Teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction of EFL teachers working in higher education in Japan

Submitted by

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ABSTRACT

In recent years the Japanese labour market has undergone significant deregulations. On April 1, 2013 the Labour Act was amended to give workers the right to apply for a permanent status if working for longer than five years in the same job. The idea was to increase job security, but it has arguably had the opposite effect. This study aimed to investigate the impact of these changes on non-tenured EFL teachers in higher education in Japan. This study used a mixed method sequential research design involving a questionnaire with 21 participants, and semi-structured interviews with eight participants. The questionnaire focused on teachers' perceptions of themselves as EFL teachers and the factors affecting their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, while the interviews explored similar themes and also discussed their roles and addressed the issue of limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan.

The questionnaire participants ranked seven factors, including *Autonomy in teaching*, *Good working relationships*, *Job security*, *Salary, Student attitudes*, *Support from the institution*, and *Working hours*, based on their impact on teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The rankings highlighted three groups of factors influencing job satisfaction: *Student attitudes*, *Autonomy in teaching*, and *Good working relationships*. *Salary* and *Job security* constituted a middle group of factors, while *Working hours* and *Support from the institution* was ranked the lowest as having the least impact on job satisfaction. *Autonomy in teaching* was the only factor that had a higher ranking for impacting job satisfaction than its opposite factor, *Lack of autonomy*, had for impacting job dissatisfaction. Job security was identified as the factor that participants desired to change the most in order to increase their level of job satisfaction. Participants primarily identified themselves as teachers or in related roles such as motivators or facilitators. While some participants had sub-identities, not all did, and they were not consistent among the participants. The role of a teacher in the classroom was considered the same regardless of the employment status. The interviews discussed limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan with participants expressing more negative effects than positive effects. Concerns were raised about the lack of contract renewal options and the potential loss of experienced and dedicated teachers. In summary, this thesis offers insights into teachers' perceptions of themselves, the factors influencing

their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and the challenges associated with limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan. The main contribution of the thesis is the recognition that limited-term teachers prioritise job security as the factor they would most like to change in order to enhance their job satisfaction. Addressing this concern and alleviating teachers' worries can lead to a more content workforce. Even if work policies cannot be altered, simply acknowledging and being aware of teachers' concerns can have a positive impact. The study also highlights that the lack of autonomy has a limited influence on teacher job dissatisfaction, despite autonomy in teaching being rated as one of the most important factors for job satisfaction. These findings have relevance for educational institutions, managers of English departments, curriculum developers, and in the greater scheme of things the politicians who draw up regulations guiding the workforce in Japan.

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List of Acronyms/Abbreviations

EFL = English as a Foreign Language

EdD = Doctor of Education

JALT – Japan Association of Language Teaching

MEXT = The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (in Japan)

MIC = Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication

NEST = Native English Speaker Teachers

NNEST = Non-Native English Speaker Teachers

NS = Native Speakers (of English)

Definition of Research Terms

Foreign EFL teacher = a non-Japanese teacher who teaches English as a foreign language

limited-term contract (also known as fixed-term contact, sometimes non-hyphenated) = a contract that is limited in length, usually one year, and has a maximum total term, usually five or 10 years

job satisfaction = "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1304).

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

When I started this research project, I was employed on a full-time limited-term contract as an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher in a large private university in western Japan. This research grew out of recurring discussions in the teachers' room at my workplace. In between strengthening cups of coffee and sharing of lesson ideas, the topic of employment contracts and working conditions kept coming up. All full-time limited-term language teachers shared a large office space, and naturally, we exchanged ideas about how to build long-term careers. At this particular university, we were limited to a maximum of four renewals to our one-year contract totalling five years. Most universities in Japan offered a maximum of between three and five years at that time (see 2.4 Forms of employment at Japanese universities for more details). As a group, we discussed the advantages and drawbacks of the various full-time limited-term contracts and part-time job offers that were advertised by universities in the region. It became clear to me that people had different preferences and perspectives on their desired employment contracts and how they saw themselves as teachers. The discussion intensified around 2013 with the introduction of a new labour law in Japan (see 2.4.2 Employment reforms), as teachers tried to understand the implications of the changes and navigate 'the system'. Like most of my colleagues, I had transitioned from being a part-time lecturer to full-time limited-term lecturer and was considering my next steps whilst beginning my part-time doctoral studies. I wanted to gain a better understanding of how teachers perceived themselves and what motivated them in their work, as I contemplated my own path through the evolving work landscape.

Based on discussions with my colleagues at work and various teaching conferences, it seemed like there was a wide variety in how different teachers perceived themselves and their roles in the workplace. Their teacher identity appeared to be linked to their desired career path in EFL and what type of employment contracts they aimed for. As part of my own career development, I enrolled in a Doctor of Education (EdD) program at the University of Exeter, allowing me to investigate my own professional practice, acquire valuable research skills, and deepen my understanding of the field I work in. During the

coursework stage of my EdD studies, I conducted two small-scale research projects on professional identity and teacher job satisfaction among limited-term English teachers in higher education in Japan. In the first study, I examined professional identity among limited-term contract university EFL teachers in Japan (Fuisting, 2017). From this study, I drew four main conclusions:

> There are conflicts between teachers' own definition of a good teacher and their role as a contracted teacher; there is a disconnect between how valued teachers feel and how committed they are to the teaching profession; there are differences between how Japanese teachers and non-Japanese teachers perceive that their professional identity has changed since becoming full-time contracted teachers; and limited-term teachers desire more job security (p. 44).

In a follow-up study, I explored teacher job satisfaction among EFL teachers in higher education in Japan (Fuisting, 2018). I aimed to identify the factors influencing full-time limited-term teachers' job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, as well as the changes they would like to see implemented to increase job satisfaction and reduce job dissatisfaction. The study revealed several factors affecting teacher job satisfaction, including salary, student attitudes, good working relationships, autonomy in teaching, institutional support, working hours, and job security (Fuisting, 2018). It also concluded that limited-term contracts were the main factor teachers wanted to change to enhance job satisfaction and reduce dissatisfaction. When it came time to start my dissertation research, I decided to expand on these ideas and investigate how both part-time and full-time contracted English teachers perceived themselves as professionals and what factors influenced their job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. I also opted to include a larger sample from two different institutions, employing an expanded research instrument and individual interviews instead of focus groups (for more details see Chapter 4 Methodology).

1.2 Rationale

Teacher professional identity and teacher job satisfaction are two research fields that have been increasingly explored in recent years (Van Lankveld, et al., 2017; Morris 2021). However, the impact of limited-term contracts on both part-time and full-time EFL teachers in Japanese higher education has not been thoroughly studied despite the fact that reforms affecting teachers' working conditions can have an impact on their job satisfaction and professional identity (Day, 2002). This study is important for two reasons: a) it allows me to reflect on my own work situation and career path, discovering what is essential for my own professional identity and job satisfaction; and b) the changes in employment law have affected how colleagues interact with each other and how teachers approach collaborations and professional development, making it crucial to examine how these changes have impacted the professional identity and job satisfaction of other teachers.

1.3 Research aim and research questions

To investigate the evolving situation, I examined two interconnected aspects of professionalism within the higher education EFL teaching profession in Japan: teacher professional identity and teacher job satisfaction. My research question was: How do changes in employment laws/climate impact teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction among non-tenured EFL teachers in higher education in Japan?

There were three subareas of interest.

1) How do non-Japanese EFL teachers employed part-time or on full-time limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan perceive themselves as EFL teachers?
2) What factors influence teacher job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction in these groups of teachers?
3) Are there differences in factors that influence teacher job satisfaction compared to those that influence teacher job dissatisfaction?

1.4 Significance

This study provides a significant opportunity to enhance the understanding of the multifaceted nature of EFL teachers' professional identity and job satisfaction. It offers insights into how teachers perceive themselves as EFL teachers, their roles, and the aspects of their work that contribute to increased job satisfaction and reduced job dissatisfaction. As Japan aims to adopt a more international outlook and establish a global education system, English teachers will play a crucial role. However, foreign English teachers have faced marginalisation (Arudou, 2007; Brotherhood, et al., 2020), and their professional identity has not been well understood in the changing landscape of higher education (Whitsed & Wright, 2011). Furthermore, Japanese society as a whole is anticipated to undergo exceedingly drastic changes due to a shrinking and aging population (Onday, 2019), which impact the educational sector as well as other industries as workers become more scarce. Simultaneously, the labour market has undergone substantial changes, with wide-ranging effects on the social structure of the country (Esteban-Pretel & Fujimoto, 2022), including being cited as a reason for the falling birthrate and socially divided society (Shirahase, 2015). Therefore, it is important to understand how individuals perceive their professional role and what contributes to their workplace satisfaction, whether they are teachers or professionals in other fields. By exploring the professional identities, job satisfaction, and attitudes towards limited-term contracts among a group of foreign EFL teachers, this study may offer insights not only into the work situation of EFL teachers but also into other professionals in Japan.

1.5 Overview/Organization of thesis

This dissertation is organised into seven chapters. The first chapter serves as an introduction to the study, providing readers with information about the project's origins, the rationale behind it, the research objectives, and questions and the project's significance. Chapter 2 discusses the contextual background, including work in Japan, Japan's higher education system, different types of employment in higher education, and recent employment reforms. Chapter 3 outlines the relevant literature for this study, focusing on teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction and explains how this study contributes to the existing

research in the field. The methodology used to conduct the study is described in Chapter 4, including details on the research instruments, participants, data analysis methods, and any limitations. Chapter 5 presents the findings from both the questionnaire and the interviews. Chapter 6 discusses the results. The final chapter deliberates the implications, results, and conclusions drawn from the study. At the end of the thesis, there is a list of cited references, and the appendices contain additional material corresponding to the chapters.

CHAPTER 2: CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the reader with relevant information about the context and background of the study. The first section gives a broad overview of work in Japan, followed by an outline of the higher education system in Japan. The final section discusses the forms of employment at Japanese universities, the working conditions for part-time and limited-term teachers, as well as the recent employment reforms that have taken place.

2.2 Work in Japan

Work in Japan has long been characterised by lifetime employment, with a seniority-based promotion and reward system that has created a workforce of dedicated salarymen[1] who primarily identify with their company (Harumi, 1993). This dedication to one's employer is credited as one of the factors that contributed to Japan's economic recovery after the end of World War II, leading the country to reach the second position in terms of overall GDP ranking, before being surpassed by China in 2010 (The Guardian, 2010). Since 1950, the unemployment rate has consistently remained very low, surpassing 5% only twice in 2002 (5.4%) and 2009 (5.1%) (Genda, 2015). The majority of the workforce was employed on a permanent basis, receiving a fixed salary with additional benefits such as family allowances, housing allowance, pension benefits, and bonuses (Tanaka, 1981). Most workers remained with the same company throughout their entire career but could be transferred to various departments and subsidiaries to develop a broad range of managerial skills (Hisamoto, 2008; Tebiki, 2021). The university education system supported this employment system (Matanle & Matsui, 2011), and as this study focuses on teachers employed in higher education, I will first describe the higher education system in Japan.

[1] Defined by Cambridge dictionary as "a Japanese businessman who works very long hours every day" (Cambridge dictionary, n.d)

2.3 Higher Education system in Japan

The Japanese education system consists of six years of primary school, followed by three years of lower secondary school and three years of upper secondary school. For higher education, Japan has a mixture of government-run institutions at the state, prefecture, and municipality levels, as well as privately-run universities. Universities are generally divided into either two-year junior colleges and community colleges that offer degrees for students who wish to work in a trade such as nursing, early childhood education, and the agriculture field, or four-year degrees that mainly prepare students for white-collar professions (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology [MEXT], 2016). Some medical and science degrees may have different lengths. Please refer to Figure 1 for an overview of the entire school system.

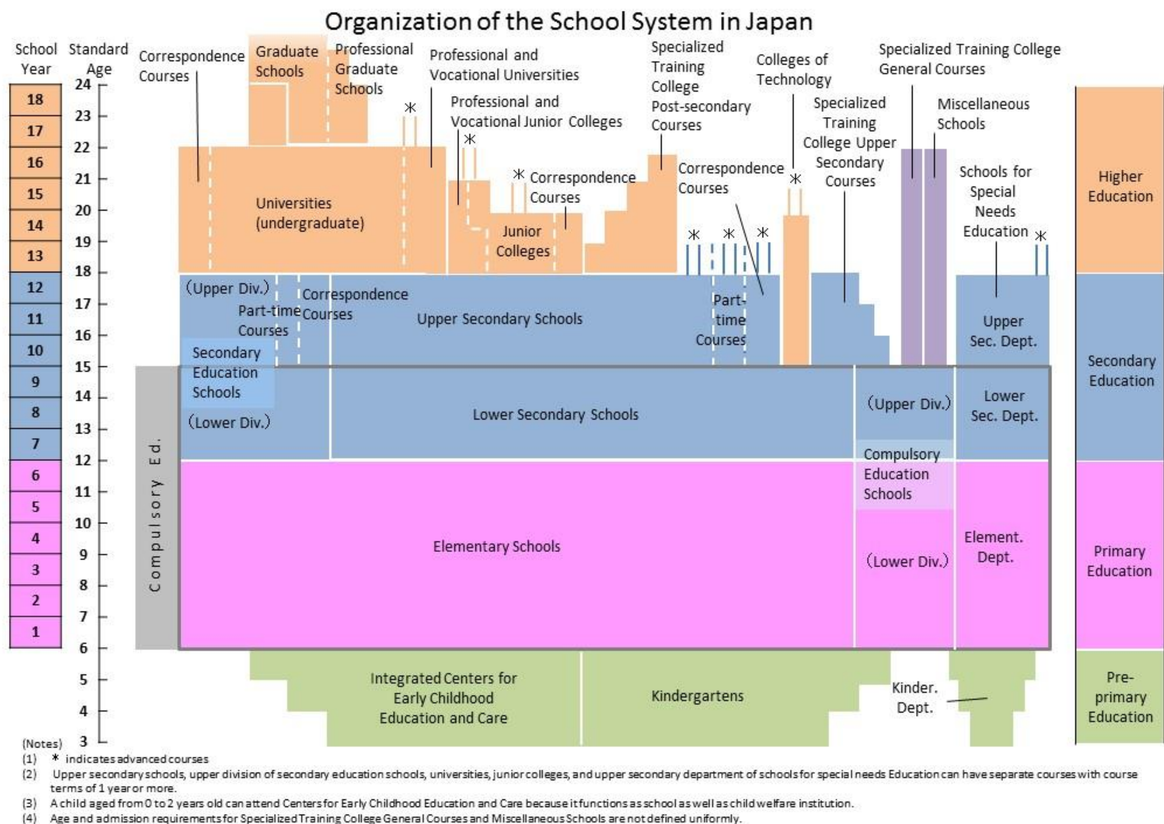

Figure 1 Organization of the School System in Japan

(MEXT: Overview, n.d.)

The number of national, prefectural, and municipality [local] and private universities has varied over the years (Figure 2). In 1991, the Japanese higher education system was deregulated, resulting in a drastic increase in the number

of private universities, which in 2022 amounted to 620 out of 807 and accounted for 74.1% of all university students in Japan (Statista, n.d.). However, since the economic boom years in the 1990s, the Japanese economy has experienced 20 years of stagnation and gradually been affected by an ageing society. The college-age population has decreased from 2 million in 1990 to 1.15 million in 2022 and is predicted to fall below 1 million in 2031 (Ministry of Internal Affairs, 2022).

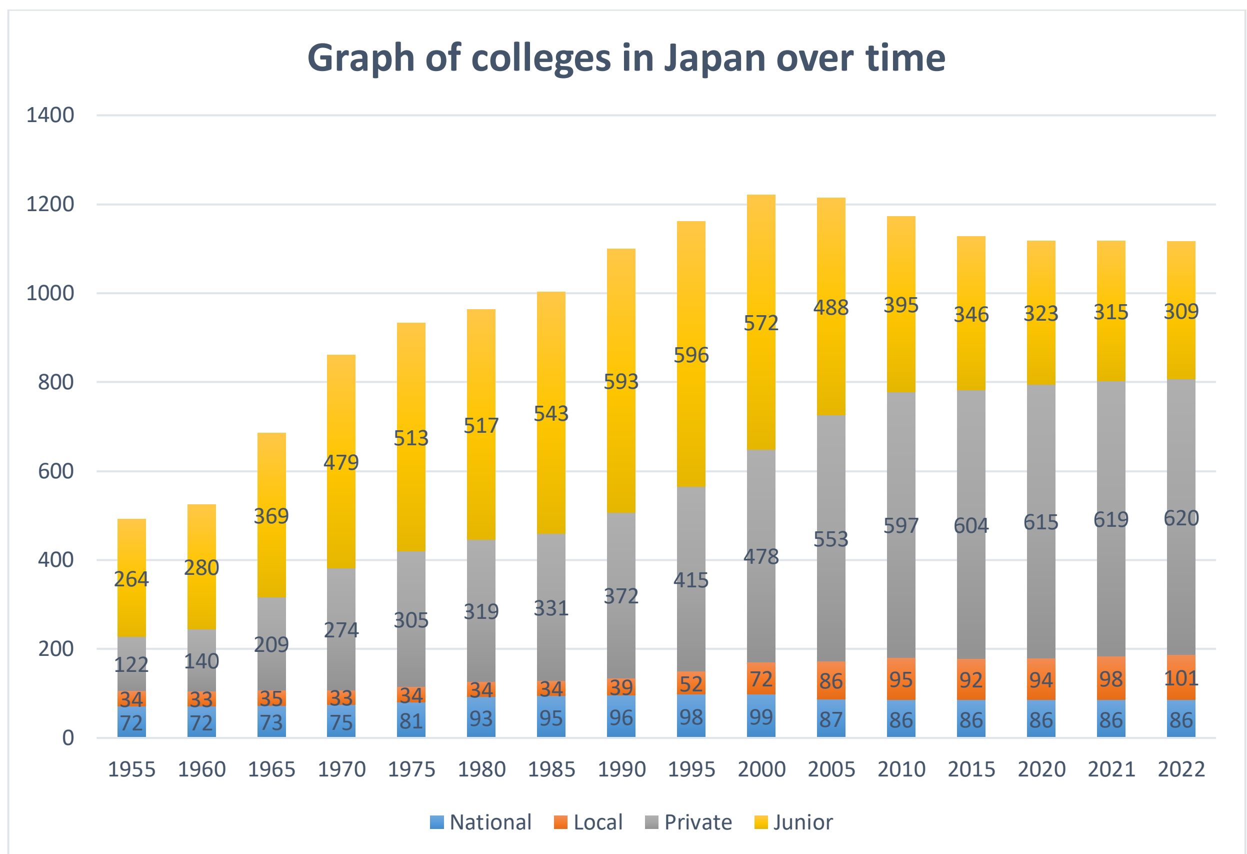

Figure 2 Numbers of Colleges in Japan Over Time (1955-2022)

Note. Data from Ministry of Education, Culture, Spots, Science and Technology

The declining number of college-age students (Figure 3), coupled with a consistent percentage of approximately 50% of young people aspiring to enter higher education, has resulted in colleges and universities facing a shortage of applicants. In fact, already in 2015, 40% of private institutions reported failing to meet their student quotas (The Japan Times, 2016). To compensate for the lack of domestic students, universities and colleges have attempted to attract foreign students. However, most of the recent increase in international students studying in Japan are actually enrolled in language schools rather than higher

education. From 2013 to 2018, the number of foreign students enrolled in universities, junior colleges, or technical colleges increased from 69,339 to only 87,806, while the number of foreign students enrolled in graduate schools increased from just below 40,000 to 50,184 in the same period (Tanaka, 2019). During the Covid-19 pandemic, Japan closed its borders to all foreign non-residents, resulting in a sharp decline in the number of international students, which had not yet recovered to pre-pandemic levels as of 2022 (Sato, 2022). The shrinking pool of potential domestic students and the failure to attract enough foreign students to replace them are predicted to result in consolidations among private higher education institutions (Inaba, 2020).

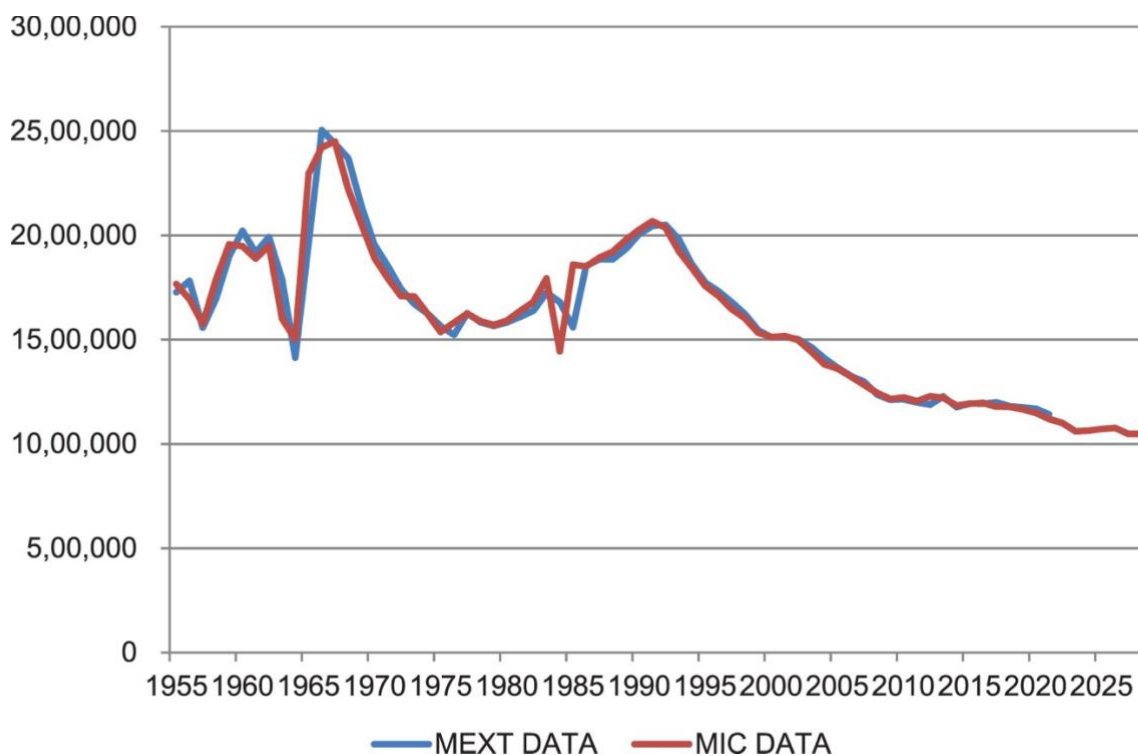

Figure 3 Population of 18-Year-Old Youths in Japan (1955–2028)

Graph from Yonezawa, 2020.

MEXT = Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology;

MIC = Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication.

Note. The data from 2021 to 2028 are based on expected numbers.

2.4 Forms of employment at Japanese universities

Faced with a predicted decline in student numbers (Ministry of Internal Affairs, 2022), Japanese higher education institutions have been cautious about expanding their number of staff and teachers employed on a permanent basis.

To avoid exposure to the high cost of employing them, both private and public institutions have introduced a larger number of limited-term contracts for teachers as well as staff (Japan Press Weekly, 2013). For university teachers, the most common forms of employment are part-time, full-time limited-term contract, and tenured positions.

2.4.1 Working conditions

This section details the working conditions for part-time EFL teachers and full-time limited-term contract EFL teachers working at Japanese universities. Working conditions for both of these types of teachers vary from institution to institution. Most universities have a 15-week semester with 90-minute classes, but some universities have a 14-week semester with 100-minute classes. A few institutions have started using the quarter system with seven to eight weeks per quarter and two quarters per semester. Part-time teachers are paid a set amount per month, per class (*koma* in Japanese) they teach. If the class is a semester-long course, the teachers get paid for six months. For year-long courses the teachers get paid 12 months' salary. The pay per class can vary as much as between 20,000 to 40,000 yen but is generally around 30,000 yen (Harrison, 2017). For example, Waseda University (a well-known private university in Tokyo) advertised work for part-time lecturer in Academic English Writing with a per class pay of 34,140 yen for age 49 and below and 36,490 yen for age 50 and above (Waseda, 2022), whilst Wayo Women's University (a private university in Chiba, west of Tokyo) advertised for part-time English teachers to teach English communication classes for a per class rate of 28,400 yen to 31,600 yen depending on "previous year's results/achievements" (JRECIN, 2024, February 1, p 1). Ritsumeikan University (a large private university in the Kansai region) advertised for an adjunct lecturer with a pay of 29,200 yen per month to teach Introduction to Religion (JRECIN, 2024 January 31). EFL teachers are sometimes employed by the university's language centre, the Waseda University and Wayo Women's University jobs above were via the institution's language center, but teachers can also be directly hired by a specific faculty, as in the case of the Ritsumeikan University position. The types of classes can also vary widely, from compulsory skills-focused English language classes or English for academic purposes, to content-based classes using English as the medium of instruction. Aside from teaching classes,

grading, giving feedback, and meeting students when necessary, part-time teachers normally have no other duties. They typically get paid for their commuting cost (within a maximum distance/cost) but usually no other benefits and do not have access to any research funds or expense account. To make a liveable salary, teachers who only work part-time generally teach between 10 and 20 classes per week. Since most universities restrict how many part-time classes they will give to the same teacher, it means that part-time teachers often work for several institutions. In the case of Waseda University, they restrict part-time teachers to a maximum of eight classes (Waseda, 2022). A typical part-time English teacher might therefore have a workweek consisting of 15 classes, spread over five days at two to four different institutions and make a yearly salary (before tax and health care deductions) of 5,760,000 yen. Prior to 2013, most part-time teachers had one-year contracts that could be renewed indefinitely, with a mandatory retirement age ranging from age 65 to 75 (Nakajima, 2013).

Teachers working on limited-term full-time contracts have somewhat better working conditions compared to part-time teachers, but there is also a wide range of terms and benefits. Yearly salaries can range between 4,200,000 yen to upwards of 7,000,000 yen, and the teaching load can be from eight classes per week to up to 12 classes per week. On the lower end of the spectrum was a recent contract for Practical English Instructor which asked teachers to teach 12 classes per week for a yearly salary of 4,200,000 yen (Kyoto Sangyo University, 2016). The above contract is for four years, with two possible renewals of three years each, for a total of 10 years (Kyoto Sangyo University, 2016). However, it should be noted that since the job doesn't include any research allowance, the fact that the university has elected to apply the 10-year rule (see 2.4.2 Employment reforms) has been disputed as being against the labour contract law (General Union, 2022). The above full-time contract includes payment for commuting cost as well as Private School Mutual Aid System, Employment Insurance, and Workers' Compensation Insurance. Contribution to health care payments, Employment Insurance, Workers' Compensation Insurance, and covering the commuting cost is common for all full-time teaching contracts at Japanese universities. There are a few high-paying contracts positions with a yearly salary up to 7,000,000 yen (JRECIN, 2024, February 19), plus individual

research allowances of 500,000 yen as well as housing and family allowances (Sugiyama Jogakuen University, 2023). Such jobs tend to have additional administrative duties, such as attending department meetings, coordinating part-time teachers, creating teaching materials, taking part in open campus activities, teaching summer courses, etc., in addition to a teaching load of 8 to 12 classes per week. However, most full-time limited-term contracts pay between 5,000,000 and 6,000,000 yen annually with a teaching load of 10 classes per week (e.g., JRECIN, 2024, January 30a; Kwansei Gakuin University, 2022). They tend to have a limit of five years total, but some contracts that include an individual research allowance can be renewed up to 10 years. None of the job ads specify what is required for renewal of their one-year contracts or those that have other lengths such as 4+3+3. Almost all university teaching jobs, with the exception of lower paying Practical English Instructor job (Kyoto Sangyo University, 2016), require a master's degree in a relevant field and teaching experience at university level. The job advertisements generally ask applicants to submit a list of publications but do not list it as a requirement. Some jobs specifically ask for native English speakers (Kwansei Gakuin University, 2022), but most job ads ask applicants to have "Native/Near-native competency in English" (e.g., JRECIN, 2024, February 19, p. 2) or similar. Japanese English teachers' working conditions at university level are very similar to that of foreign English teachers in regard to pay and number of hours worked. In order to comply with anti-discrimination rules, job advertisements are not allowed to state what nationality is preferred, but in job advertisements for teachers of Japanese language classes, which are more likely to be filled by a Japanese national, the conditions advertised by the same university are identical (e.g., JRECIN, 2024, January 30a; JRECIN, 2024, January 30b).

Before 2013, many institutions encouraged their part-time teachers to apply for available full-time contracts at their institutions and did not count the years worked on a part-time basis towards any term limits for the full-time contract. In higher education, more than 50% of staff, teachers, and researchers were employed on contracts in 2013 (Japan Press Weekly, 2013). The trend towards a reduction in lifetime employment and introducing more flexible employment forms is not limited to the education sector. In the overall job market, 81.6% of

workers had regular employment in the years 1984-96, but after the deregulation of the labour market, the rate of regular employees decreased to 66.2% in the period 2008-18 (Esteban-Pretel & Fujimoto, 2020).

2.4.2 Employment reforms

On April 1, 2013, Japan amended its Labor Contracts Act. These amendments were originally aimed at improving employment conditions for contracted workers by mandating employers to offer permanent employment, without a reduction in working or payment conditions, to workers, both part-time and full-time, on limited-term contracts after five years. The changes in the labour law were meant to offer improved job security (The Japan Times, 2018). However, several industry observers have claimed it to have had the opposite effect (North, 2014; Okunuki, 2014; Rivers, 2013). In the year leading up to the implementation of the new Labor Contracts Act, research found that all teaching contracts advertised on the most popular university recruitment site listed maximum employment periods of only three, four, or five years (Rivers, 2013). In 2014, an amendment to the Labor Contracts Act was introduced to increase the limit by which employers needed to offer a permanent contract from five years to ten years "for researchers at universities and research and development corporations, for teachers, etc." (Wood, 2015, p 6). This change was not primarily aimed at university teachers who conducted some research activities in addition to their teaching duties but was meant for people involved full-time in research projects that ran for longer than five years. It has been debated whether limited-term contract university teachers who have a research allowance come under the five-year or 10-year rule (Carlet, 2017). While no court case result has been published yet, labour law lawyers have argued that English teachers who receive research funds and have access to a research centre at their institution can be seen as 'researchers' regardless of their work title. However, part-time teachers without access to research funds would not be seen as 'researchers' and thus not fall under the 10-year rule (Teachinginjapan, 2020; Tozen News, 2020). Teachers who had a two-year contract renewed twice for a total of six years working time have, with the help of union representation, applied for permanent status, but the outcome of such cases has not been published (Tokairin, 2021). Furthermore, as the 10-year limit approached in March 2023, several lawsuits by researchers were reported,

but the outcome of these cases has not yet been reported in the press, possibly due to non-disclosure agreements (Kakuchi, 2022). In addition, after the new labour law was introduced, some universities started to limit newly hired part-time teachers to a maximum of five years. This has been criticized by the Ministry of Education which states that terminating part-time workers' contracts after five years is "against the purpose of the Labor Contract Act" and sent a notice to all national universities regarding this issue (Japan Press Weekly, 2017, p. 1).

After a period of uncertainty, which still partly remains, most universities offered their existing part-time teachers the opportunity to apply for permanent status under the same working conditions they had, i.e., they became permanent part-time teachers without a limit on how many years they could stay (General Union, 2015). The transition period was far from smooth, and at one stage, Tokyo University threatened to fire all its part-time workforce of more than 8,000 teachers (General Union, 2017). There have been many cases of conflict involving both teachers and staff regarding how the new rules should be applied to work contracts that commenced prior to the 2013 Labor Contracts Act amendment, and worker's unions have tried to negotiate reversals of terminations (General Union, 2018). As of 2023, in at least one case involving a part-time university language teacher, the court found it illegal to refuse a request for a permanent contract when the final appeal by Senshu University was rejected by the Supreme Court (General Union, 2023). For a more exhaustive list of the various cases reported within the education industry in Japan, see Fuisting (2019).

2.5 Summary

In the first two chapters, I have given a brief overview of the work situation in Japan and some of the changes that it has been going through. Those changes combined with the shrinking pool of potential university students has led to university employees working under more uncertain conditions, especially as the new five-year and 10-year contract limits were being implemented after 2013. As this became apparent in my interaction with colleges and the wider teacher community in Japan, I saw the need to research the effects this might have on teachers both in terms of their job satisfaction and also their

professional identity, and thus decided to investigate “How are the changes in employment laws/climate affecting teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction among non-tenured EFL teachers in higher education in Japan?”

The next chapter, the literature review, will build on this foundation by examining existing research on teacher identity and job satisfaction. This will help identify gaps in the literature and provide a theoretical framework for the study, linking the contextual challenges discussed here with the specific experiences and perceptions of EFL teachers in Japanese higher education.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

In this literature review I utilised a narrative approach with the intent of providing an overview of the two areas studied (Baumeister & Leary, 1997). After describing the procedure of the literature review, the initial section offers a succinct overview of the existing literature's conceptualizations of teacher identity and provides background information on the professional identity of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers. Furthermore, it examines relevant studies that have examined the professional identity of university teachers in Japan. The subsequent part concentrates on teacher job satisfaction. This section begins with a comprehensive overview of job satisfaction in general, subsequently narrowing its focus to teacher job satisfaction in academia. It then specifically addresses the job satisfaction of EFL teachers, with a particular emphasis on foreign EFL teachers working in higher education, including those in Japan. Finally, a summary of the studies conducted on EFL teacher job satisfaction in higher education is presented.

3.2 Procedure

To begin the literature review, I conducted a basic search on the topic of teacher identity and job satisfaction. This initial step allowed me to develop a more focused search strategy and ensured that I captured relevant studies and books. I then explored academic databases, such as British Education Index, Education Research Complete, ERIC, JSTOR, and Google Scholar as well as relevant journals and books. I worked from a broad spectrum to a narrower one. For example, starting with the broader concept on teacher professional identity and then narrowing in on teacher identity of EFL teachers in higher education in Japan. Likewise with job satisfaction, I focused first on general job satisfaction and then gradually narrowed in on job satisfaction in academia and then on job satisfaction of EFL teachers in higher education. Once the initial selection was made, I engaged in the process of thorough reading and critical analyses. I did citation chasing where I followed the cited works in one research paper to discover other research papers that might be of interest to my area. I also read general research articles about education and higher education in Japan to see what relevance they might have for my more specific areas. Throughout the

literature review process, I remained aware of potential biases and limitations in the selected studies. In the cases where I have limited what kind of studies to include in my literature review, I have stated and explained the reasons for such choices (see sections 3.3.1 and 3.4.2). The literature review process provided me with a solid foundation for my research, allowing me to identify gaps, build on previous knowledge, and to contribute to the field through my research endeavours.

3.3 Teacher professional identity

Teachers' professional identity has been an area of increased interest in educational research in recent years (Hökkä et al., 2017). There are many ways to look at identity, and different research fields define the term differently (Nall, 2021). In disciplines like psychology, sociology, anthropology, education, and applied linguistics, researchers hold distinct ideologies, epistemologies, ontologies, and metaphysical beliefs regarding identity. Consequently, each field tends to advocate for nuanced variations in their understandings of identity. There is a lack of an established and agreed upon definition of teacher identity, but various definitions have been proposed. Day and Kington (2008) investigated the teacher identity of 295 primary and secondary teachers in England. They argue that teachers' identity is made up of three interconnected dimensions: professional identity, personal identity, and situated identity (Figure 4).

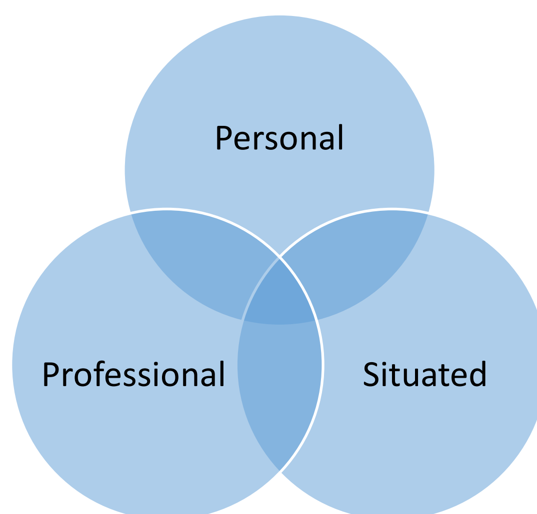

Figure 4 Three Dimensions of Teacher Identity
(Adapted from Day & Kington, 2008).

Professional identity is linked to the regulations of an educational institution and the societal norms that define “a good teacher” (Day & Kington, 2008, p. 11). Situated identity is how a teacher sees themselves within their current work environment, influenced by their students or colleagues. Personal identity, on the other hand, is the teacher's identity beyond their school, often tied to roles like being a parent or partner. Day and Kington (2008) concluded that

> teacher identities are neither intrinsically stable nor intrinsically fragmented, but that they can be more, or less, stable and more or less fragmented at different times and in different ways according to the influence of the interaction of a number of personal, professional and situated factors. (p.7)

The notion of teacher identity being fragmented, changing, and affected by personal and surrounding circumstances are recurring themes in the literature. Burke and Stets (2009) discussed three dimensions of identity; person identity, role identity and social identity as the bases of a person’s identity. Beijaard et al. (2004), in a study that reviewed research on teacher identity, identified four crucial aspects of professional identity for teachers: 1) professional identity is a continuous process, 2) it is influenced by both personal and contextual factors, 3) it is composed of various sub-identities, and 4) it involves active professional development or agency. Although these researchers did not label these aspects as a definition, they viewed them as crucial components of teachers’ professional identity. Following the theme of teachers having multiple identities, Swennen et al. (2010) investigated what kind of sub-identities teachers might have and transform into depending on the educational setting. Swennen et al. (2010) identified four sub-identities that teacher educators rely on as they construct or adapt to their professional identities: schoolteacher (or first-order teacher), teacher of teachers (second-order teacher), teacher in a higher education setting (university educator), and researcher. It is generally accepted that developing and transforming these sub-identities is an essential component of teacher educators’ professional growth. However, despite this recognition, the researchers concluded that the field has a “limited understanding of the professional development of teacher educators” (p. 145). When comparing teacher identity studies with participants from two of the four subgroups, schoolteachers and higher education teachers, it is clear that they have several distinguishing features.

Similar to Swennen et al.'s (2010) thinking that teachers' identities are formed by the education level they are teaching in, Scotland (2014) investigated whether the geographical context also had an impact. Scotland (2014) examined the teacher identities of teachers in non-Western education systems and proposed three essential factors that shape professional identity: "institutional and personal environments, individual agency, and discourse communities" (p. 34). He concluded, "teachers' identities may be formed, informed, and transformed by the global educational contact zones in which they work" (p. 42). So, while there is not an agreed definition of teacher professional identity, researchers do agree that it is a continuous process, there are various sub-identities, and there is research to support that the institutional level a teacher is teaching at and the geographical context they are teaching in influences the formation of teacher professional identity.

3.3.1 Language Teacher Professional Identity

Language teachers are by definition teachers, but it has been argued that they have distinctive characteristics from other teachers (Borg, 2006). Borg's 2006 study collected data from a wide variety of individuals in different contexts when trying to isolate the distinctive characteristics that set language teachers apart from other teachers. He listed 11 different themes, ranging from the nature of the subject and the content of the teaching to non-native issues and the attitude towards errors by learners, and how they set language teachers apart from other teachers (Table 1).

Table 1

Summary of Distinctive Characteristics of Language Teachers

Theme	Distinctiveness
The nature of the subject	Language is more dynamic than other subjects and has more practical relevance to real life.
The content of teaching	Unique in scope and complexity. Teaching a language extends beyond teaching grammar, vocabulary, and the four skills and includes a wide range of other issues such as culture, communication skills, and learning skills.
Methodology	The methodology of language teaching is more diverse, and it is aimed at creating contexts for communication and maximizing student involvement.
Teacher–learner relationships	In language teaching, there is more communication between teacher and learners and more scope for learners to work on themes which are of personal relevance.
Non-native issues	In language teaching, teachers and learners operate through a language other than their mother tongue. Teachers are also compared to native speakers of the language.
Teachers' characteristics	For language teachers, characteristics such as creativity, flexibility, and enthusiasm are essential.
Training	A wide diversity of recognized language teaching qualifications exists, some as short as four weeks in duration.
Status	Language and language teachers are often awarded lower status than subjects and teachers of other languages [subjects].
Errors	Incorrect output by language learners is more acceptable than in other subjects.
Student body	Many more adults study languages than other subjects.
Commercialization	Language teaching is driven by commercial forces more than other subjects.

(Borg, 2006, p. 24)

The list doesn't provide a definition of language teacher identity, but it indicates that teaching a language is not the same as teaching other subjects; thus, language teachers are, in some respects, different from other teachers, whilst also sharing common traits of non-language teachers.

In regard to studies on the identity of TESOL teachers, historically three main themes were identified by Xu's (2014) review of the literature. The first theme discusses how teachers' linguistic backgrounds influence their professional identities. Research indicates that the dichotomy between native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) has led NNESTs to feel inferior and question their legitimacy as language educators (Park, 2012; Jenkins, 2005; Pavlenko, 2003). The second theme explores tensions arising from conflicts between teachers' social and professional identities, suggesting that factors such as race, gender, and ethnicity can compromise their professional identity (Varghese et al., 2005; Motha, 2006). The third theme examines how teacher professional identity is shaped by educational reforms (Tsui, 2007; Liu & Xu, 2011). These studies highlight the importance of teachers adapting their identity to meet the demands of evolving pedagogies in professional settings (Xu, 2014). However, the focus on language teacher identities has evolved significantly over time, especially after 2010 (Kayi-Aydar, 2019). Various aspects of language teacher identity have been studied, such as the following: formation (He, & Lin, 2013; Tsui, 2007), development (Karimi & Mofidi, 2019; Yuan & Burns, 2016), and emotions/emotional labour (Gkonou & Miller, 2021; Ordoño, 2023; Song, 2016; Wolff & DeCosta, 2017). Language teacher identity continues to be a growing research area but remains difficult to define in a simple manner (Yazan & Lindahl, 2020). In an attempt to give a definition of language teacher identity, Barkhuizen (2017) listed an extensive and overarching definition:

> Language teacher identities (LTIs) are cognitive, social, emotional, ideological, and historical—they are both inside the teacher and outside in the social material and technological world. LTIs are being and doing, feeling and imagining, and storying. They are struggle and harmony: they are contested and resisted, by self and others, and they are also accepted, acknowledged and valued, by self and others. They are core and peripheral, personal and professional, they are dynamic, multiple, and hybrid, and they are foregrounded and backgrounded. And LTIs change, short-term and over time—discursively in social interaction with teacher educators, learners, teachers, administrators, and the wider

community, and in material interaction with spaces, places and objects in classrooms, institutions, and online. (p. 4)

It is a very broad definition that might seem conflicting at times. A simpler definition is proposed by White (2017) that “language teacher identities were multiple and often conflictual” and “linked to settings and practices related to particular sociocultural contexts” (p. 110). This supports Beijaard et al. (2004) and Swennen et al. (2010) findings that teacher identities (teachers in general, not specifically language teachers) have sub-identities, as well as Scotland’s (2014) assertion that the geographical context influences teacher identity. Following Scotland’s (2014) reasoning about the global context, White’s (2017) reasoning about sociocultural context influence and Swennen et al.’s (2010) division of teacher identity into four subcategories, I will focus on exploring the professional identity of EFL teachers at the university level in Japan. In other words, I am exploring the sub-identity of teacher in a higher education setting (university educator) that are teaching in the global educational contact zone of Japan.

3.3.2 Professional Identity in higher education in Japan

Research on the professional identity of higher education teachers in Japan is scarce (Fraser, 2011; Moritani, 2018; Nagatomo, 2012; Nall, 2021), and there is even less research on how the new employment regulations established by the Japanese government affect the professional identity of teachers who work on limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan. However, there has been a limited but growing number of published academic studies on teachers’ professional identity in higher education in Japan.

I have identified five studies. In a study preceding this research (Fuisting, 2017) I had included two more studies (Simon-Maeda, 2004; Stewart, 2005), but I have excluded them from this overview since that research was conducted some time prior to the new labour laws were being discussed, and the employment categories were quite different. I will summarise each of the five studies and the findings they presented in relation to teacher identity. Afterward, I will point out possible issues with the research to date and what my research might add to the field. An overview of the five studies is provided in Table 2.

Table 2

Studies into Professional Identity of University English Teachers in Japan

Author, year	Participants	Method	Theoretical model	Focus (within PI)
Fraser, 2011	5 FFTE 3 MFTE 5 FJTE 1 MJTE	Interviews	Symbolic interactionism	Professional development
Nagatomo, 2011	15 FJTE 16 MJTE	Survey (3 questions)	Not specified	Teacher practices
Nagatomo, 2012	7 FJTE 1 MJTE	Interviews	Identity theory	Gender
Cowie & Sakui, 2012	2 MFTE 1 FJTE	Interviews	Narrative analysis	Student motivation
Moritani & Iwai, 2019	8 FJTE 4 MJTE	Interviews	Language teacher cognition	Role identities

FFTE = female foreign teacher of English MFTE = male foreign teacher of English
FJTE = female Japanese teacher of English MJTE = male Japanese teacher of English

Fraser (2011) looked at the nature and process of professional identity of teachers of English in Japanese higher education. The study had 14 participants: six Japanese and eight foreigners. Ten of the participants were employed full-time and four part-time. Fraser didn't elaborate on the specific contract that each participant was hired on but states that, in general, foreign full-time teachers are employed on short-term contracts, while Japanese full-time teachers have tenure or tenure track employment. All the teachers in his study were working in the language centre of their university. Teacher observations were conducted in general contexts, not during teaching, such as interaction in the language centre, staff meetings, and research activities. However, the main data collection was in the form of individual interviews. The number of sessions varied amongst participants and ranged from one to four, with an average of just over two. The study found various themes, too many to include all in this summary of the findings, so I will focus on the ones pertinent to my research (see Table 2).

One aspect raised in Fraser's (2011) study was how language teachers were perceived differently from content teachers. The foreign teachers stated that they felt that others believed that "[t]eaching English in Japan is a low-skilled, low-prestige occupation" (p. 115) often linked to language schools. The Japanese English teachers also said that their status was lower than lecturers

of other subjects such as engineering or economics and that “they tended to be regarded as just ‘language’ teachers” (p. 115). This theme is connected to how teachers labelled themselves in the study. As Fraser wrote: “all teachers gave varying descriptions of their occupations: English teacher, English instructor, university English instructor, university teacher, teacher, an educator, TESOL teacher” (p. 117). The foreign teachers rejected terms such as professor and lecturer, instead choosing terms such as “facilitator, supporter, mentor, guide” (p. 117). Four of the Japanese teachers “wanted to identify themselves more as researchers than just teachers, but felt that their current jobs they performed in the language centre did not justify using such a term” (p. 119). Fraser also found that there was another division among the participants based on their nationality. Japanese English teachers and foreign English teachers had different administrative duties: “[r]esponsibilities imposed on full-time foreigner teachers were considerably less than those of the Japanese teachers due to the temporary nature of their employment status” (p. 121). At the same time, foreign teachers were excluded from meetings and discussion of curriculum. As a result, “[a]ll of the foreign teachers interpreted these limitations negatively, considering them discriminatory and unacceptable” (p. 121).

Whilst Fraser’s study mainly dealt with professional identity, he did also touch upon the issue of job satisfaction. He found that “all full-time teachers felt the greatest level of job satisfaction occurred when they were being the teacher in the classroom interacting with the students” (p. 131). However, part-time teachers viewed their situation as “somewhat unfulfilling as there was no chance to connect with students or the workplace” (p. 131). This was stated to be due to a lack in frequent interactions. Part-time teachers are often working only one or two days a week at the same university. A common source of dissatisfaction from the full-time teachers was related to “participation on committees or other obligatory administrative duties” (p. 133). Another issue that was described in negative terms was the sense of a lack of influence on the curriculum development process within the language centre. Since foreign teachers were excluded from some of the meetings discussing such topics, they felt particular dissatisfied with that situation. However, even the Japanese teachers described the curriculum development process as being “out of their control” (p. 136). Fraser (2011) concluded that there is a lack of formal structure

of professional support for teachers of English in Japanese higher education and stated that “teachers defined their own standards, codes of practice and measures of performance as teachers of English” (p. 234).

Nagatomo (2011) conducted a qualitative survey that investigated the identity and teaching practices of Japanese teachers of English in higher education in Japan. She asked the participants three questions: “1) Do you think of yourself as an English language teacher? 2) How did you learn to teach English? and 3) How do you teach a typical class?” (p. 165). She sent the survey to 420 Japanese English teachers and received 31 completed answers. Of the participants, eight were part-time teachers, six were assistant professors, eight were associate professors, and nine were professors. When asked the first question “Do you think of yourself as an English teacher?”, 51.6% strongly or mildly agreed, 25.8% neither agreed or disagreed, and 22.6% mildly disagreed with the statement. Nagatomo (2011) speculated that the people who didn’t agree saw themselves either as researchers or specialists in a different field such as literature; however, she stated “this was not necessarily the case among respondents in this study” (p. 171) without giving any further breakdown of the data. Her second question asked the participants how they learned to teach English. The questionnaire supplied a few example categories: “trial and error”, “observing other teachers” and “attending teaching conferences” (p. 173). Other categories from respondents came from her coding of the answers. “Trial and error” was the most common with 61.3% mentioning it, followed by “from other teachers” (51.6%), “books and journals” (25.8%), “own experiences as a student” (25.8%), “improving own language skills” (25.8%), “attend teacher conferences” (22.6%) and “feedback from students” (19.4%) (p. 174). Finally, she asked how teachers conducted their class and attempted to see whether there were any links to their self-identification as a language teacher. She concluded “there seems to be no real difference in self-identification as a language teacher and the decision to utilize accuracy based or fluency based activities” (p. 178).

Nagatomo also published a book (2012) that explored Japanese university EFL teachers’ professional identity. It is a combination of three studies, some of which shared participants, that looked into how new teachers develop a

professional identity, what the impact of gender is for female English teachers, and how teaching practices and beliefs reflect one teacher's personal and professional identity. She conducted interviews and, in one case, classroom observations with her participants. Seven of the participants were female, one was male, all were Japanese. Two teachers worked part-time, four were assistant professors, and two were associate professors. She found that new teachers' identities were influenced by both their former teachers and their current students. However, conflicts could arise if their image of themselves was in not in alignment with the image of their past teachers or their current students. Furthermore, new teachers' involvement in their own workplace was shaped by what kind of access the teachers had to "the inbound and inner trajectories in the university which they work" (p. 112). This access was usually "dependent upon the individual terms of their employment contracts, which influenced the degrees of participation and non-participation experienced in the workplace (p. 112). Only tenured or tenure track teachers in her study had access to the insider trajectory. Contract teachers did not (no part-time teacher took part in this part of her study). She stated that professional identity through engagement in the workplace is complicated due to the multiple groupings in such workplaces and that the process is influenced by such factors as the size, history, and focus of both the university as a whole and the specific faculty that a teacher works in. In her second study, Nagatomo (2012) focused on the relationship between gender and the professional identity. She "found that the participants' gendered lives have permeated every aspect of their professional identity" (p. 147). She stated that especially female tenured professors, who are a small minority compared to male tenured professors, are treated differently from their male colleagues. They are treated "like a 'princess' or a 'daughter', intended to make her [the female professor] feel at home" (p. 148). However, such so-called kindness can also be seen as discriminatory since it is combined with exclusion from some socialising events and groupings that compete for power at the institution, according to her. Nagatomo (2012) added that part-time female English university teachers do not experience the same sort of gender isolation in the workplace due to their positions not being of as high statute and that there are more Japanese female part-time English teachers. However, some of these teachers, especially those with PhDs, might think that their careers have reached a dead-end if they are not able to find a tenured position,

according to her. In the final study included in her book, Nagatomo (2012) looked at how the identity of one teacher influenced her teaching practice. This study included classroom observation and interviews. The study only had one participant. She concluded that in this participant's case, there was a conflict with the teacher's identity as a literature specialist and her developing identity as a language teacher. The teacher's teaching beliefs were also in conflict with the students' expectations of what their teacher should teach them, with the teacher believing that language and culture are more important, but the students wanting to learn practical English skills.

Cowie and Sakui (2012) examined language teacher identity and student motivation. They interviewed three teachers from a larger sample in a previous study (Cowie & Sakui, 2011). Their three participants, two Western male teachers and one Japanese female teacher, all had different identities and also included something they are not in their description of themselves. For example, one of the participants, David (names are pseudonyms used by the researchers), a full-time university teacher, stated "I don't really identify as a language teacher, I identify as a culture teacher" (Cowie & Sakui, 2012, p. 134). Part of his identity was also the fact that he was a native speaker of English and not a good language learner. This created a divide between him and his more proficient students. Another participant, Alan, a part-time university teacher and cram school instructor, identified as a co-learner. He used his own experience as a Japanese learner as a way to bridge the gap between teacher and students. Whilst being a native English speaker originally from America, Alan "has an identity, not as an American, but as an international or multi-cultural person (p. 137). The final participant, Noriko, a part-time university teacher and part-time high school teacher, "has a strong identity as a Japanese teacher rather than a Western one" (p. 140). She saw herself as leader-learner, or "sort of a role model" (p.141). They concluded that the teachers' identity is linked to their pedagogical patterns and practices.

Moritani and Iwai (2019) investigated how Japanese EFL university teachers understand their reaching roles. They conducted in-depth interviews with twelve Japanese teachers of English at Japanese universities. The participants included nine full-time teachers and three part-time teachers teaching at a mix

of private and national/public universities. The participants were asked what their most important role(s) was(were). The two most commonly stated role categories were facilitator (50%) (Note, in the text the researchers report it as 41.6%, but the appendix shows it being given as the answer by six out of the twelve participants) and motivator 41.7% (incorrectly rounded down to 41.6%). Several participants listed one or two additional roles, such as language model or English expert. One participant mentioned both facilitator and motivator, but only two participants did not mention either facilitator or motivator as part of their most important teaching role. Both of those participants were full-time teachers with an academic background in literature rather than in TESOL. From their study, they concluded that "five critical influences [on role identities] emerged: (a) classroom experiences as a learner, (b) professional development, (c) contextual factors, (d) classroom experiences as a teacher, and (e) teacher–internal factors" (p. 50).

The five studies above add to the understanding of professional identity of English teachers working in higher education in Japan. However, I believe that this area still requires further exploring. The studies by Nagatomo (2011, 2012) and Moritani and Iwai (2019) only include Japanese EFL teachers, but almost all universities in Japan employ some foreign English teachers. Additionally, Nagatomo's two studies (2011, 2012) had an overrepresentation of assistant, associate, and full professors compared to the national average for Japanese English teachers, whilst the study by Moritani and Iwai (2019) seemed to contain errors in the calculations when discussing some of the findings. Cowie and Sakui's 2012 study had only three participants, each representing a different employment category, making it difficult to make any generalisations. Moreover, two participants in their study worked part-time in higher education but also part-time in other teaching settings, so their stated professional identities might have been influenced by those contexts as well. Fraser's (2011) study is comprehensive and detailed, but the employment conditions of the teachers participating is not explicitly stated. Furthermore, all the participants in his study worked in the language centre and were not directly connected to a faculty, so the findings might not apply to teachers teaching English in faculties, since the working structure and curriculum control is different. Finally, none of the five studies used both a questionnaire and interviews, with four relying

solely on interviews and one (Nagatomo, 2011) using a three-question survey instrument. I believe that by studying foreign teachers of English, including both part-time teachers and limited-term full-time contract teachers, and investigating how they perceive their role and their professional identity, I can contribute to the research field of teacher identity in Japanese higher education.

3.4 Job satisfaction

When examining job satisfaction, it is necessary to consider the overlapping theories that connect motivation and satisfaction. One of the fundamental theories is Maslow's Hierarchy of needs (1943), which provides a framework for understanding human motivation from physical needs to self-actualisation. Maslow's theory suggests that motivation arises from unmet needs, organised into distinct levels often depicted as a pyramid (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). These levels start with basic biological and physiological needs and progress through safety, social belonging, esteem, knowledge, aesthetics, and self-actualisation, which are associated with peak experiences or flow states. Self-transcendence, a later addition, represents a higher, more spiritual approach to life. According to Maslow (1954), as individuals satisfy their lower-level needs, they typically move on to higher-level needs. However, Maslow acknowledged that this progression is not always linear, and some factors, like financial compensation, can simultaneously meet multiple needs, such as biological and esteem needs.

Whilst Maslow's Hierarchy of needs provides a broad understanding for human motivation, Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980), two organisational psychologists, developed a model that offers specific job-related factors that can fulfil these needs, often referred to as the Job Characteristics Model (JCM). They identified five key dimensions: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Skill variety refers to the range of skills required to perform a job, with evidence suggesting that jobs requiring a broader skill set lead to higher job satisfaction (e.g., Humphrey, Nahrgang, and Morgeson 2007; Shalley, Gilson, and Blum, 2009). Task significance measures the extent to which a job impacts the lives or work of others (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Autonomy is defined as "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (Hackman &

Oldham, 1975, p. 164) Feedback is defined as the extent to which performing the job's required activities provides the employee with direct and clear information about the effectiveness of their performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

The concept of job satisfaction has continued to be extensively researched in the fields of industrial and organizational psychology (Judge et al., 2020) and economics (Vila & García-Mora, 2005; Fabra Florit & Vila Lladosa, 2007). Organisational psychology typically approaches job satisfaction research in one of two ways. The first approach considers workers' perceived job satisfaction as an independent variable and investigates its impact on work behaviours (Figure 4), such as performance and productivity (Bhatti & Qureshi, 2007; Westover et al., 2010), turnover (Ali, 2008; Lambert et al., 2001), and absenteeism (Diestel et al., 2014; Schaumberg & Flynn, 2017).

Figure 5 Job Satisfaction Overview

While the current study does touch on the effects of teacher job satisfaction, it does not directly investigate job satisfaction and teachers' behaviour. Furthermore, since one aspect of this study regards limited-term contracts, studies that focus on the interplay between employees' job satisfaction and employees' behaviour, such as turnover, do not apply to situations where turnover is predetermined by the type of contract the employee is on. Studies with this kind of approach were also largely excluded from the literature review.

Another area of literature examines the relationship between the first and second steps shown in Figure 4. This approach treats worker job satisfaction as a dependent variable and focuses on identifying the factors that may influence or determine it (e.g., Clark, 1998; Gazioglu & Tansel, 2006; Vila & García-Mora,

2005). This perspective is the framework adopted in this study, which aims to investigate how teachers' perception of themselves as EFL teachers and their work experiences affect their level of job satisfaction.

Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1304), from organisation psychology point of view. He also developed the Value-Percept Theory, also known as the Range of Affect Theory, where workers define their job satisfaction by comparing what they assume to receive at work and what they actually receive. The discrepancy between the two will determine their level of job satisfaction. For example, if a worker thinks that they deserve to be paid £50,000 per year, but their salary is only £45,000 per year, that would result in job dissatisfaction. If the worker instead got paid more than £50,000 per year, that would lead to job satisfaction. His theory also states that individual workers might prioritise aspects or facets of their work, such as salary, autonomy, or relationship with colleagues, differently, and that in turn affects how they think of their own job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2000). If a person places importance on a specific facet of their job, their level of contentment will be more significantly affected, both positively (when expectations are fulfilled) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to individuals who do not place significance on the same facet. The Value-Percept Theory has gained widespread acceptance and is regarded as the primary theory in the field of industrial and organizational psychology, according to Colquitt et al.'s review (2012).

As for the aspects that influence job satisfaction, Smith et al. (1969) identified five facets of work: pay, promotions, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself. Locke (1976) added some additional facets: recognition, working conditions, and company and management. For each of these facets, there are also subfacets. Locke's theory was developed in the United States, but research has concluded that "most findings appear to generalize across international context" (Judge et al., 2001, p. 26). However, different industries, workplaces, and category of workers might find different aspects of work important for job satisfaction. The academic profession has been described to have unique

features, but in a study on job satisfaction among university and college faculty Locke et al. (1983) found that:

> Faculty members generally want the same things from their jobs as employees in other types of organizations, i.e., a sense of achievement from their work, work role clarity, fair pay and promotions, good facilities, and administrators, chairpersons, and co-workers who facilitate the achievement of work related values and who are personally helpful, honest and respectful. (p. 359)

However, it should be noted that the study was exploratory in nature, and that all the participants were faculty members, with the vast majority, if not all, seeming to be full-time employees, with a high ratio of tenured professors. Also, the description of what the work of a faculty member entails, such as “the professor has a virtual free rein to teach what and how he or she wants” (p. 360) does not hold true for the participants in my study. In Chapter 4, I will discuss further how the instrument used was developed and what work facets were included.

3.4.1 Teacher job satisfaction

Much of the research into teacher job satisfaction has focused on the K-12 context, kindergarten to grade 12, i.e., senior high school (Ortan et al., 2021). Since the nature of teaching, the work involved, the workplace itself, and the type of employment are very different, only limited comparisons can be made between teacher job satisfaction in the K-12 context to that of higher education, especially when comparing general teaching in K-12 context to that of EFL teaching at university level.

Other research has focused on job satisfaction in academia in general, not especially EFL/ESL teachers, such as the previously mentioned study by Locke, et al. (1983). Several studies with a focus on academia in Japan (Arimoto & Daizen, 2013; Fukudome & Daizen, 2009) and even specifically looking at foreign academics working at Japanese universities (Huang, 2017; Huang et al., 2019; Kuwamura, 2009; Williams, 2019; Yonezawa & Shimmi, 2015) have been conducted. However, such studies are not connected to realities of most EFL teachers working in Japanese universities and specifically not foreign EFL teachers, and most definitely not foreign EFL teachers that are not tenured

(which are the target participants of this study). The issues described by Williams (2019) in attracting foreign academics to teach content courses in Japanese universities, such as non-competitive pay and lack of international schooling options, are far from the work issues relating to most part-time and limited-term contract EFL teachers (Fuisting, 2018). Large international surveys of academics and job satisfaction, such as Fukudome and Daizen (2009), can provide an indication of differences in attitudes and values in Japan's academic institutions, such as how much time they spend on research compared to teaching. However, they do not give good insight into EFL teachers since they make up a very small and unspecified proportion of the participants in such studies. This has also been proven by Parrish (2021), who replicated part of Fukudome and Daizen's 2009 study. Parrish's study is described in more detail in 3.3.3.

3.4.1.1 Teacher professional identity and teacher job satisfaction

As mentioned earlier, teacher professional identity is a wide-ranging term, and a precise definition has not been established yet. In some studies, job satisfaction is seen as a part of professional identity (Barahona & Ibaceta-Quijanes, 2020; Canrinus et al., 2012; Hen & Gilan-Shochat, 2022; Khalid, 2015; Xu et al., 2023; Yao & Yang, 2023). However, in these studies of teachers, the language discussing job satisfaction and the examples highlighted by participating teachers seem to relate more to career satisfaction, i.e., how satisfied a person is to have become a teacher rather than how satisfied a person is with their current job teaching job. For example, Barahona and Ibaceta-Quijanes (2020) concluded that “Most of the teachers reported feeling either fairly satisfied or very satisfied with their own overall performance as teachers” (p. 355). They did not compare different teaching jobs but discussed job satisfaction as how satisfied they were to be a teacher regardless of where they were working. Canrinus et al. (2012) investigated “the relationships between the indicators of teachers' sense of their professional identity: teachers' self-efficacy, job satisfaction, occupational commitment, and the change in teachers' level of motivation” (p. 127). In that study, the authors even use the term “occupational commitment” when discussing job satisfaction and not “job commitment”. The distinction between how satisfied a person is with their current teaching job as compared to how satisfied a person is with their career choice to have become

a teacher is important in relation to my study, since the participants taking part were all on limited-term contracts. I wanted to know what leads to their job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction in their current job. As a result, I aimed at investigating teacher professional identity and teacher job satisfaction as two separate parts even though in the literature it can be argued that teacher job satisfaction and/or teacher career satisfaction can be seen as part of teacher professional identity.

In my career experience, I have worked in a number of teaching contexts, ranging from children's English classes, teaching German at a junior high school, teaching Swedish as a second language to immigrants, general relief teacher at a dispatch company, conversational language school teacher, senior high school English teacher, part-time university English teacher, limited-term university English teacher, and tenured university English teacher. Each workplace and teaching duties have some similarities, but there are a lot more differences of what the *job* entails depending on the level of teaching. As this study focuses on teacher *job* satisfaction, I think it is essential to, as much as possible, compare jobs that take place at the same level of teaching, i.e., EFL in higher education.

3.4.2 EFL teacher job satisfaction in higher education

Whilst there is still a lack of studies regarding EFL teacher job satisfaction in higher education, it is a growing field (Morris, 2021). One geographical area where a lot of such studies have been conducted is Iran. However, many of these studies are using participants from a mix of educational schools, such as language schools and K-12 schools, as well as universities and colleges (Safari, 2020). This makes it difficult to isolate the specific issues that are important to higher education EFL teachers. Additionally, there seems to be a strong preference, judging by the number of published studies, for research that considers workers' perceived job satisfaction as an independent variable and investigates its impact on work behaviours (Figure 4), especially burnout (Samadi et al., 2020). As explained in 3.1, such research is not comparable to this study. I have identified eight studies that investigated factors affecting higher education EFL teacher job satisfaction that are relevant to this research. Two of the studies were conducted in Japan, and the others were conducted in

a variety of geographical contexts. I will summarise each of the eight studies and their findings. After that, I will point out possible issues with the research to date and what my research might add to the field. An overview of the eight studies is provided in Table 4.

Pacino and Qureshi (2022) investigated the impact of student and peer behaviour on EFL teachers' motivation and job satisfaction in a Saudi Arabian context. That study is a representation of the closeness between the areas of teacher motivation and teacher job satisfaction, which there are more examples of later in this chapter. Teacher motivation and teacher job satisfaction have long been linked (Pennington, 1991) and can be argued to be interlinked. While some researchers use the terms interchangeably, Peretomode (1991) argued that "the two terms are related but are not synonymous" (p. 3). Peretomode (1991) states that the main focus of motivation is on behaviour aimed at achieving goals, whereas job satisfaction pertains to the sense of fulfilment obtained from participating in different job tasks and receiving rewards. Thus, in discussions on career motivation and career choice satisfaction, the terms can often be interchangeable. However, when looking at factors for choosing between two different jobs within the field of EFL higher education teaching, Peretomode (1991) stated that teachers do not think that what motivates them to work, i.e., achieving a goal, is the same as the factors that lead to a greater feeling of job satisfaction. Not all studies make this distinction. This literature review includes several studies that look at teacher motivation and demotivation factors, but only if job satisfaction is an aspect mentioned in the title, the abstract, or as a keyword.

Pacino and Qureshi's (2022) study looked at how student behaviour in EFL classes impacted teacher motivation and teacher job satisfaction in a mixed method study that involved 20 survey participants and five interview participants from various colleges and university in Saudi Arabia. It found that 90% of participants felt demotivated and less satisfied by the students' attitudes towards learning. The study also looked at peer behaviour, and it found that "52% of teachers felt their motivation was negatively affected by their peers' attitude" (p. 73) and "47% feeling somewhat or very dissatisfied with their peers' attitude, 18% felt somewhat satisfied, only 3% felt very satisfied and 17% of

teachers had no opinion" (p. 73). One reason for the largely negative impact that the peer behaviour had on motivation and job satisfaction, as stated in the interview part of the study, was the difference in treatment between NESTs and NNESTs [terms used in the study], which was described as "a totally demotivating factor, hugely demotivating for the NNESTs" (p. 73). The varied level of teacher qualifications among NESTs was another reason raised by a participant. Both student attitudes and colleagues were seen as important factors that affect teacher job satisfaction in this study. However, the study didn't attempt to rank how important either aspect was in relation to each other.

Another study that examined both teacher motivation and teacher job satisfaction of EFL teachers at higher education is Ipek and Kanatlar (2018). They investigated 117 EFL instructors working at a School of Foreign Languages in a state university in Turkey. They used two open-ended questions to determine factors that positively and negatively affect EFL teachers' motivation. They concluded that student-induced factors were the most frequent factors mentioned, followed by factors related to administration, teacher autonomy, workload, teaching environment, relationships with colleagues, and finally, payment. They did not specifically ask the participants to rank the factors affecting teacher motivation; instead, they used the frequency of mention as a sort of ranking, meaning that factors mentioned by most participants can be seen as having a greater impact on teacher motivation.

Similarly, two separate studies investigated the factors that affect motivation and job satisfaction of EFL teachers at Thai universities. Firstly, Syamananda (2017) conducted a smaller study where 23 participants took part in a questionnaire study that examined the extent to which intrinsic and extrinsic factors contributed to a teacher's choice of profession and how the current teaching job affected those factors. Participants were also asked three open-ended questions about possible improvements that would enhance their job satisfaction. The study does not provide details about the nationality of the participants, i.e., whether they were Thai teachers of English or foreigners teaching English in Thailand. The study found that "teachers appeared to be half satisfied with their job" (p.126). based on that only 13 out of the 32 items investigated were rated as 4.0 or higher (on a five-point Likert scale). Most of

the items rated satisfactory “were related to personal feelings and good relationships with students, colleagues and management” (p.126). The study does not report which items scored low and might indicate dissatisfaction. Regarding desired improvements to increase job satisfaction, “[a]lmost all of the comments received mentioned higher salary” (p.126). Other suggestions were improvements in teaching resources.

In a similar but expanded and more detailed study, Jitpraneechai (2019) asked 49 EFL teachers, 28 Thai and 21 “native speakers of English (NS)” (p. 54) about motivational factors and job satisfaction. The study utilised a slightly modified questionnaire from Kassabgy et al. (2001). The questionnaire presented statements that the participants had to agree or disagree with on a five-point Likert scale. The study found that “both groups of EFL teachers [Thai and native English speakers] were mainly motivated by intrinsic factors, especially the issue related to students such as imparting knowledge and helping students to succeed” (p. 54). Furthermore, “it was found that teachers received intrinsic rewards, especially those related to students, leading to higher job satisfaction. Both groups also reported having freedom and capacity for autonomy at work” (p. 78). Job security was ranked as the eleventh and thirteenth most desirable factors by Thai and NS teacher, respectively, and both groups perceived a somewhat positive measure of job security in their current position, with Thai teachers rating it at 3.43 and NS teachers at 3.10. As for desired improvements, most participants mentioned institutional issues, such as fairer treatment, better communication, and improved performance evaluation. However, some of the Thai EFL teachers expressed a desire for a higher salary and improved fringe benefits, whereas the NS teachers did not. This could be explained by the fact that such teachers might already receive a higher salary than local teachers, according to Jitpraneechai (2019). Overall, the findings were consistent with similar studies in other teaching contexts and supported the findings of Syamananda (2017).

In South Korea, Kim and Davis (2017) conducted a study looking at native English speakers’ perceptions of working in higher education. One aim was to examine if there was a difference in job satisfaction between married and single teachers, as well as between intermediate/advanced Korean language level

ability teachers and beginner/high-beginner Korean language level ability teachers. The study included 44 participants who were all non-tenured foreign English teachers working at 10 different universities in South Korea. The researchers used a purpose-made questionnaire that assessed job satisfaction using a four-point Likert scale (with no neutral option) and three open-ended questions to gather further details. The study found that "all the participants held positive attitudes toward their job. However, they all felt that they do not have job security and they do not have a sense of belonging to their school" (p. 65). The study also revealed that married teachers reported a lower sense of job security compared to single teachers, with scores of 2.31 and 3.0, respectively. The authors speculated that the South Korean practice of offering only two-year contracts, which can be renewed based on work evaluations, might be perceived as less secure for individuals supporting a family compared to single individuals. When asked about what school policy the teachers would like to be changed, one "opinion that stood out was about job security. Many expressed the desire for a longer contract term and a pay raise" (p. 64). Also, when asked what additional support the teachers desired from the institutions, teachers mentioned a need for more support in professional development. Overall, the data from this study is somewhat challenging to compare to other teaching contexts as the authors used a four-point Likert scale, whereas most similar research uses a five-point Likert scale. However, for married teachers, it could be argued that most were dissatisfied with job security, since 2.31 is quite low. In fact, it was the second-lowest ranked item, after "my supervisor respects my opinions" for that group of teachers.

Morris (2021) investigated the employment motives and job satisfaction of foreign EFL teachers at a large university in China. Using semi-structured interviews with 20 EFL teachers, he explored "the factors which contribute to expatriate teachers' motivation, satisfaction and dissatisfaction" (p. 67). The study is extensive in its literature review, and it draws from a wide range of concepts and studies conducted in a variety of educational settings. The interview transcriptions provide deep insights into the teachers' work conditions at that university. He concluded that "[p]ersonal interactions with students and colleagues were particularly satisfying" (p. 146) for the teachers. The teachers also felt they had a reasonable amount of autonomy and that the workload was

not unreasonable. Furthermore, the participants stated that they received an acceptable employment package with reasonable working conditions and job security, as well as a competitive remuneration package. He reported that the teachers stated that "[e]ffort acknowledgment, evaluations and promotions were all riddled with perceived problems" (p. 156). Over time, several of the participating teachers stated that they would hesitate to stay longer or recommend others to work for the institution due to these areas of dissatisfaction.

These six studies provide indications of factors that affect higher education EFL teacher job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction in five countries. I also found two studies conducted in Japan, which are detailed in section 3.3.3, followed by a summary of all eight studies in Table 4.

3.3.3 EFL teacher job satisfaction in higher education in Japan

In my two previous studies on this subject (Fuisting, 2017, 2018), I included a study by Sugino (2010) in the literature review. However, upon revisiting her study, I found that the word "satisfaction" was mentioned only once when referring to the name of the survey instrument she based her study on. Therefore, I have decided that the study is too limited in range and too focused on teacher demotivation (and teacher motivation) to fall under the scope of this literature review.

Tsutsumi (2014) also explored Japanese university EFL teachers' motivation, but her study has a strong focus on teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The study involved 12 Japanese EFL teachers working at different universities in Japan. Among them were one professor, four associate professors (although at least one of the associate professors seems to have been employed on a limited-term contract), four full-time lecturers, and three part-time lecturers. The study used a modified version of Kassabgy et al.'s (2001) questionnaire that took into account the Japanese working environment for university EFL teachers. It consisted of demographic questions, 40 questions regarding teachers' values (six-point Likert scale), 46 questions regarding real teacher lives (six-point Likert scale), and two open-ended questions.

The study first examined career and job satisfaction levels. It found that the participants were more satisfied with their profession as an EFL teacher (4.67) than their present job (4.25), indicating that they were more satisfied with their career choice than the current job within that profession. Next, the study asked participants to rank different aspects of work in terms of how much they valued it. Good relationship with students (5.67), helping students' learning (5.50), and having a job that I can perform to the best of ability (5.41) were ranked the highest. Having freedom to do what is necessary (i.e., autonomy) (5.08), a good relationship with colleagues (5.00), and job security (5.00) were also ranked in the highest group. The aspects that the participants valued the least were teaching advanced students (3.25), having flexible working hours (3.33), being promoted to be a supervisor (3.41), having a prestigious profession (3.54), having a prestigious job title (3.63), and working for a reputable organization (3.66). The study then examined the participants' current job reality for the same aspects and compared it with their ideal job situation. The largest gaps between their ideals and realities are shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Gaps Between Ideals and Realities

Specific value	Ideal	Reality	Gap
Being treated fairly in my organization	5.00	3.25	1.75
Having a good work–life balance	5.16	3.50	1.66
Having a job with peace of mind	5.25	3.75	1.50
Job security	5.00	3.75	1.25

(Adapted from Tsutsumi, 2014, pp. 132–133)

All four aspects are related to general work issues rather than specific parts of a teacher's job. It can be argued that all these aspects relate to employee and employer relationships, since it is related to how the organisation treats their workers, how much work they are expected to do, and how secure the workers (teachers) feel in their employment.

The gap between what the EFL teachers in Tsutsumi's (2014) study valued and their reality is also reflected in the open-ended answers. Two participants mentioned "job security" and "ambiguous position" as the main negative influences on their teacher motivation. She concluded that Japanese university

EFL teachers "tend to seek intrinsic needs and wants such as autonomy, self-growth, and seeing students' growth through daily interaction in English classes" (p. 134). However, they also

> seek job security most among many extrinsic factors suggested in the questionnaires. It implies that working conditions, especially hiring conditions regarding the contract, such as whether they are hired as part time or full time, tenured or contract, dynamically affect teachers' motivation when seeing their career as a lifelong career in their profession. (p. 134)

A recent and the most extensive publication on job satisfaction for EFL higher education teachers is Parrish's (2021) master's thesis on the terms of employment, professional development, workload, workplace participation in decision making, and job satisfaction of international English instructors at Japanese universities. He used a 31-item (plus demographic questions and four open-ended questions) questionnaire divided into five sections and received 194 valid answers. The questionnaire examined four independent variables—terms of employment, workload, professional development, and participation in decision making—which were compared to the dependent variable of job satisfaction. This follows the same framework as my own study but with different variables. He determined these variables after examining the existing literature on job satisfaction as well as "through the lens of personal experience" (p. 27) of what affects teacher satisfaction among international instructors. In terms of employment type, the respondents were 38% tenured, 7% full-time with unlimited contracts, 26% full-time with limited-term contracts, and 29% part-time. Although part-time teachers are underrepresented in his sample compared to the national average of 62% (Japanese Association of National Universities [JANU], 2017), the findings remain relevant.

Parrish (2021) found "a strong link of participatory decision making, opportunities for professional development, and workload with job satisfaction" (p. 61) but identified a weak correlation between terms of employment and jobs satisfaction. All factors were still positively related, which "means that greater participatory decision-making, greater opportunities for professional development, better terms of employment and reasonable workload are associated with greater job satisfaction" (p. 62).

He also conducted a thematic analysis of the four open-ended free-response questions. He found that the participants enjoyed "autonomy, student interaction, colleague interaction, free time, research support, flexibility, facilities, compensation, and a balanced workload" (p. 66). The participants expressed a desire for changes mainly related to "compensation, workload, and terms of employment" and to a lesser degree factors related to "research, communication, collaboration, and less administrative work" (p. 68). Specifically, respondents asked for "unlimited term contracts/better job security, [and] higher pay" (p. 68). When examining the breakdown of positive and negative comments based on employment categories, he found both similarities and major differences. Regarding positive comments, all three contract types mention the same three aspects in the same order of frequency: autonomy, student interaction, and colleague interaction. However, when it comes to negative comments, each employment type mentioned different aspects most frequently. Part-time teachers expressed the most negative comments about "pay and benefits" (34.8%) followed by 15.9% mentioning "class size, course load, content". Forty percent of contract teachers (limited-term and unlimited are combined in this analysis) made negative comments about "job security", and 25% brought up "communication & collaboration" in a negative light. Among tenured teachers, 50.7% complained about "administrative duties and meetings" and 28.8% stated that "communication & collaboration" needed improvement. From these comments, it is clear that different employment categories have different issues that affect their job dissatisfaction.

3.4.3.1 Summary of EFL teacher job satisfaction in higher education research

Table 4 summarises the research conducted on EFL teacher job satisfaction in higher education, including the methods used, participant details, and the factors related to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction found in each study. The eight listed studies were conducted in six different geographical contexts over a ten-year period, using various research methods and investigating different factors. However, there are noticeable trends. Among the eight, "student interaction" emerges as a common factor affecting EFL teacher job satisfaction, and in one case, teacher dissatisfaction. It is consistently

mentioned as a significant factor in all studies. Additionally, “interaction with colleagues” is mentioned in five studies as a source of job satisfaction and in one as a source of dissatisfaction. “Autonomy” is considered important in four out of the eight studies. Other significant aspects include “workload”, the “work itself” (meaningful/enjoyable), and “renumeration”, which can positively and negatively influence job satisfaction.

Regarding factors that contribute to dissatisfaction and desired changes, three studies mention “job security”, three studies “low salary” (sometimes by only a specific subgroup of the participants) and two studies pointed to “unfair treatment”. “Teaching load and work–life balance” and “poor communication” were also mentioned as potential negative influence in two studies. Overall, it can be said that studying factors that affect teacher job satisfaction for EFL teachers in higher education, especially non-tenured teachers, is a growing field of research. However, further investigation is still needed, especially using multiple data collecting methods.

Except for Pacino and Qureshi (2022), all the studies used only one data collection method, with six relying on surveys or questionnaires. This limits the opportunity for follow-up questions and explanations from teachers regarding their responses. Pacino and Qureshi’s (2022) study focused on two aspects that may be specific to their Saudi context and did not attempt to rank their importance relative to each other. Furthermore, in several of the studies the employment type of the participants was either unspecified (Ipek & Kanatlar, 2018; Syamananda, 2017; Jitpraneechai, 2019) or mixed (Tsutsumi, 2014). Considering the significant variation in comments related to teacher dissatisfaction among tenured professors, contracted teachers and part-time teachers found in Parrish’s study (2021), it can be concluded that teachers with different employment contracts are likely to have different priorities and concerns regarding job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction. Therefore, it is challenging to generalise conclusions drawn in studies that do not differentiate the participants’ employment type.

As mentioned earlier in (3.3.2), the terms “motivation” and “satisfaction” are at times used interchangeably. For example, Ipek and Kanatlar (2018) drew

connections between teacher motivation and teacher job satisfaction in their interpretation of the results, but the term “job satisfaction” was not specifically used in the questions posted to the participants. Similarly, Syamananda’s (2017) study mentioned “job satisfaction” as a key word but approached it from a motivational point of view. Another issue is attempting to compare data collected from EFL teachers in higher education to results from various teaching fields and educational levels, as in the case of Morris (2021). Furthermore, several studies (Ipek & Kanatlar, 2018; Pacino & Qureshi, 2022; Syamananda, 2017) did not specify the nationality of the participants or whether they were local or foreign teachers, which could influence their perception of job satisfaction. Tsutsumi’s study (2014) provides insights into the factors affecting EFL teachers’ career motivation, job satisfaction, and dissatisfaction in higher education in Japan, but focused only on Japanese EFL teachers. Parrish (2021) investigated the field from the viewpoint of foreign EFL teachers, but the results are somewhat obscured by the mixing of answers from tenured teachers, contracted teachers, and part-time teachers in the section on teacher job satisfaction. Additionally, part-time teachers were underrepresented among the participants in his study. As mentioned above, both studies conducted in the Japanese context collected data solely through questionnaires without any interview component.

The literature review highlights a gap in studies investigating EFL teacher job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction utilising qualitative methods. Qualitative data can provide insights into teachers’ feelings, offer more nuanced descriptions of their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and provide a more comprehensive understanding of the research field (Garcia & Gluesing, 2013). Furthermore, the two questionnaire studies (Tsutsumi, 2014; Parrish, 2021), both indicate that teachers experience job insecurity, which may be related to the recent changes in the labour laws. As the new labour laws and the practice around them become clearer, understanding what teachers think about these issues becomes increasingly important. Therefore, further exploration of EFL teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in higher education in Japan is needed.

My review of the literature on teacher professional identity and job satisfaction has identified gaps that inform my current research. In Chapter 4 I will build on

these insights by detailing the methodology used in this study to explore these themes further. It will describe the research design, instruments, and procedures used to collect and analyse data, addressing the identified gaps in the literature, particularly the need for qualitative data to provide a deeper understanding of EFL teacher identity as well as teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the context of recent changes in employment laws in Japan.

Table 4

Summary of Job Satisfaction Studies of EFL Teachers in Higher Education

#	Authors, year	Context	Method	Participants	Job satisfaction related factors	Job dissatisfaction related factors
1	Pacino & Qureshi, 2022	Saudi-Arabia	questionnaire and interviews	20 questionnaires & 5 interviews, full-time time-limited contracts (renewable), mix of NNES & NES		poor student attitudes, poor peer behaviour
2	Ipek & Kanatlar, 2018	Turkey	survey (two open-ended questions)	117, employment type not specified, nationality not mentioned	Student-induced factors, administration, teacher autonomy, workload, teaching environment, relationships with colleagues, payment	
3	Syamananda, 2017	Thailand	questionnaire	23, employment type not specified, nationality not mentioned	personal feelings and good relationships with students, colleagues, and management	low salary
4	Jitpraneechai, 2019	Thailand	questionnaire	28 Thai, 21 NES, employment type not specified	intrinsic rewards related to students, autonomy	unfair treatment, poor communication, poor performance evaluation, low salary & poor fringe benefits (local teachers)
5	Kim & Davis, 2017	South Korea	questionnaire	44 NES, full-time limited-term contracts (renewable)	general positive attitudes, especially relationship to superior & co-workers and having meaningful work	job insecurity, lack of sense of belonging to the school
6	Morris, 2021	China	semi-structured interviews	20 NES, full-time limited-term contracts (renewable)	personal interactions with students and colleagues, autonomy, workload, job security, renumeration package	lack of promotion opportunities, poor performance evaluation, lack of effort acknowledgment
7	Tsutsumi, 2013	Japan	questionnaire	12 Japanese, mix of tenured, limited-term contracts & part-time teachers	class resources, student growth, student relationship, enjoyable work	unfair treatment, poor work-life balance, job insecurity
8	Parrish, 2021	Japan	questionnaire	194 foreigners, mix of tenured, unlimited contracts, limited-term contracts & part-time teachers	participatory decision making, opportunities for professional development, and workload (strong correlation) and employment and jobs satisfaction (weak correlation). Specifically: autonomy, student interaction, colleague interaction	pay & benefits, teaching load (p-t teachers), job insecurity, communication & collaboration (contract teachers), administrative duties & meetings, communication & collaboration (tenured teachers)

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to explain the reasoning behind the choices made regarding the methods and procedures used in conducting the current study. This includes declaring my research position, as well as providing a comprehensive account of the methodology, research design, and research instruments used for collecting and analysing data, and explaining why they are appropriate for the study and how I took into account ethical considerations.

4.2 Research positioning

I have worked as a language teacher, mainly teaching English at a variety of institutions in Japan and Sweden for about 22 years, but I see myself as a novice researcher. I have always thought of myself as practically minded and was naturally drawn to the field of pragmatism when it came to taking a research stance. Pragmatism can be characterized as adopting a middle-ground approach and embracing a pluralistic ontological stance (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). It employs a combination of confirmation and exploratory scientific methods, seeking to comprehend diverse perspectives, often employing a multi-faceted lens. Pragmatist researchers are willing to incorporate “all legitimate methodological traditions” (Greene, 2005, p. 207) in order to attain a “better, enriched, more insightful understanding” (Greene, 2005, p. 207). Researchers examine the interplay of multiple factors, employing data collection tools from both positivism/post-positivism and constructivism/interpretivism to gather and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data. The results aim to present both subjective insider viewpoints and objective outsider perspectives (Johnson & Christensen, 2014).

More specifically, I have been drawn to dialectical pragmatism since it is especially suitable for mixed method research (Johnson, 2009). Dialectical pragmatism follows the core tenets of pragmatism in its philosophy and methodology but also emphasizes the need to consider both qualitative and quantitative perspectives and “learn from the natural tensions between the two” (Johnson, 2009, p. 456) and encourages researchers to be creative and find

workable solutions (Johnson & Gray, 2010). I also believe that having a deeper insight into the place where the research takes place is important, i.e., being an insider, but still look at the data in an objective manner. As Dwyer and Buckle (2009) stated, qualitative researchers should be members of the population they are studying, but still maintain the objectiveness of a research and therefore "occupy the space between, with the costs and benefits this status affords" (p. 61). Without having been an insider at the two institutions where the research was conducted, I would have been extremely hard-pressed to gain the trust of the participants as well as to understand and analyse the data. Each institution where I have worked has had slightly different ways of conducting their classes, the terminology used, and the general atmosphere of the workplace. Being an insider helped me both get access to the data and understand it better. While being 100% objective is impossible, I believe that I can still treat the data in an objective manner and adhere to research standards despite being an insider. There is also a risk of power balance playing a role when conducting research in the context where one is working, especially since I was a full-time teacher, and part-time teachers took part in the study. While I didn't have any influence over the part-time teachers' schedule or any hiring decisions, I acknowledge that the perception of power imbalance still exists (Fleming, 2018), and I took steps to mitigate this (see 4.4.5 and 4.5). Overall, being an insider researcher gave me better insight into the situation, enabled me to ask more relevant questions and understand the data in more detail. In summary, I see myself as a pragmatic researcher that is willing to employ both quantitative and qualitative methods to gain better insight in the arena where I work and conduct research.

4.3 Research area

This research set out to learn more about teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction amongst non-Japanese EFL teachers employed part-time or on full-time limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan in relation to recent changes in employment laws. The overarching research question was:

> How do changes in employment laws/climate impact teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction among non-tenured foreign EFL teachers in higher education in Japan?

There were three subareas of interest.

1) How do non-Japanese EFL teachers employed part-time or on full-time limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan perceive themselves as EFL teachers?
2) What factors influence teacher job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction for these groups of teachers?
3) Are there differences in factors that influence teacher job satisfaction compared to those that influence teacher job dissatisfaction?

4.4 Research methodology

4.4.1 Research design

This research, although predominantly qualitative in nature, draws on some quantitative data from the questionnaire. It could be described as a sequential mixed design (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006). The aim of the design was to first collect data from a broad set of participants and then in the interview stage collect additional qualitative data that would help to explain and build on the questionnaire data (Creswell & Clark, 2018). After ethical consent was given by the University of Exeter (Appendix A), an initial questionnaire (see 4.4.4.1) was sent to teachers to collect both quantitative data and qualitative data, followed by individual interviews (see 4.4.4.2) with a subset of the participants. The aim was to use the ranking of the factors that influenced teacher job satisfaction and teacher job dissatisfaction at each institute and then use that data to help form the discussion in the interviews and gather rich description of the teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards the factors influencing teacher job satisfaction and teacher job dissatisfaction.

4.4.2 Rationale

A mixed method research design can be used when researchers want to integrate qualitative data and quantitative data in order to answer more complex questions in a single study (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006). The fundamental rationale for utilising mixed method research is that "we can learn more about our research topic if we can combine the strengths of qualitative research with the strengths of quantitative research while compensating at the same time for

the weaknesses of each method" (Oancea & Punch, 2014, p. 290). According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2018), mixed methods allow for a more comprehensive analysis by incorporating both numerical and narrative data, which can lead to more robust findings. Additionally, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007) highlight that mixed methods research promotes triangulation, enhancing the validity and reliability of the study by corroborating findings across different types of data. In the next two sections, I aim to discuss the rationale behind each stage of the research design.

4.4.2.1 Use of a questionnaire

The rationale for utilising a questionnaire was multifaceted. Primarily, it offers a cost-effective means of gathering data from numerous participants, particularly when addressing sensitive topics (Patten, 2016). As a doctoral student with limited funding, I recognized that the subject of teacher job satisfaction might deter participants from openly sharing their views in interviews. However, they might provide valuable insights through an anonymous questionnaire. Wright (2005) emphasized that online anonymous questionnaires are advantageous due to their cost efficiency, speed, and ease of data collection. Moreover, they afford a level of anonymity that fosters more candid and open responses on sensitive issues (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). Questionnaires are notably effective for measuring attitudes and opinions, facilitating the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data (Holmes, 2023; Ricci et al., 2019; Bryman, 2012).

While online questionnaires may present challenges related to sampling and access (Wright, 2005), I addressed these by also offering a paper version of the questionnaire. Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggested that employing multiple modes of questionnaire administration can mitigate access issues and enhance response rates. Given that the sample consisted of all foreign non-tenured EFL teachers in two departments, the sampling concern was not applicable to this study (for more details on how the sampling and the participants were selected see 4.4.4.).

4.4.2.2 Use of semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews exhibit considerable utility and insightful potential as they facilitate a comprehensive understanding of the interviewee's perspective while maintaining a focused inquiry. According to DeJonckheere and Vaughn (2019),

> semistructured interviews are an effective method for data collection when the researcher wants: (1) to collect qualitative, open-ended data; (2) to explore participant thoughts, feelings and beliefs about a particular topic; and (3) to delve deeply into personal and sometimes sensitive issues. (p. 1)

These interviews are particularly beneficial for studies aimed at eliciting individual viewpoints and seeking deeper comprehension, as they offer a platform for gathering rich and nuanced descriptions (Schultze & Avital, 2011). Additionally, they possess a remarkable flexibility that allows for the emergence of alternative themes that participants may choose to disclose, as well as unexpected insights that capture the researcher's attention and deserve additional probing (Kvale, 2007).

Rubin and Rubin (2011) highlighted that semi-structured interviews enable researchers to adapt their questioning to the flow of the conversation, thus allowing for a more in-depth exploration of topics that emerge naturally during the interview. This adaptability is crucial for investigating complex and sensitive areas, such as teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction, where participants may need space and encouragement to share their personal experiences fully. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) argued that the flexibility of semi-structured interviews makes them particularly suited for qualitative research, as they allow the researcher to follow up on interesting and important themes that arise unexpectedly.

Furthermore, Guest, Namey, and Mitchell (2013) asserted that semi-structured interviews are valuable in exploring the context and meaning behind participants' responses, providing a depth of understanding that structured interviews often fail to achieve. According to Patton (2014), this depth is essential in capturing the complexity of human experiences and perspectives,

which is particularly important in research areas involving personal and sensitive topics. Given these considerations, semi-structured interviews were seen as an appropriate research tool to use to gather additional data that might not have been captured in the questionnaire (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

4.4.3 Procedure

This research was conducted at two teaching institutions sequentially. Originally, the data collection was planned to take place at the two universities at the same time. However, due to the fact that I changed employers during the research project and returned to working full-time at Institute 2, it was deemed more efficient to complete the data collection at Institute 1 before commencing it at Institute 2. At each institution, an initial questionnaire (see 4.4.4.1) was sent out to a group of participants (see 4.4.5), followed by individual interviews discussing the results and the possible reasons behind the results (see 4.4.4.2). The smaller number of participants in the interviews was made up from a subset of the initial group of teachers participating in the questionnaire (see 4.4.5 Participants for details). Once the data collection was completed at Institute 1, the process was repeated at Institute 2.

4.4.4 Research instruments

The research utilised a questionnaire and followed up with semi-structured interviews at the two teaching institutions sequentially. I will now discuss how they were developed and piloted.

4.4.4.1 The questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this research consisted of three sections (Appendix B). Part 1 consisted of nine demographic and background questions. Part 2, titled “Yourself as a teacher”, consisted of eight questions. Finally, Part 3, “Teacher Job Satisfaction” consisted of six questions. Five of the eight questions in Part 2 (Q1, Q2, Q4, Q5 and Q6) were directly adapted from Waring and Evans (2014), and an additional two (Q3 and Q7) were follow-up questions to gain deeper insights into the preceding questions. Those seven questions were effectively used in my previous study (Fuisting, 2017) and were therefore reused, with the addition of “and why?” to gather more detailed answers. The

final question in the section, “Has how you think of yourself as a teacher changed during your career? If so, how? Why? If not, why not?”, had been added to the Evan’s questions in Fuisting (2017) and was only slightly edited to be suitable for the broader range of participants included in this study. The aim of these eight questions was to gain insight into the participants’ sense of professional orientation and commitment to teaching.

Part 3 of the questionnaire consisted of six questions related to teacher job satisfaction and teacher job dissatisfaction. Q1 and Q2 asked teachers to rank seven factors in order of their impact on job satisfaction (Q1) and job dissatisfaction (Q2). The seven factors were taken from a previous study that used open-ended questions (Fuisting, 2018). The aim was to gain a more precise idea of which factors impacted teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, using factors that other teachers in the same teaching context (country and teaching level, i.e., university level in Japan) had identified as important. Q3 “How satisfied are you with your current teaching job?” (on a 5-point scale from Very dissatisfied to Very satisfied), and the follow-up question Q4. “How would you account for your level of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?” were used as a general measurement for teachers’ job satisfaction. Instead of investigating facet-specific job satisfaction, which can be difficult to compare between teachers (Lester, 1985), an overall rating of satisfaction can be seen as more dependable (Ho & Au, 2006; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). Q5 “If you could change one thing about your job to increase your job satisfaction what would you change? Why?” and Q6 “How do you see your future job prospects?” were taken from my previous study (Fuisting, 2018). The aim was that the ranking questions (Q1 and Q2), together with the overall rating of each participant’s job satisfaction (Q3) and the justification for it (Q4), would provide an indication of which of the listed facets had the most impact on teacher job satisfaction, as well as an idea of how satisfied each participant were with their current job(s). Q5 would give an indication of desired changes the participants might want, and Q6 would provide insight into how the participants saw their futures.

I understand the notion that everything about a newly developed questionnaire needs to be piloted (Oppenheim, 2000), and I had piloted the questionnaire when I originally used them in my previous two studies (Fuisting, 2017, 2018). I evaluated the effectiveness of those questions and decided to add “and why?” to several of the questions. However, I had only used a paper version of the questionnaire previously but wanted to collect the data electronically via a Google Form in this research. Therefore, I needed to trial how the online version would work, as well as the two questions that asked to rank the factors impact job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, since this way of asking was new to this research. The questionnaire was trialled with two teachers who did not participate in the study. I received their answers and asked them for feedback on the online design to ensure that participants could understand and answer the questions. No changes were necessary after the trial. However, to ensure that no participant was disadvantaged if they were not used to filing out online questionnaires, participants were given a choice of using a paper version or the online version using Google Forms. Two of the participants chose to use the paper version while the remaining participants used the online version. The paper version can be found in Appendix B.

4.4.4.2 The semi-structured interview guide

Once the questionnaire was completed at each institute, a brief analysis was done, and some of the initial results of the questionnaire were discussed during the follow-up interviews, such as how the questionnaire participants had ranked the seven factors affecting teacher job satisfaction and teacher job dissatisfaction (see Chapter 5: Results for more details). In addition to discussing the questionnaire results, further questions on the reasons for the participants’ answers were discussed in a semi-structured format. An interview guide was developed for this purpose (Appendix C). Designing a well-structured semi-structured interview involves several key steps to ensure the collection of relevant and rich data. Initially, researchers need to clearly define their research objectives and develop an interview guide with open-ended and probing questions to explore these objectives deeply (Bryman, 2016). However, the interview guide should be flexible to allow for the exploration of new topics that emerge during the conversation (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015). Part of the

questioning used had been previously utilised in Fuisting (2017), whilst other elements came from Fuisting (2018), in addition to questions developed specifically for this study. After an initial opening that explained the purpose and the overview of the interview, I divided the questions into three main parts. Part one of the interview explored the area of professionally identity in terms of person factors, role factors, and social factors (Burke & Stets, 2009). Part two consisted of questions related to teacher job satisfaction and what factors the participants thought influenced both teacher job satisfaction and teacher job dissatisfaction. As well as discussing the results and the possible motivation for those results, I utilised a diamond ranking of the seven factors that had been part of the questionnaire (see 4.4.4.2.1 Diamond ranking). Part three of the interview guide involved questions in relation to term-limited contracts. I included probing questions about possible negative effects and positive effects to make sure I would capture views that might provide deeper insights. Despite that part of the questions had been utilized in my previous research, several aspects were untested, so I undertook a pilot of my interview protocol for the semi-structured interviews to ascertain its capacity to elicit comprehensive responses from participants. Utilising piloting techniques for research instruments has proven to be an effective strategy in enhancing the validity and feasibility of research endeavours (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2021). To achieve this, I contacted a teacher who was not part of the study but had also piloted the questionnaire and arranged an interview session. The teacher's responses and comments were used to revise the interview protocol, primarily involving the addition of potential follow-up questions to obtain deeper insights into the subject matter. Ultimately, the piloting phase played a vital role in appraising the practical applicability of the interview protocol within the authentic research context.

4.4.4.2.1 Diamond ranking

During the interviews, I asked the participants to prioritise and rank the seven factors that were used in the questionnaire (*Autonomy in teaching, Good working relationships, Job security, Salary, Student attitudes, Support from institution* and *Working hours*), along with two additional optional blank items, in the shape of a diamond (Figure 6). The diamond ranking, also known as

Diamond 9, is a cognitive tool employed to stimulate discussion and encourage individuals to reflect on their priorities regarding a specific subject (Clark, 2012). This approach has been utilised in educational research involving both children (Niemi, et al., 2015) and teachers (Conner, 2003). Participants are asked to arrange nine items or statements, based on certain criterion, such as importance, interest, or significance (Clark, 2012). The most important item is placed at the top tier, followed by the next two on the second tier, the three items ranked third most important on the third tier, the two second least important on the fourth tier, and finally the least important on the bottom tier. I incorporated this visual tool to encourage further discussion about the different aspects rather than simply duplicate the rankings from the questionnaire.

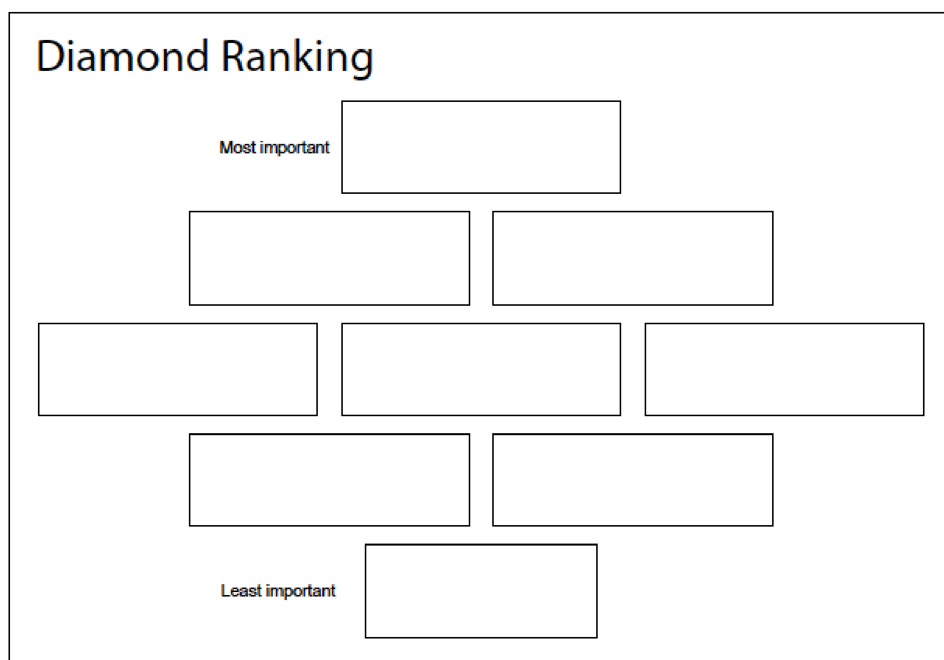

Figure 6 Diamond Ranking

4.4.5 Participants

I decided to use purposive sampling for this study. Purposive sampling “is the deliberate choice of a participant due to the qualities the participant possesses. It is a nonrandom technique that does not need underlying theories or a set number of participants” (Etikan et al., 2016, p. 2). Purposive sampling can assist in filtering out participants who would not fit into the study in question (Obilor, 2023). This method is particularly useful in qualitative research where the depth and richness of the data are more important than the number of participants (Palinkas et al., 2015). Additionally, purposive sampling allows researchers to

focus on particular characteristics of a population that are of interest, which can provide deeper insights and more detailed understanding of the research topic (Patton, 2014). This technique is also aligned with the goal of achieving maximum variation or homogeneity within the sample, depending on the research objective (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). For this study, one aspect I wanted to look at was the impact of the limited-term contacts; therefore, I did not want to include teachers who had a tenured job or a permanent contract. Also, since I had access to two English departments at two institutions that had interpreted the change in labour laws differently, I deemed that investigating such a sample of teachers would likely result in greater insight into the topic. I judged that purposive sampling technique would be the most effective to investigate the topic I had chosen for my research.

The higher educational institutes were chosen for having interpreted the change in the labour law differently and due to the fact that I had access to the institutions by working there. At Institution 1, the administration had taken the viewpoint that teachers who had started working there for more than five years prior to 2018 would have to either quit/take a break for at least six months or leave the job. They would not be offered permanent status. This course of action was seen by many teachers and the teachers' union as attempting to circumvent the purpose of the laws, and union members took the institution to court (General Union, 2019). Institution 2, on the other hand, had decided, somewhat reluctantly can be argued, but on advice from their legal department, that all teachers who by 2018 would have been employed for longer than five years would be offered to switch their employment status from a yearly contract to a permanent position. Institution 2 would continue to offer teachers hired after 2013 yearly contracts for a maximum of five years. Thus, the two institutions in this study had chosen different interpretations of the new labour laws, which would potentially make for an interesting comparison.

By choosing to study teachers within the institutions where I worked, I was adopting the role of participant-observer (Richards, 2003). This insider research meant I had easier access, greater understanding of the teaching situation, and the ability to manage the politics of the landscape (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007).

Due to the sensitive nature of some of the questions the insider status was vital both to understand the situation and gaining the trust of the participants. As mentioned in 4.2, I believe the benefits of being an insider in terms of the participants trusting me enough to share sensitive information, and me knowing the situation in detail, outweighed the risk of being biased. While I was employed on a full-time contract at both Institution 1 and Institution 2, I had no influence over hiring or scheduling decisions. I acknowledge that some participants, especially part-time teachers, might have felt that there was a power imbalance. I ensured that the questionnaire data was anonymised and only people who had expressed a willingness to be interviewed took part in the interview stage.

Only participants who were employed as English teachers in the two institutions on limited-term contracts or part-time basis were invited to participate in this study. Part-time teachers who held a tenured position at a different institution were excluded since such teachers would not be impacted the same way by the limited-term contracts they might have for their part-time job.

At Institute 1, 14 teachers were identified to be eligible to take part in the study and sent a link to take part in an online questionnaire or alternatively fill out a paper version of the same questionnaire. Teachers were not asked their names in either version to ensure anonymity. If a participant wanted to use the paper version, they could submit it to my mailbox so that I wouldn't know who the person was. The questionnaire was completed by 12 out of 14 invited participants for a response rate of 85.7%. The questionnaire stage of the data collection took place during October and November 2017. To gain a deeper insight into the reasoning behind the results of the questionnaire, I followed up with individual interviews consisting of a subgroup of the teachers who had replied to the questionnaire and on the consent form indicated that they were willing to also participant in a follow-up interview and/or focus group. While purposeful sampling had been used to select the sample for the questionnaire stage, I chose to use a convenience sample for the interview stage of the study, as only a limited number of questionnaire participants had agreed to take part in the interviews (Etikan et al., 2016). Five of the questionnaire participants had

indicated that they were willing to take part in the interviews. However, one of them was in a role that included scheduling of classes, so I decided not to include that teacher in the interview stage. Additionally, five of the questionnaire participants answered “Maybe”, and two declined to take part in the interviews. The four teachers who agreed to be interviewed consisted of two part-time teachers and two limited-term contract teachers. Whilst ideally, I would have preferred to have a larger number of interview participants I believed that these four teachers would collectively provide sufficient data on the subject matter for my research. In qualitative research, the use of a limited number of interview subjects is often justified by the need for depth and richness in data collection. According to Creswell and Poth (2018), qualitative studies prioritise obtaining detailed insights from participants, which can be achieved with a smaller sample size. Additionally, the concept of data saturation, where no new information is obtained from additional interviews, supports this approach. Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) demonstrated that saturation often occurs with relatively few interviews, making larger samples unnecessary for achieving robust findings. Furthermore, practical constraints such as time, resources, and access to participants often necessitate smaller sample sizes, as noted by Mason (2010). The interviews were conducted between January 30 and February 2, 2018, in my office at the university. Each interview was digitally recorded and later transcribed. The interviews lasted between 54 minutes and 106 minutes for a total of 320 minutes. The questionnaire and interview data were stored in an anonymised form on a password-protected file on a password-protected hard drive, and the recordings were deleted from the digital recorder. All paper versions of the questionnaires and printouts of the transcribed interviews were anonymised and stored in a locked filing cabinet. This applies to the data from both Institute 1 and 2.

At Institute 2, 11 teachers were identified to be eligible to take part in the study. The questionnaire was completed by nine out of 11 invited participants (a response rate of 84.0%) for a total of 21 teachers answering the questionnaire for a response rate of 85.7%. A summary of the demographics of participants can be found in Table 5. The questionnaire stage of the data collection at Institute 2 took place during April and May 2018. Once again, a subset of the

teachers taking part in the questionnaire who had indicated their willingness to participate in a follow-up interview were invited to do so. Of the nine questionnaire participants, four had agreed to be interviewed, four responded with “Maybe”, and one declined. Among the four teachers who agreed, two worked part-time, and two were employed on limited-term full-time contracts. Since this number and employment status matched that of Institution 1, I believed that these four teachers would be able to provide a sufficient amount of valuable data from Institution 2, which could also be compared to the data collected from Institution 1. The interviews were conducted between July 13 and August 3, 2018. Three of the interviews were conducted in my office, and one at the home of the participant. Each interview was digitally recorded and later transcribed. The interviews lasted between 84 minutes and 146 minutes for a total of 473 minutes. A summary of the interview participants can be found in Table 6. In order to protect the identity of interview participants, I use the pronoun “they” when quoting both female and male participants.

Table 5

Demographic Data of Questionnaire Participants

n = 21 if otherwise not stated

Nationality		
English speaking country	Non=English speaking	Prefer not to say
17	3	1
Age		
25 to 39	40 to 59	60+
6	12	3
Gender		
Female	Male	Prefer not to say
9	11	1
Highest degree		
Bachelor	Masters	Prefer not to say
3	17	1
Currently enrolled in study program		

No	Masters		
18	3		

Years of teaching in Japanese higher education			
0 to 5	6 to 10	11 to 19	20+
3	4	7	3

Employment status			
Part-time	Full-time limited-term contract		
11	10		

Years of part-time experience in Japanese higher education			
0 to 5	6 to 10	11 to 19	20+
2	3	5	1
n = 11			

Number of institutions currently teach part-time at			
One	Two	Three	Eight
5	3	2	1
Range 1-8	Av 2.3		
n = 11			

Years of limited-term contract experience in Japanese higher education			
0 to 5	6 to 10	11 to 19	20+
6	2	1	1
n = 10			

Number of different limited-term contracts having been employed on			
One	Two	Three	Five
4	3	2	1
Range 1-5	Av 2.1		
n = 10			

Table 6
Demographic Data of Interview Participants

Nationality			
English speaking country	Non=English speaking		
5	3		

Age		
25 to 39	40 to 59	60+
1	6	1

Gender	
Female	Male
3	5

Employment status	
Part-time	Full-time limited-term contract
4	4

Years of teaching in Japanese higher education			
0 to 5	6 to 10	11 to 19	20+
3	1	3	1

n = 8

4.4.6 Data Analysis

The data analysis process in general followed the five steps in Creswell and Poth's (2018) data analysis spiral:
(1) managing and organizing the data,
(2) reading and memoing emergent ideas,
(3) describing and classifying codes into themes,
(4) developing and assessing interpretations,
(5) representing and visualizing the data.

However, the first stage of the data analysis was actually part of the data collection process since, after the questionnaire had been administrated and prior to conducting the semi-structured interviews, I needed to use some of the questionnaire data to inform the semi-structured interviews. Between November 2017 and January 30, 2018, I used the data collected in Part 3 Q1 and Q2,

where teachers were asked to rank seven factors impact on teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, to rank these seven factors in order of importance (Table 7). This was used in the semi-structured interviews to ask more in-depth questions. The same procedure was repeated between May 2018 and July 13 at Institution 2 (Table 8) with the questionnaire data collected at that institution and was used in the semi-structured interviews at Institute 2. In the next two sections, I will describe how I dealt firstly with the questionnaire data and then the interview data.

4.4.6.1 Questionnaire data

Once all the data at each institution had been collected, the first step was to organise the collected data from the open-ended questionnaire questions to ensure it was manageable and accessible. To that effect, the questionnaire data was downloaded from Google Forms into CSV files and transferred into Excel files (see Appendix D for sample of coded responses). For step two, reading and memoing emergent ideas, for the qualitative parts of the questionnaire data, I printed out the answers to each question on A3 paper to get an overview of the answers. The responses were read multiple times to gain a comprehensive understanding of the content. As I reread the data, I engaged in memoing, a process of writing notes and reflections on the emergent ideas and initial impressions. These memos were recorded in the margins of the printed transcripts. Memoing helped to capture the nuances of the data and laid the groundwork for more detailed analysis. For step three, describing and classifying codes into themes, initial open coding was conducted by segmenting the printed responses into meaningful units and manually assigning codes to these segments using coloured highlighters and annotations. I used a variety of coloured highlighters and attempted to group data into codes. The codes I used for the open answered questions in the questionnaire related back to the seven factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction that I investigated. Depending on the questions, some open-ended answers were coded to as having multiple factors or a single factor. For example, Question 4 “How would you account for your level of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?”, was coded to possibly fit into more than one factor. However, Questions 5 “If you could change one thing about your job to increase your job satisfaction what would you change? Why?”,

was coded to fit in with only one factor since the questions specifically asked for "one thing" (see sample questions with highlights and notes in Appendix D and further discussion in 5.2.2.2 and 5.2.2.3). During the coding process one issue that became evident was that there was no clear definition of some of the factors. Whilst a factor like *Salary* might be easy to agree upon, *Good student attitudes* or *Autonomy in teaching* might have been interpreted differently by the different participants. I decided to code any comment that mentioned the same key word(s) as I had used in the naming of the factors or something that was an obvious synonym, i.e., if a comment mentioned "good salary" or "good money" it was coded as being *Salary*. If a participant's comment included words like "autonomy" or "freedom to choose", it was coded as Autonomy. Following that thinking I could code all answers to Question 4 "How would you account for your level of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?" as relating to one or more of the seven factors that the survey had asked participants to rank, except one answer: "Overall I enjoy what I do, and I have enough going on that even if things are atrocious, in one environment they'll be going smoothly elsewhere". Whilst the term "enjoy" and the teacher's indication of variety might have led me to code it as autonomy in teaching, I decided against it. (see further discussion in 5.2.2.2 and 5.2.2.3). For step four, developing and accessing interpretations, I reviewed all notes to summarise what seemed to stand out. This involved interpreting the themes in the context of the research questions and theoretical framework. Interpretations were supported by evidence from the data, ensuring they were grounded in participants' experiences. And finally for step five, representing and visualising the data, I created tables and charts of relevant information. Also, narrative descriptions were developed to provide a rich and detailed account of the themes and their significance. (see Chapter 5: Results).

4.4.6.2 Interview data

As for the interviews, I followed the same procedure with the five steps in Creswell and Poth's (2018) data analysis spiral:
(1) managing and organizing the data,
(2) reading and memoing emergent ideas,
(3) describing and classifying codes into themes,
(4) developing and assessing interpretations, and

(5) representing and visualizing the data.

For step one, managing and organising the data, the interviews were transcribed using transcription software (transcribe.wreally.com/). Since the study is looking at what teacher said, not how it was said, the transcript eliminated pauses, hesitation, and any other socialising elements to be more efficient. A member check was conducted with the participants to ensure that the transcription had captured the participants' perspectives (Neuman, 2014). The transcripts were then printed and stored in a secure, organised manner. Each transcript was labelled with unique identifiers to maintain participant confidentiality while allowing for easy retrieval and cross-referencing of data. For step two, reading and memoing emergent ideas, I relistened to the interviews and made voice memos of interesting points. These were things that I reacted to when listening to the interviews, places I went back and relistened since they seemed to be of importance to the research questions. I decided to analyse the interviews in segments starting with Institution 1 (four participants) and their Professional Identity (the interviews were loosely divided into three sections: teacher professional identity, teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and the issue of limited-term contracts in Japan). The transcribed interviews were then read multiple times. During the initial readings, I engaged in memoing, a process of writing notes and reflections on the emergent ideas and initial impressions, similar to the voice memos I had recorded when relistening to the interview (Kalpokaite, & Radivojevic, 2019). These memos were recorded in the margins of the printed transcripts. I have included the transcript for part 1 and part 2 of the interview with Teacher 2 in Appendix E. Some identifying parts have been altered to protect the participant's identity. I also did not include part 3 of the interview because some statements could be seen as sensitive since that section discussed the contractual situation of the participants. For step three, describing and classifying codes into themes, I then reread the printed transcripts from the four participants who worked at Institution 1. Initial open coding was conducted by segmenting the printed transcripts into meaningful units and manually assigning codes to these segments using coloured highlighters and annotations. In accordance with Byrne, I decided to use a manual approach rather than coding

software such as NVivo as I felt it would give me a deeper immersion into the data (2022). I then went back over the highlights and added notes/codes in the margin while skimming the text for additional parts to highlight. Then, I proceeded to the next participant with the same section (professional identity). After adding notes in the margin next to highlights, I went over the previous participant's transcript again and added more notes where suitable. Then I proceeded to the next participant and repeated the process. After reading and coding each additional participant's interview, I reviewed the previous transcripts to see if any additional code had been mentioned by the previous participants. I tried to see if any patterns emerged. Finally, I proceeded to the final participant from Institution 1 and repeated the process. After the initial coding, similar codes were grouped together into categories (see Appendix E for sample of highlights, notes and codes). For step four, I reviewed all notes to summarise what seemed to stand out. This involved interpreting the themes in the context of the research questions and theoretical framework. Interpretations were supported by evidence from the data, ensuring they were grounded in participants' experiences (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). Finally, for step five the themes and interpretations were represented and visualised. This involved creating visual displays such as tables and charts of relevant information, and narrative descriptions were developed to provide a rich and detailed account of the themes and their significance (see Chapter 5: Results).

4.5 Ethical considerations

To ensure I followed all the ethical guidelines for research during this study, I first applied for and received ethical approval from University of Exeter (Appendix A). Before the questionnaire stage of the research, all participants were given a consent and information form that detailed what the research project was about and how their data would be treated (Appendix G). Those who had indicated on the consent form that they would be willing to participated in an interview were contacted, and prior to the interview commencing, they signed a consent and information form that detailed how the interviews would be conducted and how their data would be treated (Appendix H). The participants were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time, and in such cases, their data would be removed from the study and destroyed.

The questionnaire and interview data were stored in an anonymised form on a password-protected file on a password-protected hard drive, and the recordings were deleted from the digital recorder. All paper versions of the questionnaires and printouts of the transcribed interviews were anonymised and stored in a locked filling cabinet. This applies to the data from both Institution 1 and 2.

During the interviews, I tried to make the participants as relaxed as possible and conducted the interviews in an informal style, including offering refreshments. The interviewees were given a choice of where they wanted the interviews to be held, including off-campus options. One participant elected to have the interview at their home. Even though most interviews were held in my work office, this would be considered normal since colleagues often visited each other's offices. The participants also could enter and leave the office in such a way to avoid being seen by other personal at the institutions if they wished to do so to ensure their anonymity. Although I included part-time teachers in my study, at no time before or during the data collection did I have any influence over their schedule. I attempted to be as open and considerate during the interviews as I could and give the participants a chance to express their feelings and beliefs without passing judgment. I recognised that the nature of some of the topics that were included were sensitive and I made an effort to establish trust with the participants before starting the interviews by reassuring them that their data would be treated confidentially. They were also informed that they could skip any question they felt uncomfortable discussing and that they could withdraw from the study at any time.

4.6 Limitations of the study methods

While the methodological approach employed in this study offers a robust framework for exploring the research questions, several key limitations should be acknowledged to provide a comprehensive understanding of the study's scope and constraints.

4.6.1 Sample size and generalisability

One of the primary limitations of this study is the relatively small sample size. The purposive sampling method, while effective in selecting participants with rich, relevant experiences, resulted in a sample that may not be representative of the broader population of educators. Consequently, the findings may have limited generalisability beyond the specific context of the study (Patton, 2014). Future research with larger, more diverse samples could provide broader insights and enhance the generalisability of the results (Marshall, 1996).

4.6.2 Subjectivity and researcher bias

As with many qualitative studies, there is an inherent subjectivity in the data collection and analysis processes. The researcher's interpretations of the data are influenced by their perspectives and biases, which could affect the findings (Maxwell, 2013). Despite efforts to mitigate bias through reflexivity and member checks, complete objectivity is unattainable (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Acknowledging this limitation, the study strives for transparency in the research process and the documentation of reflexive practices to enhance the credibility of the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

4.6.3 Reliance on self-reported data

The data for this study were collected through semi-structured interviews and closed and open-ended survey questions, which rely on self-reported information from participants. Self-reported data can be influenced by social desirability bias, recall bias, and participants' willingness to disclose sensitive information (Podsakoff et al., 2003). These factors may affect the accuracy and completeness of the data. To address this limitation, the study ensured confidentiality and created a comfortable environment to encourage honest and comprehensive responses (Patton, 2014).

4.6.4 Temporal constraints

The study was conducted within a limited timeframe, which may have restricted the depth of data collection and analysis. Longitudinal studies that track changes over time could provide a more dynamic understanding of the

phenomena under investigation (Bryman, 2012). Future research might consider extended data collection periods to capture evolving perspectives and experiences more comprehensively (Cohen et al., 2018).

4.6.5 Context-specific findings

The context-specific nature of the study, focusing on educators within a particular district, limits the applicability of the findings to other contexts. Educational practices and policies can vary significantly between districts, regions, and countries. Therefore, the findings should be interpreted with caution when considering their applicability to different educational settings (Yin, 2018). Replicating the study in diverse contexts could help to validate and extend the findings (Flyvbjerg, 2006).

4.7 Summary

In this chapter, I have outlined the methods and procedures employed in the study, including the reasons for the choices I made. The chapter details the procedures followed in the data collection process, which involved administering a questionnaire and conducting semi-structured interviews with participants. The research instruments, including the questionnaire and interview guide, are described in depth. The chapter concludes by discussing the participant selection process, which involved purposive sampling of English teachers on limited-term contracts at two higher education institutions, and finally, I list the ethical considerations observed and the limitations of the study’s methodology. The next chapter will present the results of this study, building on the methodological foundation established here. It will detail the findings from both the questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews, providing a comprehensive analysis of how changes in employment laws impact teacher identity and job satisfaction among non-tenured foreign EFL teachers in higher education in Japan. The critical review of the methodology in this chapter sets the stage for a nuanced interpretation of the results, ensuring that the findings are understood within the context of the study's design and limitations.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This section presents results and findings from the questionnaire and the interviews conducted at Institution 1 and Institution 2. The findings from the questionnaire are detailed first, followed by the results from the semi-structured interviews. The results of the semi-structured interviews are organised into three main areas: a) how the teachers perceive themselves as EFL teachers, b) factors influencing teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and c) the issue of limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan.

5.2 Questionnaire results

The questionnaire focused mainly on two aspects: how the participants perceive themselves as EFL teachers in the higher education field in Japan and what factors influence their teacher job satisfaction and teacher job dissatisfaction.

5.2.1 How the participants perceive themselves as EFL teachers in the higher education field in Japan

The following eight questions in the questionnaire relate to how the participants perceive themselves as EFL teachers in the higher education field in Japan.

1. What is your own definition of a good teacher?
2. How does your definition align and/or conflict with your role as a part-time/limited-term contract teacher at your school?
3. What do you think influenced your own definition of a good teacher? And why?
4. What do you believe to be important in your work? And why?
5. To what extent do you feel connected to the teaching profession? In general? In Japan?
6. To what extent do you feel a valued member of the teaching community at the classroom level? Within the English department? Whole school level? And national level?
7. Looking at the scale above, how would you account for any variations in the degree of feeling valued?

8. Has how you think of yourself as a teacher changed during your career? If so, how? Why? If not, why not?

5.2.1.1 Definition of a good teacher

The participants were asked what their own definition of a good teacher was. Analysis of the data revealed the following five themes of what the participants thought:

Motivates/ inspires/ helps/ supports students
Willing to adapt/ be flexible
Professional/ organised/ well-prepared
Kind/ friendly
Strict/ firm

Some participants used more than one keyword from different categories, ranging from one to four. Twelve of the answers coded for the category *motivates / helps / inspires / supports students*, eight for the category *willing to adapt / be flexible*, six for *professional / organised / well-prepared*, four for *kind / friendly* and finally three answers were put in the category *strict / firm* (Figure 7). The two most frequently mentioned categories include 18 answers out of the 21 participants, and the top three include 20 out of 21 participants, i.e., 18 out of the 21 participants answered that a teacher is someone who *motivates / helps / inspires / supports students* or someone who is *willing to adapt / be flexible*. Some of those 18 participants included both of those two definitions in their answers.

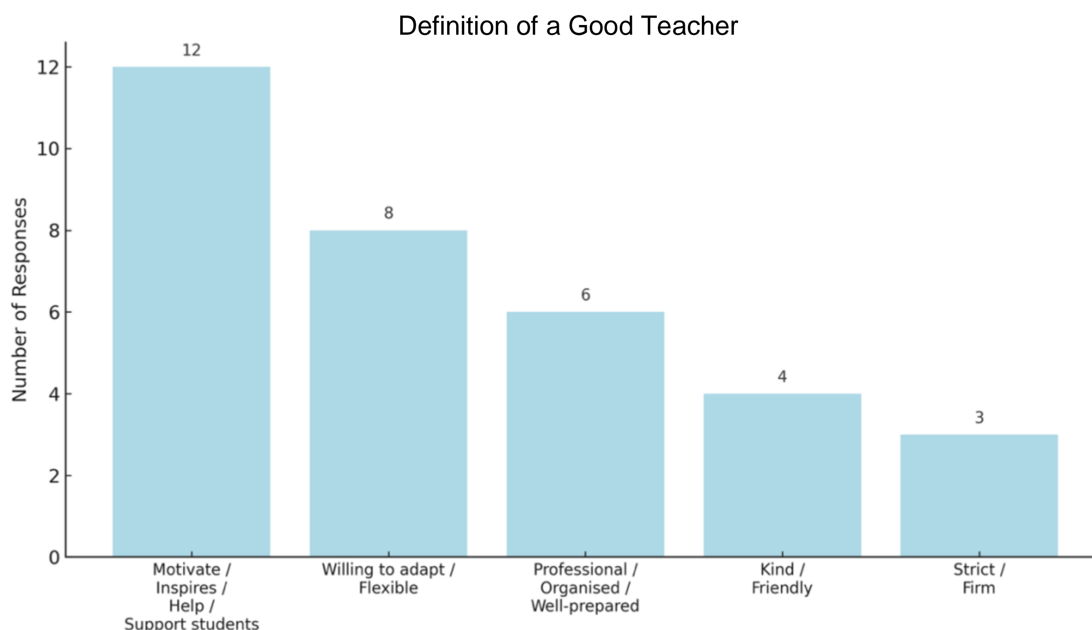

Figure 7 Definition of a Good Teacher.

Note. n = 21 (more than one answer possible)

5.2.1.2 How the definition of a good teacher aligns and/or conflicts with teaching role

Figure 8 shows participants' responses whether their own definition of a good teacher aligns with their role, conflicts with their role, or represents a mixture of alignment and conflict based on employment type.

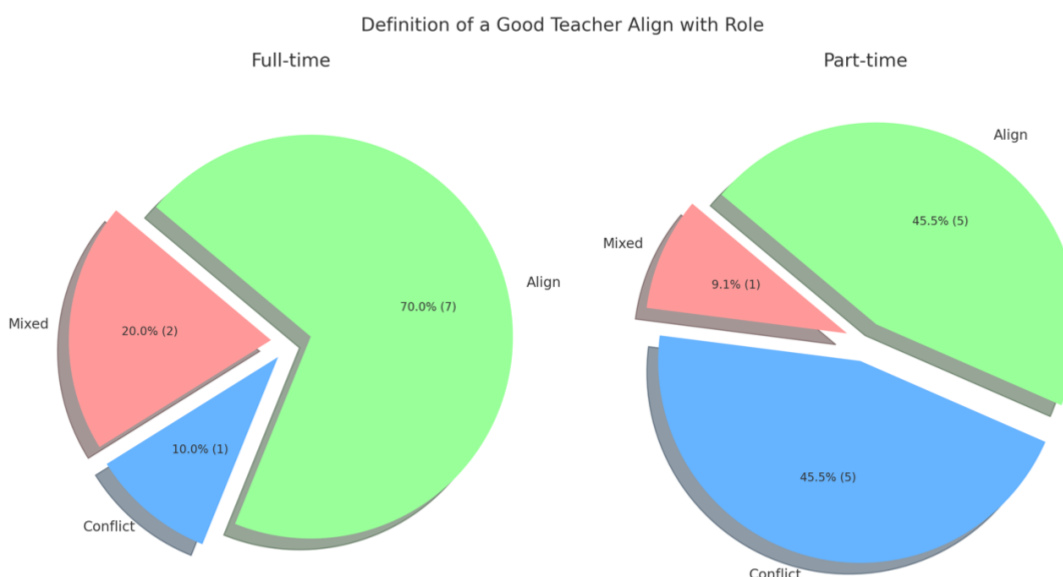

Figure 8 Definition of a Good Teacher Aligns with Role

Note. Full-time teachers *n* = 10; Part-time teachers *n* = 11)

When examining the type of employment (Figure 8), we can see that a larger proportion of part-time teachers felt a conflict or mixture of alignment and conflict between their role as a teacher and their own definition of a good teacher. Out of eleven part-time teachers, five stated a conflict, and one mentioned a mixture of alignment and conflict. Conversely, the majority of the full-time teachers (seven out of ten) expressed that their role aligned with their own definition of a good teacher. Furthermore, the two full-time participants who had mixed answers stated more reasons for being in alignment than in conflict. For example:

> I get to develop and improve the content of my classes so that they are useful to my students. Knowing that I will be in the same school next year energizes me to further improve my classes. When I was working part-time with one-year contracts, my class goals were all short term since I did not know whether I'll be teaching the same classes next year. Of course, there are limitations because even as a full-time teacher, I can't make changes in all the classes I am teaching (full-time limited-term contract teacher, Institution 1).

In the quote provided above, only the final sentence “I can't make changes in all the classes I am teaching” was identified as demonstrating how the participant's definition of a good teacher conflicted with their role. On the other hand, responses that were considered to be in complete conflict mentioned only areas of conflict, such as “It doesn't - it hasn't” (part-time teacher, Institution 1) and “I feel that there are forces in the university that, despite my efforts to be as good a teacher as I can be, do not seem to appreciate the work I have done” (part-time teacher, Institution 1). Overall, it is noteworthy that five out of eleven part-time teachers thought that their own definition of a good teacher conflicts with their role, whilst only one out of ten full-time teachers perceived such a conflict.

5.2.1.3 Factors that influence the definition of a good teacher

Analysis of the data revealed the following six themes of what the participants thought influenced their definition of what makes a good teacher:

1) Own experience as a student
2) Own experience as a teacher
3) Students / student feedback

4) Colleagues
5) Teacher training / research
6) Own children

Some participants utilised multiple keywords from various categories, ranging from one to three. The most frequent factor mentioned to influence the participants' definition of a good teacher was their "own experience as a student", which was mentioned in 12 of the participants' answers. Ten participants mentioned their *own experience as a teacher*, eight *students / student feedback*, four *colleagues*, four *teacher training / research*, and two participants mentioned their *own children* (Figure 9). However, the two most frequently stated categories, *own experience as a student* and *own experience as a teacher*, encompassed 18 out of 21 participants' responses, while the top three accounted for 20 out of 21 participants. It is shows that the participants in this study are primarily influenced by their own experience both as learners and teachers, as well as the feedback they receive from their students. It is interesting that only four participants mentioned that research or their teacher training had played a role in what they thought made a good teacher.

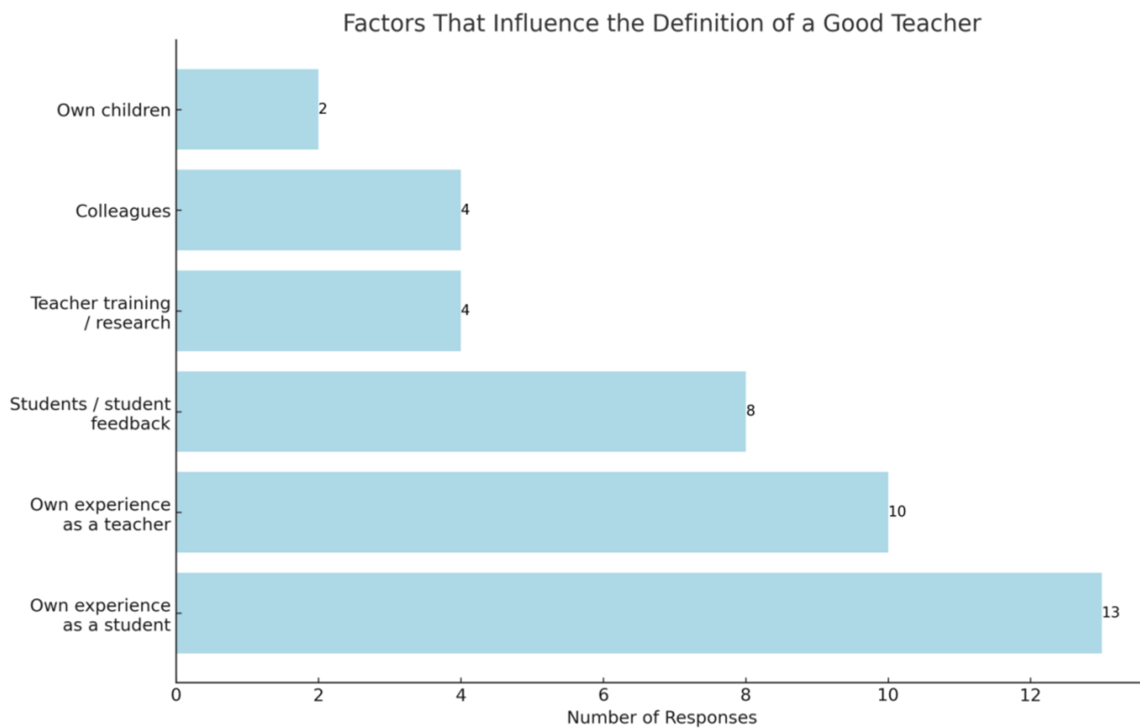

Figure 9 Factors that Influence the Definition of a Good Teacher

Note. n = 21 (more than one answer possible)

5.2.1.4 Factors believed to be important in working as a teacher

The data revealed three key themes that participants believed was important in working as a teacher, along with a fourth category labelled as “other”:

1) Feeling appreciated / trust / positive attitudes
2) Preparation / planning/ professionalism
3) Freedom / creativity

Figure 10 presents the responses. Eight participants stated that *feeling appreciated / trust / positive attitudes* is important, seven mentioned *preparation / planning / professionalism*, three *freedom / creativity*, whilst three answers could not be categorised. It is interesting to note that the two most prevalent categories can be considered somewhat contrasting. The most frequently mentioned category pertains to emotions, such as feeling appreciated and having positive attitudes, whilst the second most common response is related to professionalism and thorough preparation.

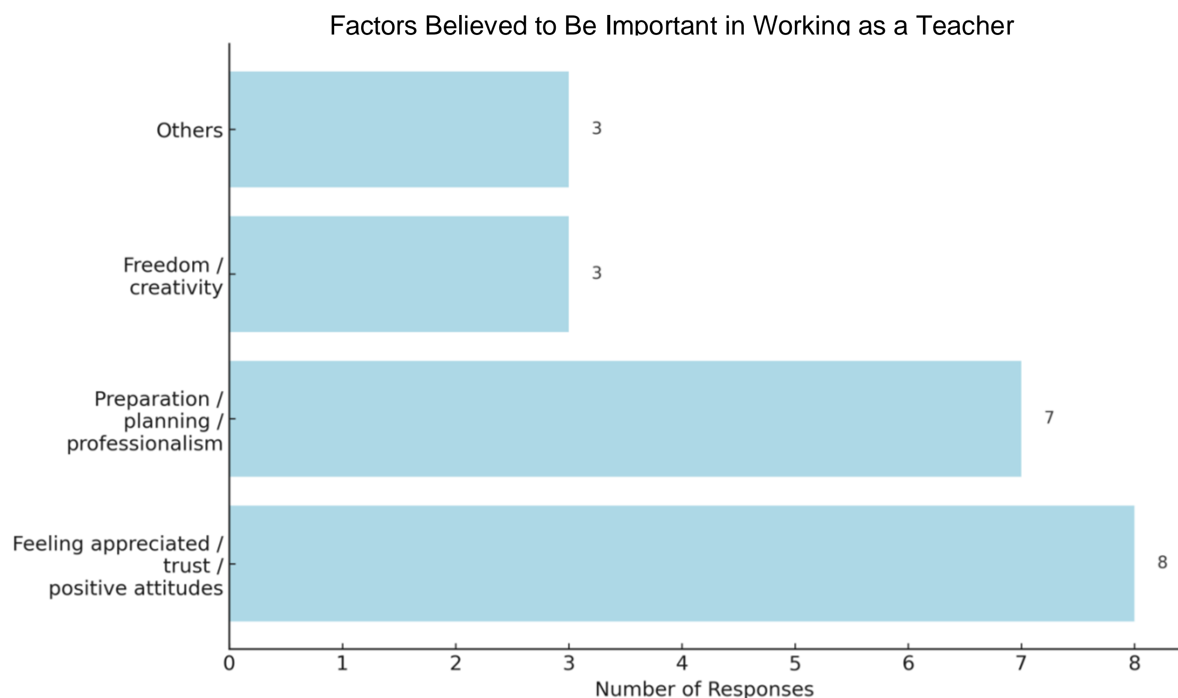

Figure 10 Factors Believed to Be Important in Working as a Teacher

Note. *n* = 21 (one answer per participant)

5.2.1.5 How connected participants feel to the teaching profession

Figure 11 displays the responses regarding participants' connection to the teaching profession in general as well as to the teaching profession in Japan. There seems to be little difference between the level of connection to the two groups, as 13 out of 21 teachers reported feeling connected or very connected to the teaching profession in general, and 12 reporting feeling connected or very connected to the teaching profession in Japan. Only one participant stated they did not feel at all connected to the teaching profession in general.

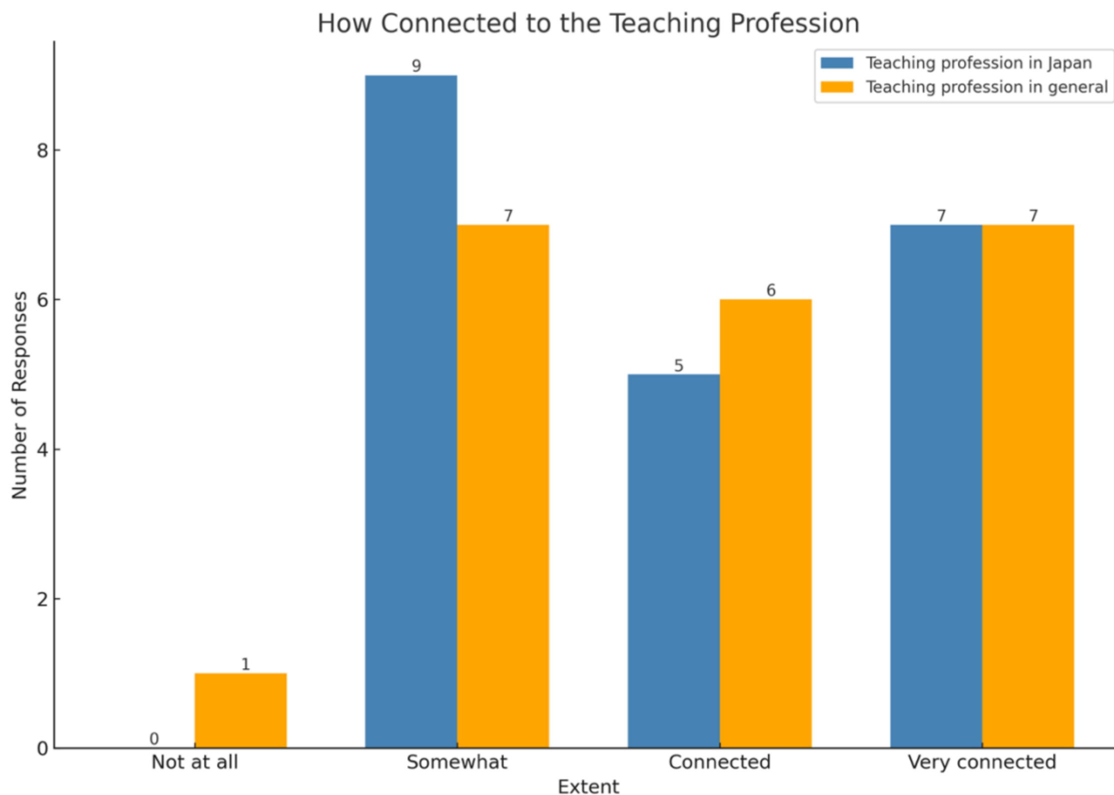

Figure 11 How Connected Participants Feel to the Teaching Profession

Note. n = 21

5.2.1.6 How valued participants feel to the teaching profession

Figure 12 presents to what extent participants felt a valued member of the teaching community at different levels: classroom, within the English department, whole school, and national. The participants reported feeling less valued as the scale increased, except for the national level where they felt somewhat more valued than at the whole school level. The participants' reasoning for variations in the degree of feeling valued can be explained by their answers to the follow-up question: "Looking at the scale above how would

you account for any variations in the degree of feeling valued?" One participant expressed their perspective in the following way: "I can feel more or less valued on an individual scale: by a particular student, a particular co-worker / teacher / professor but in terms of a whole classroom / department / school / national level I think such feelings are averaged out" (full-time limited-term contract teacher, Institution 2). Another teacher stated: "I account for the difference as directly related to the amount of input and control that I have" (part-time teacher, Institution 1). A third teacher explained "I account for the difference as directly related to the amount of input and control that I have (full-time limited-term contract teacher, Institution 1). The fact that participants stated that they felt more valued at the national level than the whole school level, with 10 participants reporting feeling "Valued" at the national level versus only six stating that they felt "Valued" at the whole school level, could be explained by this comment "In society, people have respect for you as a teacher if they find out you teach at a university" (part-time teacher, Institution 1).

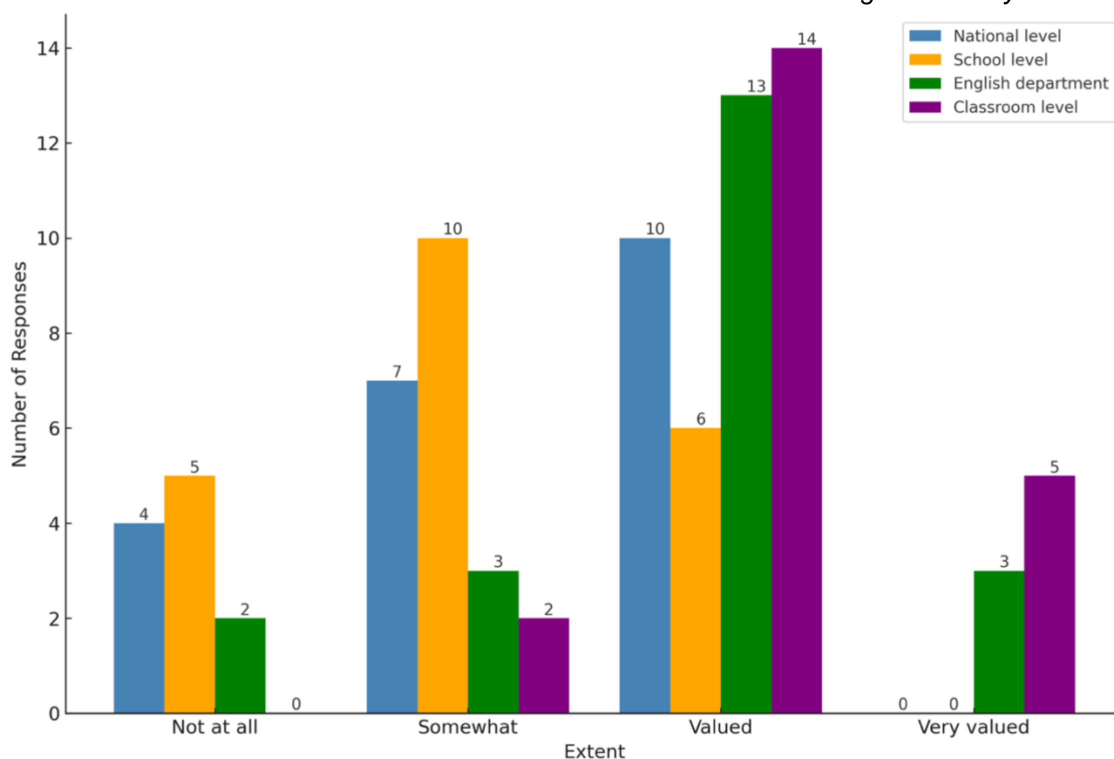

Figure 12 To What Extent Do You Feel a Valued Member of the Teaching Community

Note. n = 21

5.2.1.7 Changes in teaching career

The analysis of the data revealed four themes regarding how the participants perceived they had changed during their teaching career:

1) Gained confidence / improved
2) Changed classroom role / outlook on teaching
3) Feel more accepted by university teacher peers
4) Not changed much

The results are presented in Figure 13. Nine out of 21 participants mentioned that they have improved or gained confidence during their career. One part-time teacher stated: “I have always liked to teach, but the longer I teach I gain confidence. I feel more relaxed about teaching. I feel better as a teacher for a longer period of time” (part-time teacher, Institution 2). Furthermore, six of the participants reported a change in their outlook on teaching or how they perceived their role in the classroom. For example, one participant stated, “Yes, I started as a very credo-based teacher, and now I focus on flexibility and adaptability situation based” (part-time teacher, Institution 1).

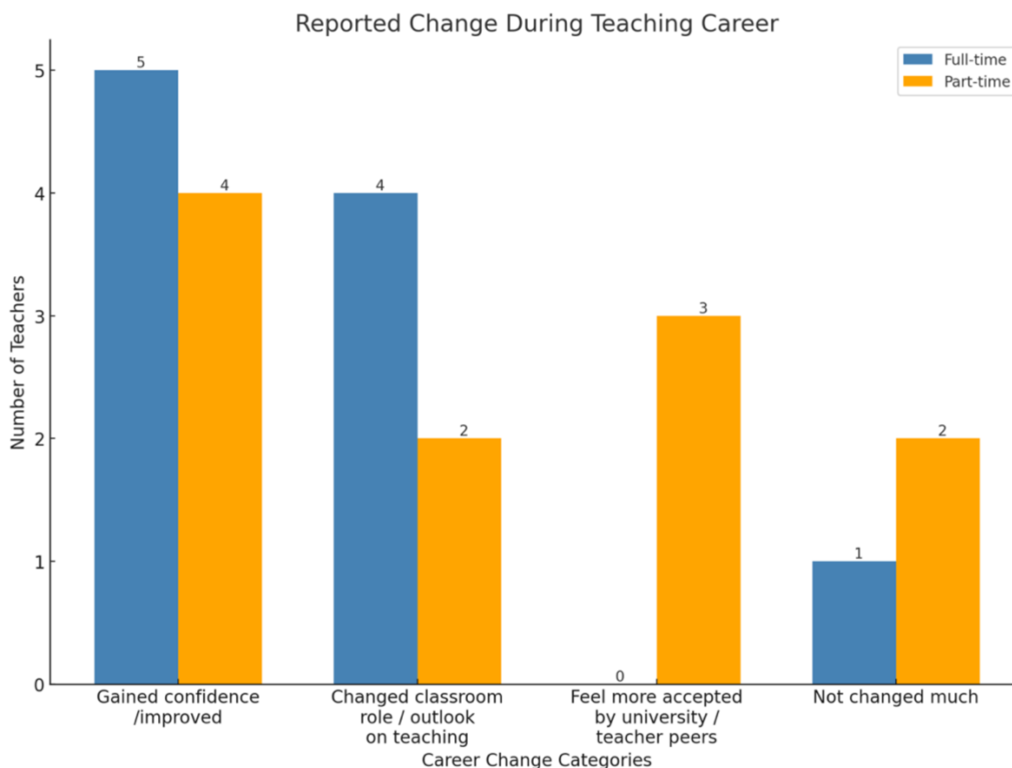

Figure 13 Reported Change During Teaching Career

Note. n = 21

When comparing the responses of full-time limited-term contract teachers with those of part-time teachers, some differences were observed. Three part-time teachers mentioned feeling more accepted by peers, since transitioning to university-level teaching from previous experience in high schools or language schools. One participant stated, "All my teaching career, I felt looked down on because I taught at a private language school. Being a part-time university teacher gave me credibility amongst my peers" (part-time teacher, Institution 1). Furthermore, two part-time teachers and one full-time teacher expressed that their perception of themselves had not changed greatly since the start of their career. This is illustrated by the response, "How I think of myself as a teacher has not changed much. I still believe I am providing a social benefit to society" (part-time teacher, Institution 2).

5.2.2 Factors influencing teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction

The second part of the questionnaire was related to teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction and asked the following questions:

1. In your teaching context, what factors do you think contribute to teacher job satisfaction? Please rank them according to importance (rank a set of seven factors).
2. In your teaching context, what factors do you think contribute to teacher job dissatisfaction? Please rank them according to importance (rank a set of seven factors).
3. If you could change one thing about your job to increase your job satisfaction, what would you change? Why?
4. How satisfied are you with your current teaching job? (5-point scale)
5. How would you account for your level of job satisfaction / dissatisfaction?
6. How do you see your future job prospects?

5.2.2.1 Factor rankings from questionnaire

In the survey instrument, one question asked the participant to rank seven factors (*Autonomy in teaching, Good working relationships, Job security, Salary, Student attitudes, Support from institution*, and *Working hours*) that contributed to Teacher Job Satisfaction in their teaching context and seven factors (*Bad or*

low salary, Bad working relationships, Job insecurity, Lack of autonomy, Poor student attitudes, Too much work/duties, and *Unsupportive institution*) that contributed to Teacher Job Dissatisfaction in their teaching context. The results are displayed in Tables 7-9.

After reviewing all the answers, both individually for each institution and combined, I decided to categorise the rankings into three groups based on their impact on Teacher Job Satisfaction, as indicated by the combined answers (Table 9). I decided to utilise the combined rankings of factors influencing Teacher Job Satisfaction as the base, since it would facilitate the illustration of any disparities when discussing each institution and comparing it to the rankings of factors influencing Teacher job Dissatisfaction. However, since I collected the data at Institution 2 at a later date, and therefore didn't have access to the combined results when conducting the interviews at Institution 1, I am also sharing the data for each institution when relevant. During the interview stage, I did show the initial results of the rankings to each interviewee and discussed it. Therefore, I am displaying the rankings for each institution in Table 7 and Table 8. Also, there are times throughout the results chapter where the results seemed to vary between the two institutions or between the two types of employment contracts the teachers had. In those case I am disclosing both the combined and the separated data.

At Institution 1, *Good working relationships, Job security*, and *Autonomy in teaching* were ranked highest in terms of their impact on Teacher Job Satisfaction. *Salary* and *Student attitudes* followed in fourth and fifth places, whilst *Support from institution* and *Working hours* ranked sixth and seventh, respectively. When comparing the factors influencing Teacher Job Dissatisfaction, the most noticeable difference is that *Lack of autonomy* is ranked fifth for Dissatisfaction compared to *Autonomy in teaching* which was ranked third for Satisfaction. All other pairs of factors, such as *Good working relationships* vs *Bad working relationships*, have the same ranking or differ by only one position. The results are displayed in Table 7.

Table 7
Institution 1 Questionnaire Ranking

	Teacher Job Satisfaction		Teacher Job Dissatisfaction	
Rank	Factor	ave.	Factor	av.
1st	Good working relationships	2.67	Bad working relationships	2.83
2nd	Job security	3.33	Job insecurity	3.00
3rd	Autonomy in teaching	3.42	Bad or low salary	3.50
4th	Salary	3.58	Poor student attitudes	4.50
5th	Student attitudes	4.50	Lack of autonomy	4.58
6th	Support from institution	4.83	Too much work/duties	4.75
7th	Working hours	5.67	Unsupportive institution	4.83

n = 12

The results for factors affecting Teacher Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction at Institution 2 are presented in Table 8.

Table 8
Institution 2 Questionnaire Ranking

	Teacher Job Satisfaction		Teacher Job Dissatisfaction	
Rank	Factor	ave.	Factor	av.
1st	Student attitudes	2.11	Poor student attitudes	2.11
2nd	Autonomy in teaching	3.22	Too much work/duties	3.67
3rd	Good working relationships	3.67	Bad working relationships	4.00
4th	Working hours	4.22	Job insecurity	4.22
5th	Salary	4.56	Unsupportive institution	4.44
6th	Job security	4.67	Lack of autonomy	4.67
7th	Support from institution	5.56	Bad or low salary	4.89

n = 9

In institution 2, the ranking differs considerably from Institution 1. *Student attitudes*, *Autonomy in teaching*, and *Good working relationships* are ranked as the top three factors. *Working hours* and *Salary* follow in fourth and fifth place, while *Job security* and *Support from institution* are ranked sixth and seventh, respectively. When examining the factors that impact Teacher Job Dissatisfaction, *Lack of autonomy* is similarly ranked lower for Teacher Job Dissatisfaction compared to Institution 1, placing sixth instead of second for Teacher Job Satisfaction. However, factors such as *Too much work/duties*, *Job insecurity*, and *Unsupportive institution* seem to have greater impact on Teacher Job Dissatisfaction than their corresponding factors on Teacher Job

Satisfaction. These three factors are ranked two positions higher for Job Dissatisfaction compared to their rankings for Job Satisfaction.

When considering the combined results of the two institutions, the groupings become somewhat clearer (Table 9). The top group, first to third, includes *Good working relationships*, *Autonomy in teaching*, and *Student attitudes* (in orange). The mid group, comprising factors ranked fourth and fifth, consists of *Job security* and *Salary* (in yellow). *Working hours* and *Support from institution* follow in sixth and seventh places (in blue).

Table 9

Institution 1 and 2 Questionnaire Ranking

	Teacher Job Satisfaction		**Teacher Job Dissatisfaction**	
Rank	Factor	ave.	Factor	ave.
1st	Good working relationships	3.10	Bad working relationships	3.33
2nd	Autonomy in teaching	3.33	Poor student attitudes	3.48
3rd	Student attitudes	3.48	Job insecurity	3.52
4th	Job security	3.90	Bad or low salary	4.10
5th	Salary	4.00	Too much work/duties	4.29
6th	Working hours	5.05	Lack of autonomy	4.62
7th	Support from institution	5.14	Unsupportive institution	4.67

n = 21

In comparing the factors impacting Teacher Job Dissatisfaction, the main difference is that *Lack of autonomy* is ranked sixth overall, whereas *Autonomy in teaching* is ranked second for Teacher Job Satisfaction. The remaining six factors would maintain the same order if *Autonomy in teaching* and *Lack of autonomy* were excluded from the results (Table 10). Therefore, it can be concluded that these factors are ranked identically in terms of their impact on both Teacher Job Satisfaction and Teacher Job Dissatisfaction, and that *Autonomy in teaching* has a greater impact on teacher job satisfaction than *Lack of autonomy* has on teacher job dissatisfaction.

Table 10

Institution 1 and 2 Questionnaire Ranking Excluding Autonomy

	Teacher Job Satisfaction		**Teacher Job Dissatisfaction**	
Rank	Factor	ave.	Factor	ave.
1st	Good working relationships	3.10	Bad working relationships	3.33
2nd	Student attitudes	3.48	Poor student attitudes	3.48
3rd	Job security	3.90	Job insecurity	3.52
4th	Salary	4.00	Bad or low salary	4.10
5th	Working hours	5.05	Too much work/duties	4.29
6th	Support from institution	5.14	Unsupportive institution	4.67

n = 21

5.2.2.2 Change to increase teacher job satisfaction

Since the responses for this question were qualitative data, it was somewhat challenging to categorise some of the answers that fall under the factors ranked in the previous question related to Teacher Job Satisfaction. For example, a comment regarding having a long commute and wishing to work at a campus closer to the teacher's home [the university operates several campuses but generally does not allow teachers to transfer to another campus] could be interpreted as pertaining to *Working hours* or *Support from the institution*. However, considering that commuting time can be seen as part of working time, I classified it under *Working hours*. Similarly, one part-time teacher mentioned wanting to have a card that gave access to certain locked staff areas, as full-time contract teachers have such a card, and not having a card created an unequal working relationship. This could be viewed as affecting *Good working relationship*, but since the participant mentioned having made the comment in the questionnaire and elaborated on the issue in the interview stage, I ultimately categorised it as falling under *Support from institution*. How the answers were coded can be found in Appendix D. When categorising all the participants' answers under one of the seven factors, the results are displayed in Figure 14.

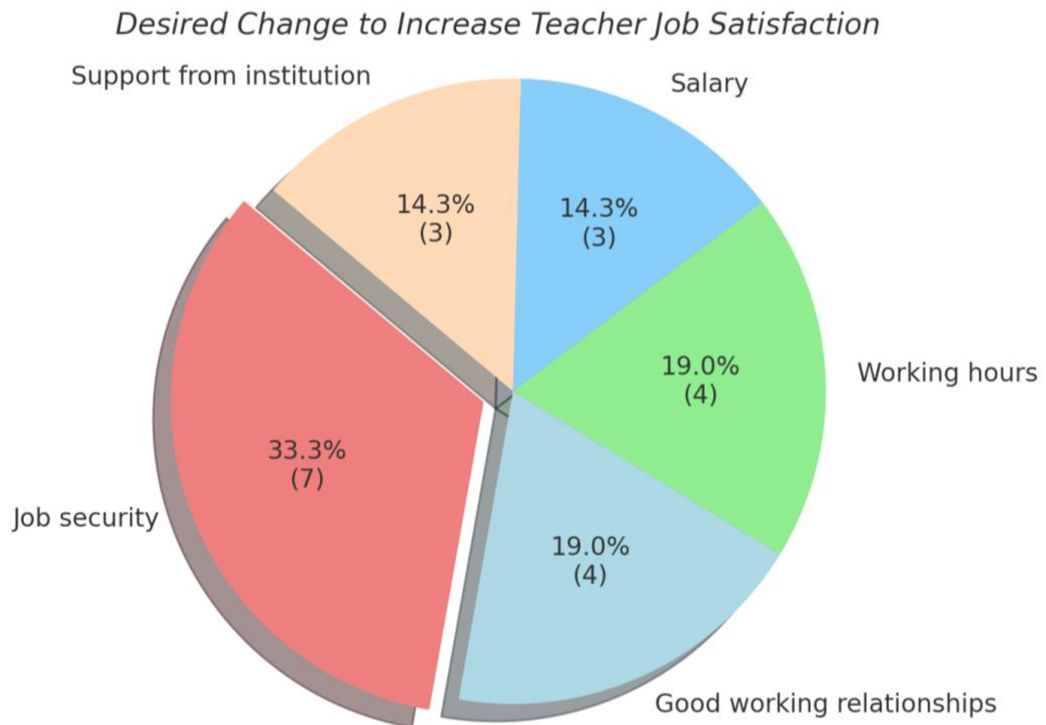

Figure 14 Desired Change to Increase Teacher Job Satisfaction

Note. n = 21 (one answer per participant)

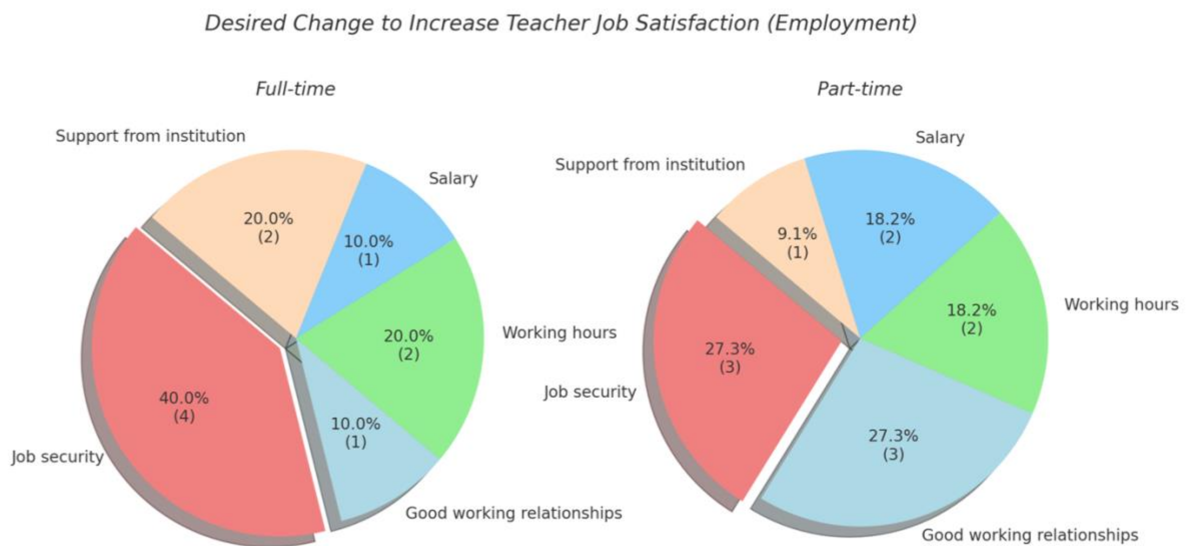

Figure 15 Desired Change to Increase Teacher Job Satisfaction (employment)

Note. Full-time n = 10; Part-time n = 11 (one answer per participant)

Although *Job security* is not ranked the highest in terms of its impact on Teacher Job Satisfaction (see Table 9), it is the factor most commonly mentioned by teachers when asked what they would change to improve their

Teacher Job Satisfaction (33.3%). It was mentioned more frequently by full-time limited-term teachers, with four out of 10 (40%) mentioning it, compared to part-time teachers, with three out of 11 (23.3%) mentioning it (Figure 15). In contrast, three out of 11 part-time teachers mentioned better working relationships as something that would increase their teacher job satisfaction whilst it was only mentioned by one of the ten full-time teachers. Interestingly, the two factors that were ranked the second and third highest in terms of their impact on Teacher Job Satisfaction, *Autonomy in teaching* and *Student attitudes* (see Table 9), were not mentioned by any participant. In contrast, the lowest ranked factor both for impacting Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction in Table 9, *Support from institution*, was mentioned by three participants.

5.2.2.3 Reported teacher job satisfaction

The questionnaire asked the participants to rate how satisfied they were with their current teaching job on a 5-point scale ranging from "Very dissatisfied" to "Very satisfied". The results are displayed in Figure 16.

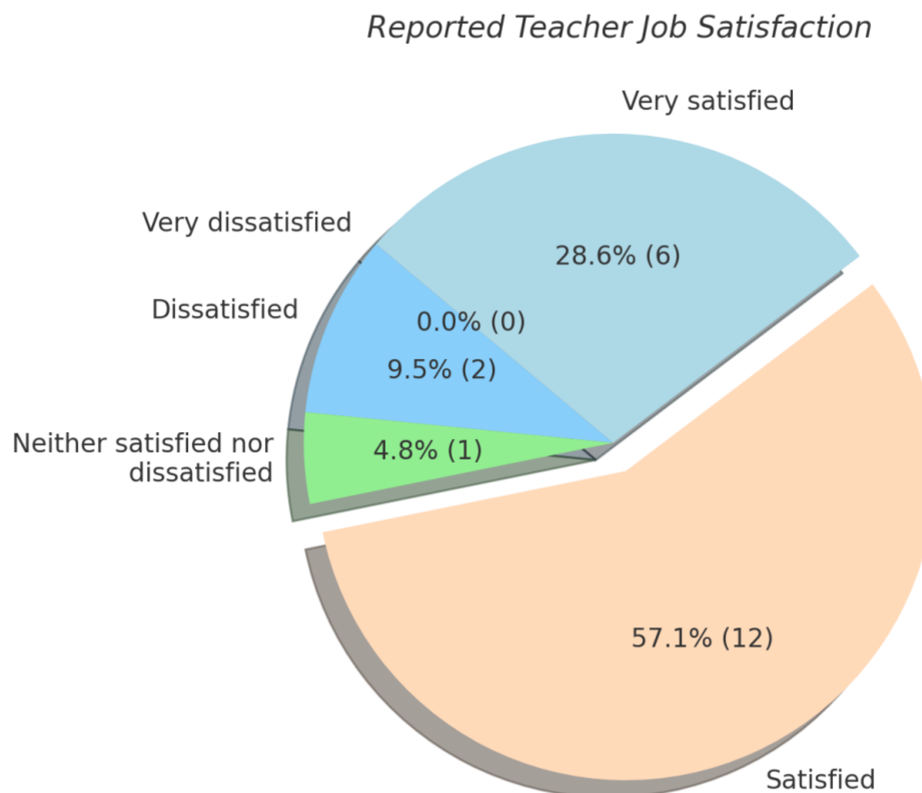

Figure 16 Reported Teacher Job Satisfaction

Note. n = 21

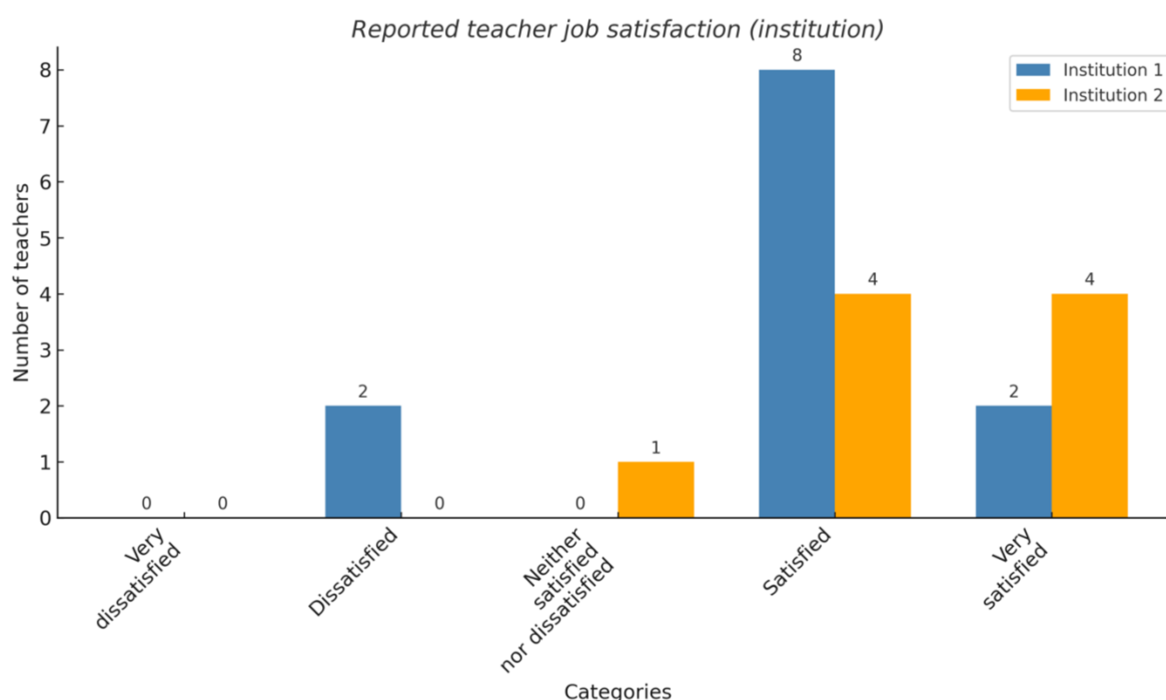

Figure 17 Reported Teacher Job satisfaction (institution)

Note. n = 21

At Institution 1, two participants reported feeling "Dissatisfied", and the remaining either "Satisfied" or "Very satisfied". At Institution 2, one participant reported a neutral position, and the remaining eight reported either being "Satisfied" or "Very satisfied". In the follow-up question, "How would you account for your level of job satisfaction / dissatisfaction?", the two dissatisfied participants explained their reasons as "Poor administration" (full-time teacher, Institution 1) and:

> In the university, there are rumours of replacing us with dispatch teachers. … I have no freedom in the classroom, and I have realized I can't teach this way. Also, grading theses quizzes I don't agree with week after week takes too much time. (part-time teacher, Institution 1)

The fact that Institution 1 had asked all teachers to take a 6-month leave of absence in order to reset the 5-year period of continued employment and the rumours of replacing the English teachers with teachers from a dispatch company likely both contributed to the feeling of teacher job satisfaction and could possibly explain the comment of "poor administration". In fact, another teacher at Institution 1 who rated themselves as satisfied mentioned "the university's five-year policy" as being the reason that teacher was not "Very

satisfied”. In contrast, the two full-time limited-term contract teachers who mentioned wanting an unlimited contract framed it in a positive way and rated themselves as “Very satisfied”. One teacher wrote, “It would be great if my current five-year contract could be magically changed turned into an unlimited lifetime employment” (full-time limited-term teacher, Institution 2).

Overall, the teachers at both institutions expressed satisfaction, with the three most commonly mentioned reasons being *Student attitudes*, *Autonomy in teaching*, and *Salary*. *Student attitudes* were mentioned in ten out of the 18 comments by teachers who were either “Satisfied” or “Very satisfied” (Table 11). *Autonomy in teaching* was mentioned in eight out of the 18 comments, *Salary* in six comments, and *Working hours* and *Good working relationships* five times each. Two participants mentioned *Supportive institution*, and one comment could not be specified to any of the categories (see Appendix D for full comments and how they were coded). There were some differences observed between the two institutions, with the participants from Institution 1 more often mentioning salary as a reason for their satisfaction (five compared to one). “Decent salary” was only mentioned by one participant from Institution 2, whilst a different teacher complained about the salary, stating, “I would be even more satisfied if I had better salary and a research grant” (full-time teacher, Institution 2). Participants from Institution 2, on the other hand, more often attributed their level of job satisfaction to *Good working relationships* and *Working hours* than at Institution 1 (four each compared to one each).

Table 11
Reason for Level of Teacher Job Satisfaction

Factor	Institution 1	Institution 2	Total
Student attitudes	5	5	10
Autonomy in teaching	3	5	8
Salary	5	1	6
Working hours	1	4	5
Good working relationships	1	4	5
Supportive institution	1	1	2
Unspecified	1		1
	n = 10	n = 8	n = 18

All comments that could be seen as negative are shown in Table 12, including participants that reported being “Dissatisfied”, “Neither satisfied or dissatisfied”, “Satisfied”, or “Very satisfied”. *Job insecurity* is the most commonly mentioned issue, with four participants mentioning it, followed by *Too much work*, which was stated by three participants. Two participants mentioned *Unsupportive institution* was a reason for their level of satisfaction, and one each mentioned a *Lack of autonomy* and *Low salary* (see Appendix D for full comments and how they were coded).

Table 12

Reason for Level of Teacher Job Dissatisfaction

Factor	Institution 1	Institution 2	Total
Job insecurity	3	1	4
Too much work	2	1	3
Unsupportive institution	1	1	2
Low salary		1	1
Lack of autonomy	1		1
	n = 12	*n* = 9	*n* = 21

5.2.2.4 Future work prospects

The final question in the questionnaire asked, “How do you see your future job prospects?” Each answer was analysed and coded as “Mainly positive”, “Neutral or mixed”, or “Mainly negative”. Twelve of the participants were “Mainly positive” to their future work prospects, five had a “Mixed or neutral view”, and four had a “Mainly negative” outlook. The overall results are displayed in Figure 18 and are divided per institution in Figure 19.

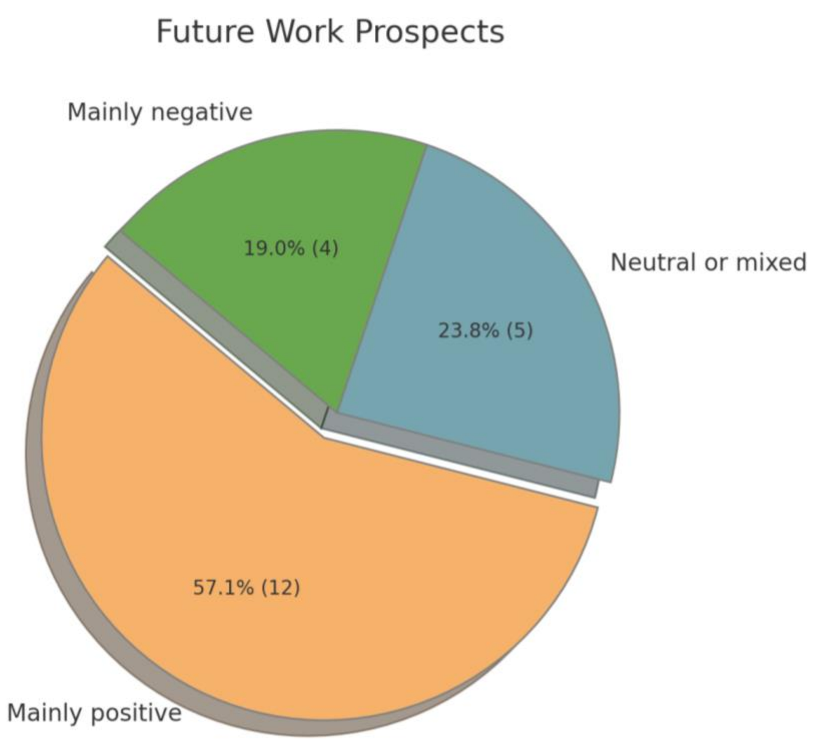

Figure 18 Future Work Prospects

Note. n = 21

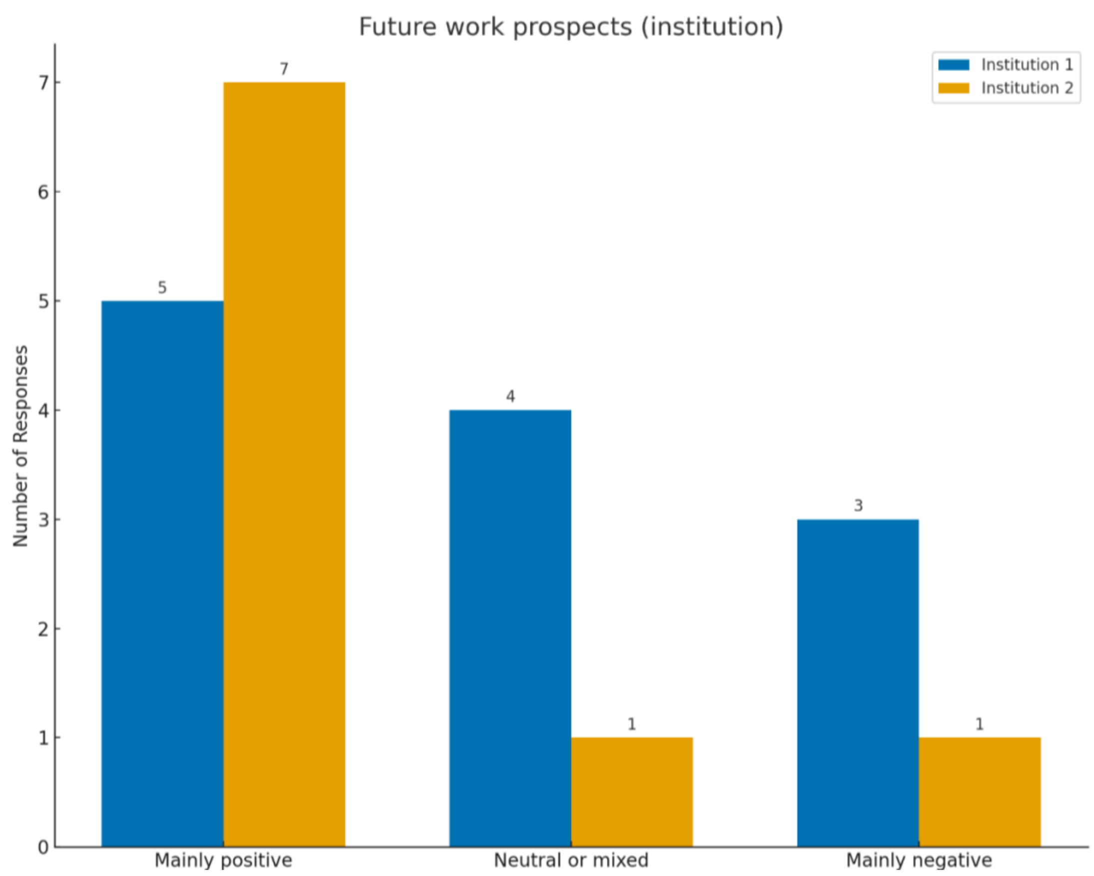

Figure 19 Future Work Prospects (institution)

Note. n = 21

There are no obvious differences between part-time and full-time teachers, but a larger proportion of the teachers at Institution 2 reported feeling more positive about their future work prospects than at Institution 1, with seven out of nine (77.8%) being “Mainly positive” versus five out of 12 (41.7%) at Institution 1. It is difficult to see any overarching reason for the more negative feelings toward future job prospects. Of the three participants from Institution 1 who reported mainly negative future job prospects, two stated that prospects were “uncertain” (full-time teacher, Institution 1) and “I have three more years on my current contract at most” (full-time teacher, Institution 1), while the third participant reporting negative projects said, “I will stop university teaching soon. I have chosen to let go of this higher prestige job to teach in my private language school” (part-time teacher, Institution 1). The participant from Institution 2 who expressed a mainly negative outlook simply wrote, “I try not to think about it” (part-time teacher, Institution 2). However, looking at the mixed prospect answers from a part-time teacher at Institution 1 might shed some light on how teachers cope with uncertainty: “Like an octopus with eight tentacles if one loses its hold the other seven should be okay until something else is found” (part-time teacher, Institution 1).

5.3 Interviews

The semi-structured interviews were divided into three parts. First, I asked how the participants perceive themselves as EFL teachers in the higher education field in Japan by focusing on their Professional Identity which is made up of Role Identity, Social Identity and Person Identity (Burke & Stets, 2009; Stets & Burke, 2000). Secondly, I asked about factors which influence teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. To elicit more discussion and encourage individuals to reflect on their priorities about the different factors rather than duplicate the rankings from the questionnaire, I used a diamond ranking (Clark, 2012) (4.4.4.2.1). Finally, I asked about how the participants felt about limited-term contracts used in the higher education in Japan.

5.3.1 How the participants perceive themselves as EFL teachers in the higher education field in Japan

5.3.1.1. Role, Social and Person Identity

The first part of the interview asked the participants to discuss how they see their Role, Social, and Person Identity as being a part of their overall Professional Identity.

5.3.1.1.1 Role identity

Most of the participants labelled their Role Identity slightly different. Six of the participants included the word "teacher" in their Role Identity, whilst the remaining two described their roles as more of a motivator or facilitator. The two participants that didn't include the word teacher to describe their role did refer to themselves as a teacher in the discussion, "I would say a guide. I don't really call myself a teacher so much because – certainly I am a teacher, but…" (Participant 2, p. 2). Or they stated that others might see them as a teacher, "Or the society views me as a teacher too. So I have that role as well." (Participant 3, p. 1).

Below is the list of what Role Identity the participants attribute to themselves. Three participants gave themselves two Role Identities, with one listing three in order of importance.

Participant 1: teacher
Participant 2: facilitator/guide
Participant 3: animator (in the German sense of the word, i.e., a motivator) and instructor
Participant 4: educator/real teacher
Participant 5: part-time teacher of content English
Participant 6: foreign language teacher
Participant 7: teacher
Participant 8: EFL teacher (first) researcher (second) social worker (third)

The employment status, part-time or full-time limited-term contract, might be related to the status within the organisation, "I don't really have a Role Identity that I care about because I'm part-time." (Participant 6, p. 1). However, out of

the four participants who were employed part-time, only one included their part-time status in their Role Identity; Participant 5 described themselves as a *part-time teacher of content English*. Also, the participants' sense of how they worked was not directed by their employment status, "I don't think my [employment] status as a teacher is in any way related to the quality of my teaching […] The status is, maybe, what other people have attached to you" (Participant 6, p. 1). This is further discussed in section 5.3.1.2 Teaching role and differences in employment status.

5.3.1.1.2 Social Identity

In most cases the participants' Social Identity is different from their Role Identity. The issue of being of a different nationality / ethnicity / linguistic background seems to be a factor in their Social Identity. For example, Participant 1's Social Identity was '*non-Japanese teacher*' vs their own Role Identity as '*teacher*'. This theme continued and is explored more in section 5.3.1.3 Feeling valued by peers and connected to the school community.

Some participants also discussed what they were not, i.e., "I don't call myself sensei" (Participant 3, p. 4), "definitely [do] not [belong] to the group of academics" (Participant 2, p. 3), "I probably wouldn't say I'm a researcher" (Participant 7, p. 5), and "I wouldn't call myself a linguist" (Participant 7, p. 4).

The Social Identity can also include expectations, responsibilities, and pressure from society as a whole. Two participants mentioned their titles and the Japanese wording for their titles when discussing Social Identity. The titles or terms translated to English seemed to have a different social meaning than the Japanese, "Oh, *junkyoju* [*Associate Professor* in Japanese] *…* This position is not that kind of Associate Professor" (Participant 4, p. 3) and "Here in Japan, I would say the role of teacher is, aside from the name, we're given a special name, people expect you to live up to that and they expect certain things for that title" (Participant 3, p. 2). Even when not referring to their titles, there were social expectations that influenced the participants' Social Identity, "(M)y role is to provide stimulating lessons for the students and instruction and, well, the various things that teachers *should* do in the classroom [Italics added by author]

(Participant 7, p.1). This can also be extended to how the participants behaved in their free time in everyday activities, such as shopping, “when I would go shopping, I would be careful to shave and I would even be careful what I was buying when students were there. … I was going to buy potato chips and I didn't want to buy the potato chips in front of the students (Participant 8, p. 5). Social identity can also be something that others impose on the participants rather than how they perceive themselves as EFL teachers and can vary a lot depending on who is looking at them “My social identity is most probably schizophrenic” (Participant 5, p. 18).

5.3.1.1.3 Person Identity

Five out of the eight participants mentioned that their Person Identity was the base for their Professional Identity, “(Y)ou cannot divorce that [your professional identity] from yourself as a person” (Participant 4, p. 4), “I think this is the very base – the person identity is important to teaching I believe” (Participant 2, p. 3), “They are, of course, overlapping. But without person identity obviously, the other two are just not possible, so I guess person identity would be number one” (Participant 3, p. 2), and “As a person and what you have as a base personality, I think should come first before role or so” (Participant 5, p. 1). One participant that didn’t specify that their Person Identity was the base for their Role Identity still drew on their own experience in their teaching, “I might use my own experiences as a model for what they [students] should do (Participant 7, p. 2). Participant 1 mentioned they had suppressed part of their Person Identity in order to become and later work as a full-time teacher but had regained that part of their Person Identity after changing employment status from full-time to part-time teacher:

> while I loved my last full-time job … I spent my entire time in teaching and professional development and research and publishing. My weekends were conferences. My evenings were JALT [a teacher association] work, and it was immensely satisfying and financially rewarding, but there came a point when I was about to leave here, and I thought to myself, I used to know actors and photographers and artists, and I used to be one of those people, musicians. (Participant 1, p. 3)

Participant 8 echoed Participant 1 and had done a similar journey:

> I think at different times in our life, we focus on one more than the other. I would say that last year, starting a new job, probably my role was a little more important than my social and my personal identity. For this year, I would still say my role identity is somewhat more important, because I'm trying to not so much focus on becoming a better teacher but focusing on becoming a better researcher. (Participant 8, p. 1)

5.3.1.2. Teaching role and differences in employment status

All participants agreed that the role of a teacher is the same in the classroom regardless of employment status, i.e., part-time, full-time limited-term contract, or tenured teacher, "We are all the same" (Participant 6, p. 4). However, the employment status does affect the duties and the level of commitment expected to be given to the institution, "I don't have to do that [extra duties], right?" (Participant 6, p. 4). Part-time teachers had more freedom and were not required to make contributions to the overall curriculum, "My idea is that maybe a full-time teacher is somebody who is more interested in forming a syllabus or curriculum perhaps (Participant 7, p. 5). However, part-time teachers were also paid less and did not have their own workspace or office. When moving from part-time to full-time, Participant 1 and Participant 4 experienced a loss of freedom but gained influence over teaching. According to the participants, full time teachers can share their ideas about teaching and curriculum development, conduct research, engage in Professional Development (PD) but are expected to develop material for other teachers and courses, and be responsible for more than just their own teaching, including coordinating other teachers.

The paradox that especially contract teachers need to do more research in order to gain the next employment opportunity but have less funding and opportunity to do so was raised by one teacher at Institution 2:

> I know that if you are a full-time teacher and your contract's gonna run out in a few years, you need to do the research in order to get the next position. Whereas, if you're tenured, you probably have more chance or more time to do that research, but there's less of a pressure on you to do it. (Participant 7, p. 6)

This issue was not raised at Institution 1 since there the full-time limited-term contract teachers receive a relatively large research budget, but at Institution 2 the contracted teachers didn't receive any research funds. In relation to PD, in Professional Associations such as Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) there is a perception that part-timers are looked down on, "I think in professional circles there's a stigma for just being part-time, but I don't see myself in that way. I believe I have a lot to contribute" (Participant 6, p. 5).

5.3.1.3. Feeling valued by peers and connected to the school community

Being a full-time teacher was connected to being appreciated more and a greater sense of feeling valued. "There's a small group, we can share ideas and I think that yeah, it's a nice group" (Participant 7, p. 7). However, part-time teachers were still feeling valued and connected being listened to as feeling valued. Being praised was also mentioned as an indication of feeling valued by their peers.

> He [previous tenured supervisor] made me feel valued. Because he used to talk with me about teaching and he showed interest in what I did. I could ask him questions and he'd give me a great answer, long email answer. I never felt like a novice. He was my equal. (Participant 6, p. 7)

This was also brought up in terms of how teachers perceived that the school administration was treating teachers. "I think, if the administration wants to value the part-timers, they should include them in discussions or check in with them" (Participant 6, p. 10). "I feel very comfortable with my role identity except for when there's a rule or something that I can't convince people to change or try to change" (Participant 5, p. 2).

The Issue of being of a different nationality/ethnicity/linguistic background was also brought up in this part. "Us vs Them" was a recurring theme that was mentioned in this section as well as when discussing whether teachers felt a full participant in their school community. The teachers interviewed hesitated to say they were "full participants in their school community" but all stated that they didn't feel excluded, rather choosing not to take part in most community events, "I don't choose to be. When you are part-time, it gives me the freedom to leave and that's fine (Participant 6, p. 11). This could be for practical reason of when

events and activities are held, “I come Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and so…” (Participant 5, p. 23) to the distance from the workplace and home. However, issues such as “us” being “a very fluid group” and “they” “having lifelong employment” and “you’re a foreigner”, “we are non-native Japanese teachers” was mentioned by both full-time limited-term contract participants at both Institution 1 and 2. “I'm employed mostly on the basis that I am not a Japanese teacher” (Participant 7, p. 1). One participant brought up a case at a different institution from the two in this study where the participant had felt directly discriminated because of being categorized as a non-Japanese teacher by the administrators, “But the way they brought it apart and how they made us different from the Japanese teachers was ... that was discrimination.” (Participant X, p. 26). [I don’t want to identify the teacher who said this just in case.]

When I asked whether teachers felt valued by the educational system and/or the Ministry of Education, it seemed to raise confusion. I had originally included this question to see if non-Japanese language teachers felt they played a part in Japan’s stated goal of internationalisation/globalisation, but the most common response was raising doubt that they as individuals would be known within such a system and each individual not being of much importance. To “the Japanese Ministry of Education, I’m a little flea or something. Not even a flea, a speck” (Participant 5, p. 21). “I don’t think that they particularly care about the individual personnel, especially not in five-year contracts where it doesn’t really matter for them, I don’t think, who’s in there, who’s in the slot” (Participant 7, p. 9).

5.3.1.4. Most connected to

The participants felt most connected to the other teachers in the same employment category as themselves, i.e., part-time teachers felt closest to other part-time teachers. Here, nationality/ethnicity/linguistic background was also mentioned. Foreign part-time teachers felt closer to other foreign part-time teachers, but in work situations where there were no other foreign part-time teachers, then they would feel closest to Japanese English part-time teachers. When employment status changed within the same institution, i.e., a teacher

moved from being part-time to full-time or vice versa, the group that they would feel the closest to changed to match their new employment category. The reasons given for this was that participants felt closest to "the people I talk to" or "the people I have lunch with". In both institutions, the practical aspect of having separate spaces for different categories of workers was stated as a reason for feeling closer to the group. "We are all in the same room" (Participant 7, p. 7). Some female teachers also mentioned that they felt a closer bond to other female teachers both same nationality and of different nationalities.

5.3.1.5 Being oneself at work

All participants stated that they could be themselves at work but mentioned that there can be multiple versions of oneself, i.e., "I am myself as an educator here" (Participant 4, Institution 1, p. 16). Some participants expressed that earlier in their career they had played a role more like an entertainer than a teacher, but since gaining experience and moving away from language school teaching, the participants all stated they could be themselves at the workplace.

5.3.2 Factors influencing teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction

The second part of the interviews was focused on factors that influence teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. To encourage a discussion about the different aspects instead of duplicating the rankings from the questionnaire, I used a diamond ranking method (Clark, 2012) (4.4.4.2.1). Participants were asked to arrange seven factors, along with two optional blank cards on which they could add missing factors they deemed important, based on their impact on job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The most important item was placed at the top tier, followed by the next two on the second tier, the three items ranked third most important on the third tier, the two second least important on the fourth tier, and finally the least important on the bottom tier (see Figure 5 and 4.4.4.2.1 for more details). The participants were asked to place seven factors (*Autonomy in teaching, Good working relationships, Job security, Salary, Student attitudes, Support from institution*, and *Working hours*) contributing to Teacher Job Satisfaction in their teaching context, and later seven factors (*Bad or low salary, Bad working relationships, Job insecurity, Lack of autonomy, Poor student attitudes, Too much work/duties*, and *Unsupportive institution*) contributing to

Teacher Job Dissatisfaction in their teaching context, in a diamond shape. The participants were instructed to rank the factors in order of importance according to each tier. Since the questionnaire only included seven factors, I added two blank cards on which the participants could add any factors that they believed should be included. As they placed the cards with the factors written on them onto the diamond shape, I asked the participants to voice their thinking. Once they had finished placing all the cards, and if they wished to add a further one or two factors of their choice, I took a photograph of the diamond and the placement of the factors. A digitised sample can be found in Appendix I: Diamond ranking example Teacher 2 Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction.

To make the diamond rankings comparable to the survey ranking, I assigned a number from 1 to 7 for each factor. Factors added by participants were excluded for this part. If two or three factors shared the same tier, then each would be given the same number. For example, if one factor was on the top tier, it was allocated a 1, and if there were two factors on the second tier, they would each be given 2.5 (2+3/2 = 2.5), third tier factors would be counted as 5 (4+5+6/3 = 5), fourth tier factors as 7.5 (7+8/2 = 7.5), and fifth tier as 9.

Looking at the combined interview rankings (Table 15), we can observe three groups. In the top group (orange), there are three factors: *Student attitudes*, *Autonomy in teaching* and *Good working relationships*. Those three factors have an average score from 2.38 to 3.00 (lower average score indicates higher rankings for affecting Teacher Job Satisfaction). Ranked fourth to sixth (yellow) are *Salary*, *Job security*, and *Working hours*, with average scores from 3.94 to 5. Finally, *Support from institution* (in blue) was the lowest ranked factor with an average score of 6.31. While different groupings might seem to be closer when examine the two individual intuitions, it would be challenging to compare them to the overall results. Therefore, I decided to use the same colour scheme in all tables that refer to the diamond ranking in the interviews. The contrasting factors that affect Teacher Job Dissatisfaction use the same colours to illustrate how any factor might affect Job Satisfaction differently from Job Dissatisfaction. The results can be seen in Table 13.

Table 13

Institution 1 and 2 Interview Ranking

	Teacher Job Satisfaction		Teacher Job Dissatisfaction	
Rank	Factor	ave.	Factor	av.
1st	Student attitudes	2.38	Bad working relationships	2.69
2nd	Autonomy in teaching	2.69	Poor student attitudes	3.44
3rd	Good working relationships	3.00	Lack of autonomy	3.38
4th	Salary	3.94	Bad or low salary	4.12
5th	Job security	4.63	Too much work/duties	4.13
6th	Working hours	5.06	Job insecurity	4.44
7th	Support from institution	6.31	Unsupportive institution	5.81

n = 8

There were minor differences in the results when considering the ranking solely from each institution; however, when examining the combined data from the eight interview participants from both Institution 1 and 2, the three groups of factors appear rather distinct. It could be said that the top three factors, *Student attitudes*, *Autonomy in teaching*, and *Good working relationship*, all relate to everyday teaching events; the middle three factors, *Salary, Job security*, and *Working hours*, relate to more economic factors applicable to any job; whilst the bottom factor, *Support from institution*, might be seen as something desirable but of lesser importance compared to the other six factors. This seems to be the case as it is consistently rated the lowest in both factors contributing to teacher job satisfaction and factors contributing to teacher job dissatisfaction.

5.3.2.1 Student attitudes, Autonomy in teaching & Good working relationship

In fact, all interview participants chose one of the three top ranked factors (*Student attitudes, Autonomy in teaching*, and *Good working relationship*) as their most important factor. In the interviews, the participants elaborated on the reasoning for their ranking, and their answers show how they think about their top choice. One of the strongest arguments why *Student attitudes* was the most important came from Participant 8, who stated:

> If I were offered job security and a better salary today at a third-tier university with very unmotivated students, I would not take the job because student attitudes mean that much. … Tenured job with better

salary at a university I know students are very unmotivated, or sleeping in class, I would not take the job. I would prefer continuing with contract jobs where I know students have better motivation and English puts a smile ... or at least my classes put a smile on their faces, and I get that back. … because I've taught at these universities before, sport universities and just in lower academic universities. Especially if the curriculum is set. (Participant 8, Institution 2, p. 22)

Furthermore, when discussing the reason for their ranking, one teacher who also ranked *Student attitudes* the highest simply stated, "That's who I work with" (Participant 2, p. 10). Participant 3 reasoned in a similar way but instead referred to having *Good working relationship* with colleagues, which they ranked the highest: "I would say probably most people appreciate their work relationships more than, and if they don't say so then they're lying, that good working relationships are key to doing a good job" (Participant 2, Institution 1, p. 18).

Participant 4 also relates their answer to doing a good job, but in this case, they think that *Autonomy in teaching* is the most important:

> I think autonomy in teaching is very important because you're the one in class, so, some courses – some plans – look very good on paper, but then you do it in class and it just doesn't work. […] so, I think the teacher has to have a say on that. If you believe – the institution believes – that this is a good teacher. He or she is just not here for because this is a paycheck. She wants the students to learn, so, I think there has to be autonomy. (Participant 4, Institution 1, p. 19)

In contrast, one participant ranked *Autonomy in teaching* in the mid-tier below *Good working relationships*, *Salary*, and *Working hours* and explained their reasoning:

> I don't really want to be told, "You've got ten different classes to teach and it's all completely up to you." […] I think that would actually be really hard work and maybe too much hard work unless, of course, the working hours were suitably reduced, [and] the salary was suitably increased. (Participant 7, Institution 2, p. 29)

This was echoed by another participant who said, “Lack of autonomy, as I explained earlier, I feel there should be a lack in some respects. There should be a curriculum” (Participant 8, Institution 2, p. 30).

These reasonings might explain why *Autonomy in teaching* is ranked higher for Teacher job satisfaction, but *Lack of autonomy* is ranked lower for Teacher job dissatisfaction both in the interview rankings and especially in the questionnaire. This will be further explored in Chapter 6.

5.3.2.2 Salary, Job security and Working hours

Often, participants mentioned *Salary* and *Working hours* together, but only two participants ranked them on the same tier in the diamond shape, while one participant ranked *Salary* lower and the remaining five ranked *Salary* higher than *Working time* when it came to influencing teacher job satisfaction. Participant 2 elaborated: “Salary. People work for money, and if somebody says otherwise, I don't believe it. Rank it up here [second tier] (Participant 2, Institution 1, p. 9).

How participants thought about *Job security* was a bit more varied. Several mentioned that it was something they would like to have, but it wasn’t something they worried about or had learnt to live without. For example, Participant 1 ranked *Job security* the lowest and explained it in the following way:

> I'm quite confident that I could lose all my jobs, and I'd get other jobs, and if Japan goes tits up, I'll go to Korea. […] Master's in hand, English-speaking, white, able-bodied, heterosexual [person]. I'm gonna be all right. […] As such, then it goes on the bottom because I don't worry about my job security. (Participant 1, Institution 1, p. 10)

Similarly, when discussing the reason why ranking *Job security* low (3rd tier) Participant 4 stated:

> So, student’s attitudes, good working relationship, and salary are more important because maybe I haven’t had job security [laughs] for the longest time – an ALT [Assistant Language Teacher], language school teacher – not really – right? So, my whole professional life I didn’t have job security and I managed. (Participant 4, Institution 1, p. 20)

One participant who ranked job security somewhat higher (second tier) also acknowledged that it was not something they were likely to have whilst working in a Japanese university:

> I don't even know where I want to put job security because I know the realities of the way the hiring procedures happen in this country. I don't think I can give anything else. Yeah, it would make me happy to be having a secure job. […] . I would love to have a job where I could just teach and then they wouldn't make me leave. Or I could leave when I wanted to leave. (Participant 6, Institution 2, p. 16-17)

Furthermore, when comparing job security to *Salary* and *Working hours*, Participant 7 explained why they had changed their previous job that had a 10-year limit for a job with a 5-year limit:

> That's why I'm putting it [Job security] further down because I had ten years ... Okay, so the reason why I did it was for working hours, if you include commuting time, but also koma [classes], so I had far more koma [classes] than I do here. (Participant 7, Institution 2, p. 20)

Coincidently, of the three participants that added any factor that hadn't been included on the questionnaire, two added *Commute* or *Bad commute*. The only other factor that was added was *Interesting work*.

5.3.2.3 Support from institution

The lowest ranked category, both by the interview participants and the questionnaire participants, was *Support from institution*. This category was taken from two previous studies (Fuisting, 2017; Fuisting, 2018), but it seemed that participants either didn't understand it and/or thought that it didn't not impact teacher job satisfaction, as illustrated by the following exchange between Participant 6 and myself:

> Participant 6: I don't know what this means.
> Interviewer: Which one?
> Teacher 6: *Support from institution*.

Even participants who didn't ask for a definition didn't think the factor had much impact on their level of teacher job satisfaction. One interviewee said, "*Support from institution*, I don't know when this has really been much of an issue, to be

honest” (Participant 7, Institution 2, p. 21). This was further explained by another participant:

> I feel I'm the one who should support the institution, not the other way around. That being said, a minimum of support giving my me computer class to conduct a class the way I wanted to conduct it, and as long as I get that I'm a happy camper. (Participant 8, Institution 2, p. 31)

5.3.3 Limited-term contracts

The third part of the interview was related to limited-term contracts used in higher education in Japan. The interviews dealt with two main areas regarding limited-term contracts. First was how the participants viewed limited-term contracts, and what positive and negative effects they might have for both teachers and institutions. Second was how full-time contract and part-time teachers could be better supported in their roles by themselves, by institutions, and by the Japanese government. Due to the semi-structured nature of the interviews, the topics at times came up during other parts of the interviews as well.

5.3.3.1 Effects of limited-term contracts

When asked how participants felt about limited-term contracts in general, all the respondents talked at much greater length about negative effects than positive effects, with most participants mentioned at least twice as many negative effects as positive.

5.3.3.1.1 Positive effects of limited-term contracts

Participants mentioned four different positive effects that limited-term contracts could have. The most common answer was that such contracts could avoid teachers becoming complacent and/or make teachers work harder, with six out the eight participants mentioning that it could be an effect. Three participants mentioned that it could help get rid of “bad” teachers and/or improve standards, whilst two participants mentioned it could help teachers gain new experiences/ideas, and a further two mentioned that having limited-term contracts created job openings for new teachers. The results are listed in Table 14. Most of the participants talked about the positive effects as possibilities that

could or might happen, except for creating job openings, which the two participants that brought it up stated had been something that they had experienced.

Table 14

Positive Effects of Limited-Term Contracts

Effect	Mentions
Avoid complacency / work harder	6
Remove bad teachers / improve standards	3
Gain new experiences /ideas	2
Create job openings	2

n = 8 (more than one answer possible)

The way participants spoke about the effects in the interviews indicated that they might not fully believe in the possible positive effect they brought up. Participants tended to say they “understood” that institutions had term limits for full-time contracts. For example, Participant 1 said, “I understand it from an institution point of view that you do not want teachers to be complacent or lazy, and putting limited-term contracts on them makes them perform, and I agree with that” (Participant 1, Institution 1 p. 15). However, at the same time, they tended to express that term limits without an option to renew is a waste, as illustrated by the next part Participant 1 said.

> What I think is short-sighted and baffling to me, frankly, is the fact that there is no option to renew, and it's just if you've got a really good teacher that you've invested a great deal of your institution's time and money and they're doing a fabulous job, don't you wanna keep them for longer? (Participant 1, Institution 1 p. 15-16)

Similarly, participants acknowledged that term limits can be a legitimate way for institutions to replace a teacher who is performing poorly or has stopped trying, as illustrated by Participant 6’s comment, “I understand the reason the university does it [have term-limits] because there might be dead wood in the water. (Participant 6, Institution 2, p. 36). Once again, though, the participant pointed out that not all teachers are non-performing or bad by adding, “I do not consider myself dead wood in the water. I don't believe I give anyone any reason to let me go. I don't want to go. That's frustrating” (Participant 6,

Institution 2, p. 36). Also, when asked about their general thoughts about term limits, the participants would not immediately mention something positive but needed to be asked specifically if there were any positive effects. This is shown how Participant 5 brings up that by moving to other institutions, teachers can gain a different perspective and see how things can be done differently:

> I guess for younger people, for them, within that five years, if you have limited time, if you take it positively, you could gain as much as you can from that school and their system. Of course, systems are not perfect, and so you get to go to another system. Use the good things about another school to have another opportunity to work in a different system. (Participant 5, Institution 2, p. 15)

The participant uses the phrase “I guess” and preferences it with “for younger people” and “if you take it positively”, illustrating that this potential positive effect is not a direct experience, it might not be for everyone, and it might not be seen as positive by everyone. Even when bringing up a positive effect that applies to the participant in question, it is done with hesitation, “If it [contract] hadn't existed I wouldn't have got the job. So I guess I have to say part of me understands why it's there” (Participant 3, Institution 1, p. 27). It is clear that many of the positive effects that are mentioned are not necessarily something that the participants wholeheartedly support and believe in.

5.3.3.1.2 Negative effects of limited-term contracts

Participants mentioned several possible negative effects that limited-term contracts might lead to and negative effects that they have experienced themselves. I decided to include only a possible effect if at least two participants mentioned it (for possible positive effects, there was none that was mentioned by only one participant). A total of eight possible negative effects were mentioned by at least two participants. The results are in Table 15.

Table 15

Negative Effects of Limited-Term Contracts

Effect	Mentions
Waste of money / time / experience	5
Can not keep “good” teachers	4
3 years is too short	4
Less invested / enthusiastic	3
System changed without clear information	3
No continuity	2
Feeling less valued	2
Financial insecurity	2

n = 8 (more than one answer possible)

The most common answer was that limited-term contracts were wasting resources in terms of money invested in teachers, time spent finding new teachers, time teachers had invested in the classes/program, etc. Five out of eight participants mentioned this kind of negative effect. This was followed by four participants stating that institutions can not keep “good” or “great” teachers. Other negative effects mentioned were that teachers might become less invested or enthusiastic due to term limits, that there is no continuity, teachers feel less valued, and that they lead to financial insecurity. Whilst it is technically not an effect, four participants mentioned that a 3-year contract was too short. These were all participants from Institution 1, since Institution 1 had traditionally only had 3-year contracts for full-time teachers, while Institution 2 had 5-year contracts for full-time teachers. Similarly, also not an effect, three participants raised the issue that the system had changed without clear information. Those three had all been working part-time, stated it had been unclear how the 5-year rule would affect part-time teachers, and that there had not been enough information from their employers at the time.

5.3.3.2 Support for limited-term teachers

Participants were asked how full-time contracted teachers and part-time teachers on limited-term contracts could be better supported in their roles by themselves, by institutions, and by the Japanese government.

5.3.3.2.1 How teachers can support themselves better

The data in relation to how teachers could better support themselves showed five possible solutions. I included all suggestions participants came up with, even if it was only mentioned by one teacher, since a couple of participants only mentioned one unique solution, and I wanted to make sure that all participants' ideas were represented. The results are found in Table 16.

Table 16

How Teachers Can Support Themselves Better

Solution	Mentions
Join / talk to union	5
Network / teacher groups / communicate with each other	4
Cover for "break"	1
Self-improvement	1
Unsure	1

n = 8 (more than one answer possible)

The most common suggestion from the participants was that teachers in general could join a union or talk to a union about their rights. This was brought up by five of the eight participants. The second most common suggestion was to network more. This could be done via informal networks, teacher groups such as JALT, or simply by communicating more with other teachers. One participant suggested that self-improvement was the best way to support oneself, while one participant had no solution because "we can't change the system". Finally, one participant mentioned that teachers can cover for each other when taking a 6-month break to reset the five-year time limit.

Even though a majority of the participants in the interviews mentioned that joining a union might help teachers, none of them stated that they had actively done so. Participant 1 explained that "we're not significantly unionised" (p. 21) to make a major difference. Others mentioned that they didn't think unions helped or that they disagreed with how unions operate in Japan. A solution that several of the participants both recommended and had tried was to network. The participants that recommended this had themselves had success in finding

out about job openings and making contacts while networking. For example, Participant 4 said, “So, I think they have to just network more” (p. 33).

5.3.3.2.2 How institutions can support teachers better

When discussing how educational institutions can support full-time and part-time teachers on limited-term contracts, the participants brought up five possible solutions. The results are in Table 17.

Table 17

How Institutions Can Support Teachers Better

Solution	Mentions
Longer contracts / extensions / renewal	4
Remove limit / offer permanent contracts	4
Rehire after cool down period	3
Help find another job	2
Communicate with teachers	2

n = 8 (more than one answer possible)

The two most commonly mentioned solutions were different for each institution. All four participants from Institution 1 mentioned that they wanted the institution to offer longer contracts, or the possibility to extend contracts, or the chance to renew the contracts (without taking a break). In contrast, all four participants from Institution 2 suggested that the 5-year limit should be removed or that contracts without a set limit should be offered. It is of interest that each of these solutions had at the time of the interviews been offered to some extent at the institution in questions (this is further explored in Chapter 6). Three participants brought up the idea of institutions offering teachers to be rehired after a so-called cool down period of at least 6 months (this topic is covered more in section 6.4.1.1). Two participants suggested that the institution should have some kind of system where they help teachers who have reached the 5-year limit find a new job, and two participants suggested that the institutions communicate more with teachers in regard to the 5-year limit.

5.3.3.2.2 How the Japanese government can support teachers better

When asked how the Japanese government could better support teachers on limited-term contracts, the participants proposed three possible solutions, whilst three participants stated they didn't know or were unsure. Each participant only brought up one suggestion in the discussion even though there was no limit. The results are in Table 18.

Table 18

How the Government Can Support Teachers Better

Solution	Mentions
Review law and the effect	3
Remove limit	1
Push universities to offer permanent part-time	1
Not sure	3

n = 8 (one answer per participant)

The most common suggestion was that the government should review the law and whether it had the intended effect, with three participants bringing it up. One participant wanted the government to remove the limit, and another participant suggested that the government push the universities to offer permanent part-time jobs. Of the three levels of support, i.e., from teachers themselves, from institutions, and from the government, this was the part where participants seemed to have the least suggestions, with three participants not being able to think of any suggestion, and the other five only mentioning one each.

5.4 Summary

Chapter 5 provides an overview of the results obtained from a questionnaire and interviews conducted at two institutions. The questionnaire focused on teachers' perceptions of themselves and the factors affecting their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, whilst the interviews explored similar themes and also discussed what roles teachers have and addressed the issue of limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan.

The questionnaire findings revealed that participants described a good teacher as someone who motivates and supports students, is adaptable, well-prepared, kind, yet firm. Part-time teachers experienced more conflict between their personal definition of a good teacher and their role compared to full-time teachers. The factors influencing the participants' definition of a good teacher were primarily shaped by their own experiences as students and teachers, as well as student feedback. Participants generally felt connected to the teaching profession in Japan, with some variations in the degree of feeling valued at different levels. The teachers felt the most valued in the classroom.

Regarding job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, participants ranked several factors, including *Autonomy in teaching*, *Good working relationships*, *Job security*, *Salary, Student attitudes*, *Support from the institution*, and *Working hours*, based on their impact. The rankings showed three groups of factors: *Student attitudes*, *Autonomy in teaching*, and *Good working relationships* formed the top group with the highest average scores, indicating their significant influence on job satisfaction. *Salary* and *Job security* constituted the middle group, while *Working hours* and *Support from the institution* was ranked the lowest and had the least impact on job satisfaction. *Autonomy in teaching* was the only factor that had a higher ranking for impacting job satisfaction than its opposite factor, *Lack of autonomy*, had for impacting job dissatisfaction.

The comments also revealed improvements in participants' teaching careers, increased confidence, changes in teaching outlook, and a sense of acceptance among peers. Overall, job satisfaction levels were moderate, with some participants expressing a desire for changes to enhance satisfaction, especially regarding having more job security. Job security was identified as the factor that most participants wanted to change in order to increase their level of job satisfaction.

In the interviews, the participants discussed professional identity, the factors impacting job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and finally the topic of limited-term contracts. Participants identified themselves primarily as teachers or in related roles such as motivators or facilitators. Some participants had sub-identities but

not all, and not the same. Social identity often differed from the participants' role identity and was influenced by factors like nationality, ethnicity, and linguistic background. Participants recognised the importance of personal identity in shaping their professional identity. They mentioned drawing on their own experiences and the significance of their personal identity in teaching.
The participants discussed the impact their employment status had on their duties and classroom role. Part-time teachers had more flexibility but received lower pay and had access to fewer resources. Full-time teachers had more responsibilities but better pay, including research allowances. However, their duties extended to responsibilities outside the classroom. Overall, the participants agreed that the role of a teacher in the classroom is the same regardless of the employment status.

The interviews also addressed the topic of limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan. Participants expressed more negative effects than positive effects regarding these contracts. While some positive effects were mentioned, such as preventing complacency and creating opportunities for new teachers, participants raised concerns about the lack of contract renewal options and the potential loss of experienced and dedicated teachers. The legitimate reasons for limited-term contracts, such as addressing underperformance, were acknowledged, but frustration arose when teachers themselves could be perceived to be considered part of the problem.

This chapter's key findings are:
Teacher Identity:

- Definitions of a good teacher and how these align with actual roles.
- Influence of personal and professional experiences on teacher identity.

Employment Status and Roles:

- Differences in experiences and responsibilities between part-time and full-time teachers.
- Consistency in teaching roles across different employment statuses.

Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction:

- Ranking of factors influencing job satisfaction, with a focus on autonomy, relationships, and student attitudes.

- Desired changes to improve job satisfaction, notably increased job security.

Limited-term Contracts:

- Mixed perceptions of limited-term contracts, highlighting more negative impacts.
- Concerns about job security and retention of skilled teachers.

In conclusion, Chapter 5 provides a comprehensive overview of how teachers perceived their roles, the factors influencing their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and the challenges posed by limited-term contracts in Japanese higher education. This chapter offers valuable insights into the complexities of teacher identity and job satisfaction, emphasising the need for improvements in job security and institutional support. These key points will be further discussed in the next chapter, where they will be compared to previous research findings. The upcoming chapter will delve into how the themes identified in this study align or contrast with existing literature on teacher identity, job satisfaction, and employment conditions. Additionally, the implications of these findings for policy and practice in higher education will be examined, providing a broader context for understanding the challenges and potential solutions for improving teacher job satisfaction in Japan.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this research was to explore teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction of limited-term contract and part-time foreign EFL teachers in higher education in Japan. In particular, I wanted to gain a better understanding of how the changes of the labour law enacted in 2013 had impacted these two areas for these groups of teachers. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss how the results of my research could contribute to the understanding of teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction of limited-term contract and part-time foreign EFL teachers in higher education in Japan. The study addressed the following overall research question, as well as three subareas of interest:

How do changes in employment laws/climate impact teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction among non-tenured EFL teachers in higher education in Japan?

1) What is the teacher identity of non-Japanese EFL teachers employed part-time or on full-time limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan?
2) What factors influence teacher job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction in these groups of teachers?
3) Are there differences in factors that influence teacher job satisfaction compared to those that influence teacher job dissatisfaction?

This chapter will first give a concise initial summary of the answers to the research questions, then it will address the area of teacher identity and teacher role of higher education teachers in Japan in more detail. It will highlight the major findings from Chapter 5 and link them both to existing research conducted in Japan, as well as how they might fit into the general picture of teacher identity. I will then address the second sub-question of teacher job satisfaction and teacher job dissatisfaction in more detail, and how the findings in this study compare to previous studies conducted on EFL teachers in higher education both in Japan and other geographical areas. I will attempt to isolate any factors that might have a greater impact on teacher job satisfaction than on teacher job dissatisfaction (i.e., the third sub-question). Finally, the impact of the

changes to the employment law will be discussed, and any affect they might have had on teacher identity and/or teacher job satisfaction.

6.2 Concise summary of the answers to the research questions

6.2.1 What is the teacher identity of non-Japanese EFL teachers employed part-time or on full-time limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan?

Most non-Japanese EFL teachers employed part-time, or on full-time limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan, primarily identify as “teachers”. However, some also associate themselves with specific subcategories such as "motivator," "researcher," or "content teacher." Their professional identity is complex and shaped by their own definitions of a good teacher, their professional experiences, and student feedback. The extent to which their perceived role aligns with their actual role varies, especially among part-time teachers. Generally, teachers believe that their role in the classroom should remain consistent regardless of their employment contract. However, their employment status does impact their broader roles and sense of value within the institution.

6.2.2 What factors influence teacher job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction in these groups of teachers?

This study examined seven factors influencing teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The top three factors identified were: *Good working relationships*, *Autonomy in teaching*, and *Student attitudes*. Additionally, while *Job security* was rated as of moderate importance by participants, it emerged as the most frequently cited factor when discussing the causes of their job satisfaction levels and the changes they desired to improve their job satisfaction.

6.2.3 Are there differences in factors that influence teacher job satisfaction compared to those that influence teacher job dissatisfaction?

Six of the seven factors were rated to have an equal importance in relation to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. However, *Autonomy in teaching* was rated as the second most influential factor that impacted job satisfaction. On the other hand, regarding job dissatisfaction, *Lack of autonomy* was found to have a relatively lesser impact compared to other factors. The study concludes that *Autonomy in teaching* holds greater significance for job satisfaction than the *Lack of autonomy* does for job dissatisfaction.

6.3 Teacher Identity and teacher role in Japan

This study aimed to find out what is the teacher identity of non-Japanese EFL teachers employed part-time or on full-time limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan. Part of the process of understanding the participants' teacher identity involved asking them to define: what a good teacher is, what role they would ascribe to themselves, how their employment status was connected to their teaching role, how valued they felt, and how their role aligned with their definition a good teacher. Based on the questionnaire responses, the participants in this study defined a good teacher as someone who motivates and helps students in the classroom. Teachers stated that their definition of a good teacher was primarily influenced by their own experiences as learners and teachers, as well as the feedback they had receive from students. They believed it is important for teachers to feel appreciated, trusted, and have a positive attitude, but at the same time to prepare well and to be professional. The interview participants believed that their professional role was mainly that of a teacher. Six out of eight stated their professional role is that of a teacher, although some added being an EFL teacher, or part-time teacher of content English. The two interview participants who didn't identify themselves "teachers" stated that they had a facilitating or motivational role. Most teachers felt connected to teaching profession and valued in the classroom. However, the feeling of being valued diminished when asking about how valued teachers felt in the English department or at the whole school level. There was also a sense among a considerable minority of the participants that their own definition of a

good teacher did not align with the role that they had at the school. This was more common among part-time teachers where five out of 11 part-time teachers stated there was a conflict in alignment.

When comparing this to other studies conducted in Japan on teacher identity and roles, there is mixed support for the findings. In Frasers' 2011 study, all the foreign teachers also ascribed themselves roles that included the word teacher, instructor, or educator, but some of the Japanese English teachers identified more as researchers. Two out of the three participants in Cowie and Sakui study (2012) included the word teacher in their role description, while the third participants choose to label himself a "co-learner". While Moritani and Iwai's study (2019) did not assign labels to the participants, it did discuss roles, and 10 out of 12 participants stated they had either a facilitator and/or motivator role. However, Nagatomo's study (2011) only partly supports these findings, as 51.6% of the participants strongly or mildly agreed, 25.8% neither agreed or disagreed and 22.6% mildly disagreed with being labelled an English teacher. One possible reason for the difference in self-identification as an English teacher could be that some of the participants might prefer to be seen as a "content" teacher, or "culture" teacher, as observed in Participant 5 in my study and one participant in Fraser's study (2011). Alternately, the reason for the participant in Nagatomo's 2011 study not wanting to adhere to the label English teacher might be connected to the fact that six out of eight of them were either assistant or associate professors, while the other studies included more part-time and contract teachers. Assistant and associate professors are more likely to identify with their research field than part-time or contract teachers are. It could also be that since all the participants in Nagatomo's study were Japanese English teachers, some of them, like in Fraser's study, might think of themselves more as researchers than English teachers. This aligns with Xu's (2014) review of language teacher identity, which indicates that linguistic background significantly influences professional identities, particular the separation between native English-speaking teachers and non-native English-speaking teachers. However, what can be concluded is that although the majority of English teachers in this study label themselves as 'teachers', not all of them adopted that label as their identity.

Another noticeable observation was that three out of eight of the interview participants in this study included something they “were not” when discussing their role. For example, Participant 7 stated “I wouldn't call myself a linguist” (p. 4). This finding was supported by some of the comments by the foreign teachers in Fraser’s study who did not want to be labelled professors, and in Cowie and Sakui study (2012) where all three participants included something they were not in their own identification. Support for this can be traced back to Beijaard et al.’s idea about subcategories, and specifically to Swennen et al.’s four subcategories of teacher professional identity: schoolteacher, teacher of teachers, teacher in a higher education setting and researcher. University educator and researcher are stated as being two separate subcategories, and not all English teachers at universities might feel they belong to both. Further support of the existences of subcategories could be found in the comments in how the questionnaire participant thought they have changed during their teaching career. One participant mentioned having moved more towards the subcategory of researcher since doing their master’s degree. Another participant had long been a schoolteacher but recently started teaching at higher education but found that they preferred to identity as a schoolteacher and would likely revert to that type of employment in the near future.

Regarding the type of employment contract and the teaching role, all participants in the interviews stated that there is or should be no difference in the classroom role. The employment status had more to do with what roles or functions teachers had outside the classroom, and at times in the wider society. This can is reflected in fact that all the questionnaire participants felt at least somewhat valued in the classroom, but two did not feel valued in the English department, and five did not feel valued in the school as a whole. In the interviews, some participants also described feeling pressure to behave in a manner appropriate to their title and/or professional identity. Some support for a separation of the classroom role and outside roles can be found in Fraser (2011), where it is noted that the expectations of administrative duties and the role teachers played in curriculum development were different for limited-term teachers and tenured teachers. Nagatomo’s 2011 study also concluded that the

teacher identity didn't seem to impact the aspects of classroom teaching she was investigating. Also, in Nagatomo's 2012 study it was mentioned that only tenured or tenured track teachers have access to the "inner trajectories in the university which they work" and that affects how much they can engage within the workplace (p. 112). Similar to the tensions discussed by Varghese et al. (2005) and Motha (2006), where factors such as race, gender, and ethnicity compromise professional identity, the participants in this study also highlighted the impact of being non-Japanese on their social identity and sense of value within the institution. Many teachers stated they felt less valued outside the classroom, particularly within the whole school. This reflects the broader issue of social identity influencing professional roles, as described in the existing literature. While it cannot be excluded, it can be said that this study has not found that the employment contract has a major impact on the classroom role teachers see themselves having, but it does impact the greater role teachers play in their workplace.

In summary, most but not all non-Japanese EFL teachers employed part-time or on full-time limited-term contracts in higher education in Japan identify as "teachers", while some also identify to a subcategory such as "motivator", "researcher", and/or "content teacher". Their sense of identity is nuanced and influenced by their definitions of a good teacher, professional experience, and feedback from students. The alignment of their perceived role with their actual roles varies, particular among part-time teachers. In general, teachers believe that the role in the classroom should not differ between teachers employed on different contracts, but employment status does affect the role teachers have in their workplace as a whole.

6.4 Teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction

The second part of the questionnaire and the interviews aimed to find out what factors influence teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and if there were any differences in the impact of a factor on one compared to the other. I will refer back to the relevant tables from Chapter 5 when discussing the results but will not repeat the tables.

6.4.1 Student attitudes, Autonomy in teaching & Good working relationship

It was clear from both the questionnaire ranking and the follow-up interviews that three factors had the most impact on teacher job satisfaction: *Good working relationships*, *Autonomy in teaching* and *Student attitudes*. Those three factors all relate to everyday teaching events, and several of the interview participants elaborated that it was because they worked with students and teachers every day, they believed they were the most important for their job satisfaction. For example, Participant 2 said "good working relationships are key to doing a good job" (p. 18). Likewise, when teachers who rated themselves as having a high of very high level of satisfaction were asked what the reason was for their satisfaction, most stated *Student attitudes* (10 out of 18) and *Autonomy in teaching* (9 out of 18) (Table 11). However, *Autonomy in teaching* was rated as being less important for teacher job dissatisfaction. In fact, in the questionnaire rankings, it was the only factor that ranked lower for job dissatisfaction than it did for job satisfaction (Table 9). Therefore, it can be concluded that *Good working relationships*, *Student attitudes*, *Job security*, *Salary*, *Working hours* and *Support from institution* are ranked the same in terms of their impact on both Teacher Job Satisfaction and Teacher Job Dissatisfaction (Table 10), and that only *Autonomy in teaching* has a greater impact on teacher job satisfaction than *Lack of autonomy* has on teacher job dissatisfaction. The general trend of rating *Lack of autonomy* as less important for job dissatisfaction is supported by the smaller group of interview participants, but not as clearly. One interview participant expressed the reasoning behind ranking *Lack of autonomy* as less important to job dissatisfaction than having autonomy is to job satisfaction: "Lack of autonomy, as I explained earlier, I feel there should be a lack in some respects. There should be a curriculum" (Participant 8, p. 30). It can be argued that having *Autonomy in teaching* is desired by teachers, but if the *Lack of autonomy* is replaced by a set curriculum, it might not lead to a drastic increase in teacher job dissatisfaction. When comparing how these factors have been discussed in other studies on EFL teacher job satisfaction at higher education, it is also clear that out of the eight studies detailed in Table 4, none mentions a lack of autonomy as impacting teacher job dissatisfaction. However, four studies (Ipek & Kanatlar, 2018; Jitpraneechai, 2019; Morris, 2021; Parrish,

2021) found that autonomy in teaching had an impact on teacher job satisfaction. A further two found that similar factors to autonomy, such as meaningful work (Kim & Davis, 2017) and enjoyable work (Tsutsumi, 2013), impacted teacher job satisfaction. This is also consistent with the Job Characteristics Model by Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980), which states that autonomy is a significant factor influencing job satisfaction. It can, therefore, be argued that there is support for the conclusion that autonomy in teaching is more important for teacher job satisfaction than a lack of autonomy is for teacher job dissatisfaction.

Likewise, several studies found that *Student attitudes* was an important factor for teacher job satisfaction. Six (Ipek & Kanatlar, 2018; Jitpraneechai, 2019; Morris, 2021; Parrish, 2021; Syamananda, 2017; Tsutsumi, 2013) out of eight studies mentioned it as a factor in teacher job satisfaction, and the one study that focused only on teacher dissatisfaction had *Student attitudes* as the focus on the study (Pacino & Qureshi, 2022). Similarly, most of the studies found that G*ood working relationships* was an important factor for teacher job satisfaction (Ipek & Kanatlar, 2018; Kim & Davis, 2017; Morris, 2021; Parrish, 2021; Syamananda, 2017) and teacher job dissatisfaction (Pacino & Qureshi; Parrish, 2021). As a result, it can be said that there is support for the conclusion that *Student attitudes* and G*ood working relationships* are two important factors for teacher job satisfaction. It could be argued that *Poor student attitudes* and *Bad working relationships* are not as important for teacher job satisfaction as the results in my study showed since it was not reported as a factor affecting job satisfaction as frequently in other studies. However, this might be a result of how my study was conducted. I specifically asked participants to rate factors impacting teacher job dissatisfaction, but most other studies only asked if factors impacted teacher job satisfaction. When discussing job dissatisfaction most studies relied on open-ended questions asking about what factors teachers would like to change in their workplace. I also include such a question, and when looking at those results (Figure 14), they are similar to what other studies found. Only four participants mentioned they wanted to improve working relationships, and it was the (shared) second most frequent mentioned factor, while *Student attitudes* was not mentioned at all as something teachers wanted

to improve. Bad working relationships and poor student attitudes may still be considered significant factors contributing to teacher job dissatisfaction. However, they are more likely to be mentioned in cases where students exhibit negative attitudes and working relationships are poor as in Pacino and Qureshi (2022). This is because studies primarily focus on factors that impact teacher job satisfaction and explore desired changes, rather than explicitly investigating teacher dissatisfaction.

6.4.2 Support from the institution

Support from the institution and *Unsupportive institution* were consistently rated as factors with the lowest impact on both teacher job satisfaction and teacher job dissatisfaction. It could be that the terminology was somewhat unclear when asked to rank it compared to the other terms in the questionnaire. One interview participant even said, “I don't know what this means” (Participant 6, p. 15). Other participants expressed similar doubts about what the factor entailed. My reasoning for including the factor was based on a previous study in which participants could freely write about what factors they thought were important. Some mentioned support for research and similar factors, and I decided to combine them into “Support from institution”. However, that study didn’t include any part-time teachers and it might have been that part-time teachers and full-time contracted teachers include different elements into what they believe support from institution means. The three participants whose comments for what factor they would like to change to improve teacher job satisfaction were coded as being *Support from the institution*, referred to a variety of issues (Appendix D). One mentioned wanting to improve how research purchases were approved, another wanted improved professional development support, and the third asked for more equal access to certain locked areas of the campus. Likewise, if looking at the open-ended answers when participants were asked to state their reasons for their level of satisfaction / dissatisfaction, the answers seem a bit vague, such as “poor administration” and “there are some things I feel the institution can think about or change to make the part timers feel more a part of the system” (Appendix D). While it seems like *Support from institution* is a factor impacting job satisfaction the term itself needs to be clarified better. When looking at the studies from the literature review (Table 4),

it supports my conclusion that this terminology might not have been ideal. Other studies have not used such a term; however, there are similar issues that might have been labelled differently. Jitpraneechai (2019) mentions "unfair treatment" and Kim and Davis (2017) use terms such as 'general positive attitudes' and "lack of sense of belonging", while Morris (2021) mentions "lack of effort acknowledgment". It could be argued that such terms might have a similar meaning to *Support from the institution* and *Unsupportive institution*. While there is some uncertainty of what participants read into the term *Support from institution*, it is clear that it was ranked to have the least impact on teacher job satisfaction in this study.

6.4.3 Salary, Job security and Working hours

The remaining three factors that was part of the study are *Job security*, *Salary*, and *Working hours*. *Job security* and *Salary* were ranked fourth and fifth most important for teacher job satisfaction, and were ranked third and fourth most important for teacher job dissatisfaction. *Working hours* was ranked sixth most important for teacher job satisfaction, and was ranked fifth most important for teacher job dissatisfaction. Participant 2 stated "People work for money, and if somebody says otherwise, I don't believe it. Rank it up here [second tier]" (p. 9). Yet, salary was never ranked the most important by any participant. This was supported in my previous study (Fuisting, 2018), where all participants mentioned salary as a factor for job satisfaction, but nobody rated it to be the most important. *Salary* was mentioned the third most frequent, behind *Student attitudes* and *Autonomy in teaching*, as the reason of having a high level of job satisfaction (Table 11). Moreover, three participants listed it as the factor they wanted to change to increase their level of teacher job satisfaction (Figure 14). Comparing my results to other studies on EFL teacher job satisfaction in higher education, five out of the eight studies in Table 3 found that *Salary* was a factor. Two studies found that it impacted teacher job satisfaction (Ipek & Kanatlar, 2018; Morris, 2021), while in three studies it was mentioned as something teachers complained about (Syamananda, 2017; Jitpraneechai, 2019; Parrish, 2021). In Jitpraneechai (2019) and Parrish (2021) only a subgroup of the participants, local teachers, and part-time teachers respectively, complained about the salary. Looking at it from a wider viewpoint, Maslow's Hierarchy of

Needs model (1954) also states that financial compensation can meet both biological and esteem needs. It can be said that *Salary* is a factor for any job satisfaction, but it is not regarded as the most important for teacher job satisfaction.

Working hours was rated relatively low by the participants in my study (sixth out of seven), but it was the shared second most frequent mentioned factor when participants were asked about what change would increase their teacher job satisfaction (Figure14). Similarly, it was mentioned by five out 18 participants (who rated themselves having high or very high level of job satisfaction) as a reason for their level of job satisfaction (Table 11). Some teachers mentioned having long vacations and 4-day working weeks specifically for their reasoning. Others list workload or teaching load as having a positive impact on their job satisfaction. It seems that the low ranking of *Working hours* is in conflict with participants mentioning it as the reason for their high satisfaction level, and other participants stating that they would like to change it to improve their level of satisfaction. When looking into the details of those four who wanted to change *Working hours* to improve their level of job satisfaction (Figure 14), one full-time teacher wrote “My commute is long. I would prefer to have been stationed at a campus closer to my home”, one part-time teacher wanted to “greatly reduce the amount of grading that needs to be done”, one full-time teacher wanted “less classroom time in exchange for more time to administer the programme”, and the final part-time teacher wanted “less hours to achieve better results”. While all these reasons were coded under *Working hours,* it could be argued that they are actually referring to different aspects of *Working hours* and participants might not have included these aspects when they were ranking the factors in order of importance earlier in the questionnaire. Similarly, it can be argued that long vacations, mentioned as a reason for having a high job satisfaction level, might not have been thought of as being part of *Working hours* by some participants. However, despite being the second lowest ranked factor for impacting teacher job satisfaction, it can be argued that *Working hours* does have an impact on it. There is support for this in other studies. Ipek and Kanatlar (2018), Morris (2021) and Parrish, (2021) found that workload was a factor that impacted job satisfaction, while Tsutsumi (2013) found that teachers

complained about ‘poor work life balance’ and Parrish (2021) found that part-time EFL teachers wanted to reduce their teaching load. It can be said that there is some confusion of what is included in the term *Working hours*, but there is evidence that it does impact both teacher job satisfaction and teacher job dissatisfaction.

The final factor the participants were asked to rank was *Job security*. It was ranked fourth in terms of its impact on teacher job satisfaction, and *Job insecurity* was ranked third for teacher job dissatisfaction in the questionnaire (Table 9). It was listed as the most common factor participants wanted to change to increase their job satisfaction (seven out of 21 mentioning it) (Figure 14), and it was the most commonly mentioned factor (three out of seven factors mentioned) when explaining the reasoning for having a low(er) level of job satisfaction (Table 11). One full-time teacher explained their reasoning for wanting to have more job security in this way “To not have a limited contract and be able stay and work as long as I enjoy the job” and a part-time teacher wrote, “Job security because I like what I do but I can't stay at the school more than 5 years”. Overall, a higher percentage of full-time teachers (40%) than part-time teachers (27.3%) mentioned job security as the factor they wanted to change to increase job satisfaction. That might be explained that part-time teachers hired before 2013 at Institute 2 were able to apply for permanent part-time status and/or that some part-time teachers had multiple sources of income. One part-time teacher phrased it the following way when discussing their future job prospects, “Like an octopus with eight tentacles if one loses its hold the other seven should be okay until something else is found”. While the questionnaire results showed that job security and job insecurity were rated as important, the interview participants did not seem to think it was that important. When rating it low Participant 1 explained, “it goes on the bottom because I don't worry about my job security (p. 10). Participant 4 seemed to reason in a similar way, “My whole professional life, I didn’t have job security and I managed” (p. 20). Participant 6 seemed to have accepted the low level of job security as a fact of working life in higher education in Japan, stating, “I don’t even know where I want to put job security because I know the realities of the way the hiring procedures happen in this country” (p.16). There is support for

job insecurity being a factor contributing to job dissatisfaction in countries where short-term contracts are the norm. Studies conducted in South Korea (Kim & Davis, 2017) and Japan (Parrish, 2021; Tsutsumi, 2013) found it as being a factor of job dissatisfaction for teachers employed on full-time limited-term contracts, with teachers mentioning it as the factor they wanted to change. However, foreign full-time contracted EFL teachers in China were found to rate their job security as "reasonable by most" (Morris, 2021, p. 153). The gap in what teachers in Japan expect, and what they currently receive in terms of job security, ties strongly into Locke's Range of Affect Theory (1976), in which workers define their job satisfaction by comparing what they assume to receive at work and what they actually receive. The fact that it was the most commonly mentioned factor that would increase the teachers' job satisfaction aligns with Locke's theory, indicating that job security is a significant factor for many teachers' overall job satisfaction. It can be concluded that job security is rated quite high for impacting teacher job satisfaction, especially among full-time limited-term contract teachers, but the lack of job security might reluctantly have become an accepted fact of working life in Japan. Limited-term contracts were further discussed in the third part of the interviews.

6.5 Limited-term contracts

The third part of the semi-structured interviews discussed the topic of limited-term contracts for full-time and part-time EFL teachers in higher education in Japan. The aim was to find out the perceived positive and negative effects such contracts have, and how teachers can navigate a job market where limited-term contracts are common practice. The questionnaire did not include any question that specifically asked about the impact of the limited-term contracts, but participants mentioned it in some of their answers.

6.5.1 Effects of limited-term contracts

The interview participants were asked about positive and negative effects of limited-term contracts for EFL teachers. All the participants provided more examples and spoke longer with less prompts about the negative effects (Table 15). They expressed concerns about the system wasting money and forcing out

good, experienced teachers leading to feelings undervaluation, financial insecurity, and potential negative consequences for students, such as less continuity and reduced teacher investment in the English programme. One participant expressed their feelings in the following way, “[i]t makes me anxious every day. Mental health, I have a lot of anxiety” (Participant 6, p. 38). The questionnaire answers also indicated that teachers were worried about the situation. When explaining the reasons for their level of job satisfaction one part-time teacher stated, “there are rumours of replacing us with dispatch teachers”. Even teachers with high job satisfaction mentioned wanting “an unlimited lifetime employment” (full-time teacher, Institution 2). As mentioned earlier in 6.3.3, job insecurity was the most common factor participants wanted to change to improve job satisfaction with 40% of full-time teachers and 27.3% of part-time teachers stating it. Previous studies on EFL teacher job satisfaction in higher education in Japan, have reached similar conclusions. Tsutsumi (2014) identified job security as one of the factors with the largest disparity between teachers’ ideal situation and their experienced reality. Some participants in her study also mentioned job security as a negative influence on their motivation. Similarly, Parrish (2011) found that 40% of contracted teachers viewed job security negatively. Job insecurity is increasingly seen as a factor contributing to the declining birthrate and social division in Japan (Shirahase, 2015). The fact that teachers, and workers in Japan in general, have expressed anxiety regarding their employment status can be not only linked to Locke’s Range of Affect Theory (1976) but also Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs (1943, 1954). If teachers do not feel that they will be able to secure future employment that would affect several of the levels of needs in Maslow’s Hierarch such as biological and esteem needs (1954). As a result, among teachers, especially limited-term full-time contract teachers, job insecurity due to limited-term contracts is a major concern.

6.5.1.1 Proposed solutions to limited-term contracts

When asked how teachers can support themselves, networking was the most common response. Some teachers suggested the idea of teachers covering for each other while taking a 6-month leave of absence to reset the 5-year limit. However, such actions have been criticised as illegal by unions, and any

systematic circumvention of the right to be offered permeant status if working continuously for more than five years would likely be struck down by the courts. When asked what institutions can do, teachers expressed a desire for universities to offer continuous employment and eliminate the 5-year limit. Participant 6 stated, “I wish [Institution 2] would wake up and realise we are being stupid” (p. 25). While there is some evidence that government educational institutions have moved away from enforcing the 5-year rule for part-time teachers and office workers (General Union, 2017; Japan Press Weekly, 2017), many institutions still advertise limited-term full-time contracts. The participants, and likely the wider teaching community in Japan, want the government to change the law. Despite the link between insecure jobs and declining marriage rate and birthrate (Shirahase, 2015) the Japanese government, led by the same political party for 64 out of the past 69 years, has not proposed any changes to the Labor Law in its latest effort to tackle the low birthrate (Yamaguchi, 2023).

6.6 Broader Issues Emerging from the Study

This study focuses on the immediate factors influencing teacher identity and job satisfaction among non-Japanese EFL teachers employed on limited-term or part-time contracts in higher education in Japan and how the changes in the laws have impacted these groups of teachers, but it also touches upon several broader issues that transcend the specific findings of this research. These issues include the complex relationship between teacher professional identity and job satisfaction, as well as the discrepancies between policy intentions and their actual impacts.

6.6.1. Connection Between Teacher Professional Identity and Job Satisfaction

The concept of professional identity is intertwined with job satisfaction. As the data from the interviews demonstrates, teachers who perceive themselves as valued and autonomous professionals are more likely to experience job satisfaction. The alignment of personal and professional identities—where teachers see their roles as teachers, motivators, facilitators, or researchers—

plays an important role in their overall teacher job satisfaction. This aligns with broader theories of professional identity which suggest that a well-integrated professional identity contributes significantly to job satisfaction and overall well-being (Day, 2002; Van Lankveld et al., 2017).

In contrast, the misalignment between teachers' definitions of a good teacher and the roles they are assigned can lead to job dissatisfaction. This misalignment is particularly pronounced among part-time teachers, who often feel less valued within the institution. These findings suggest that institutions should focus on fostering a sense of professional identity that aligns with teachers' personal definitions and experiences to enhance job satisfaction.

6.6.2. Policy Reform: Intentions Versus Impact

The changes in Japanese labour laws intended to improve employment conditions have had mixed effects on non-Japanese EFL teachers. This aligns with Tsui (2007) and Liu & Xu (2011) who emphasises that educational reforms shape professional identity. While the intention behind limiting term contracts was to prevent exploitation and encourage fair employment practices, the actual impact has often been counterproductive. Teachers expressed frustration with the lack of job security and the negative effects of limited-term contracts on their professional stability and personal well-being. This discrepancy highlights a critical issue in policy-making: the gap between the intended benefits of policy reforms and their real-world implications. For instance, while the reforms aimed to create a more flexible labour market, they inadvertently contributed to job insecurity and dissatisfaction among teachers. This underscores the need for a more nuanced approach to policy-making that considers the specific contexts and needs of the affected groups.

6.6.3. Implications for Institutional Practices and Policy

The findings of this study suggest several implications for institutional practices and policy reforms. Educational institutions should strive to create more permanent and renewable positions for teachers to enhance job security and satisfaction. Additionally, policies should be designed to ensure that part-time and limited-term contract teachers feel valued and integrated into the

institution's fabric, which is essential for maintaining a motivated and satisfied teaching workforce.

Furthermore, the broader societal implications of job satisfaction in higher education cannot be overlooked. As Japan faces an aging population and a declining birth rate, ensuring job security and satisfaction for educators becomes even more critical. Teachers who feel secure and satisfied in their roles are more likely to contribute positively to the educational environment and, by extension, to the broader societal goals of stability and growth.

6.7 Summary

This chapter discusses the findings and implications of my study on teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction among limited-term contract and part-time foreign EFL teachers in higher education in Japan. The chapter focuses on addressing the research questions related to the impact of changes in employment laws on teacher identity and job satisfaction, as well as factors influencing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among these teachers.

After briefly answering the three sub-questions to overarching research question, I then explore the concept of teacher identity, the participants' definitions of a good teacher, and what role teachers ascribe to. The study finds that most teachers primarily identified themselves as teachers, although some also mentioned sub-roles such as EFL teacher, part-time teacher, or facilitator/motivator. These finding align with previous research that has identified sub-identities among teachers. The participants felt valued in the classroom but less so in the English department or the school as a whole. Some also felt a disconnect between their own definition of a good teacher and the role they had at the school. I then compared these findings with previous studies conducted in Japan on teacher identity and roles, highlighting both similarities and differences in how teachers identify themselves. Conclusions suggests that while the majority of English teachers label themselves as teachers, not all fully adopt that label as their identity.

I also discuss the factors influencing teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The three highest ranked factors were: *Good working relationships*, *Autonomy in teaching*, and *Student attitudes*. In terms of job dissatisfaction, *Lack of autonomy* was found to have a lesser impact compared to other factors. The findings are compared with previous studies on EFL teacher job satisfaction, highlighting the importance of factors such as *Autonomy in teaching* and *Student attitudes* in influencing job satisfaction. The section concludes that *Autonomy in teaching* is more important for job satisfaction than *Lack of autonomy* is for job dissatisfaction. The study also found that while *Job security* was ranked medium important by the participants, it was the factor that was mentioned the most when discussing what impacted the teachers' job satisfaction level and what changes they would like to see to increase their job satisfaction. The study's findings are aligned with broader theories of job satisfaction such as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1945), Hackman & Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (1975) and Locke' Range of Affect Theory (1976).

The study also investigated the impact of limited-term contracts on EFL teachers in higher education in Japan. The participants discussed both positive and negative effects of such contracts. However, they predominantly discussed the negative aspects, including a sense of experienced teachers unnecessarily having to leave jobs they were performing well in. Additionally, the participants believed that limited-term contracts could result in less continuity in the English program and reduced teacher investment in student learning. Job insecurity was a prominent issue for both full-time and part-time teachers, with implications for their overall well-being and mental health. The desire for long-term job security and unlimited lifetime employment was consistently expressed, reflecting concerns shared by EFL teachers in previous studies conducted in Japan. In terms of potential solutions, the participants highlighted the importance of networking among teachers for support. They also mentioned the idea of teachers covering for each other during a leave of absence to reset the 5-year limit imposed by the contracts, although this approach has been criticised as potentially illegal. However, the primary hope of the participants in the study was for universities to offer continuous employment and eliminate the 5-year limit altogether.

Finally, I discussed some of the broader issues this study touched upon, such as the connection between teacher professional identity and job satisfaction, how the effects of the labour reform are different from the intention behind it and what implication this might have for practice and policy.

Overall, the chapter provides insights into teacher identity, job satisfaction, and dissatisfaction among limited-term contract and part-time foreign EFL teachers in higher education in Japan, as well as the impact of limited-term contracts. In the final chapter, I will conclude the thesis by discussing the study's contribution to knowledge, and elaborate on some of the practical implications this study might have, as well as list the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Contribution to knowledge

I embarked on this study with the ambitious goal of examining teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction of limited-term EFL teachers in higher education in Japan. Although it proved challenging to fully achieve this goal, I sought to provide a snapshot of the workplaces and teachers at two institutions by gaining their trust. The fields of teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction in these groups of teachers require further research, especially considering the impact of Japan's changing labour market and shrinking population on the educational sector. I believe that the finding from this study can contribute to a better understanding of how teachers identify themselves and the factors that influence their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

The main contribution of this thesis is the recognition that limited-term teachers in Japan identify job security as the factor they would most like to change in order to enhance their job satisfaction. The fact that improved job security was the most commonly mentioned change that teachers wanted with one third of the participants stating it, should make educational institutions reconsider their hiring practices. By addressing this concern and taking measures to alleviate teachers' worries, educational institutions can cultivate a more content work force. Even if work policies cannot be altered unless labour laws are changed, simply acknowledging and being aware of teachers' concerns can have a positive impact. While the change in labour law was specific to Japan, I feel that it can be applicable to other jurisdictions since it implies that concerns about job security would likely impact teacher job satisfaction negatively in other geographical setting s as well.

Additionally, it is noteworthy that *Lack of autonomy* has a limited influence on teacher job dissatisfaction, despite *Autonomy in teaching* being rated a one of the most important factors for job satisfaction. This finding should be of interest to curriculum developers, as understanding the factors valued by teachers is crucial in managing an English Department at a university, as well as for educational managers in general. Similarly, recognising the high value placed

on *Good working relations* and *Student attitudes* is important for managers in educational institutions.

Regarding teacher identity, the study's findings support the notion that teacher identity consists of sub-identities. The four sub-identities identified by Swennen et al (2010) can make up the identity of a teacher and it might lead to teachers thinking of their roles in different ways. Not all EFL teachers are the same, and in fact, they may not consider themselves solely as EFL teachers. Institutions and department supervisors should acknowledge the fact that teachers within departments might have different professional identities. Furthermore, the teacher participants felt appreciated and respected within the classroom setting, but they did not feel the same level of recognition within the English department or the entire school. Additionally, some of them sensed a mismatch between their personal understanding of an effective teacher and the expectations placed on them in their school role.

7.2 Practical implications and recommendations

Job satisfaction among workers in general has a broader impact on society, and it is increasingly evident that Japan is undergoing societal changes with an aging population and consistently low birth rates. As few babies are traditionally born outside marriage in Japan, it is crucial for young people to feel secure enough to get married. However, labour market deregulation has created a sense of insecurity, leading to fewer individuals feeling confident enough to get married. By investigating the factors influencing teacher job satisfaction in my own workplace, I aimed to contribute to a better understanding of the situation and ultimately improve the work environment in general in Japan.

My recommendation for educational institutions in Japan is to strive for more permanent positions and/or positions that can be renewed. Limiting part-time teachers to a maximum of five years is a waste of resources and talent. Managing fluctuations in student numbers and available classes should be achieved without forcing everyone to leave their job every few years, and then spend time and effort finding and training replacements. For full-time teachers, there should be a pathway to renew limited-term contracts, with institutions

establishing criteria for teachers to continue working at the workplace. It is clear from the data that teachers are looking for the institutions to support limited term teachers by either provide longer contrasts, as in the case of Institution 1, or create unlimited contracts that teachers can apply for, as in Institution 2. However, implementing these recommendations would require a change in the labour laws, which would necessitate a shift in attitude from the political party that has dominated Japan’s post-war era or the election of a different set of politicians to address the issue. If zooming out and looking at what educational institutions outside Japan could learn from this study, it would be to consider how their own hiring policies might affect the job satisfaction of their teachers.

More feasible recommendations are for managers and supervisors at educational institutions, particularly those overseeing English departments, to be aware of the factors affecting teacher job satisfaction and the various sub-identities of teachers when planning and designing curriculum. Currently at all Japanese universities there are mandatory student evaluations each semester. However, there are almost no evaluations or investigations about how teachers feel about the courses or their work conditions beyond a yearly stress survey, which is not linked directly to any specific working conditions. It would be beneficial for educational institutions to investigate how their teachers feel about their working conditions by conducting similar evaluations of the courses by their teachers. A furtherer step would be to directly investigate how teachers fell their working conditions impact them.

7.3 Limitations of the study

The first limitation in this study is its narrow scope. By focusing solely on non-tenured English teachers at two institutes, the number of potential participants was limited. The relatively small sample size and purposive sampling method limit the generalisability of the findings to a broader population. Although the response rate was relatively high at 84%, it is difficult to draw strong conclusions based on the rankings from only 21 questionnaire participants. Combining data from two collection methods strengthened the study, but the interview stage included only eight participants, which is somewhat limited.

Furthermore, there was some confusion regarding the terminology used in both the questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews. Despite piloting the research instruments, it became evident during the interviews that the term *Support from institution* was not easily comprehended by the participants. In any future study such a term would need to be either elaborated on or unpacked in order to make sure that participants would have a clearer understanding of it. To prevent such issues in future research projects, I will implement a more extensive testing of the research instrument and include definitions of key terms.

Additionally, the fact that I was an insider researcher may have influenced participants' willingness to openly share their experience. Although I took steps to ensure a relaxed and trusting environment, I cannot rule out the possibility that some participants did not express their true feeling. This might be reflected in that a relatively small number of questionnaire participants who agreed to participate in the interviews, with several responding with only 'maybe'. While the inside status could be seen as a potential limitation, it can also be viewed as a strength as it allowed for a deeper understanding of the context and better rapport with participants' experiences. Furthermore, the inherent subjectivity in qualitative data collection and analysis may introduce researcher bias, despite efforts to mitigate this through reflexivity and member checks. Finally, the context-specific nature of the study means that findings may not be broadly applicable across different educational settings, and replicating the study in diverse contexts could help validate and extend the results.

7.4 Possible future research

Teacher professional identity and job satisfaction are areas in need of further research. However, for future studies, it would be beneficial to focus on one area at the time. While there are clear overlaps, investigating such a wide range of topics makes it challenging to draw firm conclusions. In hindsight, I think dividing the topics into two separate, but more elaborate studies might have led to deeper insights in each area. In any future endeavours that I might undertake I would concentrate on only one area and instead aim to investigate it deeper. I would also aim to have longer data collection periods, where I would return to

the participants at intervals to investigate any changes over time. In terms of teacher job satisfaction, it appears that the adaptation of universities to the labour laws is still evolving with several court cases still pending. Also, universities are tweaking their employment contracts and practices. This makes it and area that would benefit from further research. Conducting larger-scale studies would enable more robust conclusions to be drawn.

7.5 Self-reflection

My Doctor of Education studies, and particular this research project, have been a lengthy but rewarding process. The insights I have gained have helped me navigate my teaching context better and improved my understanding of my own workplace. I feel more aware of my own teacher identity and my own teacher job satisfaction, which is the first step in understanding my colleagues'.

As I conclude this thesis, I reflection on the eight years it took to complete the project. Although at times I have despaired and had doubts, both over my findings that at times seemed insignificant, and at my ability to bring this endeavour to a fruitful conclusion, I feel I am in a better position than when I started. Thank you for taking the time to read my research.

APPENDIX

Appendix A: Certificate of Ethical Approval

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

St Luke's Campus
Heavitree Road
Exeter UK EX1 2LU

http://socialsciences.exeter.ac.uk/education/

CERTIFICATE OF ETHICAL APPROVAL

Title of Project: Teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction of EFL teachers working in higher education in Japan

Researcher(s) name: Bjorn Fuisting

Supervisor(s): Karen Walshe
Vivienne Baumfield

This project has been approved for the period

From: 15/06/2017
To: 13/07/2021

Ethics Committee approval reference:

D/16/17/43

Signature: Date: 25/05/2017
(Dr Philip Durrant, Graduate School of Education Ethics Officer)

Appendix B: Questionnaire

Job Satisfaction of Teachers Working in Higher Education in Japan

Thank you for taking part in my research project.

This questionnaire consists of 9 background/demographic questions, 8 questions on how you see yourself as a teacher and 8 questions about teacher job satisfaction. You will NOT be asked your name and all information will be in an anonymised form in any academic reports, articles or presentations.

*Required

Information sheet and consent form: I have received, read and signed the Information sheet and consent form for this research project. *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No *Stop filling out this form.*

Part 1: Background/demographic questions

Please answer the following 9 questions in relation to your background/demographics

1. Nationality: What is your nationality? *

____

2. Age: What is your age? *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Under 25
- ◯ 25-39
- ◯ 40-59
- ◯ 60+
- ◯ I prefer not to say

3. Gender: What is your gender *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Female
- ◯ Male
- ◯ Other
- ◯ I prefer not to say

4. What is your highest completed degree? *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Bachelor
- ◯ Masters
- ◯ Doctorate
- ◯ I prefer not to say

5. Are you currently enrolled in another degree program? If so, what kind of program/degree?

6. Years of teaching: How many years have you been teaching in Japanese higher education (all employment forms)? *

Mark only one oval.

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 11-19
- 20+

7. What is your current employment status? *

Mark only one oval.

- Part-time contract(s)
- Full-time limited-term contract [can include working part-time at (an)other institution(s)]
- Full-time unlimited-contract or tenured position [can include working part-time at (an)other institution(s)]

8a How many years have you been teaching part-time in Japanese higher education? *

Mark only one oval.

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 11-19
- 20+

9a How many different Japanese higher education institutes are you currently working at? *

Mark only one oval.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8+

Part 2: Yourself as a teacher

Please answer the following 8 questions in relation to how you see yourself as a teacher.

1. What is your own definition of a good teacher? *

2. How does your definition align and/or conflict with your role as a part-time/limited-term contract teacher at your school? *

3. What do you think influenced your own definition of a good teacher? And why? *

4. What do you believe to be important in your work? And why? *

5. To what extent do you feel connected to the teaching profession? In general? In Japan? *

Mark only one oval per row.

	Not at all connected	Somewhat connected	Connected	Very connected
Teaching profession in general	◯	◯	◯	◯
Teaching profession in Japan	◯	◯	◯	◯

6. To what extent do you feel a valued member of the teaching community at the classroom level? Within the English department? Whole school level? And national level? *

Mark only one oval per row.

	Not at all valued	Somewhat valued	Valued	Very valued
Classroom	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭
English department	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭
Whole school level	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭
National level	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭

7. Looking at the scale above how would you account for any variations in the degree of feeling valued? *

8. Has how you think of yourself as a teacher changed during your career? If so, how? Why? If not, why not? *

Part 3: Teacher Job Satisfaction

Please answer the following 8 questions in relation to your limited term contract job unless otherwise stated.

1. In your teaching context, what factors do you think contribute to teacher job satisfaction? Please rank them according to importance. Note: You will need to choose one number for each factor and you can only give the same number/ranking one time. (1 = most important factor) *

Mark only one oval per row.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Autonomy in teaching	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭
Good working relationships	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭
Job security	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭
Salary	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭
Student attitudes	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭
Support from institution	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭
Working hours	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭	⬭

2. In your teaching context, what factors do you think contribute to teacher job dissatisfaction? Please rank them according to importance. Note: You will need to choose one number for each factor and you can only give the same number/ranking one time. (1 = most important factor) *

Mark only one oval per row.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bad or low salary	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Bad working relationships	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Job insecurity	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Lack of autonomy	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Poor student attitudes	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Too much work/duties	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Unsupportive institution	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

3. How satisfied are you with your current teaching job? *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very dissatisfied	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very satisfied

4. How would you account for your level of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction? *

5. If you could change one thing about your job to increase your job satisfaction what would you change? Why? *

6. How do you see your future job prospects? *

Optional: Do you have anything you would like to add?

Thank You!

Thank you for taking part in my research. Your input is much appreciated/ Bjorn Fuisting

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Appendix C: Interview guide

Professional Identity & Teacher Job Satisfaction Interview Guide

Start Recoding 1 (keep but not transcribe)
Greeting & "Thank you for coming today"
Purpose: Finding out more about the topic, complete my thesis and in the long run possible inform the teaching community in Japan
Time: approximately 1 hour
Reassure about confidentiality and anonymity
Make sure they have signed and understand the Consent and Information form
Any questions before we start?

Stop recoding 1 & start Recording 2 (transcribe)
Introduction
For this interview, I plan to explore three main topics, teacher professional identity, teacher job satisfaction and finally the issue of limited-term contracts for full timers and part-time teachers.

Professional identity
Show the three different aspects of professional identity and ask which aspect is important to them and why?

Burke and Stets (2009) have identified three factors that affect professional identity construction, person factors, role factors and social factors. I'd like to ask some questions related to those factors.

Aspect 1: Role identity
Value
1) To what extent is the role of a contract teacher different from a part-time teacher and a tenured teacher?
In what way are they the same and in what way are they different?

2) To what extent do you feel valued by your peers?
How does this effect your sense of professionalism?

3) To what extent do you feel valued by the education system, i.e. Ministry of Education, in Japan?

Aspect 2: Social identity
School community
4) To what extent do you feel a full participant of the school community?
Do you participate in any school events?

5) On a professional level who do you feel more connected to?
For example, other part-time teachers vs tenured and full-time teachers?
University staff? Japanese Language teachers & foreign Language teachers?

6) Are you a member of any professional organizations, such as JALT or JACET?
Does that affect your social identity?

Aspect 3: Person identity

Authenticity

6) Can part-time/contract teachers be themselves at their workplace?
Why?
Why not?
What does this result in?

Part 2: Teacher Job satisfaction

Factors that contribute to teacher job satisfaction

1) Make cards and ask to rank them in a diamond shape (with two blank cards)
[Ask for permission to take photo]
Why did you rank them in this way? What is the thinking behind your ranking?

2) Ask participant to predict what the top 3 were in the questionnaire

3) Is your prediction the same as your own answer? Why do you predict that the group answered differently/the same as you?

[Show results 1]
When asked to rank the factors that contribute to teacher job satisfaction from 1-7 these were the answers given.

4) Does anything surprise you with results? Why do you think these were the rankings?

5) To what extent do you agree with the ranking?
Why? Why not?

Factors that contribute to teacher job dissatisfaction

6) Make cards and ask to rank them in a diamond shape (with two blank cards)
[Ask for permission to take photo]
Why did you rank them in this way? What is the thinking behind your ranking?

7) Predict what the top 3 were in the questionnaire

8) Is your prediction the same as your own answer? Why do you predict that the group answered differently/the same as you?

[Show results 2]
When asked to rank the factors that contribute to teacher job dissatisfaction from 1-7 these were the answers given.

9) Does anything surprise you with results? Why do you think these were the rankings?

10) To what extent do you agree with the ranking?
Why? Why not?

11) If you could change one thing about your job to increase your job satisfaction (and/or decrease your job dissatisfaction) what would you change? Why?

Part 3: Limited contracts

1) What are you views on limited-term contracts within the education profession? (Both for part-time teachers and full-time contract teachers)

Do you think the situation will change in the near future?

What positive effects do contract have?
What negative effects do contract have?

2) How could contract/part-time teachers be better supported in their role?

By schools
By contract teachers themselves
By the government

3) What factors influence the choice of employment form, for example to teach part-time or to apply for a limited-term contract teaching position?
Have those reasons changed? How about your own reasons?

4) Recently this university and others started to offer permanent part-time contracts for teachers who have worked longer than 5 years. What are your feelings about this issue?

5) Do you have anything you would like to add?

Thank you very much for taking part and sharing your views and experience.

Appendix D: Questionnaire sample questions with highlight and codes

Q5. If you could change one thing about your job to increase your job satisfaction what would you change? Why?	Factor coded as
Spending our research budget without prior approval from the university. The process of buying things I need takes too long. It would be great if the university would let us buy what we need and then reimburse us after we send in receipts.	Support from institution
Being a non Japanese will always be an issue teaching and working in Japan. **I will never be considered equal.** This is something I would like to change.	Good working relationships
I wish **more teachers were interested and valued professional development.** That would make things much better.	Support from institution
Less classroom time in exchange for more time to administer the programe.	Working hours
Security	Job security
To **not have a limited contract** and be able stay and work as long as I enjoy the job.	Job security
More cooperation and input from the teachers I work with.	Good working relationships
More teamwork	Good working relationships
More stability would be one factor that would make me satisfied. Constantly having to adjust my schedule is quite vexing at times.	Job security
Positive signs that the university appreciate us (the part-timers). **About being forced to take the semester off**, it was not without some advantage for me. I have taken it as a kind of semi-sabbatical and used the time to study, widen my knowledge, and try to gain new skills. But **I do feel for the people who are losing their jobs because of the system, which makes me feel very negative towards the admin.** I was especially angered when I discovered that our university seemed to be the only one in Nagoya adopting this approach.	Job security
It would be nice to have acknowledgment of the need for what I do, which I believe could start with the **changing of the title of my position** in English and Japanese.	Good working relationships
If I had set targets to reach, but I could do in the classroom what think needs to be done to hit them, I'd feel happier. And **greatly reduce the amount of grading that needs to be done.**	Working hours
My commute is long. I would prefer to have been stationed at a campus closer to my home.	Working hours
Already stated in question number 4 = **Lifetime employment.**	Job security
Research grant, **higher salary.**	Salary
The pressure to do research. I currently do not really have a strong passion for any particular area of research. However, it is also a bit daunting to think that **I have to search for work every 5 years or so.**	Job security
I'd like a pay rise please, Bjorn. The other stuff is great so the only thing that would make it better is more cash.	Salary
job security because I like what I do but **I can't stay at the school more than 5 years.**	Job security
Freer access to the building so we can feel more like a worker for the institution instead of limited access to this and that entrances and elevators. Especially at [campus name] this blockage to the part timers makes me feel like a visitor. Feeling like I belong where I work (especially after working X years for the same institution) can help me feel valued. More value will support my confidence and I will be an even better teacher.	Support from institution
Geting paid for grading or having paid individual time with each student or being able to give that responsibility to someone else.	Salary
work less hours to achieve better results	Working hours

Q4. How would you account for your level of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?	Coded factor for satisfaction	Coded factor for dissatisfaction
I did not expect to get a full time and relatively high-paying job after just x years of experience at the tertiary level. I have a high level of freedom in my classes with students who may not have high levels of motivation but are well-behaved. I am also learning a lot from my more experienced co-teachers. Also, our university does not try to micromanage us.	Salary, autonomy, student attitudes, good working relationships	
Good money, good colleagues, good hours.	Salary, good working relationships, working hours	
The ability to determine the projects that I think will have the biggest impact for my program and students.	Autonomy	
I work in a well-paid situation with a great deal of freedom and support. The students have been responsive (for the most part) to teacher initiatives. We (the department) lack the time and money to implement the changes necessary to make a great department.	Salary, autonomy, support from the institution student attitudes	Unsupportive institution
Poor administration		Unsupportive institution
For the most part everything is great, especially in terms of relationships, student attitudes, salary, autonomy. I am sad to have to leave after this year due to the limited contract. I will definitely miss my students and coworkers.	Good working relationships, student attitudes, salary, autonomy	Job insecurity
In my PT position, less satisfied due to changes over the last few years as well as general job fatigue.		Too much work
I put it this way, every teacher who works in higher education should be required to work at a factory, or as a dishwasher for two months on a low salary before stepping into a classroom. That's what I did and it helped my attitude about being a teacher.	Salary	
I would say that I am satisfied with my teaching jobs overall. I work with a lot of smart and genuine people who are very experienced teachers.	Good working relationships	
I actually do enjoy teaching at the university. The reason I didn't click "5" is because of the university's five-year policy. I suppose it may seem a bit at odds that in sections 2 and 3 above the institution's attitude scored 7 in both parts. However, this is because if I really think about what is important the attitudes of students and colleagues is more important than the institution because the students and colleagues are the ones I interact with on a regular basis. The "institution," which I assume to mean the people who sit in the offices and deal with the bureaucracy are more distant from what goes on in my classroom.	Student attitudes, good working relationships	Job insecurity
Overall I enjoy what I do, and I have enough going on that even if things are atrocious, in one environment they'll be going smoothly elsewhere.	Unspecified	

See answer 8 Part 2 [In the university, there are rummers of replacing us with dispatch teachers, so I don't feel I'm valued.] I am but a part-time teacher, a cog in the wheel of the syllabus. I have no freedom in the classroom and I have realized I can't teach this way. Also, grading theses quizzes I don't agree with week after week takes too much time.		Job insecurity, lack of autonomy, too much work
I have enough autonomy in that while I am told which text books to use, I can do it at my own pace. The institution trusts me to do my job properly. My schedule lets me have one day off campus each week.	Autonomy, working hours	
Very high satisfaction. If I were offered an unlimited lifetime contract for my current position I would accept it. I enjoy my current teaching load, students, and co-workers. It would be great if my current five-year contract could be magically changed turned into an unlimited lifetime employment.	Working hours, student attitudes, good working relationships	Job insecurity
I am satisfied about most aspects of my job, particularly working environment, student attitudes, workload, schedule, facilities, autonomy, etc... I would be even more satisfied if I had better salary and a research grant. Without a research grant, I have far less enthusiasm for writing papers or giving presentations and travelling to conferences. Alternatively, if my salary were much higher I would be less worried about a research grant. If I had this I would certainly choose "very satisfied".	Student attitudes, working hours, autonomy, good working relationships	Low salary
Everything is still relatively new to me, but I am enjoying getting to know my students and colleagues, as well as learning how to teach completely different courses than what I have been used to until this point.	Good working relationships	
Good students. Nice working hours. Decent pay. Amazing holidays.	Student attitudes, working hours, salary	
Students are motivated, I teach a variety of classes, I feel challenged, I have fun	Student attitudes	
There are many things I am satisfied with such as classes I have been offered for X years and kindness from the many people who work at the school. However, there are some things I feel the institution can think about or change to make the part timers feel more a part of the system.	Good working relationships	Unsupportive institution
Students/time restraints	Student attitudes	Too much work
I'm free to apply my teaching methods, have students who seem interested in learning, and work in a supportive institution under the supervision of competent professionals along with like minded colleagues.	Autonomy, student attitudes, supportive institution, good working relationships	

Appendix E: Interview transcript sample with highlights and initial notes

Interviewer: Okay. So in this interview I will go with three topics.

Teacher 2: Okay. Yes.

Interviewer: The first one is teacher professional identity, teacher job satisfaction, and finally I'll talk a little bit about the issue of limited term contracts for full-time and part-time teachers. So, to start with, about professional identity, this is according to Burke and Stets. These are three different parts that make up your identity. So you have the role identity, the social identity, and the personal identity. Which one do you think is more important and why?

Teacher 2: What do you mean with "role identity"?

Interviewer: Well, for instance –

Teacher 2: Roles we take in our –

Interviewer: In your professional life. So you would be a – what's your role?

Teacher 2: Facilitator?

Interviewer: You can say facilitator. Some people would. What word would you use to describe is your role?

Teacher 2: So my role – what I do basically?

Interviewer: Mm.

Teacher 2: My social identity – who I am in a social context, right?

Interviewer: Yeah.

Teacher 2: As a person in society?

Interviewer: In society, yeah. And this is connected to professional identity. For instance, role identity could be – you said you were a facilitator. You could see yourself as an English teacher, a German teacher, a drama teacher, whatever role you assume.

Teacher 2: Right.

Interviewer: Social identity – you could be, see which group you think you belong to.

Teacher 2: Okay.

Interviewer: And personal identity could be your personal values that you bring into – they're all interrelated. It's more how you see them.

Teacher 2: How I see them.

Interviewer: Yes. What do you see as your role identity? What do you see as your social identity? What do you see as your personal identity?

Teacher 2: Okay. So basically – so if the answer is not the one you want or if I go off the track a little bit, just let me know please.

Interviewer: Yeah.

Teacher 2: So role identity, for me okay – I see it very simple. I think my role as a teacher is to help my students. Yes. And I think, in order to be able to help students, you constantly have to adjust to the teaching context to individuals. But I see my role as somebody who helps the students. I want to help them so that they can achieve their goals. And also, in a context of university, we have to also I think be aware of that we only teach 15 lessons a semester, which is not so much – we don't spend so much time with students. So to understand the limited amount of time we have and make the best out of that. So that's what I see my role: what can I do within that 30 lessons a year, 15 lessons a semester, and how can I help my students best?

Interviewer: But you wouldn't call yourself a helper.

> Social role is different from own professional role.

Teacher 2: I would call myself maybe a guide.

> Sees role as: Guide

Interviewer: A guide?

Teacher 2: A guide.

> Define role as something they are NOT. Not a teacher

Interviewer: Not a teacher?

Teacher 2: I would say a guide. I don't really call myself a teacher so much because – certainly I am a teacher, but –

Interviewer: But you think your role as a teacher is as a helper or a guide.

Teacher 2: Exactly. That's how I kind of, yeah, see myself.

> Same as student

Interviewer: Why would you pick that role? What made you –?

Teacher 2: I think because I see myself as somebody who is in the same boat as the students in a classroom. So I always say, "We together try to steer into a certain direction." So I guess it's also a responsibility I feel towards the students. But I do kind of see

myself as part of the whole thing. But maybe somebody who is more a guide, as, yeah, a teacher.

Interviewer: Okay. Interesting. How about your social identity?

Teacher 2: My social identity. The way I see myself in society?

Define role as something they are NOT. Not an academic

Interviewer: Which group do you think you belong to?

Teacher 2: Which group? Yes. I actually don't really like belonging to a certain group, and definitely not to the group of academics. I kind of refuse that *[laughs]*.

Interviewer: Okay. Why is that?

Teacher 2: Because I have a different background.

Interviewer: You don't see yourself as an academic.

Teacher 2: No. I don't want to. And I'm not – so I see myself just as a person. And I think personally what I feel – I think I'm a person who is quite flexible with people, so if I want to I can adjust and belong to different groups. But I don't say "That's my status: I belong to this certain group."

Interviewer: Okay. You don't feel excluded by any group.

No strong group ID

Teacher 2: I don't feel excluded because I know I can adjust to each group. That's how I feel from what I've experienced so far.

Doesn't feel excluded

Interviewer: You mentioned you see yourself as a person. What personal traits would you bring into your professional identity?

Teacher 2: Okay. I think one thing that I really believe that I bring into my teaching is that I show students that I'm not perfect. I want to be honest to the students. And if I make a mistake, if I mess up, I always apologize. Whether it's a student or somebody higher than me. So I think to kind of show them that we have faults, or that I have faults, sometimes helps to build trust I believe. So I think – and, as I said, when I communicate to students, I usually lower myself to their level, to give them the feeling that we are kind of in the same boat, as I mentioned before. What else do I bring?

Own experience. Used in prof. role including mistakes to build trust

Same as student

Interviewer: Which one do you think is more important? Your role as a teacher or as a guide, or your role as a part of group, or your personal identity? Which one makes up the most of your professional identity?

Teacher 2: Somehow I believe the person identity, the way somebody is and the way somebody deals with other people. But probably that is

connected to social identity. I think this is the very base – the person identity is important to teaching I believe.

Person ID base for role ID

Interviewer: Yeah, of course.

Teacher 2: And the social identity – you can belong to whatever group, but it doesn't mean that you can be a good teacher. I don't know if that's the right *[laughs]* –

Interviewer: Okay. I have some more specific questions. So if I talk about role identity a little bit –

No strong group ID and not connected to being a good teacher

Teacher 2: Okay. Please.

Interviewer: To what extent is the role of a full-time contract teacher different from a part-time teacher? And, once again, or a tenured teacher? So, for instance, you work as a part-time teacher.

Teacher 2: Yes.

Interviewer: I work as a full-time contract teacher. And we have other – for instance, [name of teacher] is a tenured teacher.

Teacher 2: Yes. Right.

Employment status, classroom role and commitment & responsibilities

Interviewer: Are our roles different?

Teacher 2: Professionally speaking, our roles in the classroom should not be different. But I think because a full-time teacher spends so much more time in one place and teaches only a certain amount of lessons – so I believe that the role of a full-time teacher should be devotion to that institution he or she works in, should be absolutely devoted to that. And I think for part-time teacher, maybe if you want to even be devoted, devote yourself, because you may work at different places, so it's not so easy probably. And because you're away, you don't spend so much time. So I think there's a difference there.

Less time in the same workplace means less opportunity to devotee oneself to that institution

Interviewer: What are signs of devoting yourself to the institution? Could you give an example?

Teacher 2: Yes. I think for example, yes, I think for full-time teachers, they are in charge of certain classes. It means it's their responsibility to really make the best lesson plan possible and work with part-time teachers in order to help the students again, right? *[laughing]*.

Interviewer: Okay. So the goal is the same, but the function is a little bit different.

Employment status impact what kind of responsibilities

Teacher 2: Yeah. I would say yes.

Interviewer: Okay. And in the classroom, regardless of your employment status, you still think that the role as a teacher in the classroom is the same.

Teacher 2: Absolutely. I think. Because this is what – yeah. If I say I'm a teacher, it doesn't matter in what kind of setting I teach. I should be professional. If I would call myself as a professional in what I do. It doesn't matter what it is *[laughs]*.

Teacher same in classroom

Interviewer: Okay. Good. To what extent do you feel valued by your peers? [Checking in with someone who knocked at the door]

Sorry about that.

Teacher 2: Yes. That's really difficult to answer for me. But I do feel some – you know, there are some people who show their let's say respect and trust. So I feel that. But I can't really say myself exactly what – what's the question?

Interviewer: To what extent do you feel valued by your peers? Appreciated.

Teacher 2: That depends on the individual who I work with.

Interviewer: How about at this place?

feeling valued

Teacher 2: Yeah. I think I do. Yeah, I feel comfortable and valued from the people I work with.

Interviewer: Does this affect your sense of professionalism? So if you feel valued, maybe you feel professional.

Teacher 2: I think yes. I think that affects everybody: if somebody is appreciated, if you feel that what you do makes sense, or if you bring in ideas and they are valued, I think even if somebody tries to say "No, it doesn't affect me," I think it always affects somebody, yes.

Listened to leads to feeling valued

Interviewer: Do you have any examples?

Teacher 2: If you get praise, people are happy. If you praise somebody, right, yeah, okay, I –

Praised leads to feeling valued

Interviewer: Good. And how about: to what extent do you feel valued by the education system in Japan? Like the minister of education.

Teacher 2: I really don't know.

Interviewer: Does it matter to you?

Teacher 2: It doesn't matter so much. No, it doesn't matter to me really. Because I work with the students. And that's my – yeah. That's important.

Interviewer: Okay. So if you feel valued by your students and your peers, that's enough for you.

Teacher 2: That's enough for me, yeah.

Feeling valued at classroom level is enough

Interviewer: Good. I'm gonna move on a little bit to the social identity.

Teacher 2: Yes, please.

Interviewer: To what extent do you feel a full participant of the school community? So in this case, the [current university] community?

Teacher 2: That's also really difficult to say.

Interviewer: Okay. Simpler – do you participate in any school events?

Teacher 2: No, I haven't so far. Maybe some – there were some – graduation party of students. But I never went to a major event.

Interviewer: Okay. Why not?

Join events if convenient

Teacher 2: Because I think I was only invited once last year by students. There was this festival or something, and I had something else on that weekend. It was on the weekend.

Interviewer: Okay. We also do some events in the Self Access Center.

Teacher 2: Ah, yes. I participate every week in the [language event] – almost every week.

Interviewer: You were also invited to a Christmas party – but I know you couldn't come – by the [name of class] students.

Teacher 2: Yeah. I mean, if the students invite me or if there's a event at the school where I'm present – because I live in [name of city], right? Then it's a different story, right? There I participated too.

Interviewer: But you don't feel excluded.

No feeling of being excluded

Teacher 2: I don't feel excluded, no. Not really.

Interviewer: Okay. So on a professional level, who do you feel more connected to? So, for example, you have part-time teachers, full-time teachers, tenured teachers, university as a group, Japanese-language teachers or foreign-language teachers? In your case, you teach both English and [foreign language] teachers, English teachers. Who do you feel more connected to and why?

Teacher 2: Yeah, I think I feel mostly connected to English teachers because with 'content' teachers I don't really have – I don't meet them so often. And mostly they are Japanese and there is always a kind of distance.

Dif. Nationalities/languages can lead to distance

Interviewer: Okay. So you feel most connected to foreign English teachers?

Teacher 2: Teachers. Whether full- or part-time it doesn't matter. To whoever I work with at that time.

Feels connected to Who I meet

Interviewer: Okay. Is that the same at this institution as your other places you work?

Teacher 2: I mean, yes. I mean, mostly it is the case. But, for example, on [day of week] I work at different school and there's this Japanese English teacher, and we always have prolonged conversations about teaching. But there is no foreigner there.

Interviewer: Okay. Are you a member of any professional organizations such as JALT or JACET?

But if no other in the same group, then closer to same role

Teacher 2: No. I'm not.

Interviewer: Okay. What's the reason why not?

Teacher 2: Okay. There is a reason. There is actually a reason. The reason is that I – okay. That's something very personal. Maybe I shouldn't –

Interviewer: Okay. If you don't want to, it's okay.

Teacher 2: But, no, I think it's important so I will state it. I think it's important. Okay. So I've experienced some members of JALT who went to every single meeting, who gave their presentations very proudly. And, you know, I respected. I thought they must be great teachers. And I had a chance to work with some individuals who are really high up in JALT. And when I saw, what I observed – I thought that they were not really devoted to teaching itself, and I was so disappointed. I thought, "That's it for me." And, okay, I shouldn't judge the whole organization just because a few individuals. That's not really fair. But in my case it was that because I life in [name of city] and there's that kind of JALT. So I was really disappointed. Because I thought if somebody is devoted to teaching and a member of JALT and goes to every meeting, gives presentations, this person must really care about their students.

And there was this one high guy in JALT who became a full-time teacher. I was a part-time teacher. And I came in on Thursdays. And I really took it seriously so I prepared myself. The evening before I wrote down the major points of the lessons. And he would

Lost respect for JALT due to unprepared f-t teacher

ask me – he is a full-time teacher. He had an office, right? I would come in. He was like, "So what's on the menu today?" And I had to explain to him the lesson plan almost every week. And I thought, "Wow. You are not really prepared."

Interviewer: Okay. So his example made you –

Teacher 2: Yes. He and another guy. There were a couple of people. But I guess under different circumstance I would be a member. But the second thing is that I don't wanna give presentations. I am just – that's a very private thing. I don't want to. I like to keep quiet.

Interviewer: *[Laughs]*. That might be a good strategy. Okay. So you distance yourself from JALT because of some bad experiences.

Teacher 2: Yes.

Interviewer: And you also said you don't have very strong social identity connected to your teaching.

Teacher 2: Yeah, maybe, you can call it that way.

Interviewer: Well, you talked about your role and you talked about your person.

[Crosstalk]

Teacher 2: Yeah.

Interviewer: Do you think this experience have affected your social identity as a teacher?

Teacher 2: Difficult, difficult. I guess the social identity, in my case, is because, okay, maybe a lack of trust I have in that. And generally I don't like to belong to any groups. That has something to do with my personality. I never supported a football club or whatever. So I never joined any group with – I'm just like: that's not me. That may have something to do with it. That's the reason why I just kind of distance myself from those groups I guess.

No strong group ID

Interviewer: Okay. That's fine. Thank you very much. One aspect about person identity. Do you think that part-time teachers can be themselves in the workplace?

Teacher 2: Themselves in what regard? Could you give me an example?

Interviewer: Can they come and they can be who they think they are?

Teacher 2: I think they can.

Being oneself at work

Interviewer: Okay. Have you ever had any experience when you don't feel like – "Okay, this is my private part and I'm not going to bring that to work"?

Teacher 2: Not really. I think not really actually. I mean, certainly if – I think this is a general thing: if somebody – if you are together with a certain group of people, the longer you – the more time you spend, the more you open up, right? This is just a very human thing, right?

Interviewer: Yeah.

Teacher 2: And if you just spend a limited time, some people open up quicker, some later. I think this has something to do with this, but not really with teaching. It's just a general thing about how we work as humans, I assume.

Interviewer: Okay. I have a second part about teacher job satisfaction. These are the different aspects that you ranked in the survey.

Teacher 2: I'm not sure if I will rank it the same.

PART 2

Interviewer: That's okay. And I have two blank ones.

Teacher 2: Yes.

Interviewer: So if there's something that wasn't in the questionnaire. And what I would like you to do is: can you put them in a diamond ranking? So rather than going 1 to 7, or in case 1 to 9, if you wanna use the extra, you have a top, second top, mid, the third, fourth –

Teacher 2: Okay. For me this is maybe the last.

6

Job security – I personally don't rank it so high because I am a part-time teacher and I – yeah, as a part-time teacher. Salary. People work for money, and if somebody says otherwise, I don't believe it. Rank it up here.

2.5

1

Student's attitudes – for me it's very important because I have to say you work with people, and if they have a positive attitude to teaching, then it's fun to come in.

2.5

Interviewer: Okay. Good.

Teacher 2: Autonomy in teaching. Ideally wonderful. But I think if my superior creates nice lesson plans, then it's not so important.

Interviewer: Okay.

Teacher 2: It depends who I work – what the context of the lessons are. But let's put –

Interviewer: Okay.

Teacher 2: Working hours.

4.5

Interviewer: This can also be working load and how much there is.

Teacher 2: Yes. Well, but I know the load is not so – put it here. Good working relations. Yeah, I have to rank for me the student's attitudes because you work with –

Interviewer: Okay. So you move that one up to the top.

4.5

Teacher 2: That's who I work with. Good working relationships.

Interviewer: Okay. So you moved up student attitudes to top, and you moved that autonomy in teaching to the second, next to salary.

Teacher 2: The thing is that with salary, I think in my job, the salary is quite good. So that's why I'm not so worried about it, right?

Interviewer: So you're talking about within the university teaching –

Teacher 2: Exactly.

Interviewer: – the salary is – for a bad institution to a good institution, is –

Teacher 2: Probably there's no so much difference. And generally I think the salary's good. So that's why – but maybe I could even change it. But, yeah. I think generally people work to get a salary. They don't work just for fun, right? Otherwise we would all do volunteer work all the time.

Interviewer: Maybe in the future we'll get universal pay.

Teacher 2: Maybe *[laughs]*.

Interviewer: We can actually choose what's fun. Okay. I had two blank ones if you wanted to add anything. You don't have to. You happy with that ranking?

Teacher 2: I mean, it depends if you look – this is my personal, how I – for me, the job security is not all that important because I'm a part-timer.

Interviewer: Okay. Can I take a photo of this just so I remember?

Teacher 2: Certainly. Really to rank this is really difficult, I have to say.

Interviewer: Why would you say that?

Teacher 2: It's difficult for me. But okay.

Interviewer: Now, if I go back to the questionnaire, what do you think were the three top of people in general? So you put student attitudes, autonomy in teaching, and salary as the top three. How about people in general? What would they – predict?

Teacher 2: Definitely salary must be up there. I think student attitudes maybe is not up there, might not be up there. Job security must be up there. And autonomy in teaching could be up there. And good working relationships could be up there. That's my –

Interviewer: Wow. That's very interesting. Because you basically mentioned the top five.

Teacher 2: Okay. Good.

Interviewer: You mentioned all of them. Not necessarily in the same order. So this was the ranking for what they had. Does anything surprise you with the results?

Teacher 2: The salary surprises me *[laughs]*.

Interviewer: Okay. You thought it would be higher?

Teacher 2: Yeah. I have to admit. And also that the top spot surprises me. Because, as teachers, I mean, certainly good working relationships are important, but I don't work with you or with somebody else, with my peers. Actually I work with my students. That's why I –

Interviewer: Why do you think it would be so high at [current university]?

Teacher 2: It's at [current university] only?

Interviewer: Yeah.

Teacher 2: I have no idea.

Interviewer: Okay. So to what extent do you agree with this ranking?

Teacher 2: Okay. You know, talking to people and with people about people's priorities, I think many people care about money. I need to say that. And so for me it's surprising that people rank it only fourth. That's my personal opinion.

Interviewer: I did a previous survey around this where I had open question, and money was always mentioned. Almost by everyone. But it was very rarely mentioned first.

Teacher 2: Yeah. You wouldn't mention it first. You wouldn't do it because out of manners, right? It's a thing – that's my belief. Because if somebody ask about your work, you would never say, "I do it for money." But probably inside – you wouldn't say it, but I think for many people the salary is most important if it comes to work. That's my personal opinion.

Interviewer: I think it might be something though that, if you choose between two part-time jobs, if you get two offers on the same day, same time –

Teacher 2: Ah, okay. Yeah. But there are many examples I've seen, and I know: people work a certain part-time job and then they get a better-paid one, and all of a sudden they're gone. It happened many many times. People get better opportunities, and it's mostly connected to money. And if I talk to university – just like, "This university pays so and so much. And how much do you get?" Money is always part of [it]– that's why I'm surprised, you know?

Interviewer: Okay. Now, it's almost the same thing. It's slightly different though. If I'm looking at the dissatisfaction. So same thing again. You have what leads to teacher job dissatisfaction.

Teacher 2: I mean, people would not put that on top, but I believe – yeah. You mean general?

Interviewer: For you first.

1

Teacher 2: For me. Okay. For me. Yeah. I would say the same again. Poor student attitudes. The thing is that that's a big difficult. Because if students have bad attitudes, a teacher is able to change those attitudes. For example. But I just take it like – I see this one as a class where: really difficult to teach and attitude is really bad and there's nothing I can do about it, okay? This would, be for me, yes. It would hurt me and I wouldn't like to…yeah. Bad salaries.

4.5

Okay. For me it's the same thing again basically. Then I do the same thing as before I guess. Too much work. Okay, maybe like this.

Interviewer: Okay. So your top one would be poor student attitude. Then lack of autonomy and bad salary second level. And too much work and bad working relationships third. And fourth job insecurity –

Teacher 2: No, actually the bad salary for me is not so important. I will change that because actually, as I said.

The things that would dissatisfy me as a teacher – right? So if the students would be bad, number one. Because in my case, if the

working conditions would be good and the salary would be lower, I would prefer that for sure. For sure.

Interviewer: Working conditions meaning?

Teacher 2: The classes I teach.

Interviewer: The classes, okay.

Teacher 2: But also a place where I like to go to. Relationships have something to do. Maybe I'll change. Okay. I put that. Too much work…okay. Maybe I leave it like this.

Interviewer: So poor student attitudes is first level. Lack of autonomy, bad working relationships, second level. Third is too much work, bad salary. Fourth, job insecurity, and at the bottom, unsupportive institution.

Teacher 2: Yes.

Interviewer: Another aspect you'd like to add, or you're happy with those seven?

Nothing you think about that people or yourself complain about?

Teacher 2: Okay. There is. People do complain about the institution because sometimes if you find some papers written in Japanese –

Interviewer: Of course.

Teacher 2: And for people it – but in my case, I don't care so much about that. I have a [partner] who can speak Japanese *[laughs]*.

Interviewer: And Google Translate is very helpful. Okay. Would you think these are the same, if you would predict, in general – these are yours, but the ranking for teachers in general?

Teacher 2: No. I think, again, job insecurity must be up here. I'm sure bad working relationships must be up here. I would say bad salary *[laughing]* because people care about their money.

Interviewer: Wow.

Teacher 2: Okay.

Interviewer: You predicted 1, 2, 3.

Teacher 2: Good.

Interviewer: So you think you're a little bit different from the general ranking then. Anything that surprised you with this ranking?

Teacher 2: No. Not so much.

Interviewer: Okay. Why do you think people would give this ranking?

Teacher 2: Because everybody wants a secure job, that's for sure. People want a secure job. I mean, I can see – because, okay, in my case, fortunately I have good working relationships. But if it would be bad, probably I would feel different as well about the institution itself. No, I can see that – yeah, this is – yes. But, for me, the reason why I ranked it differently might be because if I go to work, I spend most time with the students themselves. And this is the center for me, right? And if I go in and there's a hopeless class – sorry to say; there shouldn't be a hopeless class, but there can be – and I spend 90 minutes 3 times a week and there's nothing I can do and I struggle each time – so this would be for me more important than the [working] relationship. Because – yeah. As a part-time teacher.

Interviewer: Yeah. Other people have mentioned similar things. Okay. Now if you could change one thing about your job, or to increase your job satisfaction or decrease your job dissatisfaction, what would you change and why?

Teacher 2: Okay. I think sometimes it would be better to have a clear idea of the directions: where things go. Sometimes I'm a little bit confused about things. So I'd like to have a program that knows where we heading to. And sometimes that's missing. Because I want to be part of that. I wanna pull on the same string. But sometimes, if people who are superior than me don't know where they want to really head, it's difficult for me to join.

Interviewer: So these are not really anything about working conditions. You're talking about a teaching goal.

Teacher 2: Yes. Teaching goal.

Interviewer: And it's not about your autonomy, but the program or –

Teacher 2: Yeah. Sometimes – and maybe it's easier to say as a part-time teacher, because if you're a full-time teacher, you have a different responsibility, and it is a very complex thing, teaching itself and education. I know that. But I think if the direction would be clearer, then I could also support it better.

Interviewer: Okay. So you want the direction to be clearer? Or do you want to influence the direction?

Teacher 2: I don't want to – I want to influence it only if I believe that it would help, again, the students and the goals, the outcome of it. But generally if things are in the fog, in the mist, right, but if things are not really clear, it's really difficult to know where to help, what to do. That's my personal thing.

End of Part 2

Appendix F: Table of codes example

Transcript	Text highlighted	Note(s)	Code
1	Facilitator?	Sees role as Facilitator	Role ID
2	So role identity, for me okay – I see it very simple. I think my role as a teacher is to help my students. Yes. And I think, in order to be able to help students, you constantly have to adjust to the teaching context to individuals. But I see my role as somebody who helps the students. I want to help them so that they can achieve their goals.	Social role is different from own professional role.	Role ID
2	I would call myself maybe a guide.	Sees role as: Guide	Role ID
2	A guide.		
2	I would say a guide. I don't really call myself a teacher so much because – certainly I am a teacher, but –	Define role as something they are NOT. Not a teacher	Definition of role in negative terms
2 & 3	I think because I see myself as somebody who is in the same boat as the students in a classroom. So I always say, "We together try to steer into a certain direction." So I guess it's also a responsibility I feel towards the students. But I do kind of see myself as part of the whole thing. But maybe somebody who is more a guide, as, yeah, a teacher.	Same as student	Role ID
3	I actually don't really like belonging to a certain group, and definitely not to the group of academics. I kind of refuse that *[laughs]* .	Define role as something they are NOT. Not an academic	Definition of role in negative terms
3	I actually don't really like belonging to a certain group, and definitely not to the group of academics. I kind of refuse that [laughs].	No strong group ID	Social ID
3	No. I don't want to. And I'm not – so I see myself just as a person. And I think personally what I feel – I think I'm a person who is quite flexible with people, so if I want to I can adjust and belong to different groups. But I don't say "That's my status: I belong to this certain group."	No strong group ID	Social ID
3	I don't feel excluded because I know I can adjust to each group.	No strong group ID but doesen't feel excluded	Social ID Exclusion (not)
3	I think one thing that I really believe that I bring into my teaching is that I show students that I'm not perfect. I want to be honest to the students.	Own experience. Used in prof. role including mistakes to build trust	Role ID
3	I usually lower myself to their level, to give them the feeling that we are kind of in the same boat,	Same as student	Role ID
3 & 4	Somehow I believe the person identity, the way somebody is and the way somebody deals with other people. But probably that is connected to social identity. I think this is the very base – the person identity is important to teaching I believe.	Person ID base for role ID	Role ID

Transcript	Text highlighted	Note(s)	Code
4	you can belong to whatever group, but it doesn't mean that you can be a good teacher	No strong group ID and not connected to being good a good teacher	Social ID
4	Professionally speaking, our roles in the classroom should not be different. But I think because a full-time teacher spends so much more time in one place and teaches only a certain amount of lessons – so I believe that the role of a full-time teacher should be devotion to that institution he or she works in, should be absolutely devoted to that.	Employment status, classroom role and commitment & responsibilities	Employment status does not affect classroom role but impact level of commitment & responsibilities
4	I think for part-time teacher, maybe if you want to even be devoted, devote yourself, because you may work at different places, so it's not so easy probably. And because you're away, you don't spend so much time. So I think there's a difference there.	Less time in the same workplace means less opportunity to devotee oneself to that institution	Employment status does not affect classroom role but impact level of commitment & responsibilities
4	I think for full-time teachers, they are in charge of certain classes. It means it's their responsibility to really make the best lesson plan possible and work with part-time teachers in order to help the students	Employment status impact what kind of responsibilities	Employment status does not affect classroom role but impact level of commitment & responsibilities
5	[asked about employment status] If I say I'm a teacher, it doesn't matter in what kind of setting I teach. I should be professional. If I would call myself as a professional in what I do. It doesn't matter what it is	Teacher same in classroom	Employment status does not affect classroom role but impact level of commitment & responsibilities
5	Yeah, I feel comfortable and valued from the people I work with.	feeling valued	Feeling valued
5	if somebody is appreciated, if you feel that what you do makes sense, or if you bring in ideas and they are valued,	Listened to leads to feeling valued	Listened to & praised leads to feeling valued
5	If you get praise, people are happy.	Praised leads to feeling valued	Listened to & praised leads to feeling valued
6	Listened to & praised leads to feeling valued	Feeling valued at classroom level is enough	Feeling valued
6	That's enough for me, yeah	Feeling valued at classroom level is enough	Feeling valued
6	Maybe some – there were some – graduation party of students		Part of wider community
6	I participate every week in the [language event] – almost every week.	Join events if convenient	Part of wider community
6	I mean, if the students invite me or if there's a event at the school where I'm present		Part of wider community

Trans cript	Text highlighted	Note(s)	Code
6	I don't feel excluded, no. Not really.	No feeling of being excluded	Exclusion (not)
7	I think I feel mostly connected to English teachers because with 'content' teachers I don't really have – I don't meet them so often. And mostly they are Japanese and there is always a kind of distance.	Dif. Nationalities/languages can lead to distance	Us/Them
7	Teachers. Whether full- or part-time it doesn't matter. To whoever I work with at that time.	Feels connected to Who I meet	Us/Them
7	on [day of week] I work at different school and there's this Japanese English teacher, and we always have prolonged conversations about teaching. But there is no foreigner there.	But if no other in the same group, then closer to same role	Us/Them
7	So I've experienced some members of JALT who went to every single meeting, who gave their presentations very proudly. And, you know, I respected. I thought they must be great teachers. And I had a chance to work with some individuals who are really high up in JALT. And when I saw, what I observed – I thought that they were not really devoted to teaching itself, and I was so disappointed. I thought, "That's it for me."	Lost respect for JALT due to unprepared f-t teacher	Professional development
7 & 8	But in my case it was that because I life in [name of city] and there's that kind of JALT. So I was really disappointed. Because I thought if somebody is devoted to teaching and a member of JALT and goes to every meeting, gives presentations, this person must really care about their students. And there was this one high guy in JALT who became a full-time teacher. I was a part-time teacher. And I came in on Thursdays. And I really took it seriously so I prepared myself. The evening before I wrote down the major points of the lessons. And he would ask me – he is a full-time teacher. He had an office, right? I would come in. He was like, "So what's on the menu today?" And I had to explain to him the lesson plan almost every week. And I thought, "Wow. You are not really prepared."	Lost respect for JALT due to unprepared f-t teacher	Professional development & Employment status does not affect classroom role but impact level of commitment & responsibilities
8	And generally I don't like to belong to any groups.	No strong group ID	Social ID
9	[Asked if part-time teachers can be themsevles] I think they can.	Being one self at work ID	Personal ID

Appendix G: Consent Form Questionnaire

INFORMATION SHEET AND CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH

Title of Research Project
Teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction of EFL teachers working in higher education in Japan

Details of Project
This project will explore two areas of professionalism of teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in higher education in Japan: teacher professional identity and teacher job satisfaction. The aim of the research is to improve the understanding of the situation of EFL teachers working in higher education in Japan.

The data collected will form the basis of my Doctor of Education in TESOL thesis at University of Exeter. In addition, I expect the data to be presented both in presentations at regional and international conferences and in at least one journal article. The results of the research will be published in anonymised form.

If you agree to participate in the study, at the end of the document there is a link to an online questionnaire for you to answer about how you see yourself as a teacher and about teacher job satisfaction (a paper version will be available for those who request it). The questionnaire is expected to take 30-45 minutes to answer.

For those who agree to, a follow-up focus group or interview, according to your preference, will be scheduled. You can choose to participate only in the initial questionnaire without any obligation to take part in the follow-up focus group/interview. The follow-up focus group/interview would take about 60 minutes and it will discuss the results and the possible reasons behind the results of the questionnaire.

Contact Details
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EXETER (University of Exeter logo)

INFORMATION SHEET AND CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH

Confidentiality
Interview recordings and transcripts will be held in confidence. They will not be used other than for the purposes described above and third parties will not be allowed access to them (except as may be required by the law). However, if you request it, you will be supplied with a copy of your interview transcript so that you can comment on and edit it as you see fit (please give your email below so that I am able to contact you at a later date). Your data will be held in accordance with the Data Protection Act.

Data Protection Notice
The information you provide will be used for research purposes and your personal data will be processed in accordance with current data protection legislation and the University's notification lodged at the Information Commissioner's Office. Your personal data will be treated in the strictest confidence and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties.

The data from the questionnaire will be stored in an anonymised form in a password protected file on a password protected hard drive. Any paper copies, for those who prefer answering on a paper form, will be stored in a locked filing cabinet. The focus groups/interviews will be digital recorded and immediately transferred into a password protected file stored on a password protected hard drive and the recordings will be deleted from the digital recorder.

The data will not be shared with any other parties except for my two thesis supervisors, and then only in anonymised form. All data collected will be destroyed one year after completion of the analysis, and until being destroyed will be stored in encrypted form on a password-protected computer hard drive. Participants can have access to the data at their request. This research has been self-funded.

Anonymity
Interview data will be held and used on an anonymous basis, with no mention of your name, but we will refer to the group of which you are a member. Confidentiality and the anonymity of participants will be maintained by substituting informants' names with pseudonyms at the transcribing and analysing stage of focus group and interview data. No identifying features such as voice, video, or specific bibliographic information will appear in conjunction with the pseudonyms or will ever be shared in any way.

The participant in the focus group will be asked not to share the details discussed during the focus group with people outside the group. During the focus group participants can decline to answer any question.

Consent
I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.
I understand that:

there is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may withdraw at any stage;
I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me; any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications or academic conference or seminar presentations;
If applicable, the information, which I give, may be shared between any of the other researcher(s) participating in this project in an anonymised form;
all information I give will be treated as confidential;
the researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.

....
(Signature of participant) (Date)

…………………………………………… ………………………………
(Printed name of participant) (Email address of participant if they have requested to view a copy of the interview transcript.)

…………………………………………. …………………………………………..
(Signature of researcher) (Printed name of researcher)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s). Your contact details are kept separately from your interview data.

After completing the online questionnaire, would you be willing to join either a follow-up focus group and/or individual interview to discuss the topic further? By agreeing to this now would not oblige you to do so, but is merely an indication of you agreeing to be asked again at a later date.

☐ Yes, I would be willing to join ☐ a focus group
☐ an individual interview
☐ either a focus group or an individual interview

☐ Maybe, please ask me again later.

☐ No, I prefer to only answer the online questionnaire.

QR code to the questionnaire:

Link to the questionnaire:
http://bit.ly/TeachJobSat

Appendix H: Consent Form Interviews

INFORMATION SHEET AND CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH

Title of Research Project
Teacher identity and teacher job satisfaction of EFL teachers working in higher education in Japan

Details of Project
This project will explore two areas of professionalism of teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in higher education in Japan: teacher professional identity and teacher job satisfaction. The aim of the research is to improve the understanding of the situation of EFL teachers working in higher education in Japan.

The data collected will form the basis of my Doctor of Education in TESOL thesis at University of Exeter. In addition, I expect the data to be presented both in presentations at regional and international conferences and in at least one journal article. The results of the research will be published in anonymised form.

If you agree to participate in the study, at the end of the document there is a link to an online questionnaire for you to answer about how you see yourself as a teacher and about teacher job satisfaction (a paper version will be available for those who request it). The questionnaire is expected to take 30-45 minutes to answer.

For those who agree to, a follow-up focus group or interview, according to your preference, will be scheduled. You can choose to participate only in the initial questionnaire without any obligation to take part in the follow-up focus group/interview. The follow-up focus group/interview would take about 60 minutes and it will discuss the results and the possible reasons behind the results of the questionnaire.

Contact Details
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If you have concerns/questions about the research you would like to discuss with someone else at the University, please contact:

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UNIVERSITY OF EXETER

INFORMATION SHEET AND CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH

Confidentiality
Interview recordings and transcripts will be held in confidence. They will not be used other than for the purposes described above and third parties will not be allowed access to them (except as may be required by the law). However, if you request it, you will be supplied with a copy of your interview transcript so that you can comment on and edit it as you see fit (please give your email below so that I am able to contact you at a later date). Your data will be held in accordance with the Data Protection Act.

Data Protection Notice
The information you provide will be used for research purposes and your personal data will be processed in accordance with current data protection legislation and the University's notification lodged at the Information Commissioner's Office. Your personal data will be treated in the strictest confidence and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties.

The data from the questionnaire will be stored in an anonymised form in a password protected file on a password protected hard drive. Any paper copies, for those who prefer answering on a paper form, will be stored in a locked filing cabinet. The focus groups/interviews will be digital recorded and immediately transferred into a password protected file stored on a password protected hard drive and the recordings will be deleted from the digital recorder.

The data will not be shared with any other parties except for my two thesis supervisors, and then only in anonymised form. All data collected will be destroyed one year after completion of the analysis, and until being destroyed will be stored in encrypted form on a password-protected computer hard drive. Participants can have access to the data at their request. This research has been self-funded.

Anonymity
Interview data will be held and used on an anonymous basis, with no mention of your name, but we will refer to the group of which you are a member. Confidentiality and the anonymity of participants will be maintained by substituting informants' names with pseudonyms at the transcribing and analysing stage of focus group and interview data. No identifying features such as voice, video, or specific bibliographic information will appear in conjunction with the pseudonyms or will ever be shared in any way.

The participant in the focus group will be asked not to share the details discussed during the focus group with people outside the group. During the focus group participants can decline to answer any question.

Consent
I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.
I understand that:

- there is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may withdraw at any stage;
- I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me;
- any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications or academic conference or seminar presentations;

- If applicable, the information, which I give, may be shared between any of the other researcher(s) participating in this project in an anonymised form;
- all information I give will be treated as confidential;
  the researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.

....

(Signature of participant) (Date)

....

(Printed name of participant) (Email address of participant if they have requested to view a copy of the interview transcript.)

.... Bjorn Fuisting

(Signature of researcher) (Printed name of researcher)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s). Your contact details are kept separately from your interview data.

After completing the online questionnaire, would you be willing to join either a follow-up focus group and/or individual interview to discuss the topic further? By agreeing to this now would not oblige you to do so, but is merely an indication of you agreeing to be asked again at a later date.

☐ Yes, I would be willing to join
  - ☐ a focus group
  - ☐ an individual interview
  - ☐ either a focus group or an individual interview

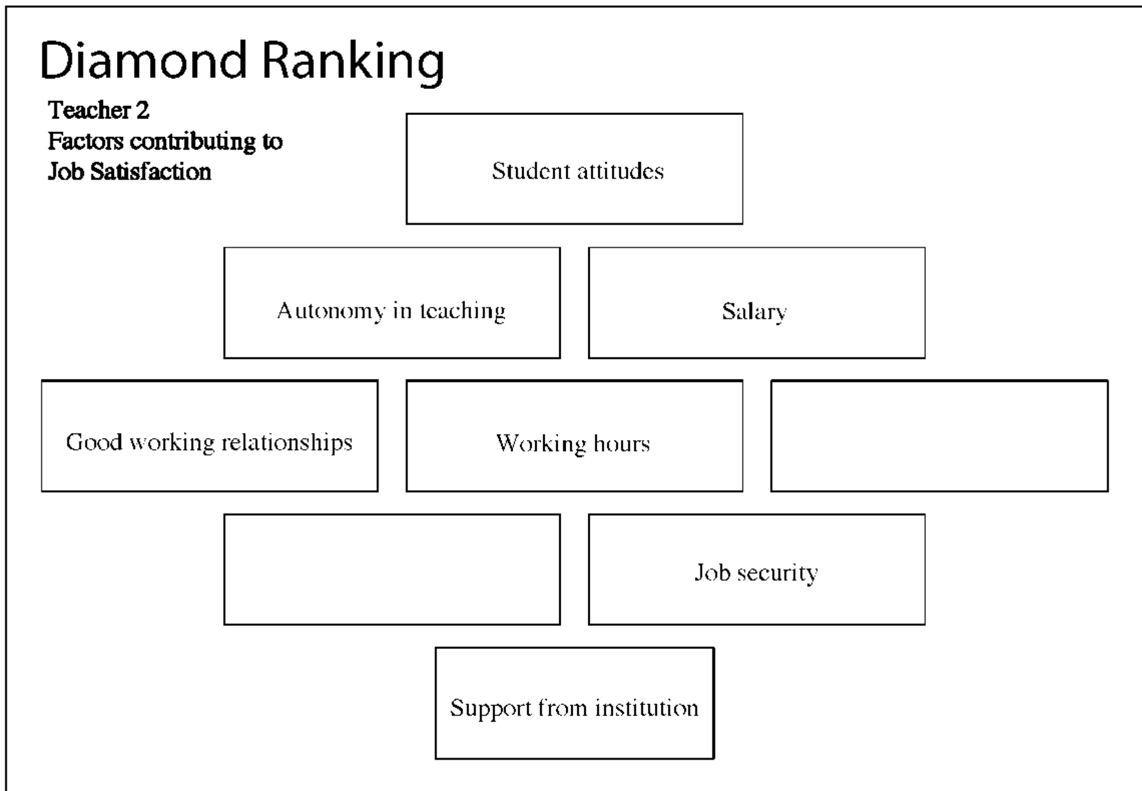
☐ Maybe, please ask me again later.

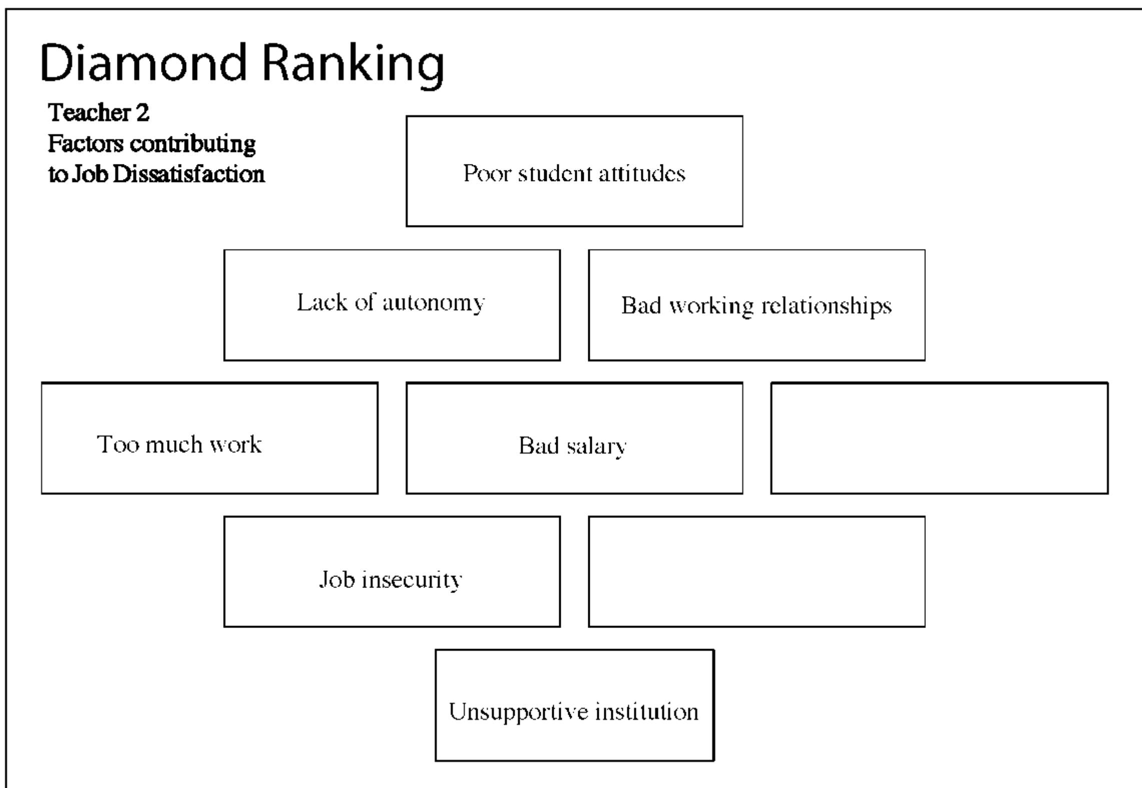
☐ No, I prefer to only answer the online questionnaire.

QR code to the questionnaire:

Link to the questionnaire:
http://bit.ly/TeachJobSat

Appendix I: Dimond Ranking Example Techer 2





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