through it but back when I was 18 or 19, I was more interested in drinking beer and playing rugby.”

The struggles he had while studying for his master’s degree, again, was not because he found the content to be overwhelming or that he was not intelligent enough to understand, but it was because of tough time management. He had to balance his work, studies, and his family life.

4.4.9 Usefulness of the Teaching Related Programme Completed

Michael cannot remember specifically what he got out of the MA TESOL programme that he finds useful in his classroom practices. He feels that he must have learnt a lot that helps him in the classroom but cannot remember what.

“With my MA programme, I needed to write six academic research papers and a dissertation. So I learned to how to write. This[experience] gave me a springboard for what fulltime teachers at university needs... to be an academic. I know some people that have come out of other MA courses that has a lot of coursework and they haven’t written as much. They seem to have more of a difficulty in transitioning to the academic side of our job. I didn’t have that difficulty.”

Michael considers the experience of completing his TESOL course has helped him with the

other side of working at the university level, which is the requirement to conduct research, rather than what helps him in the classroom.

4.4.10 Difficulties in Teaching in Japanese HEIs

In classrooms, Michael does not have a big difficulty that impedes his teaching. In his preferred content-based classes, most important thing is that it is student-centred.

“In classes like this, the most important thing, even if the students are willing and they are very capable, they may not have the experience of student-centred [classes]. It could be pretty extreme for them that the teachers tell them what to do and they let you do that, you know?”

He has noticed some students finding it difficult to get used to the learning environment he prepares for them. Though admitting that there are always some students that do not take classwork seriously but having gone through a similar experience [of himself falling asleep in classes when he was a student], he does not find it difficult in dealing with those kinds of students. Michael stated,

“In the classroom, I am the boss, so I can create the culture that suits my teaching and the students learning styles. Even if some of my students are goofing off, I tell them ‘This is the line. If you cross the line, you’re not going to pass my class. But if you’re having problems and you can tell me and I can help you.’”

Michael feels that the challenges he faces are the same as what all teachers do; to keep things fresh and change the content of the classes each year, “spice it up as it were”. Michael noted,

“[otherwise] it is easy to just roll from year to year teaching the same thing, but this ultimately leads to stagnation. You will always have normal human difficulties. But that’s just not me, that will happen at anywhere you work.

In contrast, outside the classroom, Michael feels that he needs to adjust to the Japanese culture in Japanese institutions. He has worked at ten different universities, and they have their own different kinds of rules. One of the things that Michael finds perplexing is the vast amount of paperwork that he needs to complete even if it was just to be hired as a temporary cover for a part-time teacher who suddenly needed to leave.

“The amount of paperwork was as much as what I had to fill out for my full-time job! I complained to the friend that hired me. He told me that that was the way things that worked around at that university. I know that things work in a different way where I work.”

4.5 Participant Mary

4.5.1 Profile

Mary is from Eastern-Europe, a female semi-tenured lecturer in her mid-thirties, and has been teaching in Japanese HEIs for 9 years at the time of the interview. The interview took place at a café of her choice in the afternoon of 12 November 2018. The interview lasted for about 50 minutes and was conducted completely in English. Follow-up inquiries for clarification were made via e-mail correspondences due to time and distance restrictions. Table 4.4 presents the summary of Mary’s background.

Table 4.4 Summary of Mary’s Profile

Gender	Female
Age group	36-40
Years teaching in Japanese HEI	9 years
Undergraduate degree	Linguistics
Graduate degree	MA Sociolinguistics and language education
Other education related qualification	TESOL (certificate)
Employment status	Semi-tenured
Current position	Lecturer
Other foreign language learning experience	French, Japanese, Spanish, Italian

4.5.2 English Teaching History and Reason for Becoming a Teacher of English in Japanese HEIs

Upon being asked to share her story of how she became a teacher of English in Japanese universities, Mary mentioned that already knew that she was going to choose teaching as her professional career.

“When I was about six or seven [years old], I played ‘teacher’ at home. I lined up dolls and would give grades to each of them. In my native country, we have this special standard grade book that every class has every year, and I would make one of those and draw the lines in it, write the dolls’ names and write the subjects and write in the grades. And I’ve always wanted to be one... my mother is an English teacher as well. So I’ve always wanted to be like her. I didn’t know which subject I would be teaching but around when I was 16 or 17, I sort of needed to decide our career... our university careers. So I thought about teaching English or Japanese.”

Her interest in teaching was mostly influenced by her mother who is an English teacher that she took lessons from when in her childhood. Mary, with her friends, took English lessons from her mother 2 hours a week since she was 4-5 years old. She also studied Japanese from about the time she was fifteen years old as an extracurricular activity. She recalls that she chose to study the language as it was fashionable to study Japanese in her home country around that time. As she was strong in languages and as she had studied English and then later Japanese, she thought about teaching either of the languages as a second language but had never occurred to her to teach her first language.

Therefore, in choosing which university to apply for, she decided to apply for the foreign languages university in her native country and, as having a double major was common in her native country, she chose English and Japanese for her major and minor. At that time, she had already decided that she would be a teacher but had not thought about where she would be teaching.

Mary stated that the university entrance examination system in her native country is just as hard as the one in Japan in that students need to study hard for months and months.

“I was just going through the system to get into university and eventually become a teacher. And then kind of at the same time, I had the entrance exam for my university, which in my home country is just as hard as in Japan. It’s a huge studying for months and months and months. And then maybe two weeks after that exam, I had an opportunity to take an exam for the ‘Kokuhiryuugaku’ [Government funding for study abroad] for the MEXT scholarship. I was like I am not going to study anymore, I’m done. But some of my friends said that they were going to apply for the exam, so I decided to join them. Then a few months later, I was told that I was coming to Japan.”

In the first year of her studies in Japan, Mary was required to be in a programme to study Japanese, and from the second year, she could choose what to study in the university that she could choose from the list she was given. She had originally thought that she wanted to study Japanese as a second language at H university as they had a strong department in education and that it was particularly famous for Japanese as a second language programme. However, after finishing her one-year study in Japan, she changed her mind and became interested in linguistics.

“No one bothered to talk to me further and so they just accepted me to go to University H, and placed me in the second year. The experience here was just awful. It made me feel I did not get education. There was no way I could learn anything there. I would say that 70-80% of the classes were terrible, as many of the professors had zero interest in students or helping them learn.”

She found the classes to be very boring, and to her, it seemed like very little was expected of the students as the assignments were easy and required no effort. In addition, she was not able to receive relevant feedback on her graduation thesis. She was simply told that there was no problem with the English language. She was not able to receive feedback on the content no matter how much she tried to convince her supervisor. With these reasons she decided to pursue a master’s degree and that she could extend the period of receiving the scholarship.

She sought for a programme that would meet her interest and completed a master's degree at R university that had a combined programme for language education and social linguistics. What appealed to her most was that she could do an additional TESOL certificate programme that was organised in collaboration of R university and B university in Canada.

In addition to the unfortunate quality of education she received at undergraduate school, there was another reason that Mary pursued a master's degree. She started teaching at an English conversation school in Japan from her first year in university. It was relatively easy for her to get this job because there were not many English speaking non-Japanese people in the part of Japan she lived at that time. However, as the number of native English speaking people increased in the area, her boss raised the question of why she would hire her when she was not a native speaker of English. Mary had to fight to convince her boss by explaining the benefits of hiring her, especially in that she would be a better teacher than the native speakers of English because of her own experience of having learnt the language.

“At that time, I didn't have much training, of course now I have but I told my boss had a non-native speaker of English would make a better teacher than a native English speaker. They have learned the language. So I told her [my boss] that the experience would help me help my students. And then she gave me a chance and that worked out OK.”

Mary taught at a professional [technical] college while she was in her master's programme. However, once she finished her studies, she applied for a full-time position at a high school. She could not get the position; however, she was offered to teach part-time with enough number of classes to support her living. After a few years of teaching part-time at the high school, she found some part-time classes at a university. The head of the department of that university was Mary's supervisor in her MA programme and one of her cohorts from the programme told him that Mary was looking for some classes to teach, which led her to an interview. The following year, Mary got a full-time contract position at the university.

4.5.3 Classes that Mary Enjoys Teaching

Mary has repeated the similar style of class that she enjoys teaching. She has been continuing the same style since she was teaching in a high school.

“In my second year of teaching, I had a group of high school second year students. It was at an international school, they allowed me to do whatever I wanted to do. I didn’t have to follow a set curriculum. So what I decided to do was to have the student read a book.... oh yeah, the students were in the 11th grade and they would go to Okinawa to learn about what happened in the war. So, I sort of broadened the topic... I found a really good book about child soldiers. So we read that book and learned about child soldiers. I had a friend and it just happened that I was telling her about the classes and she said ‘oh, I was in Sierra Leone a few years after the war.’ She was working for the UN right after the civil war. And then I had her do a presentation for my class. Then there is this really good movie called ‘Blood Diamond’ that’s also sort of about child solders and child slaves working in diamond mines in Africa. So I had the students watch that which was emotionally draining for them and draining for me too but the school didn’t oppose to the idea. [After reading the book and watching the movie] I had the students do group presentations on a topic related to child soldiers. They had a poster and it came out fantastic and the students... they were really good, they learnt a lot, they really tried hard. I had one of them who had decided to work for the UN afterwards. So, that was my, the closest to my heart. well. The students were amazing the project was good it was a really good experience.”

Mary does something similar with the classes she teaches at the university level. With the class she meets three times a week for the whole year, in the first semester, the students study the textbook together along with small projects and presentations. As the textbook contains many units that cannot be finished in one semester, in the second semester, she puts the students in groups and have each choose the unfinished units and have them teach for the whole 90-minute class. Students use the textbook for half of the class and in the other half they do the tasks that they have prepared. The tasks

are similar to what Mary did in the first semester. The students would set up a group discussion followed by short presentations.

Therefore, the first half of the second semester is spent on students working and preparing in their groups. Mary's role is to introduce the content, set the task, explain what the students had to do, and all the other time was spent on supporting individual students or groups. To Mary, this was the most important. Depending on the proficiency level, students would not always use English during the preparation stage of the project but Mary does not push them too much to use English as they would be learning other skills in the class, for example being able to work in a group, research skills, material preparation skills whether it is making PowerPoint slides or posters. Their final teaching class, when the group responsible had to teach the entire 90 minutes was always done all in English.

4.5.4 Teachers that Mary Remembers Well

When asked about a teacher that Mary remembers well, she instantly replied that it was her mother.

"When someone asks about teachers I've had, I always think of my mother."

In addition to teaching Mary, her friends and Mary's sister and friends, her mother also taught other children. As a teacher, she was very strict especially in terms of doing homework and being serious in working hard for the class. One thing that she remembers clearly is that when students came without doing homework, her mother would be so angry asking them why they even bothered to come to class and whether they realised how much their parents were paying for their education. She was strict in terms of insisting the students work hard and why they have to work hard. She was, however, warm, kind, and caring during the classes. Her mother's teaching approaches now have changed since when Mary took her classes,

"When we were kids we had fun classes but once we grew up, in high school, most of the class was drills, we did speaking but drills. So this has helped me get good test taking skills. I haven't taken a test in a long time, but I think I can still do it. At my undergraduate school [in

Japan], I had to take English classes, but I took TOEFL and got a very, very high score without studying and I got the credits and didn't have to attend the classes. Also, I passed the Ikkyu [1st grade Japanese language exam equivalent to TOEFL] without studying. It was the test taking skills and just a bit of language knowledge that I had, which I think was trained through my mother's drills."

Mary's memories of her mother's teaching practices still remain very clearly within her.

4.5.5 Description of a 'Good' Teacher

A good teacher for Mary is someone that cares for the students. They would make sure that the students understand what and why they need to study what they are studying and would make sure that the students are following the lesson.

"A good teacher is someone like how my mother was to me and all the students she taught."

4.5.6 Description of a 'Bad' Teacher

Mary gave three examples of bad teachers that she had as a student. One is a French teacher that she had in high school.

"She was a horrible teacher. But also, we were terrible students. High school students are generally horrible, right? We made fun of her personal mannerism too. But her teaching methods were not quite similar to my mother's.... they probably had the same approach, but the way she did it was awful. Now that I think of it, the big difference was that mother always cared about her students while she did not. She went through the materials and just repeated the things she had done for many years.

Another example was the computer science teacher Mary had in high school. She was really young and was an example of what Mary puts it as "do not teach if you cannot teach".

“She was probably one of those computer science teachers that became a teacher because she could not get a job in an IT company. In classroom, she could not explain anything, neither what the students needed to do nor computer science principles and ideas. Half the time, she had the students who did well to explain to the others in the class by saying ‘You are really good at this so you explain to your classmates.’ Those students that really well were students like... who later went to get a degree from MIT or get prizes in mathematics Olympics. Most students didn’t understand and she didn’t care if the class understood anything. She was just a terrible teacher.”

The final example was math and chemistry teachers that she had. Mary fell behind in those two subjects early on and she felt that it was her fault for not being good enough. However, she later realised that it may have been the teachers’ fault. She remembers that it was not just her that could not keep up with the classes, but neither of the teachers bothered to stop to make sure that the students were following what was taught in the classes; they just taught to possibly 10 to 15 percent of the class.

4.5.7 Experience of Studying a Foreign Language

Mary started learning English as a foreign language from her early childhood with the influence of her mother who taught English. Because she started at an early age, she did not have any struggles. She learnt English through her mother’s approach to studying a grammar point first and then doing drills, which Mary enjoyed. Drills was a popular method around that time. Mary thinks that her test-taking skills were developed through doing these drills. She was able to get high scores on TOEIC, which became useful as she was exempted from attending English classes in university due to the score. She was also able to pass the First-grade Japanese proficiency exam, which a lot of non-Japanese people have difficulty in passing. She thinks that the test-taking skills and maintaining concentration during the exams were developed through drills.

4.5.8 Struggles of Studying as a Student

Though Mary was good at learning languages, especially because she had started at an early age, she struggled with science and maths in high school. She did not have any problem in junior high school, which she mentioned that it was a school good for humanities but not for math or science. According to Mary, in her home country, students have to choose whether to focus on humanities or science in high school. Upon choosing her high school, Mary, with her parents, decided to study math and computer science because they thought that it would be useful for her future, and because Mary had already studied English with her mother at home. This was around the time when computers were starting to become more available to people. However, she later regretted the choice as this was when she encountered the bad teachers previously described. She has never been able to overcome her dislike for a scientific topic.

“My husband [who works in a scientific research institution] sometimes talks about certain principles but I really have to focus on it to understand. I completely lost my interest and ability in sciences. I thought it was my fault, but now I think of it, it was because the teachers didn’t make sure that the students were following the classes. I’m sure it’s not just me.”

4.5.9 Usefulness of the Teaching Related Programme Completed

Of the two programmes that Mary has completed, she finds the TESOL certificate programme to be really useful even now in that it has formed the basis of her current teaching. The first half of the programme consisted of a theoretical component, but the second half was mostly practical. Mary learned a lot of techniques and also had the opportunity to go to one of the high schools that were affiliated to the university to do a one-week practicum, and a lot of that was based on project-based teaching. Almost 10 years after completing the programme, this continues to be Mary’s main teaching approach, described in section 4.5.3.

4.5.10 Difficulties in Teaching in Japanese HEIs

Mary finds it difficult to have the students speak as much English as possible in the classrooms.

“Sometimes, I tell my students early on that I can speak Japanese. But when the students talk to me in Japanese, I immediately cut that... How would I explain this. ...the students in Japan has different concept and idea about language classes. In my home country in Eastern Europe, students would switch languages once they step into a language class. Students have the idea that the space is for the language they are learning. I don't feel Japanese students have the same idea. You get used to a language by using it.”

According to Mary, however, Japanese students do not have the same idea. She noticed that students seem to find it difficult to switch languages when they are used to speaking to each other in their first language, especially if they know each other well.

“I don't think it's an ability issue. Students are probably not used to the idea. Before they get to university, all English classes are in Japanese, and it's rare for the students to speak in English. That's one of my theories for now.”

Mary has not yet come up with a solution to this difficulty that she faces.

4.6 Participant Hana

4.6.1 Profile

Hana is Japanese, in her mid-forties and currently works as a full-time non-tenured lecturer working on a five-year limited contract. She has two master's degrees, but neither is related to education or TESOL. She completed her first master's degree in the USA. The interview took place at her office in the afternoon on 8 February 2018. Follow-up inquiries were made over a short face-to-face meeting and e-mail correspondence. Table 4.5 shows the summary of Hana's background.

Table 4.5 Summary of Hana’s Profile

Gender	Female
Age group	45-50
Years teaching in Japanese universities	14 years
Undergraduate degree	Humanities
Graduate degree	MA Humanities MA Intercultural communication
Employment status	Adjunct
Current position	Lecturer
Foreign language learning experience	French

4.6.2 English Teaching History and Reason for Becoming a Teacher of English in Japanese HEIs

Hana did not have any intention of becoming a teacher, let alone an EFL teacher. She majored in English literature as an undergraduate and after graduating the university she worked at a company that dealt with art. After working for several years, she left the company and entered a graduate school programme in the United States to pursue her interest in art. After returning to Japan, she could not find work related to art but was offered an opportunity to teach English as a part-time instructor, at a university. She later decided to attend her second master’s degree programme in intercultural communication studies while she worked as a part-time teaching staff at the same university.

“I have never been particularly interested in teaching English, I’m still not. But I continue to be in this profession because the working schedule works out well for me to take care of my children and my family. But I thought that having a degree related to what I was doing would be useful... and maybe necessary. I still couldn’t get myself to do a TESOL or TEFL so I decided to enroll in a master’s programme in intercultural communication studies. I thought this would still let me maintain the connections and interest I had in art. I wrote my dissertation in a topic that as close enough to English language.”

4.6.3 Classes that Hana Enjoys Teaching

Hana classified the classes she enjoys teaching in three categories; one that she enjoys teaching related to her own interest specifically, art, culture, and intercultural communication, one that

she does not necessarily like the content but enjoys the vibes in the class (e.g. relationship with the students) and one that she is confident in teaching.

“By being confident, I mean the classes I teach and I feel I can contribute to the students’ learning in some way.”

This comment probably came from the fact that she has not specifically studied or have received training in language teaching.

As an example of a class in the first category, she described in detail a class that she has taught; “English through drama” class.

“In this class, the students wrote their own script and performed it in front of others [not just the class but as an event on campus] as their final project. In reaching this goal, I set up activities in which the students, that were in different years and majoring in different subjects, would get to know each other and would be able to enjoy studying and working with English. I helped the students to work together on their scripts for the performance. The university had a room available that have mirrors in the room, and the students would practice in the room in preparing for the final performance.”

During the interview, Hana emphasised many times that she focused on students being able to have fun. She mentioned that teaching this class was not completely free from problems or troubles. Though she has not taught at universities outside Japan and cannot specifically compare, she felt that the students were reserved and found it difficult to make the students active and also had a few students drop out in the middle of the course. Some students in the final year of the undergraduate school were having difficulty balancing classwork and job hunting, and some were having difficulty in preparing the script for the final performance although the requirement was initially mentioned to them. Hana repeatedly mentioned that she felt it was important for the students to enjoy the class, and to use and study English. Therefore, in an attempt to overcome the problems, she really encouraged

the students by praising them, especially to those that were really quiet and reserved. Prior to having the students work on the final performance, Hana had the students practice gestures and chants so that the students would be familiarised with performing in English. These activities are intended to combat the “Japanese characteristics” of the students, and to enable them to get used to each other. She thought that they would be able to overcome their shyness of communicating and performing in front of the others. Students would meet outside class to practice, they had dress rehearsals, and they also made flyers for the performance to distribute on the university campus. Though they did not have time to prepare the background for the stage, Hana used the projected background on a screen using the images on the computer.

The class in the second category that Hana enjoys teaching is because of the relationship she has managed to establish with some of the students. She mentioned that she, because of her personality, becomes like “friends” with her students.

“I actually don’t mind too much if students treat me like their friends. I feel it helps establish rapport with the students and that way students can ask questions to her easily and frankly state their opinions.”

She added that she sometimes feels sorry for her students because of the lack of her own knowledge on English grammar and not knowing the “right” way to teach them the English language and for the fact that she tends to skip the details of English grammar as she has not really been good at them herself. Additionally, she has thought that her advanced level students, which include returnees, students that have studied abroad, or have a mixed background, may benefit more by learning from native speakers of English. She, however, does not think that teachers that have completed a TESOL or TEFL degree would be a better teacher overall.

4.6.4 Teachers that Hana Remembers Well

When asked about a teacher that Hana remembers well from when she was a student, Hana instantly described her teacher from elementary school.

“I was not particularly good at doing anything but when I was in my third grade, my Japanese language teacher praised me for the way I read aloud the textbook with emotions. This happened more than once, and the teacher put her signature to the way I read aloud using my name, and told me that I should consider my future career as an announcer on TV.

Hana remembers this story well as she was not used to being praised, especially, in front of the others.

4.6.5 Description of a ‘Good’ Teacher

After pointing out that the meaning of a ‘good’ teacher changes at different stages of life, as their expectations and the roles will not be the same. Hana mentioned that a good teacher would be someone that finds and acknowledges the potentials in each student, and help the students become aware of themselves. She was particularly aware of the differences in the meaning of a ‘good’ teacher at each stage as her perspectives are from both from being a teacher and being a mother of two children. Another aspect of a ‘good’ teacher is someone that would be able to increase students’ motivation and to encourage autonomous learning, and would be able to answer the students’ questions. For this, it would be crucial that the teacher is accessible, which may come from a fair attitude and assessment.

4.6.6 Description of a ‘Bad’ Teacher

Hana described a number of qualities that would make someone a ‘bad’ teacher. Firstly, someone that would force students to do certain things. Secondly, someone that cannot give a clear explanation. This refers to clear instructions in classrooms on how to do certain things as well as explaining the reasons for classroom activities. Hana referred to one of the English classes that she had attended as a student, and she described it as being quite boring. In that class, the teacher stood in the front of the classroom and basically did the grammar-translation as he read along with the textbook. She could not really understand the aim of that class. In addition, the students were not

encouraged to either form or express their opinion.

4.6.7 Experience of Studying a Foreign Language

Hana studied French as her second foreign language when she was in university. She, later, studied it by herself and through talking with her colleagues when she started working in the art-related company. Though she was not required to do so, she felt that it would be useful at work.

“I studied it for myself and by myself. It was a fun experience because I didn’t have any pressure and I could quit whenever I wanted to.”

4.6.8 Struggles of Studying as a Student

Hana could not really think of a time or a subject that she struggled to study as a student. She mentioned that she was not especially smart at one subject, but she did not have difficulty with studying in general.

4.6.9 Difficulties in Working as an EFL Teacher in Japanese HEIs

One difficulty that Hana mentioned is dealing with the students’ quality or characteristics. What she finds the most difficult is not the students that lack in academic skills or low proficiency but those that lack motivation. She finds it possible to establish communication with the former group but with the latter, it is, at most times, not possible to have any communication with them, which makes it difficult for her to proceed with whatever she wishes to do in the class.

“This is not something that applies to difficulty in teaching in Japanese higher education institutions, but there are times that I feel sorry for students in my class when I am assigned to teach a class with high English proficiency”.

She was referring to being assigned classes with high proficiency students. Most of the class consisted of students with an international background, for example, having one or more family members that

are speakers of English, or those that have spent several years outside Japan and are more fluent in speech and more exposed to the language. She thinks that those kinds of students prefer to be taught by native speakers of English rather than herself.

4.7 Participant John

4.7.1 Profile

John is an American full-time non-tenured lecturer, working on a five-year limited contract. He is in his early forties and was on his fifth-year teaching in Japanese HEIs. He took a break for three years when he moved to the UK following his wife doing a graduate degree. During this time, he worked at an international office at a university and completed his second master's degree. The interview took place at a café of his choice on 10 February 2018 and lasted for 50 minutes. Follow-up inquiries for clarification and more detail were made in a short face-to-face meeting and e-mail correspondences. Table 4.6 summarises John's background.

Table 4.6 Summary of John's Profile

Gender	Male
Age group	41-45
Years teaching in Japanese universities	8 years (break from 2014-2017)
Undergraduate degree	Political science
Graduate degree	MA Teaching MA Comparative education
Language teaching related qualifications	None
Employment status	Adjunct
Current position	Lecturer
Foreign language learning experience	Japanese

4.7.2 English Teaching History and Reason for Becoming a Teacher of English in Japanese HEIs

After having a short, informal chat about work in general, John suddenly said

“I was actually going to tell you today that I'm not an ideal participant for your study. I don't and I have never identified myself as an English language teacher. The papers that you sent me [Description of the study and the Informed consent that I had sent to him before the

interview] said study on English language teachers.”

After explaining to him that this study is on teachers that teach English at the university level, he understood and agreed to continue as a participant. He emphasised at different points of the interview that although he teaches English at Japanese universities, he teaches other kinds of classes too, and considers himself as a lecturer and an educational researcher rather than an English teacher.

“So, yeah, I ended up staying in Japan... nine years now and teaching English in Japan.... I’ve completely changed my life course.”

John originally was interested in working for an international corporation but after finishing his degree in political science as an undergraduate, he said that he had become a “peaceful anarchist, like Gandhi”, and lost his interest in working for any kind of corporation or government organisation. He wanted to become an activist but realised that being an activist would not support his living. He recalls why he decided on becoming a teacher as,

“I thought it was a cool way to inspire activism in people. So, it’s a form of activism, in a way. But the ‘international’ part stuck with me.”

John, then, decided to become a teacher at an international school and enrolled in a graduate programme to acquire a master’s degree in teaching. After completing his MA, he worked as a substitute teacher at an elementary school in the US for one year.

“Then I found out that one needs to have at least two years of full-time teaching experience in his own country, to become a teacher at an international school. I wasn’t willing to wait for another year working at that elementary school. It was around that time that I found out about the JET programme [explained in section 1.4.3] and applied for it. I wanted to leave the US. I also had interest in Japan. I saw a Karate movie when I was eight years old. And

when I was in high school, I participated in a two weeks' study abroad. I visited Tokyo and Osaka and I also studied some Japanese language. But I didn't see much reasons in continuing the studies because I won't be using it I quit after 4 years of studying the language in high school and one quarter while in university."

After joining the JET programme (explained in section 1.4.2) and having lived in Japan for a while, he discovered that with his master's degree, he was eligible to apply for teaching positions at the university level. Therefore, though it was not his initial plan to teach English in Japanese universities, with his life circumstances and interest in the country, he applied and got the job and stayed in the country. Though he still pursued his interest in becoming an elementary school level teacher in an international school in Japan, he was, again, required to have had 2 years of full-time teaching experience in his home country. Teaching English in Japanese universities is not what he wanted to do, but he appreciates the free time that allows him to have in his daily life and ended up staying in Japan for nine years, and unexpectedly keeping the same profession.

4.7.3 Classes that John Enjoys Teaching

John's favourite English class to teach is Advanced English that he recently finished teaching. What was special about this class was that the class met more frequently than the other classes that he had taught; the class met twice a week for 28 weeks throughout the year (two successive semesters). John had been used to teaching classes that met once a week for fourteen weeks that were held for only one semester. As he was originally trained to and having taught at a primary school, teaching this class brought him back the memory.

"It reminded me, in some ways, of when I was a teacher in the US, where you have a group of students that you see every day, all year, I can really watch them grow, it's your job to, really, you know, get to see that they are progressing."

Another factor that John enjoyed teaching this class was that because of the students' high proficiency

level of English, he felt that he was able to give them tasks that may be challenging for them.

“It didn’t feel like I was teaching English language per se. I taught them research skills, how to write an academic paper, and do secondary research, how to work in groups, and do primary research. Through all that, the students used English, and I think they benefited and improved their English skills too. A lot of the times, I told the students ‘OK, this is what you guys are going to do.’ and I would facilitate and help as needed, so it wasn’t necessarily 90 minutes of each class of me doing things, teaching in terms of directed instructions. I felt I had the freedom to be creative when I was teaching this class. Again, this is perhaps connected to how I don’t identify myself as an English instructor but my ultimate goal for teaching any types of class is to help students realise that they have power in their own ideas and help them realise the power of learning and realise that they can teach themselves anything that they want. I try to teach people to be more fully human, to realise they can develop themselves, not just for future jobs, but to have more fulfilling lives. And with this class, I feel I could do that.”

He explained that he tries to inspire the students and get excited about what they are studying, he would have the students come up with their own topics to research and figure out systematic ways to find the answers through conducting research, which includes how to find primary, secondary sources to find the answers to the topics and the questions of their choice.

4.7.4 Teachers that John Remembers Well

John mentioned three teachers that he remembers well from when he was a student. First is Mr. J that he had as an advance language arts teacher in high school.

“He’s a brilliant guy and had a bit of a rebellious spirit in him. We studied Shakespeare... and all kinds of stuff, I don’t remember what we studied in class... I don’t care about most teachers. He came into the classroom with a big earring in his ear. And he didn’t talk about it.

He introduced me to Ghandi... It's so annoying I don't remember much about him. A lot of the people that I'm interested did not seem to be interested in money and more interested in social change and improving the world. Made me think I wanted to be like that. Now that I'm grown up, I don't think the same way."

The second teacher he remembers well is Professor R that John had for his political ideology class in his undergraduate school. John remembers Professor R well for the fact that he was a good lecturer. He gave an example that he clearly remembers. When introducing the principles of communism, Professor R came into the classroom wearing a red tie, screamed and pounded on the desk.

"At the end of the class, I was a communist. Completely. I felt, yes, you've convinced me. He completely sold the ideology."

And on a different occasion, in introducing a different ideology, Professor R walked into the classroom wearing a different coloured tie and completely destroyed all the arguments from the previous week and convince you "Oh no, that's not the way. I'm going to be a neo-liberal capitalist", for example. John was impressed with the professor's good lecturing and his way to really entertain that class.

The third teacher that John remembers well is professor F whom he had for his political inquiry class in his undergraduate school. In addition to his interest in the content of the class itself, which was studying the different kinds of social theories, professor F was attractive in a way that he, himself, was an activist. He would go on a march with the Mexican farmers in the local community and asked his students if they wanted to join him.

"He helped me connect what happens with the university and in the world, I would say. He was very influential with my political beliefs and becoming an anarchist although I don't identify myself as an anarchist anymore."

4.7.5 Description of a ‘Good’ Teacher

John described a good teacher as someone that is entertaining, in the way that they are excited and passionate about what they are teaching. He thinks that it is important in the sense that it helps the students to enjoy being in the classrooms and for the students to remember you. In addition, he raised two more qualities of a good teacher who are engaging and have awareness. A good teacher would try and find something to connect with a student that is a bit different from the others.

“For example, the ones that are a bit geeky. I try to find something to connect with that kind of students and have a chat... ‘Oh, you like this? I like this and that.’ There was a kid that likes really dark metal, heavy metal. And one day in class, I just blasted this really big band called Lightning Ball. Half the class looked shocked but that one student loved it. Now he talks to me about that band.”

John also noted that there are also some students that would rather be left alone and sit away from the others, so a good teacher would be aware of such students too. This shows that you care and respect the students as humans.

4.7.6 Description of a ‘Bad’ Teacher

For John, a bad teacher is someone that is ineffective; not engaging, and boring. He understands that it may not completely be the teachers’ fault, and mentioned the limitations due to the classroom setting, for example, teachers expected to teach in a giant lecture hall. However, he described a bad teacher giving an example that he heard from one of his students talking about a class that he took.

“In that class, the teacher showed PowerPoint slides that were crammed with words and basically read them, which made the student feel he’d rather be in a café reading a book. I’ve actually also witnessed a classroom in which I saw the blackboard covered with chalk [words written on the board]. I just wondered how long it took the teacher to fill up

the board while the students waited.”

Another factor of a bad teacher that he added was those that would care only about students that are always sitting in the front of the classroom and raising their hands. This leads the other students to get switched off and not being aware of how your lesson is being received by the whole class.

4.7.7 Experience of Studying a Foreign Language

John studied Japanese as a foreign language but does not remember much about how he was taught. He remembers the poor classroom management in high school and being forced to learn 50 *Kanji*[*ideographic in Japanese writing system*] every week for his class in university, which he thought was intensive and could not see the purpose of studying them back then. He does, however, remember that he was called in by his university teacher and being encouraged not to quit.

“Sorry, I don’t really remember about how I was taught a foreign language at any point, besides that I felt all of that was pretty ineffective.”

4.7.8 Struggles of Studying as a Student

John did not really struggle with his studies as a student. However, he found his economics class in his first year of university difficult. The class met at 9 am in the morning for four days a week. And he never saw any purpose or connection to life. He neither enjoyed the class or cared. He went on to describe a similar experience he had with his math classes.

“I did okay in math. But I always compared myself to my long-time friend and university room mate who was great in math and I always felt like many people that have low self-efficacy about certain things, so I just always thought bad at math. And because I had already decided that I was bad at learning math, I found it to be a struggle. And I always questioned ‘Why so much math?’ and ‘What’s the point of doing trigonometry and when

are we ever going to use that?'

John recently read a post, which he could not agree more with, on how one American wished someone had taught him how to do his taxes [because doing taxes in the US is very complicated] instead of being taught trigonometry.

"I also struggled with economics class in university because I didn't see the connection between life and all these things that were taught in the class. I didn't overcome the economics struggles, just barely passed the class and then kind of gave up on the idea of economics. I won't ever take an economics class ever again."

4.7.9 Usefulness of the Teaching-related Programme Completed

John completed a Master's programme in teaching and strongly thinks that it has been useful in his teaching.

"Yes, yes, yes. 100% yes. Well, this is again connected to why I don't identify myself as an English teacher, but I definitely identify myself as a teacher."

Because of having completed the programme, he thinks that he could teach anything if he was given the time and the chance to learn something. His confidence comes from the experience of having learnt the basic skills that are necessary to teach something. He refers to those skills such as lesson planning, unit planning, assessment, and classroom management. He also took a class on culturally responsive teaching that dealt with teaching a class with students of varied cultural backgrounds and using those backgrounds to inform instruction.

4.7.10 Difficulties in Teaching in Japanese HEIs

One difficulty that John feels teaching in Japanese universities is not related to the classroom matters but the job itself.

“It’s the fact that it’s almost impossible or it’s incredibly difficult to work full-time, to get a full-time job, to be respected in the same way that full-time administrative staffs or tenured professors are.”

He finds it inefficient not just for himself but for the professors and administrators to have to go through the hiring routine every year. He struggles to understand why a lot of the teachers are hired for limited contract years when they are getting good results and not causing any problems, and finds it demotivating and makes him care less for the university he works at. This was, in fact, one of the reasons why he had left Japan in the past. Though he really cares for his students, he said that this could influence the way he teaches his class in the final year of his contract as he would need to find his next job, which would take more priority.

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter has provided the profile and the summary of the participants’ stories categorised according to the main theme and the sub-themes that emerged as explained in section 3.11.2. The next chapter will provide the findings from the study.

Chapter5: Findings

5.1 Introduction

This chapter first summarises the participants' background followed by my attempt to address the research questions 1. How have in-service teachers' beliefs formed? And 2. How do the teachers' stated beliefs present themselves in their stated classroom practices? The two questions are addressed through the three main elements of this study, the influence of "apprenticeship of observation", belief, and professional development.

5.2 Participant Background

The participants for this study were selected on a partially purposive basis. As mentioned in section 3.7.2, all the participants are teachers at HEIs in Japan, which was the primary criterion for selecting the participants. Another selection criterion was for them to have a variety of backgrounds both academic and cultural. Five of the participants are not Japanese local and interviews with the participants revealed that only one of the participants originally had the intention of becoming a language teacher prior to arriving in Japan. Such may not be an exceptional situation, considering how the hiring for English language teachers in Japanese HEIs was conducted starting around the early 1990s. Harbord (1992) describes the situation when young people that were visiting from Europe to EFL/ESL countries decided to become English teachers as a casual career, as they would be easily accepted to teach there (p.350). Several participants in this study mentioned a similar situation when describing the reasons for the how their teaching career in Japanese HEIs began.

Even including the only local Japanese participant, Hana, there was little variation in the reasons for becoming an EFL teacher in Japanese HEIs. In other words, they were accidental teachers.

What they had in common is that becoming an EFL teacher in Japan was mainly for convenience reasons. For the non-local participants, except for one, the main reason was to leave their own country for various reasons, and English teaching positions in Japan were easily found before they made the decision, regardless of the educational background. Table 5.1 summarises the participants' background. It was just Peter, Mary and John that had academic background in education. Of the three, it was just Mary, when specifically limiting to academic background in

language education.

Mary, had always known that she would choose teaching as her career. One of the main reasons for this is that her mother is an English teacher, not at a school but teaching students at her house. Therefore, Mary had always seen her mother at work as well as being taught by her. None of the other participants had a close family member in the teaching occupation. Tom's brother and sister currently teach at a primary school in the UK; however, that was after Tom had left the country and started working in Japan. Therefore, Tom was not influenced by his family background.

All the participants have experience in studying a foreign language, in their own country when they were young and after entering university, and obviously, after moving to Japan, they studied Japanese. Mary had already studied Japanese before her arrival. They have all experienced what the students they currently teach are experiencing.

Interest in becoming a language teacher prior to arriving in Japan can also be seen from the participant's academic background. Mary was the only one that chose to study language teaching as an undergraduate major and had decided on completing a Master's degree in language teaching before actually starting to teach in Japanese HEIs. John after deciding to become a teacher completed his first Master's degree in Education, also prior to arriving in Japan. The other participants decided to study TESOL or a programme closely related to teaching English after they started their teaching career in Japan. Some decided to get a degree so they will have more likelihood in finding a job and others for the purpose of professional development. They felt that they needed to know more and to study in order for them to become a better teacher.

Three participants, Peter, Mary, and John had teaching experience in a formal educational institution prior to starting their career in Japanese HEIs. Mary had taught in a Japanese high school after completing her master's degree and the TESOL certificate programme. John also had a year of experience of teaching at an elementary school in the United States prior to arriving in Japan on a JET programme (see section 1.4.2) and taught at a local junior high school. These two participants had both academic background, practical teaching experience in a teaching-related programme, and teaching experience in the area of English language teaching prior to teaching in Japanese HEIs. Peter

had taught music in a high school in the United States, though not the English language, he had some teaching experience. The others started teaching without any training or having studied education or attending a teacher training programme.

Table 5.1 Participant background summary

Participant	Age Group	Teaching experience in Japanese HEIs	Academic background	Employment status	Current position	Foreign language learning experience
Tom (NS)	46-50	16 years (Since 2001)	-BA Geography -MLitt International Security Studies -MA Applied Linguistics & TESOL	Tenured	Associate Professor	French Japanese
Peter (NS)	51-60	31 years (Since 1986)	-BA Music Education -MA TESOL	Part-time	Part-time	French, German Spanish, Italian Japanese
Michael (NS)	36-40	10 years (Since 2007)	-BA Mathematics -MA TESOL	Semi-Tenured	Lecturer	Irish French Japanese
Mary (NNS)	36-40	9 years (Since 2008)	-BA Linguistics -MA Socio-linguistics and Language Education -TESOL Certificate	Semi-Tenured	Lecturer	French Japanese
Hana (NNS)	45-50	14 years (Since 2003)	-BA Humanities -MA Humanities -MA Intercultural Communication	Contract	Lecturer	French
John (NS)	41-45	8 years (Since 2010 break for 3 years 2014-2017)	-BA Political Science -MA Teaching -MA Comparative education -PhD Comparative education (candidate)	Contract	Lecturer	Japanese

NS: Native Speaker of English

NNS: Non-Native Speaker of English

5.3 Influence of “Apprenticeship of Observation”

This section looks into whether “apprenticeship of observation” had an influence on the formation of the participants’ teacher beliefs and how it appears in their classroom practices.

5.3.1 Beliefs Influenced by “Apprenticeship of Observation”

Participants shared both positive and negative memories of the teachers that they have had both in formal and informal education. Five participants: Peter, Mary, Hana, and John shared positive memories about their teachers at different stages of their education. Michael described negative memories. Table 5.2 shows the stage of education the participants were at when they had the teacher that they had shared the stories and whether they had a positive or negative memory of them.

Table 5.2 Memory of Teachers

Participant	Stage of Education	Positive or negative impression
Tom	Elementary school Adulthood	NA Negative
Peter	Secondary school	Positive
Michael	Secondary school	Negative
Mary	Early childhood High school	Positive Negative
Hana	Elementary school	Positive
John	Undergraduate	Positive

5.3.1.a Beliefs Formed through Positive Memories

The stories of the teachers that participants remembered and shared were those that have influenced them and gave them positive memories. Mary decided her future career to be a teacher at a very young age with the influence of her mother who was also a teacher. She referred to her mother throughout the interview, especially on how caring her mother was to all her students. The teacher that Peter shared was someone that had made him decide his major for his undergraduate degree. Besides teaching English at Japanese HEIs, Peter continues to teach music at elementary schools in Japan. Hana also recalled a teacher that had praised and encouraged her in elementary school, who encouraged her and made her realise that she is good at something. Being made aware of something that she had not thought about, this experience made her think that she might actually like studying.

The three teachers that John remembers well had an impact on him in many ways such as becoming a short-time anarchist, being exposed to various ideologies, and to experience passionate classes. One of them had such a strong impact that it made him look at the world from a different point of view. In addition, he had influenced John on thinking about his career after graduating from university. John remembers the teachers because they were all excited and passionate about what they teach, and made him think that it was because of these elements that students enjoy being in the classroom.

Though the participants described in their own way, one common feature of the positive memories of the teachers that they shared was that they were good teachers in that they were caring. Michael mentioned in the interview:

“As a teenager, it would probably be rare that they feel a teacher would inspire them. What I remember more about the teachers are whether they were caring or not and their teaching styles and practices.”

John described two ways that a good teacher would care for the students

“To me a good teacher is someone that knows when to attend to the students and when to leave them alone.”

Five participants elaborated on how a good teacher would care for their students or would put the students first. Day et al. (2005) asserted that the students’ motivation, attitudes towards learning, and influenced by the amount of teachers’ commitment. Mary, referring to her mother as an example, mentioned that a good teacher would scold the students because they care for them. With her own experience from childhood, she added that it was crucial that a good teacher would make sure that the students understand what is being taught. Peter described the importance of being able to build a suitable relationship with the students. He also pointed out that students would be able to share their thoughts and their feedback on the class to the teacher if they feel they could do that and that the

teachers are willing to listen to them. This is important for both the teachers and the future students that would take the class. Teachers would be given an opportunity to reflect on their teaching leading to improvements in the class, which will benefit students that they will teach in the future. This feature also relates to what Tom mentioned as a good teacher having the ability to learn from their own teaching experience.

Another feature that showed to address a good teacher was the ability to focus on the students. Peter described the necessity to be aware of the students' needs with his example of the music teacher he had who would listen to the students when they were having difficulty in singing a certain part of the song. After listening to the students, she was able to fix the problem that they were having. Similarly, John mentioned that a good teacher would attempt to find something to connect with the students. Neither the teachers nor the students, in most cases, get to choose what kind of students to teach, or who to be with in the class. Teachers would need to identify what is relevant for the students and to look at the class as a whole and not only certain individuals.

5.3.1.b Beliefs Formed through Negative Memories

Table 5.2 shows that some participants, Michael and Mary, shared negative memories of the teachers that they had. Michael mentioned in the interview:

“I have thought about my own experience of learning a foreign language so that I could remember what it was like and how I felt.”

Michael did not enjoy studying Irish when he was a student, mostly because he did not enjoy learning the language. It was not that he had problems with learning a foreign language as he mentioned that he enjoyed learning French in his secondary school. The main difference between the two experiences he had was how the classes were taught. Irish was taught focusing on grammar and text-focused activities and did not include communicative activities. French was taught in a communicative way, which was a positive learning experience for Michael. He recalled in the interview that though he had no idea that he would choose to become a language teacher when he had

the teacher for his Irish class in secondary school (see section 4.4.4), however;

“I remember thinking that if I were to become a teacher, I would avoid doing things that he did.”

This may have had some influence on Michael making his classes more student-centred rather than him taking the initiative in the classroom. He felt that his teachers did not care for the students when they did not communicate with the students. Therefore, Michael lets his students know that he is available to them and to assist them in completing their tasks (see section 4.4.5).

Mary struggled to study subjects in the science field, which she asserted that it was mainly because her teacher for those subjects were not competent enough. For the computer science class that she took in high school, she described the teacher as terrible.

“She was really one of those examples of if you can’t teach, don’t teach and it was really sad to think that people who are not good in their field to become teachers. So, basically, computer science teachers, who have graduated from university would have been forced to take[a] teaching license as well, so they could teach. And she couldn’t get a job in an IT company so she ended up being a teacher.”

Mary found that the teacher could not explain what the students needed to do in class, or the computer science principles and ideas. Nor did she make sure if the students understood her or not. This was also the case for the math, chemistry, and physics teachers that she had in high school. As seen in the following quote in her interview, the teacher’s lack of ability to meet the needs of the majority of the class made Mary have negative impressions about her teachers.

“The teachers just taught to the 10-15% [of the class] that would keep up. And they never bothered to stop to make sure that the rest of us could follow... They just went ahead and I

can't imagine that they would leave half the class not understanding that... Maybe they just didn't care... And maybe some didn't realise that [many students were not keeping up with the class.]”

The following Table 5.3 summarises the participants’ perceptions of what constitutes a ‘good’ and ‘bad’ teacher based on their experience as students.

Table 5.3 Participants’ perceptions of factors of ‘good’ and ‘bad’ teachers

Factors of ‘good’ teachers	Factors of ‘bad’ teachers
Caring (paying attention to the students) Awareness towards the students’ needs Maintaining suitable relationship with students Efficiency (ability to explain to the students) Efficiency (classroom management)	Teaching what the teacher wants to teach Caring for certain students only Inconsistency in the instructions Inappropriate desk layout

5.3.2 Beliefs Influenced by Limited period of “Apprenticeship of Observation”

During the interview, all the participants shared stories of the teachers that they had in their formal education. Lortie (2002) noted the number of hours spent with the teacher as a factor for the “apprenticeship of observation”, and this may be why the participants remembered more about the teachers in their formal education. However, as seen in Table 5.2 above, and the stories that Tom shared in section 4.2.4, he could not recall any positive or negative memories of the teachers that he had in his formal education. Though he mentioned that he remembers more about the teachers in his earlier education, he does not remember enough that he could share anything. He shared what he remembers about the few activities that he did in class and as an extracurricular activity with a teacher but nothing about the teachers’ classroom practices or what he liked or did not like about the teachers that he had.

However, later in his story, Tom did share his memory and experience of being a student in the Japanese language class that he attended for a very short time. Lortie (2002) did not specifically state the number of years to consider the “apprenticeship of observation”, therefore considering Tom’s short observation period, his experience might be counted as a limited “apprenticeship of observation.”

From the way he was taught in his Japanese language school that he attended, Tom assumed that the teacher most probably had not *really* studied a second language, and that since the teacher was a rather elderly lady, had completely forgotten what it was like to study a language. Tom mentioned at the end of the interview:

“I’ve always found it surprising that someone can really learn trying to teach a language if you don’t understand from the learners’ perspective.”

Tom particularly seemed to consider it important for the teachers themselves to have an experience of learning another language in order for them to understand the students’ experience. Tom is not alone with this perspective towards language teaching. Many teacher trainers feel the importance of language learning experience in becoming a language teacher (e.g. Golebiowska, 1985; Lowe, 1987, Rinvoluceri, 1988). Hyde (2000) writes that they share “a conviction that foreign language teachers need to experience or re-experience what it is like to be a foreign language learner, whether at beginner or other levels” (p.265). She further expands the discussion to some of the benefits of teachers studying a second language. Three benefits that she considers that can be gained from teachers learning a language are: being able to have the “increased awareness of students’ often unexpressed learning preferences and needs” (p.268), “a chance to see a language from the outside” (p.268), and “a chance to gain intercultural understanding” (p. 269). Waters, Sunderland, Bray, et al. (1990) note that even though the language learning experience may be for a limited time, it is possible for the teachers’ language learning experience to serve important functions in order to develop professionally. “in particular, its potential for enhancing understanding of classroom events, as viewed from the learner’s perspective” (p.305). All of these provide teachers to reflect on and to give considerations to when they teach.

Hyde (2000) emphasises, “foreign language teachers experience or re-experience what it is like to be a foreign language teacher, whether at beginner or other levels.” (p.265). Hence, many teachers believe that a language learning experience as an important part of becoming or being a teacher. Hyde

(2000) also raises some benefits of teachers studying a language, which include “increased awareness of students’ often unexpressed learning preferences and needs”, “a chance to see a language from the outside,” and “a chance to gain intercultural understanding” (p268-269). Waters, Sunderland, Bray, & Allwright (1990) also mention that the teachers’ language learning experience has a “potential for enhancing understanding of classroom events as viewed from the learner’s perspective” and that it is widely recognized (p.305).

Similarly, looking at the “apprenticeship of observation” in a broader sense, Tom observes his colleagues teaching in their classrooms as part of his job, and he saw some practices that made him think that he hopes that he was not doing in his classes.

“So, I’ve watched quite a lot of teacher over the past huge years. It seems to make a huge difference just how you set things up in terms of the physical layout of the classroom. I’ve seen some layouts that, for me looked a bit too teacher-centred. And I wondered if the students would be comfortable in the class. I have mine set up in groups of four, where the students can work together, and easy to switch people around and it works well and smoothly. Logistically.”

Connel (2009) and Harris and Sass (2009) mention that the conception of a *good teacher* is often discussed in relation to the issues of accountability, quality of teaching and the teachers’ productivity.

5.3.3 Participants’ Beliefs Identified through “Apprenticeships of Observation”

While one participant shared about their non-linguistic class, the others shared their experience of their language classes. Nevertheless, to sum up, as a result of either positive or negative experience of the participants’ “apprenticeship of observation” it has led them to believe that to be caring, be able to focus on the students, and being efficient to be important in teaching.

5.4 Influence of Professional Development Programmes

Table 5.5 below shows that the participants in this study completed their degrees in education

or in English language teaching at different times of their teaching career. Professional development is often considered as having a significant influence in affecting professional identities because of its role it has in developing the skills and knowledge of teachers (Craft, 2000; Guskey, 2000 et al.). Of the six participants in this study, five had completed a degree related to teaching, either specifically in language teaching or teaching in general. Four of them decided to attend the programme after arriving and started their career in teaching. Though the main reason for most of them was for job security, other reasons included professional development in order to make up for their lack of knowledge and experience in teaching and to enable them to become a better teacher.

Table 5.4 Participants' Completion of Teaching-related Programmes

Participant	Type of programme	Practicum	Completion of the programme (Before or after teaching)	Awareness of Influence on their teaching
Tom	Part-time / Online MA TESOL	None	After	Unclear
Peter	Part-time / On site MATESOL	None	After	Weak
Michael	Part-time / Online MA TESOL	None	After	Weak
Mary	Full-time / On site TESOL (certificate)	Yes	Before	Strong
John	Full-time/ On site MA Education	Yes	Before	Strong

5.4.1 Beliefs Influenced by Professional Development Programmes

Of all the participants, Mary and John stated that they were influenced by the teaching-related programme that they completed. Mary strongly believes that her teaching style and her focus in classrooms are influenced by the TESOL certificate programme that she had attended. During the interview, she repeatedly mentioned that the teaching approach that she came across during the programme; task-based language (TBL) teaching with a strong focus on enabling learner autonomy, had heavily influenced her. She emphasised in a follow-up inquiry of the interview that she uses the TBL teaching principle in a lot of the classes that she teaches and not just in the class that she described in the story she shared in the interview.

“I want them [the students] to think, ‘I’m learning, oh by the way it’s in English’. So my goal is to have the students think nothing of English, not even realise that they are speaking in English because they are focusing on other things and learn about something using English as a tool.”

As described in sections 4.5.3 and 4.5.10, Mary’s students do not necessarily speak in English in her classroom. However, due to the TBL teaching principle that she learned in the TESOL programme, she is able to think in a way that “students are able to acquire some other skills”, and as in her quote above, to set the goal of having the students to consider using English as a tool. Mary originally knew that she would be a language teacher before arriving in Japan but because of the unfortunate choice she made, it took her a while to attend a teaching-related programme that satisfied her. She had a strong desire to attend the programme and she may have been more attentive to what happened in the programme.

John mentioned in the interview how helpful he found the programme to be in starting his teaching career,

“I strongly think that my master’s [degree] in teaching has been useful in my current teaching. I have learned the basic skills[e.g. lesson planning and classroom management] to teach, and if I am given the time and to learn something, I will be able to teach it to the students.”

And after saying that he earned the confidence to teach in classrooms with that experience. In the interview, he raised a question,

“Do people that do programmes, for example, TESOLs, do they get to learn about general practical things like classroom management?”

It was not very clear in the interview whether John had always valued or was more aware of the

importance of efficiency in classrooms even before completing his programme, or it was the influence of the programme. However, the above two quotes alone show that he now considers efficiency to be important. Hollingsworth (1989) reports the needs of general classroom management routines to be systemized before a teacher could focus on pedagogy or the content of the class.

5.4.2 Beliefs Not influenced by Professional Development Programmes

Stories shared by Michael, Peter, and Tom did not indicate whether their beliefs were influenced by the teaching-related programme that they completed. What these three participants have in common is that they enrolled in the programme after they started their teaching career. Past research (e.g. Angelova, 2005; Busch, 2010; Kettle & Sellers, 1996; MacDonald, Badger & White, 2001; Murray, 2003) has shown that teacher education programmes have influences on the way pre-service teachers think. Borg (2003) asserts the limited effect of teacher education programmes on teachers because “apprenticeship of observation” having a stronger effect.

Peter mentioned that though he did not think that how he thought about teaching was influenced, he learnt some practical practices, such as preparing supplementary materials. Such cases have been reported in past research that teachers attending a teaching-related programme being influenced in the way of gaining knowledge but unclear about anything else, by the programme he had attended (e.g. Akbari & Dadvand, 2011; Borg, 1999; Cheung & Pennington, 1994; Lammie, 2004; Numrich, 1996; Pennington, 1996; Scott & Rodgersm 1995).

Tom said that there were probably a lot of things that he felt he was “getting stuff” and learned a lot but he apologised and said

“Sorry, nothing comes to mind that I may have been influenced by the MA programme.”

Michael attended an on-line master’s course and the content of the course did not necessarily relate to the practical aspect of his teaching; his course required him to write a lot of research papers. To this point, Ellis (1997) makes a claim that that research on second language acquisition has the potential to influence teachers’ cognitions and personal theories “either by helping them to make

explicit their existing principles and assumptions, thereby opening these up to reflection, by helping them to construct new principles (p.82). Michael mentioned that he was probably influenced by reading articles both when he wrote papers for his programme and during his teaching career after completing his degree. Studies by Kagan (1992), Zeuli (1994) and Borg (2007) found that the influence of reading research articles on the teachers' practices varies. Rankin and Becker (2006), on the other hand, describes how one inexperienced teacher was strongly influenced by reading research articles.

5.4.3 Content of the Professional Development Programmes

Section 5.4.1 and section 5.4.2 discussed difference of the impact that professional development programmes had on the participants. Though the difference may be due to the timing that the participants attended the programme (Borg, 2004), the participants completed different kinds of programmes and this may have generated the difference.

No recent study looking into the components of TESOL programmes could be identified, however; Payant and Murphey (2012) refer to Palmer's (1995) survey results. He referred to the list of graduate programmes listed in Kornblum's (1992) *Directory of Professional Preparation Programmes in the United States*, found that two-thirds of the programmes that had responded to his survey required a practicum or internship showing how widely it was implemented. This, at the same time, brings up the question of the differences of the influence of the programmes to those that do not have practicum as a requirement.

In addition, many researchers assert that teacher education programmes should provide trainees the opportunity to explore their beliefs in relation to pedagogical theories (Burns, 1992; Clarke, 2008; Pan Le Ha, 2008; Tsui, 2007; Woods, 1996). However, some researchers report that teachers in training showed resistance to change their beliefs both during and at the end of the programme (Bramald, Hardman & Lear, 1995; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Peacock, 2001).

5.5 Other Factors Influencing Belief Formation: A born teacher (A natural action)

As described in section 5.2, not all participants had an academic background in teaching or

experience in teaching before they started their careers in Japanese HEIs. Tom and Michael started their teaching career as *Eikaiwa* school instructors, and both mentioned that they were given a ‘crash course’ on the basics of teaching at their respective *Eikaiwa* schools. Michael’s reflection included:

“It was not like a training course, I think it was just a one-day thing, and I don’t remember what we were taught. Just some basics of teaching, I think, like we have to let the students talk.”

Both of these participants emphasised during the interview that they remembered little about their teachers from their formal education. Tom, Hana and Michael, the three participants that did not have any academic background and especially Hana that had absolutely no experience teaching or training did not remember much from when they were students either. During the interview, they took a while before they could share the memories of whether their teaching-related programmes had influenced their idea of teaching or their teaching practices in any way. This shows that they were not dependent on their student memories in their teaching. Consequently, one question that arises is how they managed to teach when they had so little that they could depend on.

Strauss, Calero and Sigman (2014) review two approaches that claim teaching to be a natural action for humans. The first approach, teaching as a natural cognitive ability (TNCA) puts focus on the teachers and emphasise that teachers know how to transmit information to learners (Strauss et al., 2002). The second approach, on the other hand, neglects the existence of teacher and assert that humans come into the world prepared to receive knowledge (Gergely & Csibra, 2006). Strauss, Calero and Sigman (2014) assert in their review that pedagogy should be investigated through the integration of the two approaches. The aforementioned three participants, Tom, Michael and Hana, in this study may have successfully entered the career in Japanese HEIs because it was in Japan. In Japanese education, with the tradition of students being taught in a behaviourist approach, students’ mind is already prepared to receive knowledge (Gergely & Csibra, 2006), along with their innate ability to transmit information to learners (Strauss et al., 2002).

Additionally, John explained that he is convinced that his teaching is based on his various teaching experiences in the past. He does not refer to his experience from when he was a student but to what he has done in the past. He said that there is an idea of path dependency in what he does.

“Well, I did it like that before and that worked so I’ll just do it like that again. I think in reality, there’s something like a tendency of being influenced by the way you’re already done in the past.”

He mentioned, however, that he tries to do new things and to come up with new ideas because that has also been his style.

During the interview, the participants were asked to describe one of the favourite classes to teach and the reasons why they liked to teach that class. The purpose of this was to see what their choices may reflect in their teaching practices, for example, whether it reflects the participants’ experience from their past, or whether it reflects what they consider to be important in EFL education in Japanese HEIs. Though the class could be one that they were teaching at the time of the interview or one that they have taught in the past, all of them chose to talk about a class that they had already finished teaching.

Two participants, Tom and Peter described a class that was related to their previous career and reflect their consideration of the importance of practicality. Tom described a class that is focused on conversation as his favourite class to teach. He chooses to do a lot of role playing in this class.

“I chose to talk about this class for two reasons, one is because a lot of people think that conversation classes are less important and I like to support it from the other side, and secondly because conversations are practical and students need conversation skills more than presentation skills, which seems to be a common stream these days.”

He also acknowledges that his preference may be influenced by the fact that he started off his teaching

career as an *Eikaiwa* instructor. He also used the word “practical” several times while he was sharing his story. The class he described was based on a practical situation that students may encounter when they start working after graduating from the university.

Peter described his presentation class, which he did not hesitate to choose upon being asked about a class that he enjoys teaching. This selection was based on his majoring in music education for his bachelor’s degree and his view of presentation as a form of performance, similar to being on a stage. In addition, he asserted that

“I feel that presentation classes are the most useful for the students’ future. When they start working, they [will] probably have to do a presentation. When they are dealing with customers, it’s always a sort of presentation, and they have to present themselves in an attractive way.”

Similarly, John described his Advanced English class, in which he focuses on practicality. John repeatedly emphasised on him not being an English teacher, but a teacher, and in this class he focuses on helping the students realise the power of learning and that they can teach themselves anything that they want.

“I try to teach people to be more fully human, to realise they can develop themselves, not just for future jobs, but to have more fulfilling lives.”

He tries to inspire the students, as he was inspired by his teachers in undergraduate school.

5.6 Stated -beliefs and its Presence in Classrooms

The second question that this study aimed to address was investigating how the participants’ stated beliefs; what they considered to be important in the classes they taught, presented themselves in their classroom practices.

5.6.1 Focus on Students

5.6.1.a Focus on Practicality and Students' Future

Both Tom and Peter considered the practicality as an important element in teaching their students in Japanese HEIs. They both look beyond the students' future, after graduating from university. Peter noted:

“When they (=students) start working they probably have to do presentations..... When they are dealing with customers, it's always a sort of presentation”

Tom similarly noted:

“I think in life in general, outside of education, we are judged more on our spoken interactions than our written ones.”

John emphasised in the interview that his goal for teaching any type of class is to help the students realise that they have the power of learning and that they can teach themselves anything they want. For this, he tries to inspire students and get them excited about learning.

“I would have the students to come up with their own topics to research and figure out systematic ways to find the answers, research, how to find primary, secondary sources for answers and figure out answers to the topic and their questions.”

The stories the participants shared on the classes they enjoyed teaching reflected their beliefs of the importance of practicality of learning and they detailed on how they prioritized its usefulness after the students graduated from university.

5.6.1.b Learner Autonomy and Student-centred Teaching

All participants except for Peter described their student-centred classes in the interview.

Michael used the word “student-centred” quite a few times during his interview when describing his content-based class. In his class, Michael lets the students take initiative in completing the assignment that he sets and works at their pace knowing that Michael is around to assist them if they felt the need. He tries to stay as a facilitator in his class. Mary also encourages the promotion of as much learner autonomy as possible in the class that she described. She focuses on the students to work together in groups together even letting it go if the students were not using English. The group work includes tasks such as deciding on a topic and the presentation that the group would prepare. Such activities can be completed when the students take the initiative and are responsible for their own work. John used the term “self-directed” and described his class procedure as

“The students were self-directed. A lot of the times, I tell them what they were going to do and I would facilitate and help as needed....But they decide what to research and work on it.”

Tom also described an example of his class in which the students would mainly work in pairs and he would go around the classroom to check for the mistakes that the students make.

None of the participants, in their interviews, described their being taught in a self-directed approach or in a way that promotes learner autonomy. In addition, besides Mary who studied the TBL approach in her certificate programme, no other participants specifically mentioned being taught about how to teach in such an approach or their familiarity with this kind of approach. However, the approach they reached to teach English in Japanese HEIs ended the same. The reason for this might be context-specific because the Japanese students have a high dependence on their teachers in a classroom (see section 1.4.1). Becker (1990) explained that in Japan, “the teacher is the authority, and students are simply expected to follow” (p.430).

These participants consider their roles to be a facilitator for learning rather than to provide learners with some input. The classes that Michael and Hana describe did not particularly reflect the experiences they have had, either as a student or from the academic programmes that they had attended. However, the content-based class he described reflected his

idea of the importance of making the class to be student-centred. From his experience of having taught in Japanese HEIs for ten years, he became aware that students are passive and that they are used to being taught by the teachers. This has often been mentioned in past research (e.g., McVeigh, 2004; Littlewood, 1999). Michael sets up the class so that the students will be able to learn by themselves, a similar aspect that John mentioned.

The classes that Hana described also reflected what she considers to be important; for the students to have fun using English. Students preparing and performing in English is somewhat similar to what Peter enjoys, but the reason slightly differs. Peter mentioned practical reasons while Hana gave details on how her goal for the class and the students was for them to have fun using English. Such reason may come from her own experience that she became to like and became good at a certain subject when she was praised by her teacher and since then enjoyed studying that subject.

5.6.2 Caring for Students

Hana elaborated on the difficulty in dealing with students lacking motivation and academic skills, both of which have become a prevalent issue in Japanese HEIs, not just in EFL classrooms, due to the fact that students get to enter a university even if they had not mastered the fundamental basic grammar skills (Ford, 2009). Some Japanese students in HEIs are in either collegiate or vocational orientation (see Beaty, Gibbs & Morgan, 2007), and engage in minimum learning as their goal is to pass the test in order to graduate the university, cases in which motivation does not last long. As Hana shared in her story (see section 4.6.3), she makes an effort so that the students would be able to study English while they enjoy using the language. Hana also referred to a concern that she has with a perspective from students in her class. She has occasionally been assigned to teach a class with higher English proficiency students, including those with mixed backgrounds, returnees that have attended schools outside Japan, and those that have studied abroad before entering the university. She mentioned:

“Students that have studied outside Japan will probably benefit more if they were taught by native speakers.”

Every time she has been assigned to teach the class, she wonders if she should propose to her bosses and administration that the class should be limited to be taught by a native speaker. By this, she does not regard pronunciation or fluency concerns that are often discussed in the literature, such as Coskun, (2011) . Her concern was directed at the classroom practices in general and comparing the way she teaches to that of her NS colleagues. She mentioned that she teaches each class based on her decisions on what to teach before going into the classroom while she feels her NS colleagues tend to decide classroom activities teach and upon discussion with the students and being more flexible. Such might be concerned that were generated from her understanding of the benefits of student-centred teaching and the constructivist approach, however not being able to reflect it in her own teaching practice as much as she wishes to. In addition, she grew up being taught foreign languages through a behaviourist approach and also for not having attended a teaching-related programme, TESOL or any other. Hana has such concerns as she focuses on the best benefits of her students.

Peter mentioned the difficulty in communicating with the university administration, which in his case affected him and his students. He, as well as the students, received information that concerned a study material for an English class in the programme. When students asked Peter about the study material, he could not help them because he was not able to understand the language. Though Peter wishes to help the students, he feels helpless and disappointing for not being able to do so. Tom also mentioned an issue related to the use of language. Because he has a tenured position, he needs to attend meetings and respond to administrative e-mails that are written in Japanese. Though he considers he can pass by daily life with his proficiency in the language, he admits that it is not well enough to comprehend the content of the meeting or respond to the e-mails in a short time. Spending less time on responding to e-mails would enable him to spend more time in preparing for his classes for the students' benefit. And in terms of the meetings he attends, he mentioned that

“My Japanese is good enough for daily communication, but not for speaking in meetings. If the meeting was held in English, I would probably be able to contribute a lot [to the meeting], and to contribute to a better course design and

the curriculum.”

5.6.3 Efficiency

Tom emphasised the importance of teachers' efficiency in classroom practices. The first example is to be able to explain clearly. This refers to clear instructions in classrooms on how to do certain things as well as explaining the reasons for classroom activities. He added that the consistency of the teachers' instruction and their practices would lessen the confusion amongst the students such as that he had experienced. Tom also shared an example of laying out the classroom in a logistic way that would the classroom activities to run smoothly. He explained that he lays out his desk in a way that the students would work in groups and that the group members can be switched easily. Student-centred approach that most participants in this study take are also a result of them valuing efficiency. Students have different abilities and proficiency level and work at a different pace. They would be able to learn and spend the class time more efficiently when their teacher acts as a facilitator and assist them when they need, rather than the whole class moving at the same pace.

5.7 Beliefs Not Reflected in the Classroom Practices / Difficulties in Teaching in Japanese HEIs

Some participants shared the difficulties that they face in reflecting their beliefs in to their classroom practices. These difficulties were due to the uniqueness of the context of Japanese HEIs. However, it may be the case that institutional policies or factors beyond the teachers' capacity may restrict teachers from reflecting their beliefs to their classroom practices. In this study, the difficulties that participants shared could be categorised into three levels: at the students level, at the individual Japanese HEIs level and at the level of HEIs across Japan. Some directly affect the participants' classroom practices and others affect the participants' beliefs on what they consider to be important for their classroom students.

At the student level, as described in section 1.4.1, students that were educated in Japanese schools are used to being taught with the Grammar Translation Method and following thorough instructions given by the teacher. In addition, students are not expected to express their opinions during the class (Littlewood, 1999), and as they become used to being taught on the text, they become

passive (McVeigh, 2004). Also, as their education has been focussed on passing exams, particularly entrance exams at different stages of their life, this has led the students to have intense competitions amongst each other (Arimoto, 2009; Mori, 2002; Yoshino, 2012). The student-centred approach to teaching that the participants shared in their stories and that they believe to be important for the students is quite the opposite. These factors make it difficult for the participants to realise the student-centred teaching that is explained throughout this chapter.

At the individual HEI level, Peter mentioned the language issues that he had with the administration publicizing class-related information to the teaching staff only in Japanese that he cannot comprehend and cannot help his students when asked for assistance. Allocations of what classes to teach that Hana brought up could also be an issue that could trouble the teaching staff in teaching in the way they wish to teach.

John brought up an issue that concerns all HEIs across Japan and to its teaching staff. The issue of the hiring situation for the teaching staffs. Section 1.4.4 explained the employment situation for teaching staffs at Japanese HEIs. The three major positions held by the teaching faculty are part-time instructors, full-time non-tenured instructors, and tenured instructor/professors.

With the shrinking population due to the decline in the birth rate, HEIs have been faced with challenges in attracting students to choose their institutions, which has also led to the HEIs to face less revenue (i.e. students' tuition fees). One of the countermeasures HEIs have taken against this challenge is to decrease their cost by spending less on their teaching faculty, an article by Japan Press Weekly (2013) reports.

Rivers (2013) notes the consequence of the change in the labour law amended may lead to decrease in the teachers' dedication towards their work (section 1.4.4) and similarly, John questioned the efficiency of Japanese HEIs spending a lot of time and money in hiring a new teaching staff every now and then, and referred to the difficulty to work full-time tenured. And that this influences his effort in his teaching.

“If the teachers have done nothing wrong in the university, why can't they just keep them? I really care for my students but this [job security] influences the way

I teach my classes in the final year of my contract. I will be focusing more on finding my next job, simply because it is more important.”

Peter, too, referred to the employment situation in the Japanese HEIs. He has chosen to stay part-time for job security.

“At my age [early 50s], I cannot take risks. If I get a limited contract position, that would mean teaching less classes [and will be able to care more about each class] but getting paid the same. I would be able to spend more time for the fewer students I teach, but what would I do after I finish the contract?”

5.8 Presentation of an Extended Model

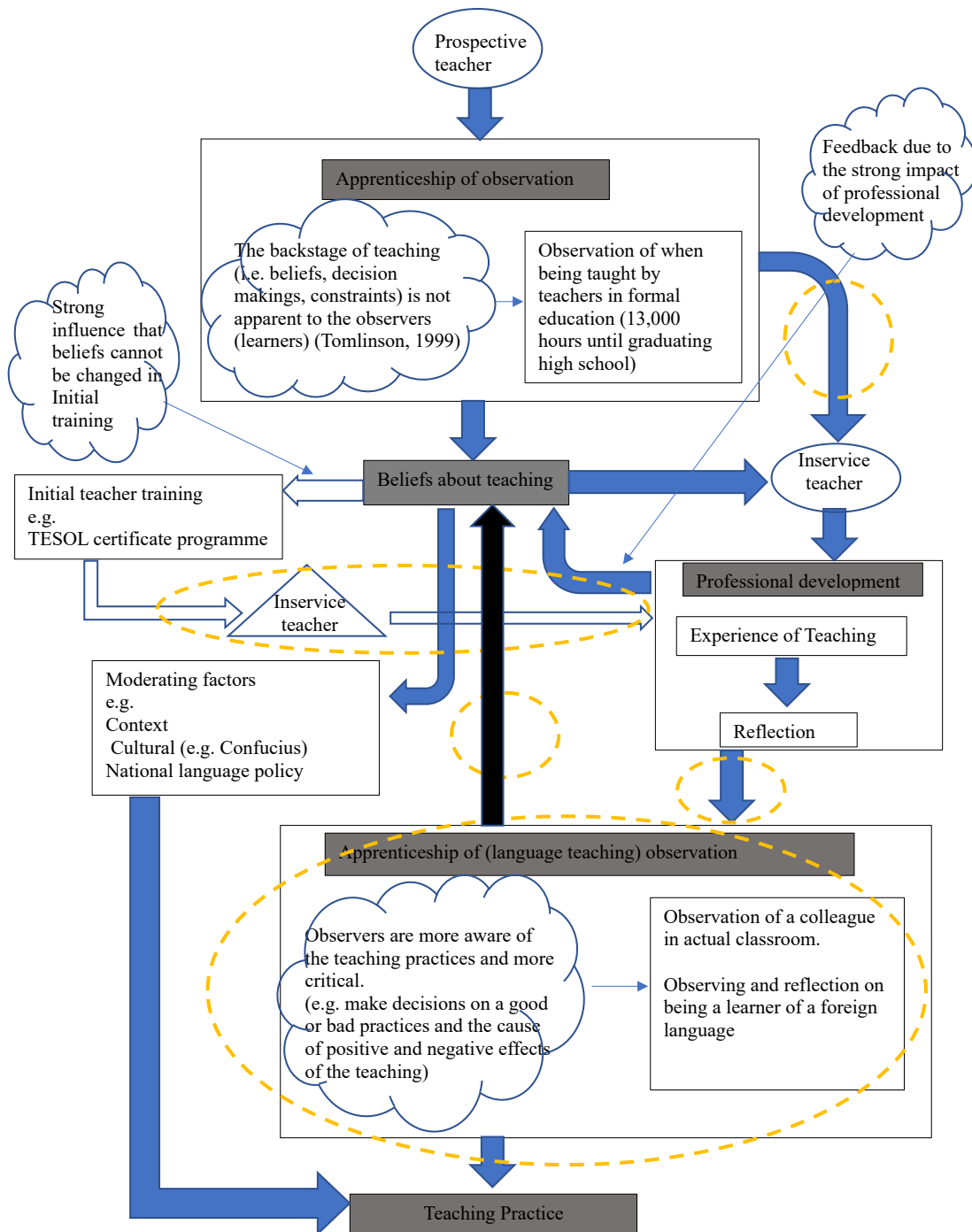
In their study on revisiting Lortie’s (1975) apprenticeship of observation, Smagorinsky and Barnes (2014) concluded by encouraging educational researchers to further investigate “the phenomenon of the apprenticeship of observation and track its influences with newer generations of teachers in new eras of expectations” (p. 50). Section 2.8 presented a model of the key ideas based on the literature; how experience as learners (apprenticeship of observation), beliefs and professional development influence teachers’ classroom practice are synthesised. As Diagram 5.1 below shows, the results in this study revealed that the model is more complex. Diagram 2.1 showed the powerful influence of the apprenticeship of observation that preservice teachers’ beliefs stayed unchanged after the initial teaching training programme. In Diagram 5.1, the differences from Diagram 2.1 are indicated with the (orange) circle in dotted lines.

Mary’s case has been added in which her belief as a teacher, to be caring for the students, was formed through the long observation of her mother as a teacher. Despite that long period of apprenticeship of observation, she stated that her teaching practice is mostly influenced by the TESOL certificate programme that she attended, even though the teaching approach was different from the way she learned as a child. This is indicated with the white arrow from ‘Initial teacher training’ to ‘Inservice teacher’ in the triangle. She was more determined on becoming a teacher and attending the

course specifically for the purpose, she was more conscious of how language teaching should be. The white arrow goes on to 'professional development' to show that through her experience of teaching and reflection, she has learnt to adapt her teaching to better suit the context. She has let go of her expectation for the students to interact with each other in English and let the students use their first language in the classroom (section 4.1.10) and to change her mindset and think that the students are learning other skills (section 4.5.3).

Tom's case also extends Diagram 2.1. Lortie (1975, 2002) emphasised on the number of contact hours spent with teachers in the classrooms to have an impact on the prospective teachers' (learners') beliefs about teaching. However, Tom struggled to remember much about the teachers that he had in his formal education or their classroom practices. This is indicated in Diagram 5.1 with the arrow from 'Apprenticeship of observation' directly to 'Inservice teacher' and not via 'Beliefs about teaching'. This shows that Tom's experience of being a learner in his formal education did not have any influence on his 'Beliefs about teaching'. He shared about the foreign language teachers he had after he entered the teaching profession, and the experience he had with them, as a learner, that made him think "I do not want to teach in that way." He also shared about feeling in a similar way when he observed his colleagues teach in their classrooms as part of his job (Section 4.2.6). Tom's observation during these two experiences was short. However, these were "Apprenticeship of 'language teaching' observation", an additional keyword to Diagram 5.1, rather than just a general apprenticeship and had made an impact on him. These observations of language teaching were made from the eye of a teacher in service, and not from an eye of a naïve student. The dark (black) arrow from 'Apprenticeship of (language teaching) observation' feeds back to 'Beliefs about teaching' to show the influence on his beliefs and practices. Tom's case suggests that the ability of critical observation nurtured through professional development and teaching experience influenced his idea of how teaching should be, despite the short learning experience.

Diagram 5.1 The extended model with an additional key idea



5.9 Conclusion

This chapter attempted to address the two research questions; 1. How have in-service teachers' beliefs formed? And 2. How do the teachers' stated beliefs present themselves in their stated classroom practices? These were discussed through the main elements of the study, the influence of "apprenticeship of observation", belief, and professional development. The analysis of the stories shared by the participants confirmed that apprenticeship of observation to be one of the factors that formed their beliefs. Regardless of the positive or the negative experiences they had, the participants learnt from the experience and take it into their practices. As Borg (2006) mentioned, the limited influence of teaching-related programmes, the influence did vary amongst the participants. She emphasised the timing of attending the programme; pre-service or in-service, to be the reason for the limitation, however, the content and the style of the programme may also contribute (see section 5.3.3).

Though this study did not aim to find the commonality of the beliefs that the participants held, the beliefs that emerged from the participants' stories could be categorised in to the following three; focus on students, caring for the students and efficiency. These beliefs could be seen in the examples of the participants teaching practices that they shared in their own ways.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1. Aims of the Study

This study attempted to explore the various teaching beliefs held by EFL teachers in Japanese HEIs, how they may have been formed and how they are presented in their classroom practices. This study emerged from my personal teaching experiences and observations in Japanese HEIs. As has been presented earlier, teachers have significant influence on learning (Hattie, 2003) and past research has shown that teachers' practices are influenced by their beliefs (e.g., Kagan, 1992; She, 2000). It is therefore crucial that exploring the teachers' beliefs and from where they were generated in order to contribute to the quality of English education in Japanese HEIs.

6.2 Summary of the Findings

This study confirmed the concept of “apprenticeship of observation” (Borg, 2006; Lortie, 2002) in that the participants in this study were, to some extent, influenced by the teachers that they had been taught when they were students. Regardless of the positive or the negative experiences that the participants had, its influence could be seen in how it affected them to have an idea of how teaching should be in EFL classrooms in Japanese HEIs. It could, however, be fully speculated whether or not the participants and their teachers share the same beliefs. What the students saw of their teachers were the practices that occurred in the classrooms, and the beliefs are the back stages of the teaching cannot be seen (Tomlinson, 1999). Participants can only assume that what they experienced in the classrooms when they were students were the outcomes of their teachers' beliefs. This can be confirmed by the examples of how the participants' beliefs could not be reflected in their classrooms for various reasons that were beyond their power (see diagram 5.1).

The influences of professional development programme could also be confirmed to influence the participants' teachings. A graduate degree in teaching-related programmes (i.e. MA in Education and MA TESOL) has been considered to be part of the professional development in this study due to the participants attending and completing them both before and after they entered their teaching career. Borg (2004) reported on the limitations of its influence depending on whether teachers attended the programme before or after starting their teaching career, and that those attending such

programmes before the career having more influence. The same could be said for the participants in the study; those that completed their programmes before entering their teaching career remembered the content of their programme more and they were more likely to apply what they had learnt in the programme to their teaching practices.

6.3 Answering the Research Questions

This study attempted to address the two research questions: 1. How have in-service teacher's beliefs been formed? 2. How do the teachers' stated beliefs present themselves in their stated classroom practices?, in the context of teaching English in Japanese HEIs. The first question turned out to be more challenging than I had expected. Firstly, as mentioned in section 2.2, the term "belief" in the question cannot be defined and I restricted myself from using it during interviews to avoid any confusion or misunderstandings. Though I tried to co-construct the meanings with the participants throughout the interview and had them confirm the content of the interview as well (see section 3.8.2.d, section 3.9.1 and section 3.9.2), there is no way for me to know whether we shared the same understanding of what I considered to be a belief (see section 2.2). In addition, some participants had vague memories, if any, of experiences as learners in their formal education, which Lortie (1975, 2002) and Borg (2004) consider that it has a big impact on teacher beliefs to be formed. These participants' lost memories may contain details that influenced their beliefs, but there is no way of tracking them down. To this end, the first research question may not have been fully addressed in this study.

The second research question was addressed by asking the participants to describe the class they enjoy teaching. I assumed that such classes would include the practices that the participants value the most and that the participants would share a lot of details. Along with my expectations, the participants elaborated on the classes that they enjoy teaching in detail with enthusiasm. I was able to identify practices that included the participants' stated beliefs. However, as I analysed the data collected, I speculated on how the participants might have responded if they were asked to describe a class that least enjoy teaching. Comparison with such data may have contributed to prominent emergence of the participants' stated beliefs in their practices.

6.4 Strength of this Study

The strength of this study is that unlike many studies that look into one specific area of teacher beliefs (i.e. classroom practice, teaching approach), this study explored the participants' beliefs as teachers through the stories that they shared. The stories included their background, their student experience, and their teaching history as well as the classes they teach. The data revealed what kind of elements the participants considered important and where those beliefs were generated from, some of which the participants were aware of and some that they were not. In addition, the approach of this study let the participants take initiative and to share their story in the way they wished to. Through the co-constructing of the meaning during the interview, the participants and I could confirm that we had the similar understanding. As a consequence, the participants were also able to share their thoughts beyond the classroom setting that influenced their teaching practices. For example, the linguistic issue between the administration and their teaching staff and the issue of the hiring system of Japanese HEIs, both discussed in section 5.5.

6.5 Limitations of the Study

One of the limitations of this study is that it could not include participants with a wider variety. The study aimed at exploring various beliefs, however, the identified beliefs were rather limited. It may be that the beliefs are limited from the start. However, the reason for this outcome could also be that the participants were not so diverse. In terms of age, all the participants except for one are relatively close. As there is a trend in most things, there is also a trend in teaching approaches. That the participants are in a similar generation, some of their teachers probably taught with the trend.

In addition, having a participant with an experience teaching in HEIs outside Japan would have been able to confirm whether some beliefs and practice were specific to the context or not. Finding such participant was difficult primarily because of the original purpose of the NS teachers' visit to Japan is not to teach. And Japan is where non-Japanese teachers start their career. As described in section 1.4.2, JET programmes act as one of the methods for non-Japanese locals to start their English teaching career in Japan with the other method being the *Eikaiwa* industry.

The second limitation of this study is my inexperience of conducting research interviews.

Though the length of the interview in this study ranged from sixty minutes to eighty minutes, the amount of stories shared by the participants were significantly different. Specifically, the one interview that was conducted in Japanese with Hana, had more silence and she occasionally waited for me to ask further questions or to provide prompts. This was either because of my lack of experience in conducting interviews in Japanese, or the difference in the amount of story is due to the way that Westerners and Asians share the stories (McAdams, 2009, p.410). I felt that I was improving my skills for interviews in English, there was no way I could improve the skills for Japanese interviews with only one such chance in this study.

Another limitation of this study is that it has also shed light on one of the issues that qualitative research has. As mentioned in section 3.7.4, one participant withdrew from the study. To meet the purpose of this study, the participants, though by word of mouth, were selected purposively. This means that all data provided by participants are significantly important. However, when participant withdrawal occurs, the researchers must think about the loss of data or data that would have been included in a study as well as the possible under-representation in the field of research. If participants withdraw from a study feeling that pseudonym is not good enough to protect their identity, as was the case in this study, it means that data that could have had a significant meaning was left out, leading to a possible lack of representation of participants in that “group.” There is a need to come up with ways to enable the participants to think that sharing stories is safe.

6.6 Implications and Recommendation for Practice

6.6.1 Recommendation for Researchers

This study did not reveal a teacher a belief that was specific to English language teaching in Japanese HEIs. The beliefs identified were that of teachers in general. A further study including teachers of other subjects, or teachers that teach in national universities and prefectural universities could provide a varied data as the teaching context might be different. It is recommended that the context is kept in HEIs, as the government has more control over the content of classes at the elementary and secondary level.

Another area that seems to be under-researched is the teachers' development of their beliefs

through professional associations or attending conferences. Although the participants in this study expressed interest in professional development and attended teaching-related programmes, none of them referred to currently belonging to professional associations or attending conferences. Research in these areas of the effect of belonging to professional associations and attending conferences could lead HEIs to be convinced of the importance of supporting professional development and could encourage them to have their teaching staff attend such conferences, which could lead to improve the quality of education they provide.

Finally, no recent study looking into the components of different teaching-related programmes could be found since Palmer's (1995). In the translated version of Lunenberg et al.'s (2014) *The Professional Teacher Educator*, the editors Takeda and Yamabe (2017) writes that in translating the book, they searched for but could not find research or a list of teacher education-related programmes in Japanese HEIs. Hollingsworth (1989, in Zelui, 1994) writes that teacher education programmes have responsibility and needs to be able to change the existing notions of the teacher candidates have before they enter the programme. And as this current study confirmed the influence of teaching-related programmes on their beliefs and their teaching practices, a closer study into the content of the programmes would be crucial.

6.6.2 Implications for Japanese HEIs

This study could not identify whether Japanese HEIs provide opportunity for professional development for their teachers within their institution. Considering that professional development programme has influence on the teachers, Japanese HEIs might consider setting up opportunities of their own to improve the education they provide their students. The academic backgrounds of the participants show that EFL teachers were not necessarily required to have a master's degree in education or TESOL in order to teach in Japanese HEIs (See Table 1), or to have teaching experience prior to starting the career. Some teachers start their career with no training or experience. Current job opening posts for various teaching positions at Japanese HEIs includes the requirement of the minimum academic background of master's degree, sometimes indicated to have MA TESOL, however, this study has also shown that completion of such programmes have limited effect on

teachers (see section 5.4.2). Considering the impact that teachers have on the learners (Hattie, 2003), HEIs need to be more aware of the teachers in their institutions. One participant has shown her concern in teaching a class that she considers to be beyond her competence. In addition, some participants in this study have shown their enthusiasm in becoming a better teacher. HEIs should consider providing opportunities for professional development within their institution in order to improve the quality of the teachers leading to the quality of education they provide.

For example, considering the significance of reflections, HEIs could provide more opportunities for its teachers to become aware of themselves as well as their teaching. Most of the participants in this study mentioned that they had never really thought about their teaching history or had a chance to talk about the details of their classes with their colleagues or their seniors at the universities they work at. Implementation of an institution-led peer-observation system may function as a way for teachers to become more aware of their teaching and to improve their teaching. Johnson's study (1994) provides insight into how the student teachers could not establish a teaching style that reflected their own beliefs based on a model that they had learnt during training. This is probably because the observation only takes place in the classroom, or in teacher training programmes, peer observations may be followed by feedback sessions. This has benefits on both the observer and the practitioner (the one who was observed). However, what may be more beneficial is to have a pre-observation session. In such a session, the practitioner will explain the reasons and purposes of what they plan to do in their classroom. The practitioner will then be more aware of their own practices and the observers will get to see what may be considered the *backstage* of the classroom. Implementing such system could lead to professional development within the institution and may lead to the improvement of the quality of education that HEIs intend to provide.

When the HEIs are more aware of their teachers, they will be able to manage them better in times of transition. For example, when HEIs or their EFL programmes decide to implement a new teaching approach, they may be faced with some of their teaching staff with beliefs that may have difficulty in adjusting to the new approach. In such a situation, consideration of adaption rather than adoption of the new approach, as referred to in section 2.6, may be a way to move forward. The adaptation may be better negotiated when the HEIs and the teachers have appreciation of each other.

6.6.2 Implications for Teachers in Japanese HEIs

The participants in this study mentioned that they had never reflected on their own teaching history or on their own classroom practices. There is a lot of literature that describe how reflections can improve teaching (see section 2.4). By reflecting on their own experiences as learners, teachers can be reminded of what they liked and did not like as students, how they may have wanted to be taught, and also the difficulties they had as a student. It is, however, also important to keep in mind that the students may not want to be taught in the same way as their teachers were as one participant shared in this study. Reflection on their life as teachers will also enable them to revisit their own beliefs and raise their awareness of what they consider to be important in their teaching. One participant in this study mentioned that his concept of good and bad teachers and their classroom practices became clear while he reflected on his teaching career during and after the interview for this study. As language teachers' beliefs form the "core of their teaching behavior" (Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001, p.56), teachers should provide themselves with the time and opportunity to reflect on their work, if their institutions do not, as a way to become more aware of what they believe to be important as well as to improve their teaching practices.

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Appendix 1: Summary of the Preliminary Study

The Participant

The participant in this study is Anna a native Japanese female, in her early fifty's. She has experience of teaching in junior high schools though she has been teaching as part-time instructor for more than 20 years in various universities. She has an undergraduate, Masters and Doctorate degree in English literature all completed in the same university though she took a break in between. After she finished her undergraduate degree, she worked as an English teacher in a junior high school for three years. She then, "coincidentally" entered graduate school for her master's degree. She again went back to teach in a junior high school. After a year, she went back to the university for her Doctorate degree. The reason for this one-year break, according to her, was because there was not, at that time, a doctorate programme established at the university.

Data Collection

For data collection, I conducted an interview with the participant. The interview was semi-structured in which I had prepared some questions to ask the participant, but all questions were open-ended, and permitted a relatively high degree of flexibility for both the participant and myself. I had changed the order of the question and added more questions depending on the participant's response. Semi-structured interview model allows a high degree of flexibility but also maintains a guided structure to ensure that certain questions were asked and responded (Richards, 2009). Follow up questions via e-mail were based on techniques in McKay (2009).

Process of Analysis

To understand the data, the transcription collected through the interview was transcribed and coded based on the themes that emerged (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The themes that emerged were basis of the participant's reasons and history of her teaching career, student memories, ideas of a good teacher. Afterwards, a summary of the interview was written up for the participant to check for accuracy and editing, and for me to ask for clarification.

Student Experience

Anna started her story by talking about how she became interested in English. She, first, said that she had always been lucky in having been taught by a *good* teacher. Anna's first experience with English was an outside school activity. This is interesting in two points. Firstly, though English education at an early age is often discussed and has been an on-going debate these days (e.g. Butler, 2011). , however; considering the participant's age, the idea was not prevalent or common when she was a young child. Secondly, Anna was born and brought up in a rather rural area in Japan, which adds to the rare situation for either Anna or her parents to come up with the idea of English education at an early age. Her parents, who were always open to having their children experience something new, were intrigued by a flyer that they found in their post box. A new English school for kids was planned to open in their neighbourhood. Neither her parents nor her relatives worked in an area related to education or using English at work, and yet, her parents were open to the idea of their daughter studying English. Anna, like her parents, has always been interested in trying something new, therefore had no hesitation to go to the afterschool English classes. She recalls that the moment she heard its sound, she became interested in English. Though she had never heard a "native" speaker speak English, she thought that the Japanese teacher had a *good* pronunciation. The experience continued in her junior high school and in senior high school. She had always liked the sound of English words and her teachers' pronunciation despite her low grades on school tests. She said that it was when she was in junior high school that she started thinking of becoming an English teacher in the future.

Concept of a Good Teacher and their Possible Influence

When asking Anna about a good teacher and a bad teacher that she had as a student, she shared stories of good teachers, but did not mention anything regarding any negative experience that she may have had as a student.

As stated above, Anna always liked the sound of English words, but she was never able to get high grades for her English classes. She struggled to study English but the teachers she had, all

through junior high school and senior high school, never gave her answers to the questions she had or the correct answers to the errors she made in the test straightaway. They gave her hints and advice on how to reach a solution or the answers. She was always expected to come up with answers. Consequently, she spent a lot of time with her teachers outside the classroom, mostly after classes.

Teaching History

She started her teaching career as soon as she graduated from undergraduate school. Her first teaching position was at a junior high school where she taught for three years and encountered some difficulties. One of the main difficulties, or conflicts, she faced was how the term exams took place at the school. In that school, there were five classes in each grade and the teachers took turns in making the term exams. This meant that there was a possibility that students be tested on something that they may not have been taught. She felt inconsistencies but could not make changes to the system that was already set up by the others. This was when she decided to leave the school and start her master's degree. She went back to teaching at a different junior high school after finishing the programme; however, did not last long. She decided to enrol in a doctorate programme that was newly established at the university where she completed her master's degree. During her doctoral studies, she had the opportunity to become a teaching assistant (TA) for one of the undergraduate classes, and also to teach some undergraduate classes herself. This experience led her to stay teaching at the university level rather than going back teaching at a junior high school. With more freedom to teach the students, compared to teaching in junior high schools, she taught her students the way she wanted. As a result, she spent a lot of time with the students either before or after the classes she taught. Even though the students came to her asking for answers, she made the students think and did not give them the answers right away. Hence, spending time with individual students outside class, whenever they needed to, was a necessity.

Awareness of Teaching Style Preference

After the interview, Anna mentioned that she had never reflected on her teaching life or had discussed about her classroom practices. It was during the conversation right after the interview that she became aware of where she may have gotten the ideas or preferences of the teaching styles she applies to her classes and her students. She thought had always been doing what she felt was good for the students on the spot. However, considering from the stories she had shared in the interview, it could be assumed that the “individually tailored student-teacher relationship” shows traits of the positive experiences that Anna had as a student.

Appendix 2: Participation Information Sheet



How are English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' beliefs formed?

Introduction

Upon referral from my former and current colleagues, I would like to invite you to participate in this project, which attempts to look into what kind of and how the beliefs of English as Foreign Languages (EFL) teachers' beliefs have been formed. This study will, particularly, focus on EFL teachers in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Japan.

Please take time to read the following information carefully and feel free to ask if you would like more information or if there is anything that you do not understand. Please also feel free to discuss this with your friends, relatives if you wish. I would like to stress that you do not have to accept this invitation and should agree to take part if you want to.

Thank you for reading this.

What will you do if you agree to take part?

1. I will ask you to answer a questionnaire so that I will have general information about you.
2. We will arrange a time and place to meet, which is convenient for you. (You will sign the hard copy of the consent form that you have already read)
3. There will be one or two interviews with myself, which will involve questions regarding your general background and your teaching history. The interview will be about 1 hour long.
4. There may be possible e-mail correspondences after the interview in order to fill in any missing details or to clarify details.
5. When I have completed the transcript, you will have the opportunity to check revise and amend it wherever necessary.

Expenses

Transportation and refreshment costs will be covered by myself.

Are there any risks in taking part?

The questions in the interview will ask you to share your teaching history. It may be possible that you are reminded of unhappy memories.

Are there any advantages in taking part?

You will be provided an opportunity to reflect on your own teaching career and make sense of your own stories, which will contribute to the confirmation of your identities as teachers.

What if I am unhappy or if there is a problem?

If you are unhappy, or if there is a problem, please feel free to let me know and I will try to help. You have the right to refuse to answer any questions that you would rather not. In addition, you may choose to discontinue your participation at any point.

Will my participation be kept confidential?

If you agree to take part, your name will be anonymised and will not be disclosed to other parties. Your responses in the interview and e-mail messages will be used for the purpose of this research only. Data collected will be stored in a password protected safe that only the researcher has access to.

What will happen to the results of the study?

When I have completed the research, I will produce a summary of the findings which I will be more than happy to send you if you are interested. If the results are to be published or to be shared at a conference, I will notify you. You will not be identifiable from the results unless you have consented to being so.

What will happen if I want to stop taking part?

You can withdraw at anytime, without explanation. Results up to the period of withdrawal may be used, if you are happy for this to be done. Otherwise you may request that they are destroyed and no further use is made of them.

If you have any concerns about the project that you would like to discuss, please contact:

Mizuka Tsukamoto (mizuka.tsukamoto@liverpool.ac.uk)

Liverpool University Research Participant Advocate (liverpoolethics@ohcampus.com)

Appendix 3: Participant Consent Form



Committee on Research Ethics

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project: How are English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' beliefs formed?

Researcher: Mizuka Tsukamoto

**Please
initial box**

1. I confirm that I have read and have understood the information sheet dated [DATE] for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my rights being affected. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.

3. I understand that, under the Data Protection Act, I can at any time ask for access to the information I provide and I can also request the destruction of that information if I wish.

4. I understand that Data collected will be stored in a password protected safe that only the researcher has access to.

5. I understand that by participating in the study, I will answer a questionnaire to provide general information about myself and I will be answering interviews and a possible e-mail correspondence afterwards.

5. I understand and agree that my participation will be audio recorded and I am aware of and consent to your use of these recordings for the following purposes: thesis research, possible publication of the research, possible presentation of the research at academic conferences.

6. I understand that results up to the period of withdrawal may be used, unless I request that they are destroyed and no further use is made of them.

7. I agree to take part in the above study.

Participant Name

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

Principal Investigator:

Name Mizuka Tsukamoto
Email mizuka.tsukamoto@liverpool.ac.uk


Appendix 4: Questions Prepared for the Interviews

1. Please tell me the story of how you became to teach English in Japanese HEIs.
2. Please tell me about a class or classes that you enjoy teaching or have taught in the past that you enjoyed.
3. Please tell me your experience of when you were a student in school.
4. Please describe a teacher that you remember well.
5. Please tell me your experiences of learning a foreign language.
6. Please tell me any struggles you may have had when you were a student.
7. Please tell me about your experiences of the teaching-related programme you have attended.
8. Please tell me about any difficulty that you may have working in Japanese HEIs.

Additional questions when not referred to in the participants' responses.

1. Please describe a good teacher.
2. Please describe a bad teacher.
3. Do you remember any specific teaching practices from any of your teachers?

Appendix 5: Ethical Approval from the University of Liverpool

		UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL	ONLINE PROGRAMMES
Dear MizukaTsukamoto			
I am pleased to inform you that the EdD. Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC) has approved your application for ethical approval for your study. Details and conditions of the approval can be found below.			
Sub-Committee: EdD. Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC)			
Review type: Expedited			
PI:			
School: Lifelong Learning			
Title: <i>How are English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' beliefs formed?</i>			
First Reviewer: Dr. José Reis Jorge			
Second Reviewer: Dr. Mary Johnson			
Other members of the Committee: Dr. Lucilla Crosta, Dr. Martin Gough, Dr. Baaska Anderson, Dr. Mary Johnson, Dr. Viola Manokore			
Date of Approval: 28/07/2017			
The application was APPROVED subject to the following conditions:			
Conditions			
1	Mandatory	M: All serious adverse events must be reported to the VPREC within 24 hours of their occurrence, via the EdD Thesis Primary Supervisor.	