Exploring the Sources of Japanese University Students' EFL Speaking Self-Efficacy: A Mixed Methods Study

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Abstract

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Self-efficacy is situated within Bandura's social cognitive theory of human agency over behaviour (1997). Defined as "peoples' beliefs in their capabilities to succeed in a specific task" (Bandura, 2006), it is formed through the interpretation of four sources: mastery experiences, social modelling, social persuasion, and physiological states. Self-efficacy has been shown to be a predictor of academic success in subject domains such as mathematics and science in predominantly Western settings. The sources of self-efficacy remain a relatively under-researched field in Japan, especially in English foreign language (EFL) speaking. Consequently, this study aims to explore Japanese university students' low self-efficacy to speak English through their sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy experiences at junior and senior high school (12-18 years old). The issue is important because the ability to communicate effectively in English provides access to global education and employment opportunities. However, Japanese people have one of the lowest English proficiency levels in Asia.

The study uses a sequential, exploratory, mixed methods design. In the first stage, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 15 second-year university students. The transcripts were analysed with hybrid thematic analysis to yield seven themes: the four sources (mastery, social modelling, social persuasion, physiological states), goals for studying English, attitude to studying English, and desired second language (L2) self. The themes were then used to develop an inventory of sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy. This was administered to a larger sample of Japanese university students *(N=353)* to see whether the results of the first interview stage could be generalised to the larger sample. The results showed that Japanese university students had not encountered enough self-efficacy forming experiences. The unique findings of this study were that positive physiological states and social persuasion appear to be more influential for Japanese students than mastery experiences.

The study's theoretical implications are that students' desired second language self is potentially an additional source of self-efficacy and that the four sources may act differently due to cultural and domain contexts. The practical implications are that teachers at university will need to provide targeted self-efficacy forming activities to develop students' speaking proficiency.

Keywords: EFL speaking, sources of self-efficacy, Japanese university students, sequential exploratory mixed methods study.

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List of Abbreviations

ALT	Assistant language teacher
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
EFL	English foreign language is used to refer to learning English in a country where it is not spoken as an official language. Different to English second language which refers to non-native speakers learning English after moving to a country where it is officially spoken.
JSHS	Junior and senior high school ages 12 to 18 years old
MMR	Mixed methods research
NEST	Native English speaker teacher
NNEST	Non-native English speaker teacher
SEFLS-SEI	Sources of English foreign language speaking self-efficacy inventory

Glossary

East Asia .....China, Hong Kong, Japan, Macau, Mongolia, North Korea, South Korea, Taiwan

Eikaiwa .....Japanese word for English conversation school.

Perceived self-efficacy.....The beliefs people have in their capability to perform a task. Also referred to as self-efficacy

Senta-shiken.....National Center Test for university entrance examination in Japan

Social cognitive theory .....Albert Bandura's theory of human agency where people's actions are controlled by a triad of personal, behavioural, and environmental factors.

Sources of self-efficacy.....The experiences people have had that have contributed to perceived self-efficacy (Mastery, social modelling, social persuasion, physiological states)

Chapter 1 Introduction

A crucial issue for English educationalists in Japan is how to raise the spoken fluency of university students because the ability to communicate in English is a gateway to participation in global education and employment opportunities (Baker, 2016; Breaden, 2014). The rise of English as a lingua franca means it is now an impetus for the internationalisation of higher education institutes and the global expansion of industries (Tsuruta, 2013). Consequently, raising the communicative ability of graduates is a significant concern, not only for Japan, but for all non-English speaking countries. Raising English spoken fluency of Japanese graduates has been challenging because Japanese learners of English tend to have weak oral proficiency (Hamada, 2008; Murakami et al., 2012; Rogers, 2007). Furthermore, the English proficiency level of Japanese people is one of the lowest in Asia, with some assessments even indicating that the level is decreasing (Education First, 2019).

The reasons for Japanese students' low proficiency has been attributed to the loss of motivation and confidence caused by grammar-translation based teaching methods used at junior and senior high schools (JSHS) (Kikuchi, 2009; Murakami et al., 2012; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009). Low motivation and low willingness to communicate have also been posited as causes of low spoken fluency (Munezane, 2015; Yashima et al., 2004). These findings suggest that students' experiences at JSHS impact on their motivation to study English which then diminishes their English proficiency. Additionally, students' decreasing motivation to study English and English speaking are often attributed to teaching styles at JSHS that focus on developing extrinsic motivations such as passing exams and gaining entry to prestige universities (Guest, 2008; Koizumi & Matsuo, 1993). The English component of the National Centre Test for University Entrance Examinations admissions (*senta- shiken*) comprises of multiple-choice questions and has no speaking element. Instead, it evaluates students on reading, listening, and writing skills (Y. Watanabe, 2013). Consequently, schools tend to focus on teaching those skills. Thus, Japanese students have little opportunity to develop intrinsic motivation which is known to foster successful learning outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2016; Deci et al., 1991) such as learning for personal goals, enjoyment, or interacting with people from other countries. The consequences are that when students enter university they typically have both low proficiency and confidence in speaking English. Hence, university teachers are challenged to develop students' speaking proficiency in the one or two years of English education at university.

Until recently, the focus of English education in Japan was to prepare students for competitive university entrance examinations. However, in acknowledgement of widening global participation of Japan, as seen in worldwide events such as 2021 Olympics, current drivers for English education are to create Japanese with English abilities (MEXT, 2012). English education is transitioning through reforms such as compulsory English classes from 3rd year of elementary school and the instruction of communicative English at JSHS. Japan' s education system has nine-years elementary and junior high school which is compulsory; followed by three-years at high school. Higher education is usually four-years studying a major supplemented with general education minor subjects. English is compulsory across most of the Japanese education system including university (Rivers, 2012). Additionally, participation in new English medium instruction and global studies programs is increasing (Phan, 2013). Consequently, Japanese students' goals and attitudes towards English are diverse.

Understanding (a) the kind of learning experiences students have encountered while learning English speaking at JSHS, (b) the attitudes students have towards learning English speaking, and (c) the goals students have for learning English speaking could help identify the causes of students' low proficiency and confidence to speak English. Such knowledge could help university teachers raise the speaking proficiency levels of Japanese university students. Nation (2014) defines fluency as the balanced acquisition of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-based learning, and fluency-based learning. Effective learning experiences should balance all four strands. Meaning-focused input and output can be understood as processes which balance learning and use of grammaticolexical items. Language-based learning and fluency-based learning can be understood as approaches; language-based to learn grammar and language, and fluency-based to gain a) ability to fill gaps in conversation, b) produce semantically dense utterances, c) contextual variation and d) creative use (Kirk 2014, p. 101). In this thesis, speaking practice is conceptualized as a balance between language-based and fluency-based but with a particular interest in fluency due to MEXT's emphasis of its importance to offset past language-based approaches.

There have been scant studies that have addressed the speaking confidence of Japanese learners. The few studies available have approached the problem from theoretical perspectives such as self-perceived communicative competence (Lockley, 2013), language learning beliefs (Toyama, 2015), or foreign language anxiety (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). This body of research has helped establish that Japanese people have low confidence and high

anxiety for English language learning. However, this neither identifies the causes of low confidence and high anxiety nor does it propose strategies to raise student confidence.

For this study, I decided to approach the research issue from Bandura's (1977) concept of self-efficacy, a core component of social cognitive theory, because this concept helps not only to identify causes of low confidence, but also to understand the kind of support that is lacking in students' learning experiences. Social cognitive theory states that people's actions are controlled by a triad of personal, behavioural, and environmental factors (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016). The combination and interaction of these three factors are believed to influence a person's agency (Bandura, 1982), that is, their control over their actions. One part of a person's agency is self-efficacy, which refers to "the confidence a person feels in their ability to successfully perform specific tasks" (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 83). People form their self-efficacy beliefs via self-assessment of their capabilities based on information gathered from four sources: mastery, social modelling, social persuasion, and physiological states (Bandura, 2012). Recently, there is growing interest in how students develop their current perceived self-efficacy with researchers seeking to identify the sources of students' self-efficacy and how these sources have contributed to the development of their self-efficacy towards the target subject. Therefore, I decided to focus my research study on the sources of Japanese university students' English foreign language (EFL) speaking self-efficacy.

In the remainder of this chapter, I will briefly discuss the origin of the research topic, describe the research context and clarify my position as a teacher-researcher. Following that, I will summarise the research aims and present the layout of the chapters of this thesis.

Research Context

I have taught general English to first-year students at a rural university (hereafter City University) in Japan for the past eight years. City University is a mid-ranking civic institution with two faculties: economics and art-and-culture. English study is compulsory for the first two years of attendance. Enrolment fees at civic universities are much lower than those at private universities. This means that they tend to attract students from throughout the country. For these reasons, I deemed that the enrolled students were a representative sample of university students in Japan because they had an average academic achievement level and represented a range of socioeconomic backgrounds. Since the students were non-English majors and therefore neither aiming for English medium employment nor studying abroad long term, I also reasoned they were likely to have goals for studying English characteristic of the general population. City University is located in X city, although categorized as a city, it

has the population and built-up area of a small town and is located at the bottom of the mountains which hug the coast. The area is very scenic and attracts visitors from around the world, so students have many opportunities to interact with foreign visitors in their part-time jobs, and while walking around the city. The campus sits in the mountains and has a relaxed atmosphere with lots of greenery and fresh air. Because the campus is compact, students often interact with students from the other faculty and with staff members in the communal spaces. The students appear to be generally easy-going and enjoy the slow pace of country life.

Origin of Research Topic

I have observed that in the first few months of instruction, students have a reluctance to speak English actively in class discussions and presentations. In informal conversations, students told me that it was not that they did not want to become skilled at English, but that they did not feel that they could succeed in learning to speak English. These student comments led me to become curious about what factors had led students to feel this way, and what I could do to help them. My readings brought me to self-efficacy as a theoretical framework. I initially wanted to measure which sources of self-efficacy had the strongest effect on students' current self-efficacy beliefs. However, during my literature review, I could find little empirical research on EFL speaking self-efficacy in Japan and no validated instruments for either current self-efficacy beliefs or sources of self-efficacy that I could use. I found this result both surprising and disheartening. Through discussion with my primary supervisor, I decided that my research would take an exploratory approach to the field of EFL speaking self-efficacy in Japan and investigate the sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy experiences students had had at JSHS. If I could identify whether students were lacking in any of the sources of self-efficacy, then I could design my classroom practice to focus on those areas. In this way, I hoped that I could lay foundations for further much needed research and also improve the learning outcomes of my students.

Personal Position

As a teacher of communicative English at a university in Japan, I have a professional interest in understanding the sources of students' lack of confidence to speak English in class. Previously, I have investigated whether different learning activities have had a positive effect on students' confidence levels. Those initial enquiries stimulated my interest in the reasons for students' continued low aptitude and confidence in EFL speaking despite receiving six-years of formal English education. As I position myself as a teacher who is also a researcher, my

primary concern is finding solutions to classroom issues, not aligning with a particular philosophical school of thought. For these, reasons I take a pragmatic stance towards research as it allows me to focus on improving the learning outcomes of students.

Research Aims

The overarching research aim for this study is to investigate the sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy experiences that Japanese university students had at JSHS. The particular aims are to conduct and analyse semi-structured interviews with a sample of City University students to gain understanding of their sources of self-efficacy experiences and then try to generalise the findings with a larger sample. In order to generalise, I will use the interview data to develop a sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy inventory (SEFLS-SEI). The inventory should allow for a more in-depth understanding of the range of educational experiences students encounter in learning English speaking at JSHS and produce recommendations for teaching practice.

The intended research outcomes are threefold. First, to establish what Japanese students' sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy are. Current self-efficacy research draws heavily from data collected in Western and especially American contexts. There is growing evidence that the weight of the sources of self-efficacy may be different in East Asian countries. More research is needed to establish whether current findings are universal or whether the sources of self-efficacy vary due to cultural settings. This research's findings should enable future investigations into EFL speaking self-efficacy in Japan and East Asian contexts and widen the scope of self-efficacy research.

The second intended outcome is to provide university teachers with advice on areas they should focus on to build students' EFL speaking self-efficacy. There is a growing belief that teaching approaches and content should match student needs as much as the teaching context permits (Hattie, 2009). Understanding the kinds of experiences that students have acquired when learning EFL speaking before entering university can assist university teachers to tailor the course syllabus to meet the needs of the student body.

Finally, despite the growing interest in self-efficacy in EFL teaching, there is still a limited amount of empirical research available. There is even less research into self-efficacy in the Japanese context, and what has been explored so far deals with skills of listening (Todaka, 2017), or reading (Burrows, 2016). Research into the self-efficacy of Japanese students to speak English is sparse and yet as explained above the demand for educational

institutions to nurture graduates conversant in English has never been higher. This thesis is an attempt to contribute essential knowledge to this gap in the current research.

Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into seven chapters. The first chapter is this introduction in which I have introduced the research topic, its aims and objectives, the research context, and my personal position. In the second chapter, I critically analyse the literature on self-efficacy paying close attention to self-efficacy in education and foreign language research, as well as evaluating the literature related to the EFL speaking proficiency of Japanese EFL learners. In the third chapter, I discuss the methodology I will employ and provide justification for the sequential, exploratory, mixed methods design. I clarify my epistemological position of pragmatism and explain how this stance is suited to both teacher-researchers and mixed methods researchers alike; I also address the ethical issues related to this study and outline the methodology for the first qualitative phase. In the fourth chapter, I outline the findings from the qualitative thematic analysis of the interview data and discuss the implications of each of the adopted themes. In the fifth chapter, I discuss the development and validation of the SEFLS-SEI inventory. In chapter six, I present the results of the quantitative findings and statistical analyses used to test the generalisability of the interview findings. In the final seventh chapter, I synthesise the findings from the qualitative and quantitative findings and consider the study's relevance to theory and teaching practice in Japan.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

In the following literature review, I will present a discussion of research into self-efficacy and its relationship with academic achievement and foreign language learning. In the first section, I will outline the literature on the theoretical framework of the study by detailing how self-efficacy is positioned within social cognitive theory. Then, in the second section, I will discuss the literature on the role of self-efficacy in various academic outcomes. In the third section, I will examine the literature on the function of culture in self-efficacy belief formation. In the fourth section, I will present the literature on sources of self-efficacy research and Japan-based research on students' self-efficacy for EFL learning. Finally, I discuss the need for more mixed methods research into sources of self-efficacy for EFL speaking and present the research aims and research questions.

Theoretical Framework

People's power to influence their actions through the interplay of behavioural, environmental and personal determinants is central to social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2012). In social cognitive theory, "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives" is referred to as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994, p. 71). There are four sources of self-efficacy: mastery experience (performance accomplishments), social modelling (vicarious experiences), social persuasion, and physiological states (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy research has primarily focused on mastery experiences as "studies show they are the most powerful across domains" (Usher & Pajares, 2008, p. 763).

Self-Efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy first gained prominence as part of Albert Bandura's (1977) seminal paper on the role of self-efficacy in changing the behaviours of patients with psychological issues stemming from phobias. The paper reports on the success of different interventions which were administered to people scared of snakes. The interventions were designed to enable the patients to hold a snake after treatment. One group of participants received participant modelling, which Bandura (1977) described as patients being "assisted by whatever induction aids were needed, to engage in progressively more threatening interactions with a boa constrictor" (p. 205). This group achieved a significant rise in both self-efficacy and achievement. The other group of patients received modelling treatment and watched a counsellor perform the same tasks as the participant modelling group. This group

also showed improvements in self-efficacy and achievement but at a lower degree than the participant modelling group. The assumption that mastery experiences are the most potent source originates from this finding. Bandura developed self-efficacy theory further to account for mechanisms of human agency (Bandura, 1982). He argued that self-efficacy determines people's beliefs in their ability to control life events. He refers to how students with high self-efficacy are likely to attempt difficult tasks and exert higher cognitive effort than those with low self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994). The concept was met with some criticism, particularly in how it failed to distinguish between efficacy and outcome expectations. Bandura (1997) had stated that:

> An outcome expectancy is defined as a person's estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes. An efficacy expectation is the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes. (p. 193)

Eastman and Marzillier (1984) claimed that this definition of efficacy expectation, by including terms such as *successfully* and *execute*, also included outcome expectations. However, Bandura countered the criticism by asserting that Eastman and Marzillier were assuming that the efficacy expectations were only related to physical actions, whereas, particularly in the case of people with phobias, efficacy expectations "encompass being able to draw on a range of cognitive, social and motor subskills" (Bandura, 1984, p. 233). Importantly, self-efficacy is not an indication of a person's skill at a particular task but their "self-perceptions of capability which determine what they do with their skills" (Bandura, 1997, p. 2). It is therefore, "a cognitively defined construct" (Mills, 2014, p. 7) rather than an ability defined one.

Self-Efficacy and Other Self-Concepts

Self-efficacy should not be confused with analogously sounding but quite distinct elements of a person's self-concept such as self-confidence, self-esteem, or self-worth. A person's self-concept is a hierarchal perception of self of which self-efficacy is but one part (Zimmerman, 2000). The APA dictionary of psychology (2015) defines the above terms as follows.: "Self-confidence is the trust a person places in their abilities, capabilities, and judgement" (p. 945). Self-esteem is "an assessment of one's inherent value as a person and includes personal assessment of physical attributes, capabilities, achievements, and how one is viewed by others" (p. 955). Self-worth is "a person's evaluation of themselves as a valuable, capable human being deserving of respect" (p. 959).

Self-efficacy differs from other constructs of the self-concept in distinct ways. The first is that self-efficacy relates to a person's confidence in completing a particular, clearly-defined task, so that an individual could have high self-efficacy in one area, such as learning to drive a car, but low self-efficacy in another, such as learning to play the violin (Pajares, 1995). In this way, self-efficacy is not a general personality trait like the other self-concepts but domain-specific (Zimmerman, 1995). The second difference is that self-efficacy is an individual's evaluation of their ability to complete a task in the future; it is not an assessment of past or present ability. Thus, self-efficacy is predictive of future action (Bandura, 2012) in a way that other self-concepts are not. The final difference is that self-efficacy is determined by how an individual assesses their capabilities to execute specific actions. In contrast, other self-concepts such as self-worth and self-esteem can also be determined by a person's perception of how they are evaluated by others.

Outcomes of Self-Efficacy

Although self-efficacy initially emerged as a concept to understand subjective beliefs of individual capability, self-efficacy has gone on to be explored from numerous perspectives including music, sport, and education. Research has consistently shown that self-efficacy is not only a strong predictor of achieving successful outcomes, but that self-efficacy "can also be raised through variations in the instructional treatment" (Zimmerman, 1995, p. 209). Therefore, self-efficacy is particularly pertinent to educational practitioners for its potential to assist learning. Early self-efficacy research focused on how it could be used to predict achievement and how it related to other constructs. Additionally, researchers investigated how changes in educational practices influenced self-efficacy levels.

Research consistently identifies self-efficacy as a powerful indicator of foreign language learning success (Burrows, 2016; Templin et al., 2001). Raoofi et al.'s, (2012) meta-analysis of self-efficacy in foreign language learning showed how self-efficacy relates to achievement and motivation. There have been consistent findings that students with high self-efficacy attain higher grades (Mills et al., 2007; Zimmerman et al., 1992) choose more challenging tasks (Zimmerman, 2000; Zimmerman et al., 1992), exert greater effort (Schunk, 1995), and persist at challenges longer (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016).

Although self-efficacy in language learning is usually positioned within the theoretical perspective of social cognitive theory, there have been studies from motivational theories which place self-efficacy as a variable of motivation (Dörnyei, 1998; Kormos et al., 2011; Macintyre et al., 1998). Although the approach of motivational researchers is relatively

common in EFL contexts, it does not adhere to the tenets of Bandura's conception of self-efficacy as a core variable in determining academic outcomes and learning strategies employed. Instead, it positions self-efficacy as one of many variables which contribute to motivation which in turn prompts gains in academic achievement. Furthermore, in motivational research, self-efficacy is not always operationalised as defined by Bandura (1977, 1997) and this has been posited as one of the causes of unreliability in some self-efficacy scales (Usher & Pajares, 2008). For this study, I adhere to the concept of self-efficacy as outlined in social cognitive theory but include studies from motivational theory in this literature review when relevant.

Achievement

The major finding of self-efficacy research is how it stimulates academic achievement. Students with high self-efficacy are more likely to challenge difficult tasks, have fewer negative reactions to the task, and thus achieve better academic results (Bandura, 1994). Research consistently shows that self-efficacy beliefs are a reliable indicator of achievement (Schunk, 1995; Zimmerman, 1995, Mills et al., 2007). The results are so convincing that self-efficacy is claimed to be the primary mediator for academic achievement (Zimmerman, 1995). However, assertions that self-efficacy beliefs contribute to achievement "over and above actual ability" (Zimmerman, 1995, p. 213) should be treated with some caution since "high levels of self-efficacy will not yield achievement if the student does not have the skills required to perform the task" (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016, p. 36). This means that self-efficacy can be a powerful indicator of successful completion of tasks that people have a reasonable chance of achieving, but it cannot act as a substitute for skill acquisition. Because of this, misplaced self-efficacy can have adverse consequences if the individual does not have the necessary capabilities (Bandura, 1982).

There have been consistent findings on how self-efficacy fosters language learning attainment. Mills et al. (2007) used a questionnaire of 303 American university students of French. The authors found that the grade self-efficacy of university students of French predicated achievement and grades independently of other motivational variables such as anxiety, self-concept, self-efficacy for self-regulation, and perceived value of language. The study also found that self-efficacy for self-regulation was the strongest predictor of academic grade. This finding reflects Schunk's (1995) assertion that high self-efficacy spurs achievement through increasing the confidence students have in their ability to self-regulate their learning. The more control students feel they have over their learning, the better they do.

The instruments used in Mills et al.'s study were based on those from Mill's doctoral thesis (Mills, 2004) and the results have been replicated in several other studies in foreign language acquisition (Coronado-Aliegro, 2006; Alishah & Dolmaci, 2013). Hsieh and Schallert (2008) also looked at how the amount of control students feel they have over learning outcomes influences both self-efficacy and achievement. They used a questionnaire of 500 American university students of French, German, and Spanish. The authors found that self-efficacy was a predictor of language learning achievement, but also that students who attributed failures to internal factors such as lack of effort had higher self-efficacy. This result suggests that when students feel in control of their learning outcomes, they can raise their self-efficacy and thereby raise future achievement.

In recent years, research into the influence of self-efficacy on EFL achievement in Asian contexts has been steadily developing (Chen & Lin, 2009; Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Wang & Bai, 2017). Hsieh and Kang (2010) found in a study of Korean ninth grade students that self-efficacy was an effective predicator of EFL achievement. Their study also indicates how self-efficacy functions with other motivational factors to influence attainment. The authors found that students who believed their success was down to internal attributes, factors that are within the students' control, had both high self-efficacy and achievement. In Chen and Lin's (2009) study of 120 Taiwanese university students, writing self-efficacy had strong positive correlations with writing test scores. Similarly, Woodrow's (2011) study of Chinese university students showed that self-efficacy was a strong predictor of EFL writing performance. The study showed that anxiety was also a predictor of achievement but to a lesser extent than self-efficacy. Finally, in the Japanese setting, a study by Thompson et al. (2019) indicated that self-efficacy was a significant predictor of the English medium instruction achievement of university students.

Several studies have been conducted to test the reliability of the questionnaire of English self-efficacy QESE (Wang & Bai, 2017; Wang et al., 2014; Wang et al, 2013) a scale of students' EFL self-efficacy in the four skills. It was devised as part of Wang's case-study based, doctoral thesis (2004) in which semi-structured interviews with Chinese children were used to create the scale items. In consequent studies, the scale was tested in different contexts in Korea and China. The results of the study showed that students felt listening was the most difficult task and reading was the easiest. Wang's studies showed that although self-efficacy for listening was weak in both Korea and China, speaking self-efficacy was strong. However, this may be because the speaking scale items focused on students' confidence to provide

information such as how to get to the school rather than on unrehearsed interactions, so students may have different self-efficacy for more demanding speaking tasks. The research findings on self-efficacy's role in EFL achievement appear to be consistent in both Western and East Asian settings.

Goal Setting

Research also shows that self-efficacy influences the goals that students set themselves. Students with high self-efficacy set themselves challenging goals and those with low self-efficacy set easily attainable ones (Kormos et al., 2011). The challenge of the goal dictates the amount of effort exerted and thus, the outcomes attained. However, it is not clear whether goal setting leads to high self-efficacy or if high self-efficacy prompts students to make more ambitious goals. Schunk suggested that goal setting is a determiner of self-efficacy (Schunk, 1991, 1995). However, a qualitative study into the relationship between self-efficacy, learning strategies, goals, and academic achievement (Zimmerman et al., 1992) argues that the link is synergic, and that self-efficacy regulates the grade goals that student set themselves. This finding was also found in a recent study by Bai and Wang (2020), they used structural equation modelling (SEM) to explore the relationship between motivational factors on the English test scores of Hong Kong primary school students. They found that self-efficacy was a predicator of goal setting which in turn predicted test scores. A mixed methods study of British, first-year university students of German on the relationship between students' motivational constructs and self-efficacy (Busse, 2013; Busse & Walter, 2013) also identified how changes in goal motivation are reflected in self-efficacy levels. The findings suggest that both goal settings and self-efficacy contribute to language learning achievement.

Effort and Persistence

Self-efficacy also regulates the amount of effort students exert in completing tasks and the amount of persistence they employ (Zimmerman, 2000). Persistence is measured by setting students impossible tasks and measuring how long students persevere with the task (Zimmerman, 1995). Building self-efficacy connects to fostering motivated learning behaviour (Clement et al, 1994; Piniel & Csizér, 2013). Hsieh and Kang's (2010) study of Korean university students of English showed that students who have high self-efficacy attribute ability to internal factors, such as how hard they try. Consequently, they persevere for longer at tasks, and enjoy more positive outcomes. Conversely, students who believe that ability is dependent on either outside or fixed factors are unlikely to feel that their efforts will

impact on outcomes and quickly give up. Furthermore, Piniel and Csizér, (2013) studied the relationship between Hungarian high school students' motivation, anxiety, learning experiences, and self-efficacy. They concluded that the four constructs have a cyclic relationship with each other, meaning interventions applied to any of the constructs should yield improvements across all of them. The results show that building students' self-efficacy may not only increase the amount of effort students exert in completing tasks but also stop students feeling threatened by challenging classroom tasks.

Learning Strategies

Another key outcome of self-efficacy is how it regulates the learning strategies that students employ. Students with high self-efficacy are more likely to apply learning strategies that foster positive learning outcomes. Schunk (1985) used a meta-analysis of research into self-efficacy in academic settings to produce a model of motivated classroom learning. He concluded that motivated learning occurs because of the interplay between self-efficacy and learning experience. A student's self-efficacy and learning experience affect how well they perform tasks, and the consequent cognitive appraisal of task achievement affects self-efficacy for that task. Although Schunk posited that offering students rewards for positive outcomes would raise their self-efficacy levels, other research informs us that this only applies if such 'rewards' foster intrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 1998). Elsewhere, Schunk (1995) established that goals, models, and feedback all effect self-efficacy and argued that teaching practice needs to incorporate all three to improve the self-efficacy and learning outcomes of students. Thus, self-efficacy appears to combine with learning strategies and other factors to influence attainment.

This conclusion is seen in EFL self-efficacy research. Onoda (2014) conducted a study of the self-efficacy, learning strategies and English vocabulary test scores of 245 Japanese university students majoring in English. He found that self-efficacy predicted students' use of self-regulated learning strategies which in turn predicted achievement. Similarly, Ma et al. (2018) found in a study of Chinese junior high students that learning strategy, self-efficacy and academic performance in EFL correlate strongly. Also in China, the QESE questionnaire was tested on 265 secondary school students (Wang et al., 2014). The study compared students' self-efficacy, self-regulated learning strategies, and English achievement. The authors found that students' self-efficacy and self-regulated learning was significantly related to their exam scores and that students with high self-efficacy were more likely to use self-regulated learning strategies.

Although the literature highlights the centrality of self-efficacy beliefs in academic achievement, students' self-efficacy is not a constant trait. Research evidence suggests it decreases as students progress through the grades. A quantitative study by Pajares and Valiante (2002) found that the self-regulatory learning self-efficacy levels of US students decreased as they moved from elementary through to high school. Similarly, a mixed methods longitudinal study of British university students learning German (Busse & Walter, 2013) also found that students experienced a decrease in motivational factors, including self-efficacy over a year. Additionally, Busse (2013) used questionnaires of motivational constructs combined with semi-structured interviews to assess how British students' self-efficacy for studying German and perceived ideal L2 self varied over the first year of university. She found that self-efficacy and motivation levels decreased over the year, especially for speaking and listening skills. Thus educators need to not only build the self-efficacy of their students, but also maintain the levels once they are established.

In this section, I have described how self-efficacy in educational contexts interrelates with achievement, goal setting, the amount of effort and persistence exerted in challenging tasks, and use of learning strategies. We can see from the above that most research into self-efficacy in EFL learning has focused on either general aptitude for language learning of the four skills, or centred on one of the skills of reading, writing and listening. Few studies have explored self-efficacy in EFL speaking and ones that do often fail to accurately operationalise the speaking skill as a communicative act. In the next section, I discuss the research evidence for the strength of sources of self-efficacy differing in Western and East Asian contexts.

Culture and Self-Efficacy

There is a mounting body of research that suggests that self-efficacy may not be stable across cultures. In this section, I will discuss the reasons literature provides for this variance and discuss the findings from relevant research into differences in self-efficacy beliefs and sources of self-efficacy in East Asian contexts.

Markus & Kitayama (1991) suggested there was a difference between independent and interdependent societies (referred to in other studies as individualist versus collectivist cultures). They argue that it is essential to remember that there is no clear East/West distinction since although collectivist cultures are typically found in East Asian societies, they are also found in some African, South American, and south European societies as well. Nevertheless, they assert that most of the knowledge that psychologists have generated is based on the Western experience of the independent self which values internal thoughts and

personal achievements, rather than the interdependent self which esteems the evaluations of others and the maintenance of social connections (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Empirical research points to self-efficacy levels being lower in collectivist societies than Western ones (Ahn et al., 2016). However, Kitayama et al., (1997) contend that cultural difference does not equate to more negative outcomes for collectivist cultures. This insight suggests that although people from East Asian cultures may have lower self-efficacy, they may still experience a similar level of achievement to Western counterparts.

Oettingen (1995) states that since self-efficacy is formed by how individuals appraise information from various sources, cultural factors are likely to influence how people form their self-efficacy beliefs. Cultural difference can occur both in an individual's access to particular sources such as not having a skilled user in their class and also in how the sources of self-efficacy information are valued. Oettingen also points out that for those from collectivist societies, the position of teachers is paramount because feedback is highly valued, and students expect teachers to initiate learning in the classroom. Oettingen and Zosuls (2006) used Hofstede's national cultures dimensions (Hofstede, 1997.) to hypothesise about Asian students' sources of self-efficacy. The authors asserted that collectivist cultures would value in-group appraisals (social modelling and persuasion) over personal achievements (mastery experiences). This argument was first made by Earley (1994) who said that for collectivist cultures, the processing of in-group performance achievements (social modelling) is essential for the formation of self-efficacy beliefs. Hofstede et al.'s (2010) national culture dimensions, although widely used, rely on broad generalisations and assumptions of cultural identity (Javidan et al., 2006). This means that it is not as reliable an indicator of cultural identity as information drawn from in-depth interviews would be.

The claim that mastery is the strongest indicator of self-efficacy (Usher & Pajares, 2008), may not be true in East Asian cultures. Several recent studies have looked at the levels of invariance in self-efficacy scale results across cultures. Teo and Kam (2014) looked at invariance in general self-efficacy scales between people from Germany and Singapore. They found that the two groups did not respond to the scale in similar ways across all items. This finding suggests that cultural factors may account for the difference. However, the authors contend that the difference could stem from the different response styles of the two countries, because respondents to Likert scales from Asian countries tend to give modest answers and choose answers around the centre point rather than from the extremities (Cohen et al., 2011).

Building on Teo and Kam's argument, Ahn et al. (2016) explored how self-efficacy information is evaluated across three distinct cultures. Their study used multi-group confirmatory analysis on scale results of social modelling and social persuasion (the two other-oriented sources) sources of self-efficacy for maths of people from Korea, the Philippines and the US. Korea was considered a collectivist society, the US an individualist one, and the Philippines a mid-way society. The analysis revealed that self-efficacy was a predictor of achievement across all groups but that for Korean students, social persuasion from parents was a powerful predictor. The authors also discovered that self-efficacy levels were much weaker for Korean and Philippine students than for US students. The authors suggest that the result could be attributed to collectivist cultures' tendency to be humble and underreport ability, but it appears that support from trusted others such as parents is more influential in collectivist societies.

Similarly, a study of different cultures within New Zealand (Meissel & Rubie-Davies, 2016), compared invariance in self-efficacy for math evaluations between European, Maori, Pasifika and Asian heritage students. The authors found that all groups had strong mastery beliefs and that although self-efficacy was related to achievement in Maori, Pasifika, and European groups, it was not for the Asian group. Hence, they hypothesize that self-efficacy beliefs may be less important for Asian students and other factors such as ability may have precedence. However, the results should be treated with some caution since there is inequivalence in the cultural categories. Maori and Pasifika categories are specific, narrow groupings representing unique ethnic cultures; European and Asian categories are broad, general groupings with each category encompassing diverse, distinct cultures. Hence it is difficult to compare the four groups on equal terms. By employing a broad definition of Asian heritage students, it is hard to determine the characteristics of the students. A study that dealt with more narrowly defined cultural groups such as one nationality would have yielded more reliable results that could be compared to other studies.

The review of the role of culture in self-efficacy indicates how mastery may not be the strongest source in East Asian cultures and that in-group appraisals through social persuasion and modelling may carry more weight. It also appears that East Asian people may underreport their self-efficacy beliefs and abilities. In educational psychology research, the majority of research has come from Western contexts; this has led to findings from such settings being forwarded as illustrative of the general human condition despite the sample being unrepresentative of varied human cultures (Chen, 2008). Looked at from the cultural

perspective, the problem of assuming sources of self-efficacy in one context will be the same in another becomes apparent and enforces the need for more research to be conducted in non-Western countries.

Sources of Self-Efficacy

The discussion thus far has looked at how perceived self-efficacy beliefs relate to outcomes such as achievement and goals, as well as the influence of culture on the potency of the four sources of self-efficacy. Such findings help educators and administrators understand the importance of students' self-efficacy beliefs in determining academic success (Pajares, 1995, Busse & Walter, 2013). Students' current self-efficacy level reflects the totality of their past positive or negative experiences with the target subject (Schunk, 1985). Therefore, if educators and researchers can understand the experiences that have formed students' current self-efficacy beliefs for the target subject, they can identify areas that may be deficient. They can then use this knowledge to transform current teaching approaches into ones that develop student self-efficacy. Additionally, educators can guide students in using strategies to cultivate their self-efficacy levels further. Consequently, since the 1980s, there has been a growing body of research into students' sources of self-efficacy.

Sources of Self-Efficacy's Effects on Perceived Self-Efficacy

The sources of self-efficacy can be either positive or negative. For example, succeeding at a task or failing at a task, being praised or criticized, watching a classmate complete a task correctly or incorrectly, or feeling excited or nervous about a task. Positive experiences should raise or enforce self-efficacy beliefs; negative experiences should diminish self-efficacy beliefs as shown in Figure 2.1. Since self-efficacy is formed through interpretation of learning experiences (Pajares, 1997), students need both access to the experience and to interpret it favourably for it to enhance self-efficacy. Additionally, Bandura (1997) states that a person's self-efficacy beliefs determine the force of the effect, so that if a person has robust self- efficacy the effect of negative experiences will be lessened. The opposite effect is also true and students who have low self-efficacy may require extensive positive experiences to raise efficacy beliefs. Additionally, learning experiences should progress from structured induction activities to "self-directed performance" to create lasting change in self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Consequently, teachers should ensure that the end goal of speaking practice is unsupported, self-initiated language output.

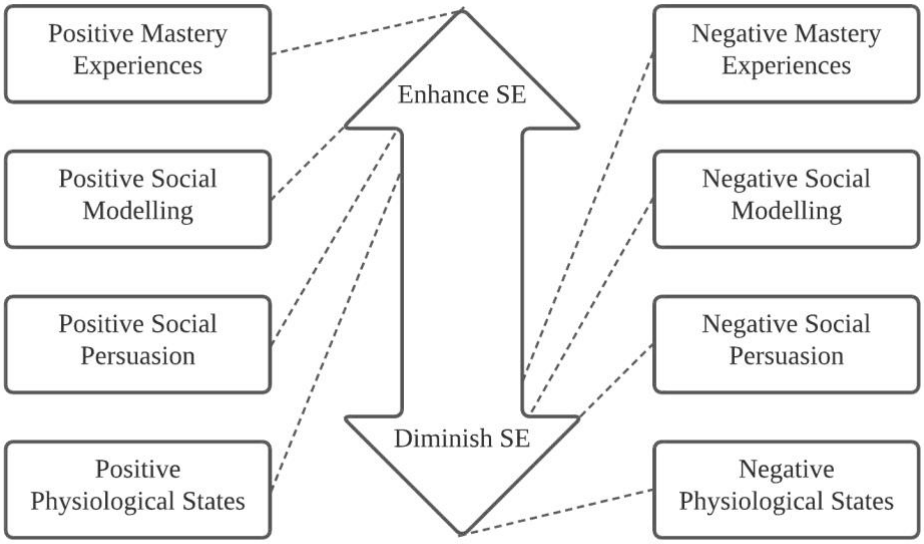


Figure 2.1 Effect of Experiences on Self-Efficacy

Mastery Experiences

Mastery experiences are the experiences that a person has had of performing a particular task. Positive experiences will increase self-efficacy, whereas negative experiences will lower it (Schunk, 1985). The effectiveness of mastery experiences depends on the suitability of the tasks. Tasks need to carefully be scaled in increasingly challenging progressions so that participants become familiar with the task and resistant to perceived threats (Bandura, 1977, 1994). Additionally, tasks need to be sufficiently stimulating for the participant, as tasks that can be completed with minimal effort and ability do not change self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Bandura argues that mastery experiences are the most authentic evidence of personal efficacy (1995).

Social Modelling

Social modelling refers to the opportunities a person has had to observe others modelling the same task. The more similar a person is to the modeller, the stronger the effect on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994; Schunk, 1985). Further, watching others persevere through challenging tasks has a more powerful effect than watching someone complete the task effortlessly. In practice, this means that it is more effective for students to watch other students strive to complete a task than to watch an expert teacher easily accomplish it. Social modelling was originally called vicarious experience and is sometimes referred to as such in the literature. However, watching oneself perform a task on video or self-modelling, is now a

commonly accepted component of this source (Schunk, 1995), so social modelling has become a common way to refer to this source (Bandura, 2012; Usher et al., 2019) and is the term I use in this thesis.

Social Persuasion

The verbal support that a person receives from others about their ability to perform the task is called social persuasion. The credibility of the speaker and the sincerity of the support determine the level of importance the receiver places on the persuasion (Bandura, 1977; Schunk, 1985; Zimmerman, 2000). Bandura (1994) contends that although it is difficult to increase self-efficacy through social persuasion alone, it is relatively easy to lower it through negative feedback. Thus, negative words can have a devastating effect and be difficult to remedy with subsequent positive feedback. Teachers and those with influence over learners need to remember that it is far "easier to undermine self-efficacy than it is to enhance it" (Usher & Pajares, 2009, p. 90). Schunk's (1985) reminder of the power of feedback and attributional feedback from teachers on students is particularly pertinent here.

Physiological States

Physiological states denote how physical and emotional reactions to the task such as stress, anxiety, and excitement are interpreted. Bandura (1997) states that the source should be interpreted through mood, arousal, and anxiety encompassing both negative and positive reactions. It is important to note that it is not the emotions themselves but how they are interpreted that impacts on self-efficacy. If anxiety is attributed to external factors such as pre-game nerves, then it has less impact on self-efficacy than attributing it to personal factors such as lack of ability (Bandura, 1977, 1982). The sources of self-efficacy are also interrelated in that anxiety levels can be lowered through gains in the other three sources of self-efficacy; this is especially true of positive mastery experiences (Bandura, 1977).

Review of Meta-Analyses of Sources of Self-Efficacy

In a critical review of research into sources of self-efficacy, Usher & Pajares (2008) found three main issues in the body of research. Firstly, they identified an abundance of quantitative studies but few qualitative ones. The quantitative studies were dominated by research employing scales adapted from Lent et al.'s, (1991) scale of sources of math self-efficacy. Secondly, they critiqued many studies for misrepresenting the four sources of self-efficacy and using scale items that do not authentically reflect the definitions of the sources as outlined by Bandura. Thirdly, they criticized several studies for methodological mistakes such

as mistakenly assuming a hierarchy of sources. Studies had conducted regression analysis in the order of mastery experiences, social modelling, social persuasion, and physiological states. Yet, although there is strong evidence supporting mastery as the primary source, there is no evidence of the assumed order of the other three sources.

A more recent meta-analysis by Byars-Winston et al. (2017) revealed the lack of sources of EFL self-efficacy research. They discovered that three-quarters of the sources of self-efficacy studies were for math and STEM subjects. Of the twenty-eight studies, only one dealt with English as a second language (ESL). Their analysis found that mastery was the most powerful source with the other three sources also being weakly predictive. Their analyses also found that race and ethnicity were not moderators of self-efficacy. However, this conclusion has some problems in that the authors split the studies into skewed groups. Firstly, the study participants were split into whites and non-whites racial groups. The justification for placing all non-whites in a monolithic category is unclear since it encompasses diverse ethnic groups with unique cultural identities. It seems unreasonable to assume that there is no variation in experience between all non-white groups. Moreover, in another analysis, the authors split the study participants into US and international studies. Again it is unclear why the authors decided to analyse the results of all non US-based studies uniformly, since they have little communality other than not being the US. It would have been preferable for them to have split studies into equally weighted groups such as Western and Eastern. As such, their claim that cultural factors do not moderate self-efficacy appears to be insubstantial. Nevertheless, these two meta-analyses reveal a predominance of STEM based studies in sources of self-efficacy research, and the need for more research conducted in non-Western settings.

Although this study's aim is to explore the sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy there are few studies in the EFL area. Therefore, the following sections also look at how sources of self-efficacy have been explored in math, science, and student-teacher domains.

Sources of Math Self-Efficacy

As discussed above, sources of self-efficacy for math and science constitute the bulk of research in sources of self-efficacy research. The domain is important because many of the consequent sources of self-efficacy instruments in various domains were based on Lent et al.'s sources of mathematics self-efficacy scale (SMES). Lent et al. (1991) used questionnaires including SMES to identify correlations between sources of US psychology majors' math self-efficacy and science-based career choice. They also found that performance (mastery)

experiences were the most significant indicator of achievement in math and that self-efficacy was related to subject interest and course choices. The psychometric properties of SMES were strengthened in a survey by Lopez and Lent (1992) which explored the sources of math self-efficacy of US high school students. The study found through multiple regression analysis that past performance was also the strongest source of self-efficacy for high school students, despite the shorter time frame they had had to accumulate numerous experiences. The finding suggests that the source is just as important even when the extent of experience is less. They also found that emotional arousal was a contributing factor to perceived self-efficacy. Due to the relatively small sample of fifty participants, the results should be treated with some caution. Additionally, since the study is purely quantitative, there is a lack of rich data into students' math learning experiences. Nevertheless, the SMES has been highly influential and adapted for use in researching other subject domains.

Sources of Science Self-Efficacy

Britner and Pajares (2006) adapted the SMES to investigate how each of the four sources of self-efficacy contributes to US junior high school students' science self-efficacy. The study involved 319 middle school students in the US. The authors discovered that mastery sources were the strongest source. They also observed that all four sources were significantly correlated with self-efficacy. One criticism of the study is that like many other studies, the target subject's self-efficacy (here science) is measured by student's belief in their ability to achieve a particular grade. Yet neither student's ability to perform well on tests nor the assessments that determine grades are an accurate reflection of students' ability to engage with the subject, because the teacher may be a harsh marker, or the student may not perform well under pressure and so on.

Sources of Teacher Efficacy

Although self-efficacy is a powerful indicator of whether students perform well at a subject and achieve desired grades, other factors such as socioeconomic background, goals for study, and the quality of teacher instruction also influence academic outcomes. Consequently, there is a significant body of research into student teachers' self-efficacy to teach their specific subject. The area is intriguing because an influential quantitative study by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007), using the teachers' sense of self-efficacy scale, found that although mastery was the most powerful source, the other three sources had more impact when the student-teacher was still new and yet to build a repertoire of mastery experiences.

The study was of 255 novice and career teachers in the US. Because the authors found that social persuasion was more important to novice teachers than expert ones, it could follow that social persuasion is more important when people attempt new challenges than when they are developing already familiar skills. This has ramifications for Japanese university students who are often learning EFL speaking for the first time.

Similarly, a mixed methods study of Greek primary school student teachers by Poulou (2007) revealed mastery experiences and social persuasion, along with the teachers' personal motivation for teaching, had a strong influence over self-efficacy levels. In contrast, social modelling and physiological states had a lower impact. Interestingly, the Poulou study demonstrated that the student-teacher's personality is vital for how they form self-efficacy beliefs. The finding not only supports Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2017) claim of the importance of social persuasion, but that there is the possibility of further sources of self-efficacy in addition to Bandura's theorised four.

There is a growing belief amongst researchers in East Asian contexts that the sources of self-efficacy may have different weighting than the Western ones in which research is predominately conducted. Phan and Locke's (2015) study of Vietnamese teachers' self-efficacy beliefs concluded that social persuasion, rather than mastery, was the strongest source of self-efficacy for in-service teachers, and that lack of feedback from authoritative figures had a detrimental effect on self-efficacy. Although the methodology was robust and based on a triangulation of interviews, journaling, and observation data; the researchers acknowledge that the results are very much their interpretation and not a definitive conclusion.

Despite the intriguing findings from teacher efficacy research, it is essential to remember that the participants of such research have decided to pursue teaching as a career. Therefore, they are highly motivated to study the target subject and the power of the sources of self-efficacy may not be comparable to those of students studying compulsory subjects at school or university. Nevertheless, the research into teacher self-efficacy indicates that both domain and context have great influence over how sources are interpreted, and questions the assumption that mastery is always the strongest source. The findings reinforce the need for bespoke research in specific domains and contexts.

Sources of EFL Self-Efficacy

As discussed above, most sources of self-efficacy research have centred on the sources of self-efficacy for mathematics (Lent et al., 1991; Usher & Pajares, 2009), science, or student

teachers (Phan & Locke, 2015; Poulou, 2007). However, there are a few studies that deal with sources of EFL self-efficacy. A study by Zheng et al., (2017) sought to validate an instrument to investigate the relationships between Chinese college EFL learners' sources of self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy, and English achievement in all four language skills. The study of 700 university students found that social persuasion was the biggest predictor of academic self-efficacy and achievement. They also found that social persuasion was the only predictor of speaking achievement. The instruments had relatively acceptable validity and reliability with overall Cronbach alpha of 0.75. The sources of EFL self-efficacy scale was adapted from ones made for sources of math self-efficacy not specifically for EFL. Consequently, the scale may miss some of the unique issues related to language learning. Additionally, the study measures speaking achievement through students' ability to read passages aloud and respond to interviewers' questions, not the array of skills that constitute communicative ability.

More recently, Zhang & Ardasheva, (2019), conducted a study of Chinese college students' sources of self-efficacy for public speaking in English. They employed a new scale designed to test how sources of self-efficacy related to students' self-efficacy for public speaking, while taking into consideration other factors such as gender and academic major. The authors determined that mastery sources were the most potent determiner of self-efficacy. They also discovered that science majors were more influenced by social modelling, and social science majors by social persuasion. The study's finding did not support the growing evidence that in East Asia the other-oriented sources of social persuasion and social modelling may be more potent factors than self-oriented mastery (Ahn et al., 2016). However, this could be because the data was analysed with hierarchal regressions with the sources entered in the order of mastery experiences, social modelling, social persuasion, and physiological states. This approach has been criticised because there is no theoretical evidence for the order. Mastery experiences have been consistently found to have prominence in Western contexts, but there is insufficient empirical evidence to suggest a hierarchy amongst the remaining three sources (Usher & Pajares, 2008).

EFL Self-Efficacy in Japan

In the Japanese context, research into perceived self-efficacy and sources of self-efficacy in EFL learning is still relatively sparse with research mainly focusing on receptive skills of reading and listening (Burrows, 2016; Todaka, 2017). There is a prevalence of quantitative studies with few mixed methods or qualitative studies and methodological issues

apparent in the earlier studies. One of the earliest studies explored whether grade self-efficacy would predict actual grade achievement of 74 Japanese, junior high school students enrolled on an English course (Templin, 1999). Templin used an English grade self-efficacy questionnaire to separate students into low and high self-efficacy groups and then used T-tests to compare the two groups' grade achievement. The higher self-efficacy group gained higher grades. However, in this study, the students filled in the self-efficacy questionnaire in the period between taking the English test and receiving their final grade. Hence, the scale was not measuring self-efficacy accurately as the students had already completed the test, and the questionnaire was not predictive of future test performance.

Some Japan-based studies have attempted to validate self-efficacy scales. Templin et al. (2001) created a self-efficacy questionnaire for general English and used it to test if students' self-efficacy and achievement increased after learning English through a self-efficacy based syllabus. The participants were 293 first-year university students, and the study used a pre-test post-test design. The authors found that the scale was reliable, and that students' self- efficacy and English achievement increased. However, as the study did not use a control group, it is difficult to prove that gains in self-efficacy were the main reason for students' increases in achievement. Also, some of the items appear to have limited relevance to English language learning. For example, "how well can you understand signs in an airplane?", "How well can you understand that two people can experience the same thing differently?". More domain specific items might have strengthened the findings. Burrows', (2009) study of an English speaking self-efficacy scale for Japan did not validate the scale but instead presented a rationale for its development. The items on the scale began with straightforward items such as "How certain are you that you can say the days of the week?" and ended with challenging items such as "How certain are you that you can describe your country's political system in detail?". The item requires not only English language knowledge but also ability to discuss complex political systems in detail, so it is not clear how well it measured speaking.

Later Japan-based studies have shown how self-efficacy combines with other constructs to foster achievement. Leeming (2017) conducted a mixed method longitudinal study of 77 Japanese university students' speaking self-efficacy. Leeming adapted the Motivated Strategies Learning Scale (MLSQ) by Pintrich and De Groot (1990) to measure growth in self-efficacy at eight timepoints over one year. The MLSQ is a well-used scale that measures students' self-efficacy, intrinsic value, anxiety, cognitive strategy, self-regulated

learning, and anxiety. However MLSQ has a limited number of self-efficacy items which means that it may not tap the self-efficacy construct as well as a bespoke scale. Leeming's study found that students' self-efficacy developed over the year and that ability, extroversion, and gender predicted self-efficacy. The finding that self-efficacy increased over the year is counter to other studies (Pajares & Valiente, 2002; Busse & Walter, 2013). Onoda (2014) also used the MSLQ in his study of the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs, effort regulation, and vocabulary development of 255 Japanese, second-year university students. He found that self-efficacy indirectly predicted vocabulary development through effort regulation. The study highlights how self-efficacy alone is unlikely to raise learning achievement, and instead, works in conjunction with other affective constructs and learning strategies. Similarly, Todaka (2017) used an adapted version of Rahimi and Abedini's (2014) self-efficacy questionnaire to explore the effects of teaching learning cycles on 200 Japanese students' listening self-efficacy levels. Students who had high self-efficacy and concrete reasons to study sustained their motivation over the year. Like Onoda's study (2014), the results point to self-efficacy working in tandem with other learning strategies such as learning goals to raise achievement and motivation.

Most studies of EFL self-efficacy in Japan have focused on self-efficacy levels rather than its sources. However, a study by Burrows (2016) compared current and retrospective sources of self-efficacy for reading of 322 Japanese university students. In Rasch analysis mastery experiences, social modelling, and social persuasion loaded as one factor with physiological states loading as a separate factor. This suggests that sources may be experienced differently and have different boundaries in East Asian settings. The author also found that student assessment of JSHS sources of self-efficacy levels was comparable to current sources of self-efficacy level assessments irrespective of whether they were positive or negative. This finding is counter to research which suggests that academic self-efficacy decreases over time, this may be because Burrows asked students to evaluate JSHS self-efficacy levels retrospectively, that is, the students reported past self-efficacy levels through the perspective of their current self-efficacy beliefs.

Although most of the Japan-based studies have been quantitative, there are signs that mixed methods research to explore self-efficacy in Japan is slowly gaining traction. Thompson (2018) used a sequential explanatory mixed methods design to examine the academic self-efficacy beliefs of 217 Japanese university students. The course objectives were rewritten as scale items which students indicated their confidence to achieve on a 10-

point Likert scale. One-way ANOVA tests revealed that students had higher self-efficacy for completing academic tasks than for answering questions. Semi-structured interviews revealed that mastery was the strongest contributor to self-efficacy, and lack of chances to prepare for question and answer sessions diminished students' self-efficacy. The results suggest that anxiety inducing experiences such as answering the teachers questions or being unprepared lessen self-efficacy. The study's participants were high-level English users with TOEIC scores in the range of 780-890 (Common European Framework of Reference B2), which is significantly higher than the average mean score for Japanese of TOEIC 520 (ETS TOEIC, 2018). Thus, future studies might include students with a broader range of English ability to generalise the results to the wider Japanese context.

Similarly, Thompson et al. (2019) used an explanatory design to explore university students' self-beliefs on an English medium instruction (EMI) program in Japan. The study examined whether students perceived self-efficacy contributed to their success. The study included 139 students in the questionnaire and seven students in the interview stage. Although self-concept was not found to be a predictor of EMI success, self-efficacy was. Like Pajares (1995), the interviews showed that students with strong self-efficacy exerted efforts in studying and took advantage of efficacy forming opportunities. The authors acknowledge that a limitation of the study is the low number of interview participants and that participants all had high self-efficacy and English ability.

Sources of Self-Efficacy and Mixed Methods Research

This review has shown there is an inclination toward quantitative studies of self-efficacy in EFL research. The finding reflects that found by Usher and Pajares (2008). There are few published, mixed method research (MMR) articles of sources of self-efficacy in educational contexts. I was able to locate some articles which reported one phase of larger exploratory, instrument development studies (Usher, 2009; Usher & Pajares, 2009; Wang, et al., 2013). I was also able to locate the two very recent MMR articles (Thompson, 2018; Thompson et al., 2019) based in Japan discussed above. MMR articles in the wider field of self-efficacy in education have tended to adopt an explanatory sequential design which is a quantitative first phase followed by a qualitative second phase used to explain the initial findings (Busse & Walter, 2013; Klassen & Durksen, 2014; Siwatu, 2011). These studies all used a self-efficacy questionnaire with follow up semi-structured interviews. Other studies have included open-ended questions on the questionnaire in lieu of interviews (Usher et al., 2019). As this approach does not allow follow-up questions or in-depth discussion, it is often

either referred to as "mixed methods light" or is not accepted as mixed methods research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 73). There is a need for more MMR that combines in-depth insights from respondents with robust data from quantitative surveys to provide educators with a fuller picture of the role of self-efficacy in EFL learning.

Motivational Factors of Language Learning

Although research shows self-efficacy is a strong predicator of successful outcomes in language learning, as seen, a range of motivational factors also play an important role. Consequently, in the next section, I discuss three motivational concepts which play an essential function in learning and attainment. They are included here because of their relevance to the research aim of understanding students' sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy. I discuss them in relation to social cognitive theory and I will reassess this conceptualisation in the discussion of quantitative findings.

Self-efficacy can be understood as one of the personal beliefs within Bandura's triadic relationship of personal, environmental, and behavioural factors determine human agency (Figure 2.2). Due to the bidirectional nature of the determinants, it both influences and is influenced by behavior and environmental determinants. In this way, self-efficacy influences achievement by increasing students' use of motivated learning behavior.

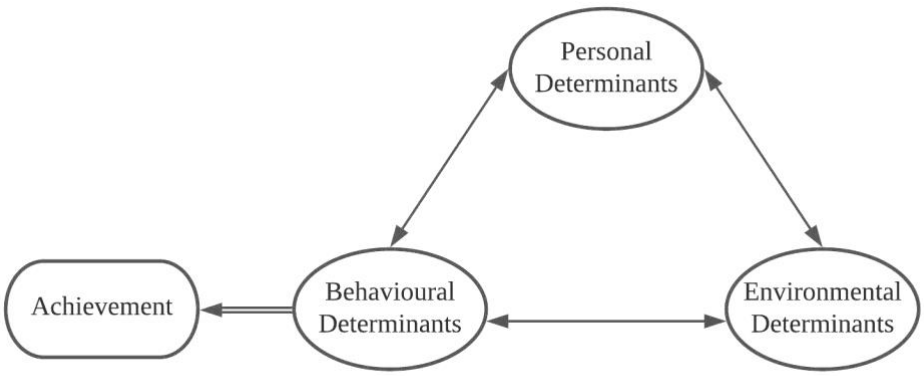


Figure 2.2 Triadic Relationship of Social Cultural Theory (adapted Bandura, 2012)

Self-efficacy is but one of the personal determinants that can affect behaviour. The model in Figure 2.3, is an adaption of Bandura's (2012) model of the relationship between self-efficacy, goals, outcome expectations, sociocultural factors, and achievement. To this, I have added where I conceptualise attitudes to L2, and ideal L2 self to fit in the model. In the model, goals are formed by self-efficacy beliefs. The literature review suggests that attitudes

to the L2 are part of the personal determinants as a cognitively defined construct. Ideal L2 self "possess both cognitive and evaluative elements" (Mills, 2014, pg. 10) I, therefore, conceive that it is influenced by sociocultural factors whilst being closely related to goals.

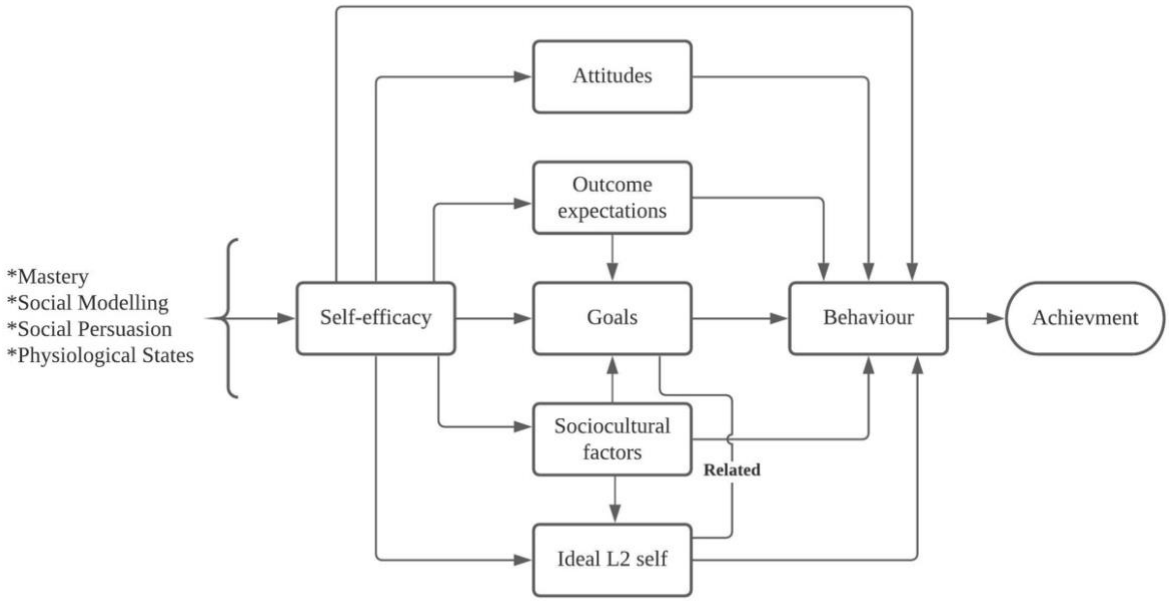


Figure 2.3 Relationship of Self-Efficacy, Motivational Factors, Behaviour and Achievement (based on Bandura, 2012)

Student Attitude to Target Language

Students' attitude to the target language has proven to be closely related to language learning achievement. In a meta-analysis of their past research, Masgoret and Garner (2003) stated that the positive correlation between attitude to target language and language learning achievement was consistently strong. Mills et al. (2007) also discovered that students' attitude to French was strongly associated with French grade achievement. Attitude to language learning may build attainment through its strong effects on effort and persistence (Kormos et al., 2011). Similar findings have also been found in Japan-based studies. Both self-efficacy and attitude to English have been shown to significantly influence motivated learning behaviour (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). Elsewhere, self-efficacy, attitude to English, and achievement have been found to be strongly associated with each other (Thompson et al., 2019). The findings point to self-efficacy, attitudes to English and motivated learning interacting to foster positive learning outcomes. This implies that researchers should also examine students' attitudes to the target language when they study EFL self-efficacy beliefs or sources of self-efficacy.

Goals for Studying English

Research shows that goal setting is an outcome of self-efficacy beliefs. However, the goals that students have for language learning also strong relate to their self-efficacy beliefs and academic achievement. Goals are often split into two main categories, mastery goals and performance goals, mastery goals "orientate students to develop skills and understand their work whereas performance goals relate to achievement in comparison to others such as getting a better grade than classmates" (Pintrich & Zusho, 2007, p. 744). Furthermore, mastery goals are argued to better facilitate achievement (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). Thus, encouraging students to develop personal goals that do not involve students comparing themselves to others' achievements, should lead to better learning outcomes. Kormos et al. (2011) contend that language learning goals and belief in ability to achieve those goals are part of students' self-guide for language learning. This occurs because students' self-evaluations and feedback about progress towards their goals enables them to focus on learning tasks (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2014). In this way, the pursuit of long term goals is essential for achievement (Duckworth et al., 2007). Conversely, a lack of goals has also been shown to be a cause of low self-efficacy (Wang & Bai, 2017) and the need for goals in self-efficacy formation was confirmed by Todaka (2017) who found that concrete study reasons were a prerequisite for the self-efficacy formation of Japanese university students. This means that in order to understand the learning experiences of Japanese university students at JSHS and the factors that influence attainment, the goals students have for studying English also need to be considered.

Ideal L2 self

In the motivational self-system, ideal L2 self, not self-efficacy, is argued to be the strongest determiner of achievement (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) developed the ideal L2 self construct from Gardener's concept of intergrativeness, the desire to become similar to the L2 community. Ideal L2 self is influenced by instrumentality or perceived benefits of the L2, and attitudes towards to the L2 and L2 community (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005). The ideal L2 self not only refers to language skills development but to general attributes such as "students seeing themselves as part of a global community" (Yashima, 2009. p. 151) and students envisioning using English in their careers and using it with international friends (Ryan, 2009). In the Japanese context, the ideal L2 self has been found to be the most potent determiner of achievement for English majors (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). The results of ideal L2 self research point to a link between self-efficacy, ideal L2 self,

and motivated learning behaviour. Self-efficacy research is usually grounded in Bandura's social cognitive theory; ideal L2 self draws from motivational research as demarcated by Dörnyei (1994). In Dörnyei's motivational self-system, self-efficacy is one of the affective factors that comprise motivation and achievement. In this thesis, ideal L2 self is theorised as a product of self-efficacy similar to goals as shown in Figure 2.3 above. This difference from Bandura's concept of self-efficacy makes it difficult to compare or integrate these approaches within this study. Thus, ideal L2 self is not included in the research questions below.

Research Aims

The review of the literature provides evidence for cultural difference in how East Asian cultures evaluate the sources of self-efficacy. Additionally, there are few studies that focus on sources of self-efficacy for EFL speaking in Japan, despite communicative ability being a conduit for global academic and employment markets, and the Japanese government advocating the development of students' communicative competence. At the time of writing, I could not locate any study on Japanese students' sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy. There is a need for research in this area that draws from a broad sample of Japanese students. I, therefore, decided that the research aim for my study should be to identify the sources of Japanese university students' EFL speaking self-efficacy. To achieve the aim, I decided to first conduct interviews and then to assess whether the findings could be generalised to a wider population. Since there was no instrument to measure sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy in Japan, I used the interview findings to develop the sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy inventory (SEFLS-SEI).

Research Questions

The research questions that guided my study were:

RQ1 What sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy experiences have Japanese university students had at JSHS?

RQ2 What are students' goals for studying EFL speaking?

RQ3 What are students' attitudes to studying EFL speaking?

RQ4 What other issues, if any, may be contributing to students' sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy experiences?

RQ5 To what extent do the inventory results generalise the interview findings?

RQ6 What is the relationship between the factors on the SEFLS-SEI?

Summary

In the above literature review, I have outlined the theoretical framework of the study and provided a discussion of research into self-efficacy and academic success including foreign language learning, a critique of sources of self-efficacy, and Japan-based research into EFL self-efficacy. The literature review highlights how self-efficacy is closely linked to other affective factors and learning strategies, which influence learning achievements. It also underscores how much of the research fails to operationalise self-efficacy scales as outlined by Bandura. Finally, the above literature review has shown how Japan-based self-efficacy research has yet to explore sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy effectively. There is a need for research in this area to provide a foundation for further explorations. In the next chapter, I will present the research methodology that I will use to pursue the research aim.

Chapter 3 Phase One Qualitative Methodology

In the previous literature review chapter, I outlined how, at the time of writing, there was no study of Japanese students' sources of English speaking self-efficacy. At the same time, there is an urgent need for Japanese graduates to attain communicative competence to participate in global education and employment markets. I argued that research into sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy is needed so that university educators in Japan can supplement the sources of self-efficacy experiences students are lacking, and researchers can investigate the relationships between sources of self-efficacy and academic achievement in Japan.

In this chapter, I will outline the methodology I used to explore the research issue. In the first section, I will state the epistemological assumptions that underpinned how I approached the research issue. In the second section, I will present my rationale for adopting a mixed methods design and state its benefits and limitations. Then in section three, I will explain the three stages of the exploratory sequential research design in detail. This design begins with an initial qualitative phase, the results of which are used in an interim stage for the instrument development. It concludes with the implementation of the instrument in the final quantitative phase. Therefore, in this chapter, I will discuss the methodology of the qualitative phase and wait to discuss the methodology for the instrument development and quantitative phase until after the presentation of the qualitative results in Chapter 4.

Epistemological Assumptions

Research in the social sciences are determined by how the researcher looks at and interprets the social reality (Cohen et al., 2011). Researchers need to clarify the forces that have guided their beliefs so that readers can understand the ontological and epistemological assumptions that govern the research methodology and methods. Creswell (2013) defines ontology as the researcher's belief about the "nature of reality" (p. 20) about whether reality and truth are universal entities, are constructed by the individual in multiple realities, or a mixture of both. He defines epistemology "what counts as knowledge" (p.20) as how the researcher decides to explore reality and uncover truths. It is visible in both the distance a researcher places between themselves and the research participants and how the researcher approaches the research issue. Positivist researchers objectively collect and test data with research instruments and maintain a distance between themselves and the research participants. Knowledge is considered to be "observable, stable and measurable" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 23). Constructivist researchers strive to uncover how individuals interpret and make sense of experiences and believe "that the social world can only be understood from

the standpoint of the individuals who are part of the ongoing action being investigated" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 15). Explicitly stating these assumptions is standard procedure in qualitative and mixed methods research but may not be directly addressed in quantitative research. Pragmatic researchers acknowledge that some truths can be universal, whereas others are steeped in personal experience and that the purpose of the research should determine the approaches taken. Ultimately this involves "treating epistemological questions separately from methods and methodology" (Biesta, 2015).

Pragmatism

For this study, I adopted a mixed methods approach which aligns closely with pragmatism, a worldview which is common amongst mixed methods researchers (Cohen et al., 2011; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2011). Originally, mixed methods research faced criticisms because the underlying epistemologies of post-positivism and constructivism were considered opposing dichotomies. As such, a researcher could not use qualitative and quantitative methods within one study because it was impossible to align the two worldviews (Bryman, 2009). This limitation has now been widely addressed by "many (or most) mixed methods writers arguing for some version of pragmatism" as an epistemology (Johnson et al., 2007, p. 125).

Pragmatism is based on the principle of using the approach that works best depending on the demands of the research question and the nature of the research context (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Thus, pragmatism allows the researcher to choose appropriate methods using the research questions to govern the research direction rather than the researcher's philosophical stance (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Crucially, pragmatism recognizes that some research questions will best be addressed through a balance of both methods (Johnson et al., 2007). Because pragmatism starts with considering the demands of the research question rather than the researchers' beliefs about the nature of the real world, it has been argued that it is not a philosophy at all. That although it may offer a practical solution to paradigm dualism, it does not provide a logical solution (Johnson et al., 2007). Consequently, Biesta (2015) contends that pragmatism should not be viewed as the philosophical underpinning of mixed methods research but rather as a way to make and understand research decisions better. A pragmatic stance gives the researcher a fluid perspective towards epistemologies and methodologies but does not demand that the researcher adopt particular methods.

Mixed Methods Research

Mixed methods research (MMR) emerged from the advocacy for triangulation of data to increase validity of research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2011). It gained prominence as a third methodology during the paradigm wars as a way to bridge the gulf between qualitative and quantitative research epistemologies: worldviews which had been considered to be in opposition (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Not only did the advent of MMR enable researchers to hold multiple viewpoints, but it also became more common for researchers from both paradigms to acknowledge that incorporating elements of the other paradigm had benefits for research outcomes (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Although researchers have yet to agree on a decisive definition of MMR, as the methodology approaches an era of acceptance, its demarcation is becoming more solid. Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) define MMR as one where the researcher:

- collects and analyses both qualitative and quantitative data rigorously in response to research questions and hypotheses
- integrates (or mixes or combines) the two forms of data and their results
- organizes these procedures into specific research designs that provide the logic and procedures for conducting the study and
- frames these procedures within theory and philosophy. (p. 5)

Creswell and Plano-Clark's definition is the result of the authors' long engagement with both advancing MMR through extensive research and defining its tenets to guide new researchers. Therefore, it is within their definition of MMR that I situate my research.

Several factors have been forwarded as strengths of MMR. The first is that by combining qualitative and quantitative methods, the weaknesses of one approach can be offset by the strengths of the other (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). For example, the lack of generalizability of much qualitative research can be remedied by adding a quantitative analysis of data from a larger sample. Similarly, the lack of richness and depth of quantitative research can be ameliorated by including qualitative interviews to draw out the human voice of the participants. Another factor is that in an increasingly complex world, the kind of questions that research needs to pose are broad yet nuanced. Such questions are best addressed through MMR approaches since the researcher is less constrained by

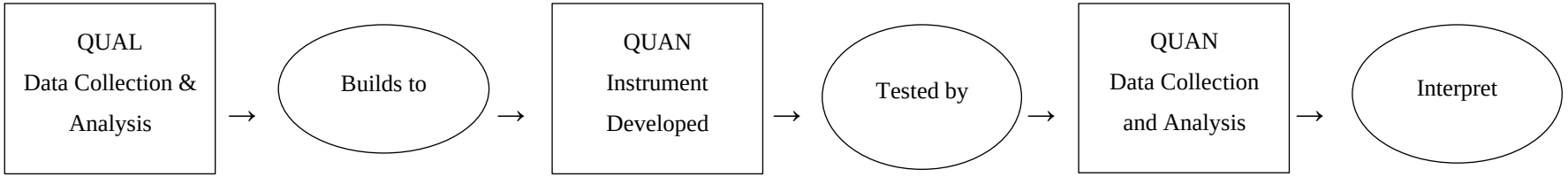
epistemological concerns and has sufficient breadth to use all the research tools available to address the research issue (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2011).

Limitations of Mixed Methods Research

Of course, like all research methods, MMR has limitations that researchers need to be aware of and acknowledge when embarking on an MMR study. One of these limitations is the demands on the researcher in terms of the length and intensity of the research tasks. A sequential design takes considerable time to complete the two distinct phases, the researcher cannot progress to the second phase until data from the first has been collected and analysed. A convergent design, however, requires the researcher to collect both sources of data at the same time, this creates a substantial workload and demands extensive organizational skills. Additionally, using both quantitative and qualitative methods necessitates the researcher develop a working knowledge base of both fields' data collection and analysis conventions. This can be especially demanding for an emerging researcher. However, despite the limitations of the increased time burden and rapid knowledge acquisition that the design demanded, I concluded that the exploratory sequential design was the most apt for my research aim of creating actionable knowledge of students' sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy and the pragmatic perspective of MMR aligned with my teacher-researcher worldview.

Exploratory Sequential Mixed Methods Design

In the literature review, I identified that there was a need for in-depth exploration of sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy that was culturally grounded to the Japanese context. Once I had decided on this research aim, it made sense to select an exploratory sequential mixed methods design since this is the design that is typically used for research instrument development (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The design is also suitable for when the researcher first investigates a phenomena exploratorily and then tests the results more widely (Plano Clark & Ivankova, 2016). Furthermore, the sequential Qual-Quan design is often used in EFL contexts (Brown, 2014) with interviews used to develop instruments which identify students' learning needs, this is one of the research aims of my study. The three phases of the exploratory sequential design are illustrated in Figure 3.1. In the first phase, qualitative data is collected to garner an understanding of the research issue and to provide rich data which is used in the second, interim phase for instrument development. The instrument is then tested quantitatively in the third phase for generalisability to a wider population.



Procedures	Procedures	Procedures	Procedures	Procedures	Procedures
• Purposive sampling [*N=15*] • One-on-one semi-structured interviews • Coding and thematic analysis • Translation into English and translation checking	• Use qualitative findings from the semi-structured interviews to inform the development of the quantitative instrument.	• Use the 7 themes as questionnaire subscales • Write questions for each theme • Select validation items from existing sources of EFL self-efficacy scale • Conduct validity and reliability tests	• Pilot test of 34 participants. • Expert review of items • Item and Japanese checking • Scale reliability • Validity	• Purposive sampling [*No=353*] • Statistical tests	• Discuss how qualitative phase enhanced the validity of the quantitative instrument and how the resulting instrument is an effective measure of sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy.
Products:		Products:	Products:	Products:	Products:
• Transcripts • 7 themes		• 56 items in 8 sub scales.	• Measures of fit	• Correlations • Refined instrument	• Validated instrument to measure the sources of students' EFL speaking self-efficacy.

Figure 3.1 Diagram of Exploratory Sequential MMR Design

Phase One: Qualitative Data Collection

In this section, I will outline the research approach for the qualitative phase, explain the piloting and development of the interview protocol, describe the research participants, and outline the ethical concerns and limitations. Finally, I will outline the coding method I used in the data analysis and present the final themes which were used to create the inventory.

Research Approach

There are numerous types of qualitative research approaches which can present a baffling choice to researchers (Creswell, 2013). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) condense the plethora of qualitative approaches to the six most commonly used by doctoral students. They are: basic qualitative, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, narrative analysis, and qualitative case study. Basic qualitative research comprises qualitative research's fundamental tenet of focusing on how people attribute meaning to experience (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Seidman, 2013). The other approaches involve another element which is used to either better understand phenomena, uncover different sociocultural relationships, or generate theory. Since my research aim was to gain an understanding of students' sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy, I reasoned that a basic qualitative research approach was the best to achieve the research aims.

Semi-Structured Interviews

In order to meet the research's aim of identifying the sources of Japanese students' EFL speaking self-efficacy, the first stage of the research was to collect rich data about their experiences of learning EFL speaking at JSHS. I decided to use semi-structured interviews for the collection of the qualitative data because they presented the best way for me to collect learning experiences from participants in an efficient manner (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The scope of the interviews was to hear about students' memories of learning EFL speaking at JSHS. Specifically the scope was to find out about a) students' experiences in and out of the classroom, b) the language modelling that was experienced, c) the kind of feedback, support, and advice they had received from teachers, friends, and family, d) how speaking English in class made them feel and what they attributed their feelings towards. Additionally, as motivational factors are also important for language learning, I wanted to ask about students' goals for using English and their attitude to studying English.

Although interviews are one of the best way to gather data on peoples' experiences, they do have limitations in the amount of time and resources they require (Seidman, 2013). Other limitations that need to be acknowledged are that qualitative research in general is unsuitable for generating statistically significant relationships between variables (Barbour, 2014) and there are contentions about how to ensure validity of the research findings (Lincoln et al, 2018). More specific issues of interviewing also need to be stated. Firstly, the knowledge created is dependent on the interview participants' interactions. The act of interviewing should not be considered as extracting data but as constructing understanding between the interviewee and interviewer. Further, the researcher must determine if a suitable sample size and spread has been achieved; unlike quantitative methods this depends on the judgement of the researcher (Lichtman, 2014). The researcher also has to be able to build a rapport with the interviewee so that they feel able to divulge detailed information (Cousins, 2009; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Additionally, the inherent power imbalance in the interview between interviewer and interviewee may be inflated by differences in gender, age, ethnicity and so on (Cousins, 2009; Lichtman, 2014).

Language of Interviews

I conducted the interviews in Japanese because the students were unlikely to have adequate English language skills to discuss the questions with depth and complexity. Also using the interviewee's first language helps them to express themselves, stabilizes power imbalance by giving them linguistic power, and facilitates rapport building (Welch & Piekkari, 2006). The potential drawbacks of researchers conducting the interviews in a foreign language are the need for not only linguistic but also cultural competence. A lack of cultural competence can lead to misinterpreting nuances and not understanding communicative norms (Shah, 2004; Welch & Piekkari, 2006). Use of a foreign language also adds an additional layer in the construction of meaning between interviewer and interviewee. Despite these issues, I deemed that my Japanese language skills were sufficient to conduct the interviews in Japanese because I have been speaking Japanese as a second language for around twenty years and it is the language that my everyday interactions at work and home are conducted in. I also have qualifications in Japanese at the C1 level of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which is categorized as an advanced user. To reduce the impact of the limitations, I took the advice of Shah (2004), that the researcher "be aware of the nature of the context *(difference-based/similarity-based)* place herself/himself in the text, and be explicit about limitations" (p. 569).

Piloting and Development of Qualitative Instruments

Before I conducted the interviews, I performed a pilot test to not only assess the appropriateness of the qualitative instruments, but also to refine my interviewing technique.

Selection Questionnaire Instrument

I elected to use a selection questionnaire so that I could choose interview participants with varying levels of EFL self-efficacy. The selection questionnaire consisted of demographic information and an adapted version of Wang's (2004) questionnaire of English self-efficacy (QESE) which was adapted for use with Korean students and found to have good internal consistency and reliability (Wang et al., 2013). This scale was chosen as no EFL self-efficacy scale for the Japanese context could be located and Korea, the closest neighbour to Japan, was the best match that could be found. QESE is a 32 item scale of the four skills and 18 items that referred to speaking English were selected. Although reusing scales is not recommended (Bandura, 2006; Usher & Pajares, 2008), at the time of the study I could not locate a self-efficacy scale for EFL speaking and since this scale's use was for interview selection and not data analysis, I deemed that its use was acceptable.

Interview Protocol Instrument.

The interview protocol (Appendix F) was structured so that I could address the four sources of self-efficacy: mastery, social modelling, social persuasion, and physiological states; as well as the two themes identified in the literature review: goals for studying English and attitudes to studying English. I also wanted to ask students some more general, open-ended questions about what they felt could be done to make them feel more confident about speaking English. This was to encourage them to discuss experiences of learning English at JSHS in depth. In this way, the interview themes could be used to answer research questions 1, 2, 3, and 4 (Table 3.1). I formed questions on the interview protocol according to the recommendations of Merriam and Tisdell (2016). By doing so, I could ensure that the protocol was both grounded in the theoretical perspective of self-efficacy and also give students enough latitude to discuss other important areas about their experiences of learning EFL speaking at JSHS.

Table 3.1
Qualitative Questions and Themes

Research Questions	Interview Themes and Example Interview Questions
RQ1: What sources of self-efficacy experiences have students had learning EFL speaking at JSHS?	**Mastery experiences** - Tell me about the kind of English speaking activities you did at junior and senior high school **Social modelling** - Tell me about someone you think speaks English well **Social persuasion** - Tell me about what others have told you about your English speaking ability **Physiological states** - I'd like you to remember the speaking activities you did in junior and senior high school; how did they make you feel?
RQ2: What are students' goals for studying EFL speaking?	**Goals** - How do you imagine yourself using English after you graduate university?
RQ3: What are students' attitudes to studying EFL speaking?	**Attitude** - How important is learning to speak English to you?
RQ4: What other issues, if any, may be contributing to students' sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy experiences?	**Other issues** - What things do you think teachers could have done to make you feel more confident about speaking English? - Is there anything else you think I should know about your experiences of learning to speak English at junior and senior high school?

Piloting Procedure

The interview selection questionnaire was given to 104 students from a different sample to the main study. These were first year students from City University and the questionnaire data was incorporated into institutional assessment of learner needs. I had planned to divide the students into high, medium, and low self-efficacy groups according to the selection questionnaire data. However, perhaps owing to the general low English ability of students, none of the students reported high self-efficacy. Therefore, I invited seven students with low or medium self-efficacy to the pilot interview. Each interview lasted around 30 minutes and was held in a private office to ensure privacy.

After the pilot interviews, I asked participants for feedback on the selection questionnaire and the interview questions. Participants reported no issues with the selection questionnaire, so no changes were made. However, the participants told me that it was quite difficult to answer the interview questions because they had never really done speaking activities at school and so could not discuss them in depth. I had hoped that students would tell me a wide range of experiences of learning to speak English at JSHS. Yet students reported that most of their lessons were devoted to grammar-translation and university entrance exam preparation for the *senta- shiken* examination. Hence, rather than identifying communicative activities and experiences that had contributed to their self-efficacy formation, the students instead talked about the factors that had led to their low self-efficacy to speak English. Students also recommended rewording of some of the interview questions for clarity, so I rewrote those in more straightforward Japanese.

The pilot interview also allowed me to improve my interviewing skills. Students tended to answer my questions as briefly as possible, offering the bare minimum of information required to answer. Consequently, I learned to lead students into the topic by asking them to provide a short answer initially and then to prompt them to expand with examples or explanations. I anticipated that similar issues were likely in the main study. I adjusted the protocol accordingly by breaking some questions down into two-parts to allow students to give an initial response and then expand on their answers. After I had piloted the selection questionnaire and interview protocol, the next step was to administer the selection questionnaire to a different sample and conduct the qualitative, semi-structured interviews for the main study.

Main Study

Research Participant Sampling

In April 2018, the selection questionnaire was distributed to 352 second-year students taking compulsory English courses at City University. University students were chosen because they could reflect on the complete JSHS experience. Although first-year students might have been preferable, this was not possible due to ethical reasons because I teach English classes to all first-year students. Interviewing students to whom I would later award a grade would have created a power imbalance and students would have been unlikely to provide reliable answers. For the same reason, students were not asked about their learning experiences at university as they were unlikely to answer reliably since I had been their instructor. Therefore, second-year students who had already completed the first-year course were interviewed about their experiences of learning English prior to entering City University.

The questionnaire's purpose was to collect students' demographic information and current self-efficacy levels. A participant information and informed consent form were included at the beginning of the questionnaire (Appendix C). The informed consent clearly stated that students could withhold consent without any adverse academic consequence and that every effort would be made to protect their identity. The questionnaire had a two-stage system of consent, students first were asked to agree to their data being used in the study, and then they were asked to write their student number if they also agreed to be interviewed. Two hundred and forty-nine students indicated they were willing to participate in the study and 74 students stated that they also agreed to be interviewed. However, 13 of these students were excluded because they were either international students or had not completed all their compulsory education in Japan. A large number of responses to the selection questionnaire were needed for stratified random sampling. All participants taking part in the selection questionnaire were fully aware of the purpose for which their responses would be used. The data was used to split students by self-efficacy levels into four groups of medium self-efficacy females, low self-efficacy females, medium self-efficacy males, and low self-efficacy males. The more students in each group the more randomized and reliable the data would be. The sample also allowed me to ascertain that the sample was representative of the wider Japanese population from the selection questionnaire data (see Table 3.2). English proficiency level was similar to the population and SE levels were comparable to those reported in other studies (Burrows, 2016; Leeming, 2017). Finally, the selection

questionnaire data was used to compile an internal report of student needs as part of ongoing teacher development processes at City University.

Table 3.2
Descriptive Statistics of TOEIC and SE Levels (N=232)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
TOEIC score	-224	23	9.9	9.9	9.9
	225-549	202	87.1	87.1	97.0
	550-784	7	3.0	3.0	100.0
SE Level	Low SE (1.0-2.2)	157	67.7	67.7	67.7
	Medium SE (2.3-3.7)	74	31.9	31.9	99.6
	High SE (3.8-5.0)	1	.4	.4	100.0

I planned to select students for interview by stratified, random sampling. I divided the 61 students into four groups of medium self-efficacy females, low self-efficacy females, medium self-efficacy males, and low self-efficacy males to create an even gender and ability range. The self-efficacy levels were calculated on information from the selection questionnaire. As expected from the pilot study, there were no high self-efficacy students. I intended to invite 20 students for interviews, five students from each group. If I could not achieve saturation with this number, I would continue interviewing one student from each group until data saturation was achieved. Saturation is defined as the point where no new information is forthcoming from the data (Schreier, 2014).

I randomly selected five students from each group and sent the 20 students an email to arrange a date and time for the interview. However, despite sending follow-up emails, only six students responded positively to my request. This was due to timing problems of interviews clashing with students' busy schedules of schoolwork, part-time work, and club activities. Due to the low response rate, I decided to contact all 61 students who had indicated that they would be willing to be interviewed. Of 26 male students, only four students responded positively to my email. Of 35 female students, 11 responded positively to my email. Thus, I had a total of 15 students willing to be interviewed with a gender imbalance of roughly twice as many females to males. Therefore, due to the low response rate, I ended up using purposive, self-selected sampling instead of the intended stratified, random sampling. The background of the participants can be seen in Table 3.3.

Data Collection

The interviews were conducted in a private office at the university and each interview lasted between 35 to 90 minutes. I tried to make the participants comfortable by sitting in

armchairs and providing light refreshments. I also began each interview with around 5-minutes of small talk to put the participants at ease. Because of the students' low English proficiency, I conducted the interviews in Japanese as I reasoned that their English ability was not sufficient to respond to the questions with enough nuance and detail to provide an authentic picture of their learning experiences. I recorded the interviews with participant consent on two voice recorders so that I could transcribe the interviews afterwards and concentrate on communicating with the participants during the interview. I sent each participant the participant information sheet one week before the interview, so that they had sufficient opportunity to consider their participation. At the beginning of the interviews, I asked each participant if they had read and agreed to the terms of the participant information sheet and answered any questions they had. I then thanked each participant for their cooperation and asked them to choose an alias before the interview so that I could use it throughout.

Table 3.3

Background of Participants

Alias	Age	Gender	English level	English SE level (1-5)	English school
Hanako	19	female	A2	2.8	3-4 yrs.
Minami	19	female	A2	2.4	3 yrs.
Tomoki	19	male	A2	1.4	No
Ryuichi	19	male	B1	3.7	No
Shiori	19	female	A2	1	No
Aya	19	female	A2	2.6	No
Yumi	19	female	B1	2.4	3 yrs.
Ayaka	20	female	A2	2.1	No
Eri	19	female	A2	2.2	No
Ichiro	19	male	A2	2.3	3 yrs.
Rika	19	female	A2	1.9	No
Tomomi	19	female	A2	2.1	No
Aiko	20	female	A2	1.8	No
Yuko	20	female	A2	1.8	No
Taro	20	male	A1	2.7	10 yrs.

Note 1: English level is in accordance with Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) which has 6 levels form A1 lowest to C2 highest.
Note 2: Self-efficacy levels are calculated from mean scores on QESE selection questionnaire

During the interviews, there were a few occasions when I needed to clarify meaning with participants when they used slang or a regional dialect. At such times, I asked the participants to either rephrase what they had said or confirmed with them that my

understanding of their statements was correct. I used the interview protocol sheet to take memorandums of these occurrences. However, during the interview, I refrained from notetaking as much as possible. I instead focused my attention on the participants to show that I was engaged in their story and valued the sharing of their experiences with me.

Preparing the Transcripts

I transcribed the data myself rather than outsourcing or using transcription software. This is because, like ten Have, (2007) I believe that transcription is an essential part of analysis and is best done by the researcher as the act of translation allows the researcher to interact deeply with the meaning of the participants' words. To transcribe as accurately as possible, I went through steps of familiarization, scrutiny, native speaker checks, and participant confirmation. After each interview, I transcribed the interviews and listened to the recordings again while scrutinizing the transcription several times. For parts of the interview where it was difficult to hear what participants had said, I asked two experts who were Japanese native speaker English professors to check the recording with me. Next, I asked the two experts to review the transcript, and spelling mistakes were corrected where necessary. Finally, I sent the transcripts to participants and gave them one week to inform me if there was any part of the transcript that they would like to have amended or deleted. None of the 15 interviewees requested any changes. However, several participants did reply to say that they had enjoyed the experience and were grateful to have had the chance to share their experiences of learning English.

Data Analysis

As recommended by Magnusson & Marecek (2015), I began initial coding as soon as the interview data was transcribed so that I could both interact with the data at an early stage, and get a sense of when saturation had been met. Guest et al. (2006) assert that saturation usually occurs at 12 interviews, this was true in my study with saturation achieved after the 12th interview and no new codes emerging in the final three. I employed a hybrid approach of deductive and inductive coding for the data analysis. Hybrid coding is an approach that is especially common in English language research (Dörnyei, 2007). The first stage was deductive, theoretical thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) with a priori themes, the second stage was inductive, thematic coding to identify any other potential themes. I used QSR NVivo12 software to collate and organize the coding data. It is important to note that NVivo does not perform analysis like SPSS software does for quantitative data, but instead

provides a convenient platform to store, visualize, and make connections from the qualitative data.

Deductive Theoretical Thematic Analysis. The first stage of the analysis was through deductive theoretic thematic analysis. I began by broadly coding the transcripts with the six themes from the literature and theoretical review. These were the four sources of self-efficacy: mastery, social modelling, social persuasion, and physiological states; and the two themes from the literature review: goals for studying EFL speaking (goals), and attitude to study EFL speaking (attitude). All coding was done on the original, Japanese transcripts. Although there are many examples in the literature of how to analyse data inductively, there is little advice on how to do so deductively with a priori themes. I, therefore, list the process that I used:

1. Determine the a priori themes from literature and theoretical review
2. Familiarize self with the data
3. Broadly code data with a priori themes
4. Look for commonalities within each theme to create subthemes
5. Look within subthemes to create codes
6. Create a coding map and review and enhance the levels through repeated readings of the data
7. Validate codes with expert checks

I found that this approach allowed me to draw out the constituent elements of the a priori themes as they were represented in the transcripts.

Inductive Thematic Analysis. The second stage was to code the data through inductive thematic analysis to see if any themes could be identified that were not covered with the deductive coding. Braun and Clarke (2006) argue that although it is often not explicitly stated, thematic analysis is the most widely used method of coding in psychology research and should, therefore, be the first method that researchers become familiar with as it allows for both flexibility and theoretical freedom. Although thematic analysis has been criticized for taking a "too loose approach" to analysis (p. 78), Braun and Clarke state that such criticisms can be alleviated by adopting clear procedures which demarcate the researcher's epistemological assumptions. Therefore, I employed the following six steps recommended by Clarke and Braun (2013) to conduct my thematic analysis:

1. Familiarize yourself with the data
2. Coding
3. Searching for themes
4. Reviewing themes
5. Define and name themes
6. Writing-up (p. 121)

Through this approach, I was able to both confirm the themes from the deductive coding and add any other potential themes. The final coding matrix shown in Chapter 4 Figure 4.1.

Data Validation

Thematic analysis can show reliability and validity by clarifying a) credibility, b) transferability, c) confirmability, and d) audit trails (Nowell et al., 2017). I followed these procedures to achieve as much trustworthiness as possible.

I checked the credibility of the data by first re-reading the transcripts to see if the final coding map fit the data set. Then, I tried to assess transferability and confirmability by asking experts to review the themes. The experts were two bilingual Japanese university professors of English. They reviewed and coded the data as a validation check. Although there were some differences in the terminology of the themes, after discussion they agreed that the themes were as expected. Expert 1 said that I should consider cultural factors since students' comments about never having been praised could be because teachers did not want to embarrass students in class and not because teachers failed to provide support to students. Expert 2 mentioned that it might have been difficult for students to reflect on speaking skills since speaking entails numerous proficiencies such as communicative ability, being persuasive, and having sufficient topic knowledge and experience. Because the experts were university professors they were older than the students in the sample and could not be expected to comment on learning experiences. Therefore, I invited two students from City University's English club, who had not participated in the data collection, to look over the themes and provide feedback on whether they agreed with the results. The students confirmed the themes and commented that the *senta- shiken* (university entrance exam) was a powerful influence on the grammar-based lessons at high school, which contributed to

students' lack of experience in speaking English. Finally, to create an audit trail, I collated a complete record of transcriptions, analyses, and researcher field notes to create a data record of how I created the themes.

Translation

After I had confirmed the themes from the analysis, I translated the transcripts into English. I then checked the translations for mistakes before sending them to two different bilingual colleagues for checking and verification. Changes in terminology and word choice were made as appropriate according to the two checkers' suggestions. Native speaker checks were chosen over back translation because of the potential for false positives and because back translation can miss up to 20% of errors that native speaker assessments identify (Behr, 2017). Two samples of the translations were sent to two bilingual university professors of English who were different from the experts who checked the themes. One was a Japanese national with extensive experience of researching in Western countries, the other was a bi-cultural Japanese/British researcher with equivalent expertise in Japanese and Western higher education institutes.

The two native speaker experts used an adapted version of the American Translation Association (ATA) translation certification rubric to assess the reliability of the translations. The rubric assesses translations for usefulness, terminology, idiomaticalness, and mechanics. The first reviewer graded the translation as strong in all four categories, and the second reviewer marked the first category 'usefulness' as acceptable and the rest as strong. Thus, the translations were judged to have overall strong reliability, and no additional changes were made.

Ethical Concerns and Limitations

Although quantitative research may involve human participants qualitative research nearly always does. Seidman (2013) reminds us that institutional ethical codes are essential to avoid the "indignities perpetuated on human research subjects both in Europe and the United States throughout the 20th century" (p. 60). However, in practice the ethical soundness of research studies come down to the values and decisions of the researcher (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I, therefore, followed the advice of Merriam and Tisdell and approached ethical integrity not just as pre-research guidelines, but as an ongoing process that considers the research situation and relationship between researcher and participants.

I first secured ethical approval form University of Liverpool Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC) (Appendix A), I then attempted to secure ethical approval from City University, however, they had no ethical approval committee for research conduct. Instead, I discussed the research aims and methods with the main stakeholders at the university (the president and the head of personnel) and they issued me with an approval letter to authorize my research project (Appendix B). The students were sent a Japanese translation of the participation information sheet and informed consent (Appendices D & E) one week before the scheduled interview. The participant information sheet told students of the purposes of the interview, the type of questions that would be asked, and that the interview would last thirty to forty minutes. The participants were also informed that the interview would be recorded on a voice recorder and that they would have the opportunity to check the final transcript and request changes or deletions. Participants were also told that the interview transcripts would be anonymized and that every effort would be taken to ensure that they would not be identifiable from the data. Students were also told that they could withdraw from the study at any time without explanation or penalty. Students were informed that there were no known risks associated with the study, that no potentially threatening or sensitive questions would be asked, and that the study had full ethical clearance from the University of Liverpool ethics board and approval from City University.

Although measures were taken to limit the ethical impact of the interviews, certain issues need to be acknowledged. Firstly, since I was a teacher and the participants were students, there is an unavoidable power imbalance (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Students are likely to have modified their responses to some extent to reflect that they were talking to an adult teacher rather than to a peer. Unfortunately, power imbalance is one of the major limitations of qualitative research which can make the research exploitative (Siedman, 2013) and asymmetrical in that the interviewer dictates the agenda (Brinkmann, 2018). Although there is little that can be done to remedy this, I tried to be cautious when encouraging students to expand on their answers so as not to intimidate or coerce them into talking about something they would rather not. I found that creating a relaxing atmosphere and taking time to put participants at ease, was essential to ameliorating the power imbalance between us.

Another limitation of the interview is that although I had originally intended to use stratified, random sampling, low response rates meant that I had to use purposive self-selected sampling. This means that self-selection bias became a limitation of the study. Self-selection resulted in two specific limitations. The first is that the students who were willing to

talk to me probably had a positive attitude towards English. There is, therefore, the chance that I was unable to gather a representative picture of all students' experiences at JSHS. The second limitation is that the self-selection resulted in a gender imbalance amongst respondents. Why more female students were willing to talk to me than male ones is unclear. Still, the predominance of female participants' contributions could mean that valuable insights from the male population were missed. Nevertheless, I believe the fact that many students found it easy to decline interview participation shows that participants were not pressured into involvement and that they had ample opportunities to refuse participation. Thus, despite the above limitations, I believe the ethical reliability of the study is sound.

In this chapter, I have outlined the methodology of how I conducted and analysed the semi-structured interviews. The methodology for the instrument development and quantitative phase are presented in Chapter 5 Methodology for the Inventory Development and Quantitative Phase. In the next chapter, I will describe the findings of the qualitative stage in detail using extracts from the interview transcripts.

Chapter 4 Qualitative Findings and Discussion

In this chapter, I will discuss the findings from the qualitative semi-structured interviews. I will use the research questions for structure and present the themes and subthemes illustrated with translated quotations from the participants. I then discuss the findings in detail in relation to existing research. As discussed in Chapter 3 Qualitative Methodology, the interview transcripts were analysed with hybrid analysis. The first six themes represent the six a priori themes mastery, social modelling, social persuasion, physiological states, goals and attitude. The final seventh theme desired skills was created from the inductive analysis. The results of the analysis are presented in Figure 4.1.

I refer to participants by their chosen aliases in the excerpts below. Although all interviews were conducted in Japanese, I use the English translations in the thesis to ensure that the data is accessible. All excerpts are referenced with the interviewee's alias, the line number from the transcripts, and self-efficacy and English levels. The evidence presented in this chapter suggest that students' experiences of sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy at JSHS are limited, and that students believe their lack of speaking experiences have contributed to their perceived low communicative ability.

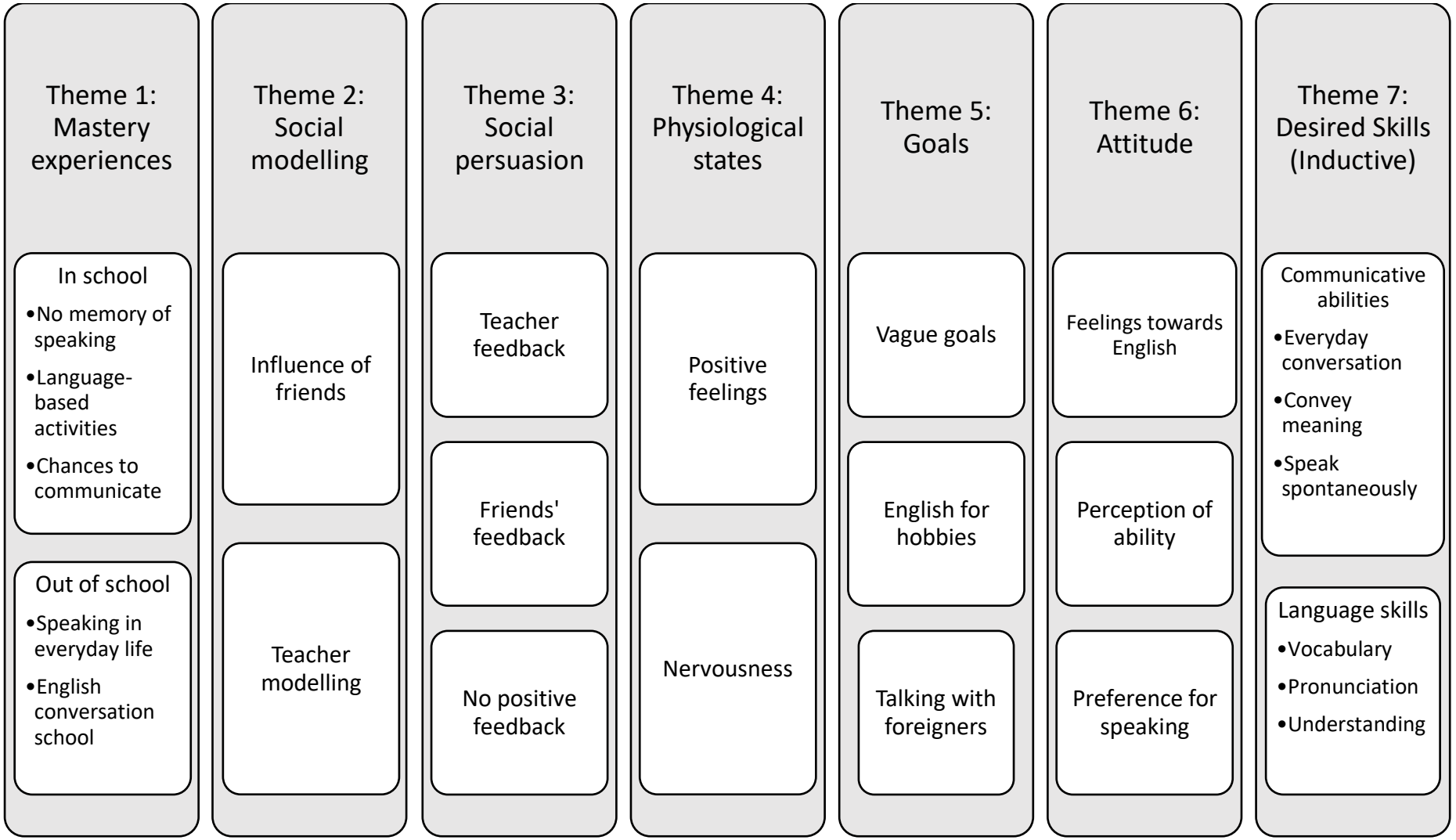


Figure 4.1 Coding Matrix after Hybrid Thematic Analysis

Sources of EFL Speaking Self-Efficacy at JSHS

In this section, I will discuss the kinds of experiences students reported of learning EFL speaking at JSHS. These are the learning experiences which have formed their sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy. I use the below discussion to answer *RQ₁ What sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy experiences have students had at JSHS?* I present the main themes and their composite subthemes with illustrative quotes from participants. At the end of the results for each theme, I offer a discussion of the findings' implications and relations to existing research.

Mastery Experiences

Students' mastery experiences are broadly split into in-school and out-of-school experiences. Students' out of school experiences tended to be more memorable than in-school ones.

In-School Experiences

The students reported a range of experiences that had occurred in school. These included having difficulty remembering speaking English at school, engaging in language-based activities, but also having some chances to communicate.

Having No Memory of English Speaking Activities at School. When I asked students about their experiences of speaking English at JSHS, a common response from both low and medium self-efficacy students was to say that they couldn't really remember. For example, after I had prompted Hanako, she struggled to name a memorable speaking activity at either junior or senior high school. She commented that "Eh… we didn't do much, you know? Not that it wasn't interesting, but I only remember the drama at university. That's how little we did." (Hanako, 116-117, SE = 2.8, A2). Taro had similar difficulty remembering doing speaking activities. He professed, "To be honest, I don't remember school. There wasn't really a proper English conversation class." (Taro,145-146, SE = 2.7, A1). And similarly, Rika said "At junior and senior high school? … I didn't have anything like that." (Rika. 93, SE =1.9. A2).

Performing Mainly Language-based Activities at School. When students talked about speaking activities at school, low and medium self-efficacy students recounted language-based activities when they were either memorizing speeches or reciting scripted dialogues. In these activities, students read a prescribed text aloud rather than create original content. Ichiro described such a class activity for practising scripted dialogues. While Ichiro

was recounting this tale, I was struck by the look of distaste on his face. He often made eye contact with me and seemed to say, can you believe it?

> Hmm. Speaking was about the textbook contents with a friend, so, so this passage, they did like, if it was a conversation passage then 'the people on the left half of the class please read John and the people on the right half, please read Emily's part'. Read John's part, read Emily's part, that kind of conversation and we did reading it aloud.
>
> (Ichiro, 137-145, SE = 2.3, A2)

Other kinds of language-based activities that students reported were standing up in front of the whole class to give answers or deliver speeches. Hanako talked about "Memorizing the textbook passages because we read out alone, we didn't add gestures or anything, it was just memorizing, it was mainly grammar and writing. We didn't do much speaking." (Hanako, 102-104, SE = 2.8, A2). And Eri described standing up to give everyone her answer to textbook questions. "...it was kind of in front of everyone. So, when you were chosen, you stood up and then spoke so everyone could understand, it was that kind of lesson." (Eri, 164-165, SE = 2.2, A2). In the interviews, I came to read between the lines of what students told me. Here 'that kind of lesson' meant what she felt was a typical teacher-fronted lesson.

Having Chances to Communicate. Most students said that they either had no memory of speaking English or that they did language-based activities. Yet it would be unjust to paint a picture where no students received communicative practice at school. I include the following examples because although they were not representative of the experiences of all of the participants, the applicable students talked about them with enthusiasm. Consequently, although the code is not strong in terms of the breadth of coverage amongst participants, it is in terms of the strength that it was talked about. These experiences tended to be recounted by the medium self-efficacy students.

Some of the students had genuine communicative opportunities like these described by Aya: "when we exchanged with our partner about the contents of lesson revision we had gone and done, it was a rule of the class that that was in English, so we maybe had speaking there." (Aya, 120-124, SE = 2.6, A2). Similarly, Ryuichi described preparing a science-based presentation on biomimicry (technology mimicking the abilities of wildlife):

> We learnt that (biomimicry) in a high school textbook, we had a lesson where we decided to research about it more and do a presentation in a group. And I really enjoyed that lesson, we made a poster on a large piece of paper and used a pointer to explain, we used a whole lesson for those presentations though. It was my first time, but it was so enjoyable, I thought that it was useful for my English enhancement.
>
> (Ryuichi, 101-111, SE = 3.7, B1)

Minami also described scripting and performing a roleplay about an argument with a neighbour. While Minami recounted this anecdote, she was very animated and spoke with eagerness about doing roleplays:

> Ah, what did I do? So, something-something part and something-something part and one I remember is when we did a play where the next-door neighbour was really noisy and what are you going to do? So, we did next-door neighbour part, and yourself part…that was...we were just given that theme and asked what will you do? um, we thought in each team and then presented.
>
> (Minami, 111-115, SE = 2.4, A2)

Even though the activities were somewhat passive, the interesting topic helped to engage the students and created a memorable learning experience. These experiences presented a midpoint between fluency-based and language-based learning in that students had agency in writing the scripts but did not communicate spontaneously because they had prepared the presentation or roleplay beforehand.

Out-of-School Experiences

The main fluency-based experiences that the students reported tended to occur out of school. The interactions were either with foreign tourists and residents in town or through dedicated lessons at special English conversation classes. These out of school experiences were had by both low and medium self-efficacy students.

Having Chances to Speak English in Everyday Life. Some of the most engaging experiences that students recounted involved unexpected exchanges with foreign people in town. Unlike the high-pressure activities in class that were described negatively, these experiences were all positive. A common feature was students feeling a sense of success from both understanding what the foreign person had said to them, and being able to communicate their thoughts. Eri's comments here show how the exchanges though often challenging, were also seen as rewarding.

> For example, no but this was maybe a German person, but when I worked at a hamburger place, they said something like 'with pommes' it was like please add French fries. I thought I can only speak a little English and German. But I was really happy to come to understand even a little of those conversations with foreign people.
>
> (Eri, 215-218, SE = 2.2, A2)

Tomoki's experience also showed how interactions with foreign people were viewed as positive and somewhat exciting. He was especially pleased with the non-verbal communication in this exchange, and I noted on the interview protocol about how he was smiling. His eyes seemed to light up as he recounted the following.

> Eh, how was it?... Sure the other guys asked me something like 'do you like English?' And when I answered 'I'm not very good, I'm poor at it' they went 'ok, ok'. And they attempted a high five, and first, they did this (gestures high five), and I didn't understand, I thought what are they doing? and they said to me 'high five, high five', and we did a high five and said goodbye and then, I think, we parted.
>
> (Tomoki, 162-166, SE = 1.4, A2)

Tomoki and Eri's experiences show that these kinds of interactions have positive effects on students' attitudes towards English communication. Additionally, when communication with foreign visitors did not go quite as well as desired, it proved to be a powerful motivator to improve communicative skills further. Minami described an encounter of giving instructions to a foreign tourist and feeling frustrated about being unable to provide more than just basic information.

> I work part-time in front of the station, so I often get asked for directions or for where the ferry port is. At those times, if I don't answer swiftly, they are like 'don't worry'. That's a big shock, so I thought I would study English more.
>
> (Minami, 73-75, SE = 2.4, A2)

It appears, according to students' comments, that the experiences that they have inside the classroom are not preparing them for communicating outside of it, because the language-based speaking practice is fundamentally different to real-life communication.

English Conversation School. Not all the students I interviewed had chances to attend out-of-school eikaiwa (English conversation) classes, yet the students who had, recounted positive experiences of speaking English. English conversation schools are extremely popular in East Asia, and Japan is no exception. Although they can be expensive, nearly 20% of school-age children attend eikaiwa classes in Japan (Benesse, 2020). Minami highlighted how English taught at eikaiwas is experiential and builds positive attitudes

towards English: "So, it was not so much studying as experiencing English, it was fun" (Minami, 30, SE = 2.4, A2). Eri explained that the activities at eikaiwas are usually "speaking with the native teacher, and we often did things like English games" (Eri, 58, SE = 2.2, A2). Taro suggested that the quality of the teachers was superior at eikaiwas than at school. He told me about his time at ECC, one of the main eikaiwas in Japan. "Well at ECC, we had chances to talk directly with really, a proper foreign teacher" (Taro, 190, SE = 2.7, A1). For the students who had attended an eikaiwa, it was a valuable opportunity to experience communication.

Social Modelling Experiences

The second a priori theme was social modelling, that is, the opportunities to observe similar others complete a given task. In the field of EFL speaking, this equates to watching other Japanese people such as friends, teachers, or family conversing in English. Only two students mentioned speaking English with a family member, so influence of family did not have enough coverage to be considered a subtheme.

Influence of Friends Speaking English

The influence of friends speaking English revealed a division in experiences. Students who had friends who could speak English well found them inspiring. Yuko told me of a friend whom she seemed to be in awe of "well at school, maybe one person went on study abroad, that person did things like speeches in English, that person really went on study abroad and such and did even speeches in English, I thought she was amazing." (Yuko, 224-226, SE = 1.8. A2) so much so that Yuko said it had increased her desire to study abroad as well. Aiko repeated being interested in study abroad as a reason for her classmates' aptitude. She said about her friends "So, there are quite a few students who do study abroad, and they speak a lot, now they are at a foreign language university" (Aiko, 233, SE = 1.8. A2) and Aya also said that

> Amongst my friends, several people were good at English, and they had experiences like study abroad, so well, when I was in my hometown, we sometimes had chances to speak to foreign people. At that time, that girl spoke utterly smoothly, so I think that girl is good.
>
> (Aya, 290-293, SE = 2.6, A2)

Students expressed that it was motivating to hear their classmates speak English. Both Tomomi and Eri said that seeing someone like themselves speak English made them hopeful

that they too might reach the same achievement level. Tomomi said that she had "some hope, you know, that a Japanese person the same as me can speak so much (Tomomi, 276-277, SE = 2.1, A2). Eri also explained that "I felt she was similar to me, but in quite a short time she could speak really well, so I felt that if I studied maybe I could become like that, that kind of influence" (Eri, 240-241, SE = 2.2, A2).

On the other hand, some students received little influence from friends. Ichiro talked about classmates who consciously decided not to speak English in class "I listened to those around me, and they were speaking Japanese, so they said like 'Well I can't explain so I'll say it in Japanese', and the worst case was 'Here, read this.' " (Ichiro, 323-325, SE = 2.3, A2). This kind of apathy from classmates was repeated by Hanako, who said that "not many people try to speak in English, do they?" (Hanako, 124, SE = 2.8, A2). And several students said that they had not heard their classmates speak English. Tomoki said he "didn't know anyone who spoke English well" (Tomoki, 244, SE = 1.4, A2), and Shiori also said she had "never heard her friends speak English" (Shiori, 224, SE = 1, A2). The reason for the difference in experience was not clear but did not seem related to self-efficacy level.

Influence of Teachers

The teachers' use of English in the classroom also impacted on students greatly. Generally students with low self-efficacy reported teachers who did not use English in the lesson very much. Shiori talked of the teacher using English "just when it was necessary in the lesson" (Shiori, 245, SE = 1, A2), and this seemed to be an experience for some other students as well. Aiko said that some teachers "just said the pronunciation, or when reading the English passage," (Aiko, 251, SE = 1.8. A2) and Ayaka noted that the lesson was "basically in Japanese" (Ayaka, 234-235, SE = 2.1, A2).

However, some teachers did try to use English in the lesson for procedural and instructional interactions, and this tended to occur with students with higher self-efficacy. Tomomi described a teacher who took time to engage students in conversation at every opportunity. She explained that he "just spoke as usual in the lesson while we were solving the questions, he would ask 'how did you get that answer?' in English, and then we would answer the Japanese teacher like 'Well I thought like this'. (Tomomi, 118-120, SE = 2.1, A2). Hanako described how hearing her teacher use English to teach English had a strong effect on her motivation "My motivation went up and it's fun, and I thought I want to hear English more" (Hanako, 175, SE = 2.8, A2). Minami also talked about the motivating effect of one teacher who wanted to do "the whole lesson in English, even when they gave out worksheets

it was all in English, the register was in English too" (Minami, 317, SE = 2.4, A2). She said that it made her feel "I wouldn't be able to follow the lesson if I didn't understand English I think it contributed to my motivation to learn words like *attendance*" (Minami, 320, SE = 2.4, A2).

Social Persuasion Experiences

The third a priori theme was social persuasion. The literature review revealed that in East Asian contexts, social persuasion might have more power than mastery experiences (Phan & Locke, 2015). So, I was very interested to hear about the kind of comments students had received about their speaking ability. I present excerpts on students' feedback from teachers and friends, and also on not receiving any positive feedback. Students did not report receiving any positive feedback from family members.

Teacher Feedback

Students reported several types of praise and feedback from teachers. The feedback from teachers tended to be constructive criticism that was designed to help them do better next time, rather than the kind that might be imagined in Western settings such as "well done", or "you tried hard". However, students seemed to appreciate this kind of feedback. Aiko explained that "when we did the presentation to the teachers, they told us detailed things, so I think that gave us more input" (Aiko, 117-119, SE = 1.8. A2). And Aya said, "the teacher pointed out the construction of sentences" (Aya, 210, SE = 2.6, A2).

Some students were praised by teachers. Ryuichi recalled that both the assistant language teacher (ALT) and the Japanese teacher praised his pronunciation. He attributed this to practising a lot.

> The ALT at that time, even when it was interview practice or one-to-one practice, I had a lot of speaking chances, at that time my pronunciation was praised, and the next year when I became a third-year student I read a lot of text, and I was told that when I read, I read deeply.
>
> (Ryuichi, 186-188, SE = 3.7, B1)

Similarly, Minami told of her teacher telling her that her English ability was better than what theirs had been at her age (Minami, 218, SE = 2.4, A2). Only students with medium self-efficacy reported receiving praise from teachers and several students said that they had never received any feedback from teachers.

Friends' Feedback

The type of praise that students received from their friends was typically about their pronunciation. Yuko, who was quite a shy student, sounded delighted when she told me that although she hadn't received a lot of praise, she had been told that she was easy to understand. She said, "I take care when I'm speaking to be easy to understand. I've been told I'm easy to understand" (Yuko, 184, SE = 1.8. A2). Taro also recalled how he had been praised for pronunciation. "Ahh... I wonder, I was told at junior high school and elementary school, my friends who hadn't done English said that my pronunciation was good" (Taro, 233-234, SE = 2.7, A1). However, Ichiro told me that his classmates' reactions were unhelpful. He said that "There are many people who are stunned, there are not many people who mention advice to me. It finishes with them just being amazed that I speak English" (Ichiro, 253-254, SE = 2.3, A2).

No Positive Feedback

Many students could not readily recall receiving praise or positive feedback about their speaking ability from anybody. Several students remembered teachers giving them negative feedback. These students tended to have low self-efficacy. Much of the speaking practice that students did was recitations, so teachers' comments were focused on whether students had remembered the text and had correct pronunciation. Minami said, "it was like whether we had remembered it or not" (Minami, 182-183, SE = 2.4, A2), she also went on to say that teachers had never told her about her speaking skill (Minami, 221, SE = 2.4, A2). Shiori also said that her teacher "didn't do much, and that's the point from where I didn't like English" (Shiori, 180-181, SE = 1, A2).

Students also said that they did not receive comments from friends. Aiko summed up the students' experiences well. She told me how "I only have the chance to speak English in the lesson times, so I didn't get told anything from other people. Amongst my classmates, we didn't say things like that" (Aiko, 174, SE = 1.8. A2). and several other students like Rika said that they had "never really been told anything" (Rika, 165, SE = 1.9, A2).

However, for some students, it was not just a case of lack of praise but receiving damaging comments. Tomomi looked uncomfortable while telling me that her Japanese accent was mocked by friends whenever she spoke in class. She confessed that "I often get told you just speak word by word, and I'm told that I speak Japanese English" (Tomomi, 205, SE = 2.1, A2). Similarly, Tomoki told of the teasing that he had received at home about his English speaking ability. Notably, the last part of this excerpt was said with great sadness.

"Well my parents don't really, my parents don't really speak English so, sometimes they teased me and said 'say something in English', and I would half-heartedly say something. I've never been told anything especially advantageous" (Tomoki,190-192, SE = 1.4, A2).

Physiological States

The final a priori theme from self-efficacy related to students' physiological reactions to speaking English in class. As might be expected, considering the prevalence of performative activities, there were more negative than positive responses to speaking English.

Positive Feelings

There were few occasions when students talked about having positive feelings towards speaking English in class. Ryuichi spoke about having fun reciting the script that he had written and memorised for his presentation on biomimicry. He felt a sense of achievement and satisfaction with his performance. "It was fun. Being able to use phrases yourself, phrases you've learnt, I experienced that, so first it was enjoyable" (Ryuichi, 207-208, SE = 3.7, B1). Ayaka also had positive feelings about speaking in class and reasoned that "Well, it's better to be chosen, isn't it? The people around you hear you and say things like 'oh that's correct' and such" (Ayaka, 215-216, SE = 2.1, A2). Other students talked not so much of positive feelings towards speaking per se, but a sense of relief when it had been completed. Hanako told me how she felt after doing speaking exercises "Oh, like feeling 'At last, we finished ' feeling relieved" (Hanako, 245, SE = 2.8, A2). This is regrettable because some students like Yumi expressed that they enjoy speaking with people, but the way English was taught at school made her frustrated with it. "Hmm oh but speaking English makes me nervous, and I get fed up with having to speak English, but I like the actual act of speaking" (Yumi, 306-307, SE = 2.4, B1).

Nervousness

Although some students had positive experiences, all students reported feeling nervous and embarrassed about speaking in front of the class. Shiori's reaction was one of the most vivid "I was nervous, so I was quite stiff, you know, and I felt the blood drain from my face" (Shiori, 210, SE = 1, A2). Her feelings were mirrored by Minami who talked of the shame she felt about speaking in front of others. She said that she was "Shaking, I was shaking. I thought I'm embarrassed because I can't speak English. I was embarrassed for everyone to see me speaking" (Minami, 121-122, SE = 2.4, A2). The students reported unpleasant, physical sensations such as shaking or becoming paralysed. The speaking

experience was described in a traumatic way. This was reinforced by Tomomi's comments here "My voice really died, you know, standing on the stage, it was a proper stage so even more so, everyone was there, everyone was watching, so I was even more nervous" (Tomomi, 167-168, SE = 2.1, A2).

The tendency for high-stress recitations in front of the whole class, and in Tomomi's case the entire school, caused students to have nervous reactions. This was echoed by one of the students who said: "if we had time one-to-one with friends because we can talk without being so nervous, I think it would be good to have chances like those" (Yumi, 234-235, SE = 2.4, B1).

Discussion

One of the most surprising results of the analysis was students' inability to remember doing fluency-based activities at school. This does not necessarily mean that they didn't do them, but that the activities may not have been memorable enough to leave an impression. The effect of experience on self-efficacy is dependent in part on "the adequacy with which people recall the experience" (Bandura, 1984, p. 243). I found this result unexpected because in 2012 the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) introduced the recommendations that English lessons should be taught in English and that communicative English should be taught at JSHS as a separate subject to English. Further, communicative skills of listening and speaking are prioritised as a core aim in MEXT's (2012) foreign language education objectives:

1. To enable students to understand the speaker's intentions when listening to English.
2. To enable students to talk about their own thoughts using English.
3. To accustom and familiarize students with reading English and to enable them to understand the writer's intentions when reading English.
4. To accustom and familiarize students with writing in English and to enable them to write about their own thoughts using English.

The analysis of students' mastery experiences also revealed that speaking practice at school tended to be giving speeches or reading scripted dialogues aloud. Note how this compares to MEXT's focus on *thoughts* and *intentions*. These activities are primarily language-based and students repeat prescribed texts and are assessed on their memorisation

and pronunciation. To develop communicative skills students need a balance between language-based and fluency-based activities (Nation, 2014). Additionally mastery experiences should be aimed towards self-directed performance (Bandura, 1977). This finding is similar to that of M. Watanabe, (2013) who found that the grammar-translation based English classes at high school did not improve students' willingness to communicate. In a different study, 66% of students said that their experiences of learning EFL speaking at high school were not meaningful (Osterman, 2014). Second language acquisition researchers contend that the two input skills of listening and reading need to be equally balanced with output skills of speaking and writing (Nation & Newton, 2009) and that when this occurs students make academic gains (Ellis, 1994).

Students' fluency-based learning experiences were more likely to have occurred out of school either by talking to foreign people in town or at an English conversation school. Unlike the in-class activities, students spoke of these experiences with excitement. Real world opportunities to communicate had a positive effect on students' motivation and provided unrehearsed speaking practice. Research suggests that students' experiences of using English in out-of-class activities are a learning strategy that boosts self-efficacy (Osboe et al., 2007). However, in-class learning experiences inconsistent with student needs can lead to demotivation (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009). Therefore, class activities need to balance language and fluency-based activities.

Students' reflections on the influence of watching similar others speak English showed that the majority of students did not have enough opportunities to watch friends, teachers or family using English. Most students had not been able to hear their classmates speak English well, but for the few that did, it was an impressive experience. Burrows (2016) found similar results; in his study students received more meaningful social modelling experiences at university than they did at JSHS. This supports this study's finding that students' social modelling experiences at school were insufficient. This is important because unlike Western cultures where individuals depend on their own experiences of success, East Asian cultures respond best to group-focused instruction (Earley, 1994). Therefore, students who were unable to observe similar others using English in conversation lacked valuable self-efficacy formation experiences.

The interview results suggest that the students were also not getting enough positive feedback from significant others. As discussed earlier, students had few opportunities to communicate in English in the lessons, so there was little opportunity to be praised. Also, as

speaking practice typically comprised of reciting speeches and textbook dialogues, students were generally evaluated on their pronunciation. Therefore, pronunciation was the main area of speaking that students were either praised or criticised for. The lack of praise may, as the expert reviewer commented, be down to a cultural tendency to avoid embarrassing people. Additionally, education in Japan draws from the concept of *gambaru* (try hard) (Cowie, 2006), where effort rather than praise is believed to yield achievement. Indeed, Ruegg (2014) found, in her study of Japanese university students, that constructive feedback from teachers raised student self-efficacy more than praise alone. It could be that the types of social persuasion that are effective may differ between East Asian and Western contexts. However, it seems from the interview results that some students interpreted constructive criticism negatively. Irrespective of its form, there is growing evidence that social persuasion is the most potent source of self-efficacy for East Asian societies (Ahn et al, 2016; Meissel & Rubie-Davies, 2016; Teo & Kam 2016). Further, Ahn et al. (2016) found that social persuasion from family was the strongest source for Korean students. Consequently, the absence of social persuasion from teachers, friends, and family members in this study is a significant finding. Students having little memory of receiving feedback about their speaking ability is likely to have diminished their self-efficacy to speak English.

Students' physiological reactions to speaking English at school were worrying but not perhaps surprising. The few cases of feeling positive about speaking were when students had had some creative input into deciding what they would say. Otherwise, students reported physically debilitating reactions to speaking English in front of the whole class. When students are reciting in front of the entire class, they are under everyone's scrutiny, so any mistakes or mispronunciations stand out. However, in conversations, there is often only one other person, and that person's focus will be split between what the other person is saying and on how they will respond. This finding supports research that suggests Japanese students prefer to speak in small groups and that delivering speeches is one of the major sources of student anxiety (Osboe et al., 2007; Williams & Andrade, 2008). It appears that the prevalence of speaking English in front of the whole class created extreme adverse reactions which were likely to have diminished students' EFL speaking self-efficacy.

Importantly, the students with higher self-efficacy tended to have had more communicative mastery experiences and to have received more social modelling and praise from teachers. These students, such as Minami at the ferry port, were able to interpret unsuccessful experiences as learning opportunities rather than evidence of failure. The

relatively, weak effect of negative experiences in high self-efficacy students in shown in Figure 4.2.

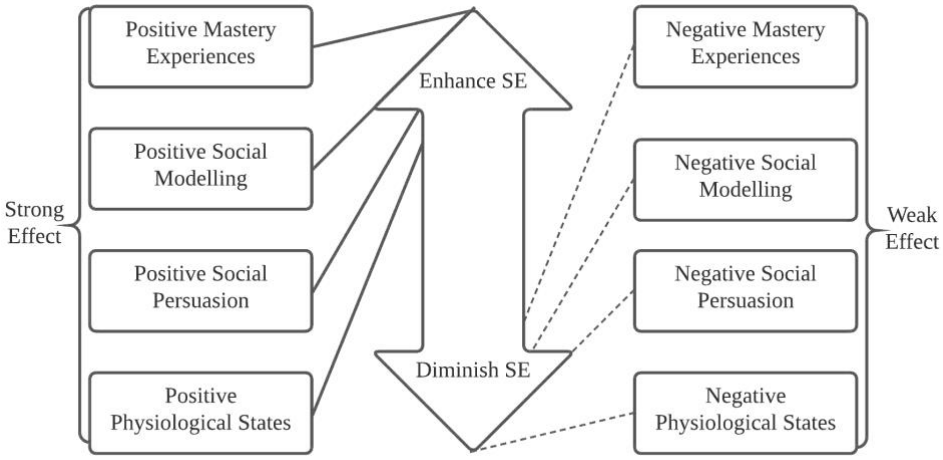


Figure 4.2 Effect of Sources on High SE Student

The students with lower self-efficacy were apt to have had limited social modelling or negative evaluations of speaking ability. These students tended to adversely evaluate their ability such as Tomoki's despondent recounting of family interactions. Thus, we can see that negative experiences have more impact on low self-efficacy students (Figure 4.3).

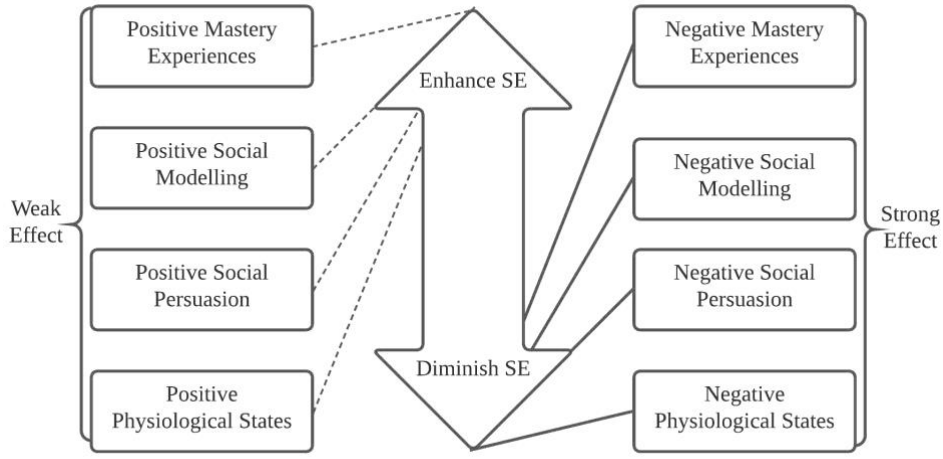


Figure 4.3 Effect of Sources on Low SE Student

Students' Goals for Studying EFL Speaking

In addition to the four themes from self-efficacy, the literature review showed that students' goals for studying English are closely linked to self-efficacy formation. I, therefore,

used theme 5 to try and answer *RQ_2 What are students' goals for studying EFL speaking?* From the analysis, I created three sub-themes. They were having a vague future goal for speaking English, English for hobbies, and talking to foreigners.

Vague Future Goals

In the interviews with students, I noticed how most of them had vague goals for using English after graduation. Students generally did not have a planned future career and so could not imagine if English would be needed or not. Therefore, students did not see English as a necessary tool for entering the job market, nor did they imagine working abroad. Tomoki's reaction is representative; he says that he cannot envision using English out in everyday life. "Actually, I don't think I will use English so much. Just I will speak it if I run into such a situation. I don't think I will use it out in society" (Tomoki, 71, SE = 1.4, A2). Aya's response was similar; she said that "I think I maybe won't use it for my job" (Aya, 70, SE = 2.6, A2). When students could imagine using English at work, they said that they would only use it when absolutely necessary. For example, if a foreign person contacted them at work as Shiori recounts here, "Goal…just so I don't have trouble when I meet a foreign person..." (Shiori, 72, SE = 1, A2).

English for Hobbies

As was seen above, students did not regard English as being especially important to their future careers. They did, however, talk about it concerning their hobbies and interests. Many students talked about how developing better English ability would enable them to engage with their hobby at a deeper level. Several students expressed that they wanted to understand Western popular media such as movies, songs and YouTube videos. Aya expressed a keen interest in movies and said about her goals:

> Maybe the main one is... really movies, how can I say, I want to be able to listen without depending on subtitles and not basically understanding what they're saying without subtitles but straight away understanding what people are saying, I want that.
>
> (Aya, 64-68, SE = 2.6, A2)

In the same vein, Ichiro believed that improving his English ability would help him understand music better. He viewed his interest in music and English as synergic. He wanted to understand the lyrics better, but he also felt that music was a useful tool for improving his English "music is the same, I like Western music and American US pop or hip hop or Bruno Mars, I listen to those, so I'm interested in learning from phrases" (Ichiro, 84-85, SE = 2.3,

A2). Later, in his advice to students who wanted to learn English, he said that connecting learning to hobbies was vital for continued motivation: "so if you increase your chances to touch English there (music), your vocabulary and phrases and words I think they become easier to remember" (Ichiro, 400-402, SE = 2.3, A2).

One hobby that some students talked of was travel. Eri wanted to compete in marathons abroad and said that her inability at English was a barrier that she must overcome to fulfil that ambition. "For me well, I want to go abroad so travel is a strong reason, I want to study for that reason" (Eri, 92-93, SE = 2.2, A2). Along the same lines, Taro was very interested in travelling abroad to Europe to practice soccer. He saw his study of English as an enabler for that.

> Well, there's just normally studying language and also soccer, soccer over there Europe if it's the UK, European soccer is strong from a long time ago and the history is completely different to Japan, so I think it would be good if I can watch it there and hear lots of different people's stories.
>
> (Taro, 107-109, SE = 2.7, A1)

Talking with Foreigners

The primary situation in which students envisioned using English was talking with foreign people. Students often said that they wanted to help foreign people in Japan. Minami said, "if I get asked something I want to help them" (Minami, 81, SE = 2.4, A2). Ryuichi said "I want to be able to reply smoothly when asked for directions or for recommended places. I think that will contribute to the globalization of Japan. I think that learning speaking is for that reason" (Ryuichi, 79-80, SE = 3.7, B1). Within the workplace, Tomomi commented that the number of foreigners working at Japanese companies is increasing so speaking English "will be easier to communicate with them, so I think it's not a waste to have that ability" (Tomomi, 73, SE = 2.1, A2). This feeling was also expressed as giving hospitality to foreigners (Aiko, 67, SE = 1.8. A2). But some students also wanted to communicate and make friends with foreigners, Ichiro said that he wanted to "speak a lot not just in Japan but to other foreign people" (Ichiro, 89, SE = 2.3, A2). And Taro told me that "The reason, so friends, friends or rather there's someone I know I want to be able to speak to them" (Taro, 92, SE = 2.7, A1).

Discussion

The interview participants did not appear to have goals for English related to their chosen careers or working abroad. This is unexpected because there are national and local

goals to promote globally-minded graduates. For example, the Japanese government has created programs to encourage more internationalization at higher education institutes. And although the university does not have a foreign language faculty, in its promotional materials internationalization is one of its core goals through study abroad programs and promoting globally minded students (City University, 2020). The students in this study, however, tended to have goals to help them pursue their hobbies rather than to develop their professional careers. These kinds of goals are to promote pleasure and as such are the intrinsic goals which are known to increase motivation and persistence (Dörnyei, 1994). The finding matches other research that Japanese students' motivations to study EFL are for travel or communicating with foreigners (Kimura et al., 2001). This suggests that there is a mismatch between what universities and the national government endorse and what individual students desire. Long term goals are essential for language learning motivation (Kormos et al., 2011), so better awareness of life plans and the skills needed would help students form clearer goals. Students' self-efficacy level did not appear to affect the goals that students had.

Students' Attitudes to Studying EFL Speaking

The final a priori theme was students' attitude to English which was used to answer *RQ_3 What are students' attitudes to studying EFL speaking?* I split this theme into three sub-themes: feelings towards English, perception of ability, and desire to study conversation.

Feelings towards English.

When asked about their attitudes to English, students frequently talked about their feelings about English, such as whether they liked the subject and how important they felt it was. Not surprisingly, students who had higher self-reported English and self-efficacy scores said that they enjoyed studying English. Such students said that it was "the most enjoyable" (Minami, 6), their "favourite subject", (Ryuichi, 18, SE = 3.7, B1) and "I don't study at all but I like English" (Taro, 26). Contrastingly, those students who had lower English and self-efficacy scores revealed that they didn't like the subject very much. For these students, feelings of being poor at the subject and not enjoying it were interconnected. When asked to talk about a subject she did not like, Ayaka pondered "A subject I don' t like...hmm I wonder I think I'm maybe not very good at English" (Ayaka, 16, SE = 2.1, A2). Similarly, Rika said that "I'm poor at English, English and math I'm poor at" (Rika, 21, SE = 1.9, A2).

Most students' feelings about English centred on how important they felt it was. There was a range of responses, with several students saying that it was not an essential subject for

their future. Shiori told me it was her reason for not liking English "I think that maybe it's because I've never thought myself that English is so important" (Shiori, 240, SE = 1, A2). Tomomi also said that "it has no importance, but when I get to third or fourth year at this university, I will start to think about employment so now I think that I should start to think about it" (Tomomi, 94-96, SE = 2.1, A2). Aiko as well said "First of all, I don't really think that English is important as a premise. I want to work in Japan, and it's just at a level to be useful" (Aiko, 79-81, SE = 1.8. A2). Aiko's words are interesting; she believes that English is not necessary for working in Japan and perhaps this helps explain students' earlier comments that they will only use English when necessary with foreigners.

Yet for some students learning to speak English was very important. Taro told me that "It's pretty important, of the things I want to study, it's in the five things I want to study while at university, that's how important." (Taro, 130-131, SE = 2.7, A1). Ryuichi also ranked speaking English as having the same importance as studying for his economics major, and Hanako rated it as eight out of ten in importance. As with many of the other examples, students with higher English scores also had positive attitudes towards English.

Perception of Ability

In general, students' perceptions of their English-speaking ability were low, with no students perceiving that they were competent. Tomoki had one of the most negative appraisals of ability.

> Well what can I say…maybe I'm no good at it…not good at it and not much efficiency. I can't understand it well or rather people who can do it, progressively understand, but my memory skill is poor, and I'm rubbish at things like translating English, and it's like I'm no good at it, so I don't like it much.
>
> (Tomoki, 33-34, SE = 1.4, A2)

Many students' repeated Tomoki's feelings of being mediocre at English. Having poor vocabulary was often mentioned, as was pronunciation. Tomomi said, "My pronunciation is really terrible it's really like Japanese" (Tomomi, 131-132, SE = 2.1, A2). Both Ayaka and Eri talked about not being able to understand lesson contents after the second year of junior high school. Although most students perceived their ability as weak, some students spoke of enjoying being able to speak English. Minami and Yumi said that English was fun because they could do it. From what students told me it seems that student's enjoyment of English was connected to their perception of their ability.

Preference for Speaking

When I asked students about their attitudes to English, nearly all the students said that they wanted to do more speaking practice about everyday topics. Shiori noted that "rather than grammar, I would be happy to be taught everyday conversation and such" (Shiori, 60, SE = 1, A2). Similarly, Rika said that she wanted to be taught "things we can use every day maybe it's difficult in Japan, but I would be happy if I could be taught English that I can use when I go abroad and such" (Rika, 52-53, SE = 1.9, A2). Minami talked in more detail about the kind of lesson she wanted to do. She said, "speaking to the person next to you or something, not saying scripted words but I think activities that like let you converse using English knowledge you have thought of yourself are good" (Minami, 65-67, SE = 2.4, A2). I felt that Hanako's words were especially informative, she said that she wanted to do more speaking practice because "otherwise there's no point in doing English is there? If we don't speak. Because we're doing it because we want to speak, so I think we should increase the part where we actually speak" (Hanako, 236-238, SE = 2.8, A2).

Students' desire to converse was paired with their frustration with grammar-based lessons. Tomoki said "... actually…I wonder whether translating into English is so useful so…" (Tomoki, 58, SE = 1.4, A2). Ichiro said that focusing on grammar rather than communication meant that "...if I go abroad I won't be able to do anything! I won't be able to do anything, even if I can read knowing that oh here is a personal pronoun, it's like so what, isn't it?" (Ichiro, 303-305, SE = 2.3, A2).

Discussion

The analysis revealed that students' attitudes toward English were governed by their appraisal of ability and how important they felt the subject was. Perhaps some students' belief that they were poor at English speaking is because of the focus on grammar-translation. English teachers in Japan have little choice but to focus on grammar-translation to prepare students for the high stakes *senta- shiken*. The English component of the *senta-shiken* test is compulsory and is comprised of reading, listening, and grammar-translation sections. Teachers need to cover a vast array of vocabulary and grammatical structures, so speaking practice is often restricted to easily managed recitations. This means that students' self-appraisals of speaking ability are based on speech performance rather than on communicative practice, and student's beliefs that they are poor at English may be misplaced. This combines with Japanese students' tendency to underestimate their ability (Lockley, 2013).

Students' mixed attitudes towards the importance of English are reflective of their vague future goals since, without specific long term goals, they are unlikely to value the importance of the subject. The attitude is also understandable when we consider that their goals for studying English were hobby-based rather than career-focused. Thus, the level of importance students gave to English may be related to how necessary they feel it is for their interests. This split in Japanese students' attitudes towards English as either an asset or a nuisance has been reported in other studies (Saito, 2014). The students' preference to study conversation rather than grammar was echoed in the recommendations in Osterman's (2014) study that Japanese students practice conversation more and from a younger age.

Desired Skills

As well as the deductive a priori coding, I also conducted inductive thematic coding to answer *RQ4 What other issues if any may be contributing to students' sources of EFL speaking experiences?* The inductive analysis suggested the final theme of desired skills - the kind of English speaker students wanted to become. This theme was defined by the communicative abilities that they wanted to acquire and by the specific language skills they wanted to attain not the intended usage contexts or goals. There did not appear to be variation in students' desired skills and abilities based on English or self-efficacy levels

Desired Communicative Abilities

The communicative abilities that students wanted to attain reflected students' goals for studying English to pursue personal interests. Specifically, they wanted to be able to talk about everyday things, to be able to convey meaning, and be able to respond to requests spontaneously.

Talk about Everyday Things

Students generally didn't see themselves using English in their future career and instead wanted to be able to talk about simple, everyday things such as shopping, asking for directions, and pursuing their hobbies. Therefore, they wanted to become someone who could use English for such simple purposes. Many students said they wanted to be able to use English for everyday conversation. Taro said, "Well, just using English normally, as much as possible in English, first of all, talk to people, speaking to people" (Taro, 88-89, SE = 2.7, A1). And Tomoki also reflected that he wanted to talk "naturally and smoothly say mostly everyday conversations" (Tomoki, 218, SE = 1.4, A2). It seemed that students had not had

enough time to become comfortable with basic English communication, and so this was the area that they wanted to develop.

Convey Meaning

Students also wanted the communicative ability to convey meaning rather than produce a grammatically correct phrase. This was an area that students touched on when they talked about their feelings towards English lessons, and they extended on it when they imagined the kind of skills they wanted to attain. The idea of conveying meaning was described by Aya thus "when it comes to actual communication, being able to convey meaning is important I think" (Aya, 95-96, SE = 2.6, A2). Yumi also expressed that conveying meaning was more important than speaking accurate English, "Hmm… It doesn't matter if you make a mistake, but first, I think it's important to try to convey your meaning." (Yumi, 78-79, SE = 2.4, B1).

Speak Spontaneously

Many students also expressed a desire to be able to speak spontaneously without first formulating their responses in their head. Minami revealed that "the most important thing is to speak fluently" (Minami, 62, SE = 2.4, A2). Tomomi described her current frustration with this in detail. She explained, "when it came to speaking spontaneously, only the easy English that I learnt at junior high would come out" (Tomomi, 152-153, SE = 2.1, A2). Students said that they could often understand what had been told to them but could not form an answer quickly enough. Ichiro said that "I think I want to be able to converse seamlessly" (Ichiro, 90, SE = 2.3, A2). This shows a lack of fluency as students reported they were focusing on grammatical correctness, which led them to first try and create the correct sentence in their head before answering.

Skills Considered Necessary

The students also talked about the language skills that they wanted to develop. They spoke of enhancing their vocabulary, improving their pronunciation, and developing their listening skills.

Vocabulary

Students often talked about wanting to develop their lexical fluency with increased knowledge of words and phrases. For some students, they felt that by so doing, they would be able to describe their intentions more precisely. Ryuichi said that "I still have points that are

not perfect grammar and specific phrases, so first I want to master grammar well and to come to converse naturally" (Ryuichi, 86-87, SE = 3.7, B1). There was also the sense that a more sophisticated vocabulary would allow them to talk with more subtlety. Ichiro was especially interested in being able to convey the strength of an emotion. "I want to get better at phrases to describe feelings (...) So, I think that I want to be able to express emotional phrases using various vocabulary." (Ichiro, 119-124, SE = 2.3, A2). However, some students wanted to develop the core vocabulary needed for everyday conversation. Shiori said that "I think of what to say in Japanese, don't I? When I think to change it into English, my English vocabulary is often insufficient" (Shiori, 84-85, SE = 1, A2). Aya echoed this feeling when she told me "the words and grammar I have is few, so I pretty much try to convey with words, maybe I can't speak in proper sentences so much…" (Aya, 224-226, SE = 2.6, A2).

Pronunciation / Accent

Many students appeared dissatisfied with their English pronunciation. Specifically, they felt that speaking with a Japanese accent was a sign of low aptitude. They often recounted experiences of other people, teachers or family members, criticising their Japanese accent. Tomoki talked about how he disliked his Japanese accent "I just focus on the stress and speak slowly and also speak with too much Japanese accent" (Tomoki, 198-199, SE = 1.4, A2). Aya also suggested that a Japanese accent made people difficult to understand. She commented, "proper pronunciation, I think it's the best way to convey easily" (Aya, 76-77, SE = 2.6, A2). Likewise, Tomomi felt that she wanted "to be able to speak with an understandable pronunciation. I have a strong Japanese intonation, me, I think I want to be able to speak English so that others can understand" (Tomomi, 83-85, SE = 2.1, A2). Ayaka echoed the feeling that Japanese pronunciation made their English incomprehensible "my pronunciation is not good, I think it's a problem if I can't be understood because English has similar pronunciation like L and R" (Ayaka, 70-71, SE = 2.1, A2).

Understanding / Listening Ability

The third skill that students desired was understanding. Many felt that being unable to understand everything that people said to them was the reason that they could not communicate effectively. Aya explains here, "I think that if I understood more if I comprehended, it would be good" (Aya, 29-30, SE = 2.6, A2). Other students repeated this feeling. Tomomi said "I think that unless I can understand what people say, then I can't communicate. I want to be able to comprehend" (Tomomi, 57-59, SE = 2.1, A2). Thus,

students saw understanding what was being said to them as the first step for communication, and some felt that it was more important than the speaking skill. Aiko explained, "if I don't know what people are saying, then I can't convey anything, so rather than speaking, I feel I want to get better at listening" (Aiko, 70-71, SE = 1.8. A2).

Discussion

The language abilities of students' desired L2 selves were to convey meaning in everyday conversations quickly. The language skills were adequate listening ability, having a broad vocabulary, and not having a Japanese accent. For students, conveying meaning clearly and expediently was more important than producing a grammatically correct response.

Evaluation of students' mastery experiences at school suggests that they were mainly engaged in performing rehearsed speaking activities such as reciting speeches and scripted dialogues with limited interaction or original input. Students appear to have not had sufficient fluency-based practice when they needed to process information and then formulate a response. The abilities and skills that students describe for their desired L2 selves reinforces that mastery experiences at school have focused overly on accuracy at the expense of fluency.

The desired skills theme, generated from the inductive coding, appears similar to ideal L2 self which is part of the L2 motivational self system proposed by Dörnyei, (2009). Ideal L2 self refers to the type of L2 user that students imagine themselves to become. This image stimulates students to try to close the gap between their current perceived L2 self and their future ideal L2 self (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). Although ideal L2 self contains attributes such as communicating "similar to a native speaker", (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005, p. 22) it has antecedents of believing L2 will be useful for future career (Dörnyei, 2009; Ueki & Takeuchi, 2012). These kinds of goals were not a strong feature in my data set. Students tended to imagine themselves using English domestically to pursue their hobbies or to assist foreigners visiting Japan more than using it abroad in future careers or using it with international friends. This suggests that encouraging these students to imagine themselves using English with foreign visitors to Japan may strengthen self-efficacy or language learning achievement better than imagining using it internationally. Consequently, the relationship between and nature of goals, attitude, and desired skills will be investigated further in the quantitative analysis of inventory data in Chapters 5 and 6.

Summary of Qualitative Findings

A summary of the main findings of the qualitative analysis of the interview data is as follows.

- Students' mastery experiences tended to be restricted to language-based activities such as reciting speeches or dialogues from the textbook. Fluency-based encounters were generally had out-of-class talking to foreign visitors.
- Social modelling experiences were limited. Students had mixed experiences of teachers using English in class and few opportunities to observe friends, classmates or family members use English
- The feedback that students received from teachers or friends tended to be constructive rather than supportive, although some teachers did praise students. Several students were made to feel ashamed of their speaking ability.
- A few students had enjoyed speaking English, but the majority felt extremely nervous. Speaking in front of the class was the leading cause of anxiety.
- Students' goals to use English tended to be related to their hobbies rather than using it professionally, with a focus on domestic rather than international usage.
- Students had a low perception of their English ability and had mixed feelings about its importance. They wanted to study conversation more.
- Students wished to become more fluent speakers of English. They prioritised conveying meaning over delivering accurate, grammatical utterances.

In the next chapter, I will discuss the inventory development and the methodology of the quantitative phase.

Chapter 5 Inventory Development & Quantitative Methodology

This chapter serves as a bridging chapter to first explain how the themes from the qualitative phase were used to develop the inventory items, and then describe the methodology for the quantitative phase.

Phase Two: Inventory Development

Measuring phenomena is one of the critical facets of scientific inquiry, however when the phenomena cannot be directly seen, researchers need to employ scales to measure unobservable elements such as personality traits (Tay & Jebb, 2016). Inventories are a series of scales, each of which measures a different component of the trait. However, the development of scales is a complex process, and failure to adequately capture the phenomena's constructs in the scale items can result in researchers reaching incorrect conclusions (DeVellis, 2017). Therefore, to increase the chances of developing a valid and reliable scale in this study, it was essential to follow recognized procedures for scale development. Additionally, because self-efficacy is highly domain-specific, items needed to be measured in precise, contextualised terms (Pajares, 1995). Sources of self-efficacy research typically uses Likert scales to record the degree respondents agree with statements about their learning experiences. Bandura (2006) has provided detailed advice on how best to construct scales of self-efficacy which can be summarised as 1) have items that reflect perceived capability and be worded to reflect this by using can do rather than will do statements, 2) do not confuse self-efficacy with other constructs such as self-esteem, 3) be domain-specific and use factors which impact on the domain. DeVellis (2017) is widely recognized as the most current source for scale development (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006), I, therefore, developed SEFLS-SEI by attending to Bandura's recommendations and following DeVellis' procedures for scale development as listed below. Steps 1-6 are for scale development and are discussed in this chapter, steps 7-8 are for the testing of the scale and are discussed in Chapter 6 Quantitative Findings.

Step 1: Determine what it is you want to measure
Step 2: Generate an item pool
Step 3: Determine the format for measurement
Step 4: Have an item pool reviewed by experts
Step 5: Consider inclusion of validation items
Step 6: Administer items to a development sample
Step 7: Evaluate the items
Step 8: Optimize scale length (p. 212)

Step 1: Determine What It Is You Want to Measure

I used the 7 themes generated in the qualitative stage to determine that I wanted to measure experiences relating to students' experiences of learning EFL speaking at JSHS. The specific areas were the four sources of self-efficacy, goals, attitude, and desired skills.

Step 2: Generate an Item Pool

I used the rich data from the qualitative interview stage described in Chapter 4 to generate the items for the inventory. I collected quotations from the interview data that best illustrated each code in each of the 7 themes. I then rewrote each quotation as an item for inclusion on the inventory. It is recommended that items for inventories are written to be unambiguous, written in clear language, and not contain negatively worded items (Carpenter, 2018). Furthermore, items on an inventory should not be statements to which the majority of respondents would answer in the same way (DeVellis, 2017). I collected the quotes from the original Japanese and wrote the items out in Japanese. The English translation of the mapping of quotes into inventory items is included in Appendix G.

Step 3: Determine the Format for Measurement

Likert scales are commonly used in sources of self-efficacy instruments (Bandura, 2006). Therefore, I chose the same format as this would allow me to keep within the conventions of the field and include validation items from other scales. Likert scales usually have a series of statements which respondents answer by choosing the degree to which they agree or disagree with the statement. Scales can either have neutral midpoints or, by having an even number of scale points, require respondents to take a position (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 390). For this study, I decided to use a six-point scale and require respondents to take a position because although neutrality is possible for opinions, it is not for experiences - they are either had or they are not.

Step 4: Have an Item Pool Reviewed by Experts

Because I wrote the scale items in Japanese, my second language, I asked two bilingual native Japanese speakers who are also university EFL teachers to check SEFLS-SEI for comprehensiveness and item fit. Some grammatical errors were identified, and appropriate changes made. For example, in Japan, it is more common to word Likert scales with *this fits* rather than *I agree*, so the wording was changed to reflect this. Further, the term *at school* means education up to high school in English, but in Japanese *gakkou* (school) can also refer to university, so items on the SEFLS-SEI that began with *At school* were changed to *At junior*

and senior high school to avoid confusion and ensure that students answered about past school experiences and not current ones at university. Neither expert identified any items as not fitting the intended construct or as being problematic.

Step 5: Consider Inclusion of Validation Items

Initially, I wanted to compare the results from SEFLS-SEI with those from an existing inventory of sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy in Japan. However, as discussed in Chapter 2 Literature Review, at the time of conducting the research, I could locate no such scale. Therefore, I used items from Zheng et al.'s (2017) questionnaire for measuring EFL learners' self-efficacy sources (EFLL-SES) which was administered to 700 university students in China and found to be both reliable and valid. The scale addresses all four language skills, so I selected the items that related to speaking skills. The inventory uses a five-point Likert scale. Because I would compare my study's results for EFLL-SES with Zheng et al's results, I kept the five-point scale for these items. The scale is only available in the English language, so I translated these items into Japanese.

Pilot

After experts had viewed SEFLS-SEI, I piloted the inventory with two classes of first-year university students at City University. Each class consisted of around 20 students. The results of the pilot were shared with City University staff and used as part of ongoing assessment of teaching practice. I told the students the purposes of the pilot and that they did not need to fill in the inventory if they did not wish to. I also informed the students that their responses would be anonymous with no names or student numbers collected, and that every effort would be taken to keep their responses confidential. As students were completing the pilot, I asked them to tell me about any confusing or ambiguous parts of the inventory. They said to me that some of the questions were confusing. Therefore, changes were made to make the wording simpler and to reword negatively worded items. For example, item 1 "I have no clear memory of speaking English at school" was changed to "I often did speaking activities at school". Also item 22 which addressed feeling anxious included the example *chi no ke ga hiku* (feel the blood drain), the students felt that this was too extreme a term and so it was removed.

Students also told me that they preferred to have a midpoint, neither agree nor disagree on the Likert scale as some questions were difficult to answer. However, as the research purpose was to establish whether students have experienced sources of self-efficacy

events, it did not make sense to have a neutral answer because people either have or have not had an experience. Therefore, apart from the five-point EFLL-SES validation items, I kept my subscales as six-point Likert scales.

Phase Three: Quantitative Methodology

The next stage of the research design was the quantitative testing of the final inventory. In this section, I will describe the research instrument, the participant sample, the data collection, the method of analysis, and ethical concerns and limitations.

Final SEFLS-SEI Instrument

The inventory was organised into three separate sections consisting of 56 items. The first section included demographic information and English learning background, the following section comprised the seven sub-scales from the qualitative themes, and the final section was the EFLL-SES validation scale. This scale was chosen because it was the closest available scale as it addresses sources of EFL of Chinese students, no scale for Japanese students could be located. The items for the four sources of self-efficacy and the other three original subscales were drawn up using adaptions of excerpts from the qualitative research findings to ensure that the inventory was based on student experiences. Items were compiled for each theme and checked through expert peer review. The EFLL-SES subscale items that best reflected the speaking skill were selected for inclusion. The number of items for each subscale was as below, and the entire inventory can be viewed in Appendix I.

- Demographic and English background section - 12 items
- Sources of EFL Speaking Self Efficacy Scale
  - Mastery - 6 items
  - Social modelling - 4 items
  - Social persuasion - 5 items
  - Physiological states - 6 items
- Goals for studying English - 6 items
- Attitudes to studying English - 6 items
- Desired skills - 6 items
- Select items from EFLL-SES scale (Validation scale) - 12 items

Participants

Convenience sampling was used to gather participants for this study because it would allow me to hone in on the target population of Japanese university students. I contacted colleagues who teach at universities in Japan to explain the research aim and inquire whether they would be able to act as gatekeepers to distribute the questionnaire. Ten colleagues working at different universities responded that they would be able to do so. I asked these colleagues to forward the inventory to any of their associates whom they felt might also be able to administer it. I also posted links to the inventory on my professional teacher-researcher social networking (SNS) sites in Japan.

Table 5.1
Descriptive Statistics of Categorical Variables N=353

		Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Gender	Female	186	52.7	52.7	52.7
	Male	157	44.5	44.5	97.2
	Other	10	2.8	2.8	100.0
	Total	353	100.0	100.0	
Major studied	Economics	163	46.2	46.2	46.2
	Medicine and welfare	54	15.3	15.3	61.5
	Science	24	6.8	6.8	68.3
	Languages and global studies	31	8.8	8.8	77.1
	Social studies	32	9.1	9.1	86.1
	Art and architecture	45	12.7	12.7	98.9
	Other	4	1.1	1.1	100.0
	Total	353	100.0	100.0	
Type of university	National	37	10.5	10.5	10.5
	Public	170	48.2	48.2	58.6
	Private	146	41.4	41.4	100.0
	Total	353	100.0	100.0	
Attended English school	No	254	72.0	72.0	72.0
	Yes 1-2 years	40	11.3	11.3	83.3
	Yes 3-5 years	25	7.1	7.1	90.4
	Yes 6-10 years	20	5.7	5.7	96.0
	Yes 10+ years	14	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	353	100.0	100.0	
Lived abroad	No	337	95.5	95.5	95.5
	Yes - 1 month	8	2.3	2.3	97.7
	Yes 1-6 months	5	1.4	1.4	99.2
	Yes six months+	3	.8	.8	100.0
	Total	353	100.0	100.0	
English level	A1	141	39.9	39.9	39.9
	A2	157	44.5	44.5	84.4
	B1	52	14.7	14.7	99.2
	B2	3	.8	.8	100.0
	Total	353	100.0	100.0	

Note: English levels are CEFR levels A1 lowest C2 highest

Participant Demographic Information

The demographic data and English language background of the participants were collected through 11 categorical and one continuous variable. The descriptive statistics are shown above in Table 5.1. Examples of items were the type of university and major, whether respondents had lived abroad, and their self-reported English proficiency level. The data show that the sample is drawn from a similar number of male and female students and that respondents represent both a range of types of university and major studied. The English level of the respondents was comparable to the wider population, with 99% reporting levels from beginner to low intermediate. Respondents' ages ranged from 18 to 23, with a mean age of 19. The gender ratio of the participants was 186 female, 157 male and 10 who identified as neither male nor female.

Data Collection

I created the inventory as an online instrument in Microsoft Forms so that teachers at participating universities could easily share it in class, and students could complete it in their own time. This gave students sufficient time to read the participant information sheet and make an informed decision about whether to participate. With the online form, I could also increase students' confidentiality and voluntary participation because there was no way for the gatekeeper teachers or me to track which students had completed the survey, and only the students themselves would know if they had completed the inventory. This helped to increase the ethical reliability of the research, indeed, Barchard and Williams (2008) contend that anonymous online data collection poses few ethical concerns. Microsoft Forms automatically saves responses in Excel, which both simplifies preparing the data for import into SPSS and removes the risk of the researcher mistyping results when transferring from paper to digital format. Additionally, as all the questions on the online questionnaire were set as required questions, no cases had missing data.

Handouts with a brief description of the research and QR code links to the online inventory were sent out at the end of September 2019. I asked teachers to administer the inventory in October at a time that best suited their teaching schedule. To reduce the burden on participating teachers and students, the inventory could be distributed via email, a PowerPoint slide, or as a paper handout. I asked teachers to inform students that if they wished to participate, they should fill in the inventory by the following week; and then to remind students one week later that if they had not filled in the inventory they had one more week to do so.

Response Rate

Because the inventory was completely anonymous, it was not possible to track how many students from each site responded. However, I did ask each teacher to let me know how many students they distributed the inventory to. The total they reported was approximately 845. I do not know how many people the inventory reached through word of mouth or over SNS but estimate that it was unlikely to be more than 150. I, therefore, assume that the total reach of the inventory was somewhere between 845 and 1,000 people. This allowed me to calculate an estimate of the total response rate. I received responses from 367 participants, five of which were immediately removed because respondents had declined consent. This left 362 returned inventories. I estimate a response rate of around 36% if total reach was 1,000, or around 43% if total reach was 845. A similar mixed methods doctoral study using online surveys reported a response rate of 17% (Howell Smith, 2011), so my response rate was very good.

Data Validation

Before any of the research questions were addressed, the data were prepared for analysis. This involved data cleaning to remove outliers and responses from international students and checking for errors by examining the descriptive statistics. Next, data was manipulated by reverse coding, generating subscale totals, and assessing the normality of the data set. Finally, the validity and reliability of the scale were assessed. All statistical tests were carried out with IBM SPSS Statistics 25 software.

Error Checking

There were 362 positive responses to the SEFLS-SEI. Because all inventory items in Microsoft Forms were set as required questions there was no missing data. The first stage of the preparation was to check the data for input errors by examining the descriptive statistics for each variable. This step is important because it lets the researcher gain an initial overview of the data (Leech et al., 2012). The summaries, minimum, and maximum values of the 51 continuous variables were examined for anomalies, and all responses appeared to be within the expected range (Table 5.2). However, eight cases from non-Japanese respondents were removed. Although their experiences are valuable and informative, the research aim was to explore the learning experiences of students in Japan and results from international students might obscure this. One further case was removed for being considered spoiled. The respondent had selected the first occurring answer for every item on the inventory. Since there

were positively and negatively worded items, it was deemed unlikely that the respondent was answering correctly. This left 353 valid responses.

Table 5.2
Descriptive Statistics of Continuous Variables N = 353

	Min	Max	M	SD	Sk.	Ku.
Mastery Experiences						
M1 I often did English speaking activities in class at school.	1	6	3.84	1.19	-.647	.178
M2 When I did speaking activities at school, I often read aloud from the textbook.	1	6	4.43	1.19	-1.069	1.177
M3 When I did speaking activities at school, I often made speeches in front of the whole class.	1	6	2.88	1.37	.203	-.859
M4 At school I had chances to have conversations in English with my classmates	1	6	4.01	1.40	-.636	-.397
M5 I have had chances to use English in my daily life.	1	6	2.46	1.26	.621	-.418
M6 I had chances to use English outside of school by attending an English conversation school or English class.	1	6	2.40	1.65	.788	-.820
Social Modelling						
SM1 At school, I had friends who were really good at English speaking.	1	6	4.22	1.53	-.651	-.619
SM2 When I see my classmates speak English well, it gives me hope that I will be able to speak English well, too.	1	6	3.26	1.45	.025	-.997
SM3 At school, my Japanese English teacher, spoke English as much as possible in the lesson.	1	6	3.94	1.36	-.369	-.658
SM4 At school, when I saw my Japanese teacher speaking English, it made me feel motivated to study English speaking more.	1	6	3.34	1.39	-.018	-.743
Social Persuasion						
SP1 When I did English speaking tasks at school, my teachers often gave me useful feedback.	1	6	3.38	1.33	-.086	-.703
SP2 At school, my teachers, praised my English speaking ability.	1	6	2.86	1.39	.344	-.815
SP3 At school, I was often told by my classmates that my speaking ability was good.	1	6	2.39	1.27	.823	.042
RSP4 I have been told that my English speaking is not good. (REVERSE)	1	6	2.70	1.30	-.715	-.065
SP5 My family members praised my English speaking ability	1	6	2.37	1.29	.723	-.443
Physiological States						
PS1 When I was at school, I enjoyed speaking English in class.	1	6	3.17	1.39	-.011	-.871
PS2 When I was at school, I was happy when I finished an English speaking task.	1	6	2.93	1.37	.191	-.740
PS3 When I was at school, I was happy when I was chosen to do English speaking tasks in class.	1	6	2.22	1.30	1.028	.417
PS4 When I was at school, speaking English made me so nervous. (REVERSE)	1	6	3.98	1.37	.484	-.488
PS5 When I was at school, I didn't want other people to hear me speaking English. (REVERSE)	1	6	3.56	1.45	.133	-.816
PS6 When I spoke English at school, I worried so much about whether I was making mistakes. (REVERSE)	1	6	4.23	1.33	.749	.033
Goals						
G1 In the future, I think I will only use English if I have to. (REVERSE)	1	6	4.18	1.31	.834	.217
G2 In the future, I think I will use English a lot at work.	1	6	3.39	1.41	.040	-.822
G3 I think being able to speak English will help me to pursue my interests.	1	6	4.59	1.23	-.820	.184
G4 I want to study English speaking because I want to travel abroad.	1	6	3.93	1.48	-.411	-.595
G5 I want to be able to speak English because I want to help	1	6	3.99	1.35	-.413	-.278

foreign tourists to Japan.						
G6 When someone speaks to me in English, I want to be able to reply smoothly.	1	6	4.81	1.13	-1.243	1.950
Attitude						
A1 I think I will use English for my daily life.	1	6	3.92	1.39	-.356	-.591
A2 I think English is fun because I can come to understand things on TV or in books.	1	6	4.29	1.35	-.687	-.056
A3 I think that I am good at English	1	6	2.09	1.16	1.050	.740
A4 I want to practice more actual speaking, not reading scripted dialogues.	1	6	4.26	1.28	-.651	.133
A5 I want to practice English speaking by talking to my friends about everyday things.	1	6	4.09	1.28	-.511	-.187
A6 I think conveying meaning is the most important thing for speaking English.	1	6	4.65	1.18	-1.165	1.471
Desired Skills						
D1 I want to be skilled at everyday conversation.	1	6	4.69	1.18	-1.055	1.275
D2 I want to be able to convey meaning even when the grammar and vocabulary are not correct.	1	6	4.73	1.11	-1.121	1.532
D3 I want to be able to speak English spontaneously.	1	6	4.67	1.20	-1.046	1.109
D4 I want to have a wide vocabulary so I can express things in a variety of ways.	1	6	4.40	1.34	-.782	.169
D5 I want to be able to speak English without a Japanese accent.	1	6	4.26	1.29	-.711	.175
D6 I want to be able to easily understand what native speakers are saying.	1	6	4.81	1.15	-1.213	1.753
EFLL-SE Validation Items						
E1 I do well on even the most difficult English assignments.	1	5	1.90	.88	.717	-.124
E2 I do well on English assignments.	1	4	2.21	.97	.284	-.927
E3 I have always been successful with English.	1	5	2.03	.88	.526	-.327
E4 Seeing adults do well in English pushes me to do better.	1	5	3.44	1.09	-.620	-.223
E5 I have a good friend who performed very well in the English class, and I admired him/her a lot.	1	5	3.84	1.05	-1.098	.874
E6 I want to learn English well.	1	5	3.89	.93	-1.136	1.639
E7 People have told me that I have a talent in EFL (English Foreign Language) courses.	1	5	1.81	.89	.995	.725
E8 Adults in my family have told me that I am a good English student.	1	5	1.95	1.03	.942	.206
E9 Other students have told me that I'm good at learning English.	1	5	2.06	1.05	.736	-.316
E10 Just being in English class makes me feel stressed and nervous. (REVERSE)	1	5	2.86	1.11	.086	-.800
E11 I start to feel stressed-out as soon as I begin to do my English assignments. (REVERSE)	1	5	2.86	1.09	-.090	-.791
E12 My mind goes blank, and I am unable to think clearly when doing English assignments. (REVERSE)	1	5	2.62	1.10	-.315	-.631

Note: Underlined items indicate the highest mean in each subscale

Assessing Distribution

Assessing the distribution of data not only allows the researcher to gain more in-depth insight into the nature of the data set but also to establish if any of the assumptions of normality for certain statistical tests are being violated. It is an integral part of multivariate analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The skew and kurtosis of individual items were examined, and some items were outside of acceptable range of ±1. This was not considered an issue research because neither skewed data nor abnormal distributions are typically considered problematic in psychology (Little, 2013). Principal axis factoring was selected as

the method of extraction as it makes no assumptions about the distribution of the data (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Fabrigar et al.,1999).

As this study would use exploratory factor analysis, which is sensitive to extreme outliers, an examination of the boxplot of the total SEFLS-SEI was conducted. The boxplots revealed 9 responses that were outliers with 2 extreme high cases and 7 extreme low ones. Tabachnick & Fidell (2013) recommend that researchers only remove outliers if they do not represent the intended population. The demographic data of the 9 cases did not appear unusual; furthermore, an inspection of the means for total SEFLS-SEI was 143.38 compared to 143.9 of the 5% trimmed means. This indicated that the 9 outliers were not having a strong influence on the mean and they were therefore retained.

Initial Reliability Analysis

An initial reliability analysis using Cronbach alpha coefficient and inter-item correlations was run to identify if any items on the inventory were performing poorly and should be considered for later deletion. The results are shown in Table 5.3. The initial reliability analysis showed that the reliability of the scale was high and highlighted 7 items that could increase the reliability if removed.

Table 5.3
Initial Reliability Check

	inter-item correlation			Cronbach's alpha	Item for possible deletion	Alpha if item deleted	Increase in alpha
	min	max	mean				
39-item SEFL-SEI	-.251	.771	.231	.919	M6	.920	.01
					SM1	.920	.01
					RSP4	.921	.02
					RPS4	.920	.01
					RPS5	.920	.01
					RPS6	.922	.03
					RG1	.923	.04

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The validity of the SEFLS-SEI was assessed through exploratory factor analysis to understand whether it adequately measured the four sources of self-efficacy, and if the goals, attitude, and desired skills themes identified in the qualitative analysis would load as latent variables. Exploratory factor analysis should be carried out on new scales even if they are constructed from theoretical a priori themes. Worthington and Whittaker (2006) state that "regardless of how effectively the researcher believes item generation has reproduced the

theorized latent variables, we believe that the initial validation of an instrument should involve empirically appraising the underlying factor structure (i.e., EFA)" (p.815). This is essential because the EFA not only identifies the number and nature of latent variables but also identifies items that are performing poorly (DeVellis, 2017, p.155). Confirmatory factor analysis is used "on a separate sample to confirm the structure of the proposed scale resulting from an EFA" (Carpenter, 2017, p.27). Hence, EFA rather than CFA was used as an essential part of scale validation.

First, the sample size was examined for suitability for factor analysis. Although the number of cases required for factor analysis varies according to sources, Worthington and Whittaker, (2006) suggest that around 300 is a generally acceptable number. The number of cases-per-item is another commonly used criteria; Gorsuch (1997) states that just under ten should be sufficient. For the current study, the number of cases was 353 with 39 items which equate to just over 9 cases per item. According to these two criteria, the number of cases was considered adequate. Next, the suitability of the data set for factor analysis was considered.

Inspection of the correlation matrix, which can be viewed in Appendix J, showed many coefficients of .3 and above, which is typically considered a sign of data suitability for factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The communalities also showed many items with scores of over .50 (Table J.1). Suitability was further confirmed by examination of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy, which was found to be excellent at .919, and of Bartlett's test of sphericity which reached statistical significance $p<.001$.

Principal axis factoring with an oblique Promax rotation was used for the initial extraction. Principal axis factoring is an exploratory approach to factor extraction and is preferred over principal components analysis for scale development (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006), it is also suitable for data that is not normally distributed (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Fabrigar et al.,1999). Oblique rotations were chosen because inspection of the correlation matrix revealed correlations over .32 which indicate the appropriateness of an oblique rotation (Tabachinick & Fidell 2013, p.651). Promax oblique rotations were used because they are better at revealing narrow or general factors in a scale (Gorsuch, 1997), and when, as in this study, the items are assumed to be correlated (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

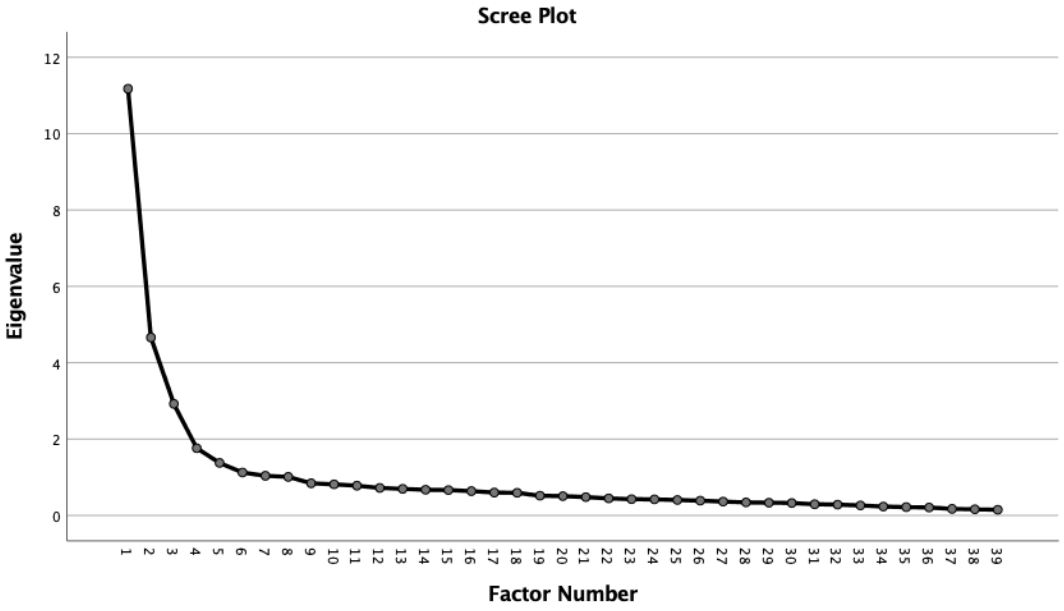


Figure 5-1 Scree Plot of Eigenvalues

The number of factors to extract was determined by examining the number of eigen values over 1 and observation of the scree test. The initial factor analysis revealed the presences of 8 factors with eigenvalues over 1.0, explaining a combined 61.87% of the variance. Inspection of the scree plot did not reveal a clear elbow to indicate the number of factors. Instead, it showed a gentle curve with possible breaks between points 5 and 8 indicating 5, 6, or 7 factors. Because the qualitative data contained seven themes there was strong theoretical evidence for more than four factors for students' sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy. Consequently, seven-factor, six-factor, and five-factor solutions were run.

First the communalities for each item were examined, items with low communalities have little connection to the other items and should be considered for later deletion (Carpenter, 2018, Costello & Osbourne, 2005). The cut off for communalities has suggested at ranging from <.2 (Child, 2006) and <.4 (Costello & Osbourne, 2005) for this study the cut off was set at <.3. There were three items (M6 .224, RSP4 .186, G1 .246).

The criterion for factor extraction was to produce the cleanest structure with each factor having at least 3 items with loadings over .32 and few cross loadings over .32 (Costello & Osbourne, 2005, p.3). The seven-factor and six-factor structure produced factors with 2 or less items and had 4 items that failed to load at over .32 (10% variance) on any factor (M5, SP2, RSP4, G1). The five-factor structure yielded five factors with at least three items that loaded over .32. Two items failed to load at over .32 (M5, G1) and 4 items crossloaded at .32

or higher on 2 factors. The crossloading items loaded strongest on a factor that already had over five items loading strongly over .5, therefore deletion was deemed appropriate. The limitations and implications of the low loadings of some of the items are discussed later in the thesis. The five-factor solution was considered the cleanest and adopted. In total, eight items were removed from the data set, the reasons are presented in Table 5.4. The pattern matrix and structure matrix for the initial 5-factor solution are shown in Appendix J, Table J.2 and J.3.

Table 5.4
Deletion of Items

Item	Reason for deletion
M5	Failed to load over .32
M6	Communality <.3
SP4	Communality <.3
G1	Failed to load over .32/ Communality <.3
G3	Crossloading over .32
G4	Crossloading over .32
G5	Crossloading over .32
A2	Crossloading over .32

A final principal axis factoring analysis with Promax rotations was then run on the remaining 31 items. The final five-factor model explained 61.41% of variance with factor 1 contributing to 30.37%, factor 2 to 13.83%, factor 3 to 8.7%, factor 4 to 4.69% and factor five to 3.85%. The loading pattern matrix for the final five-factor solution is presented in Table 5.5 and the structure matrix is included in Appendix J, Table J.4.

Table 5.5 Final 5-factor Pattern Matrix Principal Axis Factoring with Promax Rotations 31 items

	Factor					Commun	
	1	2	3	4	5	Init.	Extr.
D3 I want to be able to speak English spontaneously.	**.833**	-.043	-.056	-.022	.125	.563	.594
D1 I want to be skilled at everyday conversation.	**.827**	-.070	-.059	-.028	.169	.493	.456
A5 I want to practice English speaking by talking to my friends about everyday things.	**.785**	.040	-.048	.067	.006	.361	.325
A4 I want to practice more actual speaking, not reading scripted dialogues.	**.770**	.078	.019	.136	-.183	.401	.441
D2 I want to be able to convey meaning even when the grammar and vocabulary are not correct.	**.768**	-.120	.148	.061	-.057	.322	.263
D6 I want to be able to easily understand what native speakers are saying.	**.755**	.102	-.016	-.120	.022	.468	.454
G6 When someone speaks to me in English, I want to be able to reply smoothly.	**.716**	-.050	-.008	-.077	.167	.471	.493
A6 I think conveying meaning is the most important thing for speaking English.	**.693**	-.101	.106	-.036	-.165	.489	.499
D4 I want to have a wide vocabulary so I can express things in a variety of ways.	**.657**	.062	-.153	-.010	.341	.425	.380
D5 I want to be able to speak English without a Japanese accent.	**.617**	.032	-.061	-.036	.160	.671	.699
SP3 At school, I was often told by my classmates that my speaking ability was good.	.056	**.977**	-.148	-.024	-.144	.668	.727
SP2 At school, my teachers praised my English speaking ability.	.034	**.850**	.099	-.026	-.155	.469	.453
PS3 When I was at school, I was happy when I was chosen to do English speaking tasks in class.	-.105	**.829**	-.048	-.011	.010	.674	.626
SP5 My family members praised my English speaking ability	-.050	**.660**	-.028	-.077	.116	.560	.484
A3 I think that I am good at English	-.047	**.555**	-.130	.165	.192	.599	.612
PS2 When I was at school, I was happy when I finished an English speaking task.	-.015	**.526**	.193	-.038	.116	.449	.482
PS1 When I was at school, I enjoyed speaking English in class.	.112	**.416**	.269	.115	.184	.533	.670
M1 I often did English speaking activities in class at school.	-.023	.000	**.801**	.096	-.104	.483	.579
M4 At school I had chances to have conversations in English with my classmates	.014	-.126	**.723**	.042	-.029	.487	.470
SM3 At school, my Japanese English teacher spoke English as much as possible in the lesson.	-.056	-.132	**.697**	-.096	.196	.631	.636
M2 When I did speaking activities at school, I often read aloud from the textbook.	.317	.083	**.530**	-.023	-.276	.465	.431
SM1 At school, I had friends who were really good at English speaking.	-.115	-.011	**.515**	-.057	.094	.472	.469
SP1 When I did English speaking tasks at school, my teachers often gave me useful feedback.	-.012	.135	**.499**	-.078	.096	.681	.535
M3 When I did speaking activities at school, I often made speeches in front of the whole class.	-.087	.211	**.428**	.055	.059	.718	.612
RPS5 REVERSE When I was at school, I didn't want other people to hear me speaking English.	.113	-.020	.037	**.825**	.026	.458	.440
RPS6 REVERSE When I spoke English at school, I worried so much about whether I was making mistakes.	-.155	-.106	.012	**.756**	.076	.757	.772
RPS4 REVERSE When I was at school, speaking English made me so nervous.	-.005	.158	-.085	**.616**	.035	.577	.584
G2 In the future, I think I will use English a lot at work.	.155	.070	-.063	.061	**.572**	.752	.752
A1 I think I will use English for my daily life.	.249	-.063	.004	.063	**.530**	.731	.718
SM4 At school when I saw my Japanese teacher speaking English, it made me feel motivated to study more.	.044	.139	.248	-.031	**.469**	.549	.488
SM2 When I see my classmates speak English well, it gives me hope that I will be able to speak English well, too.	-.020	.196	.275	.004	**.394**	.677	.657

*Note 1: **Bold** = strong loadings >.32*

Finally each of the factors were named. The naming of factors is often described as a subjective art (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Yong & Pearce, 2013). Rummel (1967) stated that researchers can name factors "symbolically (A, B, C), descriptively (size, agreement) or causally (modernization, isolation) and that which is used is a matter of personal taste and conventions" (p.471). For this study, factors were named descriptively because there is strong research support for labelling factors using terms that best describe a concept under which items group together (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Yong & Pearce, 2013). Additionally, following Henson and Roberts (2006), because factors refer to latent variables, factors were not named after observed variables. Consequently, the factor names are a mixture of subjective descriptions of how the items group together and conventions of Bandura's four sources.

The first factor comprised six desired L2 skills, three attitude items, and one goal item. Because all items referred to the skills students desired, it was named desired skills. The second factor had three social persuasion items, three physiological states items and one attitude item. All of these items referred to positive feelings and feeling positive because of the support of others; therefore, this factor was renamed affirming support. The third factor contained four mastery items, two social modelling and one social persuasion item. The social modelling and social persuasion items referred to listening to another person in conversation and reflect the two-way nature of conversation. They were interpreted as the receptive element of speaking EFL mastery, and the factor was named mastery. The fourth factor contained the three negative physiological states items and was renamed negative reactions. The final, fifth factor comprised two social modelling items, one goal item and one attitude item. Because the items reflect a future usage aim and also refer to how models stimulate that aim, this factor was renamed modelling outcomes. All five factors had three or my items loading at .32 or higher, communalities over .3, and no crossloadings.

Table 5.6 Final Five Factors

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Desired Skills					
D3 I want to be able to speak English spontaneously.	**.833**				
D1 I want to be skilled at everyday conversation.	**.827**				
A5 I want to practice English speaking by talking to my friends about everyday things.	**.785**				
A4 I want to practice more actual speaking, not reading scripted dialogues.	**.770**				
D2 I want to be able to convey meaning even when the grammar and vocabulary are not correct.	**.768**				
D6 I want to be able to easily understand what native speakers are saying.	**.755**				
G6 When someone speaks to me in English, I want to be able to reply smoothly.	**.716**				
A6 I think conveying meaning is the most important thing for speaking English.	**.693**				
D4 I want to have a wide vocabulary so I can express things in a variety of ways.	**.657**				
D5 I want to be able to speak English without a Japanese accent.	**.617**				
Affirming Support					
SP3 At school, I was often told by my classmates that my speaking ability was good.		**.977**			
SP2 At school, my teachers praised my English speaking ability.		**.850**			
PS3 When I was at school, I was happy when I was chosen to do English speaking tasks in class.		**.829**			
SP5 My family members praised my English speaking ability		**.660**			
A3 I think that I am good at English		**.555**			
PS2 When I was at school, I was happy when I finished an English speaking task.		**.526**			
PS1 When I was at school, I enjoyed speaking English in class.		**.416**			
Mastery					
M1 I often did English speaking activities in class at school.			**.801**		
M4 At school I had chances to have conversations in English with my classmates			**.723**		
SM3 At school, my Japanese English teacher spoke English as much as possible in the lesson.			**.697**		
M2 When I did speaking activities at school, I often read aloud from the textbook.			**.530**		
SM1 At school, I had friends who were really good at English speaking.			**.515**		
SP1 When I did English speaking tasks at school, my teachers often gave me useful feedback.			**.499**		
M3 When I did speaking activities at school, I often made speeches in front of the whole class.			**.428**		
Negative Reactions					
RPS5 REVERSE When I was at school, I didn't want other people to hear me speaking English.				**.825**	
RPS6 REVERSE When I spoke English at school, I worried so much about whether I was making mistakes.				**.756**	
RPS4 REVERSE When I was at school, speaking English made me so nervous.				**.616**	
Modelling Outcomes					
G2 In the future, I think I will use English a lot at work.					**.572**
A1 I think I will use English for my daily life.					**.530**
SM4 At school when I saw my Japanese teacher speaking English, it made me feel motivated to study more.					**.469**
SM2 When I see my classmates speak English well, it gives me hope that I will be able to speak English well, too.					**.394**

Twelve items from Zheng et al.'s EFLL-SES that referred to the speaking skill were included in the SEFLS-SEI as validation items. If respondents' answers on both scales positively correlated, then the SEFLS-SEI could, with a reasonable degree of confidence, also be considered valid. Zheng et al. reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient for the whole 18 item EFLL-SES scale of .75. In this study, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .826 for 12 items was attained. The result suggests that SEFLS-SEI has comparable validity. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed for responses to self-efficacy items on SEFLS-SEI and EFLL-SES items. Preliminary analysis with scatterplots was conducted to assess whether violations of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity had been violated. The scatterplot distribution was a compact, oval shape rising upwards from left to right through which a straight line could be drawn, this suggested a positive linear relationship between the two variables and indicated that correlation analysis was appropriate. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between the two scales (Table 5.7) was, $r = .750$, $n = 353$, $p < .01$, According to Cohen (1988), correlation over .5 is large, so this result shows that there was a strong, positive correlation between how respondents answered the two scales. The amount of variance shared by the variables was calculated with the coefficient of determination (the square of the *r*-value multiplied by 100), this indicated that the two variables shared 56.25% of variance. The strong positive correlation between respondents' answers on both scales strengthens the findings from the exploratory factor analysis and indicates that the SEFLS-SEI can be considered to have reasonable validity.

Table 5.7
Pearson Product Correlations EFLL-SES & SEFLS-SEI (N=353)

		Total EFLL-SES	Total SEFLS-SEI
Total EFLL-SES	Pearson Correlation	1	.750**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
Total SEFLS-SEI	Pearson Correlation	.750**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	

** $p < .001$ (2-tailed).

After the exploratory factor analysis was conducted, the new subscale totals were calculated, and reliability analyses were run. The reliability of the final SEFLS-SEI was tested with Cronbach alpha coefficient and inter-item correlations. The Cronbach alpha coefficients and inter-item correlations for each subscale and the total SEFLS-SEI inventory are reported in Table 5.6. Test-retest correlations could not be conducted because SEFLS-SEI was entirely

anonymous to heighten the ethical validity of the study, future research might consider their use by employing a coding identification system.

Internal Consistency

Cronbach alpha coefficient is the most frequently reported reliability coefficient (Price et al., 2015). Although Devellis, (2017) advises that .70 is the lowest acceptable score, much lower alphas are common on scales of personality traits (Pallant, 2016) and alphas of just over .6 have been claimed as internally consistent in published psychology scales such as the EduFLOW (Mawas & Heutte, 2019). According to Hinton et al. (2014), for a new scale, coefficient alphas of .50 to .70 show moderate reliability, .70 to .90 show high reliability, .90 and above show excellent reliability. On SEFLS-SEI, modelling outcomes, mastery, affirming support, and negative reactions had high reliability; and desired skills had excellent reliability. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the whole scale was excellent ($\alpha = .912$).

Inter-item Correlations

Inter-item correlations are also used to report internal consistency. Means of over .2 for each subscale are considered acceptable (Tay & Jebb, 2016). The inter-item correlations of all subscales were over .2 and were therefore deemed acceptable. The histograms for the final subscales were also examined for normality. The four sources of self-efficacy subscales showed normal distributions and the desired skills scale showed a positive skew as is expected in measurements of positive affect. The results show that the revised scales have moderate to high reliability.

Table 5.8
Final Cronbach Alphas of SEFLS-SEI and Subscales

Subscales	Cronbach Alphas	inter-item correlation
Final Total Desired Skills (D1+ D2+ D3+D4+D5+D6+ A4+A5+A6+G6)	.918	.654
Final Total Affirming support (SP2+ SP3+SP5+ PS1+ PS2+ PS3+A3)	.888	.530
Final Total Mastery (M1+ M2+ M3+M4+SM1+SM3+SP1)	.801	.372
Final Negative reactions (RPS4+RPS5+RPS6)	.786	.550
Final Total Modelling Outcomes (SM2+SM4+A1+G2)	.746	.424
Final Total SEFLS-SEI (FTM+FTMO+FTAS+FTNR + FTD)	.912	.254
EFLL-SES	.826	.291

Data Analysis

After the validity and reliability of SEFLS-SEI had been established, statistical tests were conducted with SPSS statistics 25 to answer research questions. First the composite and item means of the inventory data were compared with the interview findings to answer *RQ_5 To what extent do the inventory results generalize the interview findings?* Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used to answer *RQ_6 What is the relationship between the factors on the SEFLS-SEI?*

Ethical Concerns and Limitations

In the first qualitative stage, it was possible for me to discuss with participants about their rights to withdraw, the research purposes, and intended data usage. However, the second stage was anonymous which meant it was not possible to have a similar discussion with inventory participants. I, therefore, tried to enhance the ethical integrity according to Salkind's (2010) recommendations to attend to ethical guidelines, informed consent, ethical standards, conflicts of interest, and my ethical judgement. This meant ensuring that informed consent, rights to not participate, research purposes, and intended data usage were adequately communicated to the participants. In the first section of the online SEFLS-SEI, participants were asked to read the participant information sheet and agree to the informed consent form (Appendix H). The inventory was completely anonymous with no names or contact details asked of respondents and only basic demographic data collected. This meant there was no way for either myself or gatekeeper teachers to know which students had responded. Therefore, students were able to exercise their right to not participate without worrying about negative consequences. However, it was also essential to explain to students that because there would be no way to isolate their response from the others, they would not be able to withdraw after submitting their response. Accordingly, students were given one week to reflect on whether they wanted to participate.

The limitations of the quantitative phase are that because the respondents were self-selecting, they were likely to be students who were either interested in English or had a cooperative disposition. Similar to the qualitative phase, there was a power imbalance of teachers using students as participants, the limitation was reduced by keeping responses as anonymous as possible and also by not offering incentives to participate. Specific issues of bias are inherent when using questionnaires in that participants can be unreliable in self reporting by either trying to appear in a favourable light or being unable to remember past events accurately (Cohen et al., 2011; Muijs, 2011). Additionally, quantitative research

generally generates data of limited depth from a broad section of the population (Muijs, 2011). Therefore, the inventory results should be interpreted with the knowledge that they may neither represent the experiences of all students at the research site universities, nor provide nuanced information about participants' experiences of learning EFL speaking. This limitation is difficult to remedy other than persuading reluctant students to participate, which would potentially invalidate the study on ethical grounds. The issue illustrates how researchers need to create a balance between validity and ethical reliability. Drawing from Cohen et al.'s, (2011) recommendation that such dilemmas must be solved by the researcher's "own situated ethics" (p. 83), I decided that ethical integrity should outweigh all other decisions.

Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the steps taken to develop the inventory and outlined the methodology for the quantitative data collection and analysis. In the next chapter, I present the findings of the quantitative analysis of the inventory data and discuss the extent they generalise the qualitative findings.

Chapter 6 Quantitative Findings

In this chapter, the findings of the quantitative analysis of the inventory data are presented. The overarching research aim of the thesis is to better understand the sources of self-efficacy experiences students have had at JSHS concerning EFL speaking. Other aims were to see whether findings from the qualitative analysis could be generalised to a larger population, and if the inventory data could provide further information about the relationship of goals, attitude, and desired skills on EFL speaking self-efficacy. The results of the analyses conducted to answer RQ_5 and RQ_6 are presented in the following sections.

RQ_5 To What Extent Do the Inventory Results Generalize the Interview Findings?

The exploratory factor analysis showed the presence of four factors similar to the four sources of self-efficacy and provided strong evidence for the presence of a fifth factor desired skills (Chapter 5, Table 5.6). This meant that the inventory data could be compared with the interview findings. Composite mean scores of each factor were calculated to understand the extent of participants' experiences. A score between 1 to 6 was generated for each factor with scores being interpreted as: 1 - 1.9 = very low, 2 - 2.9 = low, 3 - 3.9 = moderate, 4 - 4.9 = high, 5 - 6 = very high. The results are presented below in Table 6.1. The respondents scored high on desired skills; moderately on mastery, modelling outcomes, and negative reactions; and low on affirming support experiences. These scores, along with a description of each factor's loadings and individual items means and standard deviations (Chapter 5, Table 5.2) are used below to show how the inventory data relates to the interview findings.

Table 6.1
Composite Means of Factors (N=353)

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Desired Skills	1	6	4.54	.96	-1.12	2.10
Affirming Support	1	6	2.58	1.01	.532	.070
Mastery	1	6	3.82	.91	-.505	.632
Negative Reactions	1	6	3.08	1.16	.452	.009
Modelling Outcomes	1	6	3.48	1.06	-.118	.381

Desired Skills

The six desired skills items loaded on one factor together with three attitude items (A4 "I want to practice more actual speaking, not reading scripted dialogues", A5 "I want to practice English speaking by talking to my friends about everyday things", A6 "I think conveying meaning is the most important thing for speaking English") and one goal item (G6

"When someone speaks to me in English, I want to be able to reply smoothly"). The literature review and the interview findings show that goals, attitudes and desired skills are important for language learning; however the inventory findings presents strong evidence for a more general factor of future L2 self.

The ten desired skills items loaded strongly in a simple structure with primary loadings of over .6. The desired skills items were considered conceptually strong and to have sufficiently strong loadings to be considered a latent variable and a potential additional source of EFL speaking self-efficacy. The composite mean score for the factor was high (*M=4.54)* and the highest scoring item was D6: "I want to be able to easily understand what native speakers are saying." *(M= 4.81, SD =1.15)* which echoes the interviewees' comments that understanding is foundational for communication. The overall high means for desired skills mirror the interviewees' strong desires to become proficient English speakers.

Affirming Support

Three social persuasion items loaded on this factor with the three positive physiological states items and one attitude item, A1: "I think I am good at English" in a mixed factor. This was renamed affirming support. One item, SP1: "When I did speaking tasks at school, my teachers often gave me useful feedback" loaded stronger on the mastery factor. The composite mean for affirming support was low *(M=2.58, SD=1.01)* and the lowest scoring item was A1 "I think I am good at English" *(M=2.09)* which again reflects the interview findings that students were lacking in support and associated positive feelings. Students in the interviews reported that they did not feel that they were good at English and many reported that they had not been praised for their speaking ability.

Mastery

All four mastery items loaded on one factor. Two of the original items M5 and M6 were removed. M5 "I have had chances to use English in my daily life" had low loading < .32, and M6 "I had chances to use English outside of school by attending an English conversation school or English class." had low communality < .3. This could be due to these items referring to out-of-school experiences of speaking English. The factor also contained two social modelling items, SM1: "At school, I had friends who were really good at English speaking" and SM3: "At school, my Japanese English teacher, spoke English as much as possible in the lesson". Both of these items captured having a person to communicate with. The factor also contained one social persuasion item, SP1: "When I did English speaking

tasks at school, my teachers often gave me useful feedback". This item also captures interaction with others as a mastery experience. These three items reflect how speaking is an interactional process between two or more people and that communication is as dependant on listening as it is speaking. This was evident in the interview findings where several students commented that first they wanted to get better at listening.

The mastery factor's mean scores *M=3.82* supported the interview findings that students had moderate levels of mastery experiences. Reading aloud from the textbook was the highest scoring item (*M=4.43, SD=1.19*) which also reflected the interview participants' memories of language-based speaking activities.

Negative Reactions

The three negative physiological states items loaded separately onto a unique factor which was renamed negative reactions, this is the minimum needed for a factor (Carpenter, 2016; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). All three items loaded significantly with no cross-loadings. The composite mean was moderate, and the highest scoring item was "When I spoke English at school, I worried so much about whether I was making mistakes." *(M= 4.23, SD = 1.33).* Again the result reflects the interview findings where all students recounted strong negative reactions to speaking English in class.

Modelling Outcomes

Two social modelling items loaded on this factor, SM2: "When I see my classmates speak English well, it gives me hope that I will be able to speak English well, too", and SM4: "At school, when I saw my Japanese teacher speaking English, it made me feel motivated to study English speaking more" both of these factors captured having access to a modeller and being motivated by that. The other two social modelling items loaded higher on mastery factor and weaker on modelling outcomes *(SM2=.275, SM4=.248.)* One goals item, G1: "In the future, I think I will use English a lot at work" and one attitude item, A1: "I think I will use English for my daily life" loaded together with the social modelling items. They both reflect imagining using English in the future akin to the self modelling element of social modelling. The factor had a moderate mean of 3.48 and the highest scoring item was A1: "I think I will use English for my daily life".

That social modelling items split between mastery and modelling outcomes factors reflects the interview data where participants reported a lack of meaningful social modelling experiences and that despite having skilled friends they felt that it was not something they

could emulate. This is visible in the inventory item SM1 about having friends that were good at English scoring higher than SM2 about being motivated by skilled friends (M= 3.26 vs. M= 4.22).

In summary, despite the presence of merged factors, the inventory results generalise the findings from the interviews that Japanese students' EFL speaking mastery experiences are generally language-based, social modelling experiences are weak, students have insufficient affirming support, and have negative reactions to speaking English in class, but students also maintain a strong desire to become fluent speakers of English.

RQ$_6$ What Is the Relationship Between the Factors on the SEFLS-SEI?

Pearson product-moment coefficient correlations were run to try and understand the relationships between the five sources of EFL speaking. A preliminary analysis was conducted to check whether assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity had been violated. Normality was assumed by the normal distributions of the data for the five subscales, linearity and homoscedasticity were assumed from observation of the scatterplots which showed reasonably linear and even distributions for several items in the correlation matrix. The correlation coefficients can be seen in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2
Pearson Product Correlation Coefficients for the Five Subscales (N=353)

		1	2	3	4	5
1.Total Desired Skills	Pearson Correlation	--				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
2. Total Affirming Support	Pearson Correlation	.259**	--			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
3. Total Mastery	Pearson Correlation	.307**	.431**	--		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000			
4. Total Negative Reactions	Pearson Correlation	-.066	.319**	-.039	--	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.219	.000	.463		
5. Total Modelling Outcomes	Pearson Correlation	**.540****	**.539****	.429**	.130*	--
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.014	

Note 1 ** $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed). * $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed).

Note 2 bold figures show large correlation

All subscales were positively correlated apart from negative reactions which failed to correlate with desired skills or mastery but had medium correlation with affirming support and small correlation with modelling outcomes. There were large correlations between modelling outcomes, desired skills and affirming support; and medium correlation between

desired skills, mastery, social modelling, and affirming support. "Large correlations are over .5, medium correlations are over .3, and low correlations are over .1" (Cohen, 1988, p.83). The results suggest that positive sources of self-efficacy experiences are strongly associated with each other and with desired skills. Ueki and Takeuchi (2013) state sources of self-efficacy and L2 self are strong drivers of motivated learning, and this study's finding expands this to suggest desired skills may be an additional source. Negative reactions appear to be associated with affirming support and to not be strongly associated with the other sources of self-efficacy. It is important to remember that Pearson correlations do not show causality only correlation, so although the results indicate that variables are connected, they can neither tell us why nor whether another factor is influencing the correlations. Caution is therefore needed in interpreting results, and further statistical testing such as regression analysis is necessary to ascertain causation.

Summary

The quantitative analyses showed that the SEFLS-SEI results generalise the interview findings to a larger sample of Japanese university students. The analysis also showed how all sources correlated with each other apart from negative reactions which correlated mediumly with affirming support and only slightly with modelling outcomes. The implications of these findings for theory, practice and further research are discussed in detail in the following final chapter.

Chapter 7 Discussion and Conclusions

In this final chapter, I first combine the findings from the qualitative and quantitative phases to discuss the key findings. I then state the unique contribution that this study brings to self-efficacy research. Next, I offer avenues for future research directions and acknowledge the study's limitations. Following this, I expand the study's applications to practice with pedagogical advice to university teachers for enhancing the speaking self-efficacy of university students. Finally, I lay out my intentions for disseminating the research through both presentations and research article publications.

Sources of EFL Speaking Self-Efficacy

The inventory of sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy was administered to a sample of 353 university students in Japan. The aims were to see whether the interview findings could be generalised to a larger population, whether evidence for additional sources could be supported, and to investigate the relationship between the factors on the scale. The qualitative data revealed a tendency for language-based speaking exercises, lack of social modelling and social persuasion experiences and negative reactions to speaking in class which were also evident in the inventory data. The quantitative data analysis yielded five factors: mastery experiences, modelling outcomes, affirming support, negative reactions, and desired skills. Of these, the first four factors are sources of self-efficacy items which generally reflect Bandura's four sources; the final factor, desired skills, resulted from the inductive thematic analysis of the interview data and loaded strongly in EFA as a unique factor. The presence of merged factors suggests that sources are not experienced in isolation and that overlapping occurs in this study's context. This was seen in the mastery, social modelling and affirming support factors. Additionally, some of the factors had conceptual crossover to other motivational constructs, desired skills appeared to represent a facet of ideal L2 self and negative reactions bears similarities to anxiety. These are presented visually in Figure 7.1. I discuss each source below in connection to the interview findings and existing research.

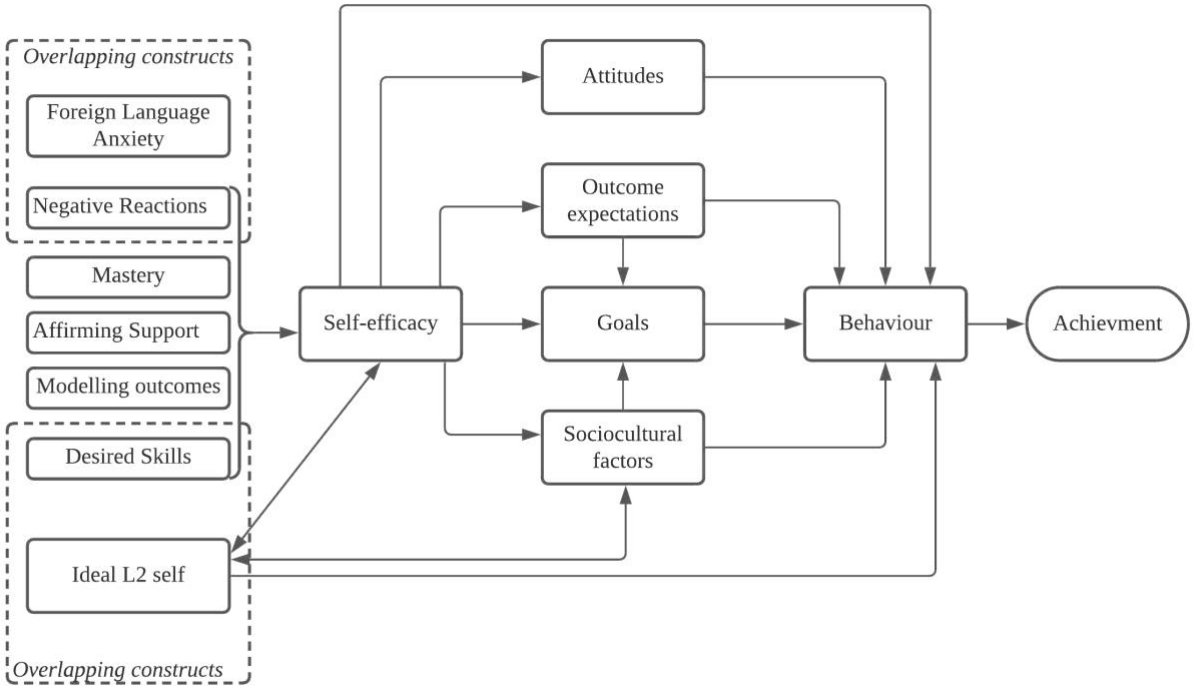


Figure 7.1 Revised Relationship of Self-Efficacy, Motivational Factors, Behaviour and Achievement (based on Bandura, 2012)

Language-Based Mastery Experiences

In the interviews, students said that they had not done much speaking practice at JSHS, and what they had done was either reading aloud from the textbook or making speeches and this was mirrored in the inventory findings. My result upholds the findings of research into English learning experiences at JSHS that English lessons do not provide enough communicative practice for students (Kikuchi, 2009; Osterman, 2014; Sakamoto, 2012). I suggest that this finding should be tempered with an understanding of the immense pressures JSHS teachers are under to prepare students for the *senta- shiken* examinations which focus on grammar-translation and contain no speaking component (Y. Watanabe, 2013). Although there are plans to outsource the English part of the *senta- shiken* to third party test administrators (Ministry of Education Culture Sports Science and Technology-Japan (MEXT), n.d.), the plans have stalled due to criticisms. Subsequently, it is unclear when this can be implemented and what the washback effect will be on JSHS English lessons (Mochizuki, 2019).

The inventory data also showed that out-of-school experiences were few. It appears that the interview participants' experiences of speaking English with foreigners whilst in town were not representative of the wider population. It is not clear why this result was found but it

could be that although City University draws students from throughout Japan, many students come from the surrounding areas which are popular with foreign tourists. This may not have been the case at the inventory site universities. More research is needed to establish whether students from tourist areas have better opportunities for out-of-school speaking experiences. The fact that social modelling and social persuasion items loaded on the mastery factor reflects how communication in L2 requires both speaking output from the student and listening input from another person as there is "always at least two people involved in fluent interaction" (Murphey, 2014).

Lack of Social Modelling

On the inventory, students reported weak experiences of social modelling which paralleled the interview results. In the interview, students said that social modelling experiences were mainly from their Japanese teacher and the quality of the modelling varied from minimal to extensive. This was also reflected in the moderate scores on the inventory. Although students reported having a friend whom they believed was good at English, it did not follow that this increased their confidence. This finding shows that the social modelling factor can be hard to operationalise since having access to good models is one thing; feeling motivated by them is another (Usher & Pajares, 2008).

In the inventory, social modelling items about access (having a skilled friend) loaded with mastery items, but those about interpretation (feeling motivated by a skilled friend) became the modelling outcomes factor. The split illustrates how sources need to be both available to students and to be interpreted favourably (Klassen & Usher 2010; Pajares, 1997). The modelling outcomes factor has many similarities to Zheng et al's (2017) self-modelling factor which included items about imaging the self using English in the future.

From the interview data, it seemed that Japanese people who could speak English well were considered anomalies whether they were friends or teachers. Interview participants often highlighted what was different about the modeller, for example, that they had studied abroad, or they had attended English conversation school. I argue that being able to speak English "others" them and they are then no longer regarded as a "similar other". Therefore, the benefit to self-efficacy that should result from watching friends speak English is diminished. As a result, the idea of Japanese people speaking English has to become normalised in Japanese society so that people's first reaction to seeing someone speak English is not surprise, but inspiration. This is reinforced by the positive reactions of students who had Japanese teachers who spoke as much English as possible in the lessons. My findings add weight to the

argument for the unique perspective non-native English speaker teachers (NNESTs) bring to the classroom as "successful learner models" (Murahata, 2001). They also strengthen Goto Butler's (2007), argument for the need to reject the assumption that native speakers are preferable to non-native speaker teachers.

Affirming Support

One of the key findings of this research was that social persuasion and positive physiological states items loaded on the same factor in the exploratory factor analysis forming the merged factor affirming support. The interview data also provided evidence that supported how closely Japanese students interpret positive feedback with positive feelings. The inventory data strengthened this to suggest that for students studying EFL speaking in Japan being praised and having positive feelings are elements of the same concept. Although the results indicate the synergy of praise and positive feelings, the mean scores were not high. Ergo, the inventory data confirmed the interview data findings that students had not received enough positive feedback and the associated positive feelings towards speaking English. It is reasonable that a lack of positive comments about ability would prevent students from having positive feelings about EFL speaking as Bandura's conception of the sources outlines how they interact with each other. This finding does not appear in other studies since physiological states are usually operationalised with negative aspects such as anxiety (Usher & Pajares, 2009) despite Bandura's (1997) conception of physiological state as a combination of mood, arousal, and anxiety.

Burrows' (2016) study of Japanese students' sources of reading self-efficacy also had merging of the sources with physiological states loading on one factor and all the other sources loading together. Although his study did not include positive physiological states, it strengthens this study's finding that sources merge in the Japanese context. The finding becomes more significant when we remember that a growing body of evidence indicates that social persuasion is the most potent source in East Asian societies. Lack of social persuasion is of great concern as research shows it raises Japanese students' positive attitude towards English (Murakami et al., 2012; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010). This research suggests that the connection between positive reactions and social persuasion is much more fundamental, that they are aspects of the same factor affirming support.

The unique result can be interpreted by considering how society and social identity are conceptualised in Japan. Watsuji Tetsuro was one of the most influential Japanese philosophers (Shields, 2009), understanding Watsuji's analysis of the Japanese word *ningen*

(humanity) through the Chinese characters 人間 (nin gen) is helpful to this discussion (Watsuji, 1996). The first character 人 means person and shows two people supporting each other, the second character 間 means "the space between", therefore society exists in the space between people supporting each other (Shields, 2009). In this ontology, people and society exist because of people's dependence on each other, if people are independent of others, then society cannot exist (Watsuji, 1996). Therefore, the support that students receive form others including teachers, classmates, and family creates a learning society and when students feel part of that society, they feel positive emotions of belonging and contentment. If support is lacking then the learning society cannot exist, students become unable to form a social identity as an EFL speaker and negative feelings result.

Negative Reactions

Another significant findings of the study was that negative physiological states loaded separately to positive ones, which instead merged with social modelling as described above. Additionally, negative items had higher means than positive ones indicating a higher occurrence. This result emerged due to the use of the second quantitative phase and would have been missed if the study had only drawn from qualitative data. This is a new discovery which could not be located in previous research in sources of self-efficacy in East Asia and has considerable implications for sources of self-efficacy research and EFL teaching in Japan as it presents strong evidence for physiological states functioning differently for EFL speaking in the Japanese context.

I conjecture that positive and negative items loading on different factors indicate that they are separate concepts rather than polarities. That is, if a student is happy, it does not mean that they are not also nervous and vice versa. Students may experience both reactions to a task. The interview findings support this conjecture; every student, even those students who also experienced positive feelings, expressed feeling nervous when doing speaking tasks. This insight can be understood through the perspective of dimensional theory of emotions in which emotions have both valence: ranging from very unpleasant to very pleasant; and arousal: ranging from very calm to very excited (Gilet & Jallais, 2011). The physiological states source has generally been measured through arousal, how excited (nervous) a student feels about a task with little concern for valence, how pleasant or enjoyable a student finds the task. Furthermore, recent research using neural imaging indicates that positive and negative valence is experienced in different parts of the brain and are distinct from each other

(Viinikainen, et al., 2010) this strengthens this study's findings that positive and negative reactions to speaking EFL in Japan are distinct sources. This finding needs to be researched further in different contexts and domains so that the contribution of positive and negative valence emotions in self-efficacy formation can be better understood. If they are distinct then positive valence reactions need to be actively stimulated and will not be generated by reducing negative arousal alone. Additionally, positive valence emotions would need to be measured as a separate source of self-efficacy.

Another reason for the split could be that the performative aspect of EFL speaking makes it markedly different from other educational domains. In EFL speaking, students are often the focus of others' attention, whether they are in two-person discussions or whole-class presentations, their performance will be instantly evaluated by the others. Thus, the performative, interactional element of EFL speaking increases anxiety as students are negotiating the pressure of performance whilst constructing linguistically correct speech (Effiong, 2016; Han & Keskin, 2016; Nagahashi, 2007). Compare this to mathematics, where students often solve math problems individually and are evaluated post task.

In this study, the only factor that negative reactions correlated with was affirming support. The result indicates that increases in other sources' experiences are unlikely to reduce students' negative reactions. This could be due to cultural difference in the causes of negative reactions in Japan. Japanese students' anxiety is high and predominately caused by negative appraisals (Best et al, 2015; Osboe et al, 2007; Kondo & Yang, 2003). This finding runs counter to other research where all sources correlate (Britner & Pajares, 2006; Chen & Usher, 2013; Usher & Pajares, 2009; Zheng et al, 2017), but mirror Zhang and Ardasheva's (2018) finding that physiological states (operationalised with feeling nervous, stressed and anxious) did not correlate with self-efficacy for public speaking. It appears that the speaking domain may be amplifying the effect of negative reactions. Additionally, the medium correlations with affirming support signify that it is not easy to ameliorate negative reactions with an increase in praise and that instead the focus should be on preventing negative reactions occurring. Finally, in comparison to other motivational constructs, the items on negative reactions share lexical similarity with foreign language anxiety construct for example, Ueki and Takeuchi (2012) include items such as "I worry about making mistakes". The similarity points to an overlapping of sources of self-efficacy and other motivational constructs.

Clear Image of Ideal L2 self

One of the main findings of the research was how students' strong sense of their desired skills relate to the other sources of self-efficacy. All items on the desired skills factor loaded significantly with factor scores over .7 and mean scores over 4. This indicates that students have a firm view of the kind of English speaker they want to become. Desired skills was also moderately associated with all the other sources except negative reactions. Thus, students who have a desire to develop speaking skills also have more positive sources of EFL speaking experiences. Desired skills had high Cronbach alpha scores, high means and good correlations with the other sources; these results provide strong evidence for desired skills to be an additional source of self-efficacy for speaking EFL in Japan.

The theme has similarities to ideal L2 self (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Desired skills is related to the language skills and communicative abilities that students want to attain. Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) conceptualised ideal L2 self as "liking the L2, getting to know L2 culture, and being similar to native speakers" and being formed of the instrumentality of the L2 (its perceived benefit to future pursuits) such as careers (Ryan,2009), and attitudes to L2 such as wanting to travel and meet L2 speakers (Yashima, 2009). It appears that the desired skills factor captures the desire to be like a native speaker element of the ideal L2 self. However, in the inventory data, items connected to work and travel did not load strongly with desired skills items, and crossloaded on the modelling outcomes factor (Appendix J, Table J.2).

The ideal L2 self is a powerful motivational tool because students try to close the gap between current low proficiency and desired communicative abilities (Kormos et al., 2011; Thompson et al., 2019; Ueki & Takeuchi, 2012). However, from the interview data, it seems that although students have a firm view of their ideal L2 self, they lack confidence in their ability to close the gap between their current and desired selves. In the interviews, students made comments such as "that's impossible for me" or "that's not for me". The inventory findings reinforced this conclusion. The mean score for the item "I think I am good at English" was 2.09, whereas the mean score for item "I want to be skilled at everyday conversation" was 4.69. The inference is that students' low self-efficacy is preventing them from accessing ideal L2 self as a motivational force. I also believe that because Japanese people speaking English is not normalised it creates a barrier to students viewing themselves as EFL speakers.

The findings suggest an overlapping of motivational constructs which influence behaviour and achievement as seen in figure

Implications

This research presents one of the first studies into the sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy in the Japanese context. The scale items were drawn from data of students' experiences of learning EFL speaking at JSHS. Although this approach has been used in other domains (Britner & Pajares, 2006; Poulou, 2007; Usher & Pajares, 2009), EFL research of sources of self-efficacy has mainly depended on the adaption of existing scales. This has at times, resulted in the use of items which do not align with the EFL domain. Zheng et al., (2017) included items about "watching a teacher solve an English problem" which was taken from a scale of sources of math self-efficacy. The vocabulary choices *solve,* and *problem* do not align with the domain of learning English. It is worth repeating that Bandura (2006) specifies that scales be tailored to the specific context in which they are intended to be used. From the key findings discussed above, I believe that I can make two claims for unique contributions to knowledge.

Firstly, although there has been an increase of sources of self-efficacy research in East Asian contexts, exploring the sources in a different domain (EFL speaking) and context (Japanese university) yielded new theoretical insights. The first of these was the merging of social persuasion and positive physiological states into the affirming support factor. This result is an important one for self-efficacy research, it is the first time for the sources of EFL speaking to be researched in the Japanese context and the strong evidence for the new factor of affirming support indicates that the sources may differ according to domain and context. Other studies have focused on negative physiological items in scales (Zhang & Ardasheva, 2019; Zheng et al., 2017) the identification of affirming support indicates the need to also include positive physiological states items. Bandura's description of the physiological states source included mode, arousal, and anxiety (1997), perhaps self-efficacy's foundation in phobic reactions has led to a focus on negative reactions, but in education a range of reactions can be expected. It is essential that educational researchers measure not only negative but also positive reactions.

The second claim to theoretical knowledge is the potential of desired skills as an additional source of EFL speaking self-efficacy. This study presented robust evidence through interview data, strong loadings on the factor analysis, high Cronbach alphas and high means. Bandura (2012) has stated that there are other issues that contribute to variance in task performance, considering the contextualised nature of self-efficacy, it could be that there are additional sources of self-efficacy specific to the target domain and context such as desired

skills. This an area that needs further investigation to make stronger claims and is explicated below in the suggestions for future research.

Suggestions for Future Research

As this research opens a new area of sources of self-efficacy research, there are numerous directions which future research might take. Here, I will present five avenues that should be pursued.

The first is the proposed conceptual model of sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy needs to be tested. Regression analysis and factor modelling should be conducted to test the proposed conceptual model of sources of self-efficacy, perceived self-efficacy, ideal L2 self, foreign language anxiety, and EFL speaking achievement. Analysis should also be done to see how predictive each of the sources are for English-speaking task proficiency and perceived self-efficacy levels through multiple regression analysis. This was beyond the scope of this study, but the potency of the sources for Japanese students in the EFL speaking domain needs to be investigated. If affirming support has more strength than mastery experiences, it would confirm existing findings of the strength of social persuasion in East Asian contexts (Phan & Locke, 2015; Zheng et al., 2017), and yield important implications for both practice and theory. It would also challenge the assumption that results from one cultural setting apply to others. Also, qualitative research such as focus groups and case study are needed to better define students' ambitions for EFL study and clarify the nature of the new factors proposed in this study.

The second avenue is exploration of why negative and positive physiological states items loaded on separate factors in this study. It is important to investigate whether this result can be replicated when SEFLS-SEI is administered to other samples both in Japan and other East Asian contexts. This study's finding suggests that negative reactions are not strongly influenced by the other sources. Therefore, more research is needed to determine if the results are particular to this study's context and to understand the relationship between negative reactions and foreign language anxiety.

Thirdly, the lack of students' social modelling experiences discovered in this study needs further investigation. A case study into students' social modelling experiences from teachers, peers, and family would yield useful insights. Usher and Pajares (2008) raised the interesting notion of the role of public figures such as famous sports stars and entertainers as social modellers. Investigating the influence of famous people speaking English on student's

self-efficacy has yet to be explored in the Japanese context and would present a unique perspective.

The next area that should be pursued is the wording of items and how they were conceived. For example, ideal L2 self items are usually written as "I can imagine myself…" (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2012) and the items on the SEFLS-SEI were written as "I want to be…" There may be some difference in how the items are conceptualised due to the different wording. Imagining something has different connotations than wanting to become something. Therefore, testing how the desired skills items load when also written as "I can imagine myself… "statements is needed to clarify the nature of the desired skills factor. The inventory results also highlighted how students need both access to and positive interpretation of sources experiences, some items did not capture both elements. For example, M1: "I often did English speaking activities in class at school" could be rewritten as "I found the English speaking activities at school useful to my speaking ability".

Finally, the items on SEFLS-SEI should be refined to attain better factor loading scores and increased validity. This could be done by conducting additional interviews from different sample sets. The refined scale also needs to be administered to a much larger sample to see if the factor loadings in this study can be replicated and also to use confirmatory factor analysis to verify the results.

Limitations

Every effort was made to ensure both the ethical and methodological integrity of the research study. However, all research has limitations through which the findings must be interpreted. The particular limitations of this study were as follows.

The first is the gender imbalance of the interview participants; the possible reasons were reported in Chapter 3 Qualitative Methodology. The result is an overrepresentation of the female perspective. The participants were also self-selecting, which means that they may have participated because they like English. Therefore, their opinions may not be representative of the entire student body. Future research might consider other sampling methods such as purposive sampling to reduce this limitation.

A second limitation of the interview stage is students' experiences of learning EFL speaking at JSHS were all self-reported. Consequently, the data is the students' subjective interpretations of their past experiences, and there are no methods to corroborate their descriptions. Future studies might adopt a longitudinal approach that included classroom observations and interviews with teachers and parents. This approach would generate data

from multiple sources to triangulate the results. There are procedural challenges in gaining access for classroom observations and the time demands for such an in-depth method made this approach impractical for this study.

The inventory data also had limitations of self-selection bias because students were free to decline participation. Therefore, the responses are from students who, for whatever reason, felt inclined to participate, and the experiences of some sections of the student body may have been missed. The second limitation of the inventory is the weak factor loadings of some items, and the presence of merged factors, which means the results should be treated with a degree of caution until replication studies can be conducted. The weak factor loadings may be a result of how the self-efficacy items were written and conceptualised. Items were created from the qualitative interview data which may have created a narrow view of speaking EFL experience. Expanding the item pool with items drawn from external criteria for speaking competence, such as CEFR can-do statements, may better reflect the field of speaking EFL and strengthen the factor loadings. Further, some of the items may not capture the frequency of experiences as adequately as others. For example, some items captured whether an experience was had or not e.g. *M4 At school I had chances to have conversations in English with my classmates*; whereas other items better captured the frequency of an experience e.g. *M1 I often did speaking activities in class at school.* Where possible, rewriting items to reflect the frequency of experience, as in M1, is recommended.

Another limitation is how the items do not capture interpretation of experience. Unsuccessful mastery experiences do not have a diminishing effect on people with robust self-efficacy levels and may serve as motivational experience (Bandura, 1994). This aspect was visible in the interview data, Minami viewed unsuccessful communication at the ferry port as a stimulus to study more (discussed on p.68). However, this element was not captured in the inventory data. Adding additional items to measure how students interpret positive and negative experiences, such as *When I cannot communicate successfully, it motivates me to study more,* would illuminate the relationship between sources, interpretation and perceived self-efficacy levels. More work on honing and perfecting items on the inventory is recommended. Further, analysis of the inventory data highlighted the difference in access and interpretation of experiences, this caused social modelling items to load on different factors. Rewriting social modelling items to capture both access and interpretation of experience would better capture the nature of the source.

Finally, both the interview and inventory data had a potential power imbalance limitation of teachers collecting data from students. However, efforts were taken to alleviate this through clear pathways to non-participation and withdrawal. Also, as other teachers did not have access to the data at any time the limitation was reduced. Future research might reduce the limitation further by using student volunteers as research assistants.

Recommendations for Practice

The research topic evolved from reflection on my teaching practice problem: how to help Japanese university students become more confident about speaking English. I have built my argument that university students in Japan do not have sufficient sources of self-efficacy experiences to develop their communicative skills. Previous research into EFL speaking confidence has done so from other perspectives such as willingness to communicate (Osterman, 2014; M. Watanabe, 2013), foreign language anxiety (Osboe et al., 2007; Williams & Andrade, 2008), and also perceived self-efficacy beliefs (Onoda, 2014; Thompson, 2018). The findings from such research tend to be limited to establishing how a construct such as anxiety impacts on or fosters attainment. By using sources of self-efficacy, I have been able to identify areas that teachers can focus on to improve speaking proficiency and make suggestions on how to enhance established sources, supplement deficient ones, and rectify unfavourable ones. These are presented below.

Focus on Communication

The research findings show that students entering university have generally had a lack of communicative speaking practice. This can be alleviated by giving students as many chances as possible to talk impromptu about various topics. Stress can be reduced by getting students to perform speaking tasks in pairs or groups rather than in front of the whole class. One way this might be achieved is by using enactive role play (or process drama). Donnery (2010) found that this approach resulted in Japanese students feeling comfortable to use English in class. If assessment of speaking tasks is switched to holistic rubrics then teachers can focus on how well students complete communicative tasks, rather than on grammar or pronunciation mistakes. Furthermore, if teachers use English in the classroom for procedural instructions, using English as a communicative tool can become normalised for the students.

Limit High Stress Situations

Performing speeches and scripted dialogues in front of the class was one of the leading causes of negative reactions. If the syllabus dictates the use of whole class

presentations, students' stress can be reduced by providing ample opportunity to practice beforehand. One way to do this is to gradually increase the audience size from presenting alone, then to a partner, to a small group and finally to the whole class. The classroom layout could also be changed from front-facing desks to an active learning layout so that students can quickly move between individual practice, pair work, and group work. A favourable education environment can enhance the positive impact of successful task performance on self-efficacy (Asakereh & Dehghannezhad, 2015; Chiu & Cheng, 2017).

Presentations in front of the whole class are often used because they are easy to assess. This can be remedied by the teacher circulating during group activities or by using support teachers to conduct one-to-one conversation practice. If support teachers are unavailable, teachers could run one-to-one conversation assessment while students are engaged in self-directed learning such as writing assignments or e-learning.

Observe Similar Others

Another finding of this study was that students need opportunities to see a variety of Japanese people using English confidently so that it can become normalised. Social modelling, through observing similar others, has a strong influence on self-efficacy in East Asian societies. It is, therefore, essential to get students talking to each other as much as possible. Because speaking English is enactive, it not only gives students mastery but also social modelling experiences. It is also recommended to increase the number of Japanese teachers who teach university English conversation classes. There is a tendency to rely on native speakers of English to guide conversation in the belief that it provides a better pronunciation model but there is growing support for the use of Japanese teachers (Uchida & Sugimoto, 2017). Native speaker teachers due to their inherent "otherness" cannot offer effective social modelling. If the teacher is a native speaker, Japanese speakers of English such as senior students, colleagues, and community members could be invited into the classroom to provide social modelling experiences. Alternatively, videos of famous Japanese sports stars and music artists can be used in listening activities. Students need to be given more chances to watch people like themselves using English skilfully.

Praise

This study found that affirming support was the only factor correlated to negative reactions. Therefore, students need to be given copious amounts of praise when they do speaking exercises. The interview participants consistently said that more praise was the best

way to improve the teaching of EFL speaking. However, one of the expert teacher reviewers in the study mentioned that praise might embarrass Japanese students. These are not opposing points, only praising a few students in class is likely to lead to embarrassment irrespective of the cultural context. Therefore praise of effort and learning processes (Lockley, 2013) should be given by the teacher and other students as much, as often, and to as many students as possible. In this way, it will become normalised behaviour. A lesson at the beginning of the course could be used to teach useful phrases for praising each other such as 'I like how you ...." and "Your use of …. was effective ". Students should be encouraged to use such phrases frequently so that praising becomes standard practice. Of course, praise needs to be supplemented with feedback so that students not only feel confident about their ability but also learn how to improve their speaking ability further.

Foster Ideal L2 self

Ideal L2 self was a strong concept in both the interview and inventory data. Students had a robust view of the kind of English speaker they wanted to become: a person who could convey meaning with proper pronunciation and listening ability. Prior to university students' purposes for learning English have been centred on the *senta- shiken* exam, after entering university, students can focus on intrinsic motivations such as aiming towards their ideal L2 self. Teachers could not only include this aim as course objectives in their EFL speaking courses but also help students locate resources for independent, self-regulated learning to builds motivation (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). The interview data suggested that the ideal L2 self may be viewed as unattainable by some students; this can be countered by focusing on the four previous recommendations. Doing so, should build students' sense of self-efficacy to become competent speakers of English. When students feel that they are nearing their ideal L2 self, it should further increase their self-efficacy to speak English.

Plans for Implementing Recommendations

I intend to use the research findings to implement change in my teaching practice. The university I teach at has a faculty-based approach to syllabus design and material development. Therefore, I can share the five recommendations with my colleagues and together form ideas on how we can implement them in our classes. For example, I have reassessed our use of role-playing in the classroom. In the past, I would have split a class of forty students into ten groups of four students and have one group at a time perform in front of the whole class. This is an activity that I now know makes students feel nervous. Now, I

will arrange the ten groups into five sets of two groups each and ask them to perform to each other. This way, five groups are performing, and five groups are watching at the same time. Students who are performing are not the sole focus of the class's attention. It also makes it easier for students to give feedback to each other. Students can rotate sets so that they get to see other groups and perform multiple times increasing both mastery and social modelling experiences. As a teacher, I can unobtrusively circulate, assess performance, and offer encouragement. This small change takes no extra time or preparation but greatly enhances the sources of self-efficacy experiences of the students.

Conclusion

The results of this research present valuable insights into the under-researched area of EFL speaking self-efficacy in Japan and highlight the necessity of support through praise and modelling behaviour. This study opens up avenues for researchers to pursue further investigation into sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy and for teachers to enhance the sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy of their students. SEFLS-SEI, in its present form, will benefit from enhancement and the quantitative research results should be treated with some caution. However, this is not surprising considering that this study is one of the first to explore sources of EFL speaking self-efficacy in Japan. Zhou (2019), says that scale creation is an ongoing process, this study represents the first stage of this process.

I began my thesis by claiming that the ability to communicate in English serves as a gateway for students' participation in global education and employment opportunities. Interaction with students in the interviews also taught me how important it is in pursuing the enjoyable parts of life, such as travel, hobbies, and communicating with foreign visitors. I also learned from both the interview and inventory data that students have a strong desire to become proficient speakers of English but need help from others to actualise this. It is, therefore, even more important that researchers and educators do all they can to build students' speaking competence by enhancing self-efficacy forming experiences. I hope that this research can contribute to that aim.

Closing Remarks

I hope to share the research findings and recommendations for practice with research and teaching communities through presentations and workshops in Japan, Korea, Philippines, and Thailand, all of which have large English language teaching communities. I also intend to present at regional practice-based workshops in Japan through the Japan Association of

Language Teaching (JALT) network. Due to the current COVID-19 situation, it appears that most conferences will be online for the foreseeable future. However, I have recently presented at JALT international online conference.

Presentations are one way to engage in discussion about the research findings and meet fellow researchers who share the same research interests. Publishing articles in journals offers the opportunity to disseminate results to a much wider audience and including in-depth details of the research process. Through discussion with my supervisor, I have identified two journals as potential avenues for publication*: JALT Journal* and *The Language Learning Journal.* I am currently writing articles for submission. I have also set up a research website through which I intend to engage with other researchers on EFL self-efficacy and EFL speaking research both in Japan and other contexts.

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Appendix A - VPREC Approval

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL | ONLINE PROGRAMMES

Dear Dawn Kobayashi	
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: (primary supervisor)	Dr. Maria Poulou
School:	Lifelong Learning
Title:	Sources of Japanese University Students' EFL Speaking Self-Efficacy
First Reviewer:	Dr. Kalman Winston
Second Reviewer:	Dr. Mariya Yukhymenko
Other members of the Committee	Dr. Josè Reis Jorge, Greg Hickman, Ellen Boeren, Yota Dimitriadi
Date of Approval:	
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.

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL | ONLINE PROGRAMMES

This approval applies for the duration of the research. If it is proposed to extend the duration of the study as specified in the application form, the Sub-Committee should be notified. If it is proposed to make an amendment to the research, you should notify the Sub-Committee by following the Notice of Amendment procedure outlined at http://www.liv.ac.uk/media/livacuk/researchethics/notice%20of%20amendment.doc.

Where your research includes elements that are not conducted in the UK, approval to proceed is further conditional upon a thorough risk assessment of the site and local permission to carry out the research, including, where such a body exists, local research ethics committee approval. No documentation of local permission is required (a) if the researcher will simply be asking organizations to distribute research invitations on the researcher's behalf, or (b) if the researcher is using only public means to identify/contact participants. When medical, educational, or business records are analysed or used to identify potential research participants, the site needs to explicitly approve access to data for research purposes (even if the researcher normally has access to that data to perform his or her job).

Please note that the approval to proceed depends also on research proposal approval.

Kind regards,

Lucilla Crosta

Chair, EdD. VPREC

Appendix B - Local Approval Letter

City university headed paper details removed

Thesis Project Title: Sources of Japanese university students' English speaking self-efficacy

Researcher: Dawn Kobayashi

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and have understood the Participant Information Sheet dated February 2018 for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions, and have had these answered satisfactorily. N.I

2. I hereby grant permission to the researcher for all relevant data access, facility use, and use of personnel and student time for research purposes. N.I

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

4. I understand that information on the university will be anonymised, will be maintained as proprietary information, and will be kept in confidentiality. N.I

City University
Personnel manager

NOBUAKI ISHII	9th Feb 2018	Nobuaki Oshii
Name of person giving authorization	Date	Signature
Dawn Kobayashi	9th Feb 208	Dawn Kobayashi
Researcher	Date	Signature

Appendix C - Selection Questionnaire Informed Consent

EFLSSE/D Questionnaire Informed Consent Statement

(This statement will be at the beginning of the questionnaire)

Research Project Title: Sources of Japanese university students' English speaking self-efficacy

Researcher: Dawn Kobayashi

You are being invited to participate in a research study titled: Sources of Japanese University students English speaking self-efficacy. This study is being done by Dawn Kobayashi from the University of Liverpool. You were selected to participate in this study because you are a second-year university student of English. The purpose of this research study is find out about your experiences of speaking English at junior and senior high school. Especially, I want to know about what experiences made you feel confident or nervous when speaking English at school.

If you agree to take part in this study, please complete this questionnaire. This questionnaire will ask about how confident you feel to perform English communication tasks and it will take you approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. After you complete the questionnaire, I will invite some students for interview. Please write your student number at the top of the form if you are willing to be interviewed. When I have conducted the interviews, I will cut your student number off the questionnaire. You will then no longer be identifiable from the data.

The results of this research may not benefit you directly. But I hope that the results can be used to improve English teaching at Japanese universities in the future. I believe there are no known risks associated with this research study.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you can withdraw at any time. You are free to skip any question that you choose. However, please remember that once I remove your student number from the questionnaire you will no longer be identifiable and I will not be able to remove your data from the study.

If you are unhappy, or if there is a problem, please let me know by contacting Dawn Kobayashi on xxxx-xx-xxxx (ex xxxx) and I will try to help. If you remain unhappy or have a complaint which you feel you cannot talk to me about you should contact LOREC at xxxxxx@liverpool-online.com. When contacting LOREC, please include this information research project title: Sources of Japanese university students' English speaking confidence, researcher's name: Dawn Kobayashi, and the details of the complaint you wish to make. Please print a copy of the Participant Information Sheet for your reference. Please contact me and/or the Research Participant Advocate at the University of Liverpool with any question or concerns you may have.

By circling "I agree" below you are indicating that you have read and understood this consent statement and agree to participate in this research study.

I Agree	I Do Not Agree

Researcher
Dawn Kobayashi
XXXXXX City University, *(address removed)*
Tel: xxxx-xx-xxxx (ex xxxx) Email: xxxx@xxxxxx-u.ac.jp

Version 3

February 2018

Appendix D – Interview Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Research Project Title: Sources of Japanese university students' English speaking self-efficacy

Researcher: Dawn Kobayashi

What is this form?

I am asking you to participate in an interview for a research study I am doing for my doctoral degree. This form is to help you understand what my study is and what your involvement might be. Please feel free to ask me if you have any questions or if there is anything that you do not understand. When you have read this form, please think hard about whether you want to participate.

- **If you want to participate** please sign the informed consent form and return it to me.
- **If you do not want to participate**, please just return the unsigned form to me. You do not need to explain why you do not want to participate, your decision will neither be recorded, nor will it affect your academic scores in any way.

Do I have to decide if I want to participate now?

No, you do not need to decide now. The interviews will take place in one week, so please use this time to decide whether you want to participate or not and ask me any questions. You may also wish to discuss your participation with your friends or family to help you decide

What is the purpose of the study?

I am doing research to find out about students' experiences of speaking English at junior and senior high school. Especially, I want to know about what experiences made you feel confident or nervous when speaking English at school. These experiences could be activities that you did in class or the support that you received from teachers and friends. If I can understand what experiences helped students feel confident in speaking English, then I can use this information to improve English lessons at university and help students become better at speaking English.

Why have I been chosen to take part?

You have been asked to participate because you voluntarily to completed and returned the English speaking questionnaire Your responses show that you have either high, medium or low confidence in your English speaking ability. Therefore, I am asking if you would like to help me further by participating in a short interview to talk about your responses.

Do I have to take part?

You do not have to take part in the study. If you do not want to take part you do not need to explain why and your decision will not be recorded nor will it affect your academic grade. Also, if you decide to take part but later change your mind you are free to stop and leave the interview at any time.

What will happen if I take part?

If you agree to take part, I will ask you to answer some questions in an interview. The interview will take place in my office at a time that is convenient for you. Only you and myself will be at the interview, but I will use a voice recorder so that I can type up your answers after the interview.

How long will the interview last?

The interview will be one time only and will last around 45 minutes.

What will you ask me?

In the interview, I will ask you questions about your experiences of speaking English at junior and senior high school.

Will I get any payment for the interview?

Unfortunately, I am unable to pay you for the interview. But I will provide you with drinks and snacks.

Are there any risks in taking part?

I do not think there will be any risks in taking part nor will you have to talk about sensitive topics in the interview. However, if you feel uncomfortable in the interview please tell me **"stop"** and I will immediately stop the interview and you can decide if you want to continue. Also, if I think that you are uncomfortable or upset I will stop the interview and ask if you want to continue.

Are there any benefits in taking part?

The results of the research may not benefit you directly. But I hope that the results can be used to improve English teaching at Japanese universities in the future.

Will my participation be kept confidential?

Yes, after the interviews have been completed, I will remove all the student IDs from the questionnaire. You then no longer be identifiable from the questionnaire data.
Your answers to the interview questions will be also kept confidential. I will type up your answers to the interview questions and ask you to read them. If you want any parts changed or deleted I will do so. When you are happy with the typed version of your interview, I will replace your name with an alias (nickname) of your choosing and remove any information that connects your true identity to the data. When I have done this, it will no longer be possible to identify you as the interview participant but I will no longer be able to change any of your answers.

How will the data be stored?

All of your data will be kept in digital form on a secure USB flash drive and in paper form in a special file. The USB flash drive and file will be stored in a locked drawer in a secure location for five years. After this time, the paper files will be shredded and the digital information will be erased. This is in accordance with the regulations of the University of Liverpool.

Who will read my interview data?

The data you provide will be read by myself and my primary supervisor (my teacher) only. I will use the anonymised data in my doctoral thesis and may also use it in future journal articles and/or conference presentations about English language teaching. You will not be identifiable in the doctoral thesis or future journal articles and conference presentations.

What if I want to stop taking part?

You are free to stop taking part at any time. You do not need to explain why you decided to stop taking part. When you stop taking part you can either ask for all your data to be destroyed or allow me to use your data up to the point you decided to withdraw.
However, please remember that I cannot remove or edit your data after I have anonymised the data

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

If you are unhappy, or if there is a problem, please let me know by contacting Dawn Kobayashi on xxxx-xx-xxxx (ex xxx) and I will try to help. If you remain unhappy or have a complaint which you feel you cannot talk to me about you should contact LOREC at xxxxx@liverpool-online.com. When contacting LOREC, please provide the research project title, the researcher's name, and the details of the complaint you wish to make. This information is at the top of this form.

In the unlikely event that the interview makes you feel distressed or brings up issues that you would like to talk to someone about please contact the school nurse Ms T on xxxx-xx-xxxx (ex xxx) to arrange a confidential counselling session. Please keep a copy of the Participant Information Sheet for your reference. Please contact me and/or the Research Participant Advocate at the University of Liverpool with any question or concerns you may have.

If you have further questions please contact me:

Dawn Kobayashi
XXXX City University,*(address removed)*
Tel: xxxx-xx-xxxx (ex xxx)
Email: xxxxx@xxxxx-u.ac.jp

Appendix E – Interview Participant Consent Form

Committee on Research Ethics

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM (interview)

Research Project Title: Sources of Japanese university students' English speaking self-efficacy **Researcher:** Dawn Kobayashi	**Please initial box**
1. I confirm that I have read and have understood the participant information sheet dated February 2018 for the above study. I confirm that I understand the purpose of the interview and why I was asked to participate. I have had time to read the information, ask questions, and the researcher has answered my questions.	☐
2. I understand that I am a volunteer for this interview and that I can leave the interview at any time without giving a reason, without my rights being affected. In addition, I understand that I do not have to answer any question or questions if I do not want to and that I do not have to give a reason.	☐
3. I understand that, under the Data Protection Act, I can at any time ask to see the information I give and I can also ask the researcher to erase any information I wish.	☐
4. I agree to the interview being audio recorded and the recording to be transcribed. I understand that I will be able to check the transcript and request changes or deletions. I also understand that after I check the transcript the data will be anonymised. I understand and agree that parts of the anonymised transcription will be included in the final doctoral thesis and may be used in future publications and presentations.	☐
5. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in relevant future research.	☐
6. I understand that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained and it will not be possible to identify me in either the doctoral thesis or any future publications.	☐
7. I understand and agree that once my data has been anonymised I will therefore no longer be able to withdraw my data.	☐
8. I agree to take part in the above interview.	☐

Participant alias	Date	Participant Initials
Researcher name	Date	Signature

Researcher Dawn Kobayashi
xxxxx City University, *(address removed)*
Tel: xxxx-xx-xxxx (ex xxx)
Email: xxxxxxx@xxxxxx-u.ac.jp

Version 4
February 2018

Appendix F - Interview Protocol

Date _____

Interviewer _____

Interviewee nickname _____

Age _____

Academic Year _____

File code _____

Theme 1: General Background

1) Tell me about yourself
   a) *What do you like to do in your free time?*
2) Tell me about yourself as a student
   a) *What is your favorite subject?*
      i) *Why?*
   b) *What is your least favorite subject?*
      i) *Why?*
3) I'd like to ask about your history of speaking English
   a) *Have you studied English outside of school? Where? For how long?*
      i) *If no, is this something you would have liked to have done?*
   b) *Have you ever travelled to English speaking country?*
      i) *Anyway abroad?*
      ii) *Where would you like to go?*

Theme 2: Opinion Towards Learning English

4) I'd like to ask you about your opinion towards learning English
   a) *What do you think of the English course at this university?*
   b) *Could you describe the kind of activities you would like to do in an ideal English course to me?*
5) Tell me about your goals for learning to speak English
   a) *What do you want to learn English speaking for?*
      i) *Can you give me an example/ explain more?*
   b) *How do you imagine yourself using English after you graduate university?*
      i) *What kind of situation?*

ii) *What skills do you think you will use most?*

c) *What areas do you especially want to work on?*

i) *Why do you think so?*

ii) *What activities do you think will help you?*

d) *How important is learning to speak English to you on a scale of 1-10?*

i) *Why?*

Theme 3: Learning English Experiences (Mastery)

6) Tell me about the kind of English speaking activities you did at junior and senior high school

a) *Which ones did you particularly enjoy? Why?*

b) *How would you rate your ability as an English speaker from 1-10?*

i) *How would you rate your fellow classmates?*

c) *Did you perform tasks in front of: the whole class, a few classmates, just the teacher*?

d) *Were these activities at JHS or HS*?

e) *What difference was there in the speaking practice that you did at JHS and HS*?

7) Tell me about a memorable occasion of speaking English at school

a) *How well did you do?*

b) *Why do you think you could /could not do well?*

8) Tell me about the kind of practice you did to help you speak English

a) *What experiences do you have of speaking English outside of class?*

b) *What kind of homework did you do for English speaking practice?*

c) *Did you do any other activities to help you speak English?*

Theme 4: Support Received from Teachers, Parents and Classmates at Senior Highs School (Social Persuasion)

9) Tell me about someone who helped you to learn English speaking

a) *What kind of things did they do to help you?*

10) Tell me about what others have told you about your English speaking ability

a) *What kind of feedback did you receive from teachers?*

i) *What kind of feedback did you receive from parents?*

ii) *What about your friends?*

iii) *What kind of feedback did you want to hear?*

b) *How did your teachers make you feel about your English speaking ability?*
c) *What other things do you think teachers could have done to make you feel more confident and motivated about speaking English?*

Theme 5: Emotional Reactions to Speaking English at Senior High School (Physiological States)

11) I'd like you remember the speaking activities you did in high school, in general how did they make you feel?
   a) *How did you physically feel? Alert, energetic, tired, etc.*
   b) *How did you mentally feel? Anxious, engaged, bored, etc.*
   c) *What factors do you think made you feel so?*

Theme 6: Influence of Others on English Speaking Ability (Social Modelling)

12) Tell me about how you prepared for speaking tasks in class
   a) *Did you listen to CDs, videos, teacher's reading, another students' reading?*
   b) *Who or what did you find most useful to listen to?*
13) Tell me about someone you think speaks English well.
   a) *Where are they from?*
   b) *What's your relationship to them?*
   c) *How about your teacher or classmates?*
   d) *Which famous Japanese people do you think speak English well?*
   e) *How does watching Japanese people effect your own motivation to speak English?*
14) How did your teacher use English in class?
   a) *When did they use it?*
   b) *What kind of things did they say*
   c) *How did this effect your motivation to speak English?*

15) Is there anything else you think I should know about your experiences of learning to speak English at senior high school?

Thank you for taking the time to answer my questions

Appendix G - Mapping of Interview Extracts to Inventory Items

Mastery

CONCEPT	QUOTE	ITEM
No memory of speaking.	**Yumi:** The thing I remember most is, I think there is maybe not much, I don't have much memory of speaking…there's nothing especially.	**M1:** I often did English speaking activities in class at school.
Language-based activities	**Ichiro**: Hmm. Speaking was about the textbook contents with a friend, so, so this passage, they did like, if it was a conversation passage then 'the people on left half of the class please read John and the people on the right half please read Emily's part'. Read John's part, read Emily's part, that kind of conversation and we did reading it aloud. **Eri:** No, it was kind of in front of everyone. So, when you were chosen, you stood up and then spoke so everyone could understand, it was that kind of lesson.	**M2:** When I did speaking activities at school, I often read aloud from the textbook. **M3:** When I did speaking activities at school, I often made speeches in front of the whole class
Chances to communicate	**Aya:** Also, if talking about speaking, then I said a little before but, talking in pairs, I think we did that quite a lot. And when we exchanged with our partner about the contents of lesson revision we had gone and done, it was a rule of the class that that was in English, so we maybe had speaking there.	**M4:** When I did speaking activities at school, I had conversations in English with my classmates..
Speaking in everyday life	**Aiko:** Recently, so my part time job I did part time work yesterday and a person from overseas came, so I did then.	**M5:** I have had chances to use English in my daily life.
English conversation classes	**Taro:** ECC was certainly from when I was two until, what age did I go? I went until about junior high school first or second year maybe.	**M6:** I studied English outside of school at an English conversation school or English class

Social Modelling

CONCEPT	QUOTE	ITEM
Influence of friends	**Yuko:** Someone near me who speaks English, well at school, maybe one person went on study abroad, that person did things like speeches in English, that person really went on study abroad and such and did even speeches in English, I thought she was amazing. **Tomomi:** So, I have some hope, you know, that a Japanese person the same as me can speak so much.	**SM1:** At school, I had friends who were really good at English speaking **SM2:** When I see my classmates do well, it gives me hope that I will be able to speak English well, too
Influence of Teacher	**Tomomi:** He just spoke as usual in the lesson while we were solving the questions, he would ask 'how did you get that answer?' in English, and then we would answer the Japanese teacher like 'Well I thought like this'. We would do like that. **Shiori:** At what times…just when it was necessary in the lesson. **Hanako:** I want to know more about that. How did you feel when you saw your teacher speaking English? My motivation went up and it's fun and I thought I want to hear English more	**SM3:** At school, my teacher spoke English as much as possible in the lesson. **SM4** At school when I saw my teacher speaking English, it motivated me to study English speaking more.

Social Persuasion

CONCEPT	QUOTE	ITEM
Teacher feedback	**Aiko: ...** when we did the presentation to the teacher, they told us detailed things so I think that gave us more input. **Ryuichi:** The ALT at that time, even when it was interview practice, or one to one practice I had a lot of speaking chances, at that time my pronunciation was praised, and the next year when I became a third-year student I read a lot of text and I was told that when I read, I read deeply.	**SP1:** When I did English speaking tasks at school, my teachers often gave me useful feedback. **SP2:** At school, my teachers praised my English speaking ability.
Friends feedback	**Taro:** Ahh... I wonder, I was told at junior high school and elementary school, my friends who hadn't done English said that my pronunciation was good	**SP3**: At school, I was told by my friends that my speaking ability was good.
No positive feedback	**Tomomi:** I often get told you just speak word by word and I'm told that I speak Japanese English **Tomoki:** Well my parents don't really my parents don't really speak English so, sometimes they teased me and said say something in English and I would halfheartedly say something. I've never been told anything especially advantageous.	**SP4:** I have told me that my English speaking is not good. **SP5:** My family members praised my English speaking ability

Physiological States

CONCEPT	QUOTE	ITEM
Positive feelings	**Ryuichi:** It was fun. Being able to use phrases yourself, phrases you've learnt, I experienced that, so first it was enjoyable **Yuko:** Hmm…well… it seemed that they had understood me, so I was relieved and I was happy then. **Ayaka:** Well, it's better to be chosen, isn't it? The people around you hear you and say things like oh that's correct and such.	**PS1:** When I was at school, I enjoyed speaking English in class. **PS2:** When I was at school, I was happy after I finished an English speaking task. **PS3:** When I was at school I was happy when I was chosen to do speaking tasks in class.
Nervousness	**Shiori:** I was nervous so I was quite stiff you know, and I felt the blood drain from my face. **Minami:** Shaking, I was shaking. I thought I'm embarrassed because I can't speak English I was embarrassed for everyone to see me speaking. **Aya**: Hmm. Ahh that's right, the other person, at the beginning, I was quite nervous, I felt that I had to convey meaning perfectly so...	**PS4:** When I was at school, doing speaking English activities made me so nervous. **PS5:** When I was at school, I didn't want other people to hear me speaking English. **PS6:** When I spoke English at school, I worried about whether I was making mistakes.

Goals

CONCEPT	QUOTE	ITEM
Vague goals	**Tomoki:** Actually, I don't think I will use English so much. Just I will speak it if I run into such a situation. I don't think I will use it out in society. **Shiori:** Goal…just so I don't have trouble when I meet a foreign person...	**G1:** In the future, I think I will only use English if I have to. **G2:** In the future, I think I will use English a lot a work.
English for hobbies	**Aya:** Maybe the main one is... really movies, how can I say, I want to be able to listen without depending on subtitles and not basically understanding what they're saying without subtitles but straight away understanding what people are saying, I want that. **Eri:** For me well, I want to go abroad so travel is a strong reason, I want to study for that reason.	**G3:** I think being able to speak English will help me to pursue my interests. **G4:** I want to study English speaking because I want to travel abroad.
Talking with foreigners	**Minami:** After all, as I just said if I get asked something I want to help them **Ryuichi:** From now on globalization will increase, even in Japan the Olympics, I think that occasions of foreigners coming to Japan will increase, within that I think I want to be able to reply smoothly when asked for directions or for recommended places,	**G5:** I want to be able to speak English because I want to help foreign tourists to Japan. **G6:** When someone speaks to me in English, I want to be able to reply smoothly.

Attitude

CONCEPT	QUOTE	ITEM
Feelings towards English	**Shiori:** I think that maybe it's because I've never thought myself that English is so important. **Yumi:** Hmm…so sometimes I have the experience of studying English or watching TV or read a book and ah I've seen this before. When I get to understand the meaning I think it's fun so that's why I like it.	**Att1:** I think that English is useful for my daily life. **Att2:** I think English is fun because I can understand things on TV or in books.
Perception of ability	**Tomoki:** Well what can I say…maybe I'm no good at it…not good at it and not much efficiency. I can't understand it well or rather people who can do it progressively understand, but my memory skill is poor and I'm rubbish at things like translating English and it's like I'm no good at it, so I don't like it much.	**Att3:** I think that I am good at English.
Preference for speaking	**Minami:** I think you already do this but speaking to the person next to you or something, not saying scripted words but I think activities that like let you converse using English knowledge you have thought of yourself are good. **Shiori:** Rather than grammar, I would be happy to be taught everyday conversation and such. **Yuko:** About people, about the other person…things I want to say, it doesn't have to be perfect but I want to be able to convey meaning.	**Att4:** I want to practice more actual speaking, not reading scripted dialogues. **Att5:** I want to practice English speaking by speaking about everyday things. **Att6:** I think conveying meaning is the most important thing.

Desired Skills

CONCEPT	QUOTE	ITEM
Everyday conversation	**Rika:** Things we can use every day maybe it's difficult in Japan, but I would be happy if I could be taught English that I can use when I go abroad and such.	**DL2S1:** I want to be skilled at everyday conversation.
Convey meaning	**Yumi:** Hmm… It doesn't matter if you make a mistake but first I think it's important to try to convey your meaning.	**DL2S2:** I want to be able to convey meaning even when the grammar and vocabulary are not correct
Speak spontaneously	**Minami :** Ideal…after all I think the most important thing is to speak spontaneously, I think a lesson that focuses on speaking is good.	**DL2S3:** I want to be able to speak spontaneously.
Vocabulary	**Ichiro:** The part of speaking I'd like to improve…I want to get better at phrases to describe feelings. (...) So, I think that I want to be able to express emotional phrases using various vocabulary.	**DL2S4:** I want to have a wide vocabulary so I can express things in a variety of ways.
Pronunciation	**Tomoki:** Oh well…as for me even if I could understand native like pronunciation, the ease of understanding or rather... I just focus on the stress and speak slowly and also speak with too much Japanese accent. So, I don't think they thought I was good and maybe just average.	**DL2S5:** I want to be able to speak English without a Japanese accent.
Understanding	**Tomomi:** I want to be able to understand what people say, because I may need to communicate a little in the future, I think I am at least able to convey my meaning in speaking, but I think that unless I can understand what people say, then I can't communicate. I want to be able to comprehend.	**DL2S6:** I want to be able to easily understand what native speakers are saying.

Appendix H – Inventory Participant Informed Consent

SEFLS/SEI Informed Consent Statement

(This statement will be at the beginning of the sources of English foreign language speaking self-efficacy inventory SEFLS/SEI)

Research Project Title: Sources of Japanese university students' English speaking self-efficacy

Researcher: Dawn Kobayashi

You are being invited to participate in a research study titled Sources of Japanese University students English speaking self-efficacy. This study is being done by Dawn Kobayashi from the University of Liverpool. You were selected to participate in this study because you are Japanese university student of English. The purpose of this research study is find out about your experiences of speaking English at junior and senior high school. Especially, I want to know about what experiences made you feel confident or nervous when speaking English at school.

If you agree to take part in this study, please complete this inventory. This inventory will ask about what factors make you feel confident to perform English tasks and it will take you approximately 30 minutes to complete. The results of the research may not benefit you directly, but I hope that the results can be used to improve English teaching at Japanese universities in the future. I believe there are no known risks associated with this research study.

The information you provide will be kept anonymous, you will not be asked to give a name or contact details but you will be asked to provide basic information about yourself such as gender, ethnicity and age. Otherwise you will not be identifiable from the data.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you can stop completing the inventory at any time. You are free to skip any question that you choose. However, please remember that as your answers are completely anonymous there is no way for me to identify you once submit the inventory. This means that once you submit the data I will not be able to remove your data from the study.

If you are unhappy, or if there is a problem, please let me know by contacting Dawn Kobayashi on xxxx-xx-xxxx (ex xxx) and I will try to help. If you remain unhappy or have a complaint which you feel you cannot talk to me about you should contact LOREC at xxxxx@liverpool-online.com. When contacting LOREC, please include this information: Research project title: Sources of Japanese university students' English speaking self-efficacy, researcher's name: Dawn Kobayashi, and the details of the complaint you wish to make. Please print a copy of the Participant Information Sheet for your reference. Please contact me and/or the Research Participant Advocate at the University of Liverpool with any question or concerns you may have.

By clicking "I agree" below you are indicating that you have read and understood this consent statement and agree to participate in this research study.

I Agree I Do Not Agree

Researcher
Dawn Kobayashi
xxxxx City University, *(address removed*)
Tel: xxxx-xx-xxxx (ex xxx) Email: xxxxx@xxxxx-u.ac.jp

Version 3

February 2018

Appendix I – English Version of SEFLS-SEI

Background Questions

1. Year of study at university (please check): 1st ☐, 2nd ☐, 3rd ☐, 4th ☐ .

2. What kind of university do you attend?

National ☐, Public ☐, Private ☐, Technical ☐.

3. What is you major? (please write) _____

4. Age: _____ yrs. old

5. Gender: Male ☐, Female ☐, Other ☐ .

6. Nationality: Japanese ☐, Other ☐ (please write) _____

7. In which country did you complete your junior high and high school education?

Japan ☐, Other ☐ (please write) _____

8. Have you ever lived abroad for a long time (6 months or more)?

Yes ☐, (where) _____/ (how long?)_____ No ☐ _____

9. Have you studied English conversation outside of school?

Yes ☐, How many years? _____, No ☐.

10. What is your first language?

Japanese ☐, Other ☐ (please write) _____

11. Do either of your parents speak English as a first language? Yes ☐ No ☐.

12. What is your English level?

TOEIC 120~220 Eiken 3		TOEIC 225~545 Eiken pre 2		TOEIC 550~780 Eiken 2		TOEIC 785~940 Eiken pre 1		TOEIC 945~990 Eiken 1	

Directions: Please circle the number that best describes how much you agree with the following statements.

1	2	3	4	5	6
(Definitely disagree)	(Disagree)	(Somewhat Disagree)	(Somewhat agree)	(Agree)	(Definitely agree)

Mastery Factor

1	I often did English speaking activities in class at school.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	When I did speaking activities at school, I often read aloud from the textbook.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	When I did speaking activities at school, I often made speeches in front of the whole class.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	When I did speaking activities at school, I had conversations in English with my classmates.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	I have had chances to use English in my daily life.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	I studied English outside of school at an English conversation school or English class.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Social Modelling Factor

7	At school, I had friends who were really good at English speaking.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	When I saw my classmates speak English well, I thought that I could speak English well too.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	At school, my Japanese English teacher spoke English as much as possible in the lesson.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	At school when I saw my Japanese teacher speaking English, it motivated me to study English speaking more.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Social Persuasion Factor

13	When I did English speaking tasks at school, my teachers gave me useful feedback.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	At school, my teachers praised my English speaking ability.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	At school, I was told by my classmates that my speaking ability was good.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I have been told that my English speaking is not good. (reverse coded)	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	My family members praised my English speaking ability.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Physiological States Factor

19	When I was at school, I enjoyed speaking English in class.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20	When I was at school, I was happy when I finished an English speaking task.	1 2 3 4 5 6
21	When I was at school, I was happy when I was chosen to do English speaking tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6
22	When I was at school, doing English speaking activities made me nervous. (reverse coded)	1 2 3 4 5 6
23	When I was at school, I didn't want other people to hear me speaking English. (reverse coded)	1 2 3 4 5 6
24	When I spoke English at school, I worried about whether I was making mistakes. (reverse coded)	1 2 3 4 5 6

Goals

25	In the future, I think I will only use English if I have to.	1 2 3 4 5 6
26	In the future, I think I will use English a lot at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
27	I think being able to speak English will help me to pursue my interests.	1 2 3 4 5 6
28	I want to study English speaking because I want to travel abroad.	1 2 3 4 5 6
29	I want to be able to speak English because I want to help foreign tourists to Japan.	1 2 3 4 5 6
30	When someone speaks to me in English, I want to reply smoothly.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Attitude

31	I think English is useful for my daily life.	1 2 3 4 5 6
32	I think English is fun because I can understand things on TV or in books.	1 2 3 4 5 6
33	I think I'm good at English.	1 2 3 4 5 6
34	I want to practice more actual speaking, not reading scripted dialogues.	1 2 3 4 5 6
35	I want to practice English speaking by talking about everyday things.	1 2 3 4 5 6
36	I think conveying meaning is the most important thing for speaking English.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Desired Skills

37	I want to be skilled at everyday conversation.	1 2 3 4 5 6
38	I want to be able to convey meaning even when the grammar and vocabulary are not correct.	1 2 3 4 5 6
39	I want to be able to speak English spontaneously.	1 2 3 4 5 6
40	I want to have a wide vocabulary so I can express things in a variety of ways.	1 2 3 4 5 6
41	I want to be able to speak English without a Japanese accent.	1 2 3 4 5 6
42	I want to be able to easily understand what native speakers are saying.	1 2 3 4 5 6

EFLL-SES Validation Items

Mastery

43	I do well on even the most difficult English assignments.	1 2 3 4 5
44	I do well on English assignments.	1 2 3 4 5
45	I have always been successful with English.	1 2 3 4 5

Social modelling

46	Seeing adults do well in English pushes me to do better.	1 2 3 4 5
47	I have a good friend who performed very well in the English class and I admired him/her a lot.	1 2 3 4 5
48	I want to learn English well.	1 2 3 4 5

Social persuasion

49	People have told me that I have a talent in EFL (English Foreign Language) courses.	1 2 3 4 5
50	Adults in my family have told me that I am a good English student.	1 2 3 4 5
51	Other students have told me that I'm good at learning English.	1 2 3 4 5

Physiological states

52	Just being in English class makes me feel stressed and nervous. (reverse coded)	1 2 3 4 5
53	I start to feel stressed-out as soon as I begin to do my English assignments. (reverse coded)	1 2 3 4 5
54	My mind goes blank and I am unable to think clearly when doing English assignments. (reverse coded)	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix J – Statistical Procedures

Table J.1
Correlation Matrix

The correlation matrix can be viewed here

Table J.2

1st 5-factor Pattern Matrix principal axis factoring with Promax rotation + Communalities

	Factor					*Communalities*	
	1	2	3	4	5	Initial	Extract
Mastery Experiences							
I often did English speaking activities in class at school.	-.069	-.040	.819*	.115	-.064	.578	.597
When I did speaking activities at school, I often read aloud from the textbook.	.265	.002	.539*	.014	-.169	.522	.415
When I did speaking activities at school, I often made speeches in front of the whole class.	-.105	.248	.420*	.033	.052	.377	.332
At school I had chances to have conversations in English with my classmates	-.023	-.143	.736*	.042	.000	.416	.444
I have had chances to use English in my daily life.	-.118	.251	.224	-.007	.255	.344	.275
I had chances to use English outside of school by attending an English conversation school or English class.	.054	.418*	-.127	-.071	.029	.224	.147
Social Modelling							
At school, I had friends who were really good at English speaking.	-.131	.046	.517*	-.093	.047	.346	.272
When I see my classmates speak English well, it gives me hope that I will be able to speak English well, too.	.019	.227	.283	-.009	.346*	.493	.451
At school, my Japanese English teacher spoke English as much as possible in the lesson.	-.025	-.110	.706*	-.087	.113,	.481	.473
At school, when I saw my Japanese teacher speaking English, it made me feel motivated to study English speaking more.	.107	.151	.266	-.018	.399*	.505	.478
Social Persuasion							
When I did English speaking tasks at school, my teachers often gave me useful feedback.	.006	.180	.506*	-.096	.012	.449	.386
At school, my teachers praised my English speaking ability.	.050	.826*	.120	.001	-.196	.681	.684
At school, I was often told by my classmates that my speaking ability was good.	.060	.945*	-.129	.002	-.136	.679	.713
I have been told that my English speaking is not good.	.206	-.186	.193	.369	-.096	.186	.152
My family members praised my English speaking ability	-.030	.700*	-.025	-.082	.057	.487	.471
Physiological States							
When I was at school, I enjoyed speaking English in class.	.118	.370*	.309	.144	.195	.701	.628
When I was at school, I was happy when I finished an English speaking task.	.007	.524*	.214	-.034	.070	.568	.473
When I was at school, I was happy when I was chosen to do English speaking tasks in class.	-.089	.841*	-.039	-.016	-.026	.610	.614
When I was at school, speaking English made me so nervous.	.004	.174	-.100	.623*	.008	.460	.489
When I was at school, I didn't want other people to hear me speaking English.	.090	.029	-.011	.766*	.038	.537	.610
When I spoke English at school, I worried so much about whether I was making mistakes.	-.179	-.093	-.022	.752*	.129	.504	.604

Goals							
In the future, I think I will only use English if I have to.	-.150	-.035	-.164	.219	.262	.246	.146
In the future, I think I will use English a lot at work.	.192	.094	-.045	.027	.556*	.510	.490
I think being able to speak English will help me to pursue my interests.	.465*	-.128	.025	-.077	.342*	.462	.425
I want to study English speaking because I want to travel abroad.	.481*	.051	-.121	-.021	.396*	.561	.526
I want to be able to speak English because I want to help foreign tourists to Japan.	.472*	.047	-.080	-.087	.389*	.588	.526
When someone speaks to me in English, I want to be able to reply smoothly.	.756*	-.044	-.005	-.089	.139	.705	.671
Attitude							
I think I will use English for my daily life.	.260	-.089	.035	.044	.595*	.520	.507
I think English is fun because I can come to understand things on TV or in books.	.502*	-.008	.006	.041	.352*	.546	.521
I think that I am good at English	-.024	.570*	-.128	.170	.177	.498	.484
I want to practice more actual speaking, not reading scripted dialogues.	.725*	.059	.017	.142	-.141	.687	.493
I want to practice English speaking by talking to my friends about everyday things.	.768*	.013	-.038	.079	.038	.728	.598
I think conveying meaning is the most important thing for speaking English.	.689*	-.068	.101	-.045	-.225	.483	.444
Desired Skills							
I want to be skilled at everyday conversation.	.875*	-.067	-.045	,.007	.090	.77,4	.776
I want to be able to convey meaning even when the grammar and vocabulary are not correct.	.776*	-.104	.146	.073	-.114	.581	.585
I want to be able to speak English spontaneously.	.873*	-.016	-.048	.002	.024	.759	.742
I want to have a wide vocabulary so I can express things in a variety of ways.	.723*	.110	-.134	.015	.199	.744	.683
I want to be able to speak English without a Japanese accent.	.678*	.072	-.041,	.001	.016	.5,74	.483
I want to be able to easily understand what native speakers are saying.	.794*	.120	-.009	-.095	-.063	.684	.668

* significant loading

Table J.3

1st 5-factor Structure *Matrix principal axis factoring with Promax rotation*

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Mastery Experiences					
I often did English speaking activities in class at school.	.185	.351	.757	.085	.094
When I did speaking activities at school, I often read aloud from the textbook.	.394	.268	.598	-.038	.072
When I did speaking activities at school, I often made speeches in front of the whole class.	.144	.461	.515	.124	.237
At school I had chances to have conversations in English with my classmates	.202	.227	.655	-.020	.098
I have had chances to use English in my daily life.	.147	.451	.365	.111	.385
I had chances to use English outside of school by attending an English conversation school or English class.	.151	.362	.107	.072	.224
Social Modelling					
At school, I had friends who were really good at English speaking.	.102	.253	.505	-.071	.129
When I see my classmates speak English well, it gives me hope that I will be able to speak English well, too.	.336	.543	.484	.097	.535
At school, my Japanese English teacher spoke English as much as possible in the lesson.	.258	.258	.671	-.124	.207
At school, when I saw my Japanese teacher speaking English, it made me feel motivated to study English speaking more.	.418	.508	.475	.060	.581
Social Persuasion					
When I did English speaking tasks at school, my teachers often gave me useful feedback.	.261	.405	.602	-.044	.215
At school, my teachers praised my English speaking ability.	.261	.802	.499	.255	.268
At school, I was often told by my classmates that my speaking ability was good.	.239	.831	.326	.306	.332
I have been told that my English speaking is not good.	.148	.049	.148	.273	-.019
My family members praised my English speaking ability	.203	.680	.325	.166	.382
Physiological States					
When I was at school, I enjoyed speaking English in class.	.411	.705	.579	.273	.518
When I was at school, I was happy when I finished an English speaking task.	.276	.655	.492	.147	.383
When I was at school, I was happy when I was chosen to do English speaking tasks in class.	.140	.776	.337	.276	.348
When I was at school, speaking English made me so nervous.	-.035	.342	-.023	.685	.138
When I was at school, I didn't want other people to hear me speaking English.	.040	.330	.030	.772	.167
When I spoke English at school, I worried so much about whether I was making mistakes.	-.231	.163	-.119	.751	.081
Goals					
In the future, I think I will only use English if I have to.	-.132	.046	-.178	.252	.166
In the future, I think I will use English a lot at work.	.431	.417	.204	.100	.674
I think being able to speak English will help me to pursue my interests.	.584	.169	.217	-.128	.468
I want to study English speaking because I want to travel abroad.	.618	.328	.177	-.004	.590
I want to be able to speak English because I want to help foreign tourists to Japan.	.626	.315	.213	-.072	.580
When someone speaks to me in English, I want to be able to reply smoothly.	.807	.220	.288	-.159	.420
Attitude					
I think I will use English for my daily life.	.488	.319	.228	.050	.670
I think English is fun because I can come to understand things on TV or in books.	.644	.336	.270	.029	.562
I think that I am good at English	.157	.646	.183	.387	.440
I want to practice more actual speaking, not reading scripted dialogues.	.677	.262	.277	.080	.208
I want to practice English speaking by talking to my friends about everyday things.	.767	.271	.260	.017	.362
I think conveying meaning is the most important thing for speaking English.	.616	.060	.269	-.157	.046

Desired Skills					
I want to be skilled at everyday conversation.	.875	.221	.2,67	-.087	.410
I want to be able to convey meaning even when the grammar and vocabulary are not correct.	.744	.168	.352	-.049	.197
I want to be able to speak English spontaneously.	.860	.235	.272	-.081	.366
I want to have a wide vocabulary so I can express things in a variety of ways.	.788	.366	.235	.009	.523
I want to be able to speak English without a Japanese accent.	.691	.264	.,250	-.034	.324
I want to be able to easily understand what native speakers are saying.	.810	.291	.331	-.134	.315

Table J.4
Final 5-factor Structure Matrix Principal Axis Factoring and Promax Rotations

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
D1 I want to be skilled at everyday conversation.	866	229	244	.114	493
D3 I want to be able to speak English spontaneously.	859	238	250	.104	466
D6 I want to be able to easily understand what native speakers are saying.	802	292	310	.155	404
G6 When someone speaks to me in English, I want to be able to reply smoothly.	783	222	269	.148	460
D4 I want to have a wide vocabulary so I can express things in a variety of ways.	780	357	207	.011	629
A5 I want to practice English speaking by talking to my friends about everyday things.	777	281	243	006	380
D2 I want to be able to convey meaning even when the grammar and vocabulary are not correct.	750	179	335	.070	283
A4 I want to practice more actual speaking, not reading scripted dialogues.	703	275	266	068	230
D5 I want to be able to speak English without a Japanese accent.	682	259	219	.066	438
A6 I think conveying meaning is the most important thing for speaking English.	627	064	251	.162	128
SP3 At school, I was often told by my classmates that my speaking ability was good.	237	837	319	306	339
SP2 At school, my teachers praised my English speaking ability.	257	821	492	248	325
PS3 When I was at school, I was happy when I was chosen to do English speaking tasks in class.	135	774	333	293	373
PS1 When I was at school, I enjoyed speaking English in class.	406	720	564	254	541
PS2 When I was at school, I was happy when I finished an English speaking task.	269	664	487	148	433
SP5 My family members praised my English speaking ability	201	663	322	172	417
A3 I think that I am good at English	149	633	178	390	436
M1 I often did English speaking activities in class at school.	199	374	758	045	129
SM3 At school, my Japanese English teacher spoke English as much as possible in the lesson.	246	266	673	.155	295
M4 At school I had chances to have conversations in English with my classmates	210	240	655	.045	127
M2 When I did speaking activities at school, I often read aloud from the textbook.	402	294	603	.082	064
SP1 When I did English speaking tasks at school, my teachers often gave me useful feedback.	254	403	594	.046	297
M3 When I did speaking activities at school, I often made speeches in front of the whole class.	148	449	518	121	258
SM1 At school, I had friends who were really good at English speaking.	110	240	500	.068	180
RPS5 REVERSE When I was at school, I didn't want other people to hear me speaking English.	049	334	028	807	162
RPS6 REVERSE When I spoke English at school, I worried so much about whether I was making mistakes.	.223	157	.113	741	031