THE IMPACT OF TESOL TEACHER EDUCATION ON JOB SATISFACTION FOR NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKERS TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES IN JAPAN

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Abstract

The study examined whether having completed teacher education in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) influences native English speakers' job satisfaction while teaching English in Japan. Job satisfaction in the study is defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Following a two-phase sequential explanatory design as a mixed methods approach (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010), the study firstly collected online survey data from 232 Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) in Japan. The survey collected information on demographic, linguistic and educational background, and job experiences, which were then analysed as predictor variables in the regression analysis. The analysis of the survey identified variations within the existing teacher education qualifications in TESOL among this group of native English speaker teachers in Japan.

The study adopted a modified version of an existing teacher job satisfaction scale (McKenzie, Rowley, Weldon & Murphy, 2011) to investigate ALTs' perceptions of 21 different facets of their jobs. Three latent variables were identified as a result of the two stage modelling process (exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis): satisfaction with team-teaching with local teachers; satisfaction with students' progress; and satisfaction with resources. These factors were used as dependent variables in the regression analysis in the first phase.

Multiple regression analysis of survey data found a positive influence for TESOL qualifications and/or education only when participants had completed a program with more than 20 courses, or a practicum in a class with more than 20

students. No influence was discovered for other variations identified within TESOL qualifications (e.g., qualification levels, provider types, length of practicum).

In the second phase of the study, 13 one-on-one interviews were conducted via Skype, and responses were collected by email from 24 additional participants. Analysis of interview data revealed that the participants who completed TESOL teacher education valued their skills and knowledge while teaching independently. However, they felt their existing skills were often not fully utilised as ALTs in the Japanese context, especially under the constraints of team-teaching with local teachers who adopted more traditional approaches in language teaching. The pedagogical implications and recommendations for TESOL teacher education are discussed, along with administrative implications and suggestions for the future recruitment of native English speaker teachers in Japan.

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The Impact of TESOL Teacher Education on Job Satisfaction for Native English Speakers Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages in Japan

List of Abbreviations

AETs - Assistant English Teachers

AGFI - Adjusted Goodness of Fit statistics

AJET - Association for Japan Exchange and Teaching

ALTs - Assistant Language Teachers

BETS - British English Teachers Scheme

CELTA - Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages TESOL

CLAIR - Council of Local Authorities for International Relations

EFL - English as a foreign language

ELT - English language teaching

ESL - English as a Second Language

ESOL - English to Speakers of Other Languages

JETAA - JET Alumni Association International

JET ALTs - ALTs who work in JET program

JET program - Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme

JHSs – Junior High Schools

JLPT - Japanese Language Proficiency Test

JTEs - Japanese Teachers of English

JTLs - Japanese Teachers of Language

LOTE - Language other than English

MEXT - Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology

MEF - Monbusho English Fellows

NNSs - Non native English speakers

Non JET ALTs - ALTs who work independently of JET program

NSs - Native English speakers

OECD - Organisation for Economics Cooperation and Development

SHSs - Senior High Schools

SLA - Second Language Acquisition

TESOL - Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

TEAL - Teaching English as an additional language

TEFL - Teaching English as a foreign language

TESL - Teaching English as a second language

TOEFL - Test of English as a Foreign Language

TOEIC - Test of English as an International Language

Statement of Original Authorship

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

QUT Verified Signature

Signature:

Date: 11 November 2016

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The first three sections of this chapter outline the background and context of the present study and its purposes. The next section describes the significance and scope of the research and provides definitions of terms used. Finally, the last section includes an outline of the remaining chapters of the thesis.

Background

The ever-growing number of students learning English across the world has triggered an ongoing demand for more competent teachers and, thus, for more effective approaches to teacher preparation. Since some short training programs and certificates in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL programs) began during the 1960s (Richards, 2009), many universities, colleges, and other institutions in English-speaking countries have developed a wide range of programs both for pre-service teachers as an entry-level preparation, and for in-service teachers as ongoing professional development.

The *Directory of Teacher Education Programs in TESOL in the United States and Canada* (Christopher, 2005), for instance, lists a total of 420 programs offered at 232 institutions, which include 31 doctoral programs, 179 Masters, 57 graduate certificates, 35 other certificates, and 51 undergraduate programs. In the United Kingdom, the University of Cambridge runs nearly 900 courses every year to award the Certificate in TESOL (CELTA), along with other certificates and diplomas through their 300 approved centres in more than 70 countries (University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, 2016).

Despite the wide availability of TESOL programs, the completion of such a program has not always been essential during the recruitment process for certain groups of the teachers of English to speakers of other languages (ESOL). Nearly two decades ago, Govardhan, Nayar, and Sheorey (1999) reviewed 237 positions for English language teaching (ELT) advertised in major newspapers in the U.S. They found that, although many advertisements commonly asked the candidates to be "native or nativelike [sic]" (Govardhan et al., 1999, p. 117), many of these advertisements neither specified any minimum academic qualifications, nor asked for any qualifications in TESOL.

Despite the continuous debates on the knowledge base of professional ESOL teachers (e.g., Borg, 2003; Canagarajah, 2015; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Nunan, 2001), the situation does not appear to have changed. Bailey, Tanner, Henrichsen, and Dewey (2013) conducted a longitudinal study on 169 positions in English language teaching (ELT) in the U.S. that were advertised on several Web-based recruitment sites. While more than 90% of these positions required previous experience in teaching, less than half (47%) required some form of "teacher or tutor training" (Bailey et al., 2013, p. 776).

The practice of hiring teachers without any specific teacher training does not seem to be confined to the U.S. Indeed, the practice may be observed even more frequently in other contexts where English is learned as a foreign language (EFL) such as Japan, Korea, and China. The *Dave's ESL Cafe (English as a Second Language),* (Sperling, 2011), for instance, is one of the websites that regularly lists vacancies for ESOL teacher candidates who are seeking to work in these regions. On the website, many employers are typically seeking candidates who are "native

English speakers" (NSs) (however the term is interpreted locally, see below in this chapter for the definition), and who hold a bachelor's degree, with any major.

The practice of hiring teachers who have not completed any teacher education has been reported widely in other TESOL contexts in Asia, where local demand for NSs exceeds the available supply of such teachers (Butler, 2007). In these contexts, certain groups of teachers from selected English-speaking countries are often idealised as "competent teachers", based not necessarily on their educational or professional backgrounds, but on their demographic backgrounds such as age, race, gender, or nationality. These teacher candidate demographic qualifications are then prioritised over academic qualifications related to teacher training (e.g., Butler, 2007; Clark & Paran, 2007; Guo & Beckett, 2007; Holiday, 2006, 2008; Kubota, 1998; Ling & Braine, 2007; Mahboob, 2005, 2009; Todd & Pojanapunya, 2009; Wu & Ke, 2009).

These realities in the present TESOL industry in Asia may pose a question about the value of existing TESOL teacher education. Providers of programs in TESOL teacher education (TESOL programs) may wish to argue that teaching English requires professional credentials regardless of a teacher's demographic background (Phillipson, 1992; Richards, 2010). However, as Richards (2008, p. 172) concedes, "despite the huge investment in ELT teacher training programs in different parts of the world in the last 30 years, there is very little research available on the impact of such investment".

Overall then, a question remains underexplored as to whether future candidates from certain English-speaking countries should complete a TESOL program before embarking on a new TESOL job in Asia. Further, the question of whether employers in Asia should prioritise these candidates' teacher education

backgrounds in TESOL over their demographic qualifications (e.g., race and nationality) during the recruitment process also remains unanswered. Broadly, these are the areas of enquiry to which the present study aims to contribute.

Moreover, the limited studies that have explored the potential influence of TESOL teacher education upon teacher practice have yielded inconsistent results, with some studies discovering positive influence, whereas others either failed to detect any association, or found a negative influence (e.g., Chiang, 2008; Farrell, 2009; Kurihara & Samimy, 2007; Lamb, 1995; Peacock, 2001). Indeed, the same trend was found amongst many existing studies in the wider contexts of teacher education research that have examined the relationship between teacher academic backgrounds and their teaching practices (e.g., Ahn & Choi, 2004; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Friedman, 2000; Kennedy, 2008). After reviewing a wide range of existing studies, Kennedy (2008, p. 345) concluded that "the relationship between teacher qualifications and teaching quality – a relationship that should be self-evident – is not self-evident at all".

These studies appear not only to have yielded inconclusive results, but also to have focused only on outcome measures that related to teaching practice, such as observed practices in teaching, teachers' beliefs about teaching, or their students' academic achievement (e.g., Boedecker, 1998; Gore, Ladwig, Griffiths, & Amosa, 2007; Hemmings & Kay, 2009). The literature appears to have paid less attention to broader aspects of teachers' professional lives, such as the relationship with their colleagues; their perceived autonomy in teaching; opportunities for career development, professional learning and salary progression; and their subjective well-being while working as a teacher. For this reason, the present study adopts job satisfaction as the outcome measure by which these broad aspects of the professional

lives of ESOL teachers are evaluated. In the study, job satisfaction is defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300, see later in this chapter for further discussion over its definition).

Further, the aforementioned investigations into the relationship between what ESOL teachers learned during their teacher education and their practice in teaching (e.g., Chiang, 2008; Farrell, 2009) seem to have examined the effect of a single program in TESOL teacher education (e.g., Chiang, 2008; Farrell, 2009; Kurihara & Samimy, 2007; Lamb, 1995; Peacock, 2001). Such an approach may have ignored the reality that exists among teachers in many contexts of TESOL in Asia; given the relatively less-specific academic requirements for existing vacancies for ESOL teachers (e.g., "any Bachelor degree", see Bailey et al., 2013; Sperling, 2011), academic backgrounds of practicing ESOL teachers in the region, especially among those recruited from overseas, could be diverse. To the best of the author's knowledge, however, such diversity has never been fully clarified in the existing literature. The present study aims to fill this gap in the literature in a specific context of TESOL in Japan.

Diversity may exist even among the teachers who complete TESOL programs, because very little consensus has been achieved as to what constitutes such programs (Miller, Kostogriz, & Gearon, 2009; Schulz, 2000). The variety in the academic levels, reported earlier in the U.S. and Canadian TESOL programs directory (Christopher, 2005), shows one facet of such diversity, although it was defined only at institutional levels within the U.S. and Canada. The extent of diversity within TESOL programs that so-called "native speaker" teachers have

completed in their home country could be much more intense when programs are examined in individual work contexts of TESOL in Japan.

From the broader perspectives of teacher education research, the relatively less-standardised (academic) backgrounds of practicing teachers, particularly of those without any teacher preparation as a comparison group, may appear to provide a unique and useful context to investigate the added value, if any, of teacher education (see Kennedy, Ann, & Choi, 2008). However, comparing *qualified* and *unqualified* groups of teachers in a dichotomous fashion would oversimplify the extreme diversity that may exist both within TESOL teacher education programs, and the overall academic backgrounds of ESOL teachers within workplaces in Asia. Again, such diversity within TESOL programs has not been fully clarified in the individual work contexts of TESOL, especially in Asia. The present study clarified this diversity with a specific group of ESOL teachers in Japan.

Context: Assistant Language Teachers in the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme

The majority of participants in this study (191 of 232) were Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) participating in the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme (JET program) in Japan. The JET program is one of several schemes the Japanese government has used since 1987 to recruit a large number of people from countries such as the U.S., the U.K., Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and Ireland (CLAIR, 2015a; Meerman, 2003). The program has been administered by the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR) under the supervision of three ministries: the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications.

According to CLAIR (2015a), nearly 5,000 participants were employed in the program as of July 2015 ($N = 4786$), and more than 90% of them were working as ALTs ($n = 4404$). While a small number of ALTs seemed to be engaged in teaching languages other than English (e.g., French, Chinese), the majority of ALTs were contracted to "team-teach" with locally-certified Japanese teachers to help students to enhance their communicative proficiency in English (CLAIR, 2015a; McConnell, 2000). For this reason, these ALTs have also been referred to as Assistant English Teachers (AETs).

The demographic backgrounds of these ALTs are relatively well understood (see Chapter 4 for full details of their backgrounds). Preference is given to white (or "Caucasian") teachers when hiring in the broad international contexts of TESOL (Holliday, 2008; Mahboob, 2009), including Japan (Kobayashi, 2014; Kubota, 1998, 2004). The practice has been certainly observed in the JET program, where the majority of the ALTs were reportedly Caucasians (Crump, 2007, 2008; McConnell, 2000). Further, since the Japanese government adopted American models to reform their political, social, educational, and economic structures after World War II (Kubota, 1998; Phillipson, 2001), an American accent has been the most accepted standard for Japanese learners to learn at school, and thus American teachers have been accepted as the "native speaker" model in a range of contexts of TESOL in Japan (Chiba & Matsuura, 1995, 1996; Honna, 2008; Kubota, 1998; Matsuura, Chiba, & Fujieda, 1999; Miyazato, 2009; Mizuno, 2005). Accordingly, more than half of the ALTs in the JET program since the program began in 1987 have been American (CLAIR, 2015a; Galloway, 2009; McConnell, 2000).

This preference for Caucasian American teachers has reportedly impacted on the work of the non-American, non-Caucasian teachers in Japan. Several qualitative studies report cases where school administrators specifically requested Caucasian American ALTs for their school from CLAIR or from the local board of education (McConnell, 2000). Some non-Caucasian ALTs shared their accounts of how they received instant deprecation from local teachers when they first visited their new schools (Geluso, 2013; Kubota & McKay, 2009). Non-American ALTs were often encouraged to reduce their non-American accents, or even act as Americans (e.g., Crump, 2007; Kubota, 2002). At the same time, some American teachers reported having their wages reduced (Kubota & Fujimoto, 2013), or being questioned during interviews on whether they could speak "standard" English (Hayes, 2013; Kubota, 2002) because they did not have Caucasian backgrounds (Kubota, 2004).

By contrast, the educational backgrounds of ALTs have been largely under-explored, either qualitatively or quantitatively. Despite relatively generous salaries compared with those of first-year local teachers in Japan (Kan, 2002), applicants are not necessarily required to have completed any teacher training, let alone TESOL-specific training. In order to become academically eligible to apply for an ALT position, candidates must have completed a bachelor's degree in any field, and "be qualified as a language teacher *or* be strongly motivated to take part in the teaching of foreign languages" (CLAIR, 2015a, emphasis added). This indicates that the apparent requirement for qualification as a language teacher – whatever that is intended to mean – can be waived in the JET program if one is strongly motivated to be engaged in foreign language teaching in Japan (however CLAIR measures motivation). This aspect of the JET program seems to have resulted in diverse academic backgrounds of this particular group of foreign teachers in Japan. For this

reason, this group of the ESOL teachers in Japan was selected as ideal participants for the current investigation.

Not surprisingly, the above criterion in the JET program resulted in the majority of the ALTs being fresh graduates from university with no teaching qualifications or teaching experience (Inoi, Yoshida, Mahoney, & Itagaki, 2001; McConnell, 2000; Shimizu, Yoshida, Izumi, & Kano, 2015). McConnell (2000, p. 60), for instance, reported that fewer than 12% of ALTs in the JET program had "some kind of TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language) certifications". More recently, Shimizu et al. (2015, p. 12) reported that between 40% and 55% of ALTs across a range of school levels held "a certification or qualification in TESOL" (TEFL/ESOL), and between 7% to 11% held the CELTA (the Certificate in TESOL by the University of Cambridge).

The proportion of ALTs with TESOL qualification in Shimizu et al. (2015) may appear to be higher than those reported in previous studies. This, however, may not reflect a shift in recruitment emphasis in the JET program. In this particular study, there were a significant proportion of participants who did not respond to respective questions about their educational backgrounds (over 50% at elementary and junior high schools, and 47% at senior high school). Therefore, the proportions of "TESOL-qualified" ALTs in the study reflected only those who responded to those questions in their survey. Also, same "TESOL-qualified" participants may have indicated their educational backgrounds as ALTs teaching at different levels of schools, and some ALTs who had CELTA may even have indicated that they have "a certification or qualification in TESOL" (TEFL/ESOL). Considering these factors, overall proportion of "TESOL qualified" ALTs could still be much smaller than what has been reported in Shimizu et al. (2015).

As discussed earlier, the mixture of teachers with diverse academic backgrounds within a single work context provides the present study with a useful context for the current investigation. However, previous studies did not clearly specify the "TESOL qualifications or certifications" these teachers possessed (e.g., McConnell, 2000; Shimizu et al., 2015), and, therefore, if and how CELTA was differentiated from "a certification or qualification in TESOL" remains unknown, for example. The internal characteristics of the TESOL programs they completed, and indeed ALTs' overall academic backgrounds, remain largely unknown (e.g., a bachelor's degree), and thus require further clarification. This is examined in the present study of the potential effect of TESOL teacher education upon teachers' perceptions of work.

The personal background of ALTs in TESOL teacher education may have some specific implications for teachers' perceptions of their work when they teach alongside local teachers. During the 1960s, Japan made several attempts to recruit TESOL-certified specialists from the U.S. (McConnell, 2000; Tsuido, 2007). These attempts, however, "failed miserably" and had to be abandoned due to the intense conflict between the foreign teachers who were "wedded to their particular techniques and goals" and who "thought they knew all about language teaching", and the local Japanese teachers who "felt threatened" by such a foreign influx (all in McConnell, 2000, p. 41). McConnell concluded that this earlier experience may have become the direct precursor of the current program, which primarily aims to recruit young university graduates with no teaching background; since that earlier period Japan has been reluctant to recruit foreign teachers who are in any way certified in TESOL, and this has never been a requirement of the JET program since its inception in 1987 (Crooks, 2001; Goldberg, 1995).

These incidents suggest that the academic background of ALTs, in particular their TESOL teacher education backgrounds, may have a somewhat negative impact upon perceptions of their work, particularly work that is associated with team-teaching with local teachers in the current JET program. Since team-teaching between teachers recruited from overseas and local teachers is seemingly increasing in other contexts of TESOL (e.g., Pardy, 2004; Wu & Ke, 2009), the potential implications for the association between the TESOL backgrounds of foreign teachers and their team-teaching work could be significant.

Without local teaching credentials, ALTs in Japan cannot be engaged in lessons (physically) independently, and thus, they are required to conduct team-teaching regularly with a certified Japanese teacher (Browne & Wada, 1998; Crump, 2008; Mahoney, 2004; Meerman, 2003; Miyazato, 2009; Otani & Tsuido, 2009; Wada & Cominos, 1994). Team-teaching has become "one of the most . . . controversial aspects of the program" (McConnell, 2000, p. 45), firstly because no clear definition of the term *team-teaching* has been provided by the Japanese authorities, and thus the roles of each teacher remain ambiguous, and largely context-dependent (Mahoney, 2004; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012), and secondly, because neither local teachers nor ALTs have been trained adequately to teach as a team (Tajino & Walker, 1998).

Accordingly, although authorities have been very clear about the subordinate status of foreign assistants in the JET program (e.g., CLAIR, 2015b, p. 76), the roles of ALTs differed in different contexts, ranging from being a "human tape recorder" (Rutson-Griffiths, 2012) and being totally ignored in class (Otani & Tsuido, 2009, p. 25), to planning and conducting lessons independently as the main teacher (Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Butler, 2005; Crump, 2007; Mahoney, 2004; Miyazato, 2009,

2011, 2012; Ohtani, 2010; Tsuido, Otani, & Davies, 2012). It should be noted here that the human tape recorder is the role that some ALTs seemed to perform when the local teachers led the class and asked ALTs only to "simply to read aloud or pronounce words written on the board to which the students respond in unison" (CLAIR, 2013a, p. 66).

The ambiguous roles of both groups of teachers in team-teaching reportedly result in some confusion over their roles, and becomes the source of misunderstandings and frustrations among the teachers involved (Miyazato, 2009; Wada & Cominos, 1994). Interestingly, some report perceptions by both the local teachers and the former ALTs that the lack of pedagogical skills and knowledge of the ALTs – together with their limited knowledge of the local language, the local education system, and the host culture in Japan – impedes the communication required for role negotiations during team-teaching (CLAIR, 2005 as cited in Butler, 2007; Kan, 2002; Otani & Tsuido, 2009). Accordingly, some researchers and former JET participants have suggested all new ALTs should have stronger pedagogical skills and knowledge in TESOL to perform their roles professionally (Gillis-Furutaka, 1994; Tsuido, Otani, & Davies, 2012).

Other qualitative studies have reported similar tensions between local and foreign teachers in different contexts of TESOL (Senior, 2006). However, the extent to which the existing skills and knowledge of the teachers recruited from overseas to Japan, which may or may not be related to TESOL, influence their team-teaching work, and indeed the broader aspects of their professional lives as ESOL teachers in Japan, has not been examined either quantitatively or qualitatively, and thus remains anecdotal to date. The present study has adopted these teachers' perceived satisfaction with their work as a subjective evaluation of different facets of their

professional lives, and investigates the potential impact of their demographic, linguistic, and educational backgrounds factors (the predictor variables) upon those facets.

ALTs outside the JET program (non-JET ALTs). In addition to ALTs in the JET program, the present study investigates ALTs working independently of the JET program (non-JET ALTs, $n = 49$, which includes those who have both the JET and non-JET experiences, $n = 8$). In order to accommodate the increasing demand for the more communicative approach in English language education at school, as initiated by the central government in Japan (e.g., MEXT, 2003), the local prefectural and municipal offices have been hiring non-JET ALTs as an additional source of overseas teachers. Some of these ALTs are hired directly by the local office, whereas others are contracted by one of the commercial agents, who then dispatch them to the local schools as requested (Flynn, 2009; MEXT, 2014). Overall, Japanese schools (especially elementary and junior high schools) now hire more non-JET ALTs than JET ALTs (MEXT, 2011).

Despite their increasing involvement in English language education in Japan, this particular group of teachers is little investigated in the research literature. A handful of studies of non-JET ALTs primarily address the comparison between their work conditions and issues – such as salary and unlawful contracts with dispatch agents – to those teachers in the JET program (e.g., Flynn, 2009; Okunuki & Carlet, 2012). The demographic and educational backgrounds of these teachers, together with their professional lives (e.g., their roles in team-teaching) remain largely unknown in the literature. The present study contributes to closing this gap in the literature by providing a better understanding of this group of ALTs in Japan ($n = 41$, excluding those who had both JET and non-JET experiences).

Purposes

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of having completed teacher education in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) upon the professional lives of a specific group of the ESOL teachers in Japan (i.e., Assistant Language Teachers or ALTs). The investigation specifically focuses on a group of the ESOL teachers working in Japan, where holding TESOL qualifications was not essential for them to be hired.

The study achieves this purpose through three specific aims. First, the study aims to examine broadly the demographic and educational backgrounds of ALTs, together with their work conditions and experiences whilst working as ALTs in Japan. The survey data helps provide a snapshot of the backgrounds and work experiences of teachers in this field. The process also clarifies a range of characteristics that exist within the TESOL qualifications the ALTs possess, which helps the study develop and employ a definition of *TESOL qualifications*.

Second, the study aims to explore participants' subjective appraisal of the broad aspects of their professional lives (e.g., amount of teaching, overall roles, relationship with students and local teachers, autonomy in teaching, salary). The study has adopted an existing job satisfaction scale by McKenzie, Rowley, Weldon and Murphy (2011), with a slight modification and addition to accommodate the unique characteristics of the work experiences of ALTs in Japan. Their perceptions of a total of 21 facets of their work are examined using the scale.

Third, the study investigates the associations between the earlier-identified variations within ALT backgrounds and work experiences and their satisfaction scores. While multiple regression analyses are conducted as a primary measure in such an investigation, the interview data is also analysed in search of plausible

explanations for both the significant and non-significant associations discovered through the subsequent regression analysis. This final section presents the evidence (or lack of evidence) for potential effects of TESOL teacher education backgrounds of the ALTs upon their professional lives.

In short, the present study aims to answer the following four research questions:

1. What variations exist in background, education, training, and experience amongst ALTs in Japan?

2. How satisfied are these ALTs with their job in Japan?

3. To what extent does an ALT's background and job characteristics appear to influence perceived job satisfaction in Japan?

4. Of all the factors, to what extent do TESOL qualifications appear to influence their job satisfaction?

Definitions

There are four terms that should be defined for the purposes of the study. The four are: *Job satisfaction*; *native English speakers* (NSs); *Assistant Language Teachers* (ALTs); and *qualifications and certifications in TESOL.*

Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction is one of the most widely-studied job attitudes, especially in the disciplines of industrial and organisational psychology (Judge & Church, 2000), and more recently in economics studies (Vila, 2005; Wolf & Zuvekas, 1997). While many definitions for *job satisfaction* have been used in different studies, especially in organisational research, broadly there appear to be three components that may determine the meaning of the term. These are an affective/emotional component, cognitive/evaluative component, and a behavioural component (Bernstein & Nash, 2008; Hulin & Judge, 2003). Different definitions of

the term seem to have derived from different combinations of these multiple dimensions of this particular job attitude.

The affective component shows workers' feelings regarding the job, such as enjoyment, fulfilment, boredom, anxiety, or excitement (Locke, 1976; Redmond, 2015). The cognitive component involves an objective and logical evaluation of one or more facets of one's work. It does not address the extent of the workers' pleasurable emotions, but rather it shows the results of an assessment that the workers conduct in reference to their own beliefs, preferences, or other measures (Hulin & Judge, 2003). Finally, the behavioural component indicates the people's actions during their work, such as tardiness, overwork, and absenteeism (e.g., Bernstein & Nash, 2008).

It appears that the third (behavioural) component should be treated as dependent effects of the attitude, rather than the attitude itself (e.g., Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979; Brief, 1998; Jones, 2006; Saari & Judge, 2004). Therefore, the study has adopted the first two components (the affective and cognitive components), and thus defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). This definition appears to have appreciated the affective or emotional component of the job attitudes, while taking into account the workers' appraisal or evaluation of their experience at work (Saari & Judge, 2004). The definition is one of the most widely-accepted in many organisational studies (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Judge & Klinger, 2007).

The definition also matches what appears to be supported in the economics studies. As will be discussed in the next chapter, economists have examined the effects of workers' education on their subjective wellbeing through workers'

affective state about their work, and/or their self-evaluation of various aspects of their job as an outcome variable (e.g., Clark & Oswald, 1996; Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Florit & Lladosa, 2007; Vila, 2005; Oswald, 1997; Wright & Davis 2003). Vila, for instance, defines job satisfaction as "how workers value the whole package of all types of rewards from their jobs according to their own personal preferences and expectations" (2005, p. 4), and thus argues that workers' job satisfaction is the subjective evaluation of both monetary and non-monetary aspects of their working lives.

Native English speakers: The term *native English speakers* has been subject to a surprisingly large variety of interpretations. The ever-increasing diversity in the demographic, educational, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds of people who use English exclusively, frequently, or proficiently has necessitated an analysis of the extent, frequency, and quality of the acquisition and the use of the language by these people. Accordingly, different studies include different attributes such as the acquisition of language from birth or early childhood, or through formal education and informal daily use, or the attainment of a certain level of competency and intuitive understanding of the grammar or certain varieties of the language, the socially constructed self-identity, and a monolingual background or the lack of a second language (e.g., Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2002; Davies, 1999, 2003; Kachru & Nelson, 1996, 2001; Liu, 1999; McKay, 2002; Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Rampton, 1990; Richards, Platt, & Weber, 1985).

In addition to these rigorous discussions in academia, English language learners, their parents, and school administrators in the TESOL industry appear to have developed their own criteria based on teachers' demographics (e.g., race, gender, nationality) to define native speakers as a construct for ideal language

teachers (Amin, 1997; Holliday, 2008; Houghton & Rivers, 2013; Mahboob, 2009). As discussed earlier, these criteria appear to be the framework applied by people in Japan to define the term *native English speakers*, especially in the context of TESOL.

While a Caucasian racial background and American nationality were repeatedly reported to be the most influential attributes of Japanese perceptions of native speakers of English, some argue that those perceptions should be considered not as a matter of "either or not", but rather more or less as elements of a continuum. While the attributes of male, white, and American seem to be positioned towards one end of such a continuum as the ideal type of native speakers (McKenzie, 2013; Trudgill, 2008), other people with different demographics (e.g., female, non-white, non-Americans) may be positioned differently on the continuum.

This makes it extremely difficult to define the term in an objective manner. For this reason, the term *native speakers* has been avoided purposefully throughout the present study. However, where necessary, the term is used to represent people who are perceived as native English speakers by learners of English, their parents, and school administrators in Japan. It has to be acknowledged here that such usages of the term is in fact oversimplification.

Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs): Formally, CLAIR (2015a) defines Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) as those who "assist with classes taught by Japanese teachers of English/language (JTEs/JTLs) and are thus involved in the preparation of teaching materials and in extracurricular activities like English clubs or sports teams". However, given that the roles of ALTs are ambiguous and largely context-dependent (e.g., Mahoney, 2004; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012), it is not possible to define this group of ESOL teachers by the characteristics of their job. CLAIR's definition may exclude, for instance, those who were teaching the class by

themselves as a main teacher. It would also exclude those who were not involved in any preparation of teaching materials or club activities, or even those being ignored completely by the local teachers and the students (Otani & Tsuido, 2009).

In this study, the term has been defined as those who either work under the supervision of Japanese teacher(s) or dispatch agent(s), or those who have the specific job title of Assistant Language Teacher or Assistant English Teacher. This definition is believed to include ALTs who are given a broad range of roles and responsibility in the context of team-teaching with local teachers. The definition could also include the non-JET ALTs contracted by a commercial agent and then dispatched to individual schools under the supervision of the agent. Further, the job title also includes an alternative definition as an umbrella term to include the teachers regardless of the difference in their job title (i.e., the AETs).

Some may point out that *Assistant Language Teachers* should not be treated as *teachers*, given that they are not employed to teach in class. In fact, CLAIR (2015a) defines their primary role as to *assist* local teachers, and promote international exchange at local level in Japan. While this traditional and official version of roles and responsibilities of ALTs needs to be acknowledged, it is argued in this study that ALTs can be defined as language teachers. First, this is because whether one should be defined as a teacher should arguably be determined by characteristics of their actual job (e.g., the duties they perform), not by their job title, or roles as stated in official document. As argued earlier in this chapter (see page 11-13), ALT roles in team-teaching with local teachers have not been clearly defined other than their subordinate status as assistant (e.g., CLAIR, 2015b; Mahoney, 2004). Many of these *assistants* have been reportedly planning and conducting lessons independently of local teachers (e.g., Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Mahoney, 2004). It is argued that many

ALTs are indeed teaching at individual school level, and therefore, they should be defined as language teachers in a specific context in Japan. Second, participants in the study included those who did not work in the JET program ($n = 41$, excluding former ALTs who had both types of experience, $n = 8$). As discussed earlier in this chapter, this growing group of ALTs remains under-examined in the current literature, and thus little is known as to who they are and what they do in individual classroom (see page 13 and also Chapter 4 for more details). It should be acknowledged that there are some contextual factors that also had to be taken into consideration for the purpose of analysis, and these issues have been addressed individually in the remaining part of the thesis.

TESOL-related qualifications and TESOL certifications: The diversity that exists within the existing teacher education programs in TESOL (Miller et al., 2009; Schulz, 2000) makes it challenging to define terms such as *TESOL qualifications* or *TESOL certifications* by certain sets of criteria in those qualifications. Indeed, exploring and operationalising a definition is one of the aims of this study. The aforementioned U.S. and Canadian TESOL programs directory (Christopher, 2005) does not provide any clear definition of what it means by the term *TESOL programs*, and thus how data were collected remains unknown, although it provides a broad definition at the institutional level in the U.S. and Canada.

Nonetheless, this study must in some way specify the academic qualifications of participants, reflecting any acquired skills and knowledge relating to teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). In the survey, therefore, all the participants ($N = 232$) were asked to nominate all academic qualifications they had completed to date. With each qualification, they were then asked whether they had learned any skills in and/or knowledge of teaching English to speakers of other

languages (TESOL skills). These qualifications are defined as *TESOL-related qualifications* in the present study.

When participants confirmed learning any such TESOL skills in a particular qualification, further questions were then asked to explore the characteristics of that TESOL-related qualification such as academic level, qualification title, fields of study, and subjects or topics covered during the study. This definition helped this study collect data broadly on the academic qualifications that helped this group of ESOL teachers to learn any perceived TESOL skills (by themselves), including the programs that may not have been developed specifically for TESOL teacher training (e.g., Bachelor of Psychology).

After the data on the internal characteristics of these TESOL-related qualifications were collected, the titles of those qualifications were examined to remove qualifications less likely to have been earned through some form of teacher education course or program in TESOL. Based on the review of individual titles of TESOL-related qualifications, any qualifications which included in their title one or more keywords that clearly indicated the direct relevance to the field of TESOL [e.g., TESOL; EFL (English as a foreign language); ESL (English as a second language); applied linguistics) were separately categorised as TESOL certifications.

During this screening process, any qualification(s) in education (e.g., Bachelor of Education) were not included in TESOL certifications unless there was some evidence within the title that these qualifications were taken as a major or minor, or had some integrated component in the above areas. These included TESOL, TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language), TESL (teaching English as a second language), TEAL (teaching English as an additional language), or

applied/linguistics, such as Bachelor of Secondary English Education with a Certificate in TESL.

Scope and delimitations of the study

The present study investigates the potential effect of TESOL teacher education using a specific group of ESOL teachers in Japan: Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs). While there are other groups of ESOL teachers recruited from overseas both in Japan and the wider TESOL contexts in Asia (e.g., those at private English conversation schools), they have been excluded from the scope of the present study.

ALTs in Japan may have some unique contextual characteristics, especially those associated with regular team-teaching with local teachers. Therefore, findings in the study are limited to this specific group of ESOL teachers in Japan. Any findings of the study have to be interpreted carefully while reflecting upon specific contextual factors in the given context in Japan.

The study also has to limit the scope of its outcome measure (i.e., job satisfaction). As mentioned before, other studies have explored the impact of what teachers learn during their teacher education using other measures such as their teaching practices or their students' academic progress (e.g., Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Kennedy, 2008). However, since this study aims to examine the potential effect of TESOL teacher education upon a large number of practicing ESOL teachers ($N = 232$), the observation of the individual teaching practice was not practical due to time and resource constraints. Also, the study would not be able to differentiate the potential influences of local teachers upon the learning outcomes of Japanese students in the context of team-teaching between these two groups of teachers.

Significance

The study is significant to stakeholders such as the present, former, and future Assistant Language Teachers, the providers of the existing TESOL teacher education programs, employers (e.g., commercial dispatch agents, board of education offices), the administrators of the JET program (i.e., CLAIR and the Japanese ministries), Japanese teachers who team-teach with the ALTs, and English-language learners in Japan.

First, the current study benefits present and future Assistant Language Teachers in Japan. The study investigates factors that may determine their perceived job satisfaction; since job satisfaction reportedly correlates highly with one's life satisfaction, it may be a key determinant of the total wellbeing and the "subjective quality of life" (Veenhoven, 1996) for any working individuals (Tait, Padgett, & Baldwin, 1989), including ESOL teachers who were recruited from overseas.

While both recruited foreign teachers and local teachers report being frustrated with their team-teaching work in Japan (e.g., Kan, 2002; Miyazato, 2009; Otani & Tsuido, 2007), this study investigates firstly if the academic qualifications of ALTs have played any role in their perceptions of their work. In the course of the investigation, the study also collects data on other aspects of ALTs' characteristics (e.g., language learning background, age, gender, race, nationality), and examines if there are any other determinants of job satisfaction. The study, therefore, contributes to enhancing the subjective quality of individual ALT lives whilst in Japan.

Second, the study has significant implications for existing providers of TESOL qualifications. While many providers offer a wide range of TESOL qualifications in many parts of the world (e.g., Christopher, 2005), there is still very little research available on the impact of those qualifications, or even clarification of

the variations between programs (e.g., Richards, 2008). This study contributes to the industry, firstly, by providing a clear definition and clarification of the types of programs and qualifications that exist within a specific work context in Japan. It then examines the impact, if any, of having completed one of these existing TESOL programs upon the teachers in practice. The study also explores the potential influence of individual variations within existing TESOL programs.

Third, whether any TESOL qualifications possessed by ALTs influenced their job satisfaction or not should also be of interest to the Japanese ministries and their Japanese team-teaching colleagues. As mentioned earlier, Japan has been reluctant to hire any certified ESOL teachers from overseas due to past failures (McConnell, 2000; Tsuido, 2007). The present study provides empirical data and analysis to examine this anecdotal claim.

Fourth, exploring potential factors that may determine ALT job satisfaction also benefits other employers of ALTs such as commercial agents who despatch the non-JET ALTs. As a number of reports indicate (e.g., Mondejar, Valdivia, Laurier, & Mboutsiadis, 2012; Nagoya International Centre, 2014), ALTs in Japan – particularly those outside the JET program (i.e., non-JET ALTs) – have a very high employment turnover. The high level of turnover has also been reported in the wider contexts of TESOL (Johnston 1997; McKnight 1992). Since there is a strong relationship between workers' job satisfaction and turnover (e.g., Ingersoll, 2001), the present study helps ALT employers to identify candidates who perceive their work positively, and thus reduce turnover in the future.

Reducing turnover of ALTs by enhancing teacher job satisfaction also benefits Japanese students who are learning English with ALTs. Studies report some positive correlations between student academic achievement and teacher job

satisfaction (e.g., Lee, 2006; Michaelowa & Wittmann, 2007). Despite the continuing massive investment both at the central and municipal levels of government in Japan over the past 200 years, the English language proficiency of Japanese citizens does not appear to be improving (Education Testing Service, 1994, 1999, 2011).

Finally, the study contributes to expanding knowledge about non-JET ALTs – teachers who were hired independently of the JET program. As mentioned earlier, despite the growing involvement of this group of ALTs in English language education at Japanese schools (e.g., MEXT, 2014), these ALTs have not been widely studied in the existing literature. The present study explores the difference between their backgrounds and those recruited through the JET program, and examines if such differences make any impact upon their perceptions of their work.

Thesis Outline

In Chapter 2, the present literature on job satisfaction is broadly reviewed. Existing studies in economics help the study to explore the knowledge gap, while identifying the theoretical framework for the current investigation. The literature review in teacher job satisfaction helps the study to examine various sources of teacher (dis)satisfaction at work in wider contexts, as well as among ESOL teachers. The lack of attention to the variations in teacher academic backgrounds, and their associations with teacher perceptions of work, are identified as a significant gap in the literature.

Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology. This study has collected and analysed survey and interview data, following the two-phase sequential explanatory design as a mixed methods approach (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). The adopted research methodology and design, with some methodological assumptions, are discussed first. The participants, the timeline, and

the instruments adopted for the survey – in particular the items for the participants'
job satisfaction – are then discussed. The chapter concludes with some ethical
considerations, and a discussion of the limitations.

The subsequent five chapters present the results and analyses of the survey
and interview data. Chapter 4 answers the first research question by reporting
descriptive data on ALT demographic, linguistic, and educational backgrounds,
together with job characteristics and work experience in Japan. As part of this
chapter, the internal variations discovered within these teachers' TESOL teacher
education backgrounds are analysed and discussed.

Chapter 5 answers the second research question (i.e., ALT job satisfaction). It
firstly presents and analyses the descriptive data on the participants' perceived
satisfaction across 21 different facets of their work. This chapter also reports the
results of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, and outlines the process by
which the study identified three latent variables that represent participant satisfaction
scores. These scores are then used as outcome variables in the subsequent regression
analysis.

Chapter 6, 7 and 8 together answer the third and fourth research questions. In
these chapters, firstly, multiple regression models examine the statistical associations
between ALT backgrounds and job characteristics, and the three job satisfaction
scores identified earlier in the factor analysis. Secondly, regression analyses are
followed by analysis of the interview data, which provides plausible explanations for
the significant and non-significant associations discovered in the regression analyses.

In Chapter 6, the potential influence of ALT demographic and linguistic
backgrounds on job satisfaction is explored. Chapter 7 analyses and discusses
whether and how educational backgrounds are associated with satisfaction scores.

Also, in this chapter, the potential influence of overall TESOL teacher education backgrounds, as well as the influence of the internal variations within TESOL backgrounds are explored. This particular part of the analysis provides an answer to the fourth research question (i.e., the effect of TESOL qualifications). Chapter 8 explores the potential effects of work experiences and conditions upon teacher satisfaction scores. This chapter completes the answer to the third research question.

The final chapter summarises the overall findings of the study, and discusses these with reference to the existing literature in economics, TESOL teacher education, and ALTs in Japan. The chapter also provides some implications for the stakeholders as identified earlier. First, the theoretical implications for TESOL teacher education research are discussed, along with teacher job satisfaction research. Some pedagogical implications for future TESOL teacher education are then discussed. Finally, the administrative implications for future practice of hiring Assistant Language Teachers in Japan are discussed. The chapter then presents some recommendations for the future training of both foreign and local teachers in Japan, as well as administrative suggestions for authorities in Japan. Some suggestions for future research, together with the limitations of this study, are discussed in this part.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter begins with a broad review of the literature on job satisfaction in industrial and organisational psychology research, as well as among economics studies. Through this review, the theoretical framework for the present study, and key job satisfaction theories, are identified. The implications of existing studies in these fields for the current investigation of ESOL (English to speakers of other languages) teacher job satisfaction are also discussed.

The chapter then reviews more specifically the studies that examine teacher job satisfaction, and identifies a number of theoretical and conceptual gaps in the present literature. The potential application of job satisfaction theories into these gaps, and thus the propositions, are discussed. The final section of the chapter summarises the implications from the literature, and develops the conceptual framework for this study.

Theoretical Framework for the Study

As mentioned in the previous chapter, job satisfaction is an aspect of job attitude that has been researched widely in the fields of industrial and organisational psychology (Judge & Church, 2000), and also in economics studies (Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Florit & Lladosa, 2007; Wolf & Zuvekas, 1997). Broadly, the literature on job satisfaction in organisational psychology appears to have taken two main approaches (Figure 1). The first approach, illustrated as the second and third steps in Figure 1, treats the workers' perceived job satisfaction as an independent variable. In this approach, many studies examine how workers' job satisfaction influenced their work behaviours (the dependent variables), such as performance and productivity (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Organ, 1988; Saari & Judge, 2004);

turnover (Carsten & Spector, 1987; Kazi & Zadeh, 2011; Medina, 2012; Shield & Ward, 2001); or absenteeism (Bass & Barret, 1981; Cheloha & Farr, 1980; Clegg, 1983). While this approach is not adopted in the present study, the studies here justify the earlier decision to exclude the behavioural component of job attitudes from the definition of job satisfaction for the study (see Chapter 1).

1. Job characteristics and worker individual characteristics

2. Workers' job satisfaction

3. Workers' behaviours
(e.g., turnover, absenteeism)
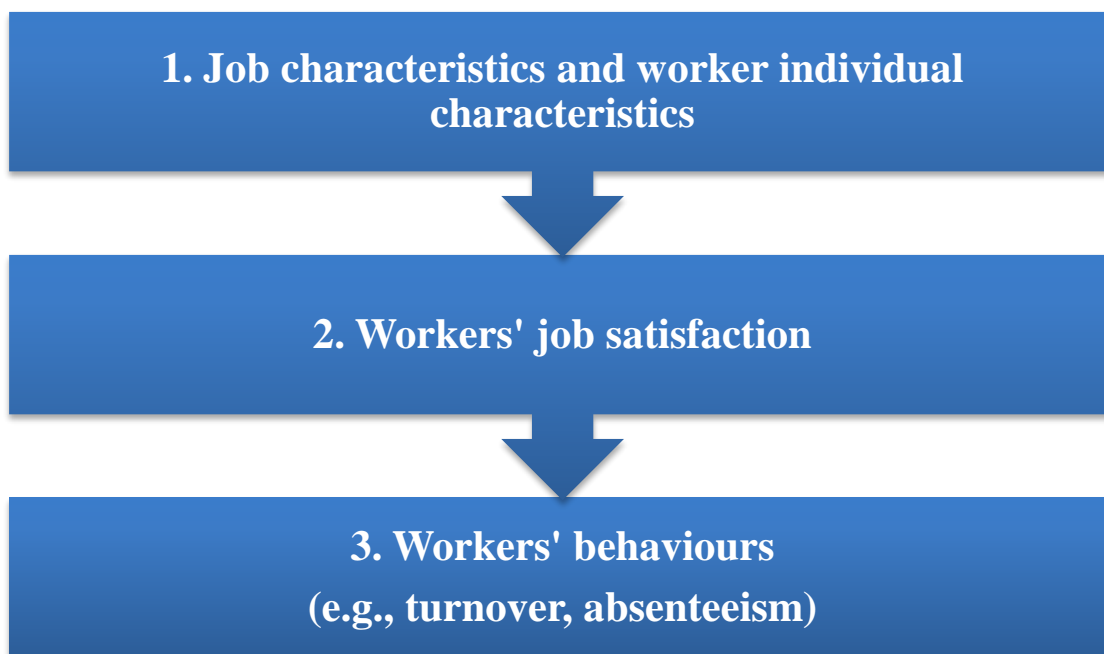
Figure 1. Overview of the existing literature on job satisfaction

The second group of literature explores the relationship between the first and second steps in Figure 1. This approach adopts worker job satisfaction as a dependent variable, and examines the factors that could determine or influence the outcome variable (e.g., Clark, 1996; Clark & Oswald, 1996; Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Jex, 2002; Smith & Plant, 1982). Broadly, this is the perspective used here as a theoretical framework, since the present study aims to examine the extent to which teacher backgrounds and experiences at work influence job satisfaction.

Job characteristics and job satisfaction. In the strand of the literature that has examined various factors that could affect the workers' job satisfaction, research has investigated how worker job satisfaction has been determined by two sub-groups of the factors: job characteristics and workers' individual characteristics. The first group of studies explores the extent to which various job characteristics determine worker job satisfaction. As illustrated in Figure 2, the job characteristics commonly investigated include salary, working hours, autonomy, supervision, promotional opportunities, or relationships with colleagues (e.g., Clark, 1997; Lydon & Chevalier, 2002; Sloane & Williams, 2000; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Spector, 2001).

Further, Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) present a model that clarifies the more specific nature of the job that could determine worker job satisfaction. They identified five influential dimensions of job satisfaction: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from job. Skill variety, they argue, relates to the variety of a worker's skills required to carry out their work. There was also other evidence to suggest that the more variety of skills workers are required to use, the more satisfied they are with the job (e.g., Forsgren, Forsman, & Carlström, 2009; Glisson & Durick, 1988). Task significance is the degree to which "the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people" (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p. 161). Again, some studies support this aspect of the model, finding a positive association between the levels of workers' responsibility and their job satisfaction (e.g., Parsons & Broadbridge, 2006).

Figure 2. Examples of job characteristics that may influence job satisfaction

As discussed in the previous chapter, the job characteristics of Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs), such as the roles and the level of autonomy during team-teaching, have been known to be heavily context-dependent (e.g., Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Mahoney, 2004; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012). Therefore, for instance, if they were performing a wide range of the roles from a "human tape recorder" to a fully independent main teacher, then such a variety may result in positive perceptions of their work, following the model by Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980). Alternatively, some studies find the ambiguity of their roles may lead to lower satisfaction in their job (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1993; Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976).

Although the various roles that ALTs undertake at Japanese schools have been studied in the past (e.g., Mahoney, 2004), the potential impact of those roles upon their job satisfaction remains largely underexplored. Indeed, ALT job satisfaction has not attracted much attention in the literature, as is discussed later in

this chapter. Further, other aspects of work conditions that surround ALTs (e.g., the level and number of schools at which they teach, the salary for the non-JET ALTs) remain largely under-clarified in the present literature. The present study uses survey data to clarify these characteristics of ALT working conditions in Japan, and then examines if and how variations in these job characteristics influence job satisfaction.

Range of Affect theory. It should be noted here that the relationship between job characteristics and worker job satisfaction has not always been found to be straightforward (i.e., "the more the better"), but rather inconsistent. For instance, some (e.g., Clark, 1997; Pfeffer & Langton, 1993) found that those who were receiving higher incomes were not necessarily more satisfied with their work than those receiving less. By contrast, others (e.g., Bryson, Buraimo, & Simmons, 2011; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000) report a significant increase in the worker job satisfaction as salaries increase. Similarly, some found a positive association between workers' level of autonomy and their job satisfaction (Iliopoulou & While, 2010; Shacklock, Brunetto, & Farr-Wharton, 2012), whereas others found no significant relationship (Fung-kam, 1998; Mastekaasa, 2011). As mentioned earlier, some (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1993; Sims et al, 1976) found a negative association between the level of the ambiguity in worker roles and job satisfaction; others found no association (e.g., Iliopoulou & While, 2010).

A common premise in much of the existing research on the effect of the job characteristics on job satisfaction seems to be based on Locke's (1976) Range of Affect theory. According to the theory, individual workers determine their job satisfaction by comparing what they expect to receive at work, and what they receive in reality (Figure 3). Further, individual workers make this comparison independently in each facet of their work such as salary, autonomy, or promotional

opportunity. When their expectation is met in one particular aspect of work, that becomes a source of satisfaction in that particular facet of work, whereas when the expectation is not met, then the gap may lead to the dissatisfaction with that aspect of the work.
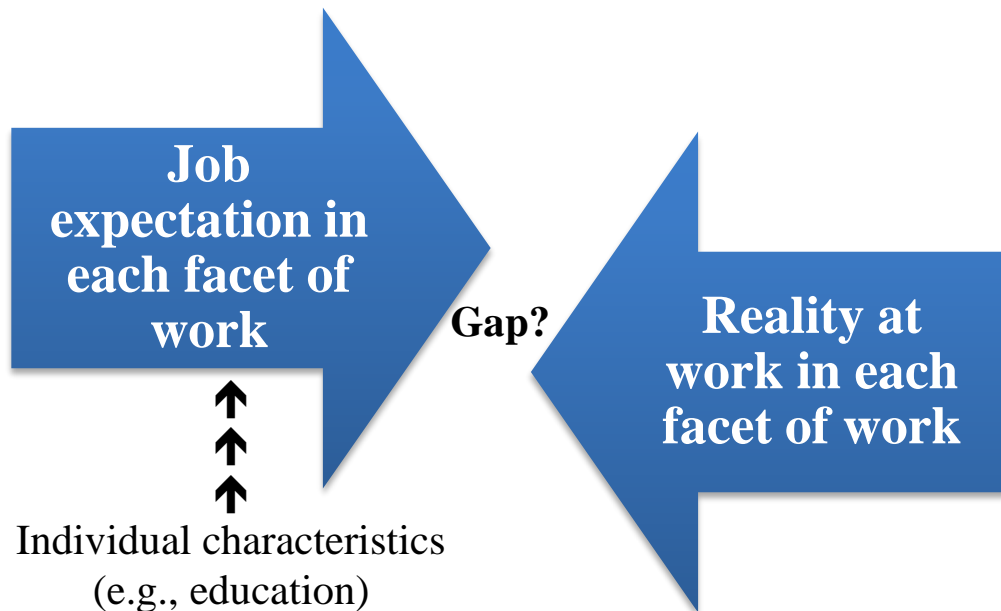
Figure 3. Range of Affect theory by Locke (1976)

There are some interesting implications of this theory for the present study. First, if teachers compare their expectation and the reality in each different aspect of their work, then teachers could be satisfied with certain aspects of their job, while being dissatisfied with other areas of work. Indeed this seems to be confirmed in the existing literature that specifically examines teacher job satisfaction (see below for more discussion).

For this reason, teacher job satisfaction should not be measured as an individual evaluation of overall work (e.g., "Overall, how satisfied are you with your work?"). Instead, it should be examined in each of the different facets of their work (e.g., salary, autonomy, or relationships with colleagues). Therefore, the present

study has adopted an existing teacher job satisfaction scale (McKenzie et al., 2011) that was designed to measure teachers' perceptions of various aspects of their work that were seemingly applicable to ALTs in Japan (see more in Chapter 3).

Second, if the unmet expectations of teachers may result in their dissatisfaction, then those who have higher expectations in certain areas of the job (e.g., salary, autonomy) could be more difficult to satisfy in those facets of their job than the others who work under the same conditions but have lower expectations. Similarly, teachers who have lower expectations in some facets of their work may be apt to feel more satisfied in those facets, when compared with those who work under the same conditions with higher expectations.

For example, according to CLAIR (2015b), all ALTs in the JET program are contracted to receive the same salary according to years of experience. Therefore, some may assume that the potential effect of salary on ALT job satisfaction may be minimal. However, if some ALTs have a particularly high expectation of their salary based, for example, on their previous experience in teaching or their professional teacher training background (and the resulting salary from those backgrounds), then their expectations may result in lower satisfaction even though there is little discrepancy in what they receive compared with others. Similarly, some ALTs may expect to act as a teacher assistant by taking a merely supportive role for the main local teachers, and thus a lesser level of autonomy in their teaching. By contrast, others who may have some teaching background may expect to have more autonomy in teaching, especially while their exact roles in team-teaching remain ambiguous (e.g., Mahoney, 2004). Accordingly, such ALTs may have a lower satisfaction despite the similar level of the autonomy in teaching.

Workers' individual characteristics. If it is assumed that teacher expectations of work may have a significant impact on job satisfaction, then the factors that may influence those expectations should also be examined. This seems to be where worker individual characteristics are examined as potential factors that may influence their job expectation and thus job satisfaction (see small vertical arrows in Figure 3).

Existing studies typically examine the influence of worker characteristics such as age, gender, race, years of experience, and education (Bartel, 1981; Belfield & Harris, 2002; Clark, 1996; Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Freeman 1978; Idson, 1990; Johnson & Johnson, 2002; Meng, 1990; Smith & Plant, 1982; Tait et al., 1989; Vlosky & Aguilar, 2009; Ward & Sloane, 2000, see Figure 4). While some of these studies found no significant influence of these individual characteristics upon worker satisfaction, those which discovered significant influence generally argue that the individual workers' different attributes (e.g., gender, age, years of experience) may have helped them to form higher (or lower) expectations of the particular aspects of their work (e.g., salary, autonomy). Such an adjusted expectation may reduce (or increase) the effect of the workers' individual characteristics upon their job satisfaction.

This theory has a particular implication for the present study. As discussed earlier, ALTs are known to have diverse demographic, linguistic, and educational backgrounds, although their backgrounds have not been fully clarified. While their job satisfaction itself remains largely under-examined (as discussed later in this chapter), the association between these background factors of individual teachers and their job satisfaction has not been examined in the literature for this particular group of teachers of English to speakers of other languages (ESOL). Further, also discussed later in this chapter, the existing literature on teacher job satisfaction in wider

contexts has not examined teacher academic backgrounds fully, due to the relatively

standardised educational backgrounds of teachers in those contexts (Kennedy et al.,

2008). The present study aims to clarify the diverse backgrounds of the selected

group of the ESOL teachers in Japan, and explore the associations between these

background factors and job satisfaction.

Figure 4. Examples of individual characteristics that may influence job satisfaction

It should also be noted here that job experience of workers who are working in

foreign countries may be different to that of local workers (e.g., Ang, Van Dyne, &

Begley, 2003; Froese, Peltokorpi & Ko, 2012; Hsu & Liao, 2015). Despite ever

increasing number of immigrant workers (e.g., Phillips & Simon-Davies, 2016), the

majority of existing studies in job satisfaction (e.g., Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Johnson

& Johnson, 2002) appears to assume that employees are working within their own

familiar cultural, national and local community context. Foreign workers may have

different expectations of their job attributes (e.g., salary, work hours, supervision, autonomy, see Figure 2). Teachers from overseas may have specific expectations of their job characteristics such as student behaviour and pedagogy (e.g., Mullock, 2009; Pennington, 1991; Senior, 2006, see below for further discussion on teacher job satisfaction). Further, the level of their knowledge in local language and culture may also affect their job experience and perceptions, as some ALTs have reported in past qualitative studies (e.g., Otani & Tsuido, 2007); however, the statistical association with their job satisfaction remains unknown to date. The present study will attempt to address some of these gaps in the current literature by focusing specifically on a group of foreign workers' job satisfaction in Japan, and investigates how their diverse backgrounds of (e.g., nationality and Japanese language proficiency) influence their perceptions of job experience.

Benefits of education. Among the individual worker characteristics, educational backgrounds are of particular interest to the present study. The effect of this particular characteristic of individual workers upon job satisfaction appears to have been researched extensively in economics studies. Many of these studies derive from Becker's (1993) human capital theory, which suggests that education should be regarded as an investment in human capital, and thus the skills and knowledge gained through education should return some benefit to the individuals. Traditionally, many economists examine the relationship between one's education and its monetary return on one's earning capacity, such as wages or duration of unemployment (e.g., Cohn & Addison, 1998; Kettunen, 1997).

Relatively more recent approaches in this field began estimating the total effect of education on individual wellbeing, and thus turned attention to non-monetary returns. The underlying premise is those who have a higher education are

more likely to have the ability to access and use the information in the labour market that could help them to make an efficient decision about their job choice, as well as to form more accurate expectations about their job (Arrow, 1997). Economists argue that such an ability in turn enhances various non-pecuniary aspects of worker lives such as health, fertility, emotional health, job search efficiency, or other work conditions (Wolf & Zuvekas, 1997).

Worker job satisfaction in these studies is seen as an indicator of "how workers value the whole package of all types of rewards from their jobs according to their own personal preferences and expectations" (Vila, 2005, p. 4), and thus it is their subjective evaluation of both monetary and non-monetary aspects of their working lives. Further, since job satisfaction correlates highly with one's life satisfaction, it is believed to be a key determinant of the total wellbeing for working individuals (Tait et al, 1989). For these reasons, job satisfaction has been adopted as a proxy measure for the quality of one's life, and thus used to estimate the total benefit of education in many studies in economics (as discussed later in this chapter).

Teacher education is a form of education, and therefore, in human capital terms, it can be understood as an investment made by many prospective teachers, especially for those who do not necessarily have to complete any teacher education to become employable as a teacher. Therefore, there is a need to examine the benefit of education to individual teachers through their job satisfaction. However, the existing evidence on the effects of education on job satisfaction is inconclusive. Some found a positive association (e.g., Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Florit & Lladosa, 2007), whereas others found no association (e.g., Idson, 1990; Martin & Shehan, 1989) or even a negative influence of education upon job satisfaction (e.g., Clark, 1996; Clark & Oswald, 1996; Metle, 2001; Watson et al., 1996).

While these mixed results support the need for further investigation in this area, a number of explanations could be considered for this rather counter-intuitive range of results. First, the mixed results may in part be due to the inconsistent types of variables that represented worker educational characteristics, as well as the outcome variable (i.e., job satisfaction). For instance, the worker educational variable was defined using the highest attained level in some studies (e.g., Clark & Oswald, 1996; Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Idson, 1990; Metle, 2001), and the total length of education in others (e.g., Clark, 1996; Glen & Weaver, 1982; Gürbüz, 2007; Hartog & Oosterbeck, 1996; Meng, 1990). Worker job satisfaction was measured using a global scale (i.e., the overall satisfaction) in some studies (e.g., Clark & Oswald, 1996; Glen & Weaver, 1982), whereas others measured worker satisfaction with different facets of their work (e.g., Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Groot & Oosterbeek, 1998).

Given that the extent of diversity that could exist in the academic backgrounds of the participants in the study (i.e., ALTs in Japan), together with the potential variations that could emerge among TESOL certifications, this study could not limit teacher educational variables either to the highest attained level, or the length of study required for their particular qualification. Instead, the study is designed to examine the broader characteristics of teacher educational backgrounds (e.g., the field of study, the subjects completed, the length of practicum), and then explore the potential influence of those educational variations on their satisfaction scores. Further, as discussed earlier, teacher job satisfaction should be measured in each different facet of work, given that the literature suggests that teachers have different perceptions of different aspects of their teaching career.

Second, the majority of studies here used the aforementioned Range of Affect theory (Locke, 1976) to explain their findings. They contend that worker education raises expectations of both the monetary (e.g., salary) and non-monetary (e.g., autonomy) rewards from work, and could enhance job satisfaction only when the raised expectations match job characteristics in the workplace (e.g., Hartog & Oosterbeck, 1998; Ross & Van Willingen, 1997). If education and expectations do not meet with reality in certain aspects of their job, then this can negatively influence job satisfaction in those aspects of their work (e.g., Albert & Davia 2005; Allen & van der Velden, 2001; Clark, 1996; Clark & Oswald, 1996; Martin & Shehan, 1989; Mortimer, 1979).

One school of thought that has emerged from the above theory relatively recently has focused on the skill (mis)match at work (Allen & van der Velden, 2001; Green & McIntosh, 2007; Green & Zhu, 2010; Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Maynard, Joseph, & Maynard, 2006; Mora, Vila, & García-Aracil, 2005; Pollmann-Schult & Buchel, 2004; Vaisey, 2006). In general, these studies report that worker satisfaction is positively influenced only when education or skills they possess match what is required at work.

Further, over-educated or over-skilled workers who are "working in a job that requires a lower level of education than one's own" (Allen & van der Velden 2001, p. 445) are inclined to have a significantly lower job satisfaction, whereas the effect of under-education has been found to be non-significant, or even positive (e.g., Vila, García-Aracil, & Mora, 2007). The common explanation given to these findings is that workers who gain additional skills and knowledge through extended education are often underutilising their skills in a job that does not require those skills. Such a

mismatch between expected skill utilisation and reality (the underutilisation) may have resulted in these workers' lower job satisfaction.

As discussed in the previous chapter, the roles of ALTs in Japan remain ambiguous, or largely context-dependent (Mahoney, 2004; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012). Therefore, the skills and knowledge they must possess to work successfully at a Japanese school remains unknown in the present literature. Further, Mahoney (2004) also reports that some ALTs complain of having too little responsibility, whereas others are often frustrated with too much responsibility. Following the above skill (mis)match theory, it may be the additional skills and knowledge gained by ALTs through extended or more specific education (e.g., TESOL teacher education) determines their differing responses to others in similar roles. The present study clarifies what teachers actually learn in their TESOL teacher education, and then explores the extent to which their existing skills and knowledge are being utilised while working as an ALT through the lens of their perceived job satisfaction.

A similar situation is also evident in the broader contexts of TESOL. Despite continuous debates on the knowledge base of professional ESOL teachers (e.g., Borg, 2003; Canagarajah, 2015; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Nunan, 2001), there still seems to be little global consensus on what constitutes quality teaching or a quality teacher (Nunan, 2001; Tsui, 2009). This suggests the skills and knowledge ESOL teachers should possess may differ from context to context. If the practices in TESOL teacher education are "the institutionalized professional responses to what ESOL teachers need to know and be able to do in various contexts around the world" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 403), then the extreme variations in existing TESOL programs (e.g., Christopher, 2005) also demonstrate the lack of consensus in the nature of skills and knowledge that ESOL teachers should possess.

Furthermore, employment organisations of ALTs in Japan, including the JET program, typically require ESOL teacher candidates from overseas to hold a bachelor's degree with any major (e.g., Sperling, 2011). Therefore, the nature of the skills and knowledge that these teachers should possess to work in their destination context successfully has been defined only broadly through the compulsory academic qualification required in the hiring practice.

The current investigation of the perceived job satisfaction of a particular group of ESOL teachers – and the association of that job satisfaction with educational attainment – may clarify the extent to which acquired academic qualifications agree with the actual skills and knowledge required in the selected work context of TESOL. The present study intends to use this clarification to contribute to closing the gap in the literature, which appears to have not yet addressed the relationship between the diverse academic backgrounds and professional lives of ESOL teachers recruited from overseas to work in Japan. Such an investigation may firstly provide a more specific definition of an adequate qualification for these teachers in a selected context of TESOL in Japan, other than "a bachelor degree in any field". Secondly, the investigation explores the extent to which existing TESOL certifications serve ESOL teachers who are working in a context where such certifications are not necessarily essential.

Teacher Job Satisfaction

The vast majority of the economics studies discussed earlier do not differentiate worker satisfaction by professions or occupations, and therefore, do not focus directly on the relationship between teachers' jobs or personal characteristics and their perceived job satisfaction. As some have already pointed out (Kassabgy, Boraie, & Schmidt, 2001; Mullock, 2009), the majority of literature in the field of

educational psychology has focused largely on students (e.g., their motivation), and much less attention has been paid to teachers' psychological attributes, particularly as members of the labour market (e.g., motivation or job satisfaction). From a broad perspective in educational psychology, the present study is situated in this gap in the literature.

The vast majority of existing studies on teacher job satisfaction seems to have taken one of the two approaches observed in organisational psychology as introduced earlier in this chapter (see Figure 1). The first group of studies examines how teacher job satisfaction (as an independent or predictor variable) influences work-related behaviours, such as turnover intention. Concerning the relatively high retention rate among the ESOL teachers (Johnston 1997; McKnight 1992), some examine the association between teacher job satisfaction and intention to leave the profession (Giacometti, 2005; Kabungaidze, Mahlatshana, & Ngirande, 2013; Larkin 2015). These studies generally report some modest level of positive correlation between these variables.

As discussed so far in this thesis, the present study treats teacher job satisfaction as an outcome variable, not a predictor variable, and therefore, the study does not examine the extent to which job satisfaction could predict teacher turnover intention. However, turnover has been known to be very high among ALTs, particularly for those outside the JET program (Mondejar et al, 2012; Nagoya International Centre, 2014), as well as among other ESOL teachers in the wider contexts of TESOL (Johnston 1997; McKnight 1992). Therefore, this current investigation into factors that could improve job satisfaction may identify what could reduce turnover among this particular group of the ESOL teachers.

The second group of existing studies treats teacher job satisfaction as a dependent or outcome variable, and explores various factors that could influence the outcome. Again, the examined factors could be categorised into the same two sub-groups, following what was observed in the organisational research: job characteristics (e.g., salary, roles, autonomy, relationship with colleagues, school levels), and teachers' individual characteristics (e.g., age, gender, race, years of experience, educational backgrounds). These are discussed separately below.

Teacher job characteristics and job satisfaction. The first sub-group of factors that could affect teacher job satisfaction is job characteristics. Indeed, the majority of the existing studies on teacher job satisfaction appear to have searched for the potential sources of teacher (dis)satisfaction at work, and thus seem to fit in this group.

As a result of the level of existing attention, what teachers are satisfied or less satisfied with at work has been relatively well researched both in the contexts of TESOL (e.g., Johnston, 1997; Kassabgy et al., 2001; Kyriacou & Kunc 2007; McKnight, 1992; Mullock, 2009; Pennington, 1991; Pennington & Riley, 1991; Senior, 2006; Zare, 2007), and also in the wider contexts of teaching (e.g., Dinham & Scott, 1996, 1998; Scott, Cox, & Dinham, 1999; Sergiovanni, 1969). In general, these studies report that teachers are relatively satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of the task of teaching and working with students, such as facilitating student learning and their progress, developing their own teaching skills and subject matter knowledge, autonomy in teaching, supportive colleagues, and the recognition of parents, peers, and superiors. In contrast, teachers have been known to feel less satisfied with the extrinsic aspects of their job such as work conditions (e.g., salary,

job security, workload), professional status, or the opportunities for professional development and promotion.

While many of these job characteristics of teachers are similar to what has been examined in economics studies, there are some aspects that are not typically discussed. First is the teachers' work with their students. Teacher perceptions of student characteristics, attitudes, and behaviours are often among the most frequently reported factors to influence their decision to remain or leave the profession (e.g., McPherson, 2006; The National Science Foundation, 2008; Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Therefore, the present study could not examine ALT job satisfaction using any scales that ignored this influential aspect of their work. For this reason, most of the scales that are popularly used in the economics studies, such as the Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al., 1969) or Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 2001), could not be adopted for the study; in these scales, there are no individual items that could explore teacher perceptions of their work with students. This is discussed further in the next chapter.

The second aspect not explored in economics studies is the level of school (e.g., elementary, secondary etc.) at which teachers are working. Unlike what was observed in the industrial or economics research, some studies in educational psychology examine the difference in teacher job satisfaction level by school level. Some found no difference (e.g., Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004), whereas others discovered some significant difference. Markow and Cooper (2008), for example, discovered that elementary/primary school teachers are more satisfied with their job overall than those teaching at secondary schools. Secondary teachers are reportedly less likely to feel that they are recognised for good performance than elementary teachers, whereas teachers at both levels are equally likely to recommend a young person to pursue a career in teaching.

According to CLAIR (2015a), ALTs in Japan can be assigned to a number of schools, including at multiple levels. Their roles and responsibility in team-teaching with local teachers were reportedly different at different levels of schools, because of the changing levels of the emphasis given to communicative English language education (Mahoney, 2004; McConnell, 2000). If the job characteristics for this group of ESOL teachers differ according to the level of school at which they teach, then their job satisfaction could be affected by these school levels. The present study clarifies this by including the level of schools as one of the predictor variables in the multiple regression analysis.

Job characteristics for teachers of English to speakers of other languages. Despite the general characteristics among studies of teacher job satisfaction, there are some job characteristics that are specific to the teachers of English to speakers of other languages (ESOL). First, some qualitative studies report a tension between local colleagues and foreign teachers of ESOL recruited from overseas. Mullock (2009), for instance, interviewed 23 ESOL teachers to identify sources of their motivation to enter the profession and to measure their job satisfaction. Among these 23 teachers working in Southeast Asian countries, 20 came from four countries: the U.S. ($n = 8$), the U.K. ($n = 7$), Australia ($n = 8$), and New Zealand ($n = 8$). Five did not have any formal teacher training.

In this qualitative study, a number of teachers pointed to tension between the local teachers and themselves. Some commented that their local colleagues may not want to recognise their work, because local teachers were jealous of the academic qualifications and the higher level of payment foreign teachers were receiving, and the way foreign teachers were treated by senior management within the school.

In his grounded theory research, Senior (2006) identifies a similar tension between foreign teachers and local teachers of English who were working in the same contexts. The local teachers reportedly found it "particularly irritating" (Senior, 2006, p. 58) when they faced young foreign teachers who were more fluent in English than they were, while knowing far less grammar and the local educational context, including the locally-supported examination-orientated approach to teaching English.

While these findings from existing qualitative studies may highlight a need for quantitative investigation, the studies also suggest that the work relationship between foreign ESOL teachers from overseas and local teachers may have a unique characteristic in the work contexts of TESOL. While the literature shows that teachers in other contexts are relatively satisfied with their relationship with their colleagues, their perceptions could be different in TESOL work contexts. This particular aspect of the teacher's job is highly relevant to participants in the present study (i.e., the ALTs), who do not usually have a local teaching credential, and thus, have to constantly engage in team-teaching with local teachers.

Further, these studies also seem to support the previously-mentioned anecdotal experience in Japan of intense conflict between certified teachers recruited from overseas and local Japanese teachers during the 1960s (McConnell, 2000; Tsuido, 2007). If, as JET program officials seem to claim, the training background of foreign teachers is somehow related to their work relationship with local teachers, then this potentially unique work relationship between overseas and local teachers may be dependent upon foreign teachers' educational backgrounds, in particular TESOL teacher education. For instance, if their teacher education background raises their expectations at work (e.g., regarding autonomy), then such a background may

have a negative association with satisfaction in their work relationship with local

teachers. Using a particular group of ESOL teachers in Japan (ALTs) who regularly

team-teach with local teachers, the present study clarifies this relationship by

examining the association between their job satisfaction with team-teaching and their

educational backgrounds.

Another aspect of the job characteristic that could affect ESOL teacher job

satisfaction in a unique manner is public misconceptions of the professionalism of

ESOL teachers. Senior (2006, p. 236), for instance, reported ESOL teacher

frustration at the public perceptions that anyone who can speak English can easily

teach the language. Senior also reported their dissatisfaction with the level of

professional training required for some teachers, who completed a four-week training

course and found a job as a teacher. Internally also, many ESOL teachers reportedly

suffered from being "treated as an underclass by colleagues and superiors"

(McKnight, 1992, p. 30). Other studies report voices similar to those of the ESOL

teachers in different contexts (Johnston, 1997; Mullock, 2009).

The findings in these qualitative studies again suggest ESOL teachers may

have a unique experience in working with their colleagues, and thus their satisfaction

with the work relationship with other teachers may be different from teachers who

work in non-TESOL contexts. Further, public perceptions of a lack of

professionalism in TESOL may also affect their satisfaction with the professional

value that society places upon their work. The present mixed methods study has

adopted a teacher job satisfaction scale developed by McKenzie et al. (2011). This is

partially because the scale incorporated these two aspects of the teachers' job

characteristics (the relationship with colleagues and the values society places on their

work), which are not necessarily included in other scales (e.g., Freeman, Loadman,

& Kennedy, 1991; Klecker & Loadman, 1999). This is discussed further in the next chapter.

Furthermore, the findings in Senior (2006) also suggest that ESOL teacher satisfaction with public perceptions of their work could differ depending on the characteristics of the TESOL teacher education programs they had completed. Some may assume, for example, that longer teacher education programs could provide the opportunity for teachers to learn the additional skills and knowledge that shorter programs did not. However, following the development of the recent skill (mis)match theory in economics studies (e.g., Allen & van der Velden, 2001; Green & Zhu, 2010), it could be speculated that those who complete the longer program may have more skills and knowledge to be underutilised, and thus feel dissatisfaction while being engaged in similar work to that of other teachers who had shorter or no teacher training in TESOL. The present study clarifies this relationship with ALTs in Japan ($N = 232$), using qualitative measurement as well as interview data.

The perceived job satisfaction of Assistant Language Teachers. To date, quantitative studies on ALT job satisfaction have been scarce. Tsuido et al. (2012) examine the overall job satisfaction of ALTs working at different levels of schools in a prefecture. While the sample size was relatively small ($N = 38$), the majority (81%, number unspecified) reported they were satisfied with their experience overall. The result was too premature to believe that ALTs are satisfied with their experience in Japan, since the sample size is limited, and also the adopted scale to measure their job satisfaction is a global (overall) scale. As previously argued, this current study does not measure overall ALT job satisfaction by a global scale, because many studies demonstrate that EOSL teacher satisfaction levels differ in varying aspects of their work (e.g., Mullock, 2009; Pennington, 1991; Pennington & Riley, 1991).

There are some studies that focus on a specific facet of work. Allison and Nash (2009), for instance, examined ALT perceptions of visiting multiple schools. Fifty percent of all the participants ($N = 272$) liked it, whereas 21% disliked it (the numbers unspecified in the original study). More recently, Shimizu et al., (2015) conducted a large scale study with nearly 1,000 ALTs. Among many aspects of their work, they examined ALT satisfaction with the amount of communication with local teachers. While nearly half of the respondents ($n = 354$, 47%) indicated the amount was adequate, nearly 40% responded that it was either insufficient ($n = 231$, 31%), or very insufficient ($n = 64$, 8%). To date, ALT satisfaction with the multiple facets of the job has not been explored simultaneously, let alone how those satisfaction levels are associated with their backgrounds.

In contrast to the limited quantitative studies above, a number of the qualitative studies examined ALT perceptions of their experiences in Japan (Crump, 2007; Falout, 2013; Geluso, 2013; McConnell, 2000). Based on the findings in these studies, one particular aspect of their work that may affect job satisfaction in a unique manner is their relationship with their students. Some studies reported the nature of ALT roles remain superficial or superfluous within the Japanese education system, which primarily aims to prepare students for the non-communicative entrance examination to the higher level of education (Crump, 2007; Falout, 2013; Geluso, 2013; Sakui, 2004). As a result, both Japanese teachers and students often see an ALT's communicative class as being "more for fun than for any real academic purpose" (Geluso, 2013, p. 103). In those classes, ALTs are often seen as an entertainer, not as a "real teacher" (Falout, 2013, p.109).

As seen above, teachers in other contexts (TESOL or non-TESOL) generally report relatively high levels of satisfaction when working with students. However,

the qualitative studies above suggest that some local students may not regard their foreign teachers as their "teachers", and thus ALTs may have some differing perceptions of their work relationship with those students. To date, this particular facet of their satisfaction does not appear to have been examined in any quantitative studies.

Further, ALT educational backgrounds (e.g., TESOL teacher education) could have had some impact upon local student perceptions of ALTs as their "real teacher", and thus may influence ALT perceptions of relationships with those students. Some ALT expectations of students may differ from those of ALTs without the same educational background. After clarifying educational backgrounds, the present study examines ALT satisfaction with working with students through both quantitative and qualitative analysis, and then explores its association with ALT educational backgrounds.

Teachers' individual characteristics and their job satisfaction. The second sub-group of factors examined as potentially influential variables over teacher job satisfaction is their individual characteristics such as age, gender, race, years of experience, and educational background (e.g., Fairchild et al., 2012; Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Qablan, 2011; Sharma & Jyoti, 2006; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). The existing studies report some inconsistent results, suggesting the context-dependent nature of associations between these variables in teachers' professional lives.

Age and years of experience. Existing studies of the association between teacher age, years of teaching experience, and job satisfaction seem to be inconclusive. Klecker and Loadman (1999), for instance, studied more than 1,800 elementary school teachers in Ohio, and attempted to identify any connections between job satisfaction, gender, and years of teaching experience. Job satisfaction

was measured with the National Survey of Teacher Education Graduates (Freeman et al., 1991).

They used the two-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) to compare the mean satisfaction scores by gender and years of teaching experience. Klecker and Loadman conclude there are no statistically significant differences by gender or years of experience in teacher satisfaction with salary, opportunities for self-advancement, general work conditions, and interactions with students, nor with total scores of satisfaction. While the methodologies adopted in each study are different, others similarly report the insignificant difference or correlation between teacher age and years of experience, and job satisfaction (e.g., Klassen & Anderson – correlation, 2009; Qablan – *t*-test, 2011; Zembylas & Papanastasiou – multiple regression, 2004).

By contrast, there is some evidence to suggest the significant influence of teacher gender and experience upon job satisfaction. Ma and MacMillan (1999), for instance, examined more than 2,000 elementary school teachers in Canada, and discovered that female teachers are more satisfied with their professional role than male teachers, regardless of years of teaching experience. They also found years of teaching experience correlates negatively with participant satisfaction. Female teachers are significantly more satisfied with their work as teachers than male counterparts in some other studies (e.g., Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Metropolitan Life, 1986, 1988, both as cited in Kottkamp, 1990).

Markow & Cooper (2008) also conducted a large-scale study, and examined the relationship between the teacher job satisfaction and years of teaching experience, along with school level, teachers' racial background, and educational background (see more detail further in this chapter). The study surveyed 1000 school teachers of grades K to 12 in the U.S., and found that those with least (i.e., five or

less years) and most experience (i.e. more than 20 years) are more satisfied with their careers overall than the group in middle range (i.e., 6 – 20 years of experience), whereas this middle range group is most satisfied with their salary compared with the other two groups. Huberman (1993) reported that teacher perceptions of their work changes as they gain more experience. This present study uses a specific group of the ESOL teachers in Japan (ALTs) to clarify the association of their age and teaching experience with their satisfaction with the multiple facets of their job.

Age and years of experience may have some unique implications for this study. Some argue that through the JET program the Japanese government has been controlling the political power of the "linguistically powerful" foreign teachers within Japanese schools by purposefully recruiting candidates who are relatively younger, and those who have not gained much experience in the field (e.g., Fujikake, 1996; Miyazato, 2009). The JET program explicitly limited applicant age to 35 years until it was raised to 40 years in 2002 (CLAIR, 2015a). While the age limit has since somehow been removed unnoticed from the JET program eligibility criteria, CLAIR still views the program as a youth exchange program, and encourages younger applicants to apply (CLAIR, 2015a). The program still does not allow participants to work for more than five years in total (CLAIR, 2015a). Since no quantitative studies have been conducted to clarify if these characteristics of teachers make any difference to their professional lives in Japan, the present study includes teacher age and years of experience in the regression analysis, and explores the extent to which these characteristics influence their team-teaching work with local teachers.

Teachers' linguistic backgrounds. One particular group of teacher characteristics that is not widely examined in existing studies in either education or economics is linguistic and language-learning backgrounds. In large, the present

literature appears to discuss language teachers' ability in multiple languages as an advantage for so-called "non-native speaker" teachers, however the term is re-interpreted in each study. For instance, some (e.g., Atkinson, 1987; Harbord, 1992; Meyer, 2008) argue that a teacher's use of the learner's first language is valued by the majority of learners when checking their comprehension during language lessons. Others argue that the ("non-native speaker") teacher's own experience in foreign language-learning could help them empathise with the various difficulties of language learners (e.g., McNeil, 2005; Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Based on these studies, some even argue that "proven experience of and success in foreign language learning" should be the minimal requirement of any ESOL teacher (e.g., Medgyes, 1992; Phillipson, 1992).

Interestingly, very few studies (e.g., Ellis, 2004) seem to focus on the language ability of teachers who did not learn English as their second or foreign language (i.e., referred to as "native speakers" in the existing studies, however the term was interpreted differently in each study). More importantly, little seems to be known as to their ability in this aspect, if it exists, influences their professional lives. The present study explores participating teachers' linguistic (e.g., the number of languages they speak) and Japanese language-learning backgrounds (e.g., the proficiency with language and length of study of language, see Chapter 3 for more information). The study then examines if and how these characteristics influence job satisfaction.

Furthermore, teacher linguistic background, particularly an ability in Japanese, may have some context-specific implications for ALTs in Japan. A number of studies (Kobayashi, 2000; Otani, 2007) report that some ALTs with little Japanese often feel isolated and stressed when they do not understand what is occurring at

work (e.g., at staff meetings). Also, as mentioned in Chapter 1, some ALTs in the past reported their difficulties in negotiating roles with their team-teaching local teachers, partly due to their limited Japanese as well as the limited English proficiency of local teachers (CLAIR, 2005, as cited in Butler, 2007; Kan, 2002; Otani & Tsuido, 2007).

Interestingly, the JET program has never included any specific level of the required proficiency in Japanese for applicants (CLAIR, 2015a; McConnell, 2000). The aforementioned studies arguing the JET program may be trying to control the political power of foreign teachers in their attempt to safeguard local teachers also point out that the lack of the local language requirement is part of such strategies (e.g., Fujikake, 1996; Miyazato, 2009). CLAIR officials, in their interviews with McConnell (2000), confirm that applicants who are very fluent users of Japanese are often rejected because they are "seen as working against two major purposes of the program: the teaching of English and the introduction of Japanese language and culture to a new generation of foreign youth".

To date, no quantitative studies seem to have been conducted to clarify if the linguistic and language-related characteristics of teachers make any difference to their professional lives. The present study contributes to closing this gap in the literature.

Teacher nationality. The literature review cannot identify any studies that differentiate teacher nationality as a potential factor to influence job satisfaction. The lack of the variation in nationalities within the samples may be a potential cause. The lack of attention on teacher nationality seems to confirm the scarcity in existing literature on job satisfaction of foreign workers as discussed earlier in this chapter.

The present study contributes to closing this gap in the literature, given the variety of the nationalities known to exist among ALTs in Japan (CLAIR, 2015a).

Teacher race. Few studies have examined the association between teacher racial background and job satisfaction, yielding inconclusive results. The aforementioned large-scale study by Markow & Cooper (2008) investigated whether a teacher's race made any difference to job satisfaction. Using descriptive data, the study concluded that Caucasian teachers are significantly more satisfied with their salary than their counterparts identifying as non-white (68%) and/or "minority" (58%) (p. 37) By contrast, the earlier version of their study (Metropolitan Life, 1988, as cited in Kottkamp, 1990) reported no significant difference. Kottkamp, Cohn, McClosley, and Provenzo (1987, p. 3) reported "black teachers were somewhat more satisfied with their jobs, schools, and principals than Anglo teachers".

The present study includes ALT nationality and racial background as the predictor variables in the multiple regression in order to examine the extent to which background is associated with their job satisfaction. As discussed in the previous chapter, race and nationality of the overseas ESOL teachers may have a significant impact on the level of the local acceptance as "the ideal native speaker model" within the English language education in Japan (McKenzie, 2013; Trudgill, 2008). If, as some argue (e.g., Honna, 2008; Kubota, 1998), American and Caucasian backgrounds are the most accepted characteristics in the local context, then ALT work experience could be influenced by (the lack of) these characteristics while working in Japan.

Teacher educational background and job satisfaction. Interestingly, very few studies have investigated the influence of teacher educational backgrounds upon job satisfaction. One potential reason for the scarcity is believed to be the lack of variation in this factor in earlier samples; teachers in other contexts typically have somewhat standardised credential(s), and thus there is less variation in their qualifications (Kennedy et al., 2008). Kennedy et al. point out that investigation of the effect of teacher education upon teachers required "teachers who lacked the degree, to serve as a comparison group for those who have it" (p. 1251), and the general homogeneity in teacher backgrounds presents continuing methodological issues. As argued in the previous chapter, the diverse backgrounds of teachers in the TESOL industry in Japan could provide a useful context to minimise this methodological issue, although the existing variations have to be clarified.

Nonetheless, some studies manage to elicit some differences among the teacher educational backgrounds, and then explore potential associations between the difference in those backgrounds and job satisfaction (e.g., Johnson 2010; Klassen & Anderson 2009; Qablan, 2011; Sharma & Jyoti, 2006; Sim, 1990; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). In general, what was observed in earlier economics studies (e.g., Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Idson, 1990) is also evident among these studies. The different studies adopt different ways to differentiate characteristics in teacher academic qualifications, and have yielded some mixed results.

Sim (1990), for instance, collected data from 930 secondary teachers at 33 schools in Singapore, and examined the extent to which their backgrounds and job characteristics influence their job satisfaction. Sim developed a job attitudes scale, and then adopted factor analysis to identify the underlying factors, which were used as dependent variables in the subsequent multiple regression. In large, this study

provides the present study with the methodological model, which will be discussed further in the next chapter.

Sim's (1990) study found "non-graduate" teachers are significantly more satisfied with their job than those classed as "graduate" teachers. Unfortunately, the definition of these terms is not specified within this study, although it could be speculated the "non-graduates" would be less-qualified group academically than the "graduates".

In a somewhat similar manner, Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004) examine the job satisfaction level of 461 kindergarten, elementary, and high school teachers in Cyprus, and the relationship of that satisfaction with personal and professional characteristics of these teachers. A multivariate regression analysis found teacher age, gender, school level, and academic achievement are not significant predictors of job satisfaction level. Unfortunately, the term "degree" was not defined clearly in this study.

Using a self-developed scale, Qablan (2011) collected data on the perceived job satisfaction of 200 physical education teachers (100 female and 100 male). The study used a *t*-test to examine any statistically significant differences in satisfaction between teachers with high and medium qualifications (Qablan, 2011, p. 288). While it did not clarify the terms *high* and *medium* (Qablan, 2011, p. 288), the study found that the difference is statistically insignificant. Voris (2011) used a one-way ANOVA to examine the job satisfaction of U.S. special teachers by differences in their certification (traditional vs. alternative). The study found no significant difference in satisfaction by variances in certification.

By contrast, some reported a negative impact of teacher educational backgrounds upon job satisfaction. Michaelowa and Wittmann (2007), for instance, used existing data from five African countries to conduct a regression analysis examining the association between school teacher satisfaction and educational attainments. The result indicates "contrary to expectations" (p. 13), the teachers' overall job satisfaction declines as they attain higher qualifications. Although they do not mention it explicitly, they used Locke's (1976) Range of Affect theory to explain the result: once these teachers obtain a high-school baccalaureate degree and then a pedagogical degree, they tend to notice a conceptual gap between their professional expectations and professional realities, and become less satisfied with their profession.

Sharma and Jyoti (2006) adopted the aforementioned Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al., 1969) to examine various factors that could be associated with perceived job satisfaction by nearly 1,000 school teachers in India. Similar to Sim (1990), they use factor analysis to identify a latent variable among the participants' satisfaction scores, although the associations between the variables are examined independently using the *t*-test and ANOVA. Teachers with a master's degree are found to be less satisfied with their job than those with a bachelor's degree. Also, the study finds those who receive some form of teacher training (not defined in the study) are less satisfied than those who do not receive any teacher training. Sharma and Jyoti (2006) used Locke's expectation theory to explain the results, speculating that those with the higher level of degree – or more specific training for their job – may have raised expectations of their work, which may not have been met in their real work. This could occur among the participating ALTs in the current study, particularly those who have completed some form of TESOL teacher education.

Overall, the general scarcity of literature in this area of enquiry justifies the need for further investigation. Many of the studies found in the literature appear to somehow dichotomise teacher educational backgrounds, and the results are far from conclusive. As discussed in the previous chapter, the educational backgrounds of ESOL teachers may be so diverse that the dichotomous comparison between the qualified and unqualified groups of the teachers would not reflect the reality that may exist among this particular group of ESOL teachers in Japan.

One potential reason for the dichotomous approach is the research to date seems to have focused only on teachers in contexts other than TESOL, where the relative lack of the variations in teacher educational backgrounds has been reported (Kennedy et al., 2008). The majority of existing studies examining ESOL teacher job satisfaction focus on associations between job characteristics and job satisfaction, often in search of the various sources of their (dis)satisfaction (e.g., Kyriacou & Kunc 2007; McKnight, 1992; Mullock, 2009; Pennington, 1991; Senior, 2006). Therefore, the extent to which ESOL teacher individual characteristics, particularly educational backgrounds, are associated with job satisfaction has not been fully examined in the literature. The current study explores this relationship, and thus contributes to narrowing the gap in the literature.

Potential effect of the ALT educational backgrounds upon their work. As mentioned in the previous chapter, ALT educational backgrounds have been largely under-explored. While the eligibility criterion for ALT applicants in the JET program ("a bachelor's degree", CLAIR, 2015a) allows us to speculate on the diversity that may exist in their educational backgrounds, such diversity has never been fully clarified, including teacher education and training backgrounds.

Also as discussed in the previous chapter, some researchers have pointed out that Japan's past experience with the intense conflict between certified teachers outsourced from overseas and local teachers has set a precursor for Japan's continuing reluctance to recruit any TESOL-qualified foreign teachers (Crooks, 2001; Goldberg, 1995). On the other hand, Otani (2005) interviewed both ALTs and local teachers, identifying that the educational knowledge of ALTs may be influencing the (in)effective communication between these two groups of teachers. To the best of the authors' knowledge, no quantitative analysis has been conducted to clarify this relationship in this particular context of TESOL in Japan. Broadly, the present study contributes to narrowing this gap in the literature.

Summary and Implications

This chapter presents a broad review of the existing literature on job satisfaction. Firstly, it reviews the studies in the field of the industrial/organisational research, where worker job satisfaction has been extensively researched over many years. One of the approaches in these studies adopts worker job satisfaction as a dependent variable, and investigates how job characteristics (e.g., salary, autonomy, skills variety), and also worker individual characteristics (e.g., age, gender, education) are associated with job satisfaction. Broadly, this approach provides the theoretical framework for the present study, which aims to examine the extent to which the backgrounds and work experiences of a particular group of teachers in Japan influence their job satisfaction.

Through the literature review, two theories that seem to have been widely-supported in industrial/organisational research and also among economics studies have been identified. One is Locke's (1976) Range of Affect theory, which suggests that individual workers determine their job satisfaction by comparing their

expectations and reality in each aspect of their work (e.g., salary, autonomy). Based on this theory, the methodological need to investigate teacher satisfaction with the individual facets of their work (as opposed to overall satisfaction) is argued.

Second, the Range of Affect theory also highlights the need to examine teachers' individual characteristics (e.g., age, gender, education), as these factors can affect their expectations of their work, and thus their job satisfaction (e.g., Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Johnson & Johnson, 2002). Many economics studies have adopted the skill-match theory, arguing workers who obtain some additional or more specific skills and knowledge through extended education can be less satisfied with their work unless those skills are fully utilised in their job, and any underutilisation of their skills can result in the lower satisfaction with work (e.g., Allen & van der Velden, 2001; Green & Zhu, 2010).

The review of the studies in organisational and economics research was then followed by a review of the literature that more specifically focuses on teacher job satisfaction. The review firstly identifies the relative lack of current attention on teachers' subjective view of the quality of their professional lives (e.g., Kassabgy et al., 2001; Mullock, 2009). Broadly, the present study contributes to filling this gap in the literature.

Further, the majority of the existing studies examining teacher job satisfaction appear to have attempted to identify various job characteristics that affect their (dis)satisfaction at work, often through qualitative analysis. Quantitative studies, in particular those that investigate how teachers' individual characteristics (e.g., age, gender, years of experience) could influence their job satisfaction, seem to be very limited to date. Further, amongst these individual factors, the variations of teacher educational backgrounds have not been examined fully in studies on teacher job

attitudes. The current study intends to narrow these gaps in the literature by firstly investigating the individual backgrounds of the selected group of ESOL teachers and their work conditions in Japan. The study then explores the extent to which these variations are associated with perceived job satisfaction in various aspects of their work using quantitative analysis (i.e., multiple regression, see Chapter 3), as well as interview analysis using a deductive thematic approach.

Furthermore, the scarcity of literature on teacher educational backgrounds and job satisfaction has highlighted the need for further investigation, particularly to determine if and how the two theories identified in the organisational and economics research (the Range of Affect theory and the skill-match theory) could also be applied to teachers. The additional or more specific training that some teachers may have received could influence their expectations of various aspects of their work (salary, autonomy, or relationship with colleagues or students). Such expectations could then affect their job satisfaction, while being engaged in the similar work to those who do not have equivalent educational backgrounds. This particular enquiry remains unanswered to date, and therefore, the present study examines this association using a particular group of the ESOL teachers in Japan who could have a wide range of the educational (and other) backgrounds.

Chapter 3: Research Design

This chapter describes the research design adopted by the current study to achieve the aims stated in Chapter 1. To recap, this study aims to identify potential effects of the completion of TESOL teacher education upon a selected group of the ESOL teachers working in Japan in a context where such attainment is not necessarily a recruitment (Assistant Language Teachers or ALTs). The study aims to achieve this by investigating associations between variations within participant backgrounds and job experiences, and their job satisfaction.

The first section of this chapter discusses the methodology adopted in the study, and the specific research design under which two types of data (questionnaire and interview data) were collected and analysed. The second section details how these two types of data were analysed. The regression models estimated for the purpose of the current investigation are outlined here, together with brief descriptions of the predictor and outcome variables included in these models. This section also discusses how interview data were analysed and integrated with regression results.

The third section outlines the participants in the study, followed by the fourth section which discusses and justifies the instrument used in the study. The fifth section outlines the procedure used and the timeline for completion of each stage of the study. Finally, the last section discusses the ethical considerations of the research and its limitations.

Research Methodology and Design

The study has adopted an explanatory sequential design approach using mixed methods (Creswell, 2008, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Hesse-Biber & Nagy, 2010; Riazi, 2016; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Mixed methods is a group

of research designs that "involve the collection, analysis, and integration of quantitative and qualitative data in a single or multiphase study" (Hanson, Creswell, Plano Clark, Petska, & Creswell, 2005, p. 224). It is a collection of different designs in which "words, pictures, and narrative can be used to add meaning to numbers" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 21).

One reason to adopt mixed methods is to complement the findings from one approach (e.g., quantitative analysis in this case) with those from the other (e.g., qualitative analysis, also in this case). Such complementarity allows the current study to "gain a fuller understanding of the research problem and/or to clarify a given research result" (Hesse-Biber & Nagy, 2010, p. 4). The literature review has identified that the associations between worker educational backgrounds and job satisfaction have been yielding inconsistent results when examined through some form of quantitative measures (e.g., Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Green & Zhu, 2010; Idson, 1990). Although the number of studies that focused on teachers was much smaller, the results found among the available studies show a similar trend (e.g., Klassen & Anderson 2009; Qablan, 2011).

While Locke's (1976) Range of Affect theory and the skill-match theory (Green & Zhu, 2010) have been used to explain existing results, the nature of the work and the skills and knowledge required for the teachers of ESOL (English to speakers of other languages) have been known to be heavily context-dependent (McKnight, 1992; Mullock, 2009; Senior, 2006). Further, this is particularly the case for participants in the present study (i.e., Assistant Language Teachers in Japan) who have to work constantly with local teachers who may not necessarily have shared perspectives or understandings of their own roles, let alone those of ALTs.

In order to fully understand ALT background and job characteristics, and the complex relationship between these factors and their job satisfaction, it was necessary to integrate the strengths of quantitative and qualitative methods, and obtain both objective and subjective knowledge "in favour of making more rigorous inferences about research problems" (Riazi, 2016, p. 33). For this reason, this study adopted a mixed methods approach. In the first phase, the questionnaire was designed to collect data broadly on background and contextual information from individual ALTs as much as possible (e.g., age, gender, education, salary, number of schools at which they teach), as well as their job satisfaction. This was complemented by interview data, which helped participants to share their "interpretations of the world in which they live, and to express how they regard situations from their own point of view" (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 349). These procedures and analyses are now outlined below.

Explanatory sequential design. Among several approaches in the realm of mixed methods, the study has adopted the interpretative explanatory sequential design (Hesse-Biber & Nagy, 2010). In this design, quantitative data (in this case, the online questionnaire data) were collected and analysed first, followed by the collection and analysis of the qualitative data (in this case, one-on-one interview data). The first quantitative analysis provided an overview of participants' individual and job characteristics, together with their satisfaction with different aspects of their work. The quantitative analysis also helped the study examine statistical associations between these variables.

The second, qualitative, phase collected interview data, which explored various topics that emerged from the interviewees through the course of the conversation.

These data were then analysed in search for the explanation for, and interpretation of, the results of the quantitative analysis.

The first phase: the online questionnaire. During the first phase, an online questionnaire collected data from a relatively large number of ALTs ($N = 232$) teaching English at schools in Japan. Using the software Key Survey, the questionnaire was designed to collect the data required to conduct the quantitative analyses (e.g., the descriptive analysis, factor analysis, and regression analysis) to answer all four research questions in the study.

The first part of the questionnaire collected data on individual characteristics and backgrounds. As discussed in the previous chapter, this group of variables was reportedly influential upon worker expectations of their work, and thus their job satisfaction. The questionnaire collected demographic data (e.g., age, gender, race, nationality), linguistic background (e.g., self-assessed proficiency in Japanese; length of their existing study of Japanese), and educational backgrounds (e.g., the levels, disciplines, local teaching accreditation in their home country). The descriptive analysis of these data provided a snapshot of the broad backgrounds of this particular group of the ESOL teachers in Japan (Research Question 1), which was then later used to define the independent variables in the regression analysis (Research Questions 3 and 4).

As part of this stage, the questionnaire also collected data on any academic qualifications that helped the participants learn any skills or knowledge for teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). As discussed in Chapter 1, these qualifications were specifically defined as *TESOL-related qualifications* in the study, and used to further define *TESOL certifications* for the regression analysis.

The data on various characteristics of these qualifications were collected: the types of the provider, required hours of study, required number of units/subjects, and requirement for foreign-language learning, together with variations within the teaching practicum if applicable (e.g., duration of practicum; class size; the learners' level). The requirement for learning a foreign language was added after reviewing existing TESOL programs in the U.S. and Canada in the current directory of TESOL programs (Christopher, 2005). This part of the questionnaire provided the study with the data required firstly to clarify the internal variations of the existing TESOL teacher education programs (part of Research Question 1); and secondly to define the predictor variables that represent the different characteristics of the existing TESOL programs that were analysed in subsequent multiple regression analyses (Research Question 4).

The second part of the questionnaire collected data on the job characteristics that were surrounding the participating teachers. For exploratory purposes, the data on a wide range of ALT job characteristics were collected, including work locations, employer types, income, number and levels of schools, base location (where they spent most of their non-teaching time), class sizes, and their roles in team-teaching. Also, each participant's number of years of experience as an ALT was collected in this part of the questionnaire. The data collected here firstly provided a broad overview of the various aspects of work conditions and experiences (Research Question 1). These data were then used to define another group of predictor variables for the regression analysis (Research Question 3 and 4).

The final part of the questionnaire collected data on participant job satisfaction across a range of different facets of work. To measure ALT job satisfaction, the study adopts an existing scale for teacher job satisfaction (McKenzie et al, 2011) with a slight modification and addition to accommodate the unique characteristics of their work (see further discussion later in this chapter). The data collected here firstly provided a broad overview of teacher satisfaction with the 21 measured aspects of their work (the Research Question 2). Secondly, the data were then used in a two-stage modelling process (the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis) to identify possible underlying construct variables. A total of three latent variables were identified, which were then used as the dependent variables in the regression analysis (Research Questions 3 and 4, see later Analysis section for further details).

The second phase: the individual interviews. The second phase consisted of in-depth interviews with questionnaire participants who agreed to be involved in the subsequent interview. Among the 124 participants who agreed to be interviewed, 58 provided their consent form. A total of 13 one-on-one interviews were conducted via Skype or telephone, and a further 24 participants responded to the same set of the interview questions by email.

The purpose of the interviews was to collect data on the teachers' educational backgrounds and their job satisfaction in the individual work context, and gain a more thorough understanding of the complex relationship between these two variables. For this purpose, all the interviewees were asked to respond to the following four questions regardless of the style of the interview:

1. What do you find most satisfying in your job as an ALT in Japan? Why?
2. What do you find the least satisfying about your work as an ALT in Japan? Why?

3. What academic or other qualifications did you have before you became an ALT? Please tell me the full name of the qualification(s), length of study, focus etc. In this question, you may also include your qualification(s) that you completed while working as an ALT.

4. In your opinion, did completing this qualification (positively or negatively) influence your job satisfaction as ALT? Why?

These questions were believed to help the interviewees to share their individual stories of their unique experience as an ALT in Japan. Such perspectives emerging from participants could help the study understand the aspects of their job in relation to their job (dis)satisfaction. This also helped the study clarify the complex mechanism in which their educational backgrounds affected (or not) their perceptions of the job in their individual work context.

Analysis

Phase 1: Analysing the questionnaire data. The online questionnaire data were firstly analysed using descriptive (univariate) analysis, which describes "the basic features of the data in a study" (Trochim, 2006). This analysis was specifically conducted to help the study to answer the first two research questions by providing a snapshot of participant backgrounds, work experiences, and job satisfaction. This particular analysis also provided clarification of the internal variations that existed within the "TESOL certifications" that this group of the ESOL teachers had completed. The distribution, the central tendency, and the dispersion of the data within the individual variables are described here. These results are discussed in Chapter 4 (ALT backgrounds) and Chapter 5 (job satisfaction).

In Chapter 5, some of the data on the participants' job satisfaction was also analysed using independent sample *t*-tests (α = 0.01) and one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA). These analyses were conducted for exploratory purposes where there were theoretical grounds to suggest that there may be some differences in ALT job satisfaction based on background factors (e.g., Japanese language learning backgrounds, teacher training background). The assumptions conventionally required for those parametric tests were examined: normality and homogeneity of variance were tested, and the results are discussed only when those assumptions were met.

The data on the participants' backgrounds, their work experience, and their job satisfaction collected in the questionnaire were then used to define the variables to be examined in the multiple regression analysis. The ordinary least squares multiple linear regression is a statistical analytic tool for explanatory research to "determine the extent of the influence of one or more variables on some outcome" (Keith, 2015, p. 80). The study aimed primarily to examine the potential influence of teacher background factors (the predictor variables) over their job satisfaction (the outcome variables). Therefore, the regression analysis is the appropriate adequate analytic method to help the present study to answer the third and fourth research questions through a quantitative analysis. Many existing studies in economics and educational psychology reviewed in the previous chapter seem to have adopted the same methods (e.g., Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Glen & Weaver, 1982; Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1993; Michaelowa & Wittmann, 2007; Sim, 1990; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). There were several ways in which predictor variables (PVs) could be entered into regression models (e.g., hierarchical, forced entry, stepwise). This study adopted forced entry because it enters all predictors into a model

simultaneously. Such a method appeared to be the most suitable approach for an exploratory study.

Predictor variables (PVs). A total of 12 models were estimated to examine the ability of ALT background factors to predict their job satisfaction. In the first group of models (*Models 1, 2, and 3,* see Chapter 6), participant demographics and linguistic backgrounds were recoded as predictor variables (PVs), and tested for their ability to explain three satisfaction scores as identified through the factor analysis (see discussion further in this chapter). Based on the literature review, participant demographic backgrounds that could influence their job satisfaction were entered in the models (e.g., age, gender, total length of the residency in Japan, nationality, and race). The exact recoding process is discussed at the beginning of each result chapter.

Also, participants' linguistic and Japanese-language backgrounds were included in the models. The linguistic backgrounds were mainly related to the existing definitions of the term *native English speakers* (e.g., Davies, 1999, 2003; Kachru & Nelson, 1996, 2001; McKay, 2002; Moussu & Llurda, 2008, see Chapter 1), such as the participants' perceived first language, their self-identification as native English speakers, and the number of languages they spoke. As an indicator for their proficiency level in Japanese, the study adopted three different measures: their self-assessment, the highest completed level of the Japanese course offered by CLAIR for JET ALTs, and the highest achieved level in the Japanese Language Proficiency Test which was run annually by the Japan Foundation and Japan Educational Exchanges and Services (2012a).

In the second group, six models were estimated to explore the associations between participant educational backgrounds and job satisfaction. In the first three models (*Models 4, 5, and 6,* see Chapter 7), the PVs that represented their overall

educational backgrounds were included, such as the highest attained level of qualification, study fields (education and humanities), accreditation for local teaching in their home country, and whether a *TESOL certification* had been completed. The overall influence of participant TESOL teacher education backgrounds (i.e., those qualified in TESOL *vs.* unqualified) was tested in this group of the models.

In the second set of three models in this group (*Models 7, 8, and 9,* see Chapter 7), internal variations that were discovered within *TESOL certification* were examined for their potential influence over participant job satisfaction. As will be discussed in Chapter 4, the study discovered and clarified the variations that existed within the *TESOL certifications* that some ALTs possessed. The PVs were defined using data on these variations such as the highest attained level, the types of the provider, the required hours of study, or the required number of units/subjects, together with variations within the teaching practicum when applicable (e.g., the duration of practicum, class size, the learners' level).

The final group of the models (*Models 10, 11, and 12,* see Chapter 8) explored the extent to which participants' job characteristics affect their satisfaction scores. The PVs included the number of years of experience as ALTs, income, number of schools taught at weekly, whether ALTs had a base school or not, and whether one had taken certain roles in class such as main teacher, a human tape recorder, or an independent lesson planner. Furthermore, the earlier descriptive analysis in the study identified a number of different characteristics between JET ALTs and those who were working independently as non-JET ALTs, therefore, their JET or non-JET employment type was also included as a PV in these models.

In all the 12 models, the participants' current working status as ALTs (i.e., current or former ALTs) was included as an independent PV. As discussed in the chapter for descriptive results, participants differed to a large extent in their backgrounds (e.g., age, education level) depending on their current working status as ALTs. Since the survey was not designed to differentiate the data on their pre- and post-ALT lives for former ALTs (e.g., educational attainments), all models had to include this additional PV in an attempt to examine the influence of other PVs while controlling for their present working status.

Categorical predictor variables in regression. The majority of participant background information was collected as categorical data with more than two groups. These included nationality, race, or the highest level of academic qualification. While the categorical variables with only two groups (e.g., gender, current working status, JET or non-JET employment) were all recoded as the dichotomous variables to be entered into the regression models, other PVs with more than two groups were examined to see if they could sensibly be recoded into fewer categories in order to minimise the number of dummy variables required in the model, and thereby present a more parsimonious model which in turn simplified interpretation.

First, some PVs with more than two groups were dichotomised where theoretically appropriate. For instance, the participant's nationality was recoded as $0 = $ Americans ($n = 111$) and $1 = $ Non-Americans ($n = 121$). Race was recoded as $0 = $ Caucasians ($n = 189$) and $1 = $ Non-Caucasians ($n = 43$). As discussed in Chapter 1, the literature strongly suggests that American nationality and a Caucasian racial background were the most accepted traits of the idealised ESOL teachers outsourced from overseas to teach in Japan (e.g., Honna, 2008; Kubota, 1998).

Therefore, it was of interest to compare participants who had these traits against those without them.

Second, some ordinal PVs (e.g., annual income categories, and number of years in Japan in categories) were treated as continuous interval variables in the models. It is recognised as a limitation of the study that the ordinal variables with more than two categories should technically be recoded into several dummy variables (Fields, 2013). In the context of the present study, however, this would result in an extremely large number of dummy variables, which not only complicate the analysis, but also require much larger sample size. Treating an ordinal scale (e.g., the Likert scale) as being of interval level of measurement is commonly observed in educational research (Lehman, 1991; Tukey, 1986; also see Velleman & Wilkinson, 1993).

Dependent variables. In all four groups of the models described above, participant job satisfaction scores were used as dependent variables (DVs). While the best possible effort was made to ensure that the adopted scale (McKenzie et al., 2011, see below) could measure participants' perceived satisfaction with various facets of their work, it has to be noted that job satisfaction measures are, by their nature, attitudinal variables that cannot be measured directly (Judge & Klinger, 2007).

Instead of treating a group of the observed 21 variables as something equivalent to such variables, the study has adopted two stages modelling process: exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). This process has been detailed in Chapter 5. The process helped the study to identify and then validate any latent variables through underlying clusters of the observed variables. First, EFA was conducted to determine which variables shared common

variance and thus constituted the underlying constructs. In the subsequent CFA stage, a single-factor congeneric measurement model was constructed to validate the identified constructs, and then compute the composite scale scores to be used as DVs in the regression models. The analysis was conducted using the SPSS statistical software module AMOS (Arbuckle, 2014).

Both EFA and CFA have a requirement that the data is continuous and of interval level of measurement. While it is acknowledged that the Likert scale is technically an ordinal scale, it is treated as being of interval level of measurement in the present study. As discussed earlier, this is commonly observed in educational research (Lehman, 1991).

As discussed earlier, the study adopted a seven-point Likert scale. A greater number of points on an ordinal scale may reduce the possibility of substantive errors of interpretation when using ordinal data for interval procedures (Binder, 1984; Zumbo & Zimmerman, 1993). At the same time, increasing the number of points beyond approximately seven may decrease the reliability of scores (Miller, 1956; Symonds, 1924). These studies suggest that survey participants may indicate different scores on the same items when examined on different occasions if too many points are presented. A seven-point Likert scale was adopted in the study in order to ensure the reliability while minimising interpretation errors.

A total of three latent variables were identified during the above process. These were satisfaction with team-teaching (DV_1); satisfaction with students' achievements (DV_2); and satisfaction with resources (DV_3). These will be further discussed in Chapter 5.

Examinations of the required assumptions for regression analysis. In all models, preliminary analyses were performed to ensure there was no violation of the assumption of normality, error independence, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity. The normality was assessed using the normal probability plot, and the independence of residuals was tested using the Durbin-Watson statistic. A plot of standardised residuals against standardised predicted values, as well as a plot of the studentised residuals and standardised predicted values were visually inspected for the homoscedasticity. Multicollinearity was examined by visually inspecting the correlation matrix of the predictor variables, as well as by examining the variance inflation factor (VIF) and the tolerance statistics.

Phase 2: Analysing the interview data. Broadly, the interview data were analysed using the thematic analysis method (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2008; Thomas & Harden, 2008). Thematic analysis is "a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (Braun & Clarke, 2008, p. 6). For the purpose of the present study, coding and theme development were directed deductively by theoretical categories in the questionnaire, which had been derived from the theoretical framework of the study, as discussed in Chapter 2.

In the first stage, the data collected from the one-on-one interview ($n = 13$) was professionally transcribed, and entered into NVivo (version 11) software for the coding, together with responses submitted by email ($n = 24$). Many qualitative researchers argue for the importance of accurate transcripts as an initial procedure to increase the reliability of the qualitative analysis (Gibbs, 2007; Peräkylä, 2004). Therefore, the professionally transcribed transcripts were checked again by the researcher against original recordings of the interviews for accuracy. A number of modifications had to be made especially where participants used Japanese terms

during the interviews. This review process also helped the author to become familiar with the data.

Second, the responses were organised broadly under three initial code categories for subsequent analysis. These categories were formed based on the sections in questionnaire: demographic and linguistic backgrounds; educational backgrounds; and job characteristics and experiences.

Third, the data was re-read repeatedly in each category, searching for commonly-occurring ideas, concepts, or stories that could explain the relationship between participants' individual and job characteristics, and their perceptions of job experiences in Japan. The initial codes were generated by clustering accounts that appeared to be addressing same or similar matters. To increase the reliability of the data coding and analyses during this stage, the coding was conducted in a blind manner, irrespective of the findings from the first quantitative analysis (see Glassner & Loughlin, 1987). Also, the coding process strictly followed the analytic procedures outlined in Braun and Clark (2008) to further enhance the reliability of the analyses. The data was extracted in each code inclusively (i.e., with surrounding text), in order to minimise the risk of any contextual information to be lost during the coding process (e.g., Bryman, 2001).

In the fourth stage, these codes were then examined again for themes that provide explanations for the results of the regression analysis. To further increase the reliability and reduce the risk of bias, the researcher also searched for "disconfirming evidence" of the preceding regression results (Brink, 1993, p. 37). For instance, the codes were examined searching for any accounts in which participants both valued and less valued their teacher education experience in reference to their job experience as ALTs in Japan. During this process, the study primarily used the

following criterion to determine whether an account from the interviewee(s) should be categorised as a theme (e.g., *effect of Japanese*, see worked examples in Appendix B). Following the argument by Braun and Clarke (2008, p. 10), the examination of the interview data also identified information that was considered to be "important in relation to the overall research question". While it is recognised that such an approach may present a methodological limitation to the present study, some accounts shared by the participants in the study were also discussed if they provided plausible explanations for the overall research questions, and possible interpretations of results of the regression analysis.

Fifth, these potential themes were then reviewed overall to assess whether accounts in a theme related to a single aspect of participants' perception of their experience (see Appendix B). During this process, some themes were separated into sub –themes (e.g., frustration against local approach in language teaching, and frustration against the JET program), or moved to a different category. For instance, "frustration at local approach in language teaching" was originally categorised under "job characteristics"; however, since TESOL certified teachers made specific reference to their skills and knowledge in alternative approach which they learned in their teacher education, their accounts were coded separately under "educational background".

The review process also examined whether similar experiences were categorised into different codes. For example, some teachers used phrased such as "dead time" or "too much free time" to describe their work time in which they were given no specific task to do at school. These were then combined into a single code with "underutilisation of ALTs" since both demonstrated the lack of use of this

particular group of teachers in the local context (see Chapter 7 and 8 for further analysis).

Finally, these codes were analysed relevance to the results of the regression analysis. These codes and themes identified provided the study with rich data on how participating teachers' backgrounds could affect their work in a complex manner (e.g., Japanese language proficiency; TESOL teacher education backgrounds).

Participants

The participants in the study were teaching English as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) in Japan. As outlined in Chapter 1, ALTs were defined in the study as those who either worked under the supervision of Japanese teacher(s) or dispatch agent(s), or who had the specific job title of Assistant Language Teachers or Assistant English Teachers. As discussed in the first chapter, this sample group was selected because of the potential diversity in their educational backgrounds, which includes some proportion of teachers who have completed a range of TESOL teacher education. This level of detail on ALT backgrounds (e.g., race, gender, nationality, educational attainment) is a significant contribution of this study, and therefore it is examined in more detail in Chapter 4.

Both former and present ALTs were included in the study. Out of all of the participants ($N = 232$), 57% were currently working as ALTs ($n = 132$), and 43% were no longer working as ALTs ($n = 100$). The former ALTs were not excluded from the study, as little attention has been paid to workers who had already left their job, and thus their perceptions of the work in the past remain under-explored in the current economics study (Kumar, Dass, & Topaloglu, 2014). If subjective well-being is an important indicator of the potential non-monetary benefit of education (e.g., Vila, 2000), then enhancing worker perceptions of their job retroactively could also

be considered as one aspect of the benefit of education. Participants' present working status (as an ALT) was controlled for in the regression analysis by including it as an independent variable in all the models tested.

The majority of the participants (191 of 232) were former or present ALTs who were participating in the JET program. Since the full list of ALTs was not available to the researcher in the study, the majority of participants were contacted through the two organisations which liaise closely with ALTs: the Association for Japan Exchange and Teaching (AJET), and the JET Alumni Association International (JETAA).

The AJET is an organisation that supports current JET participants by providing teaching resources and ongoing opportunities for professional development, including Japanese language study (National AJET, 2011-2012). It also communicates with government organisations that run the JET program on behalf of all present participants in the JET program.

The JETAA, on the other hand, is an alumni association which aims to "strengthen and maintain the bonds of friendship developed between JET Programme participants" (JET Alumni Association International, 2010, para. 2). It has nearly 23,000 former participants from 17 countries, and plays an important role in the promotion of Japan and the JET program in each region. Information about the current study together with the URL for the online questionnaire were distributed through these organisations via their official websites and Facebook pages to which members had exclusive access.

In addition to ALTs in the JET program, the study also collected data from ALTs who were working independently of the JET program (non-JET ALTs). Given the vast majority of the present literature has focused only on JET ALTs, the study

attempted to fill this significant gap in the literature. Again, access to individual non-JET ALTs was limited, and therefore the organisations that were likely to work with this group of the participants were contacted individually by the researcher. These organisations included the municipal or prefectural board of education offices in Japan, as well as private English schools and the dispatch agents that were hiring these teachers and sending them to the individual schools upon requests. A number of teacher union offices were also contacted, as they work with a significant number of ALTs in Japan.

Instruments

Traditionally, worker job satisfaction has been measured using one of the two types of the measures. One is the global measure, which aims to identify the workers' overall evaluation of their work (e.g., Andrews & Withey, 1976; Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). Another approach is the facet measure, which assumes that one's job satisfaction may differ in each job domain, and thus aims to assess worker satisfaction with the multiple facets of the job (e.g., Fabra & Camisón, 2009; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Smith et al, 1969; Spector, 2001).

The global measure was not adequate for the purpose of the current study, because it is "less suitable for detecting high and low areas of job satisfaction" (Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, & Frings-Dresen, 2003, p. 197). As discussed in the previous chapter, Locke's (1976) Range of Affect theory suggests that workers determine their job satisfaction by comparing their expectations and reality in each aspect of their job. This also became evident among teachers who have been known to feel satisfied with certain aspects of their job (e.g., autonomy, working with students), whereas they were often less satisfied with other aspects (e.g., salary, public perceptions of their professionalism, see Mullock, 2009; Pennington, 1991).

Therefore, the study explored participating teachers' satisfaction with various facets of their job by adopting one of the multiple facets measures.

Further, the facet scales widely used in organisational or economics research (e.g., the Job Descriptive Index of Smith et al. in 1969, Job Satisfaction Survey of Spector in 2001, or Job Diagnostic Survey of Hackman and Oldham in 1980) were not specifically designed to measure teachers' job satisfaction. Therefore, these scales seem to have ignored a significant aspect of the teachers' work: the students. Since teacher perceptions of students is one of the most influential factors that determined job satisfaction or turnover (e.g., McPherson, 2006; Tye & O'Brien, 2002), any scales that did not measure teacher satisfaction associated with working with students could not be adopted in the study.

Several existing scales developed specifically to measure teacher job satisfaction were examined for the purpose of the present study. Klecker and Loadman (1999), for instance, measured perceived job satisfaction in more than 1,800 elementary school teachers in Ohio, using the National Survey of Teacher Education Graduates (Freeman et al., 1994). The scale measured teacher satisfaction with various aspects of their job such as salary, opportunities for self-advancement, general work conditions, and interactions with students.

However, the scale did not include facets such as autonomy or the values society places on their work. As argued in the previous chapter, teachers' autonomy is an important aspect of their job to measure in the present study given the unique nature of team-teaching in which participants were constantly involved whilst teaching in Japan. Also, the literature suggests that ESOL teachers were often dissatisfied with public perceptions of their professionalism, and thus the values the society places on their work.

The present study has adopted the multi-faceted measurement described by McKenzie et al. (2011). The scale was used in a large-scale study commissioned by the Australian Department of Education, Employment, and Workplace Relations to examine the backgrounds and the job characteristics of more than 4,500 school teachers in Australia. While the purpose of this particular study was very similar in principle to that of the present study, McKenzie et al.'s satisfaction scale included the major facets of a teacher's job that have been reported to be influential to job satisfaction (e.g., work relationship with colleagues, amount of teaching expected, freedom to self-determine how to do the job, what teachers achieve with their students, student behaviour, salary, and the value society places on their work).

Some modifications and additions were made to accommodate the unique characteristics of the job characteristics for ALTs in Japan. First, "your work relationship with your colleagues" in McKenzie et al. (2011) was changed to "your work relationship with Japanese teacher(s) with whom you are/were team-teaching". This was to help the study examine ALT perceptions specifically of their work relationship with local teachers with whom they were team-teaching in Japanese school(s).

Second, a total of four items were added to the original 17 items from McKenzie et al. (2011) in an attempt to measure ALT perceptions of these job aspects that have been known to be influential through past qualitative studies. Two of these items were related to the students: students' improvement in English, and the level of response that received from students during lessons. These items were added to help the study investigate particular ALT frustrations at the lack of responsiveness of Japanese students, and also the locally-supported grammar-based teaching style,

which in their qualitative views resulted in the lack of student improvement in English (McConnell, 2000).

The third item added was the "skills and knowledge to do the job as an ALT". The literature (e.g., Mahoney, 2004; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012) suggests that the roles and responsibilities of this particular group of ESOL teachers in Japan remain unspecified, and thus the skills and knowledge they are expected to possess remains largely unknown (Mahoney, 2004; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012). Further, the academic achievement required to be considered eligible as an ALT remains vaguely defined as "a bachelor's degree in any field". This third item was added to help the study to examine the extent to which existing ALT skills and knowledge matched with what they were expected to possess in the real context of work in Japan.

The last item added to the job satisfaction scale adopted in the study was "your overall roles as an ALT". The literature suggests not only that ALT roles were ambiguous, but also their responses were not static. Mahoney (2004), for instance, reported that some ALTs complained of having too little responsibility, whereas others were often frustrated with too much responsibility. As discussed in the previous chapter, ALT educational backgrounds may have affected their expectations of their work, and thus resulted in the varying responses to the same job characteristics. In order to help the study to examine this, ALT satisfaction with overall roles was examined.

Procedure and Timeline

As outlined above, online questionnaire data were collected and analysed first, followed by the collection and analysis of the interview data. The online questionnaire was developed using the software Key Survey. Firstly, it was piloted through professional contacts of the researcher. Between November, 2013, and January, 2014, a total of 10 participants completed the pilot online questionnaire. These participants included colleague academics in teacher education at a university where the researcher was working at that time; local school teachers in Australia; and non-Japanese teachers of English in Japan both at university and school levels.

First, minor issues with spelling and grammar were identified through this process. Second, feedback was received regarding the clarity of the wording in some questions, and some questions were modified to improve clarity for potential participants, whereas some other questions were deleted due to potential redundancy. For instance, a question in education background section, "What was the length of the study in years and months, if completed full-time?", had to be deleted to avoid confusion among potential participants who completed their study part-time. For a similar reason, "I don't know or I don't remember" option was added as an option in many questions in educational backgrounds. Also, in a question in the demographic section of the questionnaire ("Do you identify yourself as…?"), the option for "White" was changed to "Caucasian" as some pilot participants pointed out that the wording could be perceived as offensive to some future participants.

Third, the pilot questionnaire tested the usability and functionality of the online questionnaire. For instance, it was identified that in some questions no definition appeared on the screen when the participants hovered a cursor over a term used in

individual item (e.g., "courses/subject"). These technical issues were then attended using the software Key Survey.

All participants in the pilot questionnaire commented on the length of the questionnaire. Therefore, the estimated time required for completion was changed from 30 minutes to 45 minutes, and the information sheet for potential participants was changed accordingly. In addition, some questions were combined to avoid duplication, which reduced the number of items. However, the length of the survey was not shortened significantly as longer questionnaires would enable more comprehensive information collection, as suggested by McKenzie et al. (2011). While it was acknowledged that the length may have influenced the response rate, it was considered to be acceptable given the potential size of the population.

The amended questionnaire was then distributed to the organisations that had agreed to distribute the URL and the study information to potential participants through their own networks (e.g., the Association for Japan Exchange and Teaching, the JET Alumni Association International, board of education offices, dispatch agents and the general union offices). The data were collected between February and April, 2014. The questionnaire data were then entered into SPSS (version 23) software for descriptive and regression analysis.

The interview data were collected between June and July, 2014. All participants in the questionnaire who agreed to participate in an interview were contacted and provided with further information about the interview and the consent form. Of 232 participants who completed the online questionnaire, 124 agreed to be interviewed. Of these 124 participants, 58 provided their consent form.

Through participant preference, a total of 13 one-on-one interviews were conducted via Skype or telephone, and 24 participants chose to respond by email.

The interview data was then transcribed by a professional transcription company in September, 2015, upon receipt of the Doctoral Dissertation Grant by the International Research Foundation for English Language Education in the U.S.

Ethics

The study was considered as low-risk research because: 1) the study was not a type of research that was specified in the Section 5.1.6 of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (National Health and Medical Research Council, 2007); and 2) the only foreseeable risk in the study was inconvenience to participants in completing the questionnaire, and also in participating in the interview when applicable.

Nonetheless, there was privacy and confidentiality risk to the data collected both in the questionnaire and the interview. Although the questionnaire was expected to be anonymous for most participants, in cases where respondents volunteered to participate in a follow-up interview, participants were requested to provide their name and email address and, therefore, there was a risk to their privacy, and the confidentiality and anonymity of the collected data.

To minimise these risks to privacy and confidentiality, two strategies were implemented. First, participants provided their preferred name (e.g., nickname) as an alternative to their real name. Second, separate questionnaires were developed during phase one – one for the main data collection and another for collecting contact information. A link with a hyperlink was created at the end of the main data questionnaire, which directed participants to the second survey, within which they were invited to provide their name and contact email address. In this way, participant responses to the data questionnaire and their contact information were collected and stored separately.

In order for the researcher to maintain a form of identifier across the two separate surveys, all respondents who expressed interest in participating in the follow-up interview were asked to provide a unique identifier at the end of the main data questionnaire. Specifically, the respondents were asked to type their initials, followed by the first two letters of their mother's maiden name and their date of birth. This set of letters and numbers became the unique code for each respondent. Each was asked to enter their unique code when they provided their email in a separate survey. These codes were stored separately and securely from the main questionnaire data.

Limitations of the study

A number of the limitations of the present study were addressed. First, the study adopted convenience sampling through the organisations that were likely to liaise with a large number of the potential participants (e.g., the Association for Japan Exchange and Teaching). Since this is one of the nonprobability sampling techniques, the study is unable to claim that participants in the study represented the population of ALTs in Japan, and thus, is unable to make generalisations of the population. In other words, the external validity may be limited. The analysis of demographic data (see Chapter 4) provided some clarification of the extent to which the sample in the study differed from the population.

Second, both the questionnaire and the interview in this study collected and explored self-reported data from participating teachers, and thus did not include any observation during the data collection stage. As suggested by Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski (2000), self-reported data always have potential for respondents to present themselves in a socially favourable light, regardless of their true perceptions, and

therefore may present issues with the validity of the data collected. This includes the data on the participants' academic qualifications.

Third, as discussed earlier, some of the recoding process in the regression analysis where categorical variables were transformed into continuous interval variables (e.g., the annual income categories) can be another limitation to the study. This practice, however, appeared to be common in educational research, as some studies reported different effects of such transformation (Lehman, 1991; Tukey, 1986; Velleman & Wilkinson, 1993).

Fourth, particularly in the three regression models in which the associations between the internal variations within *TESOL certifications* and participant job satisfaction were examined (*Models 7, 8, and 9*), the sample size needed to be reduced substantially ($n = 56$). Initially, an attempt was made to include all the participants in the study ($N = 232$). However, due to the issue of multicollinearity from the shared baseline group across the PVs (i.e., TESOL-uncertified ALTs, $n = 176$), the variables that represented the internal characteristics within the TESOL certifications could not be included in the other models with all the participants, and thus had to be tested separately in the three models here.

It is recognised that such a sample size in these models ($n = 56$) may not have been adequate for the number of predictor variables included ($n = 11$, see Chapter 7). Having too many predictor variables (PVs) with a small sample could cause a risk of overfitting the model (Field, 2013), and thus increase the probability of Type I errors, especially when estimating R^2 for the model (VanVoorhis & Morgan, 2007). Ideally, the sample size for this number of PVs should be at least between 110 and 140, following some of the conventional formulae by Green (1991) or Harris (1985).

However, some recent studies show that a much smaller sample size per predictor variable (e.g., Austin & Steyerberg, 2015) is required for adequate estimation of regression coefficients, standard errors, and confidence intervals, which are the primary statistics that the present study used.

Finally, the validity of interview data analysis may be limited. Although the interview data was analysed broadly following the thematic analysis procedures in Braun and Clarke (2008), the purpose of the analysis was primarily to search for plausible explanations for the results of the preceding regression analysis. Such an approach may increase the risk of researcher bias because the researcher may "interpret findings in the light of their own values, [with] the tendency to selectively observe and record certain data at the expense of other data" (Brink, 1993, p. 36). It was not the intention of the interview data analysis to fully explore the professional lives of the selected group of the ESOL teachers in Japan through the qualitative analysis. Other studies (e.g., Crump, 2007; McConnell, 2000) should be referred to for that purpose.

Chapter 4: Descriptive result (ALT Backgrounds and Job Characteristics)

Descriptive results of the analysis of the online questionnaire data in the five sub-sections, particularly participant backgrounds information, are detailed in this chapter. The results address the first research question (i.e., "What variations exist in background, education, training, and experience amongst Assistant Language Teachers in Japan?").

First, participant demographic backgrounds will be explored, followed by an examination of linguistic backgrounds in the second section. The third section clarifies the overall educational backgrounds of this particular group of teachers. With respect to participants' educational backgrounds, the fourth section will specifically focus on academic qualifications that may have helped them to learn any skills or knowledge related to/for teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), and discuss the internal variations discovered within those qualifications. The final section will report the job characteristics under which the ALT participants were working in Japan.

Section 1: Demographic Backgrounds

Age. Figure 5 illustrates the age distribution of all participants in this study ($N = 232$), together with the breakdown of their present ALT working status (132 current ALTs, and 100 former ALTs) in each age group. First, it was clear that overall, the participants were relatively younger teachers. More than 60% of all participants ($n = 142$) fell between the ages of 21 and 30 years old, and nearly 80% were 35 or younger.
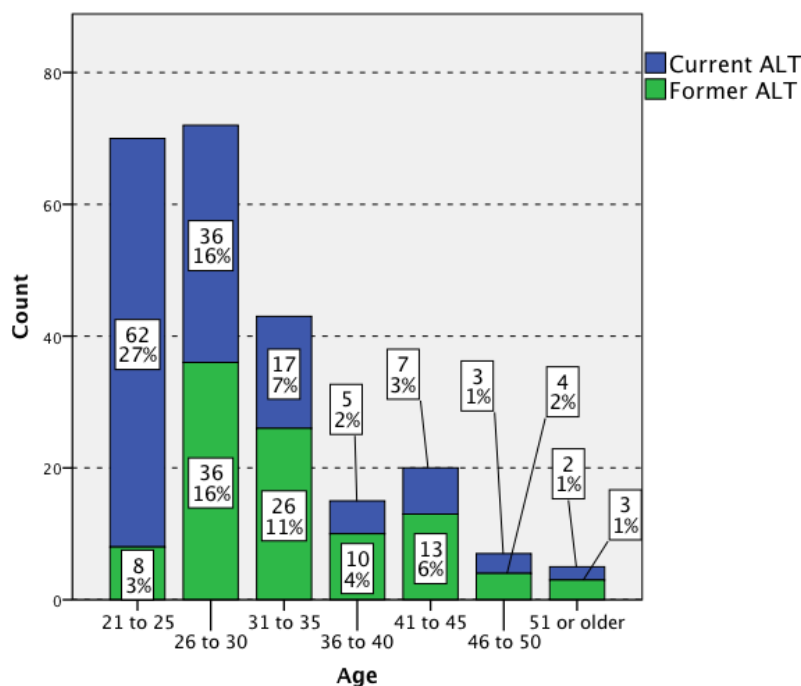
Figure 5. Age distribution of present and former ALTs (*N* = 232)

This was not a surprising result because the majority of participants in this study were JET ALTs (*n* = 191, including the former ALTs who worked as both JET and non-JET ALTs, *n* = 8). As discussed in Chapter 2, the JET program originally limited applicants' age to 35, which was then raised to 40 years in 2002 (CLAIR, 2015a). While the age limit was then removed rather quietly, CLAIR still appears to insist that the program is primarily for young applicants (whatever they intend by that measure). On the official CLAIR website under frequently asked questions for future applicants, they provide the following comment to the question "Is there a maximum age limit?":

> There is no age limit to apply to participate on the JET Programme. However, you should understand that the JET Programme was conceived as a *youth exchange programme*. If you understand the goals of the JET

Programme and have the ability to accomplish these goals, please feel free to apply (CLAIR, 2015a – emphasis added)

McConnell (2000) points out that the official name of the JET program indicates Japan's unofficial preference for younger applicants. While the formal English name of the program is the *Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme*, its Japanese version remains as "Gaikoku *Seinen* Shochi Jigyo"*,* translated as "program to invite *youth* from abroad" (McConnell, 2000, p. 76, with italics emphasising the word *youth* in both languages), implying Japan's clear intention to recruit youth to Japan. As discussed in Chapter 2, if Japan has been trying to control the political power of the foreign teachers by selectively hiring applicants based on their demographics such as age, Japanese proficiency, and teaching background, (e.g., Fujikake, 1996; Miyazato, 2009), then teacher ages may have a unique influence over their professional lives. This is examined in Chapter 6.

Japan's continuing preference for young participants in the JET program emerged in a distinctive manner when the age distribution was examined separately between the current JET ALTs ($n = 101$) and the current non-JET ALTs ($n = 31$). As outlined in Figure 6, more than 60% of current JET ALTs fell in the youngest group between 21 and 25 years ($n = 61$), and indeed 99% of this group were 35 years or younger ($n = 87$). There was only one JET ALT more than 36 years of age.

By contrast, the age distribution of the current non-JET ALTs ($n = 31$, see Figure 7) was somewhat more dispersed, and perhaps on the average older when compared to the JET group. While one-third ($n = 10$) fell in the age group between 26 and 30, there was only one current non-JET ALT in the youngest age group between 21 and 25. In combination, more than half were over 36 years of age ($n = 16$).
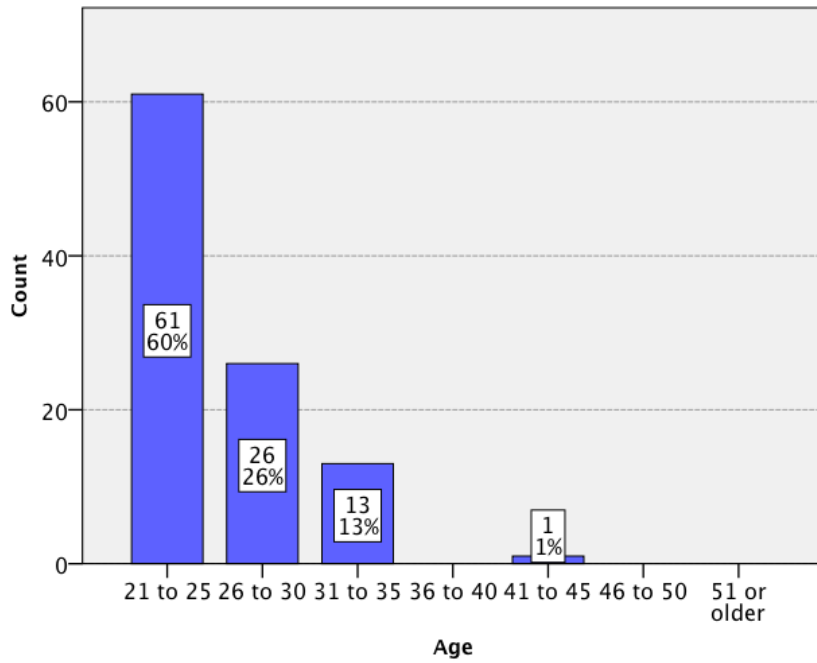
Figure 6. Age distribution of current JET ALTs (*n* = 101)
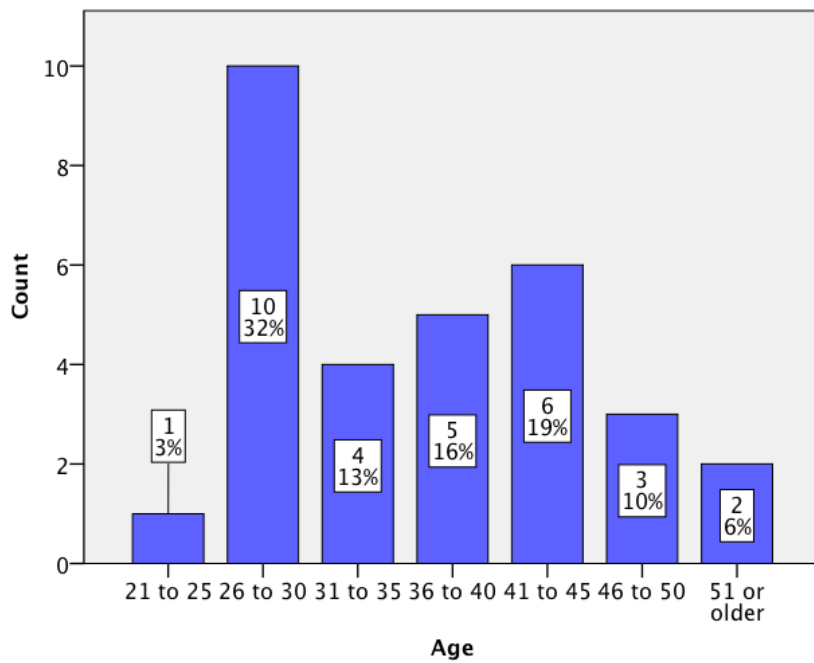
Figure 7. Age distribution of current non-JET ALTs (*n* = 31)

One possible explanation for the difference was that some non-JET ALTs may have continued working as an ALT after they left the JET program. Approximately one-third of the current non-JET ALTs ($n = 11$) reported they had worked as a JET ALT previously, whereas only 4 out of the 101 current JET ALTs had worked as a non-JET ALT prior to their participation in the JET program. This suggests that non-JET ALTs were more likely to have worked as an ALT in the JET program in the past, which could affect their age at the time of the study.

It could also be possible that those who did not meet the age limit in the JET program may have begun working as a non-JET ALT. Unfortunately, the questionnaire did not collect any data on whether or not current non-JET ALTs in the study had applied for the JET program and were unsuccessful. Future research investigating the relationship between age and outcome of applications to the JET program may help firstly to explain this aspect of the characteristics of the non-JET group, and secondly to clarify the claim that the JET program still prioritises the applicants' age during their selection process.

Gender. Overall, there were slightly more female teachers ($n = 135$, 58%) than male teachers ($n = 93$, 40%) among participants in the present study ($N = 232$, 4 missing). Figure 8 and Figure 9 show the gender distribution of current and former ALTs respectively, together with the breakdown of their JET/non-JET employment types. As seen in these graphs, a female majority was evident among JET participants in both current and former groups. The number of female ALTs in the current JET group ($n = 67$) was twice as large as that of male current JET ALTs ($n = 33$). Similarly among former JET ALTs, female participants ($n = 49$) outnumbered male participants considerably ($n = 30$). In combination, the number of the female

JET participants (*n* = 116) was still nearly twice that of the male JET participants (*n* = 63).
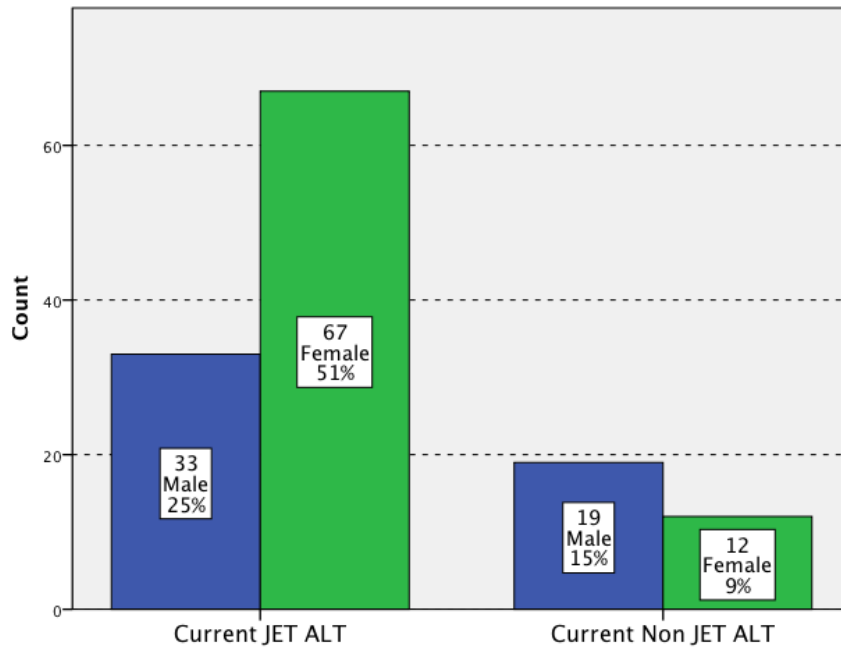
Figure 8. Gender distribution of all current ALTs (*n* = 132, 1 missing)
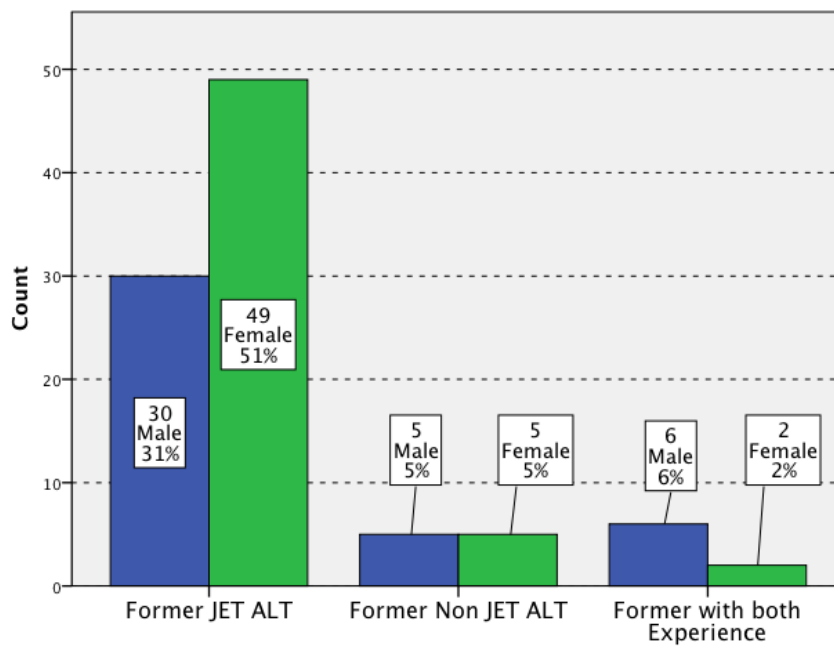
Figure 9. Gender distribution of all former ALTs (*n* = 100, 3 missing)

The gender data appears to be consistent with the findings of earlier studies. In 1987, the first year of the JET program, 57% of 813 participants in the JET program were female compared with 43% male (McConnell, 2000, p. 57). These percentages were exactly same in 1991 when the program hired 765 male ALTs (43%) and 992 female (57%) ALTs (McConnell, 2000, p. 59). More recently, Crump (2007) managed to collect data from 91 female and 29 male former JET ALTs, although the data collection was conducted through a convenience sampling technique via the JET Alumni Association. No generalisable data on gender ratio among more recent participants in the JET program was available at the time of the study.

While the female majority among JET ALTs was an expected result based on past trends in the JET program, it is still an interesting phenomenon for a number of reasons. Firstly, in the context of the JET program, the historical experience of CLAIR officials would perhaps support their preference for male applicants, not female teachers. In the early days of the JET program, the officials dealt with numerous sexual harassment cases that involved female ALTs (e.g., McConnell, 2000). One of the prefectural government officials whose job was to assign the new ALTs to individual schools admitted "… males were more desirable than females because they were thought to be better able to withstand the hardships of life in another culture" (McConnell, 2000, p. 135).

Secondly, the hiring practice of foreign teachers in the English language teaching industry in East Asia, including Japan, has been known to show a strong preference for males. For example, Kobayashi (2014) counted the number of Western male and female participants who presented papers at the JALT (The Japan Association for Language Teaching) 2012 conference, and found less than 16% were female. A number of recent studies (e.g., Appleby, 2012; Hicks, 2013; Rivers, 2013)

argue that ongoing employment practices favouring male Caucasian teachers in the English language teaching industry are driven by the combination of the idealisation and commodification of Caucasian English speakers, a culturally and politically-prejudiced preference for male workers in the local labour market, and "local women's alleged longings for white men that legitimise institutions' hiring of white men" (Kobayashi, 2014, p. 219. See also Piller & Takahashi, 2006; Stanley, 2013). In this respect, a teachers' gender could greatly influence their job experience (see Chapter 6).

While the exact reason for the larger proportion of female participants in the JET program remains unknown, the combination of a number of reasons was considered. First, females were often reported to be more interested in teaching in general (Driessen, 2007; Rots, Sabbe, & Aelterman, 2002); in foreign language teaching in general (Timmerman, 2011); or specifically in TESOL (Bertoni, 2000; Brown, 1989; Pennycook, 1989). Therefore, it would not be surprising if more female candidates applied for a language teaching position in the JET program than male candidates, and thus, more females were selected successfully.

Second, Japanese language proficiency may have become a relatively more important selection criterion in the JET program, and female candidates may have been more equipped with such an attribute. Generally, females have been reported to be more interested in, or even more capable of, first and second language acquisition (e.g., Burman, Bitan, & Booth, 2008; Burstall, 1975; Ellis, 1994; Kobayashi, 2002; López Rúa, 2006; Oxford, 1985, 1990). As discussed later in this chapter (see *Linguistic background*), CLAIR now appears to be recruiting ALTs who have some Japanese language background, partly to help local teachers with limited English to communicate with their team-teaching foreign teacher assistants (Kan, 2002). A

female majority has been reported among the language learners, including those of Japanese (Bradshaw, 2007), and therefore, there may be more female JET applicants who have learned Japanese as their foreign language.

Third, CLAIR, as the recruiting organisation of prospective ALTs in the JET program, does not have a commercially-driven motivation to attract enrolment from female learners. Private institutions may need to employ more male Caucasian teachers in their attempt to accommodate local female customers' (i.e., the students') admiration for such teachers. This may be particularly critical for private language institutions in Japan since, after all, females make up the vast majority of English language learners in Japan (Kobayashi, 2014). However, such a commercial motivation and gender imbalance among the learners may not apply to CLAIR, since JET ALTs serve mainly at public schools where English is compulsory for all students regardless of their gender (CLAIR, 2015a). This may indeed explain the relative male dominance among non-JET ALTs in the study.

Length of residence in Japan. Figure 10 shows the length of residence in Japan for all participants in the study ($N = 232$). Generally, the majority of participants lived in Japan for a limited time. Nearly one-third of participants lived in Japan for between two and four years. In combination, 40% of participants (n = 91) lived in Japan for two years or less, and more than 70% (n = 166) lived in Japan for four years or less.

Length of residence in Japan
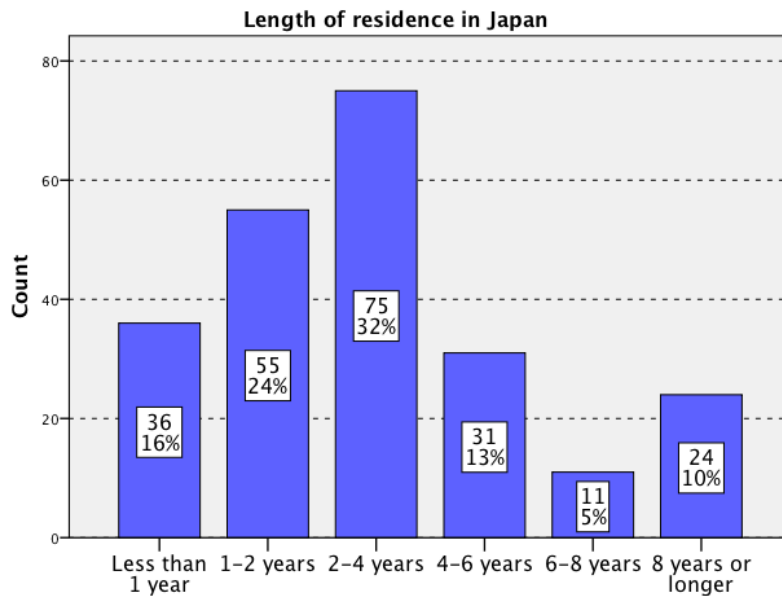
Figure 10. Length of residence in Japan for all participants (*N* = 232)

The residency result was expected as the eligibility criteria of the JET program does accept applications from anyone who has lived in Japan for six or more years within the 10 years prior to their application (CLAIR, 2015a). In order to examine the length of residency of JET participants only, the analysis separated JET participants and non-JET groups. Figure 11 shows the length of residency only for all JET ALTs (current and former JET ALTs, *n* = 183 excluding the eight former ALTs who worked both as a JET and non-JET ALT). The graph clearly shows that the majority (83%) of JET participants lived in Japan for less than four years, and indeed 95% of JET ALTs lived in Japan for less than six years. Within the current JET ALTs (*n* = 101), 90% of them have lived in Japan for four years or less, although interestingly, two appear to have lived in Japan for more than six years. Since this exceeds the maximum duration of previous residency in Japan permitted for JET applicants, these two participants may have lived in Japan more than 10 years prior to their application.
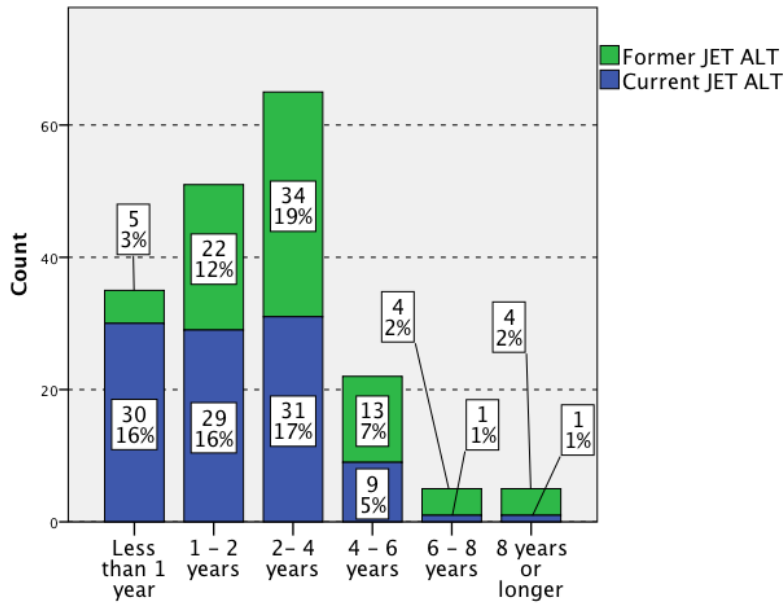
Figure 11. Length of residency in Japan for JET participants (*n* = 183)

Similar to the age and gender distribution, JET participants and non-JET participants were very different in terms of their length of residency in Japan. In contrast to the JET group, non-JET ALTs (*n* = 41) appeared to have lived in Japan for a considerably longer period (Figure 12). More than 40% of the non-JET participants (*n* = 18) lived in Japan for eight years or more, and more than half have lived in Japan for longer than six years (*n* = 23).

A number of explanations can be suggested for this particular characteristic of the non-JET group. First, as seen earlier in this chapter, many current non-JET ALTs (11 of 31) were indeed previously working as a JET ALT. The one-year contract for JET participants can now be renewed up to four times (CLAIR, 2015a). Therefore, non-JET ALTs who had worked as a JET ALT previously may have lived in Japan for up to five years prior to their appointment as a non-JET ALT. This may have contributed to the larger proportion of non-JET ALTs who have lived in Japan for longer than six years compared with JET participants.
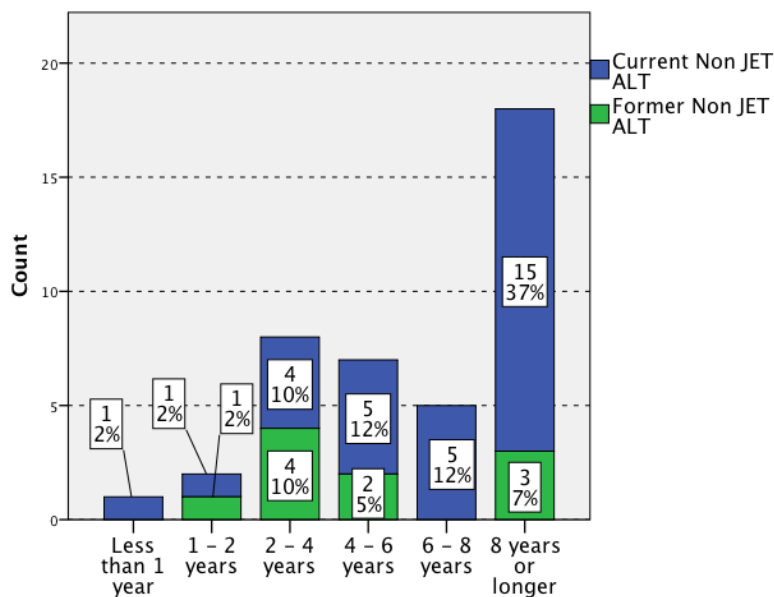
Figure 12. Length of residency in Japan for non-JET ALTs (*n* = 41)

Second, the employers of non-JET ALTs, mainly local board of education offices and commercial dispatch agents, do not necessarily have to regulate applicants' length of residency in Japan. As discussed earlier, the JET program is considered to be a youth exchange program (CLAIR, 2015a), and its objectives include enhancing the understanding of Japan among young participants from overseas who are "likely to rise to positions of power" upon return to their home country (McConnell, 2000, p. 38).

By contrast, non-JET ALTs appear to be hired exclusively to promote more communication-orientated English education at school (e.g., MEXT, 2003, 2009), and thus their employers (e.g., the board of education offices) may not have to regulate ALT backgrounds in the same manner as CLAIR does within the JET program. This allows applicants who would not meet the eligibility criterion in the

JET program to still work as an ALT in Japan, which may have resulted in the relatively longer length of residency among the non-JET group in the current study.

Nationality. Figure 13 shows the nationality of participants in the study ($n = 231$, 1 missing). Of the 231, 212 had a single nationality, 18 held dual nationalities, and 1 participant had 6 nationalities. Among the 111 participants who had American nationality, 9 had another nationality (1 Brazilian, 1 Canadian, 1 Costa Rican, 1 French, 1 Nigerian, 1 Salvadoran, 1 Uruguayan, and 2 Irish), and 1 had 5 other nationalities (Canadian, German, Scottish, Welsh, and British). Of the 26 participants who held British nationality, 5 had dual nationalities (1 Irish, 1 South African, and 3 Scottish). One Canadian also had Polish nationality, and 2 Irish participants were also French and Swiss respectively. One Filipino participant also had Japanese nationality.

As demonstrated by the red bar in Figure 13, the data clearly indicated the large majority of the American teachers among the participants. Of the 232 participants, nearly half ($n = 111$) held American nationality. This was hardly a surprising result as approximately half of all ALTs in the JET program have been the Americans since the very beginning of the program in 1987 (CLAIR, 2015a; McConnell, 2000).

Further, the American majority was evident across JET and non-JET participants. Of the 183 current and former JET ALTs in the study, 49% ($n = 90$) reported they had American nationality. The proportion was almost same (44%, $n = 18$) among the 41 non-JET ALTs in the study (both current and former, excluding 8 former ALTs who have worked both as a JET ALT and non-JET ALT). The result suggests that Japan's preference for American teachers seems to be present among ALTs regardless of their JET/non-JET employment type. This finding

aligns with earlier studies that report Japan's preference for American English as their standard, and thus their preference for American teachers in the broader contexts of the English language education in Japan (e.g., Honna, 2008; Kubota, 1998).
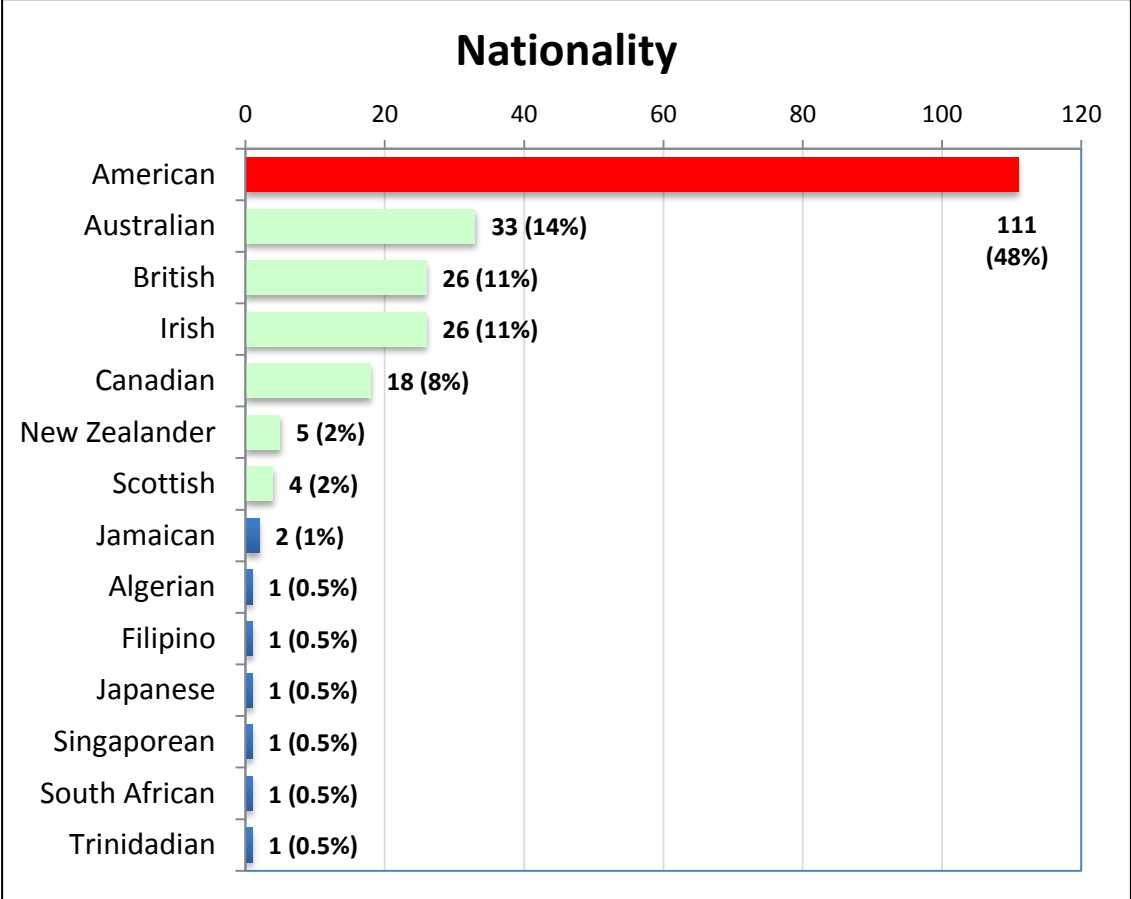
Figure 13. Nationality of 232 participants (1 missing)

While the American majority was evidently strong in the sample, the study also found some variety of nationalities in the other half of participants. The majority of the non-American participants appeared to hold a nationality that was associated with the countries in Kachru's (1989, 1992) inner circle, where English is the primary language (e.g., the U.S., the U.K., Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and Ireland). As

illustrated in Figure 13, in total, 112 participants held a nationality from these inner circle countries other than America. Together with the 111 American participants, the vast majority of the 232 participants (96%, $n = 223$) had at least one nationality that was associated with Kachru's inner circle countries.

There were only eight participants who did not hold any nationality from Kachru's inner circle countries. Their nationality was either one associated with Kachru's outer circle in which English gained an official status often through the colonisation of the traditionally English-speaking countries (e.g., Singapore, South Africa, Nigeria, and the Philippines), or with the expanding circle which represents countries such as Algeria and Japan, where English has no official status however is widely studied as a foreign language.

Race. Table 1 shows the racial background of all participants in the study ($N = 232$). Out of the 232 participants, 222 identified themselves with a single racial categorisation, whereas 10 selected multiple racial backgrounds. Among the 222 participants with a mono-racial background, the table clearly indicated the strong dominance of Caucasian teachers (82%, $n = 189$). The trend was observed in both the JET and non-JET participants, although the proportion of the Caucasian teachers was smaller among the non-JET participants (85% of 183 JET participants, and 71% of 41 non-JET participants identified as Caucasians). This result is within expectations based upon the findings in the literature on the JET program (Crump, 2007, 2008; McConnell, 2000), as well as on the wider contexts of the TESOL industry in Japan, which reports Japan's strong preference for Caucasian English teachers (Kobayashi, 2014; Kubota, 2004; Lummis, 1975; Tsuda, 1990).

Table 1. *Racial background of all participants (N = 232)*

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Caucasian	189	82%
	Black or African American	10	4%
	Asian	10	4%
	Multiple racial background	10	4%
	Other	13	6%
	Total	232	100%

Other than Caucasians, the 222 mono-racial background participants included a few *Black or African American* ($n = 10$); *Asian* ($n = 10$); and *Other* ($n = 13$). The 13 responses from those who selected *Other* included entries such as: Hispanic or Latino, Native American, native New Zealander, person of colour, as well as those who declined to specify their racial background(s). The study collected data from only a handful of the *Black or African American* participants (4%, $n = 10$), although the proportion was larger than those available in the earlier studies (e.g., nil in Crump, 2008; 1.5% in McConnell, 2000).

Among the 10 participants who selected multiple racial backgrounds, nine selected *Caucasian* as one of their racial backgrounds. Six of these nine participants identified themselves also as *Asian*, two as *Other* (one Hispanic or Latino, and one Native American), and one as *Asian* and *Other* (Hispanic or Latino). The remaining participant who had multiple racial backgrounds identified himself (or herself) as *Black or African American* and "*Other*" (Hispanic or Latino). Reflecting upon the complex nature of racial classification (Aspinall, 2009), these 10 participants have been grouped as someone with a *multiple racial background* for the remaining analysis in this study.

Section 2: Linguistic and Language Learning Backgrounds

Participant responses to the various constructs of the term "native English speakers". The first question asked all participants whether they were a "native speaker of English". In this study, nearly 99% of participants ($n = 229$, 1 missing) identified themselves as a so-called native speaker of English. Two participants identified themselves as "non-native speakers of English". One was a female participant who held Japanese nationality, and another was a male participant (nationality unknown) who identified himself as a *Black or African American* in the previous section.

The second question asked participants what their perceived first language was. Due to an unknown (potentially technical) reason however, only 125 participants appeared to have had an opportunity to provide their response to this question (107 missing). Given that this item was not a compulsory question in the survey, these 107 participants may have chosen not to respond to this particular question, although this appears to be unlikely. Of the 125 participants who responded to this item, the majority ($n = 116$) nominated English as their first language, while a few ($n = 9$) nominated one of the languages other than English as their first language (French, Chinese, Portuguese, Spanish, Tagalog, and Japanese).

The third question explored the number of languages the participants spoke. As summarised in Table 2, overall, more than 80% ($n = 200$, no missing value) reported they spoke more than one language, revealing a rich and diverse linguistic background of participants in the present study. More than half of the participants self-reported they spoke two languages, and a total of 35% reported they spoke three or more languages. Only 14% reported they spoke only one language, and the proportion of monolingual speakers was almost identical between the JET ($n = 26$,

14% of 183 JET ALTs) and the non-JET participants (*n* = 6, 15% of 41 non-JET

ALTs).

Table 2. *Number of languages spoken (N = 232)*

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	32	14	14
	2	119	51	65
	3	58	25	90
	4	17	7	97
	5 or more	6	3	100
	Total	232	100	

While participant responses to the three questions illustrate diverse linguistic

backgrounds, the data here also underlined the complex nature of defining the term

native speakers of English (NS). As discussed in Chapter 1, the term has been subject

to a vast variety of interpretations (Clark & Paran, 2007; Davies, 2003; Kubota,

2004; McKay, 2002), and a particular definition of the term or any combination of

various factors may influence who the NSs were in the present study.

If, for instance, the speakers' self-identification was adopted as a factor

(Davies, 1999, 2003), then nearly 99% of participants in the present study could be

labelled as NSs. By contrast, if the definition was limited to those whose first

language was English (Davies, 1991), or those who were monolingual speakers of

English (Cook, 1999; Kramsch, 1998), then the proportion would have been much

smaller. Further, if Japan's own criteria for the term are taken into account, then it

may be that only those who carried the accepted nationality (e.g., American, 48%) or

nationalities (e.g., Kachru's inner circle countries, 96%), or the accepted race (e.g.,

Caucasian, 85%), or any combination of these factors could determine who would be

accepted as NS in the TESOL industry in Japan. The data here seems to have justified the decision made earlier in the study not to use the term *native speaker*.

Japanese language learning backgrounds. Japanese language learning backgrounds of the participants were summarised in Table 3. Overall, 90% (n = 208) of the 232 participants indicated they had more or less studied Japanese language before, and only 10% had not studied it at all (*n* = 24). As discussed in Chapter 3, the study adopted three measures as an indication of proficiency level in Japanese: self-assessment, the highest completed level of the Japanese course offered by CLAIR for JET ALTs, and the highest achieved level in the Japanese Language Proficiency Test run annually by the Japan Foundation and Japan Educational Exchanges and Services (2012).

Many participants who had studied Japanese before seemed to be relatively experienced when measured through the length of their study (Table 3). While the most frequently occurring response was, for instance, between one and three years (*n* = 68, 29% of all participants), a similar number of participants had studied Japanese for between four and six years (*n* = 56, 24%), or even more than seven years (*n* = 60, 26%). Exactly half of all participants in this study (*n* = 116) studied Japanese for longer than four years.

Based on the participants' self-assessed proficiency level, overall, many of the participants in the study seemed to have intermediate or above level of proficiency in Japanese (Table 3). More than 40% (*n* = 101, 44%) of the participants self-assessed their proficiency level as intermediate, and a total of 30% (*n* = 71) as being at advanced or near-native speaker level. In total, more than 70% (*n* = 172) assessed their proficiency level as intermediate level or above. If the self-rated proficiency was as reliable as some of the existing standardised tests (e.g., Marian, Blumenfeld,

& Kaushanskaya, 2007; Wilson, 1999), then the majority of the participants in the present study appeared to have relatively high level of proficiency in Japanese.

Interestingly, less than half of the participants completed one or more of the language courses ($n = 95$, 41%) that the Council on International Educational Exchange (CLAIR, 2015a) delivers for the JET participants. Due to this relatively low participation rate, the proportion of participants who completed each level of the CLAIR course, relative to all participants, was also low (13% at beginner, 12% at the intermediate, and 16% at the advanced level). Nonetheless, the majority of those who had completed those courses appeared to have demonstrated a relatively high level of proficiency in Japanese.

Similarly, less than half of the 232 participants ($n = 104$, 45%) had ever taken the standardised Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT), and a little over 40% ($n = 96$, 41%), relative to all participants, passed N5 or above. Overall, approximately 30% of the 232 participants ($n = 70$) passed the N3 ("ability to understand Japanese used in everyday situations to a certain degree") or above (The Japan Foundation / Japan Educational Exchanges and Services, 2012). Twenty percent ($n = 47$) passed the N2 ("the ability to understand Japanese used in everyday situations, and in a variety of circumstances to a certain degree") or above. Although not all participants had taken the test, those who had taken the test seem to have demonstrated a relatively high level of proficiency in the test.

The participants' completion of CLAIR courses and achievements in the JLPT could not be entered into regression models due to the large proportion of the participants who had not undertaken these measures. Overall, however, the data here suggest that most participants had some knowledge of Japanese language, although the level of learning experience and the proficiency level vary for each participant.

Chapter 4: Descriptive result

Table 3. *Japanese language learning backgrounds of all participants (N = 232)*

Category		Counts	% within all participants (*N* = 232)
Length of Japanese study	Less than 1 year	23	10%
	1 - 3 years	68	29%
	4 - 6 years	56	24%
	7 years or more	60	26%
	Missing	25	11%
	Total	**232**	**100%**
Self-assessed proficiency in Japanese	Beginner	36	16%
	Intermediate	101	44%
	Advanced	59	25%
	Near-native speaker proficiency	12	5%
	Missing	24	10%
	Total	**232**	**100%**
CLAIR courses	Beginner Japanese	30	13%
	Intermediate Japanese	27	12%
	Advanced Japanese	38	16%
	Missing	137	59%
	Total	**232**	**100%**
Japanese Language Proficiency Test*	N1	9	4%
	N2	38	16%
	N3	23	10%
	N4	15	6%
	N5	11	5%
	Missing	136	59%
	Total	**232**	**100%**

* N1 is the highest level in the JLPT, and indicates the ability to understand Japanese used in a variety of circumstances. N2 indicates the ability to understand Japanese used in everyday situations, and in a variety of circumstances to a certain degree. N3 is the ability to understand Japanese used in everyday situations to a certain degree. N4 shows the ability to understand basic Japanese. N5 is the ability to understand some basic Japanese. (All cited from the Japan Foundation / Japan Educational Exchanges and Services, 2012c)

Japanese learning experience of JET participants. The proportion of participants with a relatively high level of knowledge in Japanese was rather a surprising finding, because as discussed in Chapter 2, the JET program was known to de-prioritise applicants who had a high level of proficiency in Japanese during the selection process. This could have been due to the fact that the sample in the study ($N = 232$) included non-JET ALTs, as well as the former JET participants. Since the selection criteria for non-JET ALTs remains unknown to date, and the former JET ALTs may have studied Japanese in their post-JET lives, these sub-groups of the participants could have influenced the results.

In order to examine the Japanese language proficiency specifically of the current JET ALTs in the study ($n = 101$), the data were extracted (**Error! Not a valid bookmark self-reference.**). Overall, the data appeared to indicate very similar trends to those in Table 3, suggesting JET participants may have indeed become more experienced in Japanese language learning, and more proficient than those in the past. A little more than 90% of current JET ALTs had studied Japanese language before ($n = 92$), and approximately half of them ($n = 55$, 55%) learned Japanese for longer than four years. More than 40% ($n = 46$) assessed their proficiency level as intermediate, and 30% ($n = 30$) as being at advanced or near-native speaker level. Less than half of the current JET participants ($n = 41$, 41%) completed one or more of the CLAIR language courses, and the majority of them achieved intermediate or above level of study.

Table 4. *Japanese language learning backgrounds of the current JET ALTs (n =101)*

Category		Counts	% within all participants (*N* = 232)
Length of Japanese study	Less than 1 year	10	10%
	1 - 3 years	27	27%
	4 - 6 years	33	32%
	7 years or more	22	22%
	Missing	9	9%
	Total	**101**	**100%**
Self-assessed proficiency in Japanese	Beginner	16	16%
	Intermediate	46	45%
	Advanced	28	28%
	Near-native speaker proficiency	2	2%
	Missing	9	9%
	Total	**101**	**100%**
CLAIR courses	Beginner Japanese	9	9%
	Intermediate Japanese	13	13%
	Advanced Japanese	19	19%
	Missing	60	59%
	Total	**101**	**100%**
Japanese Language Proficiency Test	N1*	1	1%
	N2*	10	10%
	N3*	13	13%
	N4*	7	7%
	N5*	5	5%
	Missing	65	64%
	Total	**101**	**100%**
	N1*	1	1%

* N1 is the highest level in the JLPT, and indicates the ability to understand Japanese used in a variety of circumstances. N2 indicates the ability to understand Japanese used in everyday situations, and in a variety of circumstances to a certain degree. N3 is the ability to understand Japanese used in everyday situations to a certain degree. N4 shows the ability to understand basic Japanese. N5 is the ability to understand some basic Japanese. (All cited from the Japan Foundation / Japan Educational Exchanges and Services, 2012c)

While the exact cause for these changes remains unknown, some explanations can be considered. First, it could simply be due to the increasing number of Japanese language learners in the regions from which the JET participants originate. In 1987, for instance, approximately 41,000 people were learning Japanese in the North American region, whereas the number had more than quadrupled by 2012 (Japan Foundation, 2016). It is not surprising then if the pool of JET candidates included more participants who have learned the language prior to their application.

Another plausible explanation is that CLAIR may now be more interested in hiring foreign teachers who are able to communicate in Japanese, as part of their attempt to help local teachers with limited English work collaboratively with foreign assistants. In the context of team-teaching, many argue that successful team-teaching would require the carefully-negotiated and pre-agreed roles between teachers through mutual communication (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001; Richards & Farrell, 2005). As discussed in Chapter 2, however, both the foreign assistants' limited Japanese and the local teachers' limited English have been blamed, at least partially, for the lack of mutual negotiation of their roles while teaching together (CLAIR, 2005, as cited in Butler, 2007; Kobayashi, 2000).

Although the Ministry of Education in Japan has encouraged local teachers to teach English in a communicative manner (MEXT, 2003), local teacher proficiency in English seems to have remained very low. In 2003, the MEXT announced its "Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities" (MEXT, 2003, see also Butler & Iino, 2005), and clearly set the level of proficiency that local English teachers should attain (e.g., the pre-first level in Eiken test; 550 in Test of English as a Foreign Language or TOEFL; or 730 in Test of English as an International Language or TOEIC). In reality, however, only limited proportions of the local

teachers have recently successfully passed these proficiency levels (e.g., less than 1% at elementary schools, 28% at junior high schools and 53% at senior high schools, MEXT, 2014). In this climate, it is not surprising if CLAIR now recruits selectively ALT applicants who have a certain level of proficiency in Japanese in their attempt to compensate for local teachers' limited English, so that these teachers can negotiate clearly their roles in team-teaching.

Japanese language learning background of the participant was entered into the regression models, so that the study could clarify through a statistical lens the extent to which this background affected their professional work. Also, analysis of the interview data identified how their ability in Japanese affected their work both positively and negatively (see the analysis in Chapter 6).

Section 3: Overall Educational Backgrounds

This section reports participating teacher academic attainments. While the majority of all participants ($N = 232$) completed only one qualification (63%, $n = 145$), 38% ($n = 87$) had more than one qualification. In total, participants self-reported that they had completed a total of 359 qualifications. The following part of this section aims to provide a better understanding of the educational backgrounds of this group of ESOL teachers in Japan by detailing the characteristics of the above 359 qualifications. The highest attained levels of these qualifications, fields of study, and accreditation status for local teaching of these qualifications are discussed.

Highest attained level of qualifications. Table 5 outlines the number of the current and former ALTs by the highest level of attained qualification ($N = 232$). Overall, the majority ($n = 155$, 67%) completed a bachelor's degree as their highest level of qualification. This result was within expectations since the JET program requires its applicants to have completed a bachelor's degree (CLAIR, 2015a), and the majority of the participants in the study were either current or former JET ALTs.

Interestingly however, a considerable number of the participants completed at least one postgraduate qualification, which is beyond the traditional academic requirement in the JET program. In combination, one-third of participants in the study ($n = 77$, 33%) completed a postgraduate qualification. More than 20% ($n = 56$) completed a master's degree, and there were even five participants who had attained a doctoral degree. Further, the qualitative data in the survey confirmed that "Other" qualification ($n = 1$) was a Juris Doctorate degree, and thus this qualification was treated as a postgraduate qualification in the remaining part of the study. The proportion of JET ALTs with a master's degree was only 6% in 1991 (CLAIR, 1992, as cited in McConnell, 2000), and thus participants in the study seem to be equipped with postgraduate qualifications at a considerably higher rate than JET participants in the past.

Table 5. *Highest attained qualification level * Current or former ALT cross-tabulation*

			ALT		Total
			Current	Former	
Highest attained qualification level	Bachelor	Count	107	48	155
		% within Current or Former ALT	81%	48%	67%
	Post/graduate Certificate	Count	5	10	15
		% within Current or Former ALT	4%	10%	6%
	Masters degree	Count	19	37	56
		% within Current or Former ALT	14%	37%	24%
	Doctorate	Count	0	5	5
		% within Current or Former ALT	0%	5%	2%
	Other	Count	1*	0	1*
		% within Current or Former ALT	1%	0%	0%
Total		Count	132	100	232
		% within Current or Former ALT	100%	100%	100%

* Juris Doctorate

Former ALTs qualifications. One potential explanation for this result is the former ALTs in the study. Some of the former ALTs in the study ($n = 100$) may have obtained postgraduate qualifications in their post-ALT lives. If so, then the data in this section does not necessarily reflect the academic backgrounds of former ALTs at the time of working as the ALTs in Japan. Further, the data does not necessarily indicate that JET ALTs in the present context have become more qualified at postgraduate level than those in the past.

Unfortunately, the questionnaire was not designed to differentiate between qualifications former ALTs may have obtained before and after they left their position. Nonetheless, Table 5 clearly indicates that former ALTs were overall more likely to possess a postgraduate level qualification than current ALTs. While more than 80% of current ALTs ($n = 107$) nominated a bachelor's degree as their highest qualification, that proportion was less than half for former ALTs ($n = 48$, 48% of all former ALTs). In total, more than half of former ALTs ($n = 52$) completed a postgraduate qualification. More than one-third of the former group ($n = 37$) had a master's level qualification, and all five participants with a doctoral degree were the former ALTs.

To test if there is any association between the highest attained degree level and the current working status as ALTs, a chi-squared test was conducted. Since the data violated some of the assumptions required for the test, the counts for the postgraduate certificate, master's, doctorate, and other (Juris Doctorate) were combined into one variable *postgraduate degree* ($n = 25$ for current ALTs, $n = 52$ for former ALTs). These numbers were used for comparison with the number of those with a bachelor's degree in both groups ($n = 107$ for current ALTs, $n = 48$ for former ALTs). The test found the relationship was statistically significant ($\chi^2(1) = 28.05$,

$\rho < 0.01$, $\varphi = 0.35$), suggesting that former ALTs were significantly more qualified at postgraduate level than present ALTs.

The relatively high proportion of former ALTs who had attained a postgraduate qualification was somewhat expected from the literature, at least in the context of the JET program. According to the survey conducted by the JET Alumni Association International (JETAA) in 2010 (JETAA, 2010, as cited in CLAIR, 2011, p. 35), more than 60% of the 269 JET alumni were studying for a Masters degree, and more than 10% were studying for a doctoral degree at the time of their survey. While these figures did not represent alumni who had successfully attained these qualifications, the data certainly indicated the JET alumni's high level of interest in graduate study as one of their post-JET options.

The JET alumni's strong interest in postgraduate study became more evident when the highest qualification levels were cross-tabulated between JET ALTs ($n = 82$) and non-JET ALTs ($n = 10$, excluding the eight former ALTs who had both experiences) within the former group. As outlined in Table 6, more of the JET alumni were qualified at the postgraduate level, compared to the former non-JET group. In total, more than half of the JET alumni ($n = 44$, 54%) held a postgraduate qualification whereas that proportion is only 40% for the former non-JET group ($n = 4$). While the proportions of participants who had a master's degree were similar in both groups, the former JET group also included some who had a postgraduate certificate (10%, $n = 8$) as well as the five participants with a doctorate level qualification.

Table 6. *Cross tabulation between the level of highest attained qualification and the JET/non-JET employment types for the former ALTs (n = 100)*

| | | | Former ALTs | | | |
			JET	Non-JET	Both	Total
Level	Bachelor	Count	38	6	4	48
		% within JET or Non-JET or Both	46%	60%	50%	48%
	Postgraduate Certificate	Count	8	0	2	10
		% within JET or Non-JET or Both	10%	0%	25%	10%
	Masters degree	Count	31	4	2	37
		% within JET or Non-JET or Both	38%	40%	25%	37%
	Doctorate	Count	5	0	0	5
		% within JET or Non-JET or Both	6%	0%	0%	5%
Total		Count	82	10	8	100
		% within JET or Non-JET or Both	100%	100%	100%	100%

A number of factors can be considered as backgrounds for the relatively high level of interest in the graduate study among JET alumni. First, a postgraduate qualification may be perceived as enhancing job prospects for young alumni in their post-JET lives. As discussed in Chapter 2, the JET program recruits primarily young participants into temporary positions (CLAIR, 2015a; Geluso, 2013; McConnell, 2000; Okunuki & Carlet, 2012). Given that the majority of JET participants are aged in their 20s, and also that the program does not allow them to work for more than five years in total (CLAIR, 2015a), it is more likely that JET participants are still relatively young when leaving the program.

While these young JET alumni were likely to be considering their options in the post-JET lives, they may no longer be able to use their JET experience as a single "stepping stone to Japan-related careers in journalism, tourism, government services, and so forth" (McConnell, 2000, pp. 201-202). This was particularly the case after a large number of the JET alumni flooded the job market in the early years of the JET program, and Japan entered an economic recession during the 1990s (McConnell, 2000, pp. 201-202). Under these circumstances, some of the young JET participants with some years of international experience may decide to obtain a higher level of qualification in their attempt to secure a long-term career in their post-JET lives.

Second, the Japanese government may be encouraging JET alumni to proceed to a graduate study, particularly in the fields of Japan-related studies. As discussed in Chapter 1, three different ministries in Japan have been coordinating the JET program (CLAIR, 2015a), and each brings different aims and objectives to the program, according to McConnell (2000). While the aim of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) is to boost communicative English education at school, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs aims primarily to enhance the "foreign understanding of Japan, particularly among young people who were likely to rise to positions of power in their respective countries … (and) create pro-Japan fashion … in participating countries" (McConnell, 2000, p. 38).

To achieve this goal, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs appears to be encouraging the JET participants to develop their understanding of Japan further through their postgraduate study. CLAIR has developed a 72-page *After JET Programme Guide* (CLAIR, 2011) for departing JET participants, aimed at advising them on various matters to consider while preparing for their post-JET lives. In this

guide, an independent chapter, *Future Education*, clearly discusses postgraduate study as one of their future options. In the chapter, a number of previous JET participants discuss advantages of going to a graduate school after the JET program, and provide practical advice on how to select a program and a topic for graduate study. The guide also introduces several institutions that offer scholarships specifically designed for JET alumni to study a Japan-related topic at postgraduate level (e.g., The University of Hawaii, Monterey Institute of International Studies, McGill University).

Based on the data presented here, the above strategies by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs appear to have increased successfully the number of the JET alumni who have pursued postgraduate study. As already discussed, many JET alumni seem to have either commenced or attained their postgraduate qualification. McConnell (2000, p. 258) discusses the "ripple effect" of the JET program through its alumni, and points out "hundreds of its alumni have returned home to study Japan-related topics in graduate school …" (McConnell, 2000, p. 258). The aforementioned survey by JETAA (2010, as cited in CLAIR, 2011, p. 35) also reports that nearly 37% of the 269 former JET participants were studying in a field that is, at least partially, related to Japan.

Current ALT qualifications. In addition to the former groups, non-JET ALTs were another sub-group of participants who may have contributed to the relatively high proportion of participants in the study who completed qualification(s) beyond the JET program requirement. Also, while the academic requirement to be eligible as JET ALTs has been known to be a bachelor's degree in any field (CLAIR, 2015a), the academic requirement for the non-JET ALTs remains largely unknown, and

therefore, any data on the academic backgrounds of the non-JET teachers can be a significant contribution to the literature.

In order to highlight the level of the highest attained qualification of non-JET ALTs, a cross-tabulation was created to show current ALT qualification levels between the JET and non-JET groups (Table 7). Surprisingly, in contrast to the former group, it was non-JET ALTs ($n = 31$) who were more likely to possess a postgraduate level qualification in the current group. The total proportion of non-JET ALTs who completed a postgraduate qualification (29%) was nearly twice as large as the proportion in the current JET group (16%). All of the non-JET ALTs with a postgraduate degree ($n = 9$, 29%) held a master's degree, whereas not all JET ALTs with a postgraduate qualification had the same level of qualification (e.g., postgraduate certificate, $n = 5$).

The higher proportion of current non-JET participants with a postgraduate qualification was an interesting finding, especially when combined with other characteristics of their education backgrounds. As will be discussed later in this section (Table 10 and Table 11), compared to the current JET group, non-JET ALTs were more likely to possess not only a postgraduate qualification, but also a qualification in the field of education as well as a qualification with local teaching accreditation. In terms of these characteristics of education backgrounds, non-JET ALTs seemed to be more qualified with an education-orientated qualification than their JET counterparts.

Table 7. *Cross tabulation between the level of highest attained qualification and the JET/non-JET employment types for the current ALTs (n = 132)*

			Current ALTs		Total
			JET	Non-JET	
Level	Bachelor	Count	85	22	107
		% within JET or Non-JET	84%	71%	81%
	Postgraduate Certificate	Count	5	0	5
		% within JET or Non-JET	5%	0%	4%
	Masters degree	Count	10	9	19
		% within JET or Non-JET	10%	29%	14%
	Other	Count	1	0	1
		% within JET or Non-JET	1%	0%	1%
Total		Count	101	31	132
		% within JET or Non-JET	100%	100%	100%

One possible explanation for this phenomenon is that employers of non-JET ALTs, in particular the commercial dispatch agents, may be selectively hiring foreign teachers who have these qualifications. Commercial dispatch agents are private companies that hire many foreign teachers from overseas, and send them to individual schools or local board of education office on a temporary contract. While more and more local board of education offices rely on dispatch agents for the stable supply of foreign assistants (MEXT, 2009), there appears to be an increasing number of private dispatch agents emerging in the market (e.g., Interac: Overseas Training Centre; W5 Staff Service). Since there appear to be no government guidelines for the employment of non-JET ALTs, some have raised their voices regarding the quality of dispatched foreign teachers (Saito, 2009).

In order to become competitive in the market and successfully obtain contracts from local board offices through a bidding process (Takahara, 2008), many individual dispatch companies publish the professional profiles of their employees on their website, and attempt to advertise the quality of their contracted teachers. The profiles typically include information on employee academic background such as the attainment of a postgraduate qualification, a teacher certification, previous experience in teaching, and any qualification in TESOL (e.g., Azalea Language School, n.d.; Minerva Language Institute, 2011; My English School, 2009). If these dispatch agents wish to publish the quality of their employees in this manner, then it would not be surprising if they selectively recruit foreign teachers who have these academic qualities.

Another potential reason for the relatively higher proportion of the current non-JET participants with a postgraduate or education/teaching-related qualification is that this group of teachers may include those who intend to settle down in Japan on a permanent basis, and thus are seeking to secure a long-term career in Japan. The data presented earlier on the age and length of residency in Japan for this group certainly supports the idea that non-JET ALTs are not temporary workers in Japan.

Given that the number of foreign teachers who plan to live in Japan permanently is ever-increasing (Simon-Maeda, 2004), these teachers may need to enhance their employability by completing a qualification that is perceived to be higher (e.g., postgraduate qualification) or more relevant to the field of TESOL (e.g., CELTA). Further, "master's degree in any field" (Hayes, 2013, p. 138) is generally acceptable when non-Japanese candidates apply for an English-teaching position at universities in Japan. Therefore, some may have attained a master's degree in their attempt to secure a position in the tertiary context.

The fields of study and the local teaching accreditation status. The next question in the questionnaire examines the academic fields in which all the 232 participants completed their qualifications ($N = 359$). The figures in Table 8 indicate the number of participants who completed their qualification in each academic field from their highest qualification (*Qual 1*) through to the lowest (*Qual 4+5*). Since there were only few participants who completed their fourth and fifth qualification, the number of these qualifications has been combined under *Qual 4+5*.

First, the data here demonstrated clearly the diverse academic interests of participants in the study. While humanities and arts appears to be the most popular field among the participants (154 out of 359 qualifications), many other participants completed qualifications in the field of social sciences, business and law (71 of 359 qualifications); education (66); science (30), along with a few participants who studied in the areas of health and welfare (12) or engineering, manufacturing and construction (6).

Such diversity was within initial expectations because of the eligibility criteria in the JET program, which does not specify any area of study in which the applicants must have completed their required bachelor's degree (CLAIR, 2015a). Nonetheless, the data also suggests that the JET program and other employees in Japan may have been hiring ESOL teachers from overseas who typically had a degree in study fields such as humanities and arts, social sciences and business and law, education, or science, although they may not necessarily have specified these fields in the selection criteria.

Table 8. *Number of participants who completed qualifications in each academic field*

	Qual 1*	Qual 2	Qual 3	Qual 4+5	Total % within 359 qualifications
Education	33	22	10	1	**66** 18%
Humanities and arts	108	35	8	3	**154** 43%
Social sciences, business and law	44	17	7	3	**71** 20%
Science	21	6	1	2	**30** 8%
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	4	2	0	0	**6** 2%
Agriculture	1	0	0	1	**2** 1%
Health and welfare	9	2	1	0	**12** 3%
Service		1			**1** 0%
Other	12	2	1	2	**17** 5%
Total	**232**	**87**	**28**	**12**	**359** **100%**

*Qual 1 = Qualification 1

Second, the data here showed clearly that neither a qualification in education nor a local teaching credential was essential to become an ALT in Japan. In total, less than 20% of all the 356 qualifications (66) related to education studies. Similarly, as seen in Table 9, only 16% (59) accredited participants with respective local teaching credentials. As expected, the majority of qualifications in education (41 out of 66) were leading to local teaching credentials. While humanities and arts was the most popular field of study amongst participants, less than 10% of these qualifications (14 out of 154) led to local teaching credentials.

Table 9. *Local teaching accreditation status of 359 qualifications*

	Qual 1	Qual 2	Qual 3	Qual 4+5	Total % within 359 qualifications
Education	23	11	6	1	**41** 11%
Humanities and arts	10	3	1	0	**14** 4%
Social sciences, business and law	1	1	0	0	**2** 1%
Science	1	0	0	0	**1** 0%
Other	0	1	0	0	**1** 0%
Missing	197	71	21	11	**300** 84%
Total	**35**	**16**	**7**	**1**	**359** **100%**

Since the reluctance to hire the foreign teachers with teaching qualification or previous experience in teaching has been reported specifically in the JET program (Goldberg, 1995; McConnell, 2000), it was useful to identify the exact proportion of JET ALTs with an education-orientated qualification (the qualifications in education, or those with local teaching accreditation). For this purpose, the number of current ALTs who completed either at least one qualification in education, or at least one qualification with an accreditation for local teaching, were separately cross-tabulated between the JET and non-JET ALTs. This enabled the study to examine if the same trend was evident in hiring practices between the JET and non-JET groups of the teachers in Japan.

As summarised in Table 10 and Table 11, non-JET ALTs appeared to be more likely to possess at least one qualification in the field of education, and also at least one qualification that was recognised as a local teaching credential in their home country. The proportion of non-JET ALTs who completed at least one qualification in education ($n = 34$, 34%) is more than twice of the proportion in the JET group

(n = 10, 16%). Similarly, the proportion of the non-JET ALTs who had at least one local teaching credential (n = 11, 35%) is more than twice as large as the proportion in the JET group (n = 15, 15%).

A chi-squared test revealed that the relationship between ALT employment type (JET or non-JET) and whether they studied a degree in education was statistically significant [$\chi^2(1)$ = 4.04, ρ = 0.04, φ = 0.18]. Although the effect size was small, whether an ALT studied a degree in education or not was dependent on the ALT's JET or non-JET status. Also, another chi-squared test revealed the statistical significance in the relationship between ALT employment type and whether participants studied a degree with a teaching credential. Again, the test found statistical significance $\chi^2(1)$ = 6.38, ρ = 0.01, φ = 0.22.

Table 10. *Cross tabulation Education degree(s) * JET or non-JET in current group*

A degree in education * Current JET or non-JET cross-tabulation					
			Current ALT		Total
			JET	Non-JET	
Qualification(s) in Education	Yes	Count	16	10	**26**
		% within JET or non-JET	16%	34%	20%
	No	Count	85	21	**106**
		% within JET or non-JET	84%	68%	80%
Total		Count	**101**	**31**	**132**
		% within JET or non-JET	100%	100%	100%

Table 11. *Cross tabulation Accreditation * JET or non-JET in current group*

			Current ALT		Total
			JET	Non-JET	
Accreditation	Yes	Count	15	11	**26**
		% within JET or non-JET	15%	35%	20%
	No	Count	86	20	**106**
		% within JET or non-JET	85%	65%	80%
Total		Count	**101**	**31**	**132**
		% within JET or non-JET	100%	100%	100%

The result seems to support the idea that the JET program is still reluctant to hire foreign teachers with a teaching background (Goldberg, 1995; McConnell, 2000). The regression analysis and the interview analysis will further examine the extent to which such backgrounds were actually influencing the professional lives of foreign teachers.

In contrast to the hiring of JET ALTs, such a hesitation did not appear to be as strong in the employment practice for the non-JET group. As discussed earlier, private dispatch agents may prioritise teachers who have some teaching-related qualification or experience in their effort to demonstrate the perceived quality of their employees in the vastly-expanding ALT market. Such a commercial motivation may be applicable only to employers of non-JET ALTs, which may have contributed to the significantly higher proportion of non-JET ALTs with an education-related qualification. If Japan's traditional claim on the tension between outsourced teachers with teaching backgrounds and local teachers holds true, then the non-JET group of teachers may have somewhat different professional lives when compared to the JET group. Alternatively, the match between skills and knowledge they possessed and

what they were actually required to do may give them better satisfaction. The analysis in the next few chapters clarifies this as part of the investigation.

Section 4: Backgrounds in TESOL Teacher Education

The second part of this section explores the characteristics found within the qualifications in which participants self-reported learning any skills and/or knowledge for teaching English to speakers of other languages. As outlined in Chapter 1, such qualifications were defined as *TESOL-related qualifications* for the purpose of the study. These qualifications had to be distinguished from *TESOL certifications*, which were defined after reviewing the titles of the TESOL-related qualifications in this section.

First, the proportion of the participants who completed TESOL-related qualifications (hereinafter, *ALTs with TESOL skills*), and those who did not learn any of such skills or knowledge at all (*ALTs without TESOL skills*) will be discussed. This will include some comparative analysis between the current and former groups, and also between the JET and non-JET groups within the current ALTs.

Second, the diverse characteristics of TESOL-related qualifications will be explored in order to contribute to answering the first research question. As outlined shortly, the study not only found an extreme diversity within these qualifications, but also clarified the existing variations in terms of academic levels, titles, academic fields, accreditation status, provider types, length of study, number of units, contents, and teaching practicum.

ALTs with TESOL skills and ALTs without TESOL skills. Overall, nearly 40% of the 232 participants self-reported that they had learned some skills and/or knowledge for teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL skills) in one or more of their qualifications (*ALTs with TESOL skills*, $n = 87$, 37%). A little more than 60% did not learn any TESOL skills at all (*ALTs without TESOL skills*, $n = 145$, 63%). Among the 87 ALTs with TESOL skills, the majority ($n = 67$, 77%) learned their TESOL skills while completing one qualification, 21% ($n = 18$) in two qualifications, and only one participant acquired these skills as part of their three and four qualifications respectively. In total, the study collected data on 110 *TESOL-related qualifications*, completed by these 87 *ALTs with TESOL skills*.

The overall proportion of *ALTs with TESOL skills* in the study (37%) seems to be considerably higher than the proportions reported as "*TESOL-certified*" ALTs in previous studies (e.g., "only 3% to 10% in Benoit, 2003, as cited in Butler, 2007; "just below 12%" in McConnell, 2000). However, this was not beyond this study's initial expectations because the study adopted a relatively broad definition of the term *TESOL qualifications*. This broad definition appears to have helped the study understand the characteristics of the wide range of the qualifications with which this group of ESOL teachers had acquired skills and/or knowledge they believed were related to TESOL, irrespective of, for example, the course developers' rationale or whether the title of the qualification includes some popularly-used acronyms (e.g., TESOL, TEFL, or TESL). Such a broad definition of *TESOL-related qualifications* has allowed the present study to include some types of academic qualifications that may not otherwise be included as *TESOL qualifications*. This may have increased the number of the participants who are categorised as *ALTs with TESOL skills* in the

study. This will be further clarified later in this work, when the titles of these 110 *TESOL-related qualifications* are examined in detail.

  Current and former ALTs. Table 12 shows the proportions of *ALTs with TESOL skills* and *ALTs without TESOL skills* by their present working status (current or former). The proportions of ALTs with TESOL skills appear to be very similar between the current and former ALTs. This was interesting with reference to the earlier finding that the former group was more likely to possess a higher level of qualification than those currently working as ALTs (see Table 5 and Table 6 in the first section in this chapter). The data seem to suggest that participants who had already left positions as ALTs tended to have completed postgraduate qualifications, but not necessarily in the areas that were relevant to TESOL.

Table 12. *Cross tabulation TESOL study experience by present working status (current or former)*

TESOL study experience * Current or former ALT cross-tabulation			All ALTs		Total
			Current	Former	
Did you learn any skills and/or knowledge for TESOL in your qualification(s)?	Yes	Count	51	36	**87**
		% within Current or former ALT	39%	36%	37%
	No	Count	81	64	**145**
		% within Current or former ALT	61%	64%	63%
Total		Count	**132**	**100**	**232**
		% within Current or former ALT	100%	100%	100%

Whether or not the above means these former ALTs had left the field of TESOL – or even teaching in general – remains unknown, since the present study did not ask their present occupation. Given that there was a strong relationship between worker job satisfaction and turnover (e.g., Amah, 2009; Delobelle et al., 2011), whether or not former ALTs were still in the same or similar fields after leaving their position as ALTs, and the relationship of this status with job satisfaction or academic background, could be an interesting outcome measurement to investigate. This may be one of the foci of future research.

Current JET and current non-JET ALTs. Table 13 summarises the proportions of *ALTs with TESOL skills* and *ALTs without TESOL skills* between the JET and non-JET ALTs within the current group. In the sample of the study, a greater proportion of non-JET ALTs ($n = 14, 45\%$) appear to have learned TESOL skills as part of their qualification(s) than in the JET group ($n = 37, 37\%$). The chi-squared test, however, failed to discover any significance in this relationship ($\chi^2 (1) = 0.73$, $\rho = 0.394$), and therefore, whether one learned any TESOL skills or not was likely to be independent of employment type (JET or non-JET).

This is interesting because it was found earlier that current non-JET ALTs were significantly more likely than JET ALTs to have qualification(s) in the field of education, as well as qualifications that accredited them for local teaching when compared to the JET ALTs (see Table 10 and Table 11).

Two potential reasons were considered here. First, some ALTs who either completed a formal qualification in education or obtained the local teaching credential did not learn (in their perceptions) any TESOL skills in these qualifications, and secondly, others may have acquired their perceived TESOL skills

as part of obtaining qualifications in the fields other than education, or qualifications without local teaching accreditation.

Further analysis revealed the first possibility was less likely. The majority of the ALTs who completed at least one formal qualification in education ($n = 45$, 80% of 56) indicated they had learned some TESOL-related skills or knowledge within their qualification. More than 70% of those who completed a qualification with the local accreditation ($n = 35$, 73% of 48) self-reportedly learned some TESOL-related skills and knowledge.

For the second possibility, more than 20% of ALTs in both JET and non-JET groups who did not complete any education-related qualification still reported that they learned some TESOL skills while completing their non-education-related qualification(s). Indeed, more than half of the 110 TESOL-related qualifications reported were not completed in the education field, nor as local teaching credentials (see further analysis below).

The data here suggests firstly that those who completed education-related qualifications were more likely to have learned some skills and knowledge that were related to TESOL while completing these qualifications. Second, there seemed to be a considerable number of teachers who acquired their TESOL skills as part of qualifications that were not related to education or accreditation for local teaching at all. This was likely to be another result of the broad definition of the term *TESOL related qualifications* in the study. The definition adopted in the study seems to have helped the study to collect data on a variety of qualifications in which the participants learned their TESOL skills.

Table 13. *Cross tabulation TESOL studies * Current JET or non-JET ALT*

TESOL study * Current JET or non-JET Cross tabulation					
			Current JET or non-JET		Total
			JET	Non-JET	
Did you learn any skills and/or knowledge for TESOL in your qualification(s)?	Yes	Count	37	14	51
		% within current JET or non-JET	37%	45%	39%
	No	Count	64	17	81
		% within current JET or non-JET	63%	55%	61%
Total		Count	101	31	132
		% within current JET or non-JET	100%	100%	100%

These findings indicate that ESOL teachers in the selected context of TESOL in Japan were learning their (perceived) TESOL-related skills and knowledge not just in the qualifications that were designed specifically to help pre-service teachers to learn such skill sets, but also as part of qualifications that may not have been related to education or teaching at all. The latter group of participants may support the widely-spread ESOL teacher hiring practice, which typically requires a bachelor's degree in any field and no TESOL-specific teacher training (e.g., Sperling, 2011; Wu & Ke, 2009).

At the same time, the data here also suggest that not all teachers who completed a bachelor's degree (or above) had learned some skills and knowledge that were related to TESOL. More than 60% of the 132 current ALTs ($n = 81$) self-reported they did not learn any TESOL-related skills or knowledge in any of their degrees (Table 13). The data here poses a question over the validity of the above-

mentioned hiring practice in the selected context of TESOL in Japan. This is further analysed and discussed in the next section where the internal variations within TESOL-related qualifications are clarified, and thus differentiated from qualifications that did not help teachers to learn any TESOL-related skills or knowledge.

Characteristics of TESOL-related qualifications. As part of the investigation to answer the first research question, the diversity within all of the 110 reported TESOL-related qualifications had to be clarified. As discussed below, the study found that these qualifications varied extensively in most of the categories measured in the study. These included their titles (Table 14), academic levels (Table 15), fields of study and accreditation for local teaching (Table 16), provider types, required length of study, and requirement for foreign language learning (all in Table 17), the number of units/courses completed (Table 18); and the subjects/topics covered in these units (Table 19).

Further, another layer of variations was found within the qualifications that included some form of teaching practicum (Table 20). The diversity discovered within each category was so extreme that it was almost arguable that not one of the 110 reported TESOL-related qualification was identical to any other.

All categories within the TESOL-related qualifications reported in this section have important implications to the present study on the relationship between ALT TESOL teacher education backgrounds and their job satisfaction (Research Question 4). As discussed in Chapter 1, there seems to be limited consensus on what constitutes *TESOL courses* (Miller et al, 2009; Schulz, 2000), and therefore, different TESOL-related qualifications may have equipped teachers with different skills and knowledge (e.g., four-week TESOL certificate compared with two-year Master's in

TESOL). While most typically the length of schooling or achieved level of education have been used as a proxy measure for the amount of skills in economics studies (Arrow, 1997; Iyigun & Owen, 1997; Rivera-Batiz, 1992), other variations within TESOL-related qualifications may also define the different sets of skills and knowledge ALTs have learned (e.g., university and non-university, see Kanowski, 2004), and thus may influence the differing perceptions of their work. In order to examine the potential influence of these variations upon job satisfaction, the categories reported here are also defined as predictor variables for the forthcoming regression analysis.

Titles of TESOL-related qualifications. One of the most extensive variations emerged when the titles of the 110 TESOL-related qualifications were examined (Table 14). Several features can be discussed here. First and foremost, the variation in the titles was so extreme that one could argue easily that each and every qualification in this group had a different name across all levels. The result seems to support Govardhan et al. (1999) who identified 120 different titles for a Master's degree in TESOL in the U.S. and Canada. This particular characteristic has made it difficult to define the term *TESOL qualifications* by their titles in this field of enquiry, which appears to support the definition of the term adopted in the present study.

Second, as indicated earlier, TESOL-related qualifications in the study appear to have included certain types of the qualifications that may not be categorised as "TESOL qualifications" by somewhat more conservative definitions (or perceptions) of the term. Some titles included frequently-used acronyms (e.g., TESOL, TEFL) or equivalent (e.g., Teaching English as a Foreign Language) that indicated the direct relevance to the field of TESOL; others represented wider discipline areas such as

education, applied linguistics, arts, journalism, English, or Japanese (especially at bachelor's level, see further). While many would agree a Master's of TESOL or Cambridge Certificate in TESOL are considered as *TESOL qualifications*, fewer may agree to include other qualifications such as Diploma in Higher Irish, Bachelor of Fine Arts, Bachelor of Journalism/Arts (Japanese), or Masters in Multicultural Counselling. For this reason the results presented in this section should be interpreted with some caution, as the broad definition of the term *TESOL-related qualification* may have affected results (e.g., the relatively higher proportion compared with other studies of participants who have a TESOL-related qualification, as previously mentioned). Nonetheless, the results here appear to have identified a reality that exists in TESOL context in Japan, where teachers self-reported learning their TESOL-related skills and knowledge in a variety of qualifications, including those that may not be classed as *TESOL qualifications* when defined in a more conservative manner.

Third, some different trends at different levels of these qualifications were found (Table 14). At the certificate level, for instance, all awards seemed to have been designed specifically for those wishing to teach English as a foreign or second language. This was confirmed with titles that included acronyms such as TESOL, TEFL, or TESL. If these acronyms were used to define the term *TESOL qualifications*, then most qualifications at this level would have been included.

At the diploma, graduate certificate, or master's levels, variations in the titles were slightly more diverse. Other disciplines such as education or applied linguistics began appearing in the list at these levels. The majority, however, were still in disciplines that are arguably relevant to TESOL or teaching in general.

Table 14. *Titles of TESOL-related qualifications*

Degree level	Name of the qualification
Certificate	• TEFL Certificate • TESOL Certificate • TEFL Certificate (integrated in a Bachelor degree in humanities and arts) • TESL Certificate (integrated in a Bachelor degree in humanities and arts) • TESOL Certificate (integrated in a Bachelor degree in humanities and arts) • Advanced Certificate in English Language Teaching • Trinity Certificate in TESOL • Adam's County ESL Certification (integrated in a Bachelor degree in humanities and arts) • Oxford English Seminars TEFL/TESL 60-hour Certification • TEFL practical 20-hour certificate • Royal Society of the Arts Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults • Cambridge Certificate in TESOL (CELTA) • (Certificate)* TEFL • (Certificate)* TESL & Teaching Business English
Diploma	• Diploma in Higher Irish • Diploma in Teaching English as a Foreign Language • Diploma in Primary Education (the title given with Bachelor of Education by the participant) • Higher Diploma in Education (one entered as a Masters level; another as Graduate Certificate)
Bachelor	• Bachelor of Education • Bachelor of Arts in Elementary Education • Bachelor of Fine Arts (Art Education) • Bachelor of Arts in the Humanities (Linguistics and Applied Language Theory, with an integrated Postgraduate Certificate in TESOL) • Bachelor of Arts (Applied Languages) • Bachelor of Arts (Linguistics) • Bachelor of Arts (English) • Bachelor of Arts in English & Linguistics • Bachelor of Arts (honours) in TESOL and a Modern Language (Japanese) • Bachelor of Arts (honours) in Japanese Language and Culture • Bachelor of Arts (honours) in Drama • Bachelor of Linguistics • Bachelor of Journalism/Arts (Japanese) • Bachelor of Arts (Journalism)

	• Bachelor of Arts • Bachelor of Arts (International) • Bachelor in Japanese Studies • Bachelor of Arts in History/Geography • Bachelor of Arts in Sociology • Anthropology Bachelor of Arts • Bachelor of Arts in Psychology • Bachelor of Liberal Studies • Bachelor of Science in English as a Second Language Education K-12 • International Business Management Studies International Bachelor Studies • (Bachelor)* TESL • (Bachelor)* TESOL • (Bachelor)* TEFL • (Bachelor)* TEFL/TESL • (Bachelor)* Linguistics • (Bachelor)* Japanese Linguistics • (Bachelor)* Secondary English Education (with an integrated Certificate in TESL) • (Bachelor)* Town Planning • (Bachelor)* Speech Therapy
Graduate Certificate	• Postgraduate Certificate in Education • Postgraduate Certificate in TESOL (integrated as part of a BA degree as above) • (Postgraduate Certificate)* Online Instructional Design • Postgraduate Certificate in Primary Education • Graduate Diploma in Education (entered as Graduate Certificate) • Graduate Diploma in Secondary Education (entered as Graduate Certificate)
Masters	• Master of Science in English Language Teaching Management • Master of Science in Education in TESOL • Master of Science (TESOL) • Masters in Secondary Education • Master of Arts in English Language Teaching • Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics • Masters in English • Master of TESOL • Master of Education (TESOL) • Master of Education • Master of Arts in TESOL • Master of Arts in Teaching, Curriculum Development and Instruction • Master of Arts in Writing, Editing and Publishing • Master of Arts in Drama and Theatre Education

	• Master of Philosophy (Applied Linguistics) • (Masters)* Multicultural counselling
Other	• International Baccalaureate • Juris Doctorate

(Bachelor)* (Masters)* - some respondents indicated the Bachelor or Masters as the level of their degree in the earlier question, but did not specify the level when asked for the actual title of the degree

In contrast to the levels discussed above, bachelor's level qualifications appear to have the most extensive diversity in their names. Qualifications at this level include those that would not be categorised as *TESOL qualifications* under some other definitions. These include degrees in various areas such as journalism, drama, psychology, liberal studies, or Japanese. As mentioned earlier, the diversity in qualifications at this level should be taken into account when interpreting the results in the present study.

Nonetheless, if the titles of these qualifications are indicative of the skills and knowledge acquired by participants, then the result here may indicated that teachers with TESOL skills perceive a range of skills and knowledge as being relevant to TESOL. For instance, while sharing the learners' first language has often been discussed as an advantage for so-called non-native speaker teachers of English (e.g., Harbord, 1992; Meyer, 2008), some perceived native speaker teachers in the study also seemed to consider knowledge in Japanese as being relevant to TESOL in their specific work context (e.g., BA in Japanese language and culture). Others have previously argued that drama is an effective approach for teaching foreign languages (Giebert, 2014; Holden, 1981; Zafeiriadou, 2009), with which some participants seem to agree. A participant with a Juris Doctorate commented: "I learned how to write clearly and simply", which shows another aspect of skills and knowledge perceived to be relevant to TESOL.

It is acknowledged that the adequacy of the broader definition of the term *TESOL qualifications* adopted in this study, and thus the inclusion of some of the above qualifications as *TESOL-related qualifications*, may have been controversial. If, however, the knowledge base in TESOL teacher education is still developing and often lacks consensus (Miller et al., 2009; Schulz, 2000), and also if teachers often fail to apply to their classroom practice any new skills and knowledge they encounter during their teacher education (Bartels, 2005), then a broader range of skills and knowledge that teachers believe are relevant to their job should have some grounds for inclusion.

Academic levels. Table 15 summarises the academic levels found among the 110 TESOL-related qualifications. The majority (70%) of these qualifications was completed at the undergraduate levels (certificate, diploma, and bachelor). More than 40% of those qualifications was completed at the bachelor's level, which was more than twice as large as the proportion of those at the master's level (21%). This was a unique result because TESOL teacher education is typically offered at the postgraduate level. Christopher (2005), for instance, listed 424 programs in TESOL offered in the U.S. and Canada; among these programs, more than 60% were at the postgraduate level, including 179 master's programs (42%) and 57 graduate certificate programs (13%). Only 51 programs (12%) were at the bachelor's level.

Table 15. *Academic levels found among the 110 TESOL-related qualifications*

Academic level	Number of qualifications	% within 110 qualifications
Certificate	27	24%
Diploma	3	3%
Bachelor	47	43%
Postgraduate Certificate	8	7%
Masters	23	21%
Other	2	2%
Total	110	100%

A number of reasons for the above result could be considered. First, as seen earlier (see Table 5), the eligibility criteria of the JET program may have affected the types (levels) of the qualifications that this group of teachers possessed. The large proportion of participants who held a bachelor's degree as their highest qualification has been confirmed earlier in this study, and this characteristic of the sample group may have affected the levels of the TESOL-related qualifications here.

Second, the data were likely to have included TESOL programs completed in various countries other than the U.S. or Canada. Given the variety of nationalities of teachers in the study confirmed earlier, there may have been some different trends among TESOL teacher education offered in those countries, which may have differentiated the data here to those found in Christopher (2005).

Third, the broad definition of the term TESOL-related qualifications in the present study may have been influential. As discussed earlier, TESOL-related qualifications at the bachelor level appear to have included a wide range of qualifications, including those which may not be categorised as TESOL qualifications under other definitions (e.g., Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Speech Therapy, see other titles in Table 14). Such inclusions may have increased the proportion of qualifications at the Bachelor level, and thus some caution may be

required when the results are interpreted, especially when variables include the TESOL-related qualifications at Bachelor level.

Fields of study and the local teaching accreditation status. Table 16 shows the fields of study and the local teaching accreditation status of the 110 TESOL-related qualifications. While some may assume that ESOL teachers would have learned TESOL-related skills and knowledge in one of the education-related qualifications, the data presented here certainly did not support such an assumption. While the qualifications in the Education field were the largest group of all academic fields ($n = 50$, 45%), many other TESOL-related qualifications were completed in the field of Humanities and arts ($n = 45$, 41%). Indeed more than half of the 110 TESOL-related qualifications ($n = 60$, 55%) were completed in fields other than Education.

Table 16. *Fields of study and the local teaching accreditation status of the 110 TESOL-related qualifications were completed*

Category	Variations	Numbers of qualifications	% within the 110 qualifications
Fields of study	Education	50	45%
	Humanities and arts	45	41%
	Social science, business & law	7	6%
	Engineering, manufacturing & construction	1	1%
	Health & welfare	2	2%
	Other	5	5%
	Total	**110**	**100%**
Accreditation for local teaching	Yes	40	36%
	No or not applicable	70	64%
	Total	**110**	**100%**

Similarly, less than 40% of the 110 TESOL-related qualifications ($n = 40$, 36%) accredited participants for local teaching in their home country (Table 16); thus, the majority of the TESOL-related qualifications ($n = 70$, 64%) did not allow participants to teach in their local context. These qualifications may have included some of the existing TESOL teacher education programs that aimed to prepare teachers for teaching overseas, but not necessarily for local teaching.

The data here re-confirms what was argued earlier in the chapter: ESOL teachers may have learned their perceived TESOL-related skills and knowledge while completing not just education-focused qualifications, but also those across a wider range of academic fields such as Humanities/Arts, and to a lesser extent Social science/Business/Law. The results suggest that future employers may choose to narrow the required academic qualifications of teacher candidates to these areas of qualifications.

Type of provider, required length of study, and the requirement for language learning. Table 17 summarises the characteristics in terms of the type of provider, the required length of study, and the requirement for learning a language other than English (LOTE). The majority of TESOL-related qualifications ($n = 83$, 75%) were completed at university-level institutions. Surprisingly, despite the vast availability of TESOL courses offered at private institutions in many parts of the world – for example, see the result of a Google search using the keywords "TESOL courses" – fewer than 20% of the 110 qualifications in the study were offered by these private institutions ($n = 18$, 16%). The relatively large proportion of teachers in the sample who learned their TESOL skills as part of a bachelor's degree may have contributed to this result.

Table 17. *Type of provider, required length of study, and the requirement for language learning*

Category	Variations	Numbers of qualifications	% within the 110 qualifications
Type of provider	University	83	75%
	Vocational school	6	6%
	Other government organisation	1	1%
	Private organisation	18	16%
	Other	2	2%
	Total	**110**	**100%**
Required length of study	Less than 20 hours	5	4%
	21 - 60 hours	14	13%
	61 - 100 hours	5	4%
	101 - 150 hours	16	15%
	151 - 200 hours	13	12%
	More than 200 hours	45	41%
	Other	12	11%
	Total	**110**	**100%**
LOTE* requirement	Not required	61	55%
	Recommended	17	16%
	Strongly recommended	2	2%
	Required	29	26%
	Other	1	1%
	Total	**110**	**100%**

* Language other than English

The result was more disperse in terms of required length of study. While a little more than 40% of TESOL-related qualifications required more than 200 study hours ($n = 45$, 41%), the required hours in the other qualifications varied from less than 20 hours ($n = 5$, 4%) to between 151 and 200 hours ($n = 13$, 15%). As mentioned earlier, study length may relate to the types of skills and knowledge that are focused on in TESOL courses (Kanowski, 2004), and thus may influence worker job satisfaction via skill (mis)match. Furthermore, there appears to be some

inconsistency in the required study hours within qualifications at the same levels (e.g., 20 hours or 60 hours for a certificate, see the titles in Table 14). Therefore, the length of study hours required in the qualifications was recoded as an independent variable, and placed as a predictor variable in the regression models (see Chapter 7).

The qualifications also varied in their requirement for competence in a language other than English (LOTE). While more than half of the 110 qualifications ($n = 61$, 55%) required no competence in LOTE, a considerable proportion had either required ($n = 29$, 26%) or (strongly) recommended ($n = 19$, 18%) competence in LOTE as part of their program.

The data seem to confirm what appeared to be the emerging trend in the existing TESOL teacher education programs in the U.S., and Canada (Christopher, 2005). It should be noted here, however, that the earlier examination of the titles of the TESOL-related qualifications in this study (Table 14) confirmed a number of qualifications that carried majors or minors in LOTE (e.g., Bachelor of Arts in Japanese Language and Culture). Those qualifications would inevitably require a certain level of mastery of and competency in LOTE.

Nonetheless, some claimed that teachers' own language learning experience helped teachers to develop their empathy with their own learners (e.g., Medgyes, 1992; Meyer, 2008), as discussed in Chapter 2. Therefore, it will be interesting to examine the extent to which this particular characteristic within TESOL-related qualifications influences teachers' professional lives. For this reason, the LOTE requirement was included in the regression models (see Chapter 7).

Number of units/courses completed. Table 18 summarises the number of units/courses (i.e., the individual subjects which make up the study required for the qualification) that were completed towards the completion of the participants' TESOL-related qualifications. Again, these qualifications varied widely in this aspect, ranging from less than five units ($n = 17$, 16% of 110 qualifications) to more than 20 units ($n = 39$, 35%).

Similar to observations on the required length of the study earlier, teachers may have acquired different skills and knowledge that were related to TESOL when completing the different number of units/courses in their qualifications, which may affect their perceptions of their professional lives. Therefore, the number of units/courses completed was also recoded and entered into the regression models (Chapter 7).

Table 18. *Number of units/courses completed in the TESOL related qualifications*

Category	Variations	Numbers of qualifications	% within the 110 qualifications
Number of units completed	1 to 5	17	16%
	6 to 10	12	11%
	11 to 15	20	18%
	16 to 20	10	9%
	More than 20	39	35%
	Other	12	11%
	Total	110	100%

Contents studied in units/courses. Again, contents studied in the above units/courses appear to have added further variations to the 110 TESOL-related qualifications in the study. As seen in Table 19, more than 30 different subjects and topics were identified in the 110 qualifications by ALTs with TESOL skills. The majority of their qualifications (more than 50%) included subjects such as linguistics ($n = 75$, 68%), teaching methodologies ($n = 74$, 67%), lesson planning ($n = 74$, 67%), language and culture ($n = 69$, 63%), material development ($n = 63$, 57%), second language acquisition ($n = 61$, 55%), and a range of strategies and techniques of teaching different skills in language learning ($n = 52 - 60$, 55 –47%).

These subjects seem to be very similar to those reported in Govardhan et al. (1999). Using the data from the *Directory of Professional Preparation Programs in TESOL in the United States and Canada, 1995 – 1997* (Garshick, 1998), Govardhan et al. examined core TESOL courses at 194 institutions in the U.S. and Canada. The majority of these institutions were found to typically offer courses such as *linguistics* (62%), *TESL methodology* (61%), *teaching practicum* (53%), *materials development* (46%), *second language acquisition* (49%), *testing* (47%), and *language and culture* (36%). While teaching practicum may not appear to be a major subject in TESOL-related qualifications in the present study, this is probably because different types of teaching practicum have been sub-categorised separately (e.g., *supervised teaching, unsupervised teaching, observation*). Such sub-categorisation may have resulted in the relatively smaller proportions of each type of practicum. As discussed further in this study, more than 40% of the reported TESOL-related qualifications had teaching practicum as compulsory part of the program (see Table 20).

Table 19. *Subjects studied in 110 TESOL related qualifications*

Subjects/topics studied	Count	% within 110 qualifications
Linguistics (structure of English, grammar, syntax, morphology)	75	68%
Teaching methodologies	74	67%
Lesson planning	74	67%
Language and culture	69	63%
Material/resource development	63	57%
Second language acquisition	61	55%
Strategies and techniques of teaching listening	60	55%
Strategies and techniques of teaching reading	60	55%
Strategies and techniques of teaching writing	59	54%
Strategies and techniques of teaching speaking	58	53%
Strategies and techniques of teaching grammar	57	52%
Strategies and techniques of teaching pronunciation	52	47%
Assessment/testing	49	45%
Curriculum design	49	45%
Classroom/behaviour management	48	44%
Research methods and design	47	43%
Research project	46	42%
Teaching practicum (teaching observation)	44	40%
Sociolinguistics	42	38%
Teaching practicum (assessed teaching)	40	36%
Teaching practicum (supervised teaching)	40	36%
Error analysis/contrastive analysis	39	35%
Teaching English for specific purpose	38	35%
Technology for teaching language	37	34%
Context/situation/needs analysis	37	34%
Reflective teaching	36	33%
Discourse analysis	35	32%
Bilingual education	33	30%
Teaching practicum (unsupervised teaching)	28	25%
Immersion education	27	25%
Teaching English for academic purpose	26	24%
Teaching practicum (other)	14	13%
School administration and management	12	11%
Other	10	9%

The comparison between subjects completed in TESOL-related qualifications in the present study and those reported in Govardhan et al. (1999) suggest a few implications. First, the contents of subjects covered in TESOL teacher education may not have changed dramatically at least over the past two decades. This seems to lend support to the idea presented by Miller et al. (2009), who reviewed many teacher education programs in TESOL at Australian universities, and concluded that content selection in existing programs was still based on "tradition and personal opinion of the languages teacher educators" (p. 204). If the subject selection in TESOL programs requires revision, and perhaps some different approaches (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Tarone & Allwright, 2005), one reasonable initial step may be to explore the impact of existing subjects upon teachers' professional lives. As a contribution to this step, the present study has included some sub-groups of subjects found here as the predictor variables, and examined if and how these variables influence teacher professional lives through the lens of their job satisfaction.

Second, the results here seem to indicate that TESOL-related qualifications in the study consisted largely of subjects that typically constituted *TESOL programs* under other somewhat narrower definitions (e.g., Garshick, 1998). Although the TESOL-related qualifications in this study may include some broader types of qualifications that may not otherwise be categorised as *TESOL qualifications*, both groups of qualifications seem to have certain components of programs that were commonly studied, regardless of the definition of the qualification.

If we can assume that these subjects and topics represented the skills and knowledge that these teachers gained through these qualifications, then there appear to be certain skill sets that are commonly perceived by overseas teachers in Japan to be relevant to the work of TESOL. This has further narrowed down the types of

academic qualifications that future employees may emphasise during the recruitment process of the outsourced teachers from overseas.

Teaching practicum. The final category examined in this section is related to the variations found within the teaching practicum (Table 20). Of the 110 TESOL-related qualifications, a little more than 40 % ($n = 45$) included some kind of teaching practicum as a compulsory component of the qualifications. Together with a few other qualifications that had optional practicum, 45% ($n = 49$) of the TESOL-related qualifications had some form of the teaching practicum component. Among these 49 programs, the majority included *teaching observation* ($n = 44$), *assessed teaching* ($n = 40$), and *supervised teaching* ($n = 40$, all in Table 19). Interestingly, a relatively large number of the programs included *unsupervised* teaching ($n = 28$).

Further variations discovered within these teaching practicum components are summarised in Table 20. Similar to the other categories discussed above, the teaching practicum component appears to differ from program to program. This has added another layer of diversity to the TESOL-related qualifications in the study. For example, the duration of the practicum ranged from less than one week ($n = 9$) to more than 17 weeks ($n = 11$). While many participants were required to teach for some considerable hours, a few seem to have completed "observation only" practicum, in which they were not required to teach at all ($n = 3$, 6%). Teachers in the study appear to have undertaken their practicum with students who had different levels of English proficiency, in different class sizes, and at different types of institutions.

While teachers were often reported to value their experience in teaching practicum in their teacher education course (Chiang, 2008; Numrich, 1996; Richards, Ho, & Giblin, 1996), the data here suggests that teacher practicum experience may differ from program to program, and therefore may have different influences on practicing teachers. However, perhaps due to the lack of variation, the influence, if any, of different characteristics of teaching practicum on teachers' professional lives appears to remain under-explored in the present literature. Such a gap in the literature could be vital for teachers and teacher educators in some TESOL contexts, because many ESOL teachers may not share the same practicum experience while teaching in the same work context. It is, therefore, worth including the variations discovered here as predictor variables into later regression analyses (see Chapter 7).

Table 20. *Variations within "teaching practicum" in 110 TESOL related qualifications* (*Multiple responses allowed)

Variable		Count	% within 49 programs
Requirement	Compulsory	45	92%
	Optional	4	8%
Duration	Less than 1 week	9	19%
	1 - 4 weeks	10	21%
	5 - 8 weeks	4	8%
	9 - 12 weeks	8	16%
	13 - 16 weeks	7	14%
	17 weeks or longer	11	22%
Length of teaching during practicum	Not required at all	3	6%
	1 - 10 hours	11	22%
	11 - 20 hours	9	19%
	21 - 30 hours	4	8%
	31 - 40 hours	7	14%
	41 - 50 hours	1	2%
	51 hours or longer	12	25%
	Other	2	4%
Institution type(s)*	Early Childhood	3	6%
	Elementary school	10	20%
	Junior high school	5	10%
	Senior high school	16	33%
	Vocational School	6	12%
	University	15	31%
	Private language school	11	22%
	Other	2	4%
Students' proficiency level*	Beginner	26	53%
	Intermediate	39	80%
	Advanced	29	59%
	Other	4	8%
Class size	Less than 5	2	4%
	5 to 10	15	31%
	11 to 20	13	27%
	21 to 30	11	22%
	More than 30	8	16%

Section 5: Job Characteristics

　　Years of work experience as ALT. Table 21 summarises years of work experience as ALTs for the current and the former groups. As expected from previous studies that pointed out the temporary nature of an ALT position in general (Geluso, 2013; McConnell, 2000; Okunuki & Carlet, 2012), the majority of participants had very limited years of experience as ALTs in both groups.

　　For the current group (*n* = 132), nearly one-third (*n* = 41, 31%) were in their first year as ALTs, and more than half had less than two years of experience (*n* = 71, 54%). In the group of former ALTs (*n* = 100), while the vast majority (*n* = 95, 95%) had worked beyond their first year, more than one-third had less than two years' experience (*n* = 35, 35%). More than 60% left their ALT position within three years (*n* = 66, 66%). In total, nearly half of the 232 participants worked less than two years (*n* = 106, 46%), and nearly 70% had less than three years of work experience as ALTs (*n* = 154, 67%).

Table 21. *Years of work experience as ALTs by their present working status*

		Frequency Current ALTs (% within all current ALTs, *n* = 132)	Frequency Former ALTs (% within all former ALTs, *n* = 100)	Total Frequency (% within all participants, *N* = 232)
Valid	Less than 1 year	41 (31%)	5 (5%)	46 (20%)
	1 - 2 years	30 (23%)	30 (30%)	60 (26%)
	2 - 3 years	17 (13%)	31 (31%)	48 (21%)
	3 - 4 years	16 (12%)	21 (21%)	37 (16%)
	4 - 5 years	7 (5%)	3 (3%)	10 (4%)
	5 years or longer	21 (16%)	10 (10%)	31 (13%)
	Sub-total	132 (100%)	100 (100%)	---
Total		232	232	232 (100%)

JET ALTs. The above results were not surprising because, as mentioned earlier, the JET program selectively hires ALTs who have little or no experience in teaching as ALTs (Goldberg, 1995), and all positions in the program are primarily for young participants on a temporary basis for up to five years (e.g., CLAIR, 2015a; Geluso, 2013). This unique characteristic of the JET program became distinctively evident when the data were separated between the JET ($n = 183$) and non-JET participants ($n = 41$) excluding former ALTs who had both types of experience ($n = 8$). As summarised in Table 22, more than half of the JET ALTs (the current and former combined, $n = 94$, 51%) had worked for less than two years, and more than 70% had worked for less than three years ($n = 136$, 74%). Only 4% ($n = 7$) of the 183 JET ALTs had worked as ALTs for more than five years.

Non-JET ALTs. By contrast, non-JET ALTs appear to have many more years of experience. Table 22 shows that more than half of the non-JET ALTs ($n = 23$, 56%) worked as ALTs for five years or longer. In total, the majority ($n = 27$, 65%) had more than three years of experience as ALTs. A chi-squared test reveals that there is a significant difference in years of experience between the JET and non-JET groups, and the magnitude of this difference is large ($\chi^2(5) = 78.97$, $\rho < 0.00$, Cramer's $V = 0.59$).

Table 22. *Years of work experience as ALTs by employment types (JET or non-JET) cross-tabulation*

			JET or Non-JET		
			JET	Non-JET	Total
Number of years worked	Less than 1 year	Count	42	4	46
		% within JET or Non-JET	23%	10%	21%
	1 - 2 years	Count	52	6	58
		% within JET or Non-JET	28%	15%	26%
	2 - 3 years	Count	42	4	46
		% within JET or Non-JET	23%	10%	21%
	3 - 4 years	Count	31	3	34
		% within JET or Non-JET	17%	7%	15%
	4 - 5 years	Count	9	1	10
		% within JET or Non-JET	5%	2%	4%
	5 years or longer	Count	7	23	30
		% within JET or Non-JET	4%	56%	13%
Total		Count	183	41	224
		% within JET or Non-JET	100%	100%	100%

The longer work experience of non-JET ALTs makes sense when considered with the earlier findings. As seen earlier, compared to JET participants, non-JET ALTs tend to be older (typically over 36 years, see Figure 6 and Figure 7), and also have lived in Japan for a longer period (typically six years or longer, see Figure 11 and Figure 12). This group of ALTs were older, had lived in Japan longer, and were more experienced as ALTs in Japan. Similar to the earlier discussion on the educational backgrounds of non-JET ALTs (see Section 3 above), many non-JET ALTs may have been working after their participation in the JET program. As

mentioned earlier in this chapter, approximately one-third of the current non-JET ALTs ($n = 11$) in the study worked as ALTs after finishing previous work as JET ALTs. Among former ALTs ($n = 100$), eight confirmed they had worked both as JET and no-JET ALTs in the past.

Also, as more and more local board of education offices hire ALTs through commercial dispatch agents (MEXT, 2009), these agents may need to be increasingly competitive in the expanding ALT dispatch market (Takahara, 2008). Along with either superior or more academic qualifications related to education or TESOL held by contracted teachers, longer experience may help these agents demonstrate the quality of their contracted teachers to their clients (e.g., the board of education offices), resulting in this particular characteristic of the non-JET ALTs in Japan.

The data seem to agree with Simone-Maeda (2004), who argues more and more ESOL teachers are starting their own families and settling down in Japan on a permanent basis. Many individual ESOL teachers in Japan may now be looking for "long-term employment with benefits, opportunities for upward mobility and satisfaction of being recognised and identifying oneself as a professional" (Geluso, 2013, p. 95). Therefore, there seems to be a need to reconsider public perceptions that since the 1860s have regarded foreign workers as a temporary labour force in Japan (Fujimoto-Adamson, 2006; Imura, 2003). However, although a considerable number of the ALTs in the study seem to have worked as the ALTs for some extended years, they still seem to have been given only a one-year contract (Table 23). The data shows nearly 90% of the ALTs ($n = 202$, 88%) were given a one-year or shorter contract. ALTs in Japan still seem to remain as a temporary labour force in the education sector in terms of length of contract, despite the length of experience some ALTs had.

Table 23. *Length of contract provided for the ALTs*

Length of contract	Counts	% within 232 participants
Shorter than 1 year	6	3%
1 year	196	85%
2 years	18	8%
3 years	8	3%
4 years or longer	3	1%
Other	1	0%
Total	232	100%

Instead of continuing to treat these teachers as a temporary workforce, the education sector may have to consider ALTs as part of the long-term or even permanent labour force in Japan to fill the gaps that exist in the work environment surrounding those workers/teachers and local teachers (Okunuki & Carlet, 2012). The data in this chapter presents the preliminary data on ALT professional lives, together with the perceptions of their work by both JET and non-JET groups of ESOL teachers in Japan.

Salary. Table 24 summarises the salary of ALTs participating in the study. The result is rather surprising, because based on the official documents in the JET program (e.g., CLAIR, 2015a), it was predicted that there would not be much variation in salaries, at least among the JET participants ($n = 183$). All the participants in the JET program were said to receive approximately 3,600,000 yen per annum after Japanese income and inhabitation taxes (CLAIR, 2015b) regardless of years of experience as a JET ALT before April 2012. This is equivalent to 300,000 yen per month (approximately US$2,800). For those who commenced the program in or after April 2012, first-year JET ALTs received 3.36 million yen (approximately Y280K or US$ 2,600 per month) before income tax and local inhabitant taxes (CLAIR, 2015b). The remuneration was to be increased to 3.6 million yen in a

second year of appointment (approximately Y300K or US$2,800 per month), and 3.9

million in the third year (approximately Y325K or US$3,000 per month) according

to the *General Information Handbook* for all the JET participants (CLAIR, 2015b).

Table 24. *Monthly salary for the 232 ALTs in the study*

Salary range	Counts	% within 232 participants
Less than Y200, 000 (approx. US$1,800 or less)	5	2%
Y200, 001-230K	20	9%
Y230, 001-260K	32	14%
Y260, 001-290K	47	20%
Y290, 001-320K	77	33%
Y320, 001-350K	19	8%
Y350, 001-380K	20	9%
Y380, 001 or more (approx. US$3,500 or more)	5	2%
Missing	7	3%

Since the majority of participants in the present study are JET ALTs ($n = 183$)

with less than three years of experience (see Table 22), the monthly salary for the

majority of participants should have fallen somewhere between 260,000 yen and

350,000 yen. While more than 60% of the participants ($n = 143$, 53%) were receiving

a salary in these ranges, a considerable number of the participants were paid salaries

in lower or higher ranges. A quarter of the participants were receiving less than

260,000 yen ($n = 57$, 25%), and a little more than 10% ($n = 25$) were receiving more

than 350,000 yen per month.

One factor that could have contributed to these variations is the potential variation in tax ALTs had to pay (CLAIR, 2015a). The amount paid as the local inhabitant tax varies from location to location. Also, each participating country in the JET program appears to have different taxation arrangement for JET participants (CLAIR, 2015a). JET ALTs seem to be paying different amounts of tax depending on tax arrangements between Japan and their home country, which is determined also by the years of experience.

Another factor that may have affected the result, particularly in lower salary ranges, is ALT employment type (i.e., JET or non-JET). While there appears to be no empirical data on the actual salary that non-JET ALTs receive, some argue that non-JET ALTs often receive less salary than JET ALTs, despite the very similar duties performed by these teachers in Japanese schools (Flynn, 2009; Okunuki & Carlet, 2012).

In order to verify their claim, a cross-tabulation table was created between participant employment type (JET or non-JET) and salary (Table 25). A few of the highest and lowest salary ranges were combined to increase the sample size in each range. While JET ALTs were said to receive at least 280,000 yen a month in total, more than half of the non-JET ALTs in the study ($n = 22$, 53%) received less than 260,000 yen a month. This appears to agree with Flynn (2009), who reports that the non-JET ALTs typically receive between Y200, 000 and Y245, 000 a month.

Indeed, the proportion of non-JET ALTs in the lowest salary range (i.e., 230K or less, $n = 10$, 24%) was nearly three times higher than the proportion among JET ALTs ($n = 15$, 9%). A similar trend was observed in the second-lowest salary range, in which nearly 30% of non-JET ALTs ($n = 12$, 29%) fell, whereas only 10% of the JET ALTs ($n = 18$) received a salary in this range. By contrast, the proportion

of non-JET ALTs in the highest salary range (i.e., 320,001 or more, $n = 5$, 12%) was just more than half of the proportion of JET ALTs in the same range ($n = 37$, 21%).

Not surprisingly, the chi-squared test revealed that ALT salaries indeed differed by employment type at a significant level [$\chi^2(4) = 21.55$, $\rho = 0.000$, Cramer's $V = 0.315$]. The causes for this discrepancy remain unknown. As some have been arguing (Flynn, 2009; Okunuki & Carlet, 2012) however, this may be a result of the current system in which commercial dispatch agents deduct some proportion from the payment that board of education offices makes for each of the dispatched ALTs (e.g., 40% according to Flynn, 2009).

The surprisingly dispersed ranges in ALT salaries provide the opportunity for the present study to investigate the potential effect of this job characteristic on ALT job satisfaction. As many economics studies have suggested, salary – particularly relative salary (e.g., relative to what others are receiving in the same job) – has been known to be one of the significant determinants of worker job satisfaction (e.g., Clark, 1997; Lydon & Chevalier, 2002). This is further explored in Chapter 8.

Table 25. *Cross tabulation table for salary range for the JET or Non-JET ALTs*

| | | | JET or Non-JET* | | Total |
			JET	Non-JET	
Salary range	230K or less	Count	15	10	25
		% within JET or Non-JET	9%	24%	12%
	Y230,001-260K	Count	18	12	30
		% within JET or Non-JET	10%	29%	14%
	Y260,001-290K	Count	39	6	45
		% within JET or Non-JET	22%	15%	21%
	Y290, 001-320K	Count	67	8	75
		% within JET or Non-JET	38%	20%	35%
	Y320, 001 or over	Count	37	5	42
		% within JET or Non-JET	21%	12%	19%
Total		Count	176	41	217*
		% within JET or Non-JET	100%	100%	100%

*Excluding the former ALTs who had experienced both JET and Non-JET ALTs ($n = 8$), in addition to the missing data ($n = 7$)

The number and levels of schools to teach. Table 26 summarises the number of schools at which participants are teaching weekly, together with whether they are teaching at a single or multiple levels of school(s). Overall, the data seems to agree with the literature (Allison & Nash, 2009; Flynn, 2009; McConnell, 2000), which suggests ALTs are often dispatched to a number of schools, instead of teaching at one school only. In the present study, only a quarter of the participants were teaching at a single school ($n = 58$, 25%), and the remaining majority was teaching at more

than one school ($n = 174$, 75%). While many of those who teach at multiple schools were teaching only at two ($n = 61$, 26%) or three schools ($n = 55$, 24%), a considerable number of the ALTs were teaching at four schools ($n = 28$, 12%), or even five or more schools ($n = 30$, 13%).

Table 26. *Number of schools at which the ALTs were teaching per week; and whether they were teaching at single level or multiple levels of schools*

Category	Groups	Counts	% within each category
Average number of schools to teach weekly	1	58	25%
	2	61	26%
	3	55	24%
	4	28	12%
	5 or more	30	13%
	Total	232	100%
Teaching across different levels of schools?	No	93	40%
	Yes	139	60%
	Total	232	100%

Moreover, when ALTs worked at several schools, many appear to have been dispatched to schools across different levels. Of 174 ALTs teaching at multiple schools, nearly 80% were teaching across different levels ($n = 139$, 79.8%). While 40% of all the participants ($n = 93$) were teaching at school(s) at a single level, this figure ($n = 93$) included those who were teaching at one school only ($n = 58$). Therefore, only 20% of those who were teaching at several schools ($n = 35$) taught at schools of the same level.

Table 27 shows the level(s) of schools at which all ALTs were teaching in Japan (multiple responses were allowed). Overall, the majority taught at one or more junior high schools (JHSs, $n = 159$, 69%), and also at one or more elementary schools ($n = 135$, 58%). While there appears to be no official data on ALTs working

at kindergartens, the study confirms that a little more than 20% ($n = 48$, 21%) taught at one or more kindergartens whilst in Japan.

In contrast to the large number of the ALTs teaching at elementary and JHSs, relatively fewer ALTs were teaching at one or more senior high schools (SHSs, $n = 82$, 35%). This is an interesting finding, given that the number of class hours in which ALTs are engaged is more than five times larger at senior high schools than at elementary or junior high schools (e.g., MEXT, 2009, 2014).

Table 27. *Levels of schools at which the participants had worked in Japan*

Level of schools	Counts	% within all participants ($N = 232$)
Kindergarten	48	21%
Elementary	135	58%
JHS*	159	69%
SHS**	82	35%

* Junior high school. ** Senior high school.

In order to explore this further, the data were separated between those who taught at a single level of school(s) ($n = 93$), and those who were teaching across multiple levels ($n = 139$). The majority of those who taught at a single level ($n = 56$, 60%) were found to teach at SHSs. None of the participants were teaching only at kindergartens, and very few were teaching only at one or more elementary schools ($n = 8$). By contrast, the vast majority of those who were teaching across multiple levels of schools ($n = 139$) was teaching at elementary schools ($n = 127$), and also at JHSs ($n = 130$). The proportion of those who were teaching at SHSs was the least among the four groups ($n = 26$).

The above seems to suggest that ALTs who teach at SHSs tend to be dispatched only to the same level, whereas when they are dispatched to other levels

of schools, they were likely to be sent to schools at different levels than the SHS. Furthermore, when the levels of school are examined only within those who were teaching at a single school ($n = 58$), it was confirmed that nearly 60% of ALTs ($n = 33$) were teaching at an SHS. ALTs who worked at SHS level were then often based only at that school. These results may suggest that there were sufficient class hours to hire full-time ALTs within the single SHS, whereas that may not be the case at schools at other levels where class hours could be a lot less, and therefore, the ALTs may have to be dispatched across different levels of schools.

Class size. Table 28 summarises the size of class per level of school(s) in which ALTs were teaching in Japan. According to the Organisation for Economics Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2012), class sizes at Japanese schools are among the largest in OECD nations. In their report, for instance, the average class size at junior high school was said to be 32 (OECD, 2012). The data in this study seems to confirm firstly that the size of the class at Japanese schools in which ALTs teach is indeed large. Secondly, class size seems to increase as the age of the children increases from elementary school or above.

As seen in Table 28, for instance, 30% of ALTs who taught at elementary schools (40 of 135) reported that class size was on average 31 or larger. At JHSs, 44% of ALTs reported the same size ($n = 71$). The proportion was the largest at senior high level, where more than half of ALTs who taught at that level ($n = 47$, 57%) indicated that average class size was larger than 31.

Table 28. *Size of class per level of school(s) in which ALTs teach in Japan*

Category	Groups	Total (% within category)
Kindergarten	10 students or less	7 (15%)
	11-20	21 (43%)
	21-30	12 (25%)
	31-40	6 (13%)
	41 or more	2 (4%)
	Total	48 (100%)
Elementary	10 students or less	12 (9%)
	11-20	30 (22%)
	21-30	53 (39%)
	31-40	37 (28%)
	41 or more	3 (2%)
	Total	135 (100%)
Junior high school	10 students or less	11 (7%)
	11-20	16 (10%)
	21-30	60 (38%)
	31-40	69 (43%)
	41 or more	2 (1%)
	Missing	1 (1%)
	Total	159
Senior high school	10 students or less	2 (2%)
	11-20	8 (10%)
	21-30	24 (29%)
	31-40	42 (51%)
	41 or more	5 (6%)
	Missing	1 (0%)
	Total	82 (100%)

Roles. Figure 14 summarises ALT perceived roles by school level. In an attempt to help the readers to compare the data across different levels of school, each bar graph represents the percentage of ALTs who confirmed their teaching experience at that particular level (i.e., kindergartens $n = 48$, elementary schools $n = 135$, junior high schools $n = 159$, senior high schools $n = 82$, see Table 27). While the roles and responsibilities of ALTs in the JET program have never been officially defined (CLAIR, 2015a), the following data clarifies what participating ALTs were actually doing at each level of school in Japan.

Overall, participants seem to have performed roles similar to those reported in earlier studies (Mahoney, 2004; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012; Shimizu et al., 2015). The majority of participants indicate that their main roles were associated with helping students in oral communication in English, such as:

- Offering conversational and pronunciation models in English to their students (60% at the kindergartens, 86% at elementary schools, 94% at JHSs, and 98% at SHSs).

- Encouraging their students to speak the language (75%, 87%, 89%, 95%).

- Communicating with students outside class (46%, 72%, 81%, 84%).

- Introducing authentic English-language culture to the class (56%, 81%, 83%, 90%).

- Designing and conducting games and activities (63%, 84%, 80%, 91%).

At the same time, other tasks were performed consistently less frequently by ALTs at all levels. For example, very few seem to perceive disciplining their students as part of their roles (8%, 16%, 14%, and 17% respectively). Also, as Gorsuch (2002,

pp. 14, 19) points out, grammar teaching has been known as the "territory of Japanese teachers", and few ALTs were typically engaged in teaching grammar to Japanese students. More or less, the data here have confirmed this trend. No ALTs were engaged in teaching grammar at kindergartens, and very few at elementary schools (23%). This was probably because a less grammar-focused curriculum was being implemented for younger learners at those levels. While the proportion was larger at the junior and senior high schools, still less than half of ALTs at those levels indicated teaching grammar was part of their roles (36%, 39% respectively).

A number of unique characteristics are worthy of attention. Firstly, the study clarifies ALT roles at kindergartens within the sample of the study. Perhaps because English language education has never been officially introduced at kindergartens, existing studies on ALTs (e.g., Mahoney, 2004; Shimizu et al., 2015) focus almost exclusively on those at elementary schools or above (except for Rutson-Griffiths, 2012). The data here may be some of the first available data on how ALTs are engaged at kindergartens in Japan.

On one hand, the majority of ALTs at kindergartens indicated they were tasked to perform similar tasks to those at higher levels. More than half of ALTs at kindergartens are offering conversational and pronunciation models in English to their students ($n = 29$, 60%); and encouraging their students to speak the language ($n = 36$, 75%). Similarly, the majority are introducing authentic English language culture to the class ($n = 27$, 56%).

	0	20	40	60	80	100

To offer English conversation and pronunciation model/Talk to students.
- Kindergarten: 60% (n = 29)
- Elementary: 86% (n = 116)
- JHS: 94% (n = 150)
- SHS: 98% (n = 80)

To motivate, prompt and encourage students to speak English.
- Kindergarten: 75% (n = 36)
- Elementary: 87 % (n = 117)
- JHS: 89% (n = 141)
- SHS: 95% (n = 78)

To communicate with students outside class.
- Kindergarten: 46% (n = 22)
- Elementary: 72% (n = 97)
- JHS: 81% (n = 128)
- SHS: 84% (n = 69)

To teach grammar/syntax.
- Kindergarten: 0% (n = 0)
- Elementary: 23% (n = 31)
- JHS: 36% (n = 57)
- SHS: 39% (n = 32)

To model, demonstrate, share, and inform authentic English culture.
- Kindergarten: 56% (n = 27)
- Elementary: 81% (n = 110)
- JHS: 83% (n = 132)
- SHS: 90% (n = 74)

To teach English based on the set textbooks.
- Kindergarten: 6% (n = 3)
- Elementary: 59% (n = 79)
- JHS: 74% (n = 117)
- SHS: 67% (n = 55)

To discipline students if necessary.
- Kindergarten: 8% (n = 4)
- Elementary: 16% (n = 21)
- JHS: 14% (n = 23)
- SHS: 17% (n = 14)

To assist Japanese teachers in lesson planning.
- Kindergarten: 10% (n = 5)
- Elementary: 31% (n = 42)
- JHS: 53% (n = 84)
- SHS: 52% (n = 43)

To assist Japanese teachers in communicative activities in class.
- Kindergarten: 19% (n = 9)
- Elementary: 53% (n = 72)
- JHS: 83% (n = 132)
- SHS: 67% (n = 55)

Legend:
- Kindergarten
- Elementary
- JHS
- SHS

Figure 14. ALTs' perceived roles at each school level

On the other hand, certain roles are different at kindergartens to other levels. While it is understandable that some roles are contextually not applicable to the teachers' work at kindergartens (e.g., teaching grammar, using textbooks to teach, participating in club activities), it is interesting to observe the relatively low proportion of ALTs who perceived assisting local teachers as one of their roles. For example, only 10% selected "to assist Japanese teachers in lesson planning" ($n = 5$) as their role. Less than 20% considered "to assist local teachers in communicative activities in class" or "to help Japanese teachers with their English" as part of their role (19%, $n = 9$ for both roles). This suggested ALTs were not really team-teaching with local teachers, but rather teaching and planning independently at this kindergarten level. This was confirmed by the high proportion of those who planned lessons by themselves and also those who acted as a main teacher at this level (65%, $n = 31$; 67%, $n = 32$, respectively).

Secondly, although ALTs are officially expected to contribute to the improvement of local teachers' English proficiency (e.g., McConnell, 2000), not all ALTs appear to have been performing this task, according to their perceptions. Moreover, a smaller number of ALTs were actually helping local teachers at the kindergartens (19%, $n = 9$) and elementary schools (35%, $n = 47$). This was an interesting finding because, as seen earlier, local teachers at these levels were reportedly less proficient in English than those at the junior and senior high levels.

Thirdly, overall, the data seem to suggest the extent to which the roles of the ALTs seemed to be constrained to supportive roles at junior high schools (JHSs). Both the proportion of ALTs who were planning their lessons by themselves (35%, $n = 55$), and also that of ALTs who acted as a main teacher (19%, $n = 31$) were lowest at JHSs. At the same time, the percentage of ALTs assisting Japanese

teachers in lesson planning (53%, $n = 84$) and in communicative activities in class (83%, $n = 132$) was largest at JHSs.

The above result appears to suggest that ALTs and local teachers at JHSs were somehow collaboratively planning their lessons, and then delivering the lessons together. This result appears consistent with Rutson-Griffiths (2012) and Shimizu et al. (2015), where the number of ALTs who collaboratively planned their lessons and then delivered those lessons together was larger at JHSs than other levels.

Interestingly however, the proportion of ALTs who report their role as that of "human tape recorder" was also highest at JHSs (77%, $n = 122$). The ALT Handbook (CLAIR, 2013a, p. 66) officially states that ALTs are often used as a human tape recorder, where they are asked to read aloud or pronounce the written texts. Such a role has frequently been questioned by ALTs since the JET program commenced (Falout, 2013; McConnell, 2000; Miyazato, 2012; Tajino & Walker, 1998). It will not be surprising if such a role has negatively affected ALT perceptions of team-teaching at JHSs. This analysis is further examined through the regression analysis in Chapter 8.

Base location. Table 29 summarises the snapshot of location of ALTs' base school, if any. The base school has been defined in the study as the place where ALTs spend most of their time while not teaching. The unique pattern observed above of the dispatch of ALTs working at SHSs was somewhat reflected within the data for base location. More than 30% ($n = 71$) nominated an SHS as their base location. This was not surprising considering the number of the ALTs who were teaching at a single SHS ($n = 33$) as discussed above.

Table 29. *Base location for all the participants (N = 232)*

Location of base	An office in BoE	39	17%
	A kindergarten	0	0%
	An elementary school	7	3%
	JHS*	90	39%
	SHS**	71	30%
	An office in dispatch agent	2	1%
	I do not have any	17	7%
	Other	6	3%
	Total	232	100%

* Junior high school. ** Senior high school.

Interestingly however, the largest number of ALTs ($n = 71$, 39%) are based at a junior high school (JHS). By contrast, only 3% ($n = 7$) nominated an elementary school, and none a kindergarten. Since a considerable number of ALTs had worked at kindergartens ($n = 48$), and indeed a large number had taught at elementary schools ($n = 127$), the data here seems to suggest that many ALTs were based at a JHS, and then dispatched to different schools including nearby kindergartens and elementary schools from that base.

One concerning factor that appears to have emerged is the number of ALTs without a base school. A considerable number of ALTs nominated an office in their local board of education as their base ($n = 39$, 17%). Together with those who were based at a dispatch agent ($n = 2$) and those who did not have any base ($n = 17$), 25% ($n = 58$) self-reportedly did not have any base school. This is somewhat of a concerning figure because JET ALTs have been arguing for the importance of a base school ever since the JET program began (McConnell, 2000). More recently, those with a base school reportedly feel more of a "sense of belonging" (Allison & Nash, 2009, p. 4) to the local school community, which seems to have made them more satisfied with various aspects of their work than those without a base school. To

verify this potential relationship, whether an ALT has a base school or not has been included as a dichotomous predictor variable in the regression models (see Chapter 8).

Summary

Using the questionnaire data, this chapter clarifies the diverse backgrounds of participating teachers in Japan, as well as various characteristics of their job as the ALTs in Japan. The first section explores their demographic backgrounds such as age, gender, length of residency in Japan, nationality, and race. The majority of American and Caucasian participants is confirmed among the participants in the study, which matches previously-identified preferred types of the ESOL teachers in wider TESOL contexts in Japan (e.g., Honna, 2008; Kubota, 1998).

The data in this section also identifies some unique features of this group of the ESOL teachers in Japan, especially those in the JET program. The study finds many of JET ALTs are relatively young females who had spent limited time in Japan. By contrast, ALTs working independently of the JET program were much older males, who had lived in Japan for more than six years.

In the second section, participant linguistic backgrounds together with ALT experience in Japanese language learning were examined. The data reveals the diverse linguistic backgrounds of participants in the study when it discovers that the vast majority was able to speak more than one language. The participants' self-identification as "native English speakers" was also examined, and highlighted the challenging nature of defining the term. The data here seems to support the decision made earlier to purposefully avoid using the term in most parts of the study.

Also, contrary to initial expectations, the majority of ALTs in the study ($n = 208$, 90%) had some level of Japanese language experience. Many ALTs who had studied Japanese before had studied it for longer than four years, and their self-assessment of their proficiency indicates the majority was at or above the intermediate level. While some may argue that such a subjective measurement of one's language proficiency may not be reliable, the data in the study also examined more objective measurements of their proficiency (e.g., the Japanese Language Proficiency Test), and discovers that there were some substantial numbers of teachers who had passed the intermediate level or above through those tests or courses.

The third section firstly focused on the academic qualifications that the 232 participants had attained. First, the majority of teachers who had a bachelor's degree as their highest attained qualification was confirmed, as expected from the eligibility criteria in the JET program. Second, former ALTs ($n = 100$) appeared to have contributed to the relatively higher proportion of ALTs who had attained a postgraduate qualification. This part of the descriptive analysis helped the study to identify the need to control for the teachers' present working status when investigating the potential effect of educational backgrounds upon their job satisfaction in the later chapters.

This section also explores fully the study fields in which teachers had completed their qualification(s). While the JET program and other employing organisations in Japan (e.g., the local board of education) typically did not specify any field of study for the applicant's otherwise required bachelor's degree, the data in this section suggests that the majority of participating teachers studied in similar fields such as humanities and arts, social sciences, business and law, education, or

science. This may be applicable to other contexts of TESOL where outsourced teachers from overseas do not necessarily have to have a degree in any specific field (Sperling, 2011; Wu & Ke, 2009).

The latter half of the third section provided clarification of the qualifications which self-reportedly helped participating ESOL teachers to learn skills or knowledge for TESOL. The study found extreme diversity in titles, academic levels, study fields, accreditation status for local teaching in their home country, provider type, required length of study in hours, requirement for foreign language learning, number of units/courses completed, and the contents or topics covered in those units/courses towards the qualifications.

The adopted definition of *TESOL-related qualifications* in the present study may have included some types of qualifications that would not be considered as TESOL qualifications under other definitions (if any), and thus affected some characteristics that emerged in this section (e.g., levels). However, the actual contents or topics covered in both types of the qualifications [i.e., the TESOL-related qualifications in the study, and *TESOL programs* (e.g., Christopher, 2005)] were very similar. The data here also suggested that ESOL teachers in the selected context in Japan could learn their TESOL-related skills while completing a wide range of qualifications that were not originally designed to help teachers develop their skills and knowledge for teaching ESOL.

Despite the diversity confirmed in these qualifications, the study also finds that the vast majority of qualifications that help teachers learn some TESOL-related skills and knowledge were completed in the study fields of education or in humanities and arts. Since the finding seems to have specified some areas of the qualifications that

helped teachers learn some TESOL-related skills and knowledge, the implication for future employment of ESOL teachers is discussed.

The final part of this chapter investigates the work characteristics surrounding the teachers in the study. As expected from what was observed with the length of residency in Japan earlier, JET ALTs had relatively fewer years of experience as ALTs, than the non-JET group, which had much longer experience in the field. The data confirms that at least some foreign teachers may have been planning long-term settlement in Japan, and thus there may be a need to review the temporary nature of contracts offered to such teachers.

The study also finds some interesting results in differences in teacher salaries. While the employment type (JET or non-JET) may have contributed to this result, the localised tax and the different taxation arrangements between their home country and Japan may have also affected the result.

The number and levels of school at which ALTs were teaching were also examined. The study confirms that the majority of ALTs are sent to a number of schools at different levels. Some limited number of the teachers teach at a single school, or schools at a single level. As expected from the literature (OECD, 2012), the class size at these schools was very large, especially at elementary schools, and at junior and senior high schools. While many teachers were based at one of the junior or senior high schools at which they taught, a substantial number of teachers had no base school.

Finally, the roles these teachers undertake were explored at each level of school. Overall, ALTs were helping the Japanese students to develop their communicative proficiency in English, and introducing their home culture to the Japanese classroom across all levels of schools. Nonetheless, the data indicates the

teachers at kindergartens may have been planning and teaching lessons independently of local teachers. By contrast, those at the junior high schools seemed to undertake supportive roles for local teachers. Many teachers who taught at junior high schools reported their roles included that of human tape recorder, which has been questioned for its effectiveness by many ALTs in the past (e.g., Falout, 2013; McConnell, 2000).

Chapter 5: Result (Teachers' Job Satisfaction)

Two sections discussing questionnaire results on job satisfaction and modelling processes to identify latent variables in the questionnaire responses are presented in this chapter. In the first section, the results of the questionnaire data specifically relating to participant job satisfaction will be detailed. The section will summarise ALT job satisfaction with the selected 21 facets of their work, and then compare this with existing understandings of teacher job satisfaction in other contexts, and discuss possible factors that could have affected the results. This section completes the descriptive analysis in this thesis.

In the second section, the results of the two-stage modelling process will be reported: exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). As discussed in Chapter 3, worker job satisfaction is the attitudinal variables which cannot be measured directly (Judge & Klinger, 2007). For this reason, the study has adopted a two-stage modelling process, and identifies three underlying latent variables that appear to exist among participant responses to the 21 facets of their job. The latent variables identified here will be used as the outcome variables in the regression analysis in forthcoming chapters (Chapter 6, 7 and 8).

Section 1: Descriptive Results

The overall results of the 232 participants' satisfaction ratings of the selected 21 aspects of their work are summarised in Table 30. The responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, with 1 being *not at all satisfied* and 7 being *completely satisfied*. Since all 21 items were compulsory in the questionnaire, there was no missing data in this section. The data in this section will be analysed and

discussed individually in order to outline trends in ALT perceptions of their work in Japan.

Following general trends found in the literature that examined teacher job satisfaction in other contexts (e.g., Kassabgy et al., 2001; Pennington 1991, see Chapter 2), the results here are reported firstly on the intrinsic aspects of ALT jobs (e.g., the amount of teaching, autonomy, relationship with students), followed by the extrinsic aspects (e.g., salary, opportunity for professional learning). In each aspect, overall characteristics of participant job satisfaction are discussed, as well as some unique characteristics discovered among the participants in the present study.

Satisfaction with the intrinsic aspects of the job. The mean score and standard deviation (SD) for participant satisfaction with each of the measured facets of ALT work are summarised in Table 30. Based on the mean scores, overall, participants seem relatively satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their job. These aspects are those directly related to the actual task of teaching (e.g., the amount of teaching autonomy, supportive colleagues) and also to the task of working with the students, such as facilitating student learning and achievement (Mullock, 2009). The relatively high level of their satisfaction with these intrinsic aspects of their job is as expected from the literature review.

The mean scores (M) were all 4.0 or above in their satisfaction with the amount of teaching (M = 4.52), amount of administrative work (M = 5.22), their freedom to decide how to do their job (M = 4.43), work relationship with Japanese team-teaching teachers (M = 4.92), principal (M = 5.00) or parents (M = 4.03), their skills and knowledge to do their job as ALTs (M = 5.02), and their overall roles as ALTs (M = 4.38). ALTs were also relatively satisfied with the aspects of their job associated with their students such as the level of response from students (M = 4.5),

student behaviour (M = 4.83), students' improvement in English (M = 4.14), and

what they are/were accomplishing with their students (M = 4.32).

Table 30. *Summary of ALTs' job satisfaction with 21 facets of their job*

Descriptive Statistics				
Satisfaction with:	N	Range	Mean*	Std. Deviation
Amount of teaching	232	6	4.52	1.787
Amount of administrative work	232	6	5.22	1.727
Freedom to decide how to do your job	232	6	4.43	1.887
Opportunity for professional learning	232	6	3.31	1.874
Opportunity for career advancement	232	6	2.44	1.634
Balance between work and private	232	6	5.67	1.425
Salary	232	6	5.44	1.661
Feedback on performance	232	6	3.28	1.876
The level of response from students	232	6	4.50	1.503
Student behaviour	232	6	4.83	1.472
Students' improvement in English	232	6	4.14	1.512
What you are/were accomplishing with your students	232	6	4.32	1.535
Number of staff available to your school	232	6	5.35	1.419
Physical resources	232	6	5.22	1.488
Educational resources	232	6	4.37	1.683
Skills and knowledge to do ALT job	232	6	5.02	1.568
Work relationships with Japanese teachers	232	6	4.92	1.668
Work relationships with your Principal	232	6	5.00	1.648
Work relationships with parents	232	6	4.03	1.788
Value society places on ALTs' work	232	6	3.64	1.828
Overall roles as ALT	232	6	4.38	1.647

* 1 = Not satisfied at all; 7 = Completely satisfied

Satisfaction with work relationship with Japanese teachers. One aspect of participant job satisfaction that attracted some attention was satisfaction in their work relationship with local teachers with whom they were engaged in team-teaching. As discussed in the literature review, Japan appears to have become reluctant to hire foreign teachers with an education or teaching background as a result of the intense conflict that arose between outsourced certified American teachers and local teachers during the 1960s (McConnell, 2000; Tsuido, 2007). Therefore, it is of particular interest as to how satisfied study participants are with their work relationship with team-teaching local teachers, and also whether the foreign teachers' (educational) backgrounds influenced their perceived relationships with local teachers.

Interestingly, overall, participating ALTs were highly satisfied with their work relationship with their team-teaching partner teachers (Figure 15, M = 4.92, SD = 1.668). Also, further analysis confirmed that both the current ALTs (n = 132, M = 4.79, SD = 1.712) and the former ALTs (n = 100, M = 5.1, SD = 1.599) were relatively highly satisfied with this aspect of their job. The findings suggest the work relationship has been perceived quite positively not just in the recent context, but for some extended period of time.

Furthermore, employment type appears to have little impact upon this facet of satisfaction. When satisfaction levels in this facet of work was compared across JET ALTs (n = 183, M = 4.86, SD = 1.66), non-JET ALTs (n = 41, M = 5.22, SD = 1.605), and former ALTs who had both types of experience (n = 8, M = 4.75, SD = 2.188), there seemed to be very little difference in their satisfaction with the work relationship with team-teaching local teachers.
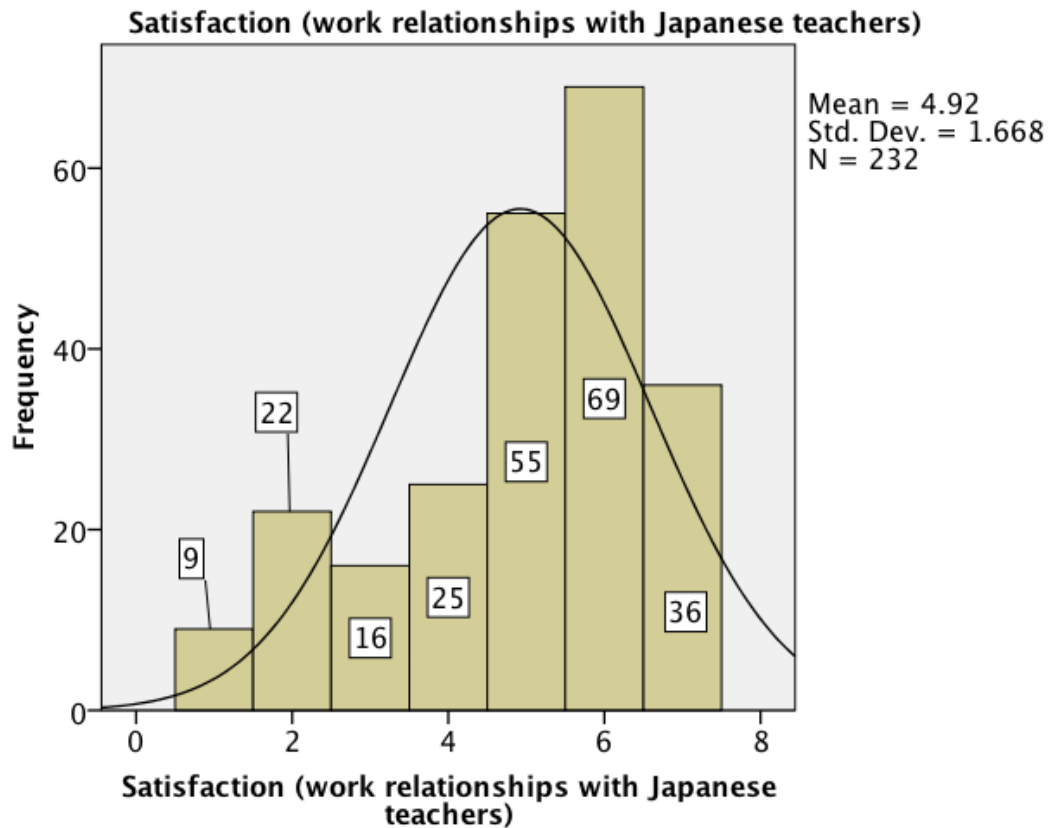
Figure 15. The satisfaction with the work relationship with Japanese teachers with whom they conducted team-teaching

The result is rather surprising, because a number of the existing studies reported continuing miscommunications, misunderstandings, or sometimes conflicts between foreign and local teachers in the present JET program (Miyazato, 2009; Otani, 2005, 2007; Otani & Tsuido, 2009; Tajino & Walker, 1998). Among these studies, Otani (2005) interviewed both ALTs and local teachers in Japan, and identified a number of factors that may have influenced the effective communication between these two groups of teachers. These included ALT pedagogical knowledge, and also their knowledge of Japanese language and culture.

For exploratory purposes, the data were separated according to ALT teaching backgrounds. This helped the study preliminarily investigate the extent to which these individual characteristics of ALTs influenced their satisfaction with their work

relationship with the team-teaching local teachers. To exclude ALTs who obtained teaching-focused qualifications in their post-ALT lives, the investigation is conducted only within the current ALTs ($n = 132$). Independent sample t-tests ($\alpha = 0.01$) were conducted to compare the current ALT mean satisfaction scores with this facet of work, firstly by their TESOL-related qualification background (*TESOL-related qualification*, and *TESOL certification*); and secondly by their Japanese language learning background (*length of Japanese study*, *self-assessed proficiency*).

Interestingly, the analysis indicated there was very little difference in satisfaction scores according to variations in their teacher education backgrounds or Japanese learning backgrounds. For instance, Table 31 shows the mean satisfaction scores based on whether or not ALTs had completed at least one TESOL-related qualification which had helped them to learn any skills or knowledge for TESOL ($n = 51$). The satisfaction scores among those who had such a qualification (M = 5.10) were only slightly higher than the group without the same background [M = 4.59, $t(130) = -1.662$, $\rho > 0.05$].

Table 31. *Mean satisfaction score by participant TESOL-related qualification status*

TESOL related qualification status*	N	**Mean**	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
No	81	**4.59**	1.723	.191
Yes	51	**5.10**	1.664	.233

*Whether or not one completed at least one qualification in which they self-reportedly learned some skills and/or knowledge for TESOL

Next, TESOL backgrounds were further narrowed down to *TESOL certifications* through the visual inspection of titles identified with *TESOL-related qualifications* (see Chapter 1 for definitions). Current ALTs who had at least one of those TESOL certifications ($n = 34$) did not appear to be substantially more satisfied with this aspect of their job (M = 5.24, Table 32), when compared to those who did not have any of such certification ($n = 98$, M = 4.63). Not surprisingly, the independent samples *t*-tests found no significant difference between these means [$t(130) = -1.783$, $\rho > 0.05$].

Table 32. *Mean satisfaction score by participant TESOL certification* status*

TESOL certification status	N	**Mean**	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
No	98	**4.63**	1.737	.175
Yes	34	**5.24**	1.577	.271

*Whether or not one completed at least one qualification which title includes the most popularly used keywords such as TESOL, TEFL, TESL, (applied) linguistics, or equivalent

Similarly, whether ALTs completed at least one qualification in the field of education (Table 33) did not make any difference to their satisfaction with the work relationship with the team-teaching local teachers. Similarly, whether they completed at least one qualification which accredited them for teaching in their home country (Table 34) also did not make any difference to this satisfaction.

Table 33. *Mean satisfaction score by the participant education qualification status*

Education qualification status*	N	**Mean**	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
No	106	**4.77**	1.669	.162
Yes	26	**4.85**	1.912	.375

*Whether or not one completed at least one qualification in the field of education

Contrary to earlier qualitative reports (e.g., Otani, 2005), the preliminary analysis here shows no or very little impact of participant teacher education or teaching background upon their work relationship with local teachers. Therefore, Japan's anecdotal claim of intense tension between certified foreign teachers and local teachers is not confirmed at this stage, at least through the perceptions of foreign teachers. While it is beyond the scope of this study, it would be interesting in the future studies to investigate Japanese teachers' perceptions of their relationship with foreign teachers with whom they work, to determine whether the results show similar trends.

Table 34. *Mean satisfaction score by participant teaching accreditation status*

Accreditation status*	N	**Mean**	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
No	106	**4.86**	1.659	.161
Yes	26	**4.50**	1.924	.377

*Whether or not one completed at least one qualification with accreditation as local teaching credential

The preliminary analysis also fails to uncover any significant difference in job satisfaction in foreign teachers' with different levels of Japanese language skills. While some may assume that the better ALTs speak the local language, the better the relationship with local teachers becomes, the preliminary results here do not support such an assumption.

Table 35 below shows the results of the one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) to compare the mean satisfaction score by the lengths of the participants' Japanese study. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were tested and met with this model. The test found no significant difference in the mean scores according to the length of Japanese study.

Similarly, little difference was found in this satisfaction score across the different levels of their (self-assessed) proficiency in Japanese (Table 36). The results here suggest that participating ALTs were (dis)satisfied with their work relationship with team-teaching local teachers no matter how well ALTs spoke Japanese. This particular characteristic of ALTs was further analysed in the regression analysis and the interview data analysis in Chapter 6.

Table 35. *Result of ANOVA (satisfaction with work relationship with JTE by participant length of Japanese study)*

Descriptives

Satisfaction (work relationships with Japanese teachers)

	N	**Mean**	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 1 year	14	**5.71**	1.541	.412	4.82	6.60	2	7
1 - 3 years	36	**4.78**	1.742	.290	4.19	5.37	1	7
4 - 6 years	38	**4.47**	1.656	.269	3.93	5.02	1	7
7 years or more	32	**4.91**	1.729	.306	4.28	5.53	1	7
Total	120	**4.83**	1.708	.156	4.52	5.13	1	7

ANOVA

Satisfaction (work relationships with Japanese teachers)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	16.053	3	5.351	1.874	.138
Within Groups	331.272	116	2.856		
Total	347.325	119			

Table 36. *Result of ANOVA (satisfaction with work relationship with JTE by participants' self-assessed proficiency in Japanese)*

Descriptives

Satisfaction (work relationships with Japanese teachers)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Min	Max
Beginner	19	**5.05**	1.870	.429	4.15	5.95	2	7
Intermediate	62	**4.60**	1.703	.216	4.16	5.03	1	7
Advanced or (near) native level*	39	**5.08**	1.628	.261	4.55	5.60	1	7
Total	120	**4.83**	1.708	.156	4.52	5.13	1	7

* The highest two categories (advanced, and near-native or native speaker level) had to be combined to meet the assumption for the test.

ANOVA

Satisfaction (work relationships with Japanese teachers)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.689	2	3.345	1.149	.321
Within Groups	340.636	117	2.911		
Total	347.325	119			

Satisfaction with freedom to do their job as ALTs. Another interesting aspect of the participants' satisfaction was their relatively high level of satisfaction with their freedom to decide how to do their job (M = 4.43, SD = 1.887). As seen in Figure 16, more than half of the participants (*n* = 130, 56%) indicated a ranking of 5 or above for this particular type of the satisfaction.
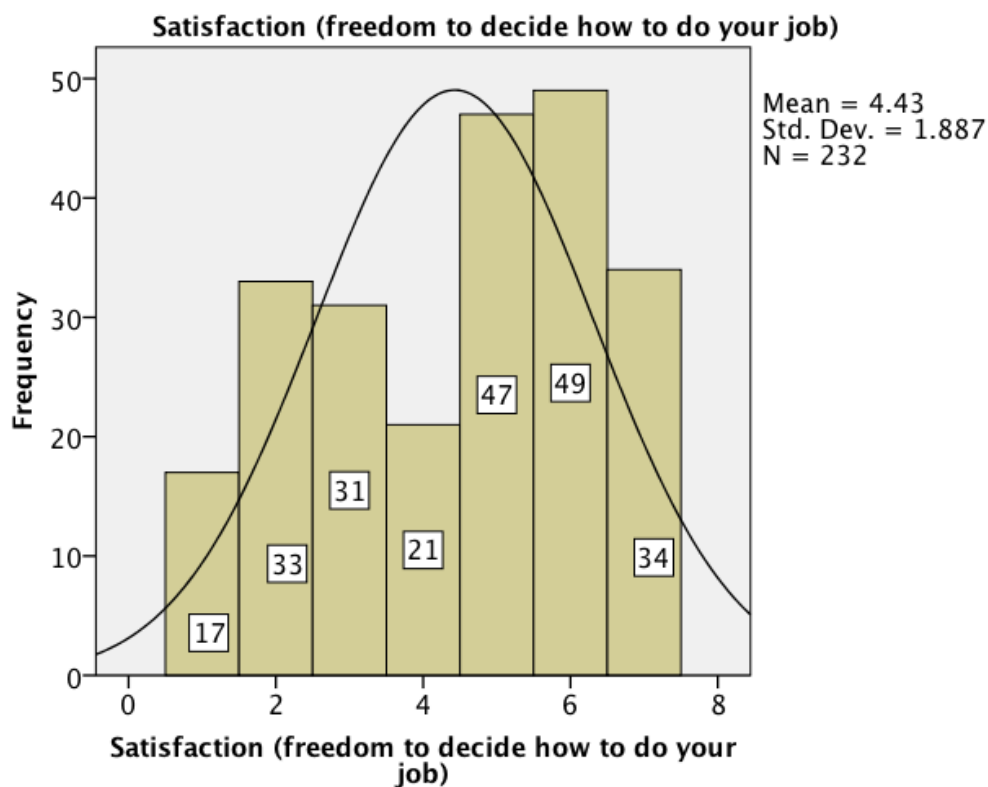
Figure 16. The satisfaction with freedom to decide how to do your job

The extent to which ALT teacher education backgrounds affected their satisfaction with their degree of teaching autonomy was of interest to the study. This is firstly because of Japan's past experience with intense conflict between foreign and local teachers. Secondly, the interest is due ALTs having been constantly engaged in team-teaching with local teachers, and that team-teaching has been

known in wider contexts to constrain teachers' sense of autonomy (e.g., Letterman & Dugan, 2004).

The results of the independent samples *t*-tests, however, indicate that there was no significant difference between current ALTs who had TESOL-related qualifications (*n* = 51, M = 4.43) and those who did not [*n* = 81, M = 4.40, *t*(94.51) = -0.103, ρ > 0.05]. Also, no difference was revealed between ALTs who had a TESOL certification (*n* = 34, M = 4.74) and those who did not [*n* = 98, M = 4.30, *t*(130) = -1.170, ρ > 0.05]. Again, the results here indicate no sign of the perceived threat to the ALTs autonomy due to their TESOL teacher education backgrounds, a finding opposed to that reported in past qualitative reports (e.g., McConnell, 2000; Otani, 2005). This is further analysed in the subsequent chapters.

Satisfaction with skills and knowledge to do their job as ALTs. Overall, participants were highly satisfied with their skills and knowledge to do their job as ALTs (Figure 17, M = 5.02, SD = 1.568). Nearly 70% of 232 participants (*n* = 160) rated this aspect of their satisfaction at 5 or higher. The high level of satisfaction in this facet of their work was confirmed in both current ALTs (*n* = 132, M = 5.17, SD = 1.499) and former groups (*n* = 100, M = 4.82, SD = 1.642). Similar to satisfaction with the relationship with local teachers, the data here suggests that ALTs have been very satisfied with their skills and knowledge to do their job for some extended period of time.

If one's job satisfaction may be explained by the match between possessed skills and required skills of the job (e.g., Vila et al., 2007), then the data here may indicate that the majority of ALTs, according to their perceptions, did possess the skill sets that were actually required for them to perform at Japanese schools. For the

overall purpose of the present study, it was of interest as to where teachers obtained such skill sets.

One possibility considered was that ALTs acquired some new skills and knowledge through their professional lives in Japan, which could have filled the gap between expected skill sets and those required at work. CLAIR runs at least two annual conferences to help JET ALTs develop new skills and knowledge to perform their duties adequately. These include a three-day orientation seminar in Tokyo at the beginning of the program, and ALT Skill Development Conferences of between one and five days held in their own prefecture between August and January each year (CLAIR, 2015a). Together with the on-the-job learning opportunities with their team-teaching Japanese teachers, participants may have acquired additional skills and knowledge through these professional opportunities, and this may have raised the level of satisfaction in this particular facet of their work.

Satisfaction (skills and knowledge to do ALT job)

Mean = 5.02
Std. Dev. = 1.568
N = 232
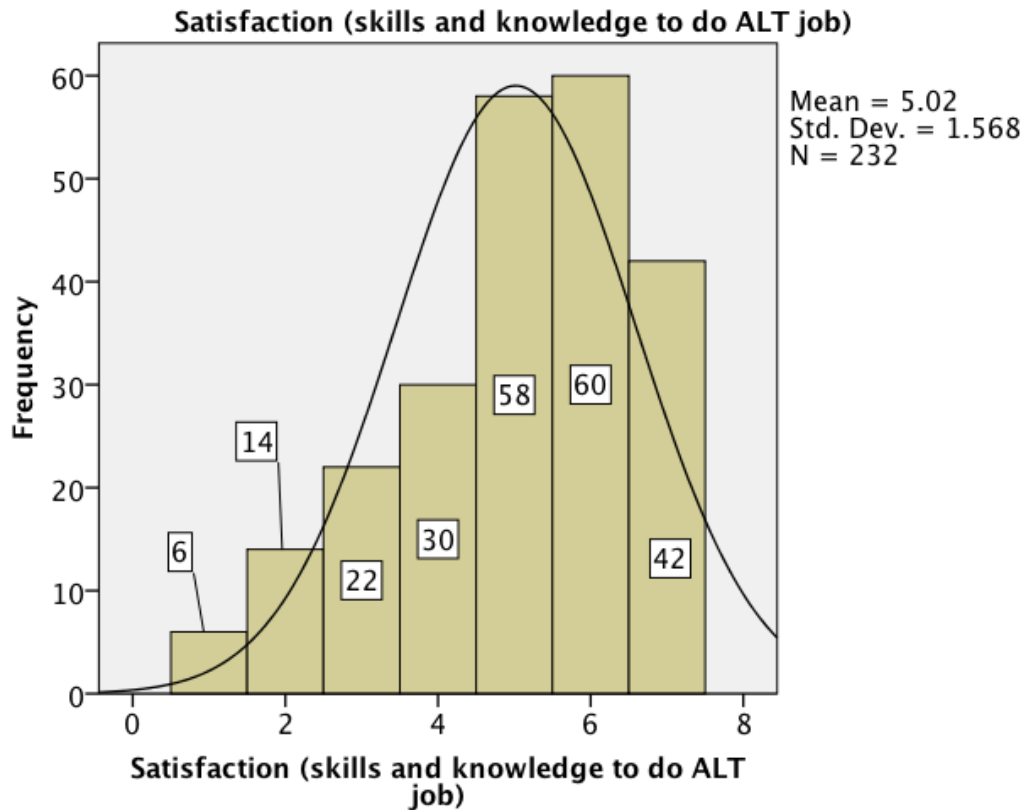
Figure 17. The satisfaction with own skills and knowledge to do their job as ALTs

However, as will be discussed later in this chapter, participants in the study were relatively dissatisfied with opportunities for professional learning (M = 3.31, SD = 1.874, see Table 30) and also with feedback they received on their performance (M = 3.28, SD = 1.876, see Table 30). Other studies also reported similar ALT similar frustration over the lack of adequate feedback on their performance (e.g., Otani & Tsuido, 2009). While the questionnaire did not ask participants about what skills they had learned while working as ALTs, the data here may suggest that participants have acquired very little additional skills or knowledge through their appointment in the JET program. At the time of the study, there seemed to be no existing studies that report professional learning opportunities for non-JET ALTs in Japan (see further in this section).

For this reason, a second possibility to explain the participants' relatively high satisfaction with their skills and knowledge to do their job was considered, and that was the pre-existing skills and knowledge gained from their educational attainments, particularly their teacher education backgrounds. To explore this relationship, the independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare participant mean satisfaction scores with this facet of work, firstly by their TESOL-related qualification backgrounds. Again, ALTs who obtained such qualifications in their post-ALT lives were removed from the investigation at this stage.

The result indicated that current ALTs who had at least one TESOL-related qualification ($n = 51$, M = 5.86, SD = 1.167) are significantly and substantially more satisfied with their skill set than participants who did not have any such qualifications [$n = 81$, M = 4.73, SD = 1.525, $t(125) = 4.820$, $\rho < 0.001$, Cohen's $d = 0.83$]. Further, when the qualifications were narrowed to *TESOL certifications* based on titles found among TESOL-related qualifications, current ALTs who had a TESOL certification ($n = 34$, M = 5.91, SD = 1.111) were significantly and substantially more satisfied than those without the same types of qualifications [$n = 98$, M = 4.91, SD = 1.534, $t(79) = 4.087$, $\rho < 0.0001$, $d = 0.75$].

Furthermore, those who had qualification(s) in the field of education ($n = 26$, M = 6.00, SD = 1.131) were also found to have significantly higher satisfaction than those without the same qualifications [$n = 106$, M = 4.96, SD = 1.511, $t(49) = 3.901$, $\rho < 0.0001$, $d = 0.78$]. And those with an accredited credential for local teaching in their home country ($n = 26$, M = 6.15, SD = 1.287) were also significantly and substantially more satisfied with their skills to perform the ALT job than those without the credential [$n = 106$, M = 4.92, SD = 1.452, $t(130) = 3.951$, $\rho < 0.0001$, $d = 0.90$].

Interestingly, all the independent samples *t*-tests showed the significant and substantial effects of teacher education backgrounds in TESOL and non-TESOL upon ALT satisfaction with their skills and knowledge to do their job. The results suggest the skills and knowledge these ALTs acquired through their teacher education may have matched those required in their job. Such a match may have reduced the gap between possessed skills and knowledge and those required at work, and thus influenced their satisfaction with their own skills to do their job as ALTs positively.

As discussed in the literature review, the professional roles of ALTs in Japan have been known to be heavily context-dependent, which thus makes very difficult any generalisation of the nature of skills needed in order to perform their duties adequately (Mahoney, 2004; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012). However, the results here seem to indicate ALTs are indeed required to possess the skills and knowledge that these ALTs learned in their teacher education, either in TESOL or non-TESOL, when examined within the current ALTs in the study.

Satisfaction with resources. Another unique characteristic revealed in the present study was the participants' relatively high satisfaction with the intrinsic aspects that were related to resources. As seen in Figure 18, participants were relatively highly satisfied with physical resources such as the buildings and grounds (M = 5.22, SD = 1.488). They were also highly satisfied with the number of staff available at schools (Figure 19, M = 5.35, SD = 1.419), or with the educational resources such as the teaching equipment and materials (Figure 20, M = 4.37, SD = 1.683).
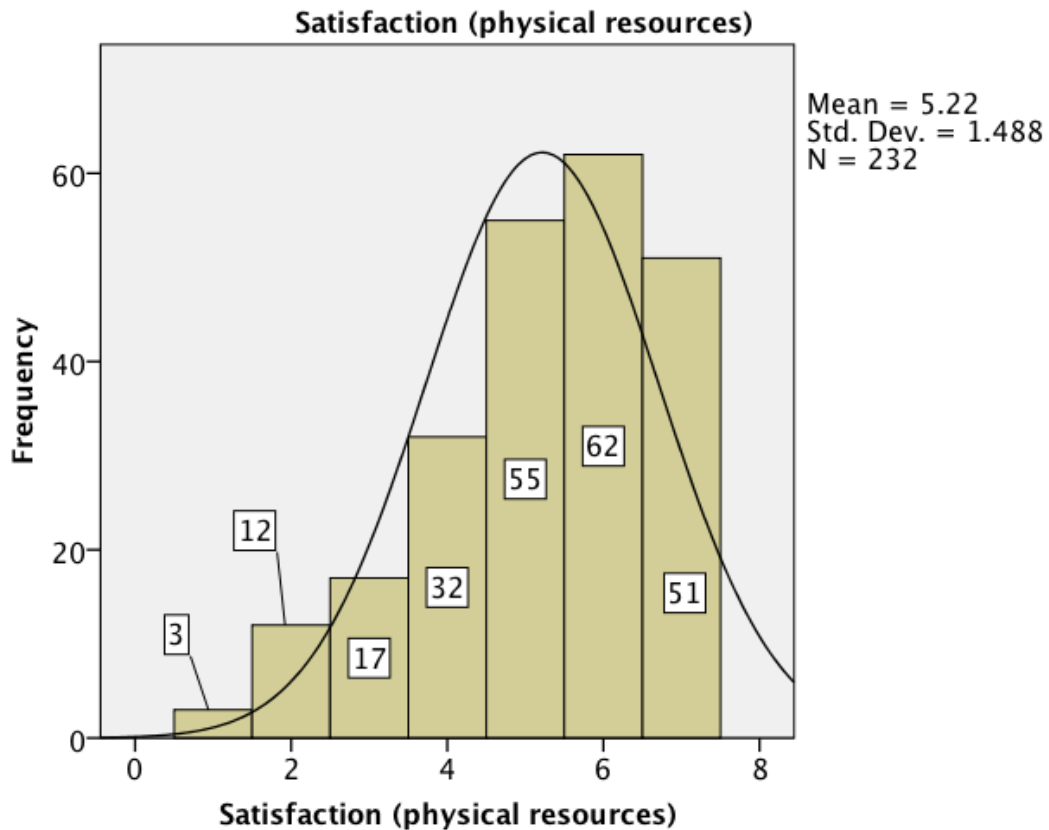
Figure 18. The satisfaction with physical resources

While a few earlier studies reported teachers' relatively low satisfaction with resources (e.g., Karavas, 2010; Winfrey, 2009), the literature generally suggests that teacher satisfaction with resources tended to be context-dependent (Dinham & Scott, 2000; Scott et al., 1999). Therefore, there may have been some contextual factors specific to this group of the foreign ESOL teachers that helped them to perceive these aspects of the resources positively. The high level of satisfaction with the physical structures, for instance, may have been a result of the Japanese government's continuing effort to construct buildings and facilities that can best facilitate children's physical and intellectual learning (e.g., Taguchi & Kishimoto, 2012). The participants were also satisfied with the availability of human resources, and this may have been because ALTs always worked with local teachers as their

assistant, and their position may have been relatively less affected by the lack of human resources in the workplace.
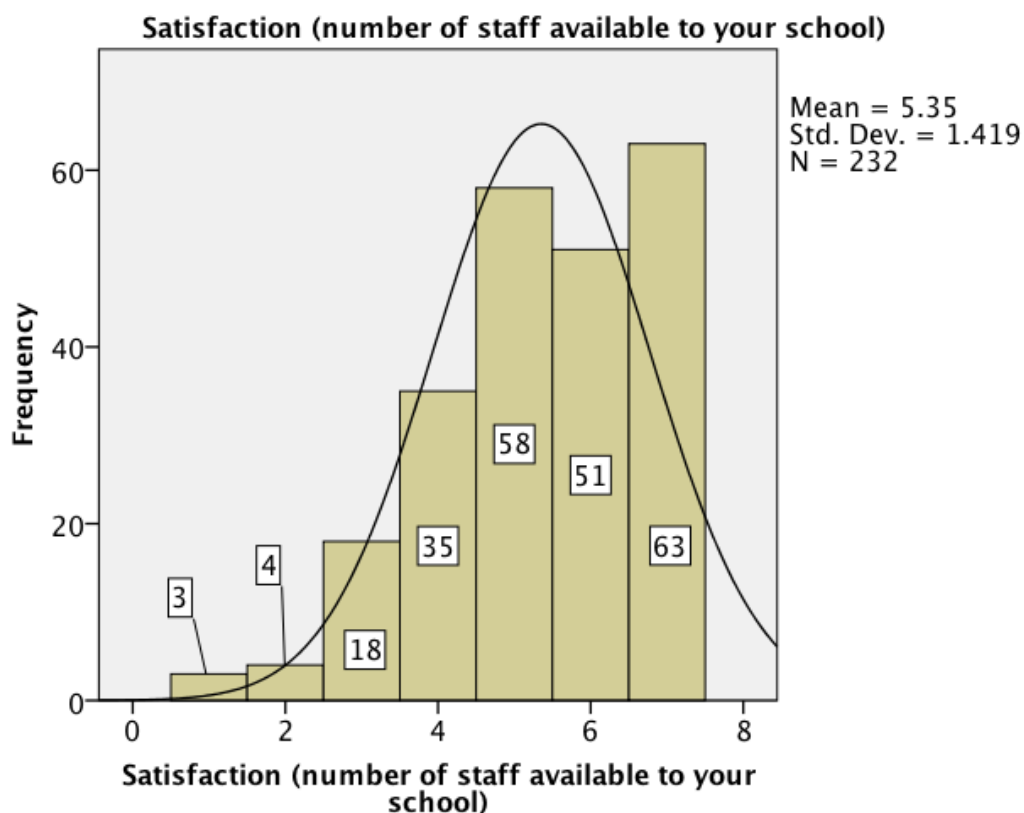
Figure 19. The satisfaction with the number of staff available to school

On educational resources, CLAIR (2013b) now publishes a collection of learning activities that are deemed suitable for different levels of schools in Japan. Many of these activities, according to CLAIR (2013b), have been collected not only from current and former JET ALTs, but also from those who participated in the programs preceding the JET program, such as British English Teachers Scheme (BETS) and the Monbusho English Fellows (MEF) Programme. These resources are freely available to any ALTs in the JET program, which may have influenced their satisfaction level on educational resources in a positive manner.

As outlined later in the factor analysis, three satisfaction items on resources (physical, human, and educational resources) have been identified as single factor items, which were then placed in the regression analysis as an outcome variable. This process may identify other characteristics of the participants that may predict and thus explain this particular group of ALTs' job attitude.
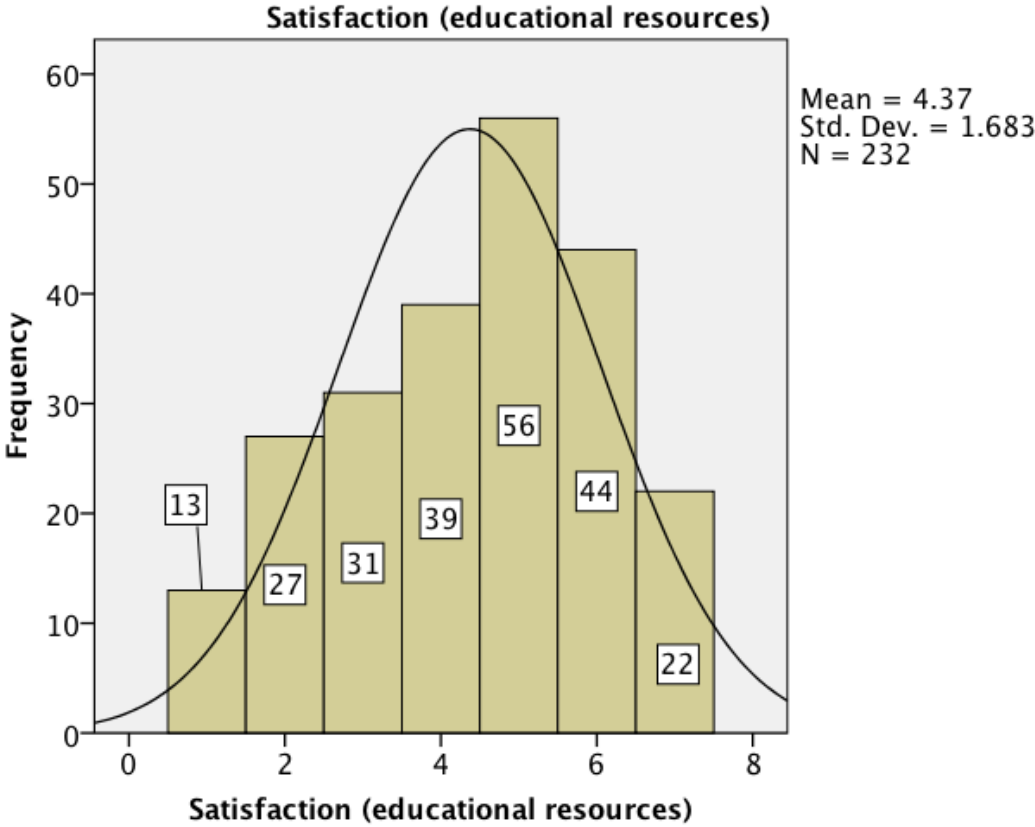
Figure 20. The satisfaction with educational resources

Extrinsic aspects of teachers' work. Table 30 also shows some aspects of the work with which the participants in the study were relatively less satisfied. By and large, these aspects appeared to be associated with the extrinsic facets of teacher work, as the literature generally suggests (e.g., Karavas, 2010; Kassabgy et al., 2001; Mullock, 2009; Senior, 2006). With the exception of salary, participants in the study showed low satisfaction with facets such as the opportunity for professional learning (M = 3.31, SD = 1.874), opportunity for career advancement (M = 2.44, SD = 1.634), feedback on performance (M = 3.28, SD = 1.876), and the value society places on themselves (M = 3.64, SD = 1.828).

Satisfaction with career advancement. Among these extrinsic aspects of their work, the participants appeared to be least satisfied with career advancement in their work. This was indicated clearly by the smallest mean value of all 21 facets (M = 2.44), and also by the positively-skewed shape of the distribution curve in Figure 21. More than 40% of all participants (*n* = 98, 42%) indicated the least satisfaction level of 1 (of 7) with this aspect of their work, and indeed nearly 75% (*n* = 173, 74.5%) indicated a satisfaction level of 3 or lower.

This result makes best sense when the temporary nature of the ALT appointment in the JET program is considered. As discussed earlier, the JET program was originally designed as a youth exchange program, after which Japan expects young participants to return to their home country and use their several years of international experiences in Japan to enhance the relationship between their country and Japan through their future career and/or graduate study (CLAIR, 2015a; McConnell, 2000). For this purpose, the program does not allow any participants to stay in the program for longer than five years (CLAIR, 2015a), and thus it does not appear to be expecting its participants to build a career within the program. Given the

majority of participants in the present study are JET participants, the low level of

their satisfaction in this aspect of their work may reflect this specific characteristic of

the ALT role in the JET program.

Satisfaction (opportunity for career advancement)

Mean = 2.44
Std. Dev. = 1.634
N = 232
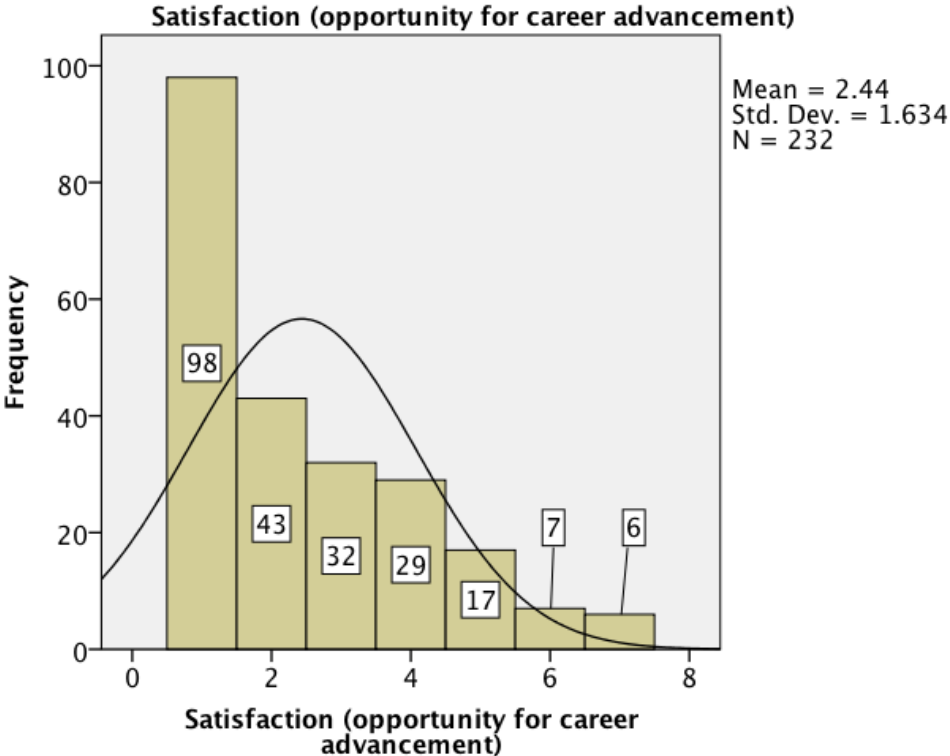
Figure 21. The satisfaction with the opportunity for career advancement

The limitation on the number of years and ALT can work in the JET program

does not apply to those who work independently of the JET program (i.e., non-JET

ALTs). It was, therefore, of interest to examine the satisfaction level in this particular

facet separately between JET ALTs (current and former JET ALTs, $n = 183$, Figure

22) and non-JET ALTs (current and former non-JET ALTs, $n = 41$, excluding 8

former ALTs who experienced both types of employment, Figure 23).
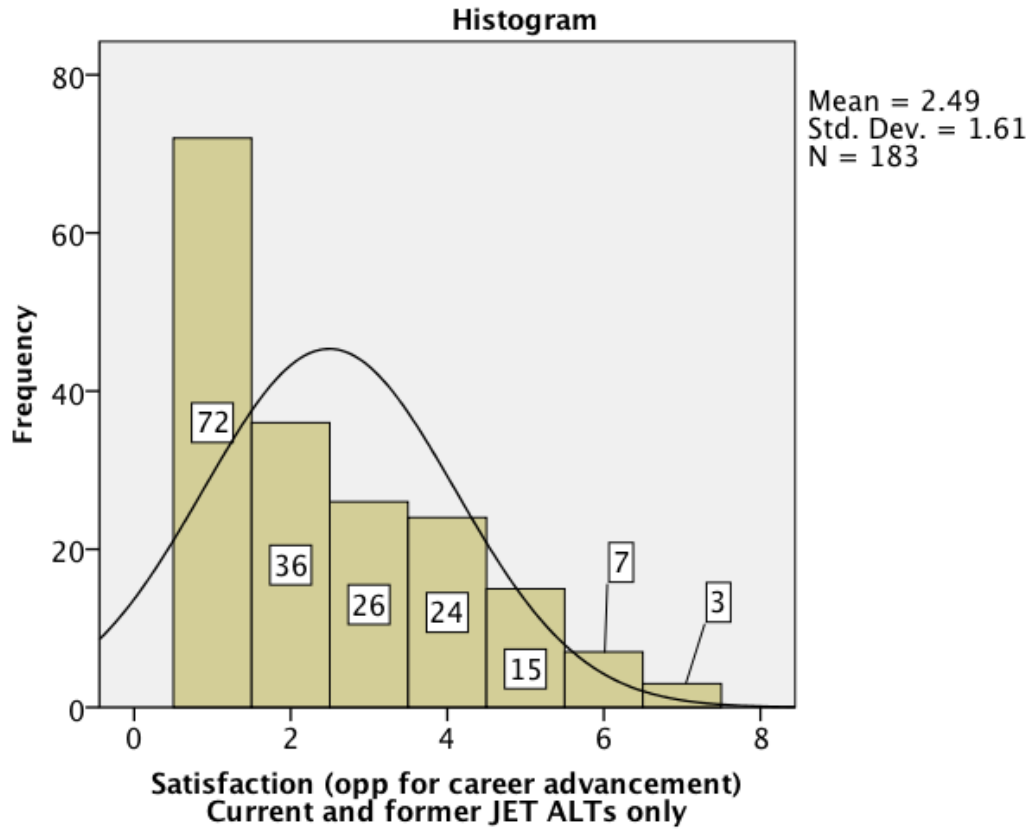
Figure 22. The satisfaction with the opportunity for career advancement (JET only, *n* = 183)

Interestingly, despite all the differences in their demographic and educational backgrounds (see earlier discussion in Chapter 4), the result was very similar between these two groups of ALTs, with both groups of teachers showing very low levels of satisfaction about their career advancement. This suggests that ALTs in the study were not satisfied with this particular aspect of their job regardless of their employment type (i.e., JET or non-JET).
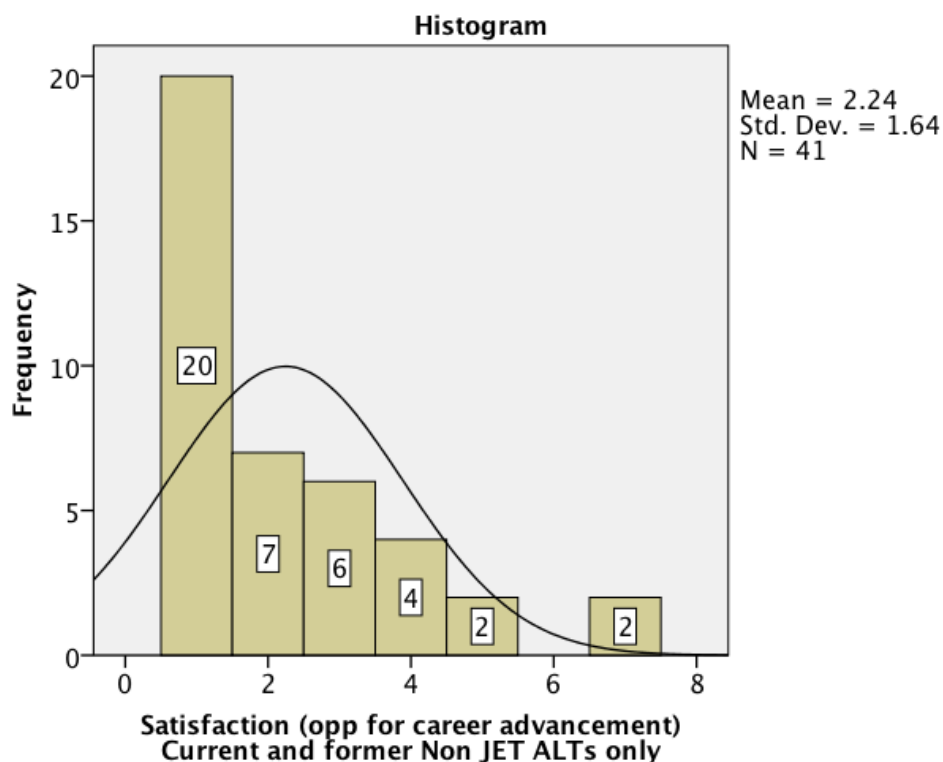
Figure 23. The satisfaction with the opportunity for career advancement (Non-JET only, *n* = 41)

So why were non-JET ALTs not satisfied with their career advancement? Some argued that most non-Japanese workers in Japan, including ALTs and, indeed, foreign ESOL teachers in general, have been socially and politically perceived as a temporary workforce (e.g., Houghton, 2013; Masden, 2013; Okunuki & Carlet, 2012). Okunuki and Carlet (2012) argue that this has been a continuous phenomenon in Japan ever since the country began outsourcing to a large number of foreign specialists in many fields on a temporary basis, as part of its political attempts to rapidly modernise the country during the late 1860s. As a result, they argue, most ALTs and other ESOL foreign teachers have been given a temporary work permit on their visa, and thus can only obtain a temporary contract with their employees with little prospect for promotion or salary increase.

Furthermore, for the non-JET ALTs who were on a dispatch contract (*haken keiyaku*), Japan's Worker Dispatch Law imposes a three-year limit on the length of a single dispatch (Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare, 2013). While the law was originally passed to encourage employers to hire dispatch workers on a permanent basis if employers wished to continue employing the same workers beyond the initial three years, in reality, board of education offices have been offering ALTs with contracts shorter than three years, and then requesting a replacement ALT from the dispatch agent upon the maturity of the original contract (Okunuki & Carlet, 2012). Under such circumstances, non-JET ALTs may feel insecure about their career development, which explains their low-level satisfaction in this particular facet of their work.

Satisfaction with career advancement and educational background. As with earlier findings in this section, the study confirms that both JET and non-JET groups of teachers did not seem to have any long-term prospects within their appointment as ALTs, although the constraints on their terms of employment may have come from somewhat different sources. This was interesting when considered within the context of the Action Plan to Cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities" (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan [MEXT], 2003). In the plan, the MEXT announced their initiatives to begin hiring *tokubetsu hijyoukin koshi* [special contract teachers, author translation]', offering some longer term and non-assistant positions to selected ALTs who have demonstrated "excellent experiences or similar" [author trans] (MEXT, 2003, p. 7). The MEXT indicated they aimed to hire 300 foreign non-assistant teachers for junior high schools between 2003 and 2006, and to increase the number of those teachers to 1,000 in total at junior and senior high schools in the future.

While the exact quality of the "excellence" sought by the Japanese local board offices or MEXT remains unspecified, Geluso (2013, p. 101) referred to two experienced ALTs as examples of such ALTs who have secured the non-assistant position in Japan: one with a Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (the former full title for *CELTA* by the University of Cambridge), and another with a Master's in Education in TESOL. If ALT educational backgrounds, particularly those related to TESOL, affects Japan's interpretation of the term "excellence", then such ALT backgrounds may lead to longer-term career perspectives, and thus may influence ALT perceptions of their career advancement.

However, the independent samples *t*-tests found that current ALTs who had TESOL-related qualifications in the study ($n = 51$, M = 2.67, SD = 1.740) were not significantly more satisfied with their career advancement than those who did not have the same educational backgrounds [$n = 81$, M = 2.46, SD = 1.517, $t(130) = 0.731$, $\rho > 0.01$]. Similarly, no significant difference was discovered in this satisfaction level between current ALTs with TESOL certifications (as defined by their titles, $n = 34$, M = 2.76, SD = 1.810), and those without such certifications [$n = 98$, M = 2.46, SD = 1.528, $t(130) = 0.957$, $\rho > 0.01$]. In short, current ALTs in the study were dissatisfied with their career advancement irrespective of their TESOL-related educational backgrounds.

A few reasons could be considered for these results. First, the chance for existing ALTs to be selected for non-assistant positions may still be very slim. Therefore, the employment status for the vast majority of ALTs remains temporary, including for those who have TESOL-related educational backgrounds. The latest data from MEXT (2014) shows that a total of 912 foreign teachers who do not hold Japanese teaching licenses were being employed as *gaikokujin tokubetsu hijyoukin*

koshi [foreign special contract teachers, author translation], with 327 employed at junior high schools, 585 at senior high schools, and none at elementary schools. Given almost 17,000 ALTs (JET + non-JET) are working at 20,394 elementary schools, 9,653 junior high schools, and 3,492 senior high schools (MEXT, 2014), it is clear that only a handful of ALTs (a little more than 5%) have secured a longer-term non-assistant position in the current climate.

Since the position of special contract teacher is relatively new, there appears to be a significant scarcity in the present literature focusing on these non-assistant foreign teachers at public schools in Japan. It remains unknown, therefore, whether the employers (e.g., local education offices, MEXT) are taking ALTs' TESOL-related educational backgrounds into account when selecting some ALTs with "excellent experiences or similar" (MEXT, 2003, p. 7). Future research should explore the demographic and educational backgrounds of these non-assistant foreign teachers in Japan, and identify the common characteristics of teachers who have been perceived (and selected) as quality foreign teachers in this particular TESOL context in Japan.

Second, the positions of the *gaikokujin tokubetsu hijyoukin koshi* (foreign special contract teachers) are seemingly still temporary positions and, therefore, may not enhance the selected ALTs' perspectives on their future career. The term "*hijyoukin*" literally means "not permanently serving", indicating the non-tenured nature of the position. While these positions may allow a limited number of foreign teachers without Japanese teaching licenses to take lessons independently on longer contracts, they may still not provide them with a secure career pathway, and thus may not positively affect their perceptions of career advancement.

Such a position created specifically for foreign teachers to work on a contract seems to support the earlier argument that foreign teachers, and foreign workers in general, have been historically treated as a temporary workforce in Japan (e.g., Houghton, 2013; Masden, 2013; Okunuki & Carlet, 2012). Unless the government changes such a traditional practice, and considers offering tenured positions to foreign ESOL teachers, ELT satisfaction in this particular facet may not be enhanced after all.

Satisfaction with salary. One unique finding among the participants' satisfaction in the present study was their satisfaction with salary. Although, as just discussed, ALTs are very dissatisfied with their career advancement, they are indeed very satisfied with their salary (Figure 24, $M = 5.44$, $SD = 1.661$). This is a unique finding compared with earlier studies on ESOL teachers' job satisfaction, which generally found ESOL practitioners' had very low satisfaction levels with their salary (Karavas, 2010; Kassabgy et al., 2001).

This result may be a reflection of a number of factors such as the relatively young age of the majority of participants, their relative lack of experience in the labour market, and the actual amount of salary they receive in the JET program. As seen earlier, participants in the study were relatively young, in particular those in the JET program (e.g., 60% of current JET ALTs are under 25 years). All JET participants receive Y300, 000 per month (approximately US$ 2,800 or AUD$3,000), reduced to Y280, 000 for first year ALTs in and after 2012 (CLAIR, 2015a), regardless of their age or previous work experience. As Kan (2002) argues, their salary is considerably higher than that of local teachers at the same age. Recent graduates from overseas who may be at an early stage of their professional lives may not before have received a sufficient regular salary prior to their participation in the

JET program. It is reasonable to expect such graduates to perceive the relatively generous remuneration in the JET program to be very attractive, even though the positions offer little future prospect of a long-term career.
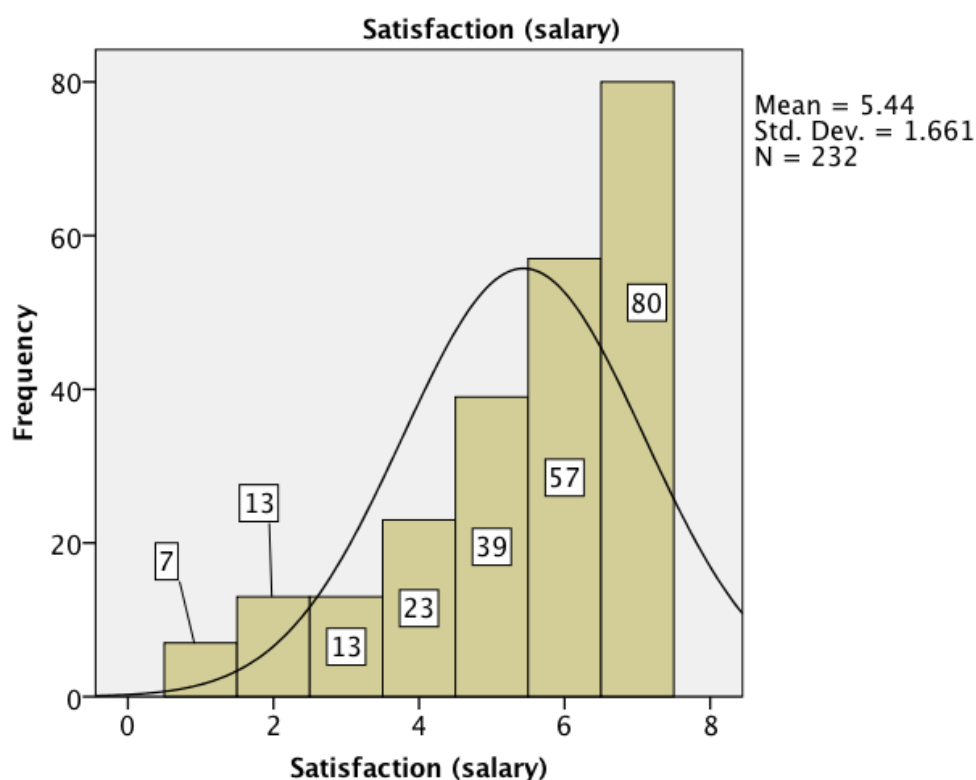
Figure 24. The satisfaction with their salary

As clarified in Chapter 4, non-JET ALTs in the study were demographically quite different to the JET group of participants. They tended to be older, had lived in Japan for a lot longer, and had worked as ALTs in Japan for a lot longer compared with those in the JET program. Despite these differences, non-JET ALTs were significantly less paid.

In the economics studies, salary has been known to be one of the important factors in determining job satisfaction, especially when workers compare what they receive with what they believe they should receive (Jex, 2002). If some ALTs (e.g.,

the non-JET ALTs) receive a different amount in their salary compared with others (e.g., the JET ALTs) while engaged in the same job and carrying the same job title, the salary discrepancy may affect their perceptions of their work.

In order to verify this, the histogram for satisfaction with salary was created separately, and visually inspected. As seen below, it became very clear that the relatively high level of satisfaction with salary was evident only within JET participants (Figure 25, $M = 5.81$, $SD = 1.334$). By contrast, non-JET ALTs' satisfaction with their salary was more disperse, ranging from the minimum rating of 1 to the highest of 7 (Figure 26, $M = 3.8$, $SD = 2.04$).
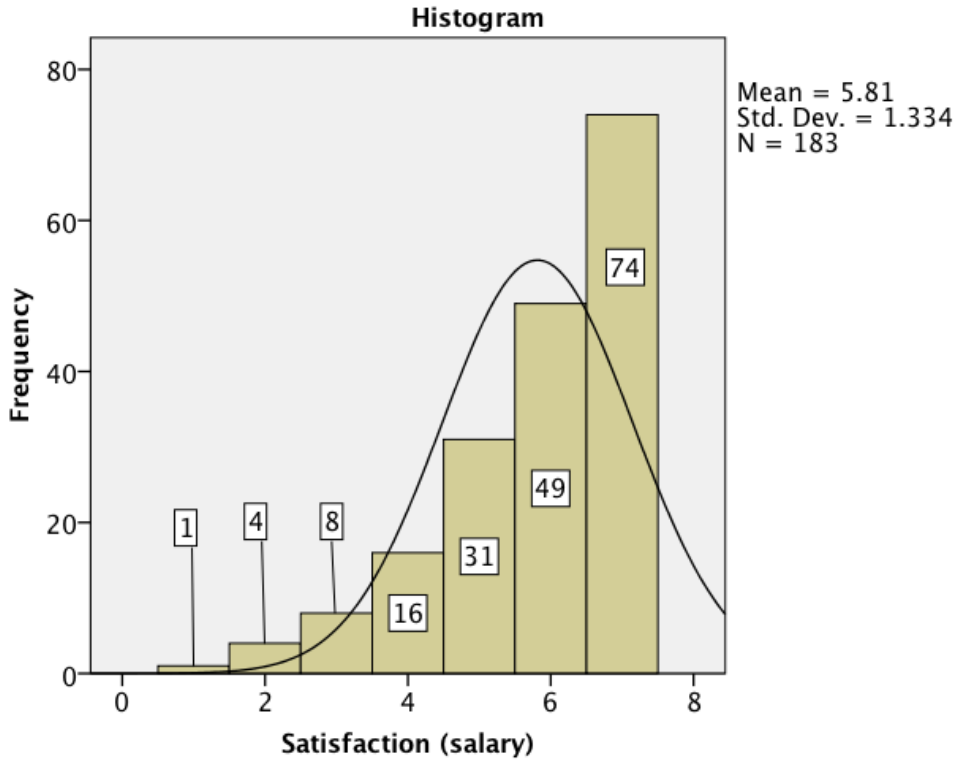
Figure 25. The JET ALT satisfaction with salary ($n = 183$)
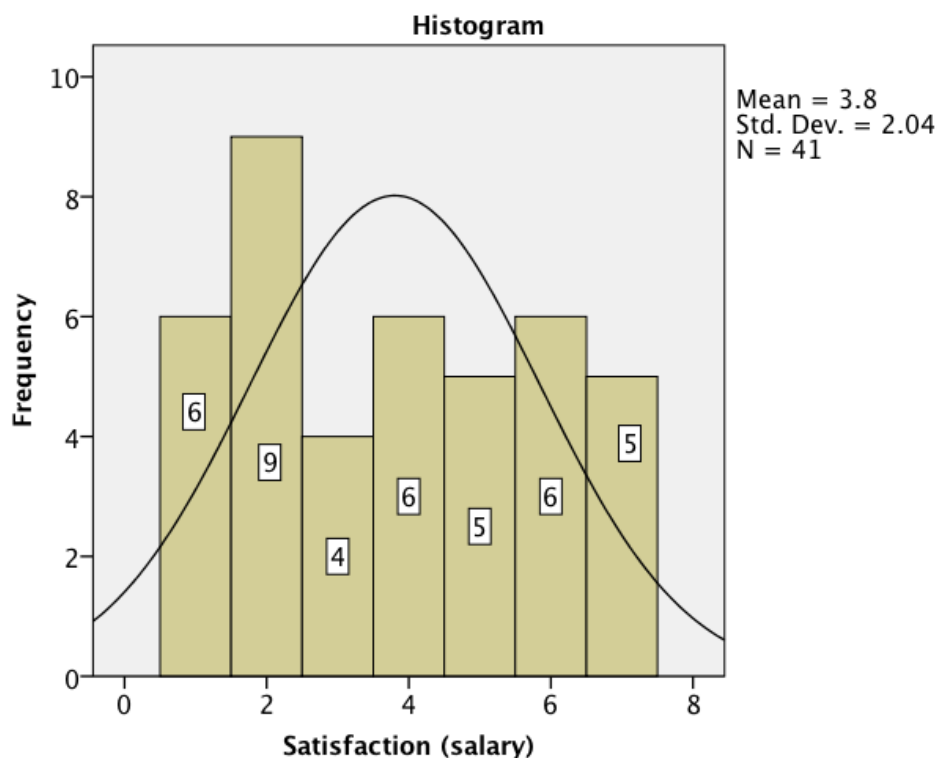
Figure 26. The non-JET ALT satisfaction with salary (*n* = 41)

Not surprisingly, an independent samples *t*-test found this difference to be statistically significant [$t(48) = 6.03$, $\rho < .001$]. The 95% confidence interval indicated that the mean satisfaction with salary for JET participants was between 1.34 and 2.68 higher than the non-JET participants, and the magnitude of this difference was very large (Cohen's *d* = 1.17).

It is very possible that non-JET ALTs were significantly less satisfied with their salary than JET participants, simply because they received less. Flynn (2009) argues that non-JET ALTs on dispatch contracts received 20% to 30% less in salary than JET participants, because dispatch agents tended to take a commission from what the board of education offices paid to hire these ALTs. The lower salary in the non-JET group was also confirmed in the present study as seen earlier (Chapter 4). It is not surprising at all then if one group of teachers (i.e., non-JET ALTs) were less satisfied with their salary, when they receive less salary than another group (i.e., JET

ALTs) who indeed share the same job title. The existing economics studies also suggest a worker's relative salary can be a significant determinant of their satisfaction with the salary (e.g., Jex, 2002).

ALT satisfaction with salary and background in TESOL or education in general. Finally, satisfaction with salary within current ALTs was compared with their backgrounds in TESOL teacher education in order to examine the potential effect of the TESOL teacher education upon job satisfaction with this particular aspect of their work. As discussed in Chapter 2, education could raise worker expectations, and thus could affect their satisfaction negatively if their raised expectations were not met in the reality at work (e.g., Albert & Davia 2005; Allen & van der Velden, 2002).

In order to explore this relationship in the present context, the independent samples *t*-tests ($\alpha = 0.01$) were conducted to compare mean satisfaction score with salary within the current ALTs according to their TESOL teacher education backgrounds (i.e., the ALTs with a TESOL-related qualification vs. ALTs without any such qualification; and also ALTs with a TESOL certification vs. ALTs without any such certification). Considering the salary discrepancy observed between JET and non-JET groups in Chapter 4, the comparison was made separately between these groups of the teachers.

Interestingly, the results of the *t*-tests revealed a significant difference only in one of the tested pairs: TESOL-certified ALTs ($n = 24$, M = 6.25) and TESOL-uncertified ALTs ($n = 77$, M = 5.52) in the current JET group [$t(99) = -2.359$, $\rho = 0.02$ Cohen's *d* = 0.581]. Those who had completed a TESOL certification (see Chapter 1 for its definition) were significantly and relatively substantially more

satisfied with their salary, compared with other JET participants without the same types of the qualification.

The result was somewhat surprising because, as previously mentioned, standard economics theories argued that worker education raised expectations of jobs, which could lead to the lower job satisfaction when expectations were not met. Although unlikely, the results could have been due to the salary discrepancy (i.e., TESOL-certified current ALTs may be receiving a higher salary). To clarify, their salary was reviewed by cross-tabulating their salary according to their TESOL certification background (

Table **37**). There was seemingly no significant difference in what they were receiving.

One plausible explanation for this unique result is that the teachers who had a TESOL certification may have adjusted (i.e., lowered) their expectation of their salary in Japan, while considering other factors such as the salaries they would receive in other contexts of TESOL, or the overall amount of work they had to do as ALTs in Japan. The salary for JET ALTs in Japan may still be higher and perhaps more stable than the salary other ESOL teachers receive in many other contexts of TESOL (e.g., Johnston, 1997; Mullock, 2009). This could also explain why non-JET current ALTs who had a TESOL certification were not more satisfied than the non-JET ALTs without the same types of certification. Simply, their salary may not have been as high as what their JET counterparts, and thus they were all dissatisfied with salary regardless of their TESOL backgrounds.

Teacher workload is also known to be another source of dissatisfaction (e.g., Karavas, 2009). As seen earlier in Table 30, however, ALTs in Japan were highly satisfied with the amount of teaching and administrative work they had to do

(M = 4.52; M = 5.22, respectively). This may have been because these teachers were comparing what they could be doing in other contexts of TESOL, and the amount of teaching and administrative work they had to do (or didn't have to do) while working as assistants for Japanese local teachers. ALTs who did not have any TESOL certification may not have had experience as ESOL teachers in other contexts, which could have worked as a baseline when they determined their satisfaction with their salary.

Table 37. *Cross tabulation TESOL certification status * salary within all current JET ALTs (N = 101, 2 missing)*

		Current JET ALTs with no TESOL certification (% within this group)	Current JET ALTs with a TESOL certification (% within this group)	Total
Income	**200-230K**	7 (9%)	2 8%	9 (9%)
	230,001-260K	12 (16%)	3 (13%)	15 (15%)
	260,001-290K	25 (33%)	6 (25%)	31 (31%)
	290,001-320K	25 (33%)	10 (42%)	35 (35%)
	320,001-350K	2 (3%)	3 (13%)	5 (5%)
	350,001-380K	4 (5%)	0 (0%)	4 (4%)
Total		75 (100%)	24 (100%)	99 (100%)

Section 2: The Measurement Model

The second section in this chapter discusses the results of the two stages of the modelling process: the exploratory factor analysis (EFA); and the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In the EFA stage, firstly the correlation between variables was investigated, and both singularity and multicollinearity were examined. The sampling adequacy was then checked, using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (Kaiser, 1970). Finally, the number of factors to be extracted was determined after carefully considering three different methods [Kaiser's (1960) eigenvalue of 1 criteria, Cattell's (1966) scree plot, and Horn's (1965) parallel analysis]. Three factors were identified through this process: satisfaction with the team-teaching, satisfaction with students' progress; and satisfaction with resources.

In the subsequent CFA stage, single factor congeneric measurement models were separately constructed for each of the identified factors, and tested for fit. A proportionally-weighted index was then computed for each reflective manifest variable in the three factors, which helped the study to compute a single score for each factor for each participant. These scores were used as the outcome variables in the regression models in the subsequent chapters (Chapter 6, 7 and 8).

Stage 1: Exploratory factor analysis. In order to identify the underlying constructs that may exist within the 21 items, the exploratory factor analysis (maximum likelihood) was conducted with orthogonal rotation (varimax). First, an initial screening of the correlation matrix was conducted to identify any items that did not correlate with other items. The visual inspection of the correlation matrix confirmed that the majority of the correlations were greater than 0.3 and most variables had a medium to large correlation with seven or more variables, and all were statistically significant. The process, however, discovered that two items

(salary, and skills and knowledge to do the job as an ALT) correlated with only a few other items above the threshold level at 0.3 (Field, 2013). Therefore, these two items have been treated as "stand alone", and removed from the item set under consideration. These were discussed independently earlier in this chapter.

Second, the correlation matrix was also examined to detect any items that correlated above 0.9 and may therefore lead to multicollinearity. The visual inspection identified that none of the correlation coefficients were greater than 0.9, and before the removal of the above two items (salary and skills), the determinant of the R matrix was 0.00004, which was greater than the accepted level of 0.00001 (Field, 2013). After the removal, the determinant was raised to 0.00007, and the Bartlett's test still yielded a significant result (approx. $\chi^2 = 2127.18(171)$, $\rho < 0.001$).

Third, the adequacy of the sample size for the factor analysis was verified on the remaining 19 items, using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure or KMO (Kaiser, 1970). As seen in Table 38, the overall KMO value was 0.881, which is above "meritorious" level according to Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999). KMO values for the individual variables were also examined using the anti-image correlation matrix. All scores were greater than 0.81, which is well above the acceptable limit of 0.5 (Field, 2013). These KMO values suggest the sample size ($N = 232$) is adequate for the factor analysis, and there is probably a factor structure underlying the variables.

Table 38. *Results of KMO and Bartlett's test*

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.881
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2127.179
	df	171
	Sig.	.000

Finally, the number of factors to be extracted was determined after considering the outcome of three different methods. First, Kaiser (1960) suggests that any factors that have the eigenvalues over 1.0 should be retained. In the present study, five factors met this criterion, and in combination these five factors explained 66.6% of the variance (Table 39). Field (2013, p. 677) suggests, however, that Kaiser's criterion should be used when either the number of variables is less than 30 and the resulting communalities (after extraction) are all greater than 0.7, or when the sample size exceeds 250 and the average communality is greater than or equal to 0.6. Since the present study did not meet either of these conditions, Kaiser's criterion might be inappropriate for the data in the present study.

Table 39. *Total variance explained*

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.437	39.144	39.144	5.262	27.695	27.695	3.220	16.946	16.946
2	1.398	7.359	46.503	2.335	12.289	39.984	2.451	12.902	29.848
3	1.366	7.189	53.692	1.356	7.138	47.122	1.876	9.875	39.723
4	1.274	6.704	60.396	.979	5.152	52.274	1.697	8.934	48.657
5	1.169	6.155	66.551	.875	4.607	56.881	1.563	8.224	56.881
6	.836	4.402	70.953						
7	.734	3.861	74.814						
8	.653	3.439	78.253						
9	.650	3.422	81.674						
10	.568	2.989	84.664						
11	.505	2.656	87.319						
12	.454	2.390	89.709						
13	.394	2.071	91.781						
14	.350	1.841	93.622						
15	.313	1.649	95.270						
16	.271	1.429	96.699						
17	.240	1.263	97.962						
18	.215	1.133	99.096						
19	.172	.904	100.000						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Second, the Cattell's (1966) scree plot was examined (Figure 27). The plot indicated a clear inflexion at two factors, and also somewhat ambiguous inflexion at six factors, suggesting a one or five factors solution may be appropriate.
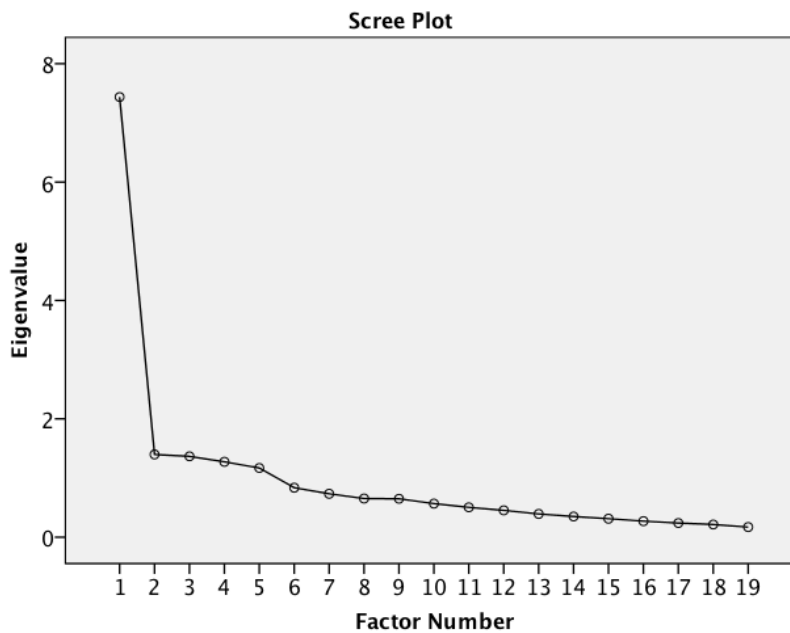
Figure 27. Scree plot

Given that Kaiser's (1960) criterion and Cattell's (1966) scree plot yielded somewhat inconclusive results, a parallel analysis was also conducted as a third method to determine the number of factors to be extracted. Various studies have concluded that parallel analysis is the most robust method to determine the number of factors retained (Glorfeld, 1995; Humphreys & Montanelli, 1975; Zwick & Velicer, 1986).

In this analysis, the eigenvalues were estimated by simulating 1000 normal random samples that contain the same sample size ($N = 232$) and the same number of variables (19). The eigenvalues observed from the data in the present study were then compared to each corresponding 95th percentile random data eigenvalues, and

retained if the observed eigenvalues were larger than the simulated ones. The

analysis was conducted in SPSS, using the syntax described by O'Connor (2000).

As seen from the report in Table 40, all 19 factors had actual eigenvalues (see

Table 39) greater than the corresponding simulated eigenvalues. This result suggests

all 19 factors were statistically significant, and thus should be considered for

retention.

Table 40. *Parallel Analysis report*

Root	Means	Percentile
1.000000	.632045	.752088
2.000000	.522199	.605591
3.000000	.437309	.506012
4.000000	.368771	.431150
5.000000	.304405	.363231
6.000000	.246008	.300604
7.000000	.191963	.239958
8.000000	.141992	.185878
9.000000	.093154	.138999
10.000000	.047388	.087381
11.000000	.002224	.039832
12.000000	-.041342	-.007234
13.000000	-.082675	-.048143
14.000000	-.124132	-.089607
15.000000	-.164988	-.131745
16.000000	-.207052	-.173519
17.000000	-.249091	-.216066
18.000000	-.294303	-.260506
19.000000	-.347496	-.307643

It should be pointed out, however, that parallel analyses often enables

eigenvalues for negligible factors in the real data to surpass corresponding random

data eigenvalues for the same roots, and thus tend to indicate more factors than

warranted (Buja & Eyuboglu, 1992). As an additional procedure to trim trivial

factors, the rotated factor matrix (varimax) was examined visually to identify any cluster(s) of the moderate to high factor loadings (Table 41). As highlighted in three different colours in the matrix, there appear to be three clusters of items loading on the respective factor level of .4 or above (Factors 1, 2, and 3). Factor 4 and Factor 5 have only two items loading on them at the same level.

In order to make a final decision, the model identification with the first three factors was examined. For a model to be identified and thus become testable statistically in confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the model should be overidentified by having the number of the estimable parameters being less than the number of variances and covariances or data points (Byrne, 2010). When the model was just identified, the model fit had to be tested statistically using Cronbach's α (alpha).

Factor 1 was loaded by a total of eight observed variables at 0.4 or above level. Therefore, there will be eight regression coefficients (factor loadings), eight error variances, one factor variance, and no factor covariances. Of these 17 parameters, a fixed value of 1 has been assigned to one of the regression paths to set the metric for the model, and thus this regression coefficient will not be estimated. In total, there are 16 parameters to be estimated in the model in CFA.

The number of data points in the model was then calculated with the eight observed variables, using the formula in Byrne (2010, location 1061) with the number of observed variables denoted as P: P(P+1) / 2. With eight observed variables, the number of data points in the model became 36. Since the number of the estimable parameters (16) is less than the number of data points (36), the model meets the criterion of over-identification with 20 degrees of freedom.

Table 41. *Rotated Factor Matrix*

Satisfaction with:	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Amount of teaching	.759				
Overall roles as ALT	.725	.308			
Freedom to decide how to do your job	.604				
Feedback on performance	.511				
Amount of administrative work	.485				
Work relationships with Japanese teachers	.453			.411	
Balance between work and private	.419				
Value society places on ALTs' work	.403				.310
What you are/were accomplishing with your students	.330	.824			
Students' improvement in English		.790			
The level of response from students		.577			
Student behaviour		.477			
Physical resources			.932		
Educational resources			.601		
Number of staff available to your school	.307		.456		
Work relationships with your Principal				.890	
Work relationships with parents				.511	
Opportunity for career advancement					.944
Opportunity for professional learning	.449				.523

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.[a]

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Similarly, Factor 2 had four observed variables loading at 0.4 or above level, thus there were eight parameters to be estimated in the model in CFA, which was less than the number of data points (10). Again, the model met the criterion of over-identification with 2 degrees of freedom.

Factor 3, however, had only three observed variables loading at 0.4 or above and, therefore, the number of data variances and covariances equalled the number of parameters to be estimated. Therefore, the model would be just identified with no degree of freedom, and the model fit could not be tested using CFA. First, this result suggests that the first three factors should be retained, because all other factors with fewer than three observed variables loading at 0.4 or above level would only produce an under-identified model. Such a model would produce an infinite number of solutions of parameter estimation (Byrne, 2010).

Second, although the model with three observed variables was not suited for testing with CFA, the model will still identify a unique set for all parameters, which could be useful for further analysis, especially if the respective items yield high reliability. To test the reliability of these three items loading on Factor 3 (physical resources, educational resources, number of staff available to your school), Cronbach's α (alpha) was calculated using SPSS. The resulting alpha coefficient for the three items was 0.767 (Table 42) which was above the acceptable level of reliability of 0.7 (George & Mallery, 2003). While Cronbach's α is dependent upon the number of items in the scale, and thus scales with small number of items tend to yield a lower α reliability (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, Black, 1998), the alpha level that was obtained for the three items on Factor 3 was considered as sufficiently reliable.

Table 42. *Cronbach's Alpha for 3 observed variables loading on Factor 3*

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items	N of Items
.767	.768	3

Based on the observation above, it was determined that the first three factors will be extracted. As seen in Table 39 earlier, in total these three factors accounted for nearly 54% of the total variance within the 19 items in the survey. The first two factors were tested statistically in CFA, whereas with Factor 3, AMOS was used to calculate the regression weight for each item.

The eight items loading on Factor 1 (highlighted in blue in Table 41) appeared to relate to the aspects of ALT work associated with team-teaching with the local teachers. Therefore, Factor 1 has been tentatively labelled as "Satisfaction with team-teaching". All of the four items loading on Factor 2 seemed to represent teachers' work with students – in particular their progress – and thus this factor was named tentatively as "Satisfaction with students". The three items on Factor 3 were all about resources, and thus it was named tentatively as "Satisfaction with the resources".

Stage 2: Confirmatory factor analysis.

Factor 1 – Satisfaction with team-teaching. Single factor congeneric measurement models were separately constructed and tested for fit. A single factor congeneric model of *satisfaction with team-teaching* was initially specified as a latent variable with eight reflective indicators. This initial model with standardised
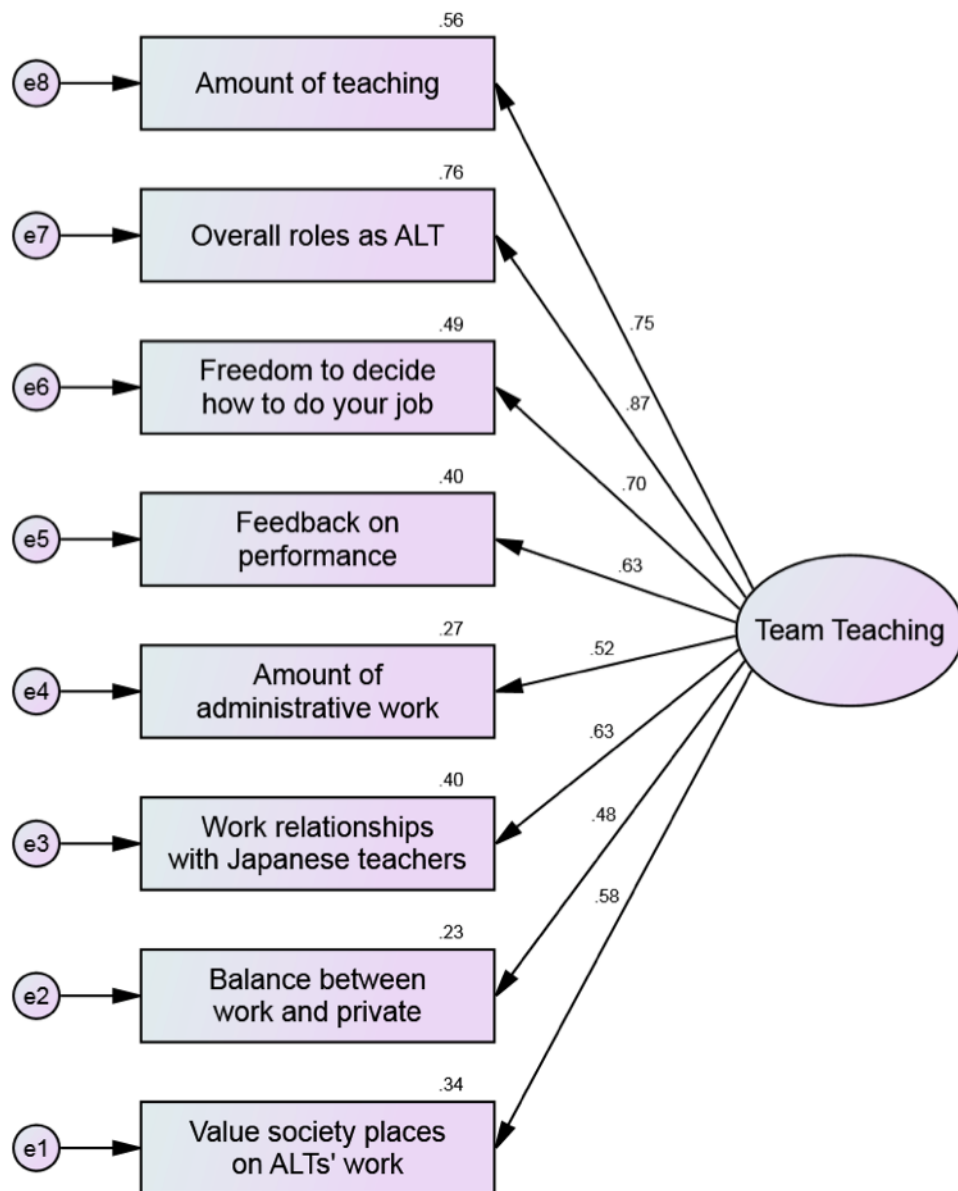
Figure 28. Initial single factor congeneric measurement model for a latent variable *Satisfaction with team-teaching*

As seen in Figure 28, factor coefficients ranged from a low of 0.48 to a high of 0.87. Since all coefficients exceed 0.4, all items would be retained if the model was a good fit. However, the model did not fit the data well χ^2 (20 = 59.443, ρ = 0.000).

The modification index (MI) demonstrated that the chi-squared value could be reduced by 21 units and thus the model fit would improve significantly, if the covariance of the error terms for the two indicators *Overall roles as ALT* and *Value society places on ALT's work* was freely estimated. An examination of the standardised residual covariance matrix indicated *Value society places on ALT's work* was not a good fit with its standardised residuals being constantly over 1.0. The social value of ALTs' work did not appear to fit well with their work associated with team-teaching, and therefore, as a preliminary measure, this item was removed from the model.

The model converged again and was a good fit (Figure 29). The factor coefficients ranged from a low of 0.51 to a high of 0.84, which is a good result. In summary, a one-factor congeneric model of the latent construct *Team-teaching* was re-specified as a latent variable with seven reflective indicators.

The data fit the model well χ^2 (14) = 17.926, ρ = 0.210, CMIN/DF = 1.280, RMSEA = 0.035 (0.000, 0.077), GFI = 0.978, AGFI = 0.956, TLI = .0989 and CFI = 0.993. The relative chi-squared (chi-square/degree of freedom ratio or CMIN/DF) for this model yielded 1.280 which, according to Byrne (1998), indicates a good fit. Adjusted goodness of fit statistic (AGFI = 0.956) was also above the widely-accepted threshold of 0.9 (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Both the normed-fit index (NFI = 0.969) and the comparative fit index (CFI = 0.993) were above the cut-off criteria of 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), which suggests the model is a good fit.
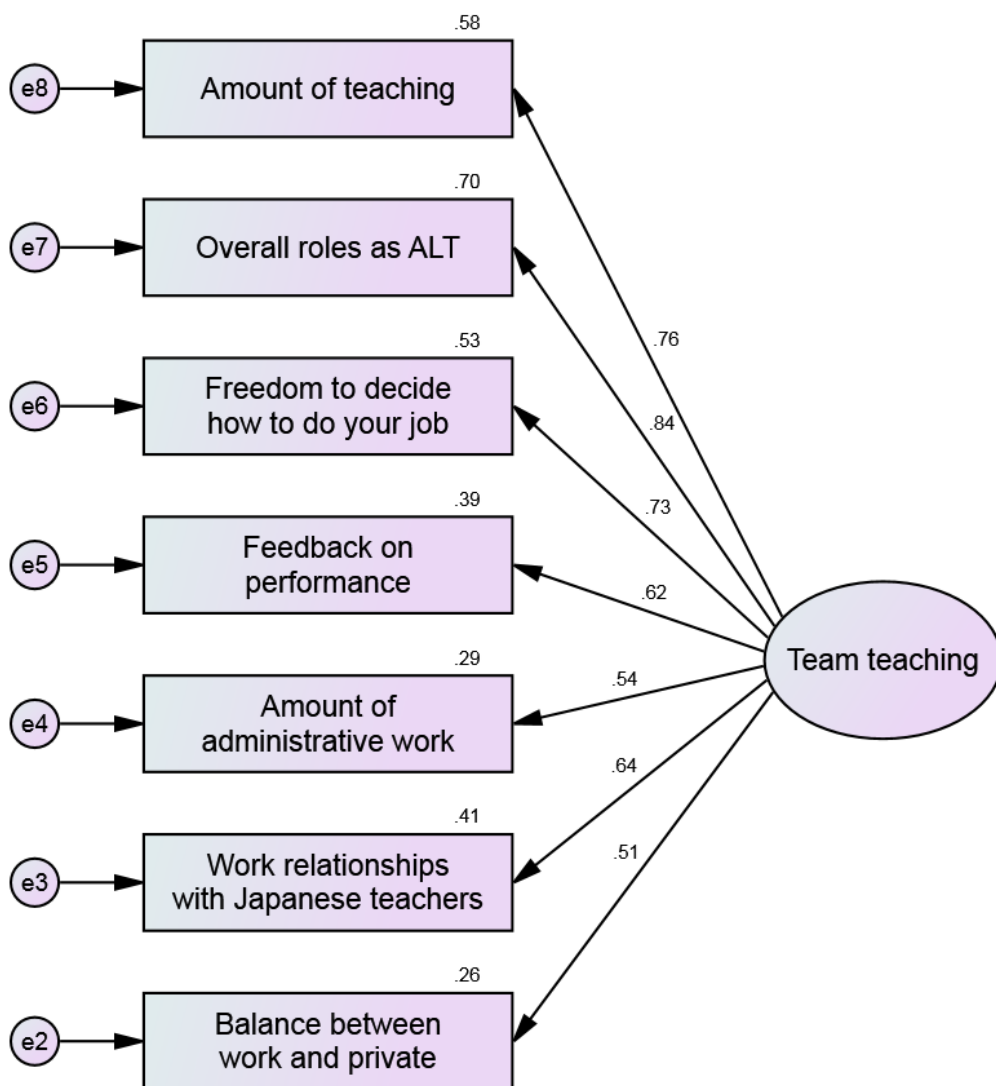
Figure 29. Re-specified single factor congeneric measurement model for a latent variable *Satisfaction with team-teaching*

These seven reflective variables were identified as collectively quantifying internal aspects of ALT team-teaching work with local teachers, and thus were named as *Satisfaction with team-teaching*. Four of these variables (overall roles as ALT, the amount of teaching, the amount of administrative work, and the balance between work and private) were identified as relating to quality and quantity of ALT work during team-teaching, based on research which has examined roles and

workload of ALTs during team-teaching (e.g., Mahoney, 2004; Tsuido, Otani, & Davies, 2012). The other three variables (freedom to decide how to do your job, feedback on your performance, and relationship with Japanese teachers) were identified as relating to professional communication with local teachers, which is consistent with recent literature as a controversial aspect of team-teaching in the JET program (e.g., Miyazato, 2009).

An individual scale score for the latent construct *Satisfaction with team-teaching* was computed by following procedures. First, the proportional weight of each (raw) regression coefficient was computed (Table 43), so that the weighted-coefficients in this construct sum to 1. This process ensured that the composite score would range from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 7. Second, the individual's raw score for each indicator was then multiplied by this proportionally-weighted coefficient of each indicator. Third, all scores of individual indicators were added to obtain a single score for this particular construct. These procedures helped the study to compute a single score for this construct as a continuous variable. It also ensured that the sore is proportionally weighted according to the contribution from each indicator, while being adjusted for individual and joint measurement error. The scale score then becomes:

Satisfaction with team-teaching score = (Amount of teaching * *0.183*) + (Amount of admin work * 0.078) + (Balance between work and private * 0.084) + (Freedom to decide how to do your job * 0.146) + (Feedback on your performance * 0.096) + (Relationship with Japanese teachers * 0.115) + (Overall roles as ALT * 0.298)

Table 43. *Regression Weights*

	Amount of teaching	Overall roles as ALT	Freedom to decide how to do your job	Feedback on your performance	Amount of admin work	Relationship with Japanese teachers	Balance between work and private
Raw regression weights Team-teaching	.094	.153	.075	.049	.040	.059	.043
Proportional regression weights Team-teaching	.183	.298	.146	.096	.078	.115	.084

Factor 2 – Satisfaction with students. Similar to the first factor, a single-factor congeneric model of *Satisfaction with students* was specified as a latent variable with four reflective indicators and tested for fit. Figure 30 illustrates the initial model with standardised parameters for each indicator.
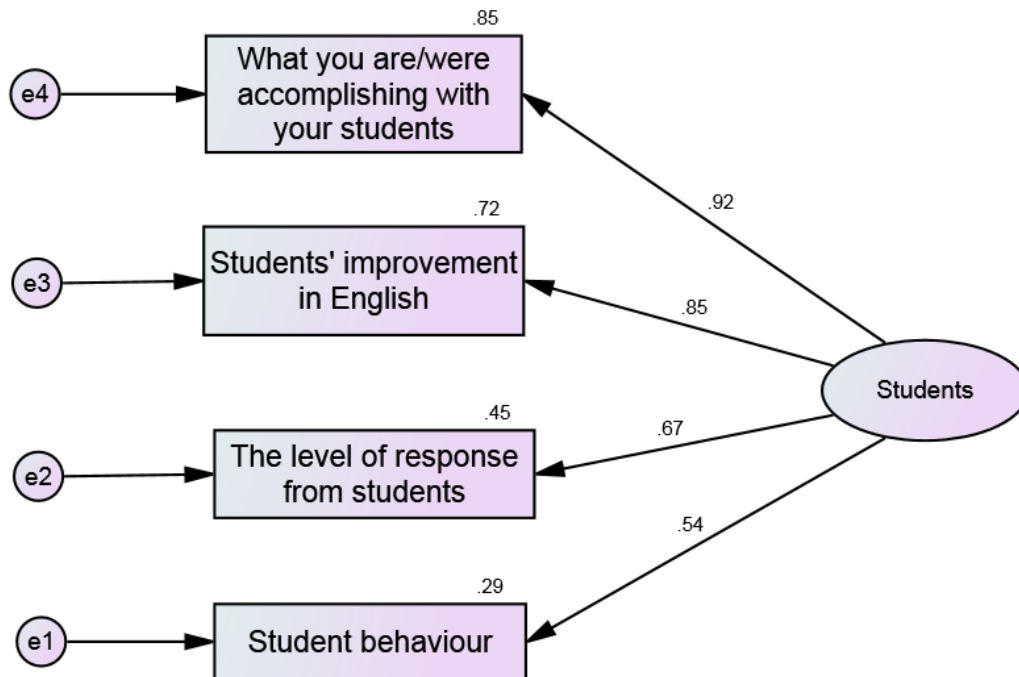
Figure 30. Initial single factor congeneric measurement model for a latent variable *Satisfaction with students*

While the factor coefficients ranged from a low of 0.54 to a high of 0.92 (Figure 30), the model did not fit the data well χ^2 (2) = 14.243, ρ = 0.001. An examination of the modification index indicated the chi-squared value would decrease by at least 13 units if the covariance of the error terms for the indicators *Student behaviour* and *The level of response from students* was freely estimated. An investigation of the standardised residual covariance matrix indicated *Student*

behaviour was not a good fit with one standardised residual value over 3.0 and another over 2.0. The item *Student behaviour* was then dropped from the model.

The removal of the above item resulted in this model being just identified with no degree of freedom (Figure 31). While this means model fit cannot be tested using CFA, it may still yield a unique set of parameters for the three observed variables, which can be useful for further analysis. In order to test the reliability of these three items loading on Factor 2 (what you are/were accomplishing with your students, students' improvement in English, the level of response from students), Cronbach's α was calculated using SPSS. The three items had high reliability of 0.847 (Table 44) which is above the good level of reliability of 0.8 (George & Mallery, 2003).
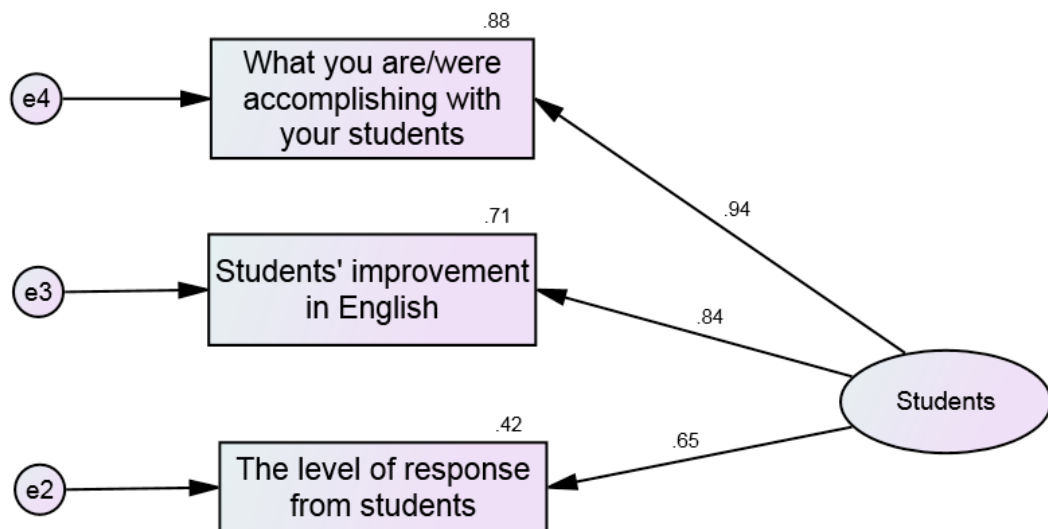
Figure 31. Re-specified single factor congeneric measurement model for a latent variable *Students' progress*

Table 44. *Cronbach's Alpha for three observed variables loading on Factor 3*

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items	N of Items
.847	.847	3

After the removal of the variable (*Students' behaviour*), the factor was renamed as *Satisfaction with students' progress*, as the three remaining variables seemed to be all associated with students' progress in learning English. A scale score for the latent construct *Satisfaction with students' progress* was then calculated following the same procedure that was outlined earlier for Factor 1 (*Satisfaction with team-teaching*). The proportionally-weighted regression coefficient of each indicator in this construct is summarised in Table 45.

Table 45. *Regression Weights*

	What you are/were accomplishing with your students	Students' improvement in English	The level of response from students
Raw regression weights *Students*	.431	.164	.064
Proportional regression weights *Students*	.654	.249	.097

The scale score for *Satisfaction with students' progress* score then becomes:

Satisfaction with the students' progress score = (What you are/were accomplishing with your students * 0.654) + (Students' improvement in English * 0.249) + (The level of response from students * 0.097)

Factor 3 – Satisfaction with resources. As discussed earlier, the three items loading

on Factor 3 had relatively high reliability ($\alpha = 0.767$, and therefore, this just

identified model (Figure 32) was still constructed using AMOS to identify respective

regression weights for these items (physical resources, educational resources, number

of staff available to your school). This factor was named as *Satisfaction with*

resources, because all three variables related to resources available to ALTs:

physical resources (e.g., buildings, classrooms); educational resources (e.g., books,

pictures); and human resources (e.g., colleagues, supervisors).
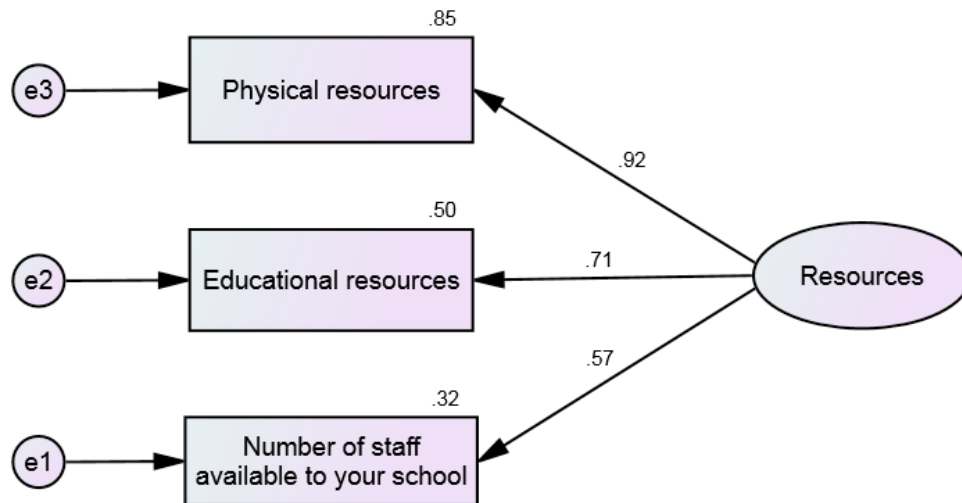
Figure 32. A single factor congeneric measurement model for a latent variable
Resources

Again, a scale score for *Resources* construct was computed using the

proportionally-weighted regression coefficient of each indicator and summing (Table

46). Therefore, the scale score for *Satisfaction with resources* becomes:

Satisfaction with the resources = (Physical resources * 0.747) + (Educational

resources * 0.147) + (Number of staff available to your school * 0.106)

Table 46. *Regression Weights*

	Physical resources	Educational resources	Number of staff available to your school
Raw regression weights *Resources*	.411	.081	.058
Proportional regression weights *Resources*	.747	.147	.106

Reliability and validity measures. Traditional measures of reliability and validity were not adequate for the measurement model in the study, because it was neither a tau-equivalent nor parallel model, in which factor loadings are usually assumed to be equal. Instead, this study adopted four measures of reliability: squared multiple correlations (SMC), construct reliability, variance extracted, and coefficient H.

The SMC shows the proportion of variance in indicator variables that are being accounted for by the factor. For a factor to be considered reliable to an indicator variable, the SMC should be greater than at least 0.3 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989). The SMCs for the seven indicator variables mapped by the *Satisfaction with team-teaching* factor were: amount of teaching 0.585, overall roles 0.699, freedom to decide how to do your job 0.532), feedback on your performance 0.388), amount of administrative work 0.292, relationship with Japanese teachers 0.407, and balance between your work and private life 0.256. In summary the *Satisfaction with team-teaching* factor explains between 26% and 70% of the variance across the individual indicator variables.

While the two indicator variables (i.e., amount of administrative work, and balance between your work and private life) were slightly below the acceptable cut-off point (0.292 and 0.256 respectively), the decision was made to retain these items based on the result of other reliability measures as discussed further in this section, and the overall fit of the model as outlined earlier. Also, the items appear to contextually map a similar construct to other items.

Construct reliability measures how a group of reflective indicators are internally consistent. Unlike Cronbach's alpha, it estimates model parameters, in particular measurement errors (Hair et al., 2006). The accepted cut-off is 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) or 0.7 (Hair et al., 2006). The construct reliability for the *Satisfaction with team-teaching* factor was 0.85, which is well above these recommended cut-off points.

The variance extracted measure indicates the overall amount of variance in indicator variables that a factor/model has been able to explain. While Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommended that the variance extracted should exceed 0.5, they also argue the convergent validity of a construct can be acceptable if the construct reliability is higher than 0.6. The variance extracted from the indicators by the *Satisfaction with team-teaching* factor was 0.58, which is just above the recommended cut-off point. The result means the team-teaching factor accounts in total for 58% of the variation in the indicator variables. Also, as seen earlier, the construct reliability for Satisfaction with team-teaching factor was 0.85, a well above the recommended threshold at 0.6.

Coefficient *H* (Hancock & Mueller, 2001) is another measure to estimate construct reliability for multidimensional composite scores. It is "the squared correlation between a latent construct and the optimum linear composite formed by its indicators" (Rotgans & Schmidt, 2008, p. 254), and thus it can take into account the contributions of all reflective Indicators, including those with a negative or small loading. The coefficient *H* value for the team-teaching factor model was 0.875. This value is well above the recommended cut-off value of 0.7 (Hancock & Mueller, 2001), and thus represents a high reliability.

Convergent validity is another measure of construct validity, which demonstrates how well a latent factor is explained by its reflective indicators individually (Luke et al., 2011). To establish this particular validity, factor loadings between a latent variable and its individual reflective variables need to be significantly different from zero. In the study, the critical ratio of the parameter estimates was used to evaluate the statistical significance. The critical ratios for the indicator variables in *Satisfaction with team-teaching* were: amount of teaching 7.352; overall roles 7.556; freedom to decide how to do your job 7.224; feedback on your performance 6.604; amount of administrative work 6.190; and relationship with Japanese teachers 6.699. All of these ratios were significant at the 0.001 level, which strongly supports the convergent validity.

Summary

The first section of this chapter presented the results of the questionnaire data on participating teachers' satisfaction with 21 facets of their work in Japan. As expected from the literature, ALTs were relatively highly satisfied with the intrinsic and altruistic aspects of their work, such as the amount of teaching and administrative work, autonomy, and work relationship with the principals and parents.

Contrary to previous qualitative studies (e.g., McConnell, 2000; Tsuido, 2007), ALTs in the study were relatively highly satisfied with their relationship with local teachers with whom they were team-teaching (M = 4.92), and there was no difference between either current and former teachers, or between JET and non-JET ALTs. The ALTs were also highly satisfied with their autonomy at work.

Surprisingly, variations in ALT teacher education backgrounds or Japanese language learning backgrounds do not affect their satisfaction with the relationship with the local teachers. Also, their TESOL teacher education backgrounds do not make any influence on their satisfaction with their autonomy. Preliminarily, these findings seemed to reject Japan's anecdotal claim of the tension between certified teachers from overseas and local teachers.

By contrast, ALTs who had teacher education backgrounds were significantly and substantially more satisfied with their own skills and knowledge to do their job as ALTs in Japan. These results suggest that ALT roles and responsibilities, despite ambiguity and their context-dependent nature reported in the literature (e.g., Mahoney, 2004), matched with what these teachers had learned in their teacher education.

Also as expected from the literature, ALTs in the study were less satisfied with the extrinsic aspects of their job such as the opportunity for professional learning or career advancement, feedback on their performance, and with the value society places on these teachers. Satisfaction with career advancement was particularly low among this group of ESOL teachers. Some contextual factors that may explain this finding were discussed both for the JET and non-JET groups of the participants.

One unique aspect of the participants' satisfaction with extrinsic aspects was the contradiction with the literature related to salary. Overall, participants were highly satisfied with what they were receiving in Japan. Further analysis revealed that it was the JET group who held such a high level of satisfaction with their salary, whereas the non-JET group was significantly and substantially less satisfied with their salary. This was not surprising given that the non-JET group was receiving significantly less salary compared to the JET participants (Chapter 4).

Interestingly however, the ALT TESOL certification background was making a positive difference to the (mean) satisfaction with salary only for current JET ALTs. Their educational qualifications may have broadened their job perspectives as an ESOL teacher in other contexts, which may have given them other references to job characteristics (e.g., salary, duties); such additional knowledge of work conditions in other TESOL contexts may have helped them to adjust their expectations of salary in Japan, which may have affected their perception of the salary in a positive manner.

In the second section of this chapter, the results of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were reported and discussed. Several assumptions required were examined. First, the correlation matrix was visually inspected to search for variables that were correlating too high or not correlating at all. Then the adequacy of the sample size was verified, using the

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (Kaiser, 1970). Finally, the number of factors to be extracted for the subsequent CFA was determined after considering Kaiser's (1960) eigenvalue, a scree plot, and a parallel analysis. Given the inconsistent results of these conventional criteria, the rotated factor matrix (varimax) was examined visually, and three groups of variables were identified. To test the reliability of these three factors, Cronbach's α coefficient was computed for each. The test yielded very high levels of the reliability for all three factors.

These factors were then examined in the CFA in order to take into account the individual and joint measurement error in each factor. After a few reflective variables were removed, the single factor congeneric model identified three clusters of reflective variables that could fit well with the data. These were participant satisfaction with team-teaching, satisfaction with students' progress, and satisfaction with the resources. These variables identified were then used as the outcome variables in the regression analysis for the next three chapters (Chapters 6, 7 and 8).

Chapter 6: Results and Discussion (The Relationship between the Teachers' Demographic and Linguistic Backgrounds, and Their Job Satisfaction)

Introduction

In Chapter 4, the backgrounds of participants (demographic, linguistic, and educational) and the job characteristics were examined. In the previous chapter (Chapter 5), their job satisfaction with different facets of their work was examined. In each of the next three chapters, the relationship between backgrounds and job characteristics, and job satisfaction will be investigated. Altogether, the next three chapters will investigate the third research question ("To what extent do ALT backgrounds and job characteristics appear to influence ALTs' perceived job satisfaction in Japan?"), and also the fourth research question ("Of all the factors, to what extent do TESOL qualifications appear to influence job satisfaction?").

This chapter particularly focuses on the relationship between teacher demographic and linguistic factors (the predictor variables or PV, e.g., age, gender, years of Japanese study) and their job satisfaction scores (dependent variables or DV). Firstly, the findings from multiple regression analyses which examined the relationship statistically will be discussed. Interview data will then be explored to identify any plausible contextual explanations for the regression results. In the previous chapter, three job satisfaction scores specified as a result of the explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis were used as DVs in the regression models here (and in Chapters 7 and 8). These were DV_1 (satisfaction with team-teaching), DV_2 (satisfaction with the students' progress), and DV_3 (satisfaction with resources).

Regression Analysis

In order to examine the relationship between participants demographic and linguistic backgrounds (PVs), and the three job satisfaction scores (DV_1, DV_2, and DV_3), three multiple regression models were estimated and tested for their fit (Model 1, Model 2, and Model 3). Since no previous studies appear to have been conducted in this area of enquiry, an attempt was made to explore the potential influence of a wide range of the participants' backgrounds that were derived from the questionnaire data. In the following, the procedures for recoding the participants' demographic and linguistic backgrounds into the PVs were outlined first, followed by the result of the analysis.

Recoding process. The PVs included in the models in this chapter are summarised in Table 47. The four PVs were entered as dichotomous variables (gender, nationality, race, and present work status). Each respective baseline group was assigned a score of 0, and then compared to the other group that was given a score of 1. Other PVs were entered as interval variables (e.g., age, length of residency in Japan). Some sub-groups within these variables had relatively small sample sizes, and therefore were combined with other groups in order to increase the sample size within the single group. The cut-off sample size for each sub-group was set at $n = 20$, following the result in Teare, Dimairo, Shephard, Hayman, Whitehead, and Walters (2014). For example, the age groups between 36 and 40 ($n = 15$), between 41 and 45 ($n = 20$), between 46 and 50 ($n = 7$), and 51 or older ($n = 5$) were all combined into a new group: age 36 or older ($n = 47$).

Table 47. *The predictor variables (PVs) and the assigned scores in Model 1, 2 and 3*

Predictor variables	Assigned score and category in each variable
Age (no missing)	1. 21 to 25 ($n = 70$) 2. 26 to 30 ($n = 72$) 3. 31 to 35 ($n = 43$) 4. 36 or older ($n = 47$)
Gender (4 missing)	0. Male ($n = 93$) 1. Female ($n = 135$)
Total length of the residency in Japan (no missing)	1. Less than 1 year ($n = 36$) 2. 1 to 2 years ($n = 55$) 3. 2 to 4 years ($n = 75$) 4. 4 to 6 years ($n = 31$) 5. 6 years or longer ($n = 35$)
Nationality (1 missing)	0. American ($n = 111$) 1. Non American ($n = 120$)
Race (no missing)	0. Caucasians ($n = 189$) 0. Non Caucasians ($n = 43$)
Number of languages spoken (no missing)	1. 1 language ($n = 32$) 2. 2 languages ($n = 119$) 3. 3 languages ($n = 58$) 1. 4 or more languages ($n = 23$)
Length of their Japanese study (1 missing)	1. Not studied Japanese ($n = 24$) 2. Less than 1 year ($n = 23$) 3. 1 - 3 years ($n = 68$) 4. 4 – 6 years, ($n = 56$) 4. 7 years or more ($n = 60$)
Present work status (no missing)	0. Current ALTs ($n = 132$) 5. Former ALTs ($n = 100$)

Among the variables representing participant linguistic backgrounds, their self-identification as a "native speaker of English" could not be included due to the lack of variance ($n = 229$, 98.7%). The participants' first language was also not included due to the unexpectedly large number of missing cases ($n = 107$) as identified earlier, potentially due to some questionnaire technical issues (see Chapter 4).

Also, the model could not include another two measures of the participants' proficiency level in Japanese: the Japanese language course by the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations, and the Japanese Language Proficiency Test. These were not included, as fewer than half of the participants had taken the course or test, and thus these measures could not be recoded in a meaningful manner while maintaining an adequate sample size at each level.

After the above considerations, the following three PVs that represent the participants' linguistic backgrounds were initially included in the model: the number of languages they speak, length of Japanese study, and self-assessed Japanese proficiency level. However, the initial inspection of the correlation matrix revealed, perhaps not surprisingly, that the length of Japanese study and self-assessed proficiency level in Japanese were correlated over 0.8. The decision was made to drop the self-assessed proficiency level from the model, since the length of Japanese study was a relatively more objective measurement of one's experience in Japanese language learning.

Model 1: Influence on DV_1 (satisfaction with team-teaching). Overall, the participants' demographic and linguistic backgrounds failed to explain DV_1 (the satisfaction with the team-teaching, $N = 226$, Table 48). The PVs in this group in total explained only 5% of the variances in DV_1 [$R = 0.227$, $R^2 = 0.051$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.016$, $F(8, 217) = 1.467$, $\rho = 0.171$].

Not surprisingly, the inspection of the individual *t* statistics showed that none of the PVs had any significant influence individually on this particular satisfaction score. ALT satisfaction with team-teaching seems to have varied regardless of their demographic or linguistic backgrounds, such as age, gender, the total length of their time in Japan, nationality, race, the number of languages they spoke, and the length of their study of Japanese.

Table 48. *Model 1: Linear model of predictors (the demographic and linguistic backgrounds) of the change in satisfaction with team-teaching (95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, N = 226)*

Predictor variables	*b* (CI* low and high)	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*ρ*
Constant	4.036 (3.180, 4.893)	0.435		9.287	.000
Age	0.166 (-0.039, 0.371)	0.104	.139	1.592	.113
Gender	0.078 (-0.283, 0.438)	0.183	.029	0.424	.672
Length of residency in Japan	0.066 (-0.101, 0.234)	0.085	.063	0.778	.437
Nationality	0.106 (-0.262, 0.474)	0.187	.041	0.568	.570
Race	-0.084 (-0.545, 0.378)	0.234	-.024	-0.358	.721
Number of languages spoken	0.032 (-0.177, 0.242)	0.106	.021	0.306	.760
Length of Japanese study	-0.078 (-0.223, 0.068)	0.074	-.075	-1.051	.294
Current or former ALT	0.124 (-0.257, 0.506)	0.193	.047	0.643	.521

$R = 0.227$, $R^2 = 0.051$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.016$, $F (8, 217) = 1.467$, $\rho = 0.171$, $\alpha = 0.05$
*95% Confidence Interval

The results were rather surprising given that a substantial number of (qualitative) studies have reported how these background factors (or lack of them) of ALTs – or of foreign teachers in Japan in general – affect their professional lives. For instance, some reported that ALTs' lack of proficiency in Japanese impeded communication with local teachers for the necessary negotiation of their roles, or made them feel isolated and stressed in the Japanese school community (e.g., Otani & Tsuido, 2007). Also, given that American English has been standardised as a norm widely in English language education in Japan (e.g., Honna, 2008; Kubota, 1998), those who were not American were often requested to suppress their own accent, or act as Americans (e.g., Crump, 2007; Kubota, 2002). Based on the regression model here, however, none of these characteristics appear to have made any difference to their perceptions of work. This was further analysed using the interview data later in this chapter.

Model 2: Influence on DV_2 (satisfaction with students' progress). Again, the overall fit of the model was not significant ($N = 226$, Table 49). The model accounted only for 5% of variances in DV_2 [the satisfaction with students, $R = 0.224$, $R^2 = 0.050$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.015$, $F (8, 217) = 1.436$, $\rho = 0.183$]. Overall, participant satisfaction with students' progress changed irrespective of teacher demographic and linguistic backgrounds.

Similar to the model tested for DV_1 (satisfaction with team-teaching) earlier, the individual t statistics showed very little influence of most of the individual PVs upon DV_2. The participants' satisfaction with students' progress changed seemingly independently of their demographic and linguistic backgrounds factors such as age, gender, nationality, race, number of languages they spoke, and the length of their study in Japanese.

Table 49. *Model 2: Linear model of predictors (demographic and linguistic backgrounds) of the change in satisfaction with students' progress (95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, N = 226)*

Predictor variables	b	SE B	β	t	ρ
Constant	3.780 (2.859, 4.701)	0.467		8.089	.000
Age	0.081 (-0.140, 0.301)	0.112	.063	0.721	.471
Gender	.083 (-0.3005, 0.471)	0.197	.029	0.420	.675
Length of residency in Japan	0.191 (0.011, 0.371)	0.091	.170	2.090	.038*
Nationality	0.238 (-0.158, 0.634)	0.201	.085	1.186	.237
Race	-0.153 (-0.649, 0.344)	0.252	-.041	-0.606	.545
Number of languages spoken	-0.039 (-0.264, 0.186)	0.114	-.023	-0.342	.732
Length of Japanese study	-0.051 (-0.208, 0.105)	0.079	-.046	-0.647	.518
Current or former ALT	-0.194 (-0.604, 0.216)	0.208	-.068	-0.935	.351

$R = 0.224$, $R^2 = 0.050$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.015$, $F (8, 217) = 1.436$, $\rho = 0.183$

However, one particular PV in this group appeared to have a significant influence over their satisfaction with the students' progress – the total length of their residency in Japan. While this particular background of ALTs was associated neither with their satisfaction with team-teaching (Table 48), nor with resources (Table 50), it was making a small difference to their satisfaction with students' progress ($b = 0.191$, *SE B* $= 0.091$, $t = 2.090$, $\rho = 0.038$, Table 49). As outlined earlier, this PV was recoded as: 1 = less than 1 year ($n = 36$); 1 to 2 years ($n = 55$); 2 to 4 years ($n = 75$); 4 to 6 years ($n = 31$); and 6 years or longer ($n = 35$). With the small effect size (Cohen's $d = 0.279$) and a positive b coefficient ($b = 0.191$), the result suggested

that the longer the participants had lived in Japan, the slightly more satisfied they were with students' progress.

The regression only shows the strength and direction (positive, negative, or lacking) of the relationship between variables, but not any causal relationship (e.g., Didelez, 2007; Steinberg, 2008). Therefore, the possibility that happier ALTs were staying in their job longer, and unhappy ones were leaving the position sooner, cannot be excluded. Some studies in industrial psychology reported a relatively high correlation between worker job satisfaction and their intention to leave their job (Carsten & Spector, 1987; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010). Naturally then, ALTs who were more satisfied with their work were less likely to leave their position as ALTs, whereas those who were less satisfied with their work may be thinking of leaving the position.

Nevertheless, the result could indicate that the longer ALTs lived in Japan, the more they may have learned new skills and/or knowledge, which may have helped them to adjust their expectations of their work. Such an adjustment in one's expectations may have affected their perceptions of their work. In previous qualitative studies, limited understanding of ALTs of Japanese culture was reported to have resulted in an increased level of frustration at the lack of responsiveness of their students (McConnell, 2000; Miyazato, 2009). The regression result here seems to support these findings. A participant who had lived in Japan longer may have developed better understandings of Japanese culture, including how Japanese students tend (not) to respond to their teachers in class. These understandings may have helped ALTs adjust their expectations, which may have made some changes to their perceptions of the students' progress.

Interestingly, as discussed later, the number of years of experience as an ALT also made a significant difference to their satisfaction with students, as well as to satisfaction with team-teaching. Not surprisingly, these two variables (length of residence in Japan, and years of experience as an ALT) were highly correlated to each other (0.797); therefore, further regression analysis could not be conducted to determine whether it was their experience in Japan outside their work, or their work experience as the ALTs at Japanese schools, that influenced their perceptions of work. As discussed later, however, interview data indicated the latter was likely to be the case. For this reason, this result is also discussed further, when the potential influence of their experience as ALTs on their satisfaction is analysed in Chapter 8.

Model 3: Influence on DV$_3$ (satisfaction with resources). Again, overall fit of the model was not significant ($N = 226$, Table 50) with DV$_3$ (satisfaction with resources). Only 4% of its variances were accounted for by the model [$R = 0.205$, $R^2 = 0.042$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.007$, $F (8, 217) = 1.187$, $\rho = 0.308$]. The result suggests that, overall, participant perception of resources was independent of their demographic and linguistic backgrounds. The individual t-statistics indicated that most of the PVs were not associated with this type of satisfaction score.

Nevertheless, one PV (nationality) was making a difference to the satisfaction with the resources at a significant level. The PV was recoded as $0 =$ Americans ($n = 109$, 2 missing), and $1 =$ non-Americans ($n = 117$, 3 missing). Similar to what was observed in the length of residency in Japan in Model 2 earlier, participant nationality was associated at a significant level only with DV$_3$ (satisfaction with resources, $b = 0.422$, $SE B = 0.198$, $t = 2.131$, $\rho = 0.034$, Table 50). This PV did not make any difference to their satisfaction with DV$_1$ (satisfaction with team-teaching, Table 48); or DV$_2$ (satisfaction with students' progress, Table 49). The b coefficient

was positive, and the effect size was relatively small ($d = 0.284$), therefore, the result indicated that non-Americans were slightly more satisfied with resources (physical, educational, human resources) than American participants. This result was further analysed with the interview later in this chapter.

Table 50. *Model 3: Linear model of predictors (demographic and linguistic backgrounds) of the change in satisfaction with resources (95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, N = 226)*

Predictor variables	b	SE B	β	t	ρ
Constant	4.429 (3.520, 5.338)	0.461		9.605	.000
Age	0.158 (-0.060, 0.375)	0.110	.126	1.427	.155
Gender	0.088 (-0.295, 0.471)	0.194	.031	0.455	.650
Length of residency in Japan	-0.086 (-0.264, 0.092)	0.090	-.078	-0.954	.341
Nationality	0.422 (0.032, 0.813)	0.198	.153	2.131	.034*
Race	-0.164 (-0.654, 0.326)	0.249	-.045	-0.660	.510
Number of languages spoken	0.074 -0.148, 0.296	0.113	.044	0.654	.514
Length of Japanese study	0.054 (-0.100, 0.209)	0.078	.050	0.694	.489
Current or former ALT	-0.112 (-0.516, 0.293)	0.205	-.040	-0.544	.587

$R = 0.205$, $R^2 = 0.042$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.007$, $F (8, 217) = 1.187$, $\rho = 0.308$

Interview data

The three regression models tested above demonstrated that, overall, participant demographic and linguistic backgrounds did not make any significant and substantial difference to any of the three satisfaction scores. The only two cases that showed some significant influence were the association between participants' years of residence in Japan and their satisfaction with student progress, and the association between their nationality and their satisfaction with resources. As reported above, the magnitude of the difference was relatively small in both relationships (Cohen's $d = 0.279, 0.284$, respectively).

In this section, the interview data – collected from the 37 participants after the questionnaire – were examined to search for plausible explanations for both the significant and insignificant associations between participants' demographic and language backgrounds and their satisfaction scores.

First, the limited interview data were analysed to help the study explore plausible explanations for the influence of the participants' nationality upon their satisfaction. Second, relatively richer data from the interview were analysed to gain more in-depth understandings of how the NS teachers' proficiency in Japanese greatly affected their professional lives, while failing to show statistically-significant associations.

Nationality. The relative lack of the influence of ALT nationality upon their work was somewhat supported by the interview data. Of the 37 interviewees, only two ALTs (ALT10 from Australia, ALT2 from Canada) who made some reference to nationality and the associated accents in relation to their work. The frequency of these references in the interview data seems to lend support to the conclusion that ALT nationality had very little influence over their professional lives.

Nonetheless, one of the above ALTs (ALT10) briefly shared his experience of one local teacher's intolerance towards the use of his non-American accent in class. His account provided a plausible interpretation for the lack of association between the nationality and the satisfaction with team-teaching. The other ALT (ALT2) shared his account, which helped the study explore another plausible explanation for the minor but significant influence of nationality on satisfaction with the resources. Since their accounts were not addressed repeatedly by other interviewees, the interpretations of this particular part of the data remain at best plausible, and thus should be referenced with some caution.

Satisfaction with team-teaching. ALT10, who was an Australian ALT, had been working with a number of different Japanese teachers at the same junior high school. Below is what he had to say:

> I do remember having an incident where somebody complained my
>
> pronunciation wasn't American enough … one particular teacher. (ALT10)

This particular short quote illustrates, firstly, the negative attitudes towards the non-American accent of the ALTs may still exist to some extent among some local teachers. It also indicates that other local teachers had different reactions, suggesting the local teachers' inconsistent perceptions of the different accents of English. Although American English has been adopted as a standardised model at the national curriculum level (Honna, 2008; Mizuno, 2005), there may still be individual variations in the perceptions or perhaps understandings of different varieties of English among local teachers, and perhaps among students. Such a variation may have come from the more tolerant attitudes towards non-American types of English within the countries in Kachru's inner circle (e.g., Canada, the U.K. Australia, or New Zealand – Kubota, 2004), or the Japanese learners' limited ability to

differentiate between American and non-American accents (Fukuda, 2010; Matsuda, 2003; McKenzie, 2013).

The potential individual differences in local teacher attitudes towards variations of English may pose a question over the school-based placement of new ALTs by CLAIR. Local schools tend to bear their own preferences and perceptions of their ideal ALTs, often based on their own experiences of working with other foreign teachers in the past. One of the important roles of CLAIR is to negotiate with these schools, and carefully match individual ALTs with individual schools, taking into account ALT "skin colour, sex, nationality, age, English accent, teaching experience, educational level, and major field of study" (McConnell, 2000, p. 137).

If there is a variation in individual local teacher preferences of the type(s) of ALTs to work with, then a school's request for a particular attribute in an ALTs (e.g., nationality) may not always match with the individual local teachers' perceptions within the same school. The exact reasons for the local teachers' individualised attitudes towards the different varieties of English are beyond the scope of this study, and will be an interesting focus for the future research. Nonetheless, local teachers' individual attitudes and perceptions of different varieties of English and foreign teachers may have affected the ALTs' work experience in team-teaching in a non-systematic manner, even among American ALTs. This then may have contributed to the random association between nationality and experience during the team-teaching.

Satisfaction with resources. The non-substantial but significant influence of ALT nationality upon satisfaction with resources was somewhat puzzling. This was partly because none of the interviewees expressed their views on resources, including the physical resources (e.g., buildings and rooms), educational resources (e.g.,

teaching equipment, CDs, textbooks), or other human resources (i.e., the number of other teachers or ALTs available at school).

Nevertheless, the following account by a Canadian ALT (ALT2) may have helped the study to speculate a potentially plausible explanation. He was teaching an oral English course in many weekly classes at a senior high school. His students annually go to Cairns in Australia for a one-week study-abroad program. Here is what he had to say about the effect of such program upon his students:

> I don't see that much of a change, because they go to Australia and can't understand anything. It's almost a bit of a negative shock for them, because . . . [they] experience genuine immersion [in] Australian English and it doesn't sound anything like mine . . . scenes they have overheard or anything they have seen in the media, and they short circuit a little bit.
> (ALT2)

The above quote illustrates the gap between the specific type of English to which the students were accustomed, and the variety (or varieties) that they encountered during their out-of-class use of English. This is hardly surprising because the existing learning resources in current English language education in Japan have been heavily occupied with the American version(s) of English and its culture (Yamanaka, 2006). The lack of the exposure to more varieties of English and the various types of culture may not have been complemented by the particular accent (i.e., North American) used by this Canadian ALT and his cultural background. And such an exclusive exposure increases the learners' comprehension of that particular variety, as reported in other studies (Major et al., 2005, as cited in McKenzie, 2013, p. 229).

The above quote supports the idea that Japanese students may need to be exposed to a more diverse range of the English language and the associated cultures. Kamiya (2008) reviewed the number of non-Japanese residents and temporary visitors from overseas in Japan, and argued that Japanese people are more likely to communicate in English with non-Americans. He argued, therefore, the type of English language and the cultures introduced should not be limited those associated with America. Further, more Japanese students now choose English speaking countries other than the U.S. or Canada for their overseas study (e.g., MEXT, 2016), suggesting that Japanese learners of English are exposed to a wider variety of English language more than ever.

Given these realities in Japan, the above comments provided by ALT2, and indeed, many other ALTs seem to recognise the need for introducing a diversity of the language and culture to Japanese students (e.g., Crump, 2007). Therefore, one plausible explanation for the significant association between ALT nationality and their satisfaction with resources (Table 50) is that American ALTs may have felt, compared to non-American participants, that the heavily-Americanised teaching materials were less helpful for them in introducing their students to diversity. Non-American teachers, on the other hand, may have had an almost automatic advantage in being able to expose their students to at least two different types of the language and cultures (i.e., American-based language and culture, and their own). If the American teachers did not necessarily have the same opportunity from the existing Americanised resources, then they may have perceived the same existing resources in a different manner.

Japanese proficiency. Another unexpected result revealed in the regression analysis was the lack of significant association between ALT Japanese language proficiency (measured by the length of their study of Japanese) and their job satisfaction scores. As discussed in the literature review, sharing the first language and culture with learners reportedly helps teachers to communicate with their learners in the foreign language classroom, which is often discussed as an advantage for so-called "non-native speaker" (NNS) teachers (e.g., Cook, 2005; Medgyes, 1992; Meyer, 2008; Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Seidlhofer, 1999). As seen in Chapter 4, the majority ($n = 208$, 90%) of perceived "native speaker" (NS) teachers in the present study had some experience in learning Japanese language. Therefore, those with relatively high proficiency in Japanese could also have enjoyed smoother communication with their students in class, and thus perceived their experience differently to those who did not have the same level of proficiency in Japanese.

Moreover, in the context of the JET program, some studies reported communication difficulties between NS teachers and local teachers, which often resulted in misunderstandings or conflict between them (Butler, 2007; Kan, 2002). Further, the ALTs' limited knowledge in Japanese language and culture reportedly created difficulties in understanding the local culture at their workplace, as well as the overall Japanese education system (Otani, 2007). Those ALTs often do not understand the routine practice at school, and thus experience feelings of isolation (Ohtani, 2010).

Based on the literature, ALT knowledge in Japanese was expected to influence, somewhat positively, their satisfaction with team-teaching with local teachers, and perhaps satisfaction with students. While the regression analysis surprisingly failed to identify any significant associations, the interview data revealed that ALT

knowledge in Japanese indeed greatly influenced their professional lives in much more complicated manners, which may be unique to this particular group of the ESOL teachers. The interviewees' accounts later in this chapter highlight how their existing knowledge of Japanese had both positive and negative impacts upon their work, and thus helped the study to identify a number of plausible explanations for the lack of a statistically-significant association between ALT Japanese proficiency and their job satisfaction.

Communicating with students. Many interviewees provided accounts to show their appreciation of knowledge in Japanese, when communicating with Japanese students in class. ALT1, for instance, studied philosophy and English literature at his university, but did not study Japanese until he arrived in Japan. He had been studying the language by himself for a few years in Japan, and described his current level as "I am kind of OK", and self-assessed his proficiency level as intermediate in the survey. In the account below, he expressed his frustration when he found his proficiency in Japanese was not sufficient to explain vocabularies or grammar to students in class:

> It is kind of unsatisfying when I feel like I can't explain myself clearly – or
> there is a language barrier, whether with the teachers . . . or with the
> students. All of those times when there is a kind of a communication
> breakdown, it becomes unsatisfying … when we just can't explain a word or
> a, like a grammar point . . . I wouldn't even try and explain the grammar.
> (ALT1)

By contrast, three other ALTs who studied Japanese at their university (ALT5 and ALT21 as a major, ALT6 as a minor) described how they used their knowledge in Japanese to communicate with their students in class:

The Japanese helped me in terms of . . . in getting through to the students on

a more personal level . . . like communicating with them . . . outside of

class or inside too. Especially with . . . if I am doing 3 nensei [third year,

added] class, and they're working on a grammar point through a worksheet,

and I go and check their answers, and they get a wrong answer, I could

explain to them why it's this and not this. (ALT5)

. . . my Japanese fluency meant that many students were willing to open up

to me and ask me questions about words, grammar structures, and culture,

that they otherwise might not have asked . . . (ALT21)

Another thing is my Japanese ability . . . it'll also make classes go smoother,

which makes you feel better . . . . Getting to know the students, getting to

know how to deal with students. Like, deal with students who either aren't

participating or not talking or whatever sort of classroom problems you

have. Just like any job, you learn it as you go so you get better at it. So I

have fewer problems now and I know how to deal with them. It's sort of

similar to just learning any other job. (ALT6)

Both ALT5 and ALT21 were using their ability in Japanese to help students

solve linguistic issues (e.g., grammar, vocabulary), which ALT1 was self-admittedly

unable to perform in his class. By contrast, ALT6 was using his Japanese to solve

student behaviour issues. Some (e.g., Atkinson, 1987; Harbord, 1992; Medgyes,

1992; Meyer, 2008) argued the "non-native speaker" (NNS) teachers' ability to use

learners' first language to help them solve linguistic issues in class, and also to be

more empathetic to the needs and problems of their learners, are the great advantage

of the NNS teachers. These quotes not only corroborate these findings in previous

studies, but also suggested that such attributes were not exclusive to NNS language

teachers, and that "NS" teachers with a relatively high level of proficiency could also perform these roles in their class.

Side effects of the use of Japanese in class. At the same time, the foreign teachers' ability to communicate in the learners' first language seems to have yielded some side effects. First, the use of the learners' first language conflicted with both ALT and the local teacher perceptions of an ALT's role and value as the human resource hired from overseas at a Japanese school. For example, ALT4 studied Japanese for two years at her university, and became a certified teacher in Canada. She described how she had reflected on her use of Japanese in class in her first year, and used her self-reflection to change her approach in the second year:

> … the Japanese was helpful at first, but the longer I was here … In my second year I kind of, I started…in my first year I taught a lot of junior high schools, and then in my second year I went to more elementary schools. I kind of **fell into the bad habit** of using a lot of Japanese to explain things, like games and stuff, **because it was just more efficient** at the elementary school, and sometimes at the junior high school, too. And so after my second year I realised that I was using a lot of Japanese in the class, and that I had to work really hard to **break myself of that habit** for my last three years … **It makes the classes run really smoothly, it's great**. But later I thought about it and was like oh yeah, no, it's kind of **a wasted opportunity**, and had to bring myself down from that. But it was really helpful for communicating with the teachers and for building relationships with the students, because at least they knew that I understood what they were saying, even if I tried to make them speak English. (ALT4, bold emphasis added)

In this account, ALT4 recognised the convenience of her knowledge in Japanese to develop rapport with her students, and described how she initially took

advantage of the immediate efficiency of running the class in Japanese. Later on, however, she came to realise that such an approach may be a "bad habit" and "a wasted opportunity" for the Japanese students. She evaluated her efficiency-based-approach in light of her role as a foreign ALT, which was to provide the opportunities to use English for Japanese students who may not otherwise have the same opportunities in Japanese schools.

In a similar manner, ALT1, who expressed earlier his frustration at not being able to communicate clearly with students (and teachers), also provided his reflection of his distinctive role as a human resource in team-teaching, in contrast to the role of the local teachers:

> I still avoid using any Japanese in the classroom just to make it up because I don't think it is my job … if there is a perfectly capable Japanese speaker in the class, who is much more capable than I, to talk about grammar, English grammar. I think, too, if the students know that they can communicate with you in Japanese well, there is less of a reason for them to try and use English with you. So, the occasional time, I would drop… if I am kind of helping one student, one on one, while they are kind of writing or something, I will kind of drop the odd Japanese words. (ALT1)

In his view too, the task of explaining grammar to the students in their first language was the role of the local teachers. The use of his developing Japanese conflicted with his perceived role as a human "NS" resource in the Japanese classroom, which resulted in his reservation about the excessive use of the learners' first language in class. Such a conflict between the instant efficiency for the NSs to run the class in the learners' first language, and their perceived role in the English

language classroom, may have contributed to the mixed perceptions of the use of Japanese among the participants in the study.

In addition, the above conflict may be unique to teachers who are engaged in team-teaching with local teachers who may not necessarily be confident or competent in communicating in English (Butler, 2004, 2007), as typically seen with ALTs in Japan. In team-teaching, a foreign teacher and a local teacher teach as a pair in the same classroom, and each may be expected to play specific and distinctive roles to each other, especially when local teachers do not speak the target language to communicate with the students, but yet are very capable of explaining the linguistic matters in the learners' first language. The effects of the foreign teachers' use of the learners' first language in class may, therefore, be perceived differently by the foreign teachers when they teach their class independently, or when local teachers who are very competent in communicative English, and thus can share the role as a conversational model or partner with the non-local teachers. This may be an interesting topic for the future research.

Impact on the students' motivation. Another emerging side effect of ALT knowledge of Japanese was to demotivate Japanese students from using the target language (English) with them. In the quotes above, ALTs describe their views that their use of Japanese would take away reasons for their students to use English to communicate with them. Some other interviewees made a similar comment about the reverse effect of their proficiency in Japanese (or lack of it) upon student motivation.

For example, ALT26, who identified herself as a beginner-level learner of Japanese in the questionnaire, had this to say: "Another benefit is that, with no Japanese, my students are more motivated to use English in order to communicate with me." In her view, her lack of proficiency in Japanese actually encouraged her

students to use the target language as a primary means of communication. This seems to corroborate the literature, which found a foreign teacher's lack of understanding of the local language indeed motivated learners to use the target language with the teachers (e.g., Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Galloway, 2008).

By contrast, ALT10, who studied international business relations with an emphasis on Japanese language and culture, shared his reflection of how his students switched languages to communicate with him as soon as they found out his ability to speak in Japanese:

> The [local] teacher said: "Don't use Japanese at all in the classroom," and "Don't let the children see that you can actually speak Japanese, because the minute they see it, they'll stop trying to speak English and they'll just try and talk to you in Japanese." And it was a very interesting phenomenon. It worked well for . . . probably about six months . . . but I told the senior girls that I could speak Japanese. So they knew . . . they weren't allowed to tell anybody . . . and no matter how hard I tried to cover that up, it didn't work. (ALT10)

This quote illustrates how rapidly Japanese students code-switched their languages to communicate with the ALT, after they found out that they could use their first language as an alternative means to communicate with him. In this case, students lost their genuine and sole need to use English to communicate with the teacher, and thus the ALT's ability in Japanese demotivated his students.

Both accounts above suggest that foreign teacher proficiency in the learners' first language, and the learner motivation to use the target language, may actually correlate negatively. While this could be another focus for future research, this may

also have contributed to the mixture of the perceptions of the use of Japanese among ALTs in the study.

Impact upon their work with local teachers. The interview data also presented some plausible evidence to suggest ALT knowledge in Japanese had some influence over their perception of team-teaching with local teachers (Factor 1), in particular their freedom to decide how to do their job (autonomy), their overall role as an ALT, and their relationship with local teachers. Again, their knowledge of Japanese may have influenced these aspects of their team-teaching work in a mixed manner, which could explain the non-significant association between these two variables in the regression analysis.

Communication with Japanese teachers. Some ALTs were appreciative of their knowledge in Japanese when it helped them to communicate with other teachers, especially those with whom they were planning and conducting team-teaching lessons. The aforementioned two ALTs (ALT21 and ALT6), who described how their knowledge in Japanese was useful when helping their students in class, also provided accounts to explain how the knowledge also helped them build rapport with their team-teaching local teachers:

> I'm conversationally relatively fluent. So planning classes with any teacher is smooth and I've kind of worked to develop a relationship with the teachers so that they feel comfortable with me . . . . Whether that means talking to them outside of class about just anything, like baseball or whatever . . . so that they're not intimidated with planning classes. And it's made a really big difference. (ALT6)

Having Japanese fluency helped me immensely once I became an ALT. I was able to adequately explain my ideas for English classes and discuss those ideas with my supervising JTEs [Japanese Teachers of English]. (ALT21)

Both accounts seem to illustrate the cases where an ALT's ability to speak in Japanese helped develop a good relationship with team-teaching partners by being able to discuss team-teaching lessons in an efficient manner. As expected from the previous studies that reported the communication difficulties between local teachers and ALTs due to the language barrier (e.g., Kan, 2002), ALT knowledge of Japanese may have enhanced their work relationship with local teachers, and thus affected this particular aspect of their satisfaction with team-teaching in a positive manner.

ALTs' understanding of, and involvement in the school practice and community. The ALTs' ability to communicate in Japanese also appears to have affected the level of their understanding of the local school practice, and thus the quality of engagement in the school community. ALT26, who commented earlier that her lack of Japanese motivated her students to communicate with her in English, also expressed frustration with her insufficient proficiency in Japanese:

Another source of frustration has been my personal lack of ability to use Japanese language. It is frustrating to not be able to read or to understand the conversations at parties or to follow the content of morning meetings . . . I believe that my work satisfaction would be greatly improved if I had greater fluency in Japanese. Since I basically speak no Japanese, I often feel confused and isolated at work. (ALT26)

Her account above illustrated how her insufficient level of proficiency in Japanese prevented her understanding what was discussed in the school meetings, and also at after-work parties. These incidents made her feel isolated at work. The quote seems to confirm findings in Ohtani (2010) and Otani (2007), which reported how the ALTs' lack of understanding of the local workplace resulted in a sense of isolation at work.

By contrast, those who had enjoyed more active engagement in the local school community commented how their knowledge in Japanese helped them to be more accepted or invited into the school community:

> To me I think it made a huge difference . . . it meant that I could really communicate with the people at work. So not just the children but the *kocho sensei* [the principal] and those people. I think I had an understanding of how the school worked. I was much more accepted as a member of the school. I would go to the teacher meetings, I would understand what was happening, I understood the logic of why I was doing certain things (ALT7)

> [N]ot so much the younger teachers, but like maybe like a *kyoto sensei* or *kocho sensei* there [deputy principal and principal, respectively], some of them had trauma from their own experiences learning English in school. So they're always "oh, it's such a relief that we can talk to you in Japanese". It makes things so much easier. And I know that I probably got invited to more things because I understood Japanese . . . out-of-school events, for example, PTA trip in the summer with the teachers. (ALT4)

Both ALTs seem to have used their knowledge in Japanese to communicate not necessarily just with their team-teaching local teachers, but also with other teachers including those at senior management level. They managed to use the knowledge to understand the local school culture, which increased the level of acceptance among local teachers, and then their sense of belonging to that particular school. These accounts illustrate how foreign teacher knowledge of the local language could influence not just their classroom practice or the relationship with the team-teaching Japanese teachers, but also the relationship with the entire school community.

Impact upon the ALT roles in class and on autonomy. ALT knowledge of Japanese language may also have influenced autonomy, possibly in both positive and negative directions. For instance, the earlier quote by ALT10 where he was advised by local teachers to hide his Japanese ability from students might have shown the local teachers' expectations of foreign teachers to only use English in front of their students. If an ALT was hoping to use Japanese in his instruction, such an expectation might work as a constraint against his autonomy. Another ALT described similar pressure from his team-teaching local teachers against his use of Japanese with his students in class:

> We are not supposed to use any Japanese in the classroom whatsoever . . .
> with the two teachers that used me as a CD player, if I spoke a word of
> Japanese, I got evil eyes from the other end of the room. (ALT13)

For this particular ALT, reservations about the use the learner's first language came not necessarily from his personal reflection or the demotivating learning effect upon students, but from pressure from local teachers who obviously believed that the ALTs' role was to use English exclusively with the students. Such an anti-first

language attitude has often been reported in the literature (see Cook, 2001), and may still prevail among some Japanese teachers, as reported in Butler (2007). Such an attitude of local teachers – and the resulting pressure – may have limited ALTs' decisions to use Japanese in their instruction, and thus somewhat negatively influenced their perceived autonomy in teaching.

On the other hand, some ALTs reported how their ability in Japanese helped them develop a mutual understanding with other teachers, which eventually led them to more independent roles in class:

Another thing is my Japanese ability. That's so huge because when your language is limited . . . where I am, people don't speak English. So being able to talk with teachers and connect with them on an emotional level or as a friend, just makes such a difference in the classroom and **it'll make them feel comfortable letting you do things that you want to do**. (ALT6, bold emphasis added)

[A]bout halfway through or maybe when I had done a little bit more than halfway, **people would give me a lot more responsibility**, I think even outside of what they were formally allowed to give me, and I think the language had a lot to do with that because I could control the classroom and communicate with the children. So really for the last year or so, pretty much I ran my own classes, which I wasn't allowed to do but it was open-minded people I think. So I really was allowed to run my entire class. So I think that would never have happened if I didn't speak more Japanese. (ALT7, bold emphasis added)

Both accounts show how ability in Japanese helped gain trust in the local school community, which in their view resulted in having more freedom to teach their lessons. While these two particular ALTs (ALT6 and ALT7) appeared to have appreciated their independent roles in a positive manner, the interviewed ALTs expressed their mixed perceptions of such independent roles:

> Another satisfying thing is that I have full control over what topics, and how I teach. I am the main teacher in the classroom with the homeroom teacher just assisting or, being an extra pair of eyes. (ALT30)

> I really enjoy the planning and above challenges and have found working at the elementary schools I have to be very fulfilling as a result. (ALT25)

> Probably the fact that I am primary teacher in some of the courses and yet . . . I'm doing work for which I'm not paid for. My pay cheque is for voice-activated translation tape recorder. It doesn't pay for a qualified English teacher to actually be a primary content instructor. It's not something I volunteered for. (ALT2)

> I am least satisfied with my work when I lesson plan. I am always overly critical of my activity ideas, and so I spend hours worrying over my lesson plans. It stresses me out and makes me feel underqualified. (ALT36)

The two quotes by ALT30 and ALT25 showed examples where ALTs were indeed enjoying their free rein to teach, perhaps in a similar fashion to the perceptions of ALT6 and ALT7 earlier. By contrast, the latter two quotes illustrate somewhat more negative reactions towards such roles. The first quote of ALT2 showed his frustration at being paid what he perceived was a salary for an assistant,

while actually doing the main teacher' job. The latter quote of ALT36, on the other hand, illustrated her concern over her lack of skills and knowledge for planning lessons by herself. The ALTs' mixed perceptions of roles as a main teacher were also reported in the literature (e.g., Mahoney, 2004), and could have influenced their satisfaction with the team-teaching in a positive or negative manner.

Discussion

Despite previous qualitative studies (Fukuda, 2010; Kubota, 2004; McConnell, 2000), which reported different levels of local acceptance of foreign teachers based on their demographic backgrounds (e.g., race, gender, nationality), the analysis of the questionnaire and the interview data indicated little influence of these teacher demographic background factors upon their professional lives.

A number of plausible explanations could be considered here. First, the strategic screening of individual applicants during the recruitment process in the JET program by CLAIR may have minimised the potential influence of ALT backgrounds upon their work. Based on the demographic data among JET ALTs that showing the strong dominance of American and Caucasian teachers both in the present study (Chapter 4) and previous studies (CLAIR, 2015a; Crump, 2007; McConnell, 2000), one may argue that ALTs are not randomly selected for the JET program. In their strategic attempt to accommodate local perceptions of both the accepted and less-accepted attributes of foreign teachers, CLAIR may, firstly, have been selecting applicants in the JET program who have the demographic and linguistic attributes that do not deviate excessively from the preferred attributes of these teachers. This may include, for instance, deliberately not hiring ALTs who demonstrate accents that are distinctively non-American. While there is no evidence to suggest this, this screening process may account for the fact American and

Canadian teachers constitute the largest and second-largest proportions of teachers, throughout the history of the JET program, and the relatively smaller number of the participants from other English-speaking countries, including the U.K., Australia, and New Zealand (CLAIR, 2015a). Unfortunately, the actual selection criteria adopted in the JET program are not publicly available (see McConnell, 2000), and therefore, remain unknown to this study. It would not be surprising, however, if CLAIR's hidden selection criteria somewhat soften the potential impact of different demographic backgrounds of ALTs, and also the different accents, upon their work in Japan.

Further, the impact may also have been neutralised during the strategic or non-random-placement process of successful ALTs in each district. In other words, American ALTs may have been placed with local schools that expected teachers with an American accent, whereas non-American ALTs may have been placed at schools that indicated a relatively more flexible preference. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, local schools seem to have their own preferences of ALTs with whom they work, and CLAIR works hard to match the characteristics of individual ALTs with those preferences of individual schools (McConnell, 2000). This process may have minimised to some extent the gap between the requested characteristics of the foreign teachers at each school (e.g., gender, race, nationality), and those of the teachers who were actually placed in those schools. This in turn may have decreased the potential impact of the varieties in ALT demographics and accents upon their work experience, as seen in the earlier questionnaire and the interview data.

The current hiring practice and the placement of foreign teachers in the JET program, which seem to be dependent upon these teachers' demographic backgrounds, is questionable. As discussed earlier in this chapter, Japanese learners

of English may use English not only with Caucasian American users, but also with those who have much more diverse demographic backgrounds (see Kamiya, 2008). The Japanese government appears to be very proactive in its attempt to increase the English communicative ability of its citizens ever since the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) announced a strategic plan to cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities" in 2003. If Japanese people are likely to speak English with non-American users of the language, then it remains questionable as to how effective it is for the government to artificially control the demographics of teachers from overseas, and thus limit the variety of the target language that the learners may encounter in Japan. The future JET program should adopt different selection criteria that are not based on applicant demographics.

Influence of ALT ability to communicate in Japanese. Perhaps an aspect of ALT backgrounds in this category (demographic and linguistic) that emerged as the most influential factor is their ability to communicate in Japanese. Although the regression analysis failed to identify any significant influence of this ability, the interview data provided abundant accounts that describe how an ALT's ability to speak the local language had a profound and unique impact upon their work while working in Japan.

Based on the accounts provided by the interviewees, their knowledge seems to have helped them not only to communicate with students in and out of the class, but also to solve a range of issues that many other ALTs reportedly experienced in the past. It helped them communicate clearly with local teachers, and increased the opportunity for successful team-teaching planning, while reducing the risk of misunderstanding or conflict between ALTs and local teachers (Butler, 2007; Kan, 2002). The knowledge also helped ALTs to have a better understanding of the local

school practice, which made them feel more accepted in the school community, and thus reduced the chance of feeling isolation at their workplace (Ohtani, 2010; Otani, 2007).

Admittedly, the study was unable to identify the level of the proficiency one needs in order to take advantage of these positive effects. Future studies may use different and perhaps more objective measures of ALT proficiency in Japanese, and examine how proficiency level influences their work with students, and also with local teachers. Both the influence in and out of the classroom should be investigated, as the interview data indicates that the effects can be different, depending on whether they were communicating with local teachers or students.

Some officials in the JET program argue that a high level of Japanese for ALTs would be "seen as working against two major purposes of the program: the teaching of English and the introduction of Japanese language and culture to a new generation of foreign youth" (McConnell, 2000, p. 55). Such beliefs appeared to exist among local teachers, based on the accounts of some interviewees in the study. However, such an anti-first language approach (i.e., a ban on the learners' first language in class) has been questioned in the literature (see Cook, 2001; Mahboob & Lin, 2016; Phillipson, 1992). It appears unrealistic if ALTs with low levels of Japanese are expected to build a rapport with local students and teachers who are not necessarily competent in English. Further, the interview data in this chapter also suggests existing knowledge in Japanese promoted further learning of the language and the local culture in ALTs, instead of demotivating them to learn more.

Furthermore, other studies report that CLAIR recruits deliberately recruit teachers with relatively lower proficiency in Japanese as part of their strategy to weaken the political power of the linguistically-powerful foreign teachers, and thus

safeguard the professional status of local teachers (e.g., Fujikake, 1996; Miyazato, 2009). However, both the regression analysis and the interview data confirm no strong evidence of the negative effect of ALT knowledge of Japanese upon their work relationship with the local teachers.

It appears ALT knowledge of Japanese benefits not only ALTs, but also their students and local teachers. Therefore, the JET program should consider requiring future applicants to have a certain level of proficiency in Japanese, and/or provide more effective training to help them develop their Japanese. As discussed in the literature review, the program has never had such a requirement in the eligibility criteria (CLAIR, 2015a). To date, the program only requires the applicants to "be interested in Japan . . . make [an] effort to study or continue studying the Japanese language prior to and after arriving in Japan" (CLAIR, 2015a, para. 4). In addition to the potential benefits discussed to this point, achieving a certain level of Japanese could be an objective measurement for applicants to demonstrate their subjective interest in Japan, and also their dedication to study the language before and after their departure to Japan.

Nevertheless, this study found a number of potentially negative influences in ALT ability to communicate in Japanese. As reported by some ALTs, the use of learners' first language in class removed opportunities for Japanese students to engage in communication in English with foreign teachers. For some ALTs, this increased the level of pressure from local teachers, who may support the anti-first language approach in English language learning.

Local teachers may need some training to increase their awareness that the idea that English is best taught monolingually is often unrealistic, and lacks empirical evidence (Cook, 2001), and thus the belief is indeed the "monolingual fallacy"

(Phillipson, 1992, p. 185). Local teachers need to become more aware that ALTs have an immediate need to build rapport with students and other teachers, and the "English only" approach can be unrealistic when most local teachers are themselves not capable of communicating only in English.

At the same time, the use of English between ALTs and the Japanese students should be adequately promoted. Indeed, it is this role that the JET program and the Japanese schools are expecting foreign teachers to perform. Tang (2002, p. 41) argues that "limited and judicious use of the mother tongue in the English classroom does not reduce students' exposure to English, but rather can assist in the teaching and learning processes". Both ALTs and local teachers must receive continuous training to learn effective strategies when using both the target language (English) and the learner's first language (i.e., Japanese) in foreign language teaching. They must then discuss and plan the quality and quantity of both languages used by both teachers during their team-teaching lessons. While there is a growing call for more pedagogy-focused training for ALTs (e.g., Crump, 2008; Kan, 2002), this is an area that such training should emphasise to help future participants to benefit from more satisfactory professional lives.

Summary

In this chapter, the potential influence of ALT demographic and linguistic backgrounds upon job satisfaction was discussed. Firstly, regression analysis found that ALT backgrounds in this category did not have much influence over job satisfaction. Two variables indicate some minor influence over one satisfaction score: First, the length of the residency in Japan is slightly but positively affecting satisfaction with students' progress, and second, nationality made a similarly minor yet positive impact upon their satisfaction with resources. A number of plausible

explanations were provided to account for these relationships, using the past studies and the limited interview data.

Secondly, the interview data were analysed further in an attempt to identify plausible explanations for the significant and non-significant associations found in the regression analysis. In particular, interviewee accounts demonstrated the strong influence of existing knowledge in Japanese upon professional lives. These ALTs experienced both positive and negative effects of their Japanese knowledge (or lack of it), while working with students as well as with local teachers in and out of class.

The chapter presented some discussion of the potential reasons why both the regression analysis and the interview data failed to identify any potential influence of most aspects of the ALTs' demographic and linguistic backgrounds. It was proposed that the purposeful and strategic recruitment and placement practice by the Japanese government is a potential reason for the lack of the evidence in these associations. The chapter concluded with some recommendations for the future model of the JET program, in particular the discontinuation of the demographically-orientated selection criteria, and adaptation of a Japanese language requirement for the future applicants.

Chapter 7: Results and Discussion (The Relationship between the Teachers' Educational Backgrounds, and Their Job Satisfaction)

Introduction

This chapter firstly explores the answer to the third research question further ("To what extent do ALT backgrounds and job characteristics appear to influence ALTs' perceived job satisfaction in Japan?"), with an emphasis on participants' educational backgrounds. Using the questionnaire and interview data, the chapter overall examines how education and training backgrounds affected perceived experience in Japan. The chapter also gives insights into the fourth research question: the specific influence of ALT's TESOL certifications upon their job satisfaction.

The chapter has been organised in two sub-sections, which are inter-related. The first section begins with the regression analysis, which investigates statistical associations between variations in ALT educational qualifications and their satisfaction scores. Three models are estimated in this section (Models 4, 5, and 6). The variables that represent the variations in overall educational qualifications (e.g., the highest achieved level, study fields, and overall TESOL certification background) are used to recode the predictor variables (PVs) in these models.

For the dependent variables (DVs), the same three satisfaction scores specified in the earlier factor analysis are adopted in all models (DV_1: satisfaction with team-teaching; DV_2: satisfaction with students; and DV_3: satisfaction with resources). Using these PVs and DVs, this section firstly provides the statistical data needed to answer the third research question.

As part of this analysis, the overall influence of teacher education background in TESOL is examined dichotomously (i.e., teachers with TESOL backgrounds *vs.* teachers without). This part provides analysis to partially answer the fourth research question (i.e., the relationship between TESOL qualifications and job satisfaction). The regression analysis is followed by examination of interview data to identify possible explanations for the regression results in these models.

The second section focuses on participants who completed a *TESOL certification* ($n = 56$), and examines how the variations within their certifications influence their satisfaction. As reported in Chapter 4, the study found a diversity of definitions about what can be included in TESOL teacher education (e.g., qualification levels, number of units/courses, practicum requirement). These variations have been recoded as PVs, and entered in regression models, and thus this section provides a more complete answer for the fourth research question. Due to the issue of multicollinearity from the shared baseline group across the PVs (i.e., the uncertified ALTs, $n = 176$), these variables could not be included in earlier models in the first section, and thus have to be tested separately in the models here.

The chapter concludes with a discussion on the implications for the future practice of recruitment of ALTs in Japan. It also discusses implications for providers of TESOL teacher education, and for future "native speaker" teachers who may seek to complete one of the existing TESOL teacher education programs.

Section 1: Statistical Association between ALT Educational Backgrounds and Satisfaction Scores

Recoding process. Following the approach in the previous chapter, three regression models (Models 4, 5 and 6) were estimated to test the ability of the participants' educational backgrounds to explain each of the three satisfaction scores (DV_1; DV_2; and DV_3). For the predictor variables (PVs), the following six items from the questionnaire were initially included in the models:

1. Highest level of qualifications

2. Field of study 1 (study in humanities field)

3. Field of study 2 (study in education field)

4. Accreditation status for local teaching

5. Completion of a *TESOL-related qualification*

6. Present working status as ALT.

The coding and sample size in each PV are summarised in Table 51. There was an insufficient sample size at some levels in the PV (the highest level of the qualifications, e.g., Doctorate $n = 5$; other, $n = 1$). To increase the same size at those levels, all postgraduate qualifications (Postgraduate Certificate, $n = 15$; Master's, $n = 56$; Doctorate, $n = 5$; and other [Juris Doctorate], $n = 1$) were combined into a new group as "postgraduate qualifications" ($n = 77$). This group was given a score of 1, and then compared with the baseline participants who had nominated a Bachelor's degree as their highest qualification ($n = 155$, a score of 0).

Table 51. *The predictor variables (PVs) and the assigned scores in Models 4, 5, and 6*

Predictor variables	Assigned score and category in each variable
Highest level of academic qualifications (no missing)	0. Bachelor degree ($n = 155$) 1. Postgraduate qualification ($n = 77$)
Field of study in education (no missing)	0. Did not complete any qualification in education ($n = 176$) 1. Completed at least 1 qualification in education ($n = 56$)
Field of study in humanities (no missing)	0. Did not complete any qualification in humanities ($n = 100$) 1. Completed at least 1 qualification in humanities ($n = 132$)
Accreditation status for local teaching (no missing)	0. No ($n = 184$) 1. Yes ($n = 48$)
The completion of a TESOL certification (no missing)	0. Did not complete any "TESOL certification" ($n = 176$) 1. Completed one or more "TESOL certifications" ($n = 56$)
Present work status (no missing)	0. Current ALTs ($n = 132$) 1. Former ALTs ($n = 100$)

Of the nine fields of study collected in the present study, the fields of education and humanities were selectively included in the model. While humanities was included as it was the most popular field of study among participants (see Chapter 4), education was selected because it could influence ALTs' perceptions of their work from theoretical grounds. As discussed earlier, studies in economics generally suggest that a match between skills workers possess and the skills they are required to use at work enhances their job satisfaction (e.g., e.g., Chevalier, 2003; Green & Zhu, 2010; Mavromaras, McGuinness, Richardson, Sloane, & Wei, 2011; Vieira, 2005). Given that the primary roles and responsibilities that ALTs are required to perform appear to be related to those of teachers (e.g., CLAIR, 2013a, see also the results in Chapter 5), ALTs who completed a qualification in education could have

benefited from the better skills match, which could result in more positive satisfaction with their work.

In a similar vein, those who completed locally-accredited teacher training ($n = 48$), and those who had self-reportedly learned some skills and knowledge for TESOL ($n = 87$) could also have acquired a skill set that matched with what they were expected to do as ALTs in Japan. In these PVs, ALTs who attained the target attribute (e.g., education studies, humanities studies, local accreditation, and the TESOL-related studies) were given a score of 1 in each PV, and then compared to the baseline group (score = 0) in each respective PV.

However, a decision was later made to replace the PV *completion of a TESOL-related qualification* with the PV *completion of a TESOL certification* after some considerations outlined in this section. As stated in Chapter 1, *TESOL-related qualifications* were defined broadly as the qualification(s) in which ALTs ($n = 87$) self-reported learning any perceived skills and/or knowledge of TESOL. This particular definition seems to have allowed a wide range of academic qualifications to be reported as being relevant to TESOL, including those that may not otherwise be included in TESOL teacher education (e.g., Bachelor of Psychology, see Chapter 4).

Not surprisingly, the PV *TESOL-related qualification* status and the PV *TESOL certification* status were highly correlated to each other (0.728) when tested in the same models, and this multicollinearity issue prevented the inclusion of both variables in the same models. The final decision to remove the PV *TESOL-related qualification* was made after observing the results of the initial regression analysis with each of these PVs tested separately in the model. The result showed very little influence of the PV *TESOL-related qualification* upon any part of the satisfaction scores (see Appendix C, Appendix D, and Appendix E).

Model 4: Influence on DV₁ (satisfaction with team-teaching). The first model examined the relationship between participant educational backgrounds and satisfaction with team-teaching (DV₁). Overall, this category of participant backgrounds was not substantially associated with satisfaction with team-teaching. Although the model fit the data at a significant level, a very small proportion of the variances within DV₁ was accounted for by the model [$R = 0.261$, $R^2 = 0.068$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.043$, $F (6, 225) = 2.741$, $\rho = 0.014$, Table 52].

Accordingly, most of the individual PVs did not appear to have a significant influence upon satisfaction scores. The individual t-statistics for each PV in Table 52 indicates that satisfaction with team-teaching changed independently of the differences in educational backgrounds, such as attainment of postgraduate qualification, completion of study in the field of education or humanities, or local teaching accreditation.

Nevertheless, there was one PV that made a significant difference to ALT satisfaction with team-teaching, and that was the completion of a TESOL certificate ($b = 0.447$, $SE B = 0.227$, $\beta = 0.146$, $t = 1.971$, $\rho = 0.05$, Table 52). As outlined earlier, the PV was recoded as 0 for those who had no TESOL certification at all ($n = 176$), and 1 for those who had completed one or more TESOL certifications ($n = 56$). With the small effect size ($d = 0.259$), and the positive b value (0.447), the result suggests that those who had completed a TESOL certification were only slightly more satisfied with their team-teaching than those who did not have any such certification.

Table 52. Model 4: *Linear model of predictors (education backgrounds) of change in satisfaction with team-teaching (95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, N = 232)*

Predictor variables	b (CI low and high)	SE B	β	t	ρ
Constant	4.596 (4.269, 4.923)	0.166		27.711	.000
Qualification level Bachelor vs. Postgraduate	0.289 (-0.109, 0.688)	0.202	.104	1.432	.154
Completed an education degree or not	-0.429 (-0.998, 0.140)	0.289	-.140	-1.487	.138
Completed a humanities degree or not	-0.326 (-0.673, 0.022)	0.176	-.123	-1.848	.066
Completed a qualification that was accredited for local teaching or not	-0.354 (-0.903, 0.195)	0.279	-.109	-1.270	.205
Present work status	0.249 (-0.115, 0.614)	0.185	.094	1.347	.179
TESOL certified or not	0.447 (0.000, 0.893)	0.227	.146	1.971	.050*

$R = 0.261$, $R^2 = 0.068$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.043$, $F (6, 225) = 2.741$, $\rho = 0.014*$

The relative lack of influence of attainment of TESOL certification over satisfaction with team-teaching was a rather surprising result. As mentioned earlier, the majority of ALT primary roles appear to be associated with teaching English as a foreign language (CLAIR, 2013a). Despite their official title as an assistant, many ALTs reportedly perform their roles as the main teacher in the classroom (e.g., Mahoney, 2004). Following the skill-match theory in economics studies (e.g., Green & Zhu, 2010), those who complete a TESOL certification are predicted to take advantage of their existing skills and knowledge in TESOL from their study, which would result in a better match in skills, and thus considerably and substantially more

positive satisfaction with their teaching work. This was confirmed in the preliminary analysis in Chapter 5, which demonstrated that current ALTs who completed a TESOL certification were significantly and substantially more satisfied with their own skills and knowledge to do their job as the ALTs, when compared to those who did not have the same educational background.

The result may suggest that while TESOL-certified ALTs may have been more satisfied with their own skills and knowledge to do their teaching-related job, their skill set may not have matched completely with the skills and knowledge required for team-teaching with local teachers. In other others, team-teaching may have required these foreign teachers to possess specific skills and knowledge which they may not necessarily have studied during their TESOL teacher education. Team-teaching has been widely studied in other contexts of education (e.g., Gaytan, 2010; Leavitt, 2006; Sandholtz, 2000; Wadkins, Miller, & Wozniak, 2006). These studies generally suggested, while team-teaching may produce a number of pedagogical and intellectual benefits for both teachers and students, it also requires teachers to have a unique set of skills and knowledge during class preparation, and that the teaching method may be different to that required in a traditional approach by a single teacher.

Based on the descriptive results presented earlier (see Chapter 4), there was no indication that participants had studied the skills and knowledge specifically for successful team-teaching as part of their TESOL certifications (or elsewhere). A visual inspection of the 424 programs listed in the current directory of teacher education programs in TESOL in the U.S. and Canada (Christopher, 2005) also did not identify any programs that teach about successful team-teaching.

Based on these data, there may have been a lack of attention to this particular approach of teaching among existing TESOL teacher education programs. Such a

deficiency may have created a gap between the possessed and required skills and knowledge for the successful team-teaching, which may have reduced the positive impact of the ALTs' TESOL certifications upon their satisfaction with team-teaching.

Another potential reason for the relative lack of substantial influence of TESOL certification upon team-teaching could be ALT perception of underutilisation of their skills and knowledge. Some economics studies report that worker job satisfaction is negatively affected when workers are not fully utilising their skills to perform the expected duties (Allen & van der Velden, 2001; Green & McIntosh, 2002). In educational contexts, teacher frustration at the underutlisation of their skills during team-teaching has been reported, although those studies generally do not include teachers without any teaching background (e.g., Beck, 2006; Marable & Raimondi, 2007). If ALTs feel their skills and knowledge are underutilised regardless of their TESOL backgrounds, then that may explain the insubstantial difference between ALTs who had a TESOL-certification and those without any such certification.

Alternatively, the quality of skills and knowledge that is underutilised may be somewhat different among TESOL-certified ALTs when compared to those who do not have the same or similar teacher training. TESOL-certified ALTs may have learned additional skills and knowledge specifically designed for TESOL, which may have been perceived by those ALTs to be relevant or applicable to the work of the ALTs in Japan, at least initially. This would lead to more negative satisfaction with team-teaching among the TESOL-certified ALTs.

Given that the above speculation complicates the analysis of this particular regression result, the interview data was explored in order to gain more insight into

the relationship between ALT TESOL certification and experience in team-teaching. Many of the 37 interviewees, including both the TESOL-certified ALTs and those who did not have any TESOL certification, made comments that appear to be related to this relationship. The analysis of this data identified a number of plausible explanations for the regression result above. This will be discussed later in this chapter.

Model 5 and Model 6: Influence on DV_2 (satisfaction with students' progress) and DV_3 (the satisfaction with resources). Overall, participant educational backgrounds were not significantly associated either with DV_2 [$R = 0.163$, $R^2 = 0.026$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.000$, $F (6, 225) = 1.018$, $\rho = 0.414$, see Appendix F; or with DV_3 [$R = 0.076$, $R^2 = 0.006$, Adjusted $R^2 = -0.021$, $F (6, 225) = 0.216$, $\rho = 0.971$, see Appendix G]. With both DVs, the proportions of the variances accounted for by the model are almost nil (2.6% and 0.6% respectively). The result suggests that these two particular types of participant satisfaction scores vary quite independently of educational backgrounds.

As predicted from the overall results above, the individual t-statistics indicate that all PVs demonstrate very little influence individually over the respective DV (see Appendix F and Appendix G). Participant perceptions of their students' progress and the resources available to them, are not affected by whether they had completed a qualification in education, whether they had earned a local teaching accreditation, or whether they had completed a TESOL certification. Presumably, ALTs with these educational backgrounds may have acquired substantial skills and knowledge in teaching, or more specifically for TESOL. Based on the regression analysis, however, such skills and knowledge do not appear to have made any difference to their satisfaction with student progress and resources.

Interview data

Based on the regression analysis just presented, participant educational backgrounds have no or little influence over satisfaction scores. Most surprisingly, participant academic backgrounds, either in general teaching or in TESOL, do not appear to make any significant and substantial difference to their satisfaction. As discussed earlier, these results are contrary to predictions made in the skill-match theory of economics studies (e.g., Chevalier, 2003; Green & Zhu, 2010; Vieira, 2005).

In order to identify plausible explanations for these results, the interview data were explored further. Of the 37 ALTs who participated in interviews, 19 had no background in any form of teacher training, whereas 18 had some form of teacher training. Many ALTs in the latter group had TESOL-specific teacher training ($n = 13$), either by itself, or as part of a major degree in education or other discipline areas.

In contrast to the earlier regression results, almost all of the interviewed ALTs with some teacher training background ($n = 17$, out of 18) comment how their backgrounds in teaching had influenced their perceptions of the experience as the ALTs in Japan. While many point out that the skills and knowledge from their study indeed help them to perform various aspects of their classroom duties independently, their existing skills and knowledge also affect their work in a negative manner. Overall, such a mixture of positive and negative perceptions of their teaching backgrounds may have contributed to the statistically non-significant associations between ALT backgrounds in teaching or TESOL and their job satisfaction scores.

Positive influences – Utilisation of practical skills and knowledge in teaching. ALTs both with and without teaching backgrounds provided accounts of how their skills and knowledge in teaching helped (or would have helped) them perform their duties successfully. For instance, ALT29, who had a Bachelor in East Asian Languages and Literature and U.S. History, had no teacher training or teaching experience except for a one-off opportunity where she contributed to the development of a curriculum for teaching Japanese for local elementary schools in the U.S. Here is what she had to say about her background:

> Other than that [the curriculum development], I didn't have any teaching experience coming into the JET Program. I recognised that as a fault, but I hoped that the teachers would help me . . . I think that learning how to make a curriculum gave me an idea of how to shape lessons, and how to pace learning, but I never went in front of a classroom and taught. I wish I had done that before coming to Japan. (ALT29)

In this account, she assesses explicitly her lack of practical experience in classroom teaching as a deficiency. This result may suggest her perception that prior experience in classroom teaching, and the skills and knowledge associated with practical teaching, would have helped her to teach independently at Japanese schools more successfully.

Another ALT, who had a Bachelor of Science but no teaching background, describes how her lack of skills and knowledge in teaching affects her perceptions of work negatively:

> I am least satisfied with my work when I lesson plan. I am always overly critical of my activity ideas, and so I spend hours worrying over my lesson plans. It stresses me out and makes me feel underqualified. (ALT36)

Firstly, this particular quote is an example of where an ALT took a more active role in team-teaching, which includes planning lessons and developing learning activities independently (see Chapter 4). This suggests that ALT roles are not necessarily limited to the supportive roles as an "assistant", but that they often perform roles as main teachers.

Second, the example also illustrates how the ALT was struggling with these independent duties as a main teacher, and that was, at least in her view, due to her lack of practical skills and knowledge in teaching and planning. While this account is a good example of where the workers' skill mismatch led to dissatisfaction with their work (e.g., Allen & van der Velden, 2001), it also indicates her perception of the effect of teaching background upon an ALT's work.

By contrast, ALTs who had some teaching background tend to describe how their practical skills and knowledge in teaching became useful in their work as ALTs. Their comments reveal a number of ways in which their existing skills and knowledge in teaching help them to perform their duties successfully. First, such skills helped some ALTs to run the class independently, by knowing what and how to do. For example, ALT22, who completed a 10-weekend TEFL certificate course including practicum while working as an ALT, described how this course changed his practice rapidly:

> [G]etting qualified very positively helped my position. First, it made my classes easier to run. I suddenly had a host of new activities. I had activities to choose from and I could make them myself. This allowed me to use much more of my creativity at my schools. (ALT22)

Other ALTs also already had qualifications in teaching prior to their appointment in Japan. Their comments also indicate that their skills and knowledge in teaching allow them to work independently because they felt they knew what to do as a classroom teacher:

> When I was given autonomy, it enabled me to operate independently in planning, preparing resources, and executing lessons. I have also been able to adapt to changing student dynamics and to alter my planned activities accordingly. [ALT17, with a Bachelor of Education (Special Education)]

> I knew how to run a classroom and be involved in a classroom. I knew how to behave as a teacher. I knew how to make worksheets and games. I knew how to engage with students. I knew what kinds of clothes to wear. [ALT28, with a Graduate Diploma of Teaching and Learning (Secondary Teaching)]

> Having the skills to properly plan, teach, and analyse lessons has been invaluable in helping me succeed at elementary school where I have a great deal of influence over content, and has definitely helped me enjoy my job there. If I hadn't studied TESL methodology, the basic linguistics behind acquisition, or had some practical experience with professional input, I doubt I would be in any way nearly as capable of effectively carrying out my duties as an ALT at elementary school. [ALT25, with a Bachelor of Arts (History) with an integrated certificate in TESL]

These ALTs seem to have had some skills and knowledge which they could use for planning lessons, developing resources and activities, and running classes, when they were able to work independently in team-teaching. These ALTs described their practical skills and knowledge in teaching by using phrases such as "a huge

asset" (ALT17), "positive influence" (ALT28), and "invaluable" (ALT25), suggesting a very positive influence upon their satisfaction with their work when they had "a great deal of influence over content" (ALT25) or when they were "given autonomy" (ALT17).

Second, the previous comment by ALT17 – "I have also been able to adapt to changing student dynamics and to alter my planned activities accordingly" – also suggests ALTs' potential use of their existing skills and knowledge to critically reflect on their daily practice. Indeed, many other ALTs with teaching backgrounds provided accounts on their reflective practice using the skills and knowledge in teaching:

> I am looking around in my classroom and realising that this is going to work and this isn't going to work and why this works and what kind of things I am targeting with certain activities. So it gives me a fuller picture of how to teach a language, that is for sure. (ALT3)

> My TESOL studies heightened my self-awareness in terms of my teaching philosophy and approach to lessons. It also helped give me a greater insight into curriculum design. This knowledge is empowering as I now have tools to remedy difficult teaching situations and to design different curriculums to suit different needs. (ALT23)

> It provided like a framework which I could build my experiences on . . . because I had a lot of experiences but I didn't have the theory or the framework to attach it to. And it sort of allowed me to see . . . the reasons why these things work and why they didn't . . . why my successful activities worked and why my not-so-successful activities didn't work . . . and it also

helped . . . gain a better insight into . . . student behaviour and student minds. It sort of allowed me to . . . look at things from a different angle. (ALT5)

These accounts seem to indicate that ALTs with some teaching background appreciate their skills and knowledge in teaching when they were analysing and theorising their practice, and thus engaging in reflective practice. They are seemingly using their skills and knowledge from their teacher training to reflect on their daily practices (e.g., planning and implementing activities, or student behaviour management), and then provide a remedy where appropriate. Very positive connotations are suggested when they describe their experiences, using terms such as "empowering" (ALT23); "successful" (ALT5); and "a fuller picture" (ALT3).

The above comments provided by the ALTs both with and without any teaching background seem to suggest that having some teaching background, especially the practical skills and knowledge of teaching (e.g., for planning and running the lessons, and developing resources and activities), may help them to teach and reflect independently, where that was permissible within the constraints of team-teaching. At least when they are teaching independently, their skills and knowledge in practical teaching seem to match with what is required, which would lead to more positive satisfaction with team-teaching, and maybe with student progress, which seems to conform with the findings from previous economics studies (e.g., Chevalier, 2003; Green & Zhu, 2010; Mavromaras et al., 2011; Vieira, 2005).

Negative influences – Underutilisation of skills and knowledge. So why were TESOL-certified ALTs, and indeed those with other teaching backgrounds (e.g., qualifications in education, or provincial accreditation for local teaching) in particular, not more satisfied with their work than those without these backgrounds? In order to understand this relationship further, the interview data was analysed in more detail. Further analysis of the interview data revealed a more complex interaction between ALTs' teaching background and job experience.

Frustration with the local approach to English language teaching. Similar to what has been reported in previous studies (e.g., Crump, 2007; McConnell, 2000), many of the interviewed ALTs ($n = 15$, 41% of 37 interviewees) expressed their frustration with Japan's traditional grammar-translation-based approach to English language teaching (ELT), typically used by their team-teaching local teachers. The ALTs were concerned with its potential negative effects upon the students in class. This frustration and concern appear to be commonly-held among interviewees regardless of their teaching backgrounds. Below are some of those accounts provided by ALTs:

> They spend so much time in class learning grammar translation and yet, by the end of their third year in junior high school, my students still couldn't produce a proper *jikoshokai* [self-introduction]. That screams to me that something is missing from the current teaching methods. (ALT9, with a Bachelor of Science in English as a Second Language Education)

> I find it incredibly depressing that the children really aren't learning English despite studying it for so many years. I find it depressing because I and many other ALTs can see why this system is not working, yet we obviously all continue to be here doing the same thing despite so many inefficiencies.

(ALT15, with a Bachelor of Science - majoring in Nutrition and a Diploma
of Languages – Spanish)

It's extremely frustrating to be in the classroom in an assistant capacity and
watch students lose all interest in English education. Most ALTs suffer from
watching students who were once enthusiastic about foreign language
education grow to hate it, and even worse we're unable to implement any
changes to this system because we're viewed as non-permanent residents,
outsiders merely here to visit, observe, and occasionally coach
pronunciation. (ALT21 with a Bachelor's degree in Japanese Studies)

Like my Japanese co-workers, I also have some frustrations with the
Japanese education system. I sometimes feel helpless to truly help my
students. It is overwhelming to try to use the provided textbooks and tests. I
feel that it is very difficult to actually help my student achieve their
academic goals and/or actually be equipped to use English for
communication. This discouragement is a source of dissatisfaction in my job
as an ALT. (ALT26 with a Bachelor of Arts in Psychology, and a certificate
in TESOL/TESL/TEFL)

These accounts illustrate their frustration at the traditional approach, which in
their view is not helping their students to develop communicative proficiency in
English, but rather demotivating them. Also, the accounts show their sense of
powerlessness, where despite frustration against the current approach, they can do
very little to change it. Negative phrases such as "frustrated", "irritating",
"depressing", and "helpless" are frequently used by interviewees who made similar
comments during the interview.

These comments seem to corroborate the point that McConnell (2000, p. 269) made nearly two decades ago: "The contradiction between the ideal of teaching conversational English and the reality (or need) of preparing the students for entrance exams remains acute". Despite ongoing investments by the Japanese government to enhance communicative proficiency in English among Japanese students (e.g., the JET program), there is another traditional stream of the English curriculum which emphasises more knowledge-based pedagogy that is geared to the reality of the less-communicative entrance examination system (e.g., Sakui, 2004). The accounts above seem to confirm that such a gap still seems to prevail in the contemporary context in Japan.

As Locke (1976) argues in his Range of Affect theory, the relative comparison between workers' expectations and the reality of their work determines job satisfaction, and any gaps lead to dissatisfaction. The ALTs were placed at schools, and indeed brought to Japan, primarily to enhance the communicative proficiency of local teachers and students in Japan (CLAIR, 2013a). Therefore, they would have expected to contribute to the communicative approach in language teaching in Japan, regardless of their teaching backgrounds. Accordingly, the gap between their expected roles, and the continuing traditional classroom reality, may certainly have affected ALT satisfaction with roles in team-teaching – and also with student progress – in a negative manner, irrespective of ALT teaching backgrounds. This gap may have contributed to the regression results between the ALTs' TESOL and other teaching backgrounds and their satisfaction, which were not significant.

The association between ALT teaching backgrounds, and frustration with
the local approach. There was some evidence in the interview data that suggests
some unique associations between ALT teaching backgrounds and their (still
negative) perceptions. While the frustration with the local approach was addressed
repeatedly by many ALTs ($n = 15$), the majority ($n = 10$) had some teaching
background either in TESOL or other discipline areas. The difference in the
proportions might suggest that their teaching backgrounds may have affected their
negative perceptions of their experience.

Furthermore, their less supportive attitudes towards the local approach were
repeatedly explicitly linked to their teaching backgrounds during interviews. For
instance, the following four ALTs, who all had some TESOL-specific teaching
background, say:

> I suppose when you know which practices will have a positive outcome and
> which will not, it's very hard to maintain motivation in the face of poor
> pedagogy. (ALT14, with a Certificate in TESOL)

> At middle school, ironically, simply knowing how much more efficiently
> and effectively things could potentially be taught compared to how they are
> approached has proven to be extremely demoralising. [ALT25, with a
> Bachelor of Arts (History) with an integrated certificate in TESL]

> [I]t's more like an "ignorance is bliss" kind of thing. If I didn't have the
> knowledge that I have, I wouldn't have seen what I now view as flaws in the
> system they have, I would simply be ignorant to it. (ALT9, with a Bachelor
> of Science in English as a Second Language Education)

I was extremely frustrated seeing ineffective classrooms full of students who are either sleeping or to tears for not understanding . . . I knew there were other ways to teach English and I knew the ways they were teaching were in themselves ineffective. (ALT2, with a Bachelor of Arts Honours (Linguistics and Applied Language Studies) and a Certificate in Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language]

As mentioned earlier, negative perceptions of Japan's traditional grammar-translation approach were reported by other ALTs, and in previous studies (e.g., Crump, 2007; McConnell, 2000). However, these fresh accounts shed specific light on how ALTs with some teaching background in TESOL compared the local approach with their own knowledge of different approaches. Their knowledge in alternative methods, which they may have learned during their teacher education, seemingly made them become more critical of the local approach. Interestingly, none of the ALTs without teaching backgrounds made similar comments indicating some level of comparative reflection.

These accounts by TESOL-certified ALTs may also explain Japan's past experiences of the conflict between the "certified" foreign teachers and local teachers in a specific manner. As discussed in the literature review, prior to the launch of the JET program in 1987, the Japanese government had to abandon its plan to outsource TESOL-certified foreign teachers (McConnell, 2000; Tsuido, 2007) during the 1960s, due to the intense conflict between outsourced foreign teachers who were "wedded to their particular techniques and goals" and "thought they knew all about language teaching", and local teachers who "felt threatened" by such foreign influx (McConnell, 2000, p. 41). Although the exact characteristics of these American teacher certifications remains unknown from the literature, the new accounts by

ALTs in this study seem to have clarified the negative perceptions of foreign teachers who experienced the gap between the approach they had in their mind, and the local approach they witnessed.

It is worth noting here that the JET program seems to expect ALTs with some teaching background to share their skills and knowledge in different approaches in language teaching with local teachers, in order to enrich the English language education in Japan. In the official ALT Handbook (CLAIR, 2013a, pp. 60 - 62), there is a section with a sub-heading "ALT with a teaching background". It states:

> Knowing that you are qualified to teach in your home country, JTEs
> [Japanese teachers of English, added] are likely to show you greater respect,
> and you will not necessarily have to abandon your own methodologies. On
> the contrary, you will probably find that many of the JTEs you work with
> will be curious and interested to learn about new ways of doing things. The
> point is that you have to try to create an environment where ideas can be
> shared. (CLAIR, 2013a, p. 61)

As part of the government's initiatives to bring more communicative approaches to English language education in Japan, the JET program expects ALTs with some teaching background to share less traditional approaches with local teachers. Such a central initiative, however, may not necessarily have been implemented at the local level to the full extent. Some of the ALTs in this study who explicitly linked their knowledge of more communicative approaches to their frustration with the local approach, described how their suggestions for different approaches were rejected by local teachers:

> I have consistently been asking teachers if they would consider planning
> activities that require students to actively use what they have learned before,

as well as what they're currently learning, in creative activities or making simple dialogues. I am always told that these are "too difficult for Japanese students". (ALT25)

I felt underutilised . . . I always had a lot of ideas to bring to the table and I would tell the teachers about them but . . . it always came down to "aww, that's an interesting idea, but we don't have time". (ALT9)

The true reasons for local teachers' decisions not to adopt these ALT proposals remain beyond the scope of the present study, and will be an interesting focus for future research. Nevertheless, at least these two ALTs with some TESOL-specific teacher training had to abandon their own methodologies, which appears to be opposite to what was advocated in the ALT handbook as just highlighted. These accounts suggest that the ideas of different approaches are not always shared successfully between ALTs with some teaching backgrounds and local Japanese teachers.

The accounts also indicate that ALT autonomy is not an innate feature of team-teaching at Japanese schools. Instead, during the negotiation of their roles with local teachers, ALTs seem to have had to win their right to independent teaching. These issues also became evident in an earlier comment made by one of the other interviewed ALTs (ALT17). While describing how her teaching background helped her to teach independently, she began her account by saying "when I was given autonomy . . .". Such a comment also implied that she did not have automatic autonomy, and instead, it had to be "given" by local teachers.

Since the aforementioned conflict between certified foreign teachers and local teachers during the 1960s (McConnell, 2000), Japan is said to have implemented a strategy to protect local teachers' political power within school contexts by maintaining the subordinate status of foreign teachers as "assistant" (e.g., Fujikake, 1996; Miyazato, 2009). The above accounts indicate that such a strategy might be resulting in the sacrificing of the foreign teacher autonomy in teaching.

As indicated by the quote from ALT9 above, both ALTs' realisation of, and local teachers' rejection against, alternative approaches may have led ALTs to perceive that skills they possess are being underutilised. Such a perceived underutilisation has been known to result in negative satisfaction with work (Allen & van der Velden, 2001; Green & McIntosh, 2002). As discussed earlier, any teachers who engage in team-teaching could experience some level of underutilisation of their skills (e.g., Beck, 2006; Marable & Raimondi, 2007). However, when teachers both with and without teaching backgrounds were working in the same context of team-teaching, those with teaching background may have experienced an underutilisation of skills in a much more specific manner, because of their existing skills and knowledge in teaching and/or TESOL. Such experiences of the underutilisation may have influenced their satisfaction in a uniquely negative manner, when compared to ALTs without any teaching background. This issue is further analysed as part of the next section, where the effect of the internal variations of TESOL certifications is examined.

Summary of Section 1

In summary, the first section of this chapter examined the potential influence of ALTs' overall educational backgrounds, including the potential effect of TESOL backgrounds when examined in the dichotomous fashion (TESOL-certified vs. the uncertified ALTs). The results of regression analysis indicated that variations in educational qualifications – such as the highest achieved levels, specific fields of study, and local accreditation status for teaching – had very little statistical association with satisfaction scores. Also, when compared dichotomously (i.e., TESOL certified vs. TESOL uncertified), TESOL certifications did not make any significant and substantial difference to satisfaction scores.

The analysis of the interview data, however, revealed how backgrounds in TESOL, or in teaching in general, affect the perceptions of their work both in positive and negative directions. On the one hand, ALTs with some teaching backgrounds seemed to have benefited from their practical skills and knowledge in teaching (e.g., the planning, lesson flow, activities, and reflection) while they were given the opportunity to teach independently within the context of team-teaching. Such a match between the possessed and expected skills of ALTs may have led to more positive satisfaction with team-teaching, and satisfaction with students' progress while teaching independently.

On the other hand, these existing skills and knowledge may have made them aware of the underutilisation of these attributes in a more specific manner. This may have been especially so while working with local teachers who take a more traditional approach in language teaching, for whatever reasons. Such a realisation and the constraints on their personal methodologies may have led to lower satisfaction.

Mixed perceptions such as these of their existing skills and knowledge in teaching emerged during the interviews. Both ALT14 and ALT25, for example, commented earlier in their interview about how their skills and knowledge in TESOL helped them plan and teach their lessons independently. It was "ironic", as described by the ALT25, that the same set of skills and knowledge in TESOL was affecting their job simultaneously in positive and negative directions. It may be argued that this mixture of positive and negative perceptions of their work experience, based on their educational backgrounds in TESOL, may have affected each other, and contributed to the regression results presented earlier.

Section 2: The Association between Internal Variations in TESOL Certifications and ALT Job Satisfaction

The second section of this chapter explores associations between the variations found within *TESOL certifications*, and the satisfaction scores of ALTs who held those certifications ($n = 56$). As seen in the three models presented earlier in this chapter, the overall influence of TESOL certification at the macro level was significant only with DV_1 (satisfaction with team-teaching, $N = 232$), and yet the effect was not substantial ($d = 0.259$, see Table 52). Also, ALT TESOL certification did not make any significant difference to the other two satisfaction scores (see Appendix F and Appendix G).

As seen in Chapter 4, the study found and clarified the extreme diversity within *TESOL certifications*. The diversity was so extreme that comparing participants with and without a TESOL certification in a dichotomous fashion only was considered to oversimplify the reality that existed within this particular group of ESOL teachers who are teaching in a specific context of TESOL in Japan.

Therefore, this section explores the potential effect of internal variations within TESOL certifications, based on the regression and interview data, to answer the fourth research question – the extent to which ALTs' TESOL teacher education backgrounds influence job satisfaction – in a much more realistic manner. Further, the analysis in this section clarifies the positive and negative effects of the different elements within *TESOL certifications*, which allows the study to explore further explanations for other possible influences of TESOL certifications.

Recoding process. The PVs that represented the various characteristics of *TESOL certifications* and the assigned scores are summarised in Table 53. Since some participants had more than one TESOL certification ($n = 17$), most of the PVs were dichotomised with a score of 0 assigned to the baseline group who did not have a TESOL certification with the specific attribute, and then compared to the group who had completed at least one certification that included the focused attribute (coded as 1). For instance, the PV on the highest level of TESOL certifications was coded as 0 if they completed a certification only at an undergraduate level ($n = 36$, no missing), and compared to those who completed at least one postgraduate certification ($n = 20$, a score of 1). Other PVs (e.g., the requirement for learning a language other than English, study hours, the number of units completed) were dichotomised in a similar manner. This dichotomising process not only simplified the analysis, but also helped maintain a sufficient sample size at each level in these PVs.

Table 53. *The predictor variables (PVs) and the assigned scores in Model 7, 8 and 9*

Predictor variable	Assigned score and category in each variable
Highest levels of TESOL certification (no missing)	0. Undergraduate TESOL certification ($n = 36$) 1. Postgraduate TESOL certification ($n = 20$)
Study hours required in TESOL study (2 missing)	0. 200 hours or less ($n = 30$) 1. More than 200 hours ($n = 24$)
Requirement of learning language(s) other than English (no missing)	0. Not required ($n = 31$) 1. Recommended or required ($n = 25$)
Number of units completed (4 missing)	0. Less than 20 units ($n = 35$) 1. More than 20 units ($n = 17$)
Subject area 1 (Teaching skills - TS) (no missing)	0. Did not study TS in TESOL study ($n = 9$) 1. Studied TS in TESOL study ($n = 47$)
Subject area 2 (Contextual knowledge - CK) (no missing)	0. Did not study CK in TESOL study ($n = 12$) 1. Studied CK in TESOL study ($n = 44$)
Teaching practicum duration in weeks (no missing)	1. TESOL study with no practicum ($n = 25$) 2. TESOL study with 8 weeks or shorter practicum ($n = 17$) 3. TESOL study with 9 weeks or longer practicum ($n = 14$)
Institution type in practicum (no missing)	0. Completed no practicum at school ($n = 46$) 1. Completed practicum at school ($n = 10$)
Learners' proficiency in practicum (no missing)	0. Did not teach any beginners ($n = 39$) 1. Taught beginners at practicum ($n = 17$)
Practicum class size (no missing)	0. Did not teach class over 20 students ($n = 47$) 1. Taught class more than 20 students ($n = 9$)
Present work status (no missing)	0. Current ALTs ($n = 132$) 1. Former ALTs ($n = 100$)

Subjects/topics studied in units. In order to re-categorise the identified range of the subjects and topics in a meaningful and manageable way for the regression analysis, the identified subjects were regrouped into four groups – disciplinary content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, teaching skills, and contextual knowledge – using definitions by Richards (2010). The definitions for each category are summarised as follows:

- *Disciplinary content knowledge* – a circumscribed body of knowledge that is considered by the language teaching profession to be essential to gaining membership of the profession. It is acquired by special training, and largely but not exclusively drawn from the field of linguistics, and thus not necessarily translated into practical skills (e.g., the history of language teaching methods, second language acquisition (SLA), sociolinguistics, phonology and syntax, discourse analysis, theories of language, critical applied linguistics).

- *Pedagogical content knowledge* – knowledge drawn from the study of language teaching and language learning itself, which can be applied to resolve practical issues in language teaching (e.g., curriculum planning, assessment, reflective teaching, classroom management, teaching children, teaching the four skills, technologies for language teaching).

- *Teaching skills* – the basic classroom skills needed to present and navigate their lessons, including a repertoire of techniques and routines that teachers need to have to carry out their lessons.

- *Contextual knowledge* – the knowledge of social and physical contexts which shape how learning takes place act as resources, constraints, and influences. It is the knowledge of norms of practice expected of teachers in

a school, both inside and outside the classroom (e.g., rules and behaviours specific to a particular setting).

Following the above four classifications, the subjects identified in the questionnaire (listed here) were re-categorised into four variables (in bold):

Disciplinary content knowledge

- Linguistics
- Teaching methodologies
- Second language acquisition
- Sociolinguistics
- Discourse analysis

Pedagogical content knowledge

- Lesson planning
- Material/resource development
- Assessment/testing
- Curriculum design
- Classroom/behaviour management
- Error analysis/contrastive analysis
- Technology for teaching language
- Reflective teaching

Teaching skills

- Strategies and techniques of teaching listening, reading, writing, speaking, grammar, pronunciation
- Teaching English for academic purposes
- Teaching English for specific purposes

Contextual knowledge

- Language and culture
- Context/situation/needs analysis

- Bilingual education
- Immersion education

These four dichotomous PVs were initially created to indicate whether the participants had studied these subjects in their TESOL certifications. In each variable, a score of 0 was assigned to the baseline group who did not study any of the subjects in the respective category above, and then compared to those who had studied at least one subject in the respective category above (a score of 1). Three subjects (i.e., research methods and design, research project, school administration and management) were not included in the further analysis, because it was not clear they would fit under any of the above categories.

In total, more than 96% of the *TESOL-certified* participants ($n = 54$) studied at least one subject in disciplinary content knowledge in their TESOL certifications, and therefore, this PV was removed from the mode due to the lack of variation in value. Also, the pedagogical content knowledge was dropped from the model due to the multicollinearity with subjects in teaching skills. Of 56 participants, more than 87% ($n = 49$, 1 missing) studied at least one subject in the pedagogical content knowledge in their TESOL certifications, and nearly 84% studied at least one subject in teaching skills ($n = 47$). The variable on teaching skills was kept in the model due to no missing data.

Predictor variables relating to the teaching practicum. The PV *duration of teaching practicum* and the PV *required hours of teaching during the practicum* were initially recoded separately as intervals. Not surprisingly, however, the inspection of the correlation matrix identified an issue of multicollinearity between these two PVs, and therefore, the PV *required hours of teaching during practicum* was removed from the model. A decision to keep the PV *duration of teaching*

practicum was made since this variable had no missing data, and recoded as 1 for ALTs who did not have any practicum during their study ($n = 25$), 2 for those who completed a practicum that ran for up to eight weeks ($n = 17$), and 3 for those who completed a practicum of nine weeks or longer ($n = 14$).

The other three PVs representing characteristics of the practicum were all dichotomised. The institution types at which the participants completed their practicum were re-categorised between those who completed at least one practicum at schools (kindergarten, elementary, junior and senior high schools combined, $n = 10$, a score of 1), and then compared to all others ($n = 46$, a score of 0). The decision was made as the majority of ALTs are dispatched to one or more of these types of schools in their duties (e.g., CLAIR, 2013a).

Student proficiency levels in the participants' teaching practicum were dichotomised into "beginners" and "non-beginners". This was because Japanese students at schools were more likely to be at an early stage of English learning. Those who taught students at the beginners level during any of their practicum were given a score of 1 ($n = 17$), and then compared with all others ($n = 39$, a score $= 0$). Finally, the class size at practicum was re-categorised into "less than 20" and "21 or more", given the relatively large class size at Japanese schools (e.g., OECD, 2012). Those who taught a class averaging 21 or more students in their practicum were given a score of 1 ($n = 9$), and compared with all others ($n = 47$, a score $= 0$). The latter group included ALTs who did not complete any teaching practicum during their TESOL study ($n = 25$), as well as those who had completed the practicum in a smaller class ($n = 22$).

Regression results. The results of the regression analysis are summarised in Table 54 (Model 7), Table 55 (Model 8), and Appendix H (Model 9). As seen in those tables, the overall fit of the model was not significant with any of the three satisfaction scores. The PVs included in total explained relatively larger proportions of the variances within the DVs (25% of DV_1 and DV_2; 17.5% of DV_3); however, these results were likely to be affected by the small sample size in the model.

The results suggest, despite the extent of the diversity found within the TESOL certifications, that most of the variations did not make any difference to the satisfaction scores of TESOL-certified ALTs. The various differences in their TESOL teacher education – in terms of academic levels, the language learning requirement, practicum length, or learners' proficiency at practicum – did not appear to affect their satisfaction.

Nonetheless, the individual *t*-statistics identify two particular PVs that seem to have made a significant and substantial impact upon ALT satisfaction scores. The first is the number of units or courses completed in acquiring their TESOL certification. The second is the size of class in which the TESOL-certified ALTs completed their teaching practicum. Each will now be discussed below.

Table 54. *Model 7: Linear model of predictors (TESOL certifications variations) of the change in satisfaction with team-teaching (95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, n = 50)*

Predictor variables	b (CI low and high)	SE B	β	t	ρ
Constant	4.779 (0.994, 8.564)	1.870		2.556	.015
Qualification level	0.176 (-0.935, 1.286)	0.549	.056	0.320	.750
Required study hours	-0.468 (-1.571, 0.636)	0.545	-.162	-0.857	.397
Requirement for learning a language other than English	-0.383 (-1.493, 0.726)	0.548	-.131	-0.699	.489
Number of units studied	1.132 (0.061, 2.203)	0.529	.369	2.140	.039*
Subject (teaching skills)	-1.022 (-2.308, 0.264)	0.635	-.275	-1.608	.116
Subject (contextual knowledge)	0.063 (-1.108, 1.234)	0.578	.019	0.109	.914
Practicum duration in weeks	0.078 (-0.737, 0.893)	0.402	.044	0.194	.847
Institution type in practicum	-0.137 (-1.496, 1.222)	0.671	-.038	-0.204	.839
Learners' proficiency in practicum	-0.744 (-1.956, 0.468)	0.599	-.239	-1.242	.222
Class size in practicum	0.729 (-0.578, 2.035)	0.645	.187	1.129	.266
Present work status	-0.138 (-1.101, 0.825)	0.476	-.047	-0.290	.773

$R = 0.501$, $R^2 = 0.251$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.034$, $F (11, 38) = 1.156$, $\rho = 0.349$

The number of units or courses completed in TESOL certification. The number of units or courses completed during TESOL study makes a significant difference to satisfaction with team-teaching [b = 1.132, SE B = 0.529, β = 0.369, t = 2.140, ρ = 0.039*, Table 54]. With a large effect size ($d = 0.611$) and a positive b coefficient, the result suggests that those who completed a TESOL certification with more than 20 units or courses ($n = 17$, a score of 1) were significantly and substantially more satisfied with team-teaching than those who completed the certifications with less than 20 units/courses ($n = 35$, a score of 0).

Both the significantly higher satisfaction of ALTs who completed a longer TESOL program, and the significantly lower satisfaction of those with a shorter program, could be explained by the skill-match theory in economics studies (e.g., Chevalier, 2003; Green & Zhu, 2010). Overall, the result suggests that the more courses ALTs complete during TESOL teacher education, the more skills and knowledge they learn, and thus, the more precise match they experience between their possessed and required skills with their team-teaching work.

Considering the findings of the regression and interview data analysis presented earlier, the skill-match may have been most appreciated when these ALTs had some free rein to teach independently, despite the constraints of team-teaching with local teachers. If this holds true, the result of the regression analysis here could mean that ALTs who completed more units of study (or courses) while acquiring TESOL certification may have learned more of the practical skills and techniques for the immediate classroom use (e.g., planning skills, ideas for learning activities). As seen in the analysis of the interview data, their possession of practical skills and knowledge for independent classroom teaching were very positively perceived by ALTs with TESOL backgrounds. Therefore, an increase in such skills and

knowledge may have positively influenced perceptions of their work, particularly the independent aspects within team-teaching.

As an alternative explanation, it might be argued that ALTs who completed a TESOL program with relatively larger numbers of units/courses may have learned other skills and knowledge in addition to practical teaching techniques. Some critiques of short TESOL training programs (e.g., Ferguson & Donno, 2003; Green, 2005; Hobbs, 2013) have argued that short programs tend to "prioritise equipping trainees with a repertoire of practical techniques that allow them to behave competently in the classroom" (Ferguson & Donno, 2003, p. 30). Such programs may lack time for trainees to learn theoretical grounding that allows them to make informed choices from the broader range of approaches in teaching that some longer programs may offer (Hobbs, 2013). Such short programs could, these earlier studies argue, mislead the teachers to a "one size fits all" mindset in teaching, and discourage them from analysing and accommodating to local demands, and modifying their original approach when the one size actually does not fit local context.

To some extent, this mindset may have been seen among the negative perceptions of the local traditional approach held by TESOL-certified ALTs, as seen earlier in the interview analysis. One ALT (ALT25), who had a Bachelor of Arts (History) with an integrated certificate in TESL, noted how his TESOL certificate was useful while teaching independently, whereas it influenced his work somewhat negatively when he found the local approach "extremely demoralising". Here is what he had to say about the local approach he saw:

> Seeing in some cases an almost exact reproduction of the "what not to do"
> aspects of my previous linguistic and TESL methodology as the norm, and

the predicted negative effects it has had on both student learning and attitude towards learning, ruins my week almost every week. (ALT25)

The above quote could be interpreted as an illustration of the dichotomisation between "what to do" and "what not to do" during his certificate in TESOL. As Holliday (1994) argues, many existing TESOL teacher training programs in "the West" primarily emphasise the importance of the communicative approach (see also Chowdhurya & Ha, 2014). Therefore, the "what to do" approach is likely to be that associated with the communicative approach, and the opposite would be the less-communicative approaches such as the grammar translation, which still prevails in Japan according to the views of many ALTs as seen in the previous section.

Such a dichotomisation in teacher education may have biased ALTs towards the belief that the communicative approach is the "best and only" approach that should be implemented in any context, including Japanese schools. As seen earlier, many ALTs with TESOL certifications were referring specifically to their knowledge in alternative approaches to language teaching, only when criticising local traditional approaches (e.g., ALT14, ALT25, ALT2, see pp. 314-315). Very few, however, seem to have reflected upon the approach they supported, regarding the extent to which their approach could be implemented adequately within the local context. While many studies reported the challenging aspects in the implementation of the approach (e.g., Chiang, 2011; Ellis, 1996; Yu, 2001), ALTs who completed a relatively shorter TESOL program may have learned only the practical teaching skills and techniques based primarily on the communicative approach, while not having sufficient exposure to the theoretical analysis on the adaptability of those approaches in their future contexts.

Such a mono-method mindset may have contributed to the ALTs' complete rejection of the local approach, and their negative perceptions of team-teaching, and of students' progress, especially when they were teaching in a particular context that may not necessarily value the communicative approach in the manner they were taught in their teacher education. Also, while the interview data in the previous section indicated that TESOL-certified ALTs were actively engaged in reflective practice of their daily practice, such a reflection may have been constrained to the method that they believed in, and may not elaborate on the broader aspects of the local contexts, and the other approaches supported locally.

It should be noted, however, that these foreign teachers were hired specifically to enhance the communicative proficiency of Japanese school students (Butler & Iino, 2005; CLAIR, 2013a). Their appointment was theoretically based on the premise that Japan wishes to implement a more communication-focused English language education. Therefore, it would be extremely difficult for many ALTs, regardless of a belief in the "one size fits all", to adjust their initial expectations of teaching approaches to accept the less communicative approaches when that is supported locally.

Nonetheless, two of the interviewed ALTs demonstrated their broader understandings of the local contexts (ALT4 and ALT17). Incidentally, both hold a Bachelor of Education, which may have included relatively larger number of units of study than, for example, a certificate in TESOL. These ALTs described how they used their knowledge from teacher education to reflect on local needs, and then adjust their expectation of their role:

> When we were studying it was all about the students. So I think having that
> mentality, "it's what's best for the students", made it easier for me to not be

frustrated when you go into a junior high, for example, and you're like "oh yes, I am the human tape recorder", but it's OK because I understood this is what the students need to get to pass their tests or whatever. (ALT4, with a Bachelor of Education)

[Qualification and teaching experience] helped me to understand the pressures on class teachers and to appreciate that, while English language teaching is important to me, it needs to fit within the constraints of an already very busy school day. I have seen many ALTs become bitterly disappointed when their creative ideas have not been adopted and implemented instantly. I think I am better able to see the "bigger picture", and to appreciate the difficult situation in which many teachers find themselves. [ALT17, with a Bachelor of Education (Special Education)]

Although their teacher training was not TESOL-specific, both quotes illustrate how their knowledge from teacher education courses helped them to analyse the needs of local students and teachers, and then adjust their own expectations of their roles in team-teaching. Such an adjustment seemingly helped the first ALT (ALT4) to perceive her role as a human tape recorder in a less negative manner. This was an interesting reflection, because the role of human tape recorder was the most (negatively) influential single factor against ALT satisfaction, as discussed in the next chapter. The second ALT (ALT17) showed her understanding of the reality of the local teachers' professional lives, which then appears to have neutralised her perception of local teachers' rejection of her ideas for different approaches in teaching.

As pointed out in some studies (Ferguson & Donno, 2003; Hobbs, 2013), ALTs who completed a teacher education program with a relatively larger number of units may have had an opportunity to learn the theoretical underpinnings of a broader range of approaches in language teaching. Learning what to do when "one size does not fit" the local context may have helped them to adjust their expectations, and make informed choices of their approaches in a given TESOL context in Japan. Such an adjustment could result in a smaller gap between teacher expectations and reality in the workplace, which may have contributed to their more positive satisfaction, as reported in many economics studies (e.g., Jex, 2002; Locke, 1976).

In summary, the regression and interview analysis here indicates that there may be some differences in the quantity and quality of the skills and knowledge gained from TESOL teacher education programs. This difference may contribute to the significant association between the number of units in TESOL study and satisfaction with team-teaching.

The findings also helped to elaborate the significant influence of TESOL certification upon ALT satisfaction with team-teaching presented in the first section in the chapter (see Table 52). While ALTs who completed any form of TESOL teacher education were defined as one group in the analysis at the macro level, further analysis reveals that at least one variation within the group (i.e., the number of units completed) affects their satisfaction in different directions. ALTs who completed a shorter TESOL program may have learned only the practical teaching skills and techniques required for a communicative approach, while not having sufficient exposure to the theoretical underpinnings behind that and other approaches.

Those ALTs may have been more likely to perceive the underutilisation of their skills and knowledge more acutely, than those who completed a longer program. Such a mixture of perceptions within the same "TESOL certified" group of teachers may have influenced the overall impact of TESOL certification at the macro level, resulting in the small effect size discovered in this relationship ($d = 0.259$).

Practicum class size. Another aspect of TESOL certifications that demonstrated the potential significance was the size of the class in which participants had taught during their teaching practicum. The PV made a difference to DV_2 (satisfaction with students' progress, $b = 1.536$, $SE\ B = 0.677$, $\beta = 0.376$, $t = 2.269$, $\rho = 0.029$, Table 55). Again, the b coefficient was positive, and the effect size was relatively large ($d = 0.648$). The PV was recoded as 0 for ALTs who did not teach a class of more than 20 students during practicum ($n = 47$), and 1 for ALTs who taught classes of more than 20 students ($n = 9$). Therefore, the result suggests that those who taught larger practicum classes (21 or more) were more satisfied as ALTs with their students' progress, when compared to other ALTs without the same experience ($n = 47$).

Table 55. *Model 8: Linear model of predictors (TESOL certifications variations) of the change in satisfaction with students' progress (95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, n = 50)*

Predictor variables	b (CI low and high)	SE B	β	t	ρ
Constant	6.037 (2.065, 10.010)	1.962		3.077	.004
Qualification level	0.311 (-0.854, 1.476)	0.576	.095	0.540	.592
Required study hours	-0.352 (-1.511, 0.806)	0.572	-.117	-0.616	.542
Requirement for learning a language other than English	-0.611 (-1.776, 0.554)	0.575	-.200	-1.062	.295
Number of units studied	0.693 (-0.431, 1.817)	0.555	.216	1.248	.220
Subject (teaching skills)	-0.489 (-1.839, 0.861)	0.667	-.125	-0.734	.468
Subject (contextual knowledge)	-0.339 (-1.568, 0.890)	0.607	-.097	-0.558	.580
Practicum duration in weeks	-0.157 (-1.012, 0.698)	0.422	-.085	-0.372	.712
Institution type in practicum	-0.199 (-1.625, 1.228)	0.705	-.053	-0.282	.779
Learners' proficiency in practicum	-0.746 (-2.018, 0.526)	0.628	-.228	-1.187	.242
Class size in practicum	1.536 (0.166, 2.907)	0.677	.376	2.269	.029*
Present work status	0.002 (-1.008, 1.013)	0.499	.001	0.005	.996

$R = 0.499$, $R^2 = 0.249$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.032$, $F(11, 38) = 1.148$, $\rho = 0.354$

The result can be explained by both Locke's (1976) Range of Affect theory (i.e., the expectation-match) and the skill-match theory in economics studies (e.g., Green & Zhu, 2010; Mavromaras et al., 2011), when considering what teacher trainees may have learned during their practicum experience. The learning process of teacher trainees during their practicum in a large class has been well documented in the wider context of teacher education. When they first attend school as a teacher, they discover discrepancies between the images and expectations of the teaching profession, which they had constructed through their own lives as a student, and the reality of the profession when seen through a teacher's perspective (e.g., Allen & Wright, 2014; Brown, 2006; Bullough, 1997; Cole & Knowles, 1993; Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005). Those who complete their practicum successfully tend to challenge and revisit their personal assumptions about school and the teaching profession (Flores, 2006), and then acquire new skills specifically to accommodate the unique characteristics of the large class, such as the decreased level of attention to individual students, the increased level of peer pressure, increased possibilities for challenging or disruptive behaviours, and the difficulty in organising interactive learning activities (e.g., Bahanshal, 2013; Harmer; 2007; Hattie, 2005; Kennedy & Kennedy, 1996).

As mentioned in Chapter 4, the average class size of 32 students in Japanese schools is one of the largest among OECD nations (OECD, 2012), and the descriptive data in the chapter confirmed this trend. ALTs who completed their practicum in large classes prior to their departure may have already adjusted their expectations of teaching in large classes, and then acquired the necessary skills to teach successfully in such classes. Such an adjustment of expectations – and the acquisition of relevant skills – may have helped those ALTs to encounter smaller

discrepancies between their expectations and the reality in Japan, as well as between their possessed and required skills at Japanese schools, which may have resulted in their positive perceptions of their students' progress.

Discussion and implications

In exploring this sub-question in the third research question, the results of the regression analysis suggest little general impact of ALT educational backgrounds upon their job satisfaction scores. The regression analysis did not detect any significant influence of such qualifications over satisfaction scores.

The subsequent interview analysis, however, clarified the potential explanation for the overall results. It demonstrated how an ALTs' TESOL background could indeed affect their professional lives significantly. In this respect, the specific influence of TESOL certifications upon ALT satisfaction was examined in more detail.

On the one hand, many of the TESOL-certified ALTs appreciated their existing practical skills and knowledge in teaching, while having the free rein to choose to follow the less traditional approach in language teaching. This appears to be where their existing skills and knowledge from their teacher education matches the skill set required at work. On the other hand, their backgrounds in TESOL may have affected their perceptions of team-teaching and student progress negatively, when they experienced the underutilisation of existing skills and knowledge in practical teaching under the constraints of team-teaching, especially under the traditional approach adopted by local teachers during team-teaching. Such a conflict is observed in the accounts from a number of ALTs, as seen earlier (e.g., ALT14, ALT25).

The practical implications of these findings may be to place ALTs with any TESOL backgrounds where they are more likely to have autonomy in teaching, so that they can use the skills and knowledge relating to teaching independently (e.g., kindergartens). Also, given the interview results seemed to indicate that ALT autonomy was dependent largely upon local teacher approaches to language teaching, the first step to achieve the above may be to investigate local teachers' individual approaches in language teaching, as well as their perceptions of working with ALTs in team-teaching. Second, ALTs need to be placed not with individual schools as in the current model in the JET program (CLAIR, 2015a), but with individual local teachers.

If TESOL-certified ALTs could be placed with local teachers who are more receptive to ALTs' own approaches, that may lead to ALTs' more positive satisfaction with their experience. This issue could be addressed by local teachers becoming class observers, and transferring complete responsibility to the ALT. Such an approach by some Japanese teachers has been reported in the literature (e.g., Aline & Hosoda, 2006), and also by interviewed ALTs in the present study. Alternatively, local teachers could decide to implement more communicative approaches into their own practice, and teach their lessons collaboratively, literally together as a team. While the latter is likely to be the form of team-teaching the JET program originally envisaged (CLAIR, 2013a), ALT autonomy may be warranted either way, and thus their TESOL backgrounds would have a positive impact upon their subjective professional lives.

The interview results also indicated that ALT frustration at the local traditional approach emerges from those who do not have any teaching background. This finding suggests that ALT frustration with the local traditional approach may not be

completely solved until the two forms of the English curriculum (i.e., the communicative and the grammar-focused curriculum, see Sakui, 2004) are either united, or completely separated, so that teachers could work independently in each approach.

In the meantime, it would not be appropriate for any ALTs to be placed with local teachers who are, for whatever reasons, not supportive of the implementation of the communicative approach. Some of those teachers may be working in an environment where the pressure for preparing their students for forthcoming entrance examinations is more fiercely felt than for those at other schools. Others may have their own personal and pedagogical beliefs in support of more traditional approaches, such as the grammar translation method.

By all means, local teachers' decisions and the existing situational and contextual needs in their teaching should be respected. However, the needs of ALTs, who were hired from overseas as a human resource to help local teachers specifically to enhance the communicative English proficiency of students in Japan, should also be considered. One way to achieve this is simply not to place ALTs with local teachers who are less likely to fully utilise their capacity as a human resource. Upon investigation of local teachers' individual approaches to teaching and working with ALTs, those local teachers who are not motivated to work with ALTs should be excluded completely from this work.

Alternatively, such local teachers could be provided with some ongoing training to familiarise themselves with less traditional approaches, and more importantly, how they could implement such approaches together with ALTs within the constraints of the current examination-orientated education system. Such an approach would benefit local teachers too, since many ALTs provided accounts of

local teachers who were not at all willing to work with ALTs. This will be further discussed in the next chapter.

Internal variations of TESOL certifications – the number of units completed. The second section in this chapter clarifies the effects of the different elements within TESOL certifications upon job satisfaction for ALTs who hold a TESOL certification (TESOL-certified ALTs). This section provides more complete answers to the fourth research question. While most of the variations within the TESOL programs did not demonstrate any significant individual influence, the result suggests that not all programs in TESOL teacher education were the same, and not all TESOL-certified ALTs had the same perceptions of their experiences in Japan. This finding supports the point made earlier that the dichotomous approach between the *qualified teachers* and *under-qualified teachers* may oversimplify the reality that exists in many parts of the TESOL contexts (Christopher, 2005). The approach may have affected the overall regression results in the first section in the study, which adopted this dichotomous coding.

At the individual predictor variable level, ALTs who completed a relatively shorter (i.e., fewer units/courses) program in TESOL were significantly less satisfied with their team-teaching work. Based on the literature (e.g., Ferguson & Donno, 2003; Green, 2005; Hobbs, 2013), it was speculated that these ALTs may have learned just the practical skills in the communicative approach for immediate use in class, whereas those who completed a longer program may have learned some additional skills and knowledge, including the theoretical underpinnings of the different approaches. Such additional learning may have helped them to conduct a contextual and situational analysis beyond the communicative approach, which appears to be widely supported in the Western society (Holliday, 1994, 2006).

The implication of this finding is that TESOL-certified teachers who completed a relatively shorter program may be best placed in contexts where the communicative approach is widely accepted. While schools and institutions in their own country in Western society seem to widely support the approach (i.e., see Holliday, 1994), and thus may be good contexts for those teachers to be working, alternatively, they may also benefit from working at schools outside those contexts, where the communicative approach is supported widely, such as private conversational schools in Japan.

By contrast, some TESOL-certified teachers may aim to teach in a context where the mixture of different approaches (and the local teachers who support those different approaches) could be expected. The preparation for such teachers may require a longer program that allows sufficient time to include the theoretical grounds and analytic skills of the different approaches, allowing teaching using a range of the approaches beyond the communicative method in a relatively comfortable manner.

This recommendation can be applied to ALTs in Japan. As emerged repeatedly in the earlier interview results, the communicative approach in language teaching is not always implemented at all Japanese schools. Therefore, it may be most favourable if future ALTs who completed a relatively shorter program in TESOL are placed in a context where the communicative approach could be fully and independently implemented. Ideally, those ALTs would be best placed with individual local teachers who demonstrate more supportive attitudes and perceptions towards the communicative approach, and in working with ALTs in team-teaching.

Alternatively, the descriptive analysis in Chapter 4 suggests that ALT roles at kindergartens and elementary schools were less associated with the traditional

approach such as "grammar teaching"; and "teach based on the set textbooks" (see Figure 14 in Chapter 4). This seems to lend support to the conclusion that ALTs with a shorter program could be more satisfied when teaching independently at those schools, where they could use their practical teaching skills in the communicative approach in a relatively less constrained manner.

By contrast, ALTs who completed a longer program may be best placed in the context where the traditional and less traditional approaches and pedagogies could be observed in a mixed manner, for example at junior or senior high schools. The additional knowledge in the theoretical grounding of the different approaches, and the skills for the contextual or situational needs analysis beyond the communicative approach, may enable those ALTs to adjust their expectations based on local needs, and modify their approach accordingly. This could reduce the potential impact of the traditional approach on the subjective quality of the professional lives of Western teachers in Japan.

Class size at teaching practicum. The regression analysis in the second section also identifies the potentially significant influence of the size of the class in which TESOL-certified ALTs completed their teaching practicum. Those who completed their practicum in a relatively large class (more than 21 students) were more satisfied with their students' progress than those who did not have the same practical experience.

Many studies reported that novice teachers in TESOL valued their experience in teaching practicum during their teacher education program (Brandt, 2006; Chiang, 2008; Kanowski, 2004; Numrich, 1996; Richards et al, 1996; Williams, 2009). This view was supported explicitly by a number of ALTs who participated in the interview (e.g., see the earlier comment by ALT25). The result here, however,

suggests that not all teaching practicums had the same effect upon the teachers' professional lives. There were some variations in the effect of the practicum upon the professional lives of the working teachers, especially how they perceived their students' progress. In the context of the present study, such a variation within the TESOL certified group ($n = 56$) may have contributed to the non-significant influence of the ALTs' TESOL certification background upon their satisfaction with the students' progress, as seen earlier (see Appendix F).

The result also has significant implications for the JET program, TESOL teacher educators, and the so-called "native speaker" teacher trainees who wish to complete a TESOL program. In principle, the result suggests that class size during the practicum should match the expected class size in the future context, where teacher trainees will be teaching upon completion of the program. The result seems to imply that teacher trainees who complete a practicum in a relatively large class were likely to learn some of the unique skills associated with teaching a large class (e.g., Hattie, 2005; Kennedy & Kennedy, 1996), which seemingly helps them enhance the subjective quality of their experience in Japan. If Japan continues to have relatively large size classes across the public school sector (OECD, 2012), the future recruitment of ALTs may need to focus on the quality of the candidates' practicum experience, especially the size of the class in which they completed their teaching practicum. Following the same logic, ALTs who had some prior teaching experience in a large class may also benefit from their past experience when they work in Japan as ALTs. Unfortunately, the study did not collect data on that aspect of participating ALTs.

For TESOL teacher education, and the perceived "native speaker" teacher trainees, again the same principle should apply: the expected class size in the future

context should match with the class size during the practicum. Pre-service teachers need to choose their TESOL program carefully, in consideration of the class size in their future context. If they may potentially be teaching in contexts where a relatively large class size is expected, such as Japan or China (OECD, 2012), then consideration should be given to the size of the class in which they complete their practicum.

Such a match between class size in the teaching practicum and the teachers' future context may be challenging for those who complete their teacher education in Western society, and yet teach in contexts outside their home society. The literature suggests that the average class size in Western society is relatively small (e.g., OECD, 2012). The data presented in Chapter 4 also confirms the class size in which TESOL-certified ALTs completed their teacher education was relatively small (Table 20). One potential solution would be to utilise existing job vacancies in many contexts of TESOL in Asia as a practicum placement in TESOL teacher education. As seen in Chapter 1, there seem to be many ESOL teaching positions (e.g., the JET program) that do not necessarily require so-called "native speaker" teacher candidates to have completed any teacher education (see Sperling, 2011). These positions may provide useful practicum opportunities for Western teacher trainees to practice teaching in classes which may have a relatively large number of the students.

Summary

In this chapter, the potential influence of ALT educational backgrounds upon job satisfaction was examined, with some emphasis on the effect of background in TESOL teacher education. In the first section, regression analysis indicated that none of the variations in educational qualifications, including the ALTs' overall

background in TESOL, made any significant and substantial difference to any of the ALTs' satisfaction scores (the third research question).

The analysis of the interview data provided some plausible explanations for the non-significant results above. The analysis showed that while they appreciated their practical skills and knowledge for teaching during their independent teaching, the same skill set raised their awareness of the discrepancy between the teaching approach they encountered during the teacher education, and the approach implemented widely in the local context. Such a mixture of the utilisation and the underutilisation of the same set of skills and knowledge in teaching may have resulted in their positive and negative perceptions of their teaching experiences in Japan. Altogether, this may have resulted in the non-significant associations discovered in the regression analysis, and the influence of TESOL certification upon ALTs may indeed have been substantial in multiple directions (the fourth research question).

Further analysis of the regression results in the second section revealed that the internal variations within TESOL certifications may also have affected ALT perceptions of their work in the mixed directions, which may have contributed to the overall non-significant results in the first section. The regression results indicated both the number of the units/subjects completed (Table 54), and the class size during the teaching practicum (Table 55) made a significant and substantial difference to perceptions of work. The analysis suggests simply learning a set of practical skills and knowledge in a single approach to language teaching in a small class may not adequately prepare so-called native speaker teachers who may have to teach English using the wider range of approaches in relatively large classes.

These findings have some important implications for future practices of hiring perceived native speaker ALTs in Japan, TESOL teacher education, and so-called native speaker teacher trainees. The Japanese government should investigate more fully the characteristics of the teacher education that ALTs may have completed, along with local teachers' perceptions of the teaching approach and team-teaching practice with the ALTs. If the types of ALT teaching backgrounds and local teachers' beliefs and styles are matched carefully, a more satisfactory experience for both groups of the teachers will result.

Accordingly, perceived native speaker teacher trainees who seek a teacher education program should examine the local needs in their future teaching contexts, in particular the typical size of the class and the locally-supported pedagogical approaches, and then carefully choose a program that can prepare them for that particular context. TESOL program providers then need to examine the context-dependent needs of the graduates' future destinations, both in terms of class sizes and the supported pedagogy, and incorporate those considerations into the practicum. The existing opportunities for the perceived native speakers in TESOL overseas are suggested as a potential solution.

Chapter 8: Results and Discussion (The Relationship between the Assistant Language Teachers' Job Characteristics and Their Job Satisfaction)

Introduction

Chapter 7 examined the potential influence of ALT educational and training backgrounds upon job satisfaction, in particular the effect of having completed teacher education in TESOL. Together with the findings in Chapter 6, Chapter 7 added to the understanding of the relationship between the broad backgrounds of ALTs and their satisfaction with the professional experience in Japan, and thus contributed to answering to the third and fourth research questions. Both the regression and interview analysis helped to clarify how existing skills and knowledge ALTs gained from their teacher training in TESOL affected their experiences in Japan, in both positive and negative directions (research question 4).

This chapter reports the results and discussion from the analysis of the questionnaire and interview data, which investigated the potential influence of ALT work experiences and conditions (the predictor variables) over their job satisfaction (the dependent variables). First, three regression models were estimated (Model 10, 11, and 12), and explore the association between this group of PVs and DV_1 – satisfaction with team-teaching, Model 10, DV_2 – satisfaction with students' progress, Model 11, and DV_3 – satisfaction with resources, Model 12, respectively. While the literature generally suggests the characteristics of the job and the workplace predominantly determine worker job satisfaction (Jex, 2002), the analysis identifies two predictor variables (PVs) that demonstrate significant influence over

their satisfaction scores ("years of experience", and "the role as human tape recorder").

The regression analysis is followed by the analysis of interview. The analysis provides more insights into how the two influential PVs may affect ALT experience at Japanese schools. The chapter concludes with a number of the implications for the hiring practice of future ALTs in Japan.

Regression Analysis

Recoding process. Together with the ALTs' present work status, a total of 11 predictor variables (PVs) were included in the models (Table 56). The PV *years of experience in working as an ALT* and PV *salary* were both recoded as an interval PV with a score of 1 assigned to the lowest in the respective range and the score of 5 to the highest. A few groups in the higher end had to be combined to increase the same size in the single group.

The JET or non-JET employment types were also included in the models. That is, whether participants worked as an ALT in the JET program or independently of the JET program (i.e., 0 = JET, 1 = non-JET). Throughout the descriptive analysis presented earlier, these two groups of ESOL teachers in Japan appear to have very different demographic and educational backgrounds, and to work under different labour conditions. It is, therefore, of interest to investigate if the employment type would exert any influence over job satisfaction. Overall, nearly 80% described their work experience as JET ALTs in the survey ($n = 183$), whereas 17% provided their responses as non-JET ALTs ($n = 41$). Former ALTs who had worked both as JET and non-JET ALTs ($n = 8$) were not included in the model, since the questionnaire design did not differentiate their experiences between those as JET or non-JET ALTs.

Table 56. *The predictor variables (PVs) and the assigned scores in Model 10, 11 and 12*

Predictor variables	Assigned score and category in each variable
Years of experience as ALT	1. Less than 1 year ($n = 46$) 2. 1 to 2 years ($n = 60$) 3. 2 to 3 years ($n = 48$) 4. 3 to 4 years ($n = 37$) 5. 4 years or longer ($n = 41$)
Salary	1. Less than Y230, 000 ($n = 25$) 2. Y230, 001 – 260K ($n = 32$) 3. Y260, 001 – 290K ($n = 47$) 4. Y290, 001 – 320K ($n = 77$) 5. Y320, 001 or more ($n = 44$)
Number of schools to teach per week	1. 1 school ($n = 58$) 2. 2 schools ($n = 61$) 3. 3 schools ($n = 55$) 4. 4 schools ($n = 28$) 5. 5 or more schools ($n = 30$)
Levels (teaching at multiple levels or not)	0. No ($n = 93$) 1. Yes ($n = 139$)
Base school (6 missing)	0. Did not have any ($n = 58$) 1. Did have a base school ($n = 168$)
Average class size	0. Did not teach any class larger than 31 students ($n = 108$) 1. Did teach classes larger than 31 students ($n = 124$)
Role (plan lessons by myself)	0. Planning lessons was not my role ($n = 56$) 1. Planning lessons was my role ($n = 176$)
Role (act as a main teacher)	0. Acting as a main teacher was not my role ($n = 70$) 1. Acting as a main teacher was my role ($n = 162$)
Role (act as a human tape recorder)	0. Acting as a tape recorder was not my role ($n = 72$) 1. Acting as a tape recorder was my role ($n = 160$)
JET or Non-JET ALTs (excluding former ALTs who had both experience, $n = 8$)	0. Worked only as JET ALTs ($n = 183$) 1. Worked only as Non-JET ALTs ($n = 41$)
Present work status (no missing)	1. Current ALTs ($n = 132$) 2. Former ALTs ($n = 100$)

The number and levels of schools. A number of the PVs were related to the number and levels of schools at which ALTs teach were included in the models. The average number of schools at which they taught per week was recoded as an interval variable with a score of 1 assigned to the smallest level (1 school per week, $n = 58$), and a score of 5 was given to the largest level (5 or more schools, $n = 30$). Also, participants who were teaching across different levels of schools ($n = 139$, 60%) were given a score of 1, and then compared to the baseline group who were working at school(s) at a single level (the score of 0, $n = 93$, 40%).

Additionally, an initial attempt was made to include PVs that represented the individual level of schools at which participants had taught. Four dummy PVs were created for each of the four school levels – kindergartens, elementary schools, junior high schools (JHSs), and senior high schools (SHSs). In each of these PVs, those who teach at a particular level are given a score of 1, and then compared to those who had not taught at the level at all (score = 0).

However, the initial visual inspection of the correlation matrix identified these PVs were highly correlating to each other (e.g., teaching at JHSs and teaching at SHSs at -0.753), and also with one of the other PVs (teaching at multiple levels of schools, 0.858). Although these coefficients were still below the cut-off point at 0.9 (Field, 2013), a decision to drop these variables was made after confirming the improvement in the *F*-ratio in the model from 4.044 to 5.260.

Base schools. A base school is the school at which ALTs spend most of their non-teaching time. Having a base school reportedly helps ALTs feel more accepted in the local school community (Allison & Nash, 2009), which could in turn positively affect their perceptions of their work. Despite the continuing demand for a base school raised among ALTs themselves (McConnell, 2000), the descriptive

analysis in the present study confirms that some ALTs still do not have any base school ($n = 58$, Table 29). To examine the effect of having a base school on ALTs quantitatively, the existence of a base school was recoded as a dichotomous PV, and included in the model. A score of 0 was given to ALTs without any base school as a baseline ($n = 58$), and compared with those who had a base school and given a score of 1 ($n = 168$, 6 missing).

Class size. An initial attempt was made to recode the average class size dichotomously between those who had taught in classes that had more than 21 students ($n = 203$, 87%), and those who did not have the same experience ($n = 29$, 13%). The cut-off point (i.e., 21) was drawn from the PV *class size in teaching practicum* that in the previous chapter demonstrated significant influence over satisfaction with students' progress.

However, the cut-off point had to be increased to "31 or over" due to the lack of variability. This suggests that the majority of ALTs in the study teach in a class with more than 21 students while working in Japan, which reinforces the importance of seeking similar experience as part of the teacher preparation, as argued in the previous chapter. In total, a little more than 50% of ALTs still indicated their experience in teaching in classes larger than 31 ($n = 124$, 53%, score = 1), and 47% ($n = 108$, score = 0), did not have the same experience.

Roles. Finally, a number of dummy variables were created to investigate the potential effects of the ALTs' (perceived) roles. As discussed earlier, the survey allowed all participants to select as many roles as applicable at each level of the school(s) they had taught. Admittedly, this feature of the questionnaire made the recoding process challenging.

After reviewing the descriptive analysis (Chapter 4) and also the literature, a decision was made to include the following three roles as dichotomous PVs: 1) to plan lessons by myself; 2) to act as a main teacher; and 3) to act as a human tape recorder. Previous studies report ALTs' negative perceptions of the role as a human tape recorder (e.g., Rutson-Griffiths, 2012) when local teachers lead the class, and ask them "simply to read aloud or pronounce words written on the board to which the students respond in unison" (CLAIR, 2013a, p. 66). These roles have been repeatedly discussed in the existing qualitative studies as one of the most controversial areas of team-teaching between foreign ALTs and local teachers (e.g., Mahoney, 2004; McConnell, 2000; Miyazato, 2009). Therefore, it is of interest to examine if and how these roles are associated quantitatively with ALTs' perceptions of their work.

Overall, 76% ($n = 176$, score = 1) report that planning lessons by themselves was one of their roles as the ALTs, and 24% ($n = 56$, score = 0) did not include this role at any level of schools at which they had taught. A little below 70% ($n = 162$, score = 1) indicated they had acted as a main teacher, and the remainder ($n = 70$, 30%, score = 0) reported that acting as a main teacher was not part of their role. Finally, nearly 70% had acted as a human tape recorder ($n = 160$, 69%, a score = 1), whereas the rest of the participants indicated otherwise ($n = 72$, 31%, a score = 0).

Results of Regression Analysis

Model 10: Influence on DV1 (satisfaction with team-teaching). As summarised in Table 57, the overall fit was significant with DV_1 [$R = 0.462$, $R^2 = 0.213$ Adjusted $R^2 = .170$, $F(11, 199) = 4.897$, $\rho < 0.000$]. Overall, work conditions and experiences of ALTs ($N = 211$) explained more than 20% of the variances in DV_1 (satisfaction with team-teaching). Based on these statistics, the PVs in this group appeared to have explained the largest proportion of the variances in the ALT satisfaction with team-teaching, compared to all the other models tested earlier.

Nonetheless, the individual *t*-statistics indicated that most of the PVs in this group did not contribute individually to the overall fit. Overall, ALT satisfaction with the team-teaching varied independently of their job characteristics, such as salary, the number of schools at which they teach, whether they had a base school, and whether they had a role as a main teacher.

Despite the above, there were two particular aspects of ALT work conditions and experiences that demonstrated some significant influence over their satisfaction with team-teaching. The first was the number of years of work experience as ALTs ($b = 0.142$, *SE B* $= 0.070$, $\beta = 0.151$, $t = 2.038$, $\rho = 0.043$). With the positive *b*-value and the small effect size (Cohen's $d = 0.281$), the result indicates the longer they had worked as ALTs, the slightly more satisfied they were with team-teaching work.

Table 57. *Model 10: Linear model of predictors (the work conditions and experiences) of the change in satisfaction with team-teaching (95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, N = 211)*

Predictor variables	*b* (CI low and high)	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*ρ*
Constant	4.229 (3.357, 5.101)	0.442		9.562	.000
Years of experience	0.142 (0.005, 0.280)	0.070	.151	2.038	.043*
Income	0.033 (-0.116, 0.183)	0.076	.031	0.438	.662
Number of schools to teach/week	0.106 (-0.066, 0.278)	0.087	.106	1.217	.225
Teaching at multiple levels of schools	-0.384 (-0.836, 0.069)	0.230	-.143	-1.671	.096
Based at a school or not	0.228 (-0.191, 0.648)	0.213	.075	1.072	.285
Teaching in large class	-0.078 (-0.428, 0.272)	0.177	-.030	-0.441	.660
Role (planned lessons by myself)	0.299 (-0.134, 0.732)	0.219	.097	1.362	.175
Role (a main teacher)	0.129 (-0.275, 0.533)	0.205	.045	0.630	.529
Role (a human tape recorder)	-1.040 (-1.425, -0.655)	0.195	-.358	-5.329	.000*
Present work status	0.158 (-0.193, 0.510)	0.178	.059	0.890	.375
JET or Non-JET	-0.279 (-0.795, 0.237)	0.262	-.083	-1.067	.287

$R = 0.462$, $R^2 = 0.213$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.170$, $F (11, 199) = 4.897$, $\rho < 0.000$

The second individual variable associated at a significant level with ALT satisfaction with team-teaching was their role as a human tape recorder (b = -1.040, $SE\ B$ = 0.195, β = *-0.358, t* = -5.329, ρ = 0.000). With the negative b value and the large effect size (Cohen's d = -0.735), the ALTs' role as a human tape recorder was very strongly and negatively associated with satisfaction with team-teaching. As outlined earlier in the chapter, this PV was recoded as 0 for ALTs who did not act as a human tape recorder (n = 72, 31%); and 1 for ALTs who had taken the role (n = 160, 69%). The result suggests ALTs who had acted as a human tape recorder were significantly and substantially less satisfied with team-teaching when compared to those who had not acted in the same role. Based on the statistics here, this PV appears to be the most influential single variable on team-teaching work.

Interestingly, both the years of experience as an ALT, and the role of human tape recorder, were also identified as influential variables in other models tested in this chapter. Therefore, these results are discussed further later, together with results from the next two models, and also the interview data.

Model 11: Influence on DV$_2$ (satisfaction with students' progress). Again, the model fit the data at a significant level [R = 0.375, R^2 = 0.140 Adjusted R^2 = 0.093, $F\ (11,\ 199)$ = 2.952, ρ = 0.001, Table 58] with 14% of the variances in the DV$_2$ being accounted for by the model. Similar to what was observed in the above model with DV$_1$ *satisfaction with team-teaching*, however, most of the PVs demonstrated very little influence over ALT satisfaction with students' progress. Most of the individual b coefficients were not significantly different from zero, which indicated that the participants' satisfaction with their students' progress varied independently of their work conditions.

Table 58. *Model 11: Linear model of predictors (the work conditions and experiences) of the change in satisfaction with students' progress (95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, N = 211)*

Predictor variables	*b* (CI low and high)	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*ρ*
Constant	3.979 (3.007, 4.950)	0.493		8.078	.000
Years of experience	0.196 (0.043, 0.349)	0.078	.195	2.524	.012*
Income	-0.013 (-0.180, 0.153)	0.084	-.012	-0.159	.874
Number of schools to teach/week	-0.004 (-0.195, 0.188)	0.097	-.003	-0.036	.971
Teaching at multiple levels of schools	0.135 (-0.370, 0.639)	0.256	.047	0.527	.599
Based at a school or not	0.353 (-0.114, 0.820)	0.237	.109	1.489	.138
Teaching in large class (>30)	-0.060 (-0.450, 0.330)	0.198	-.021	-0.303	.762
Role (planned lessons by myself)	0.097 (-0.384, 0.579)	0.244	.030	0.399	.691
Role (a main teacher)	0.221 (-0.228, 0.671)	0.228	.073	0.971	.333
Role (a human tape recorder)	-0.930 (-1.359, -0.502)	0.217	-.301	-4.280	.000*
Present work status	-0.028 (-0.419, 0.363)	0.198	-.010	-0.139	.890
JET or Non-JET	-0.196 (-0.771, 0.378)	0.291	-.055	-0.673	.502

$R = 0.375$, $R^2 = 0.140$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.093$, $F (11, 199) = 2.952$, $ρ = 0.001*$

Interestingly, the two individual PVs, which have the significant influence on DV$_1$ (satisfaction with team-teaching) in the previous model, were also influential to DV$_2$ (satisfaction with students), and the effect was observed in the same directions (Table 58). The number of years of experience in working as ALTs has a moderately positive influence upon their satisfaction with the students' progress ($b = 0.196$, $SE\ B = 0.078$, $\beta = 0.195$, $t = 2.524$, $\rho = 0.012$, Cohen's $d = 0.348$). The result suggests the longer the ALTs had worked, the more they were satisfied with their students' progress.

Also, whether or not one had taken the role as human tape recorder makes a strong and negative influence upon perceptions of the students' progress ($b = -0.930$, $SE\ B = 0.217$, $\beta = -0.301$, $t = -4.280$, $\rho < 0.000$, Cohen's $d = -0.591$). ALTs who had acted as a human tape recorder were significantly less satisfied with their students' progress when compared to those who did not take the same role at all. The results are discussed further later in the chapter.

Model 12: Influence on DV$_3$ (satisfaction with resources). Overall fit of the model was not significant with DV$_3$ (satisfaction with resources). ALT work conditions do not explain much of the variances in DV$_3$ [$R = 0.245$, $R^2 = 0.060$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.008$, $F\ (11, 199) = 1.158$, $\rho = 0.319$, Table 59]. Accordingly, most of the individual PVs in this group do not make any individual difference to this particular satisfaction score. Although the number of years of experience in working as an ALT makes a small to moderate difference to the other two satisfaction scores, it is not associated with their satisfaction with the resources.

Table 59. *Model 12: Linear model of predictors (work conditions and experiences) of the change in satisfaction with resources (95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, N = 211)*

Predictor variables	*b* (CI low and high)	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*ρ*
Constant	6.165 (5.204, 7.126)	0.487		12.647	.000
Years of experience	-0.039 (-0.190, 0.113)	0.077	-.041	-0.502	.616
Income	-0.037 (-0.202, 0.128)	0.084	-.035	-0.443	.658
Number of schools to teach/week	-0.116 (-0.305, 0.073)	0.096	-.116	-1.209	.228
Teaching at multiple levels of schools	0.220 (-0.279, 0.719)	0.253	.081	0.869	.386
Based at a school or not	-0.096 (-0.559, 0.366)	0.235	-.031	-0.410	.682
Teaching in large class (>30)	-0.103 (-0.489, 0.282)	0.196	-.039	-0.528	.598
Role (planned lessons by myself)	-0.038 (-0.515, 0.439)	0.242	-.012	-0.157	.876
Role (a main teacher)	-0.259 (-0.704, 0.185)	0.226	-.090	-1.150	.252
Role (a human tape recorder)	-0.553 (-0.977, -0.129)	0.215	-.189	-2.572	.011*
Present work status	0.132 (-0.255, 0.519)	0.196	.049	0.672	.502
JET or Non-JET	0.198 (-0.370, 0.767)	0.288	.059	0.688	.492

$R = 0.245$, $R^2 = 0.060$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.008$, $F (11, 199) = 1.158$, $\rho = 0.319$.

The role as a human tape recorder, however, is again found to be significantly influential in this model ($b = -0.553$, $SE\ B = 0.215$, $\beta = -0.189$, $t = -2.572$, $p = 0.011$). With the negative b value and the medium effect size (Cohen's $d = -0.355$), the result here suggests that participants who had taken the role as a human tape recorder are significantly less satisfied with their resources. Based on the statistics presented in the above three models, this PV appears to be the most influential single variable of all the three aspects of the satisfaction that were examined in the present study.

Interview data

Years of experience as ALTs. The regression analysis above indicated that the years of experience working as an ALT made only a small difference to satisfaction with team-teaching, and also with students' progress. Although the effect size was not particularly large (Cohen's $d = 0.281$, $d = 0.348$, respectively), further analysis was conducted to gain more insights into the regression results that were consistent across the two different models.

As discussed earlier where a small positive effect of ALT length of residency in Japan was discussed in Chapter 6, the regression does not demonstrate any causal relationship between the variables (e.g., Didelez, 2007; Steinberg, 2008). Given the relatively high correlation between worker job satisfaction and their intention to leave the job (e.g., MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010), the results could suggest that the happier ALTs were continuing in their position longer, whereas those who were less satisfied with their work tended to leave the position earlier.

Nonetheless, another plausible explanation may be argued. Years of experience may have provided ALTs with more opportunities to learn new skills or knowledge, which may have helped them to perceive their team-teaching work – and their students' progress – in a different manner to those who had less experience as an

ALT. The literature in the wider context suggests that teachers with different years of experience reportedly develop different levels of expertise, which helps them perceive the same experiences differently during their career (Huberman, 1993; Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2012). If ALTs were acquiring some new skills or knowledge that could help them to perceive their experiences as an ALT differently, that could result in the smaller gap between their possessed skills and the required skills in their workplace, and thus better satisfaction.

So what could they be learning as an ALT in Japan, which could help them to perceive their experiences differently? Further analysis of the interview identified a number of the contextual factors as plausible explanations, which may be unique to this particular group of the English teachers in Japan. These were ALT understandings of local teachers' expectations of ALT roles in team-teaching, Japanese language, local school culture, and local students.

Local teachers' expectations of ALT roles. One particular set of skills and knowledge that many ALTs seem to have learned is associated with the expectations of their roles as an ALT during team-teaching. The ambiguous and often context-dependent nature of ALT roles in team-teaching have been reported in the literature (CLAIR, 2013a; Mahoney, 2004). Accordingly, a wide range of ALTs roles is also observed in the study (see Chapter 4). Further, the findings in the previous two chapters suggests that ALT roles were largely dependent upon local teachers' approach both to language teaching, and also to working with the foreign partner in team-teaching. These results all suggest that ALTs had to learn their roles with individual local teachers as part of their job. Here is how some ALTs described how they learned their expected roles from each individual local teachers:

There is no manual or something to explain exactly what your purpose is as

an ALT and what is expected of you and your teaching and so on . . . I think

it takes a long time to figure that out with each individual teacher (ALT1)

You've probably heard the slogan for JET, which is "every situation is

different", and there's really no way around it, it's 100% true. Every situation

is different and even just for me, I go to eight different schools and even at

every school it's a different situation. So the first four months of my job is

really just adapting and learning what exactly I was expected to do. (ALT6)

Both accounts illustrate the time-consuming process in which ALTs had to

negotiate their specific roles, not only at individual schools, but also with each

individual Japanese teacher with whom they were engaged in team-teaching at each

school. Japanese teachers were known to have not only limited English (MEXT,

2014, also see Chapter 4), but also very little time to discuss their team-teaching with

ALTs (e.g., CLAIR, 2013a; Crump, 2008; McConnell, 2000). Furthermore, some

Japanese teachers who worked with them had little idea of what they could do with

the ALTs (e.g., McConnell, 2000; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012; Tajino & Tajino, 2000).

Under these circumstances, negotiation or interpretation of their role with each

individual teacher at each school where they were teaching could be a very

challenging task for many ALTs.

ALTs who had longer experience may have been more exposed to these kinds

of negotiation process, during which they may have developed skills to identify their

roles in team-teaching, either by negotiating specific roles with individual local

teachers, or simply by observing the local teachers' approach during team-teaching

and somehow interpreting their roles on a case-by-case basis. Given that careful and

clear negotiation and understanding of each other's roles is one of the essential

preparations for successful team-teaching (Richards & Farrell, 2005), such a skill on the part of ALTs may have helped them perceive their team-teaching work in a somewhat positive manner.

Understanding of local language, school culture, and local students. Another potential contextual factor could be ALTs' developing understanding of the Japanese language, which could have helped them to better understand local school culture and practice. Further, a better understanding of local language and school culture may have enhanced ALT understanding of how local students tend to behave in class. Those who lived and worked longer in Japan may have developed these understandings better than those who had less experience. As discussed in Chapter 6, such development may have enhanced their perceptions of the professional lives, particularly through more efficient communication with students and local teachers, and also through more active engagement in the local school community.

While the discussion in Chapter 6 primarily focuses on the various effects of existing ability in Japanese language upon ALT work, the following accounts by two ALTs (ALT10 and ALT7) specifically describe the change in their perceptions the longer they remained in their positions. ALT10 studied Japanese as part of his degree in international business relations in his home country, and continued his study while he was given considerable free time with no specific work to do in Japan. Here he describes the change he experienced:

> [Having too much free time at work] was very challenging for the first six months when my Japanese wasn't very good. Once that started to improve, it made it a little bit more tolerable. I specifically remember a day going to a meeting with the principal of the school, and all of a sudden being able to understand not what he was saying but pick the difference between words . .

. where the words started and stopped. From that day on you could actually

start researching what they were talking about. (ALT10)

While he was sharing his negative attitudes towards his work time where he was given little to do (see next section), he also described how his perceptions changed as his Japanese developed further. His better Japanese seemingly helped him eventually not only to understand the local conversations at school, but also to perceive the experience of having too much free time at work in a slightly more positive manner.

As seen in Chapter 6, ability in the Japanese language appear to help many ALTs to establish more efficient communication with both the students and the local teachers, which often resulted in better understanding of local school practice. On the premise that some other ALTs may also have developed their proficiency in Japanese as they lived and worked longer in Japan, such development in their skills and knowledge may have resulted in better understanding of the local school practice.

Another ALT (ALT7) did not have any learning experience in Japanese prior to his participation in the JET program. He also described the change he experienced as he moved into his second year as an ALT in Japan:

I think the first year was very hard in a lot of ways. There was the culture shock. It's very intense and exciting at the beginning but it's also very tiring and really very stressful, you feel very alienated. Around the time I had to renew my contract, I started to enjoy myself again and it just seemed like I was getting over a hump. And then to leave so suddenly when I was just starting to understand what was going on and to get comfortable, that would be a waste of an experience almost and I needed to do a second year to fully appreciate the experience. The second year was really my best year as a JET

where I think I was getting a lot of satisfaction from getting more autonomy, understanding what was going on . . . it was really a very fun year and I wasn't bored with the job I had either. (ALT7)

Although he did not explicitly relate his developing Japanese to the change of his perception of work in the above quote, he indicated earlier his appreciation of his developing Japanese as he continued his work in Japan, which helped him develop a better relationship with local teachers and students. Together with this particular quote, he described how his Japanese developed as he spent more time in Japan, which helped him to understand how he should work with local teachers and students. Such an understanding seems to have resulted in positive perceptions of his job.

In the previous chapter, one ALT (ALT17), who had a teaching qualification and many years of teaching experience, commented how her existing knowledge of teachers' working lives at school helped her to appreciate the contextual needs of teachers and students at Japanese schools. Just to recap, here is how she described the experience:

> [Qualification and teaching experience] helped me to understand the pressures on class teachers and to appreciate that, while English language teaching is important to me, it needs to fit within the constraints of an already very busy school day. I have seen many ALTs become bitterly disappointed when their creative ideas have not been adopted and implemented instantly. I think I am better able to see the "bigger picture", and to appreciate the difficult situation in which many teachers find themselves. [ALT17 with a Bachelor of Education (Special Education)]

In a similar manner, some ALTs may have developed a better understanding of local practice through their experience as ALTs. Such experience and understanding may have helped them to begin to appreciate the specific needs of local students, such as preparation for entrance examinations (Sakui, 2004), and thus adjusted their evaluation of the more exam-focused team-teaching and the resulting students' progress in a different manner. Similarly, the gradual acquisition of Japanese language, and perhaps a deeper understanding of the local community and culture, may also explain the small but significant positive effect of longer residence in Japan upon ALT perception of students' progress, as seen in Chapter 6.

Human tape recorder. The three regression models in this chapter all demonstrate the strong influence of the ALT role as the human tape recorder upon all three types of their job satisfaction. As mentioned before, this particular variable was the most influential single factor upon the ALTs' satisfaction scores in the study. The result was perhaps not surprising, as the negative perceptions of this role have been reported among many ALTs in previous studies (Falout, 2013; McConnell, 2000; Miyazato, 2012; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012; Tajino & Walker, 1998).

Nonetheless, the result requires some attention, because one would assume that any language teacher would be expected to provide students with a model for pronunciation and intonation in the target language. Naturally, this need should be stronger if teachers have "native speaker" backgrounds as defined by local perceptions of the term in a given context. In other words, being a human tape recorder can be seen as an inevitable part of the role expected for any language teacher, including so-called native speaker ALTs in Japan.

Accordingly, the *ALT Handbook* (CLAIR, 2013a, p. 66) specifically states that the human tape recorder is one of the roles that many ALTs are expected to perform in Japan. If participants in the JET program actually read the handbook prior to their placement at school, their role as a human tape recorder should not be a surprise. So why are ALTs in the present study, and those of previous studies, dissatisfied with the role?

In order to gain a better insight into this issue, the interview data were analysed further. While many ALTs shared their frustrations at this particular role during the interview, at least two potential causes were identified: ALTs' own expectation of their roles based on their previous experience in teaching, and the lack of other forms of ALT participation in class.

ALT expectations of their role based on previous experience in teaching. The first factor that appeared to have made some ALTs perceive their human tape recorder role negatively was the gap between the role of tape recorder in reality and the role ALTs had expected to perform, based on previous experience in teaching. For example, three ALTs (ALT1, ALT6, and ALT9) had some kind of previous experience in teaching. ALT1 was working as an ALT at a senior high school with an intensive English program before he came to his current junior high school. ALT6 completed two educational internships as part of his Bachelor of Political Science. During the internships, he was assigned to teach astrophysics at two different schools (one public and a private school), and conducted some comparative analysis based on his teaching experience at these schools. The last ALT (ALT9) had a Bachelor of Science in English as a Second Language Education before coming to Japan as an ALT. Here is what they had to say about their role as a human tape recorder:

When I worked at senior high, they had an intensive English program, so we did lots of small classes like 10 students with an ALT and a JTE [Japanese Teachers of English], and lots of conversation, and those students practiced talking a lot, and you could see they improved a lot. Going from that to just like an average junior high school was a bit of a shock. The JTE uses lots of Japanese in the classroom to explain the grammar and the basics, and I am a lot of the time, I am just repeating what is in the textbook, so the kids listen to my native English, so, that was challenging in that way definitely. (ALT1)

In the high school I was literally teaching the class. I was leading it, planning lessons . . . the teacher was in the room but I was running the show. So to go from that to my firs- month experiences in my town where I would just stand there and maybe say some words every now and then . . . it was not my expectation. I was kind of expecting to be doing more. And I'd always heard . . . "oh, sometimes they want you to be a tape recorder" and I guess I didn't really believe that was true . . . and then it turned out to be true. (ALT6)

My least satisfying was the classroom experience because of my personal training . . . because I am licensed in ESL education and went to Japan with the intention of being a teacher . . . going into a classroom and playing the role that a CD player could do, was most unsatisfying I would say. (ALT9)

All of these accounts demonstrate how these ALTs evaluated their role as a tape recorder negatively, by comparing that role with the roles in their prior experience in teaching. As noted a number of times throughout this thesis, Locke's (1976) Range of Affect theory suggests the relative comparison between worker expectation and reality of their work determines job satisfaction, and any gaps result in dissatisfaction. ALTs with some prior teaching experience, whether it was from

their teacher education or previous experience as an ALT, may have raised their expectations of their classroom roles. Such raised expectations may indeed have created a larger gap with reality when they had to act as a human tape recorder, resulting in the negative perceptions of their team-teaching, particularly towards their sense of autonomy in teaching, and overall roles in the classroom.

The lack of other forms of participation. The second factor that may have affected negative perception of ALT work as a human tape recorder was the lack of other forms of engagement in class or in team-teaching. Many ALTs commented that the tape recorder role was given to them when some local teachers either did not know what to do with ALTs, or were not very interested in working with their "native speaker" partners in team-teaching. In such circumstances, acting as a human tape recorder appeared to be the *only* task that they were assigned, and this may have been the cause of the ALTs' negative responses to the role. The following comments illustrate how ALTs are often "set aside" by local teachers for the most part of the team-teaching lesson, with some occasional participation as a tape recorder:

> When there is no time for lesson planning I am put in classrooms at junior high school and just do the "human tape recorder" thing in 70% of classes. This makes me feel useless. (ALT31)

> Sometimes the teachers would treat the ALT as a spare piece of equipment, like a CD player or sometimes I was just ignored completely. This was rare, but there were some teachers who hated having an ALT in their lessons. (ALT32)

A few teachers made good use of me and had me actually teaching or working as an integral part of the class. However, more often than not I was the human tape recorder. (ALT34)

There's been times . . . with a few teachers where I maybe was asked to provide a model reading and the students repeat after me and that's it . . . like a human tape recorder . . . I think there are some Japanese teachers who don't really know how to work with an ALT. They . . . or . . . well it could be a bit of both actually. (ALT5)

I had a really good relationship with one of those teachers and I had a reasonable relationship with another of those teachers. But the third teacher was simply not interested in having a foreigner in his class . . . whether he was worried about his own English or simply couldn't be bothered. In some cases it was simply reading so that the students heard a natural version of what they were hearing from their Japanese language teachers. (ALT10)

These quotes, along with many others, indicate ALTs' frustration against not only their role as a human tape recorder, but also the lack of other forms of engagement in class. In other words, ALTs were reporting their frustration when they did nothing other than the tape recorder role. The latter seems to be associated strongly with the ALTs' negative response to the role, rather than the intrinsic characteristic of the role itself.

Not surprisingly, such a lack of full engagement in class may have contributed to perceptions of the underutilisation of their skills and knowledge as a perceived native speaker resource, who were brought from overseas to enhance the communicative proficiency of Japanese students. A comment by one ALT (ALT6),

who was just standing in front of class for the entire lesson while students were doing some activities with TV illustrated this negative perception effectively: "I crossed an ocean to bring you English and you have no way of utilising me? Really?"

As reported elsewhere, worker perceptions of underutilisation of skills negatively affects their job satisfaction (Allen & van der Velden, 2001; Green & McIntosh, 2002). The underutilisation of ALT skills through a lack of full engagement may have influenced their satisfaction with team-teaching, in particular satisfaction with their overall roles (or the lack of roles), the (lack of) autonomy in teaching, and the relationship with local teachers.

Their perceived underutilisation may also have affected their satisfaction with students' progress. It may be argued that ALTs felt that their presence in class did not help the Japanese students, and their participation purely as a tape recorder did not help them to appreciate what they could accomplish with their students in class.

The negative association between their tape recorder role and their satisfaction with resources could be that they had very little chance to engage with other human and non-human resources. While they were acting as a tape recorder during team-teaching, they were one of the resources or "a spare piece of equipment" (ALT32) themselves, and thus were not treated as someone who could utilise resources.

It is worth noting here that these quotes also suggest that ALTs were assigned to the tape recorder role, not commonly by all local teachers, but only by teachers who did not know, or want to know, what to do with them. As illustrated by comments by ALT34 and ALT10, they seem to have enjoyed working with other local teachers who were willing or prepared to engage with ALTs in more active manners. These accounts seem to corroborate previous studies which reported that

the role of human tape recorder is often given to ALTs when the Japanese teachers who worked with them did not know what else to do with them (e.g., McConnell, 2000; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012; Tajino & Tajino, 2000).

While some suggested that local teachers may now have a better understanding of different ways of working with ALTs (e.g., Rutson-Griffiths, 2012), the findings presented here appear to indicate that the situation may not have changed significantly. This finding seems to lend support to two suggestions made in the previous chapter: first, that ALTs should be assigned to individual local teachers, and second, local teachers who are not ready to work with ALTs should be trained to work with ALTs more effectively, or excluded from working with ALTs.

Exactly why some local teachers are not interested in working with ALTs remains beyond the scope of the study. One ALT (ALT1) speculated that local teachers "don't know what to do with an ALT . . . ALTs are kind of forced on teachers to an extent", suggesting that the lack of guidance for local teachers may have been a cause of the lack of understanding. Some others identified local teachers' experience with past ALTs as a potential negative cause, as shown in one of the comments: "[W]hen they had a bad experience with an ALT and they don't feel like they can trust us to do our job well" (ALT6). Future study may shed more light on local teachers' perceptions of team-teaching with ALTs to provide a fuller picture of the relationship between the nature of tasks assigned to ALTs, and local teachers' perceptions of working with ALTs.

Discussion and Implications

Overall, the results of the three regression analyses indicate that ALT work conditions by and large do not have a significant influence on satisfaction scores. This is an interesting result, because worker job characteristics in general were

expected to determine their job satisfaction (Jex, 2002). In the specific context of

TESOL in Japan, for example, ALTs in the JET program have argued for the

importance of having a base school, which could make them feel less isolated in the

Japanese school community (Allison & Nash, 2009; McConnell, 2000). The results

of the regression analysis, however, showed little effect of a base school upon any

part of their job satisfaction.

Another interesting outcome was the insignificant effect of salary. Many

economics studies report that worker salary has a significant impact upon their job

satisfaction, especially if workers are underpaid (Field, 2008). The data here

indicates that ALT pay had very little impact upon job satisfaction, suggesting the

majority of the teachers do not perceive they are being underpaid when considering

their team-teaching job, their students' progress, or the human and non-human

resources available to them. As discussed in Chapter 5, the relatively young age of

the participants, who also had little professional experience, and the temporary

intention of the majority of the ALTs to remain in their positions, may have affected

the result.

ALT years of experience. Nevertheless, two specific aspects of their work

experience were significant. First, the two regression models indicated minor, but

significant, influences of an ALT's years of experience on satisfaction with team-

teaching (Table 57) and satisfaction with students' progress (Table 58). The analysis

of the interview data identified, firstly, that this particular group of the ESOL

teachers may have developed some new skills and knowledge in negotiating and

interpreting their roles by understanding the local teachers' explicit or implicit

expectations of ALTs during team-teaching. They may also have developed their

Japanese language expertise – and as a result better understood local school practice

and local students' needs – as they gained longer experience both in working in Japanese schools, and living in Japan. Both the new skills and knowledge may have helped these teachers to adjust their expectations of their roles in the given context of TESOL, and thus perceived their experience in a slightly positive manner. Accordingly, these could be the areas of expertise that future ALTs may be expected to possess in order to facilitate positive job experiences in Japan.

It should be noted here that the association between ALT years of experience and satisfaction, and the explanations presented here, may be context-dependent, particularly the context of team-teaching between the perceived native speaker assistant teachers and the locally-certified (so-called) non-native speaker teachers. Studies that examine the relationship between teachers' years of experience and their job satisfaction in other contexts yield some inconsistent results, depending on the context in which they work (e.g., Klassen & Anderson, 2009; Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Ma & MacMillan, 1999; Markow & Cooper, 2008).

However, team-teaching between native and non-native English speakers appears to be increasing in other contexts of TESOL (e.g., Pardy, 2004; Wu & Ke, 2009). Also, local teacher perceptions of the subordinate status of foreign teachers may have emerged from the foreign teachers' lack of local certification (Senior, 2006) regardless of their job titles, which may or may not include the term "assistant". Therefore, the results observed here may also be generalisable to wider contexts of TESOL. In those contexts, as so-called native speaker teachers gain more experience, they may develop their understanding of the expected roles, the local language, and local educational norm and needs. Such developments could enhance the subjective quality of these teachers' professional lives while being engaged in the team-teaching on a regular basis.

Possible implications for practices of hiring future ALTs are that Japan may need to reconsider the short-term hiring practices for ALTs. In other words, the JET program may need to review its policy that currently limits the number of renewals of each one-year contract, particularly when mutual agreement between ALTs and the employing organisation can be achieved (CLAIR, 2015b). The dissatisfaction with the lack of long-term prospects in the job has been widely reported among ALTs in the present study (see Chapter 5), and also by others in previous studies (e.g., Okunuki & Carlet, 2012). As more foreign teachers seek to settle down in Japan on a permanent basis, the lack of permanency in their job seems to be a concern that is commonly shared among other non-Japanese teachers in the wider contexts of TESOL in Japan (Geluso, 2013). If, through their years of experience, foreign English teachers can accumulate skills and knowledge that help them to perceive their professional experiences at Japanese schools in a positive manner, then Japan should strive to maintain the current pool of such teachers instead of continuing to hire the new group on a yearly basis.

As discussed elsewhere, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Japan, as a co-organiser of the JET program, aims to enhance the "foreign understanding of Japan, particularly among young people who were likely to rise to positions of power in their respective countries . . . (and) create pro-Japan fashion . . . in participating countries" (McConnell, 2000, p. 38). If such a political agenda expects young ALTs to return to their home country after one or two years of experience in Japan (see Chapter 4), and thus hinders retaining experienced ALTs in the JET program , then it may be best if the political agenda is achieved in different programs.

ALT roles as a human tape recorder. Both the regression results and the interview findings identify a significantly negative response by ALTs to their experience when acting as a human tape recorder in class. While such a role may be expected of any language teacher, the interviews reveals that many ALTs may have raised expectations of their roles through their previous experience in teaching. Also, the lack of variety in their roles during team-teaching may have particularly affected their negative perceptions of the role.

The findings seem to agree with the wider literature in economics studies, which generally suggest that worker job satisfaction is significantly affected by job characteristics, including skill variety or autonomy (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Smith et al, 1969). In each of these facets of the work, workers compare the variety of the skills they expect to use in their job with the skills they actually used (Jex, 2002; Locke, 1969). Any gap in this comparison could lead to perceptions of underutilisation of their possessed skills, which could negatively affect job satisfaction (Allen & van der Velden, 2001; Green & McIntosh, 2002).

ALTs with prior experience in teaching may also expect to utilise a wider variety of their possessed skills in relatively more job-related tasks than occasionally reading out what is in the textbook for the students to repeat afterwards. Such ALTs may also hope to have more autonomy in deciding what and how to teach their lessons independently, as also seen in the interview data, that shows the negative effects of ALT teacher education backgrounds upon their autonomy (Chapter 7). When these expectations are not met, these ALTs may experience an underutilisation of their possessed skills, and thus perceive the role in a strongly negative manner.

Similarly, many ALTs, regardless of their prior experience in teaching, may suffer from the lack of variety in what they are tasked to do during the team-

teaching. The interview analysis suggests that this could occur when their team-teaching partner teachers are not ready or willing to engage them in a more active manner.

The implications of these findings for future English language education in Japan seem to be obvious. While ALTs can still be expected to act as a human tape recorder, the role should not be the only task to which they are assigned during team-teaching lessons. When ALTs are expected exclusively to act as a human tape recorder, then their role could indeed be replaced by an ordinary CD player. No ALTs should be placed in contexts where the development of the students' communicative proficiency cannot be fully appreciated, for example, due to the fierce pressure of preparing students towards the more-knowledge-based entrance examinations. It would be much more economical to have a CD player in such contexts, and much less stressful for the foreign teachers, as well as for local teachers who somehow have to work with them.

The same applies to individual local teachers. As discussed in the previous chapter, no ALTs should be required to work with local teachers who are not interested in working with ALTs. Local teachers who are willing to have an ALT in their class, but yet are not fully aware of how they can take best advantage of the "native speaker" resource in their class, should be provided with specific training for the skills and knowledge necessary for effective and efficient team-teaching with ALTs. Indeed, if Japan continues to rely on a system of team-teaching between the "native English speakers" and local teachers in future English language education, then local teacher education should include team-teaching as a core element of their curriculum.

Summary

This chapter reported results of regression analyses and the interview analysis, which examine the potential associations between ALT work conditions in Japan and their satisfaction with team-teaching, student progress, and resources. While ALT work conditions, by and large, did not influence satisfaction scores, their years of experience, and the role of human tape recorder, appear to have made a significant difference to their satisfaction.

The interviews were analysed for clarification of results of the regression analysis. The findings suggest that, with longer experience as an ALT, some may have developed their understanding of the specific roles expected of them, while negotiating their roles with each individual local teacher with whom they conduct team-teaching. Others may have developed their understanding of the local language and the educational needs, which may also have helped them to appreciate the local practice in a positive manner.

All the regression models identified ALTs' experience in acting as a human tape recorder as the most influential single negative factor influencing their satisfaction scores. The interviews identified two potential explanations for why the ALTs did not particularly appreciate the role, which many other language teachers would reasonably be expected to perform in class. The analysis reveal that prior experience in teaching may raise ALT expectations of their roles, which then creates a larger gap with the actual role they had to perform as tape recorder. Moreover, many ALTs who shared negative perceptions of the role indicate the role was given to them when local teachers had few ideas or little enthusiasm for incorporating ALTs to a fuller extent into their classrooms. Both factors were seemingly associated with ALT perceptions of underutilisation of their existing skills, which many

economics studies report as a negative factor against the worker job satisfaction (e.g., Allen & van der Velden, 2001).

Several implications of the findings were discussed in relation to the practice of hiring perceived native speaker teachers in future, and the nature of the tasks assigned to ALTs during team-teaching. Longer-term employment, if not permanent employment, has been suggested so that ALTs with longer experience could continue working at Japanese schools with their better understanding of local educational needs. Also, it has been suggested that ALTs may better placed according to the needs and beliefs of individual local teachers, instead of the school-based placement in the current model.

Chapter 9: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the effect, if any, of the completion of teacher training in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) upon the professional lives of a group of ESOL teachers in Japan, The investigation focused on Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) in Japan, some of whom had prior teacher education and others who did not. The study examined the potential effect of TESOL teacher training through the lens of ALTs' perceived job satisfaction.

To achieve this purpose, a three-stage investigation was undertaken. First, the study broadly explored participants' demographic, linguistic, and educational backgrounds, together with their work conditions and experiences whilst working as ALTs in Japan (Research Question 1). During this first stage, variations within academic qualifications, which provided ALTs with any skills and knowledge for TESOL, were identified and clarified. This analysis helped the study to operationalise a definition of the *TESOL qualifications* for the remaining analysis.

In the second stage, the study examined ALT satisfaction with a range of aspects of their work, and then identified three underlying factors among the measured job attitudes of the participating teachers (Research Question 2). The third stage explored the relationship between ALT backgrounds and job characteristics and job satisfaction (Research Question 3). This final stage also identified potential effects of the variations found within TESOL certifications upon ALT job satisfaction (Research Question 4).

This chapter concludes by summarising the findings of the study for each research question, followed by discussion of implications. First, the theoretical implications are discussed through the existing economics and organisational research theories of job satisfaction (e.g., Green & McIntosh, 2007; Green & Zhu, 2010; Locke, 1976). Also, the implications for definitions of the term *TESOL qualifications* will be discussed. Second, pedagogical implications are discussed to highlight recommendations for future TESOL teacher education. Finally, administrative implications are discussed with recommendations for the future practices of hiring and placement of ALTs in Japan. Some areas for future investigation have also been identified where relevant.

Summary of the Findings for Each Research Question

Research Question 1: What variations exist in background, education, training, and experience amongst Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) in Japan? The descriptive analyses of the questionnaire data presented in the four sections in Chapter 4 provide an answer to this research question. The first section confirmed that the majority of participating ALTs were American ($n = 111$, 48%), Caucasian ($n = 189$, 82%) teachers. This finding was consistent with predictions, as the strong preference for teachers with these demographic backgrounds has been reported in the wider contexts of TESOL in Japan (e.g., Honna, 2008; Kubota, 1998). The gender distribution, however, was more balanced in this study, in contrast to a larger number of males reported in other contexts of TESOL (Hicks, 2013; Kobayashi, 2014; Rivers, 2013). A lack of commercial motivation to attract female English-language learners in the public school sector was considered as an influential factor behind the earlier result.

This part of the analysis also presented initial analysis of demographic differences between ALTs in the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme (JET program) and those who were working independently of the JET program (non-JET ALTs). Overall, JET ALTs were younger teachers who had lived in Japan only for one or two years, and thus had relatively fewer years of experience as ALTs. By contrast, non-JET teachers were typically older, and had lived in Japan for some extended period of time, and had worked longer as ALTs in Japan.

The second section explored ALT linguistic backgrounds and language learning experience. While the vast majority of participants identified themselves as a "native English speaker" ($n = 229$, 99%), many of them indicated they spoke a language or languages other than English ($n = 20$, 86%), revealing rich linguistic backgrounds of this group of the ESOL teachers. Also, the majority of them ($n = 208$, 90%) had some level of Japanese language experience. Many of the ALTs who had studied Japanese before had studied it for longer than four years ($n = 116$, 50%), and their self-assessment of their proficiency indicated the majority was at or above intermediate level ($n = 172$, 74%).

The third section focused on the academic qualifications that the 232 participants had attained. While the majority of participants nominated their bachelor's degree as their highest attained qualification ($n = 155$, 67%), others held postgraduate level qualifications, particularly former JET ALTs ($n = 44$, 54% of 82 former JET ALTs) and the current non-JET ALTs ($n = 9$, 29% of 31 current non-JET ALTs).

Although the JET program does not require applicants to have completed a degree in any specific field of study, the findings in this section suggested that the majority of participating teachers studied in either humanities and arts, social

sciences, business and law, education, or science. However, the completion of teacher education programs, whether in TESOL or other areas, was not necessarily emphasised among the participants, as also reported in previous studies (e.g., Benoit, 2003, as cited in Butler, 2007; McConnell, 2000).

The third section also clarified the types of the qualifications which helped participants to develop skills or knowledge for TESOL. The study defined these qualifications as "TESOL-related qualifications". The study found an extreme diversity in these types of qualifications, including across titles, academic levels, study fields and accreditation status for local teaching in their home country, provider type, required length of study, requirement for previous foreign language learning, the number of units/courses completed, and the contents or topics covered in those units/courses towards the qualifications. It was appeared that virtually no single program was identical to any other.

The final part of Chapter 4 investigated the characteristics of the job in which ALTs were engaged. While teacher salaries were unexpectedly diverse, the majority of ALTs taught at multiple schools and/or at multiple levels of schools. A limited number of teachers taught at a single school, or schools at a single level. It also confirmed that class sizes at their schools tended to be very large, and some ALTs still did not have a base school ($n = 58$, 25%), where they could develop their "sense of belonging" (Allison & Nash, 2009, p. 4). Finally, the roles of ALTs were examined at each level of school. While their overall roles were associated with activities in teaching communicative English, those at kindergartens seemed to have more opportunities to plan and teach independently, whereas those at the junior high schools were more likely to have undertaken support roles for local teachers, including the role of human tape recorder.

Research Question 2: How satisfied are ALTs with their job in Japan?

This study modified the existing teacher job satisfaction scale of McKenzie et al. (2011), and measured participant attitudes towards 21 different facets of their work as ALTs in Japan. As predicted from the literature on teacher job satisfaction (Mullock, 2009; Pennington, 1991; Pennington & Riley, 1991; Senior, 2006), teachers in the study were generally satisfied with the intrinsic and altruistic aspects of their job, such as the amount of teaching (M = 4.52), skills and knowledge to do their job as ALTs (M = 5.02), their overall roles (M = 4.38), the level of response from students (M = 4.5), student behaviour (M = 4.83), and the students' improvement in English (M = 4.14). Interestingly, although the participants were engaged in the regular team-teaching with local teachers as their assistant, ALTs were relatively satisfied with their work relationship with team-teaching local teachers (M = 4.92), and also with their freedom to decide how to do their job (M = 4.43).

By contrast, these teachers were relatively less satisfied with the extrinsic aspects of their job such as the opportunity for professional learning (M = 3.31), feedback on their performance (M = 3.28), and the value society places on them (M = 3.64). While these results corroborated the general findings in the literature (e.g., Mullock, 2009), participants' satisfaction with opportunities for career advancement was particularly low (M = 2.44). Further analysis confirmed their satisfaction with this facet of their work was low both among JET ALTs (M = 2.49) and non-JET ALTs (M = 2.24). As some have argued (e.g., Houghton, 2013; Imura, 2003; Okunuki & Carlet, 2012), Japan has been appointing foreign teachers (or foreign workers in general) only on a temporary basis since the 1860s, which lead to

these teachers' lack of belief in their prospects in future career path in Japan, regardless of their employment type (i.e., JET or non-JET).

Interestingly, despite their lower satisfaction with career advancement prospects, most participants were highly satisfied with their salary (M = 5.44). This finding was unique when compared to the literature on the teachers' job satisfaction in TESOL and non-TESOL contexts (e.g., Karavas, 2010; Mullock, 2009). A number of factors were considered as possible explanations for this result. By and large, the participants were relatively young recent graduates with little experience in full-time employment, who may have come to Japan to work on a temporary basis. By contrast, these characteristics may not have been applicable to non-JET ALTs, who were significantly less satisfied with their salary.

After observing the above tendency in participants' perceptions of their job, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to identify underlying cluster(s) of job attitudes among what was measured by the adopted scale. This two-stage modelling process identified three factors: participant satisfaction with team-teaching, satisfaction with students' progress, and satisfaction with resources. The regression weights for each reflective variable in these factors were calculated to identify a single score for each factor per participant. These scores were defined as their job satisfaction scores, and then used as the outcome variables in the multiple regression analyses, which answered statistically the next two research questions.

Research Question 3: To what extent do ALT backgrounds and job characteristics appear to influence perceived job satisfaction in Japan? Through the analyses of the questionnaire and interview data, the study found that the majority of teachers' individual characteristics, and their job characteristics and

experiences, had very little influence over their job satisfaction. The lack of influence of their demographic backgrounds (race, nationality, and gender) was unexpected, given that the literature suggests Japan has different levels of acceptance of the "ideal" foreign teachers of English to speakers of other languages (ESOL) based on their demographic characteristics (e.g., Honna, 2008; Kubota, 1998). The government's strategic recruitment and placement processes have been discussed as a potential explanation for the lack of significant results. To test the actual impact of teacher demographics upon their professional lives in Japan, future studies may focus on candidates who were unable to secure a position as an ESOL teacher in Japan.

By and large, teacher educational background also did not appear to make any difference to their professional lives. While the JET program traditionally requires applicants to complete a bachelor level qualification in any field, the attainment of that qualification in a specific field of study (e.g., education, humanities) or completion of a postgraduate qualification did not appear to influence their job satisfaction. Based on the skill-match theory of economics studies (e.g., Allen & van der Velden, 2001; Green & McIntosh, 2002), these additional or specific educational attainments did not appear to have provided this particular group of the ESOL teachers with the additional skills and knowledge that matched with skills required to do their job (however, see below for the effect of the TESOL teacher education).

Similarly, teacher job characteristics had very little influence over job satisfaction. While salaries made a significant difference to satisfaction by itself (see the comparison between the JET and non-JET ALTs in Chapter 5), variations in salary were not influential over satisfaction with team-teaching, satisfaction with student progress, or satisfaction with resources. Further, the number and levels of schools, together with the existence of a base school, were also not significant.

Teacher employment types (i.e., JET or non-JET) did not make a significant difference to the measured job satisfaction when controlling for other job characteristics, including salary.

Nonetheless, the study found a number of significant influences. Analysis of interviews revealed how influential ALTs felt their proficiency in the local language was to their work. Their ability to understand and communicate in Japanese seemed to affect their relationship both with local teachers and students, and both in a positive and negative manner.

 A language teacher's ability to help learners solve linguistic issues in their first language has been reported as an advantage for the "non-native" group of teachers (e.g., Cook, 2005; Medgyes, 1992). However, this study confirmed that ESOL teachers in the study who were likely to be labelled as "native English speakers" had also demonstrated a similar ability when they had a certain level of Japanese proficiency. Further, their ability in Japanese also helped them to establish rapport with local teachers, and also to understand local school practices. Both facets seemed to have helped ALTs to develop a sense of belonging at their school and, to some extent, promoted autonomy in team-teaching.

By contrast, their ability in Japanese appears to have a slightly negative effect on their relationship with students, local teachers, and their teaching autonomy. For example, the use of the Japanese could demotivate students from using English when communicating with the teacher. This particular group of the teachers had been hired from overseas specifically to provide Japanese students with more opportunities to engage in the communicative use of the English language (CLAIR, 2015a). Given this primary purpose of their employment, some local teachers may not have been

supportive of the use of the learners' first language, which could affect foreign teacher autonomy if they used the learners' first language, whatever the purpose.

Unfortunately, the regression analysis was unable to identify a specific level of proficiency in Japanese that could affect their professional lives. This issue could be an area for future enquiry, since "native speaker" teachers may have a unique set of advantages and challenges associated with the use of their learners' first language in teaching. This issue may have implications for future teacher education in TESOL, and also for recruitment practice of future ALTs in Japan (see further discussion below under *Implications for TESOL teacher education*, and *Implications* for future hiring practice of ALTs in Japan).

Perhaps not independently of the effect of proficiency in the local language, a teacher's length of residency in Japan, and years of work experience as an ALT in Japan, both had a small but positive influence over teacher satisfaction with team-teaching, and also with student progress. The longer teachers lived and worked in Japan, the more satisfied they were with these aspects of their job. The analysis of the interview data revealed that participants may have developed skills and knowledge about local teachers' specific expectations of their roles in team-teaching. Such learning may have helped them to adjust their own expectations of what they need to do in team-teaching, as well in expectations of student progress in learning English. Also, as revealed through interview analysis in Chapter 8, longer experience may have given these teachers more knowledge in the local language, local school practice, and local education culture, which may have helped them to appreciate the needs of local teachers and students in the specific school context in Japan. Such experience may also have helped them adjust their expectations of their work with

team-teaching and in student progress, yielding some positive effect on their satisfaction with these aspects of their job.

Undoubtedly, the single most important factor in all three types of participant satisfaction was the role as "human tape recorder". There was a very strong negative perception among the participants towards their role "simply to read aloud or pronounce words written on the board to which the students respond in unison" (CLAIR, 2013a, p. 66). It was consistent with the literature (e.g., Falout, 2013; McConnell, 2000; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012); however, there is a need for further investigation because such a role should be expected as an ordinary role for any language teacher.

The analysis of the interview data identified two possible reasons for this strong result. First, ALTs who had some prior experience in teaching may have formed different expectations of what they do in class, which may not necessarily have included the role of human tape recorder. Second, the role seemed to have been given to ALTs during team-teaching lessons, when local teachers were either not willing to, or aware of how to, give any other roles to their foreign team-teaching partners. ALTs may have developed negative perceptions about the tape recorder role, because that was the only task to which they were assigned. The lack of skill variety to be utilised in one's job is known to be a significant source of worker job dissatisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), and thus the result here seems to corroborate the findings of previous economics studies.

Research Question 4: Of all the factors, to what extent do "TESOL qualifications" appear to influence job satisfaction? Overall, the study found very little statistical evidence to suggest a significant influence of teacher education background in TESOL on ALT job satisfaction. Among current ALTs in the study (*n*

= 132), for instance, neither the participants' TESOL-related qualifications nor TESOL certification appeared to make a significant difference to satisfaction with the work relationship with local teachers with whom they conduct team-teaching, nor their satisfaction levels with teacher autonomy. In this respect, the study did not find any evidence to support Japan's anecdotal claim of tension between outsourced foreign teachers certified in TESOL, and local teachers (McConnell, 2000; Tsuido, 2007). Also, as noted earlier in this chapter, participant satisfaction with career advancement was very low in this group of ESOL teachers in Japan, and their TESOL backgrounds did not appear to improve these perceptions.

One positive influence identified was the effect possession of such qualifications had upon their perceptions of their skills and knowledge to do their job as ALTs. Within current ALTs only, both TESOL-related qualifications and TESOL certifications made a significant and substantially-positive difference to their satisfaction with the skills and knowledge to do their job as ALTs. Based on the skill-match theory (e.g., Allen & van der Velden, 2001), the results suggest that the skills and knowledge these ALTs learned in their TESOL-related studies matched the skill set required in their job.

However, such positive effects disappeared when TESOL certification was entered in the regression models that explored this factor's influence over their satisfaction with team-teaching, student progress, and resources. The TESOL certification appear to have a significant positive difference only to their satisfaction with team-teaching, however, the effect was not strong.

The analysis of the interviews clarified that teachers were greatly appreciative of their skills and knowledge from their teacher education for planning and teaching, but only while they were given free rein to teach by themselves. The context of team-

teaching with local teachers did not allow these ALTs to fully appreciate the skills

and knowledge gained from their TESOL teacher education. Further, their

knowledge of alternative teaching approaches appeared to have worked as a

reference point when they critically analysed the locally-supported approach in

language teaching, and thus affected their satisfaction in a negative manner. This

mixture of positive and negative effects may have contributed to effects of TESOL

certification upon their job satisfaction.

Another possible explanation for the lack of influence of TESOL certification

on job satisfaction was identified when the individual effect of internal variations

within these TESOL certifications were examined. The results of the regression

analysis seemed to indicate that not all TESOL teacher education programs had the

same effect upon teachers' professional lives. This analysis suggests the more study

units or courses completed in acquiring TESOL certifications, the more satisfied

ALTs were with team-teaching work. Longer teacher education programs may have

included some additional subject matter that helped teachers learn multiple

approaches to language teaching, and to help analyse professional contexts where a

communicative language approach was not widely supported.

Also, the size of classes in which they had completed their teaching practicum

had a positive influence on ALT job satisfaction with their students' progress in

learning English. Given that Japan has been known to have large class sizes at school

(OECD, 2012) as confirmed in the study (Chapter 4), those ALTs who completed

their TESOL practicum in larger classes may have learned some specific skills and

knowledge associated with teaching a large class. Such additional learning may have

helped teachers to adjust their expectations of their students' progress in the large

classes of Japanese schools, which may have resulted in their better satisfaction with the students' progress.

Theoretical implications

Teachers' job satisfaction. Theoretical implications and potential focus for future research in teacher job satisfaction have been summarised in Table 60, together with relevant findings of the study. Overall, the study discovered that teachers' job satisfaction, especially that of ALTs in Japan, is a unique and complex matter. For example, organisational and economics research literature generally suggests that worker job characteristics (e.g., the skill variety, salary, autonomy) predominantly determines job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Jex, 2002). While the negative effect of the lack of skill variety on job satisfaction became evident in the study (i.e., the role as human tape recorder), teachers were relatively satisfied with their salary, irrespective of the variations discovered in their salary range. Contextual factors such as teacher age and the relative lack of full-time work experience after graduation from their university, together with the temporary nature of their work, may have contributed to this unique result.

The same applies to the relationship between individual characteristics of teachers and their job satisfaction, especially the effect of their educational backgrounds. Standard economics theory suggests workers' education raises expectations at work, and thus educated workers may have lower job satisfaction unless their expectations are met in reality (e.g., Albert & Davia 2005; Allen & van der Velden, 2002).

Table 60. *Summary of implications, recommendations, and future research focus in teacher job satisfaction research*

Findings	Implications and recommendations	Potential foci in future research
• Teachers may adjust their job expectations using their skills and knowledge from education and/or experience; • Same skills and knowledge teachers possess may influence their job experience both positively and negatively;	• Research requires a quantitative and qualitative investigation to understand complex relationship between job/individual characteristics and teacher job satisfaction in a given context;	• Teacher job satisfaction in different contexts (e.g., different countries, different employers);

Chapter 9: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

The findings in the study, however, seem to suggest that teachers who gained some additional skills and knowledge, whether through TESOL teacher education or additional years of work experience in Japan, may not necessarily have raised their expectations at work. Instead, they may have adjusted their expectations according to the reality they were facing in Japan. Such adjustments may have helped the teachers to experience smaller gaps between expectations and reality and, as a result, those who had some TESOL background and longer experience in Japan were more satisfied with their work as ALTs in Japan. In this respect, these teachers were a unique group of workers in job satisfaction research.

Furthermore, analysis of the interviews repeatedly revealed the extremely complex relationship in which the same set of skills and knowledge that these teachers possessed (e.g., proficiency in Japanese, TESOL pedagogical knowledge) affected their satisfaction with their professional lives both positively and negatively. Both the knowledge of Japanese and of TESOL pedagogies seemed to help these teachers carry out certain duties and responsibilities during their team-teaching more effectively or efficiently, and to perceive the students' progress positively. However, at the same time, the same skills and knowledge affected their professional duties in a negative manner, when their skills could not be fully utilised under the constraints of team-teaching with local teachers, and also when they were confronted with the demotivating effect of their skills upon the students' learning of the target language.

These findings seem to suggest that any future investigation of ALT job satisfaction requires both quantitative and qualitative measures to fully understand the complex nature that may exist in the teachers' professional lives. This may be particularly important when foreign ESOL teachers are outsourced to work with local teachers who may not necessarily be competent in, or supportive of, the

communicative use of the target language. Since team-teaching between the "native" and "non-native" English speakers appears to be increasing in the wider contexts of TESOL (e.g., Pardy, 2004; Wu & Ke, 2009), the mixture of research types may be increasingly required when these teachers' professional lives, who after all have a very high rate of turnover (Johnston 1997; McKnight 1992), are examined. Therefore, future research should employ both quantitative and qualitative methods to fully understand teacher job satisfaction in team-teaching in different contexts (e.g., different countries, other types of employers), along with its relationship with job characteristics and teacher individual characteristics in those contexts.

Theoretical implications for the definitions of TESOL teacher education. After identifying a lack of clear existing definition(s) of the term *TESOL qualifications* (e.g., Miller et al., 2009; Schulz, 2000), the present study collected data broadly on the qualifications which teachers self-reported having acquired skills or knowledge for teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). It is acknowledged that such a subjective definition can be a limitation of the study. However, the adopted definition helped the study clarify the reality of the diversity of educational backgrounds that exist among this particular group of ESOL teachers in Japan. Given that "a Bachelor degree in any field" has been typically the required attainment for so-called "native speaker" teacher candidates in many contexts of TESOL in Asia (Butler, 2007; Guo & Beckett, 2007; Kubota, 1998; Sperling, 2011), a similar reality may exist in those contexts. Future research should explore characteristics of educational qualifications that "native speaker teachers" possess in different contexts of TESOL.

First, the study clarified that not all bachelor's degree holders had learned any TESOL-related skills and knowledge, based on their own perceptions. More than

60% of participants in the study ($n = 145, 63\%$) indicated they did not learn any TESOL-related skills and knowledge as part of their qualification(s). To this extent, the pervasive hiring practice of foreign ESOL teachers, which does not require any specific type of bachelor's level qualification, should be questioned.

Second, the remaining teachers in the study ($n = 87, 37\%$) self-reported learning some TESOL-related skills and knowledge in a wide range of qualifications, especially in the fields of education and the humanities and arts. This result supports the current hiring practice of this particular group of "native speaker" teachers in Japan, while specifying the types of academic qualifications that could be prioritised in the future. It will be an interesting focus in future studies to examine characteristics of TESOL related qualifications in other contexts of TESOL.

Third, the study identified a discrepancy between institutionalised definition(s) of TESOL teacher education (e.g., Christopher, 2005), and the operationalised definition of the term that represented the qualifications that existed in the actual workplace in TESOL industry. TESOL-related qualifications, which helped ESOL teachers learn some TESOL-related skills and knowledge, indeed included qualifications that may not have been developed for the purpose of training the ESOL teachers. The visual inspection of the titles found with these TESOL-related qualifications indicated a wide variety of discipline areas beyond conventional TESOL programs (e.g., psychology, journalism).

As indicated in a comment by a participant who had a Juris Doctorate ("I learned how to write clearly and simply"), the results indicate that there may be some generic set of skills and knowledge covered in these qualifications that could be applicable to TESOL. Unfortunately, it was beyond the scope of this study to identify characteristics of the skills and knowledge that these ESOL teachers may have

learned from their qualifications that may not have been designed specifically for the purpose of teacher training in TESOL.

To date, such characteristics do not appear to have attracted much attention in the continuing discussion of the ideal knowledge base for the ESOL profession and also for the TESOL teacher education (e.g., Borg, 2003; Canagarajah, 2015; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Nunan, 2001). Future investigations in this area may not only specify further the types of academic qualifications that future ESOL teachers and their employers should prioritise, but also inform the potential areas of expertise that existing TESOL teacher education programs should emphasise.

Pedagogical implications for TESOL teacher education. Table 61 summarises theoretical implications/recommendations and potential directions for future study in TESOL teacher education, along with relevant findings of the study. Overall, the findings in the study seem to suggest that the skills and knowledge that are emphasised during TESOL teacher education should match those required in the target context for graduating teachers. First, there needs to be more attention paid to the team-teaching job of ESOL teachers. In Chapter 7, the interview results explored the relationship between teacher TESOL certifications and their satisfaction. In Chapter 5, an independent samples t-test was conducted to examine TESOL-certified teachers' satisfaction with their own skills and knowledge to do their job. Both analyses indicated that teachers who had a TESOL certification had adequate skills and knowledge to do their teaching and planning independently, and this was a positive effect of the completion of a TESOL certification on ESOL practicing teachers in Japan. However, this effect was evident only when they were given a certain level of autonomy, and these teachers were extremely frustrated by the

underutilisation of their possessed skills and knowledge when their autonomy was restricted under the constraints of team-teaching with local teachers.

While such a contextual factor may be unique to this particular group of teachers in the present study, team-teaching between "native English speaker" teachers and local teachers is reportedly increasing in other contexts of TESOL (e.g., Pardy, 2004; Wu & Ke, 2009). Therefore, future TESOL teacher education may need to consider providing the opportunity for teacher candidates to study theoretical backgrounds (i.e., advantages and limitations), and the practical strategies and techniques for effective team-teaching. Based on the descriptive analysis in Chapter 4, and the visual inspection of the existing programs listed in the current Directory of TESOL teacher education programs in the U.S. and Canada (Christopher, 2005), existing programs do not appear to emphasise this increasingly important aspect of ESOL teachers' skills and knowledge.

Table 61. *Summary of implications, recommendations, and future research focus in TESOL teacher education*

Findings	Implications and recommendations	Potential foci in future research
• ALTs self-reported learning TESOL-related skills and knowledge both in "TESOL" and "non-TESOL" qualifications (e.g., journalism, counseling);	• Nature of TESOL-related skills and knowledge studied in "non-TESOL" qualifications should be examined in other contexts of TESOL, in search for knowledge base for TESOL teacher education;	• What are educational backgrounds of "native speaker teachers" in other contexts of TESOL? • What do ESOL teachers in other contexts learn in "non-TESOL qualifications"?; • How do TESOL "unqualified" teachers use their skills and knowledge at work?;
• Team-teaching was an influential contextual factor for native speaker teachers;	• TESOL teacher education provides more opportunity for pre-service teachers to study theoretical and practical understanding of successful team-teaching to be more prepared for working in a future context where team-teaching is required;	• What constitutes "successful" team-teaching between "native" and "non-native" speaker teachers in team-teaching in other TESOL contexts; • Characteristics of TESOL teacher education that may help these teachers to team-teach effectively and satisfactorily;

Table 61. *Summary of implications, recommendations, and future research focus in TESOL teacher education (Continued)*

Findings	Implications and recommendations	Potential foci in future research
• Native speaker knowledge in Japanese language influenced both positively and negatively the professional lives of native speaker teachers in Japan;	• TESOL teacher education provides more opportunity for "native speaker" candidates to learn more about potential (positive and negative) effects of knowledge in local language both in class and through broader aspects of their lives overseas;	• Pedagogical strategies that experienced native speaker teachers use when using local language in teaching
• Pedagogies and beliefs in language teaching native speaker teachers support, may not be fully implemented in local context;	• TESOL teacher education should not teach any single approach as the only approach in language teaching, and help pre-service teachers to develop their understanding of alternative approaches that they may encounter in future context;	
• Class size matters in teaching practicum	• TESOL teacher education provides practicum opportunity in classes that are approximately similar in size to their future context	• Different experience by pre-service teachers during practicum in classes that are different in size

Existing research on team-teaching (e.g., Gaytan, 2010; Leavitt, 2006; Wadkins, Miller, & Wozniak, 2006) do not seem to be TESOL specific, and thus do not appear to take into consideration potentially unique relationship between so-called native and non-native speaker teachers engaged in team-teaching. Future research should explore this potentially unique relationship in wider contexts of TESOL, and identify what constitutes *successful* team-teaching between these teachers, and elicit characteristics of skills and knowledge that these teachers need to possess for such a successful team-teaching. Further, future study may investigate the extent to which existing TESOL teacher education may help those teachers develop such skill set so that TESOL certified "native speaker" teachers may be able to conduct team-teaching with local teachers in an effective and mutually respectful manner.

Second, the analysis of interview data in Chapter 6 suggests strong effects of proficiency in Japanese language upon the broad aspects of professional lives of outsourced foreign teachers. This proficiency could help teachers not only to build rapport with their students and local teachers, but also to be more actively engaged in the local school community (which is often very "foreign" to them), and reduce the sense of isolation that many teachers felt when they lacked this particular ability (Kobayashi, 2000; Otani, 2007). While this finding corroborates past studies that report the effect of teachers' ability in the local language as an advantage for the "non-native" speaker ESOL teachers (e.g., Medgyes, 1992; Meyer, 2008), the results here confirm that such an ability also could benefit the "native speaker" ESOL teachers, perhaps in a unique manner when they are teaching in non-English speaking countries. While the descriptive results in the study (Chapter 4), and the above directory of the existing TESOL programs (Christopher, 2005), showed some

increasing level of awareness of such needs in existing programs, there still seem to be a large number of the programs that have not incorporated such a need of future "native speaker" teacher candidates.

Further, given that the negative side effects of teacher ability in the local language have also been revealed through the analysis, future programs could also provide pre-service teachers with the opportunity to explore how (not) to use the learners' first language in class. These opportunities may include some practical strategies such as setting up a clear rule with learners (e.g., Harmer, 2007). Future research may identify different pedagogical strategies that experienced "native speaker" teachers, who are proficient in local language, use during their lessons while maintaining student motivation to use the target language to communicate with their so-called native speaker teachers. Which some pedagogical skills appear to be discussed in literature (e.g., Harmer, 2007), existing research seems to have focused on language learners' use of local language in language classroom, and much less attention has been paid to teacher use of their learners' first language (e.g., Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002). Skills required specifically for "native speaker" teachers in language classroom may be unique, when compared to those of "non-native speaker" teachers, and thus requires further attention in future research.

Third, the results of the study confirm the need to raise teacher awareness of alternative approaches to language teaching. If language teaching is essentially culturally-bound practice (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), and thus there is no consensus as to what "good teaching" should constitute (e.g., Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Prabhu, 1990; Richards, 2008; Tsui, 2009), then no single approach should be treated as "the best and only" approach that can be applied to any context.

While the accounts provided by participants in the interview highlighted the lack of local teacher awareness of (or support for) the alternative approaches to the locally-supported ones, their accounts also demonstrate a lack of ALTs' own awareness or understanding of the local approaches and contextual needs. The significant difference that the length (in number of study units or courses) of TESOL certifications made to ALT satisfaction with team-teaching appears to support the need for teacher trainees to have some additional opportunities to explore alternative approaches that may not be widely endorsed in their local context. The investigation of locally-supported approaches to language teaching, and how they could make the best use of themselves as a human resource in the given context, should be an essential part of teacher education, especially in TESOL.

Finally, the significant effect of the difference in practicum class size experienced by TESOL-certified teachers also suggests the need for teacher education to offer learning opportunities that match the future reality for graduates. If average class sizes remain relatively large in Japan and other Asian nations (OECD, 2012), then teacher trainees should experience teaching in classes that are approximately similar in size. If the size of existing classes in the Western nations is typically small (e.g., OECD, 2012), then as argued before, existing opportunities for (untrained) teachers in Asia should be considered as an alternative placement for the practicum.

Unfortunately, the study was unable to identify exact characteristics of teacher experience during teaching practicum in large class which may have affected their professional lives significantly. Future study should explore empirically their learning experiences during such practicum experience, which may differ the practicum experience in smaller ESOL class.

Administrative implications and recommendations for future hiring practice of ALTs in Japan. A number of administrative implications and recommendations can be made for the future hiring and placement of ALTs in Japan. First and foremost, the implications for educational attainment required for ALT candidates should be discussed. Admittedly, however, this requires a careful consideration of the complex relationship between teacher TESOL teacher education backgrounds and job satisfaction as revealed in the study. On the one hand, current ALTs who had a TESOL certification were significantly and substantially more satisfied with their own skills and knowledge to do their job. The regression analysis confirmed that all ALTs with a TESOL certification ($n = 56$) were also significantly more satisfied with their team-teaching. The analysis of the interview data revealed their perceptions of the helpfulness of their existing skills and knowledge when teaching independently.

On the other hand, teachers who had a TESOL certification tended to be frustrated with the underutilisation of their skills and knowledge when they encountered the local approach and restrictions on their autonomy in team-teaching with local teachers. These findings seemed to be consistent with Japan's past experience of the intense conflict between certified teachers from overseas and local teachers during 1960s (McConnell, 2000; Tsuido, 2007).

In order to take best advantage of the existing skills and knowledge that these teachers may have learned from their academic qualifications, and thus strategically recruit quality teachers based not on demographics but instead on educational attainment, the following recommendations are proposed (see a summary table in Table 62). First, the required educational qualification for ALT candidates should be limited to the fields of education or humanities and arts. As mentioned before, this

study confirms that not all bachelor's degree holders learned TESOL-related skills and knowledge as part of their degree. The majority of those who did learn some TESOL-related skills and knowledge appeared to have completed their qualifications in the fields of education or humanities and arts. Given that current teachers who had one of those TESOL-related qualifications were significantly and substantially more satisfied with their skills and knowledge to do their job as ALTs, recruitment that emphasises qualifications in these fields may increase the match between foreign teachers' possessed skill set and what will tend to be required to do in their jobs.

Second, those participants who complete a qualification that was designed specifically for the purpose of TESOL teacher education should also be hired, after having internal characteristics of their certifications closely examined. For example, the average size of class in which they had completed their teaching practicum should be examined, and those who have taught a large class (more than 20) should be prioritised during the recruitment process.

Internal characteristics within TESOL certifications that some ALTs may possess should also be examined when they are placed at individual schools. TESOL certified ALTs, especially those who completed a relatively short TESOL certification (less than 20 study units/subjects), and who may have developed a good understanding of a single methodology (e.g., the communicative approach), could be placed in contexts where these teachers could enjoy a relatively high level of autonomy (e.g., kindergartens, elementary schools). Alternatively, such teachers could be placed to work with individual local teachers who are supportive of such an approach. ALTs who completed a relatively longer TESOL certification (i.e., more than 20 study units/subjects) may be placed in contexts where a variety of the approaches in language teaching may be used (e.g., junior or senior high school).

Table 62. *Summary of administrative implications/recommendations*

Context	Implications/recommendations
Future recruitment of ALTs in Japan	• Recruit ALTs who completed a degree in education, or humanities and arts fields; • Recruit ALTs who completed a TESOL certification, especially those who completed a teaching practicum in a large class (20 or more); • Recruit specifically ALTs who have some level of proficiency in Japanese; • Hire ALTs on a longer term contract, and recruit more experienced ALTs; • Enhance work conditions for non-JET ALTs;
Individual placement of ALTs	• Examine variations of candidate experiences during TESOL teacher education (e.g., teaching practicum, number of subjects/courses completed), and place TESOL certified ALTs at schools or with local teachers where • Identify individual local teacher perceptions both of pedagogy and ALT roles in team-teaching; • Strategically match local teachers' perceptions and ALT educational attainment; • Assign no ALT with local teachers who are not interested in team-teaching with ALTs; • Assign no ALT at schools (or classes) where students have to be prepared for exam-orientated English teaching and learning;
Professional development	• Develop ALT proficiency in Japanese in more interactive manner; • Develop ALTs' and local teachers' understanding of effective strategies using (or not using) learner first language at school; • Develop local teacher understanding of different approaches in language teaching, and also working with "native speaker" assistants

Therefore, future studies need to examine individual local teachers' beliefs in language teaching and their personal work styles with foreign assistants, and identify the best combination for both groups of teachers in the current system of team-teaching. Any contexts where local needs to prepare students for the knowledge-based test are emphasised (e.g., junior high schools) may not be the best-fit for this type of TESOL-certified foreign teacher. Also, these ALTs should not be placed in work with local teachers who are not interested in alternative approaches to language teaching.

The second administrative implication for the future practice of hiring ALTs relates to their Japanese proficiency. A stronger effort is required to increase the proficiency level of these teachers. The study confirmed ALT's ability in Japanese could help these teachers to understand, and thus feel more engaged in, the local school community, while establishing a relationship with local students and other teachers. The current eligibility criteria of the JET program does not require any specific level of Japanese language from future applicants, and this may need to be reviewed. Alternatively or additionally, ALTs could be provided with ongoing opportunities to develop their proficiency in Japanese after their arrival; however, it should be noted that the results in Chapter 4 indicate the majority of participants do not take existing language courses provided by CLAIR. The style of the delivery (i.e., online and correspondence) may need to be reviewed if CLAIR aims to enhance the participation rate, and the effect of that participation.

At the same time, both foreign and local teachers must be trained in the effective and strategic use of the local language during English language classes. This is important so that foreign teachers can use the learners' first language when it is necessary to develop a relationship with students, and help students solve

complicated linguistic issues more efficiently. Local teachers who believe that ALTs should not use any Japanese in class should be informed of the potential benefits if ALTs use the local language with students, together with other research findings that do not support such a monolingual approach in language teaching (e.g., Cook, 2001; Moughamian et al, 2009; Protheroe, 2011).

Nonetheless, both groups of teachers have to develop their understanding of how to maintain their students' motivation to use the target language (English) when communicating with ALTs in class. As discussed earlier in this chapter, future research should identify pedagogical strategies that experienced ALTs may adopt in order to take best advantage of their knowledge in the local language, while maximising opportunities for their students to communicate in the target language. This may also be a focus in future professional development program for both groups of teachers in Japan.

The third implication is the review of the temporary nature of the employment of foreign teachers in Japan. The analyses of the regression model and the interviews indicate that these teachers could accumulate their understandings of local practice and students' needs – together with specific expectations of their roles by individual local teachers – through years of experience as an ALT in Japan, which could enhance their job satisfaction. However, the current structure of the JET program, and the legal complications surrounding non-JET ALT contracts, both hinder the longer-term employment of those teachers and, therefore, the potential benefit of their local understanding is not being fully utilised. If a number of foreign teachers wish to settle in Japan on a long-term basis (Geluso, 2013; Okunuki & Carlet, 2012), it may be beneficial to employ teachers on a longer-term basis, instead of renewing their one-year contract each year.

Relating to the point above, the current tendency to differentiate between JET and non-JET ALTs is questionable. The study found no difference in roles and responsibilities between these groups of teachers. However, the salary difference and resulting dissatisfaction among non-JET teachers became strongly evident in the study. If Japanese schools need to source additional numbers of foreign teachers independently of the JET program (MEXT, 2013), this discrepancy needs to be addressed either by increasing the number of ALTs in the JET program, or enhancing the conditions under which non-JET ALTs work in Japanese schools. Given that the sample size in this group of ALTs in the study was limited ($n = 41$), further investigation of their individual and job characteristics including work conditions is required with a larger sample size.

Finally, since the study found the ALT role as a human tape recorder was the most influential single negative factor influencing job satisfaction, extreme care needs to be taken when such a role is given to these foreign teachers. As argued in the previous chapter, if such a role is the only role to which foreign teachers can be assigned, then is it much more economical and less stressful if the role is actually performed by a CD player. Given that the roles of foreign teachers were determined through the negotiation with local teachers, the beliefs and approaches to language teaching of those local teachers, together with their preferred style of working with their foreign partners, must be examined. No ALTs should be placed with local teachers who are not willing to give any roles to ALTs other than that of human tape recorder. Local teachers who are unaware of the alternative roles that could be assigned to ALTs need to be further trained to raise their understanding of alternative ways to work with their foreign assistant.

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<h1 align="center">Appendices</h1>

<h2 align="center">Appendix A</h2>

<h3 align="center">Copy of online questionnaire</h3>

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION FOR QUT RESEARCH PROJECT

Factors influencing the job satisfaction of TESOL Assistant Language Teachers in Japan (QUT Ethics Approval Number 1300000832)

RESEARCH TEAM

- Principal Researcher: Takahiro Yokoyama (PhD student)
- Associate Researcher:
- Dr. Karen Woodman (Senior Lecturer in TESOL, School of Cultural and Professional Learning)
- Prof. John Lidstone (Adjunct Professor, School of Curriculum)
- Mr Paul Shield (Adjunct Associate Professor, School of Curriculum)Faculty of Education, Queensland University of Technology (QUT)

DESCRIPTION

This project is being undertaken as part of PhD study for Takahiro Yokoyama. The purpose of this project is to explore the relationship between and influence of demographic and academic background, work experience and job satisfaction on the perceived job satisfaction of Assistant Language Teachers ('ALTs' hereinafter), who are or were engaged in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in Japan. In this study, 'ALTs' are either 1) those who work or have worked under the supervision of Japanese teacher(s) or dispatch agent(s); OR 2) those who have/had the specific job title as Assistant Language Teacher or Assistant English Teacher. We are interested in present or former ALTs who are or were engaged in English teaching at one or more schools in Japan. The study aims to collect data from both ALTs in the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme (JET program) and ALTs who have been employed independently of the JET program through other channels such as direct contract with local board of education office or commercial dispatch agent. All former ALTs (e.g., alumni members) are also encouraged to participate, as well as those who are working as an ALT at present. You have been invited to participate in this project because you are either a present or former ALT in Japan.

PARTICIPATION

Participation will involve completing an anonymous questionnaire with multiple choice questions and Likert scale answers (e.g., Not at all satisfied – Completely satisfied). It is expected that completing the questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes of your time.

Also, at the end of this questionnaire, you will be asked if you would be willing to participate in a follow-up interview which is expected to take approx. 30 minutes. If you are interested, you will be directed to a separate short survey in which you register your interests by providing your name and contact email address. The research team will use your contact details to communicate with you further to arrange a date and time for the interview. You can complete this questionnaire with or without participating in the interview.

The following part of the questionnaire consists of five sections. The first section includes questions about your demographic backgrounds (e.g., 'What is your age/gender/nationality?'). The second section focuses on your linguistic background and also experiences in Japanese language learning (e.g., 'What is your first language?' or 'Have you ever studied Japanese?'). The third section explores your academic background (e.g., 'What is the highest level of your tertiary qualification?'). The forth section will explore your work conditions and situations as an ALT. The final section will be looking at your job satisfaction as an ALT (e.g., 'Overall, how satisfied are you with your current job?').

Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. Your decision to participate or not participate will not be disclosed to any parties, and in no way impact upon your current or future relationship with Queensland University of Technology (for example your grades in present or future courses) or with other associated organisations such as the Association of Japan Exchange and Teaching (AJET), the JET Programme Alumni Association (JETAA), General Union Offices, or your present and future employers. If you do agree to participate, you can withdraw from the project without comment or penalty. Any identifiable information already obtained from you will be destroyed. However as the questionnaire is anonymous, once it has been submitted it will not be possible to withdraw.

EXPECTED BENEFITS

The proposed study may not directly benefit participants. However, it has the potential to benefit a range of people including: future Assistant Language Teachers; providers of TESOL teacher education programs; employers of ALTs such as commercial dispatch agents; boards of education offices; Japanese ministries involved in education; and English learners in Japan. Potential benefits of the study include the development of a clear definition of the types of programs and qualifications in TESOL that exist, as well as examining the impact of variations in TESOL teacher education programs and qualifications; help to identify factors influencing the success of ALTs to reduce the turnover of ALTs and enhance job satisfaction.

RISKS

The proposed study may cause some inconvenience for participants in relation to time spent completing the online questionnaire (estimated time required is 45 mins). To minimise the inconvenience associated with the time spent completing the questionnaire, the questionnaire has been designed to allow you to save your progress, exit the questionnaire and complete it at a later date/time. To do this, simply click 'Save my Progress and Exit' button at the bottom of each page. To return to the survey, click the original URL using the same computer <u>and</u> the Web browser. It is important that you use the same computer and Web browser if you wish to complete this survey in more than one session.

Further, if you register yourself for the follow-up interview at the end of this questionnaire, you will be requested to provide your name and contact email address for further communication with the research team. In such cases, there may be a risk to your privacy, and confidentiality and anonymity of the data collected in the questionnaire. In order to minimise the risk, first, you may provide us with your preferred name (e.g., nickname) instead of your real name. Second, your personal information will be collected in a separate survey. When you choose to register your interest in the interview at the end of the original questionnaire, you will be directed to another short survey in which you provide your personal information. This will enable the research team to separate your responses in the original questionnaire from your personal information, and thus minimise the risk against your responses being identified. Your personal information will be stored separately to the original questionnaire data and securely in a locked cabinet.

PRIVACY & CONFIDENTIALITY

All comments and responses will be treated confidentially unless required by law. Any data collected as part of this project will be stored securely as per QUT's Management of research data policy.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

Submitting the completed online questionnaire is accepted as an indication of your consent to participate in this project.

QUESTIONS / FURTHER INFORMATION ABOUT THE PROJECT

If have any questions or require further information please contact one of the research team members below.

- Takahiro Yokoyama +61 400 770 129 taka.yokoyama@student.qut.edu.au

- Dr Karen Woodman +61 7 3138 3134 karen.woodman@qut.edu.au

CONCERNS / COMPLAINTS REGARDING THE CONDUCT OF THE PROJECT

QUT is committed to research integrity and the ethical conduct of research projects. However, if you do have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project you may contact the QUT Research Ethics Unit on [+61 7] 3138 5123 or email ethicscontact@qut.edu.au. The QUT Research Ethics Unit is not connected with the research project and can facilitate a resolution to your concern in an impartial manner.

Thank you for helping with this research project. Please keep this sheet for your information.

Agreement to Participate

This study is specifically interested in people who are or have been engaged in teaching English as an ALT in Japan. In this study, 'ALTs' are either 1) those who work or have worked under the supervision of Japanese teacher(s) or dispatch agent(s); OR 2) those who have/had the specific job title as Assistant Language Teachers or Assistant English Teachers.

NOTE: If you are not a present or former ALT, or if you do not agree to participate, please feel free to close the survey by pressing X at the top of the window.

☐ Yes, I am either a present or former ALT, and have read the above and consent to participate in this study.

Section 1: Your demographic background

What is your age?
20 or younger
21 to 25
26 to 30
31 to 35
36 to 40
41 to 45
46 to 50
51 or older

What is your gender?
Male
Female

In total, how long have you lived in Japan?
Less than 1 year
Longer than 1 year and less than 2 years
Longer than 2 year and less than 4 years
Longer than 4 year and less than 6 years
Longer than 6 year and less than 8 years
8 years or longer

What is your nationality? Select all that apply. If you have any nationality that is not listed here, please select 'other' at the end and specify your nationality in the space provided.

Afghan	Dominican	Lebanese
Albanian	Dutch	Liberian
Algerian	East Timorese	Libyan
American	Ecuadorean	Liechtensteiner
Andorran	Egyptian	Lithuanian
Angolan	Emirian	Luxembourger
Antiguans	Equatorial Guinean	Macedonian
Argentinean	Eritrean	Malagasy
Armenian	Estonian	Malawian
Australian	Ethiopian	Malaysian
Austrian	Fijian	Maldivan
Azerbaijani	Filipino	Malian
Bahamian	Finnish	Maltese
Bahraini	French	Marshallese
Bangladeshi	Gabonese	Mauritanian
Barbadian	Gambian	Mauritian
Barbudans	Georgian	Mexican
Batswana	German	Micronesian
Belarusian	Ghanaian	Moldovan
Belgian	Greek	Monacan
Belizean	Grenadian	Mongolian
Beninese	Guatemalan	Moroccan
Bhutanese	Guinea-Bissauan	Mosotho
Bolivian	Guinean	Motswana
Bosnian	Guyanese	Mozambican
Brazilian	Haitian	Namibian
British	Herzegovinian	Nauruan
Bruneian	Honduran	Nepalese
Bulgarian	Hungarian	New Zealander
Burkinabe	I-Kiribati	Nicaraguan
Burmese	Icelander	Nigerian
Burundian	Indian	Nigerien
Cambodian	Indonesian	North Korean
Cameroonian	Iranian	Northern Irish
Canadian	Iraqi	Norwegian
Cape Verdean	Irish	Omani
Central African	Israeli	Pakistani
Chadian	Italian	Palauan
Chilean	Ivorian	Panamanian
Chinese	Jamaican	Papua New
Colombian	Japanese	Guinean
Comoran	Jordanian	Paraguayan
Congolese	Kazakhstani	Peruvian
Costa Rican	Kenyan	Polish
Croatian	Kittian and	Portuguese
Cuban	Nevisian	Qatari
Cypriot	Kuwaiti	Romanian
Czech	Kyrgyz	Russian
Danish	Laotian	Rwandan
Djibouti	Latvian	Saint Lucian

Salvadoran
Samoan
San Marinese
Sao Tomean
Saudi
Scottish
Senegalese
Serbian
Seychellois
Sierra Leonean
Singaporean
Slovakian
Slovenian
Solomon Islander
Somali
South African
South Korean
Spanish
Sri Lankan
Sudanese
Surinamer
Swazi
Swedish
Swiss
Syrian
Taiwanese
Tajik
Tanzanian
Thai
Togolese
Tongan
Trinidadian or
Tobagonian
Tunisian
Turkish
Tuvaluan
Ugandan
Ukrainian
Uruguayan
Uzbekistani
Venezuelan
Vietnamese
Welsh
Yemenite
Zambian
Zimbabwean
Other
....

Do you identify yourself as...? You may select more than one categories if you have multi-racial backgrounds.

    Asian

    Black or African American

    Caucasian

    Other

....

Are you...? Select all that apply.

    Asian Indian

    Chinese

    Filipino

    Japanese

    Korean

    Vietnamese

    Other

....

Section 2: Your linguistic background and experiences in Japanese language learning

Are you a native speaker of English?

    Yes

    No

    Not sure

What is your first language? If your first language is not listed, please select 'Other' at the bottom of the list.

    Barbados

    Chinese (Cantonese)

    Chinese (Mandarin)

    Dutch

    English

    Fijian

    Fijian Hindustani

    Finnish

    French

    German

    Hebrew

    Hindi

    Indonesian

    Italian

    Japanese

    Korean

    Latvian

Malay
Mongolian
Palauan
Portuguese
Romansh
Russian
Samoan
Spanish
Tagalog
Tongan
Turkish
Other*

*What is your first language?

....

How many languages do you speak?
1
2
3
4
5 or more

Have you ever studied Japanese?
Yes
No

How long have you studied Japanese?
Less than 1 year
1 - 3 years
4 - 6 years
7 years or more

What is your self-assessment of proficiency in Japanese?
Beginner
Intermediate
Advanced
Near native speaker proficiency

Have you completed any of the following courses run by the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR) for participants in the JET program? Select all that apply.

Japanese language course (beginner level)
Japanese language course (intermediate level)
Japanese language course (advance level)
Japanese language course (translation/interpretation level)
Japanese language course (linguistics/pedagogy level)
None of the above

Have you taken the Japanese Language Proficiency Test also known as Nihongo Noryoku Shiken?
Yes
No

What is your highest level of proficiency achieved in the Japanese Language Proficiency Test? Select one that applies.
N1 (or level 1 in pre-2009 test)
N2 (or level 2 in pre-2009 test)
N3
N4 (or level 3 in pre-2009 test)
N5 (or level 4 in pre-2009 test)
Other
....

Have you taken the Business Japanese Proficiency Test?
Yes
No

What is your highest level of proficiency achieved in the Business Japanese Proficiency Test? Select one that applies to you.
J1+ (800 - 600 points)
J1 (599 - 530 points)
J2 (529 - 420 points)
J3 (419 - 320 points)
J4 (319 - 200 points)
J5 (199 - 0 point)
Other
....

Section 3: Your academic background: This section focuses on your tertiary academic qualifications.

What is your highest academic qualification? If you have more than one qualifications at a same level (e.g., two Bachelor degrees), please provide the information about one of them. You will have another opportunity to provide information about your other qualification(s) later.

Certificate
Diploma
Bachelor degree
Graduate Certificate/Postgraduate Certificate
Masters degree
Doctorate
Other
....

What was your major field of study in this qualification? Hover your cursor over each field below (and wait for a few seconds) for the description of each field.
Education
Humanities and arts
Social sciences, business and law
Science
Engineering, manufacturing and construction
Agriculture
Health and welfare
Services
Other
....

If this qualification was related to education or teaching, did it accredit you to teach in your country (e.g., state/public school system)?
Yes
No
Not applicable

Did you learn any skills and/or knowledge for teaching English to speakers of other languages in this qualification?
Yes*
No

** *What is the name of this qualification?**
....

When did you receive this qualification?
In or before 1960
Between 1961 and 1970
Between 1971 and 1980
Between 1981 and 1990
Between 1991 and 2000
Between 2001 and 2010

In or after 2011

Please select the type of provider of this qualification.
Universities and higher education college
Vocational education and training institution
Other government training organisation
Commercial/private (non-government) training organisation
Other
....

In which country was the institution where you obtained this qualification? If your country is not listed here, please select 'none of the above' at the bottom of the list. You will be directed to the next question in which you can specify the country.

Afghanistan
Albania
Algeria
Andorra
Angola
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
Armenia
Australia
Austria
Azerbaijan
Bahamas, The
Bahrain
Bangladesh
Barbados
Belarus
Belgium
Belize
Benin
Bhutan
Bolivia
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Botswana
Brazil
Brunei
Bulgaria
Burkina Faso
Burma
Burundi
Cambodia
Cameroon
Canada
Cape Verde

Central African Republic
Chad
Chile
China
Colombia
Comoros
Congo (Brazzaville) – Republic of the Congo
Congo (Kinshasa) - Democratic Republic of the Congo
Cook Islands
Costa Rica
Côte d'Ivoire
Croatia
Cuba
Cyprus
Czech Republic
Denmark
Djibouti
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
Egypt
El Salvador
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Estonia
Ethiopia
Fiji
Finland
France

Gabon
Gambia, The
Georgia
Germany
Ghana
Greece
Grenada
Guatemala
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Guyana
Haiti
Holy See
Honduras
Hungary
Iceland
India
Indonesia
Iran
Iraq
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Jamaica
Japan
Jordan
Kazakhstan
Kenya
Kiribati
Korea, North - Democratic People's Republic Of Korea
Korea, South - Republic Of Korea
Kosovo

Kuwait
Kyrgyzstan
Laos
Latvia
Lebanon
Lesotho
Liberia
Libya
Liechtenstein
Lithuania
Luxembourg
Macedonia
Madagascar
Malawi
Malaysia
Maldives
Mali
Malta
Marshall Islands
Mauritania
Mauritius
Mexico
Micronesia,
Federated States of
Moldova
Monaco
Mongolia
Montenegro
Morocco
Mozambique
Namibia
Nauru
Nepal
Netherlands
New Zealand
Nicaragua
Niger

Nigeria
Norway
Oman
Pakistan
Palau
Panama
Papua New Guinea
Paraguay
Peru
Philippines
Poland
Portugal
Qatar
Romania
Russia
Rwanda
Saint Kitts and
Nevis
Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and
the Grenadines
Samoa
San Marino
Sao Tome and
Principe
Saudi Arabia
Senegal
Serbia
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Singapore
Slovakia
Slovenia
Solomon Islands
Somalia
South Africa
South Sudan

Spain
Sri Lanka
Sudan
Suriname
Swaziland
Sweden
Switzerland
Syria
Tajikistan
Tanzania
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Togo
Tonga
Trinidad and
Tobago
Tunisia
Turkey
Turkmenistan
Tuvalu
Uganda
Ukraine
United Arab
Emirates
United Kingdom
United States
Uruguay
Uzbekistan
Vanuatu
Venezuela
Vietnam
Yemen
Zambia
Zimbabwe
None of the above*

***In which country was the institution where you obtained this
qualification? Please type the name of the country in the space provided.**

....

How did you study in the course?
    Full-time throughout
    Mixture of full-time and part-time study
    Part-time throughout
    Other
....

How did you study in the course? Select all that apply.
    Internally
    Externally by correspondence/mail
    Externally by online
    Other
....

What was the approximate length of the study required (in hours) in this qualification?
    Less than 20 hours
    21 to 60 hours
    61 to 100 hours
    101 to 150 hours
    151 to 200 hours
    More than 200 hours
    Other
....

In this qualification, competence in a language other than English was...
    Not required or recommended at all
    Recommended
    Strongly recommended
    Required
    Other
....

How many units/courses did you complete to receive this qualification?
    1 to 5
    6 to 10
    11 to 15
    16 to 20
    More than 20
    Other
....

What subjects/topics did you study in this qualification? Select all that apply.

    Teaching methodologies
    Teaching strategies and techniques of teaching speaking
    Teaching strategies and techniques of teaching listening
    Teaching strategies and techniques of teaching reading
    Teaching strategies and techniques of teaching writing
    Teaching strategies and techniques of teaching pronunciation
    Teaching strategies and techniques of teaching grammar
    Teaching English for specific purpose
    Teaching English for academic purpose
    Lesson planning
    Material/resource development
    Linguistics (structure of English, grammar, syntax, morphology)
    Sociolinguistics
    Assessment/testing
    Curriculum design
    Language and culture
    Reflective teaching
    Error analysis/contrastive analysis
    Context/situation/needs analysis
    Second language acquisition
    Bilingual education
    Immersion education
    Technology for teaching language
    Discourse analysis
    Classroom/behaviour management
    School administration and management
    Teaching practicum (assessed teaching)
    Teaching practicum (supervised teaching)
    Teaching practicum (unsupervised teaching)
    Teaching practicum (teaching observation)
    Teaching practicum (other)*
    Research methods and design
    Research project
    Other
....

*What were you required to do in 'Teaching practicum (other)'?

....

Was the teaching practicum...?
　Compulsory
　Optional
　I don't know.
　Other
....

Approximately how long was your teaching practicum?
　Less than 1 week
　1 - 4 weeks
　5 - 8 weeks
　9 - 12 weeks
　13 - 16 weeks
　17 weeks or longer

In total, approximately how many hours were you required to teach (= lead the class) in your practicum?
　Not required at all
　1 - 10 hours
　11 - 20 hours
　21 - 30 hours
　31 - 40 hours
　41 - 50 hours
　51 or more hours
　Other
....

At what type of institution did you complete your teaching practicum? Select all that apply.
　Early childhood (including Daycare; Pre-kindergarten; kindergarten; Preschool)
　Elementary or Primary school
　Junior High school or Junior Secondary school
　Senior High school or Senior Secondary school
　Vocational education and training
　University or University affiliated language institution
　Private language school
　Other
....

What level(s) of students did you teach and/or observe during your practicum? Select all that apply.

Beginner
Intermediate
Advanced
Other
....

What was the average size of your class in your practicum?
Less than 5 students
5 to 10 students
11 - 20 students
21 to 30 students
More than 30

Do you have any other tertiary qualification(s)?
Yes
No

What is your next highest academic qualification? If you have more than one qualifications at a same level (e.g., two Bachelor degrees), please provide the information about one of them. You will have another opportunity to provide information about your other qualification(s) later.
Certificate
Diploma
Bachelor degree
Graduate Certificate/Postgraduate Certificate
Masters degree
Doctorate
Other
....

(*Note for readers: Items in this section repeats until participants have no further qualifications to report in online questionnaire*)

Section 4: Your work conditions and experiences as an ALT in Japan

Are you...?
a current ALT (I am currently working as ALT in Japan)
a former ALT (I used to work as ALT in Japan, but are not working as one now)

(*Note for readers: Respondents who nominated themselves as a former ALT in this item are directed to same set of items as below but in appropriate tense through online questionnaire logic*)

At present, are you...?

a JET ALT (an ALT who is participating in the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme)*

a non-JET ALT (an ALT who has been employed through channels other than the JET program)**

*Have you worked as an ALT independently of the JET program before?

Yes

No

**Have you worked as an ALT in the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme (JET program) before?

Yes

No

In which year have you worked as an ALT in Japan? Select all that apply.

1986 or before

1987

1988

1989

1990

1991

1992

1993

1994

1995

1996

1997

1998

1999

2000

2001

2002

2003

2004

2005

2006

2007

2008

2009

2010

2011

2012

2013

2014

In total, how long have you worked as an ALT in Japan?
Less than 1 year
1 year or longer and less than 2 years
2 years or longer and less than 3 years
3 years or longer and less than 4 years
4 years or longer and less than 5 years
5 years or longer

In which prefecture have you worked as an ALT? Select all that apply. All prefectures appear in the Western alphabetical order.

Aichi-ken	Kagawa-ken	Osaka-fu
Akita-ken	Kagoshima-ken	Saga-ken
Aomori-ken	Kanagawa-ken	Saitama-ken
Chiba-ken	Kochi-ken	Shiga-ken
Ehime-ken	Kumamoto-ken	Shimane-ken
Fukui-ken	Kyoto-fu	Shizuoka-ken
Fukuoka-ken	Mie-ken	Tochigi-ken
Fukushima-ken	Miyagi-ken	Tokushima-ken
Gifu-ken	Miyazaki-ken	Tokyo-to
Gunma-ken	Nagano-ken	Tottori-ken
Hiroshima-ken	Nagasaki-ken	Toyama-ken
Hokkaido	Nara-ken	Wakayama-ken
Hyogo-ken	Niigata-ken	Yamagata-ken
Ibaraki-ken	Oita-ken	Yamaguchi-ken
Ishikawa-ken	Okayama-ken	Yamanashi-ken
Iwate-ken	Okinawa-ken	

Which of the followings describes your current direct employer(s) to which you have been contracted as an ALT? Select all that apply. Hover your cursor over the term (and wait for a few seconds) for further information about 'City Board of Education'. Please note the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR) is an administrator of the JET program, but it is not the direct employer of individual ALTs in the JET program.

Prefectural Board of Education (Ken Kyoiku iinkai)
City Board of Education
Other Municipal Board of Education (Shi or Cho or Son Kyoiku iinkai)
Commercial dispatch agent(s)
Individual school(s)
Other
....

What type of contract do you have with your dispatch company?
    Sub-contract system (Itaku Gyomu Keiyaku)
    Dispatch contract (Haken Keiyaku)
    I don't know.
    Other
....

As an ALT, are you working...?
    Full-time
    Part-time
    Casual
    Other
....

How long is your current contract?
    Shorter than 1 year
    1 year
    2 years
    3 years
    4 years or longer
    Other
....

How many times have you renewed your contract with the current employer?
    0 (never renewed my contract)
    1
    2
    3
    4
    5 or more

What is your approximate monthly income as ALT before tax?
    Less than 200,000 Yen
    200,000 Yen - 230,000 Yen
    230,001 Yen - 260,000 Yen
    260,001 Yen - 290,000 Yen
    290,001 Yen - 320,000 Yen
    320,001 Yen - 350,000 Yen
    350,001 Yen - 380,000 Yen
    380,001 Yen or over

What kind of other benefits do you receive in your job? Select all that apply. Hover your cursor over the terms (and wait for a few seconds) for further information about the Employees' Health Insurance; Employment Insurance; and Employee's Pension Insurance.

    Paid leave/vacation
    Paid sick leave
    Travel subsidies between your home country and Japan
    Other travel subsidies/allowance
    Accommodation subsidies
    Employees' Health Insurance (Kenko Hoken in Japanese)
    Employment insurance (Koyo Hoken in Japanese)
    Employee's Pension Insurance (Kosei Nenkin Hoken in Japanese)
    Other
....

Where is your 'base' at which you spend most of your work time while you are NOT teaching?
    An office in board of education
    One of the kindergartens at which I teach
    One of the elementary schools at which I teach
    One of the junior high schools at which I teach
    One of the senior high schools at which I teach
    An office in dispatch agent
    I do not have any base school or office
    Other
....

On average, how many schools do you teach per week?
    1+
    2*
    3*
    4*
    5 or more*

*Do you teach at schools at different levels (e.g., teaching at elementary school and junior high school and/or senior high school)?
    Yes, I am teaching at schools at different levels.**
    No, I am teaching at schools at a same level.+

+At which level do you teach?
    Kindergarten(s)
    Elementary School(s)
    Junior High School(s)
    Senior High School(s)

Do you teach at any kindergarten?

    Yes

    No

How many kindergartens do you teach per week?

    1

    2

    3

    4

    5 or more

Approximately how many hours do you work in class at kindergarten(s) per week?

    5 hours or less

    6 - 10 hours

    11 - 15 hours

    16 - 20 hours

    20 hours or more

What is the average size of your class at kindergarten(s)?

    10 students or less

    11 to 20 students

    21 to 30 students

    31 to 40 students

    41 or more

On average, what is the approximate proportion of students in your classes at kindergarten(s) who are preparing for entrance examination to the next higher level of education?

Less than 10%
11 - 30%
31 - 50%
51 - 80%
81% or more
I don't know.
Other
....

Do you team-teach with Japanese teacher(s) at kindergarten(s)?

Yes
No

On average, approximately how much time do you spend discussing your teaching and lessons with your team-teaching Japanese teacher(s) at kindergarten(s) per week?

Less than 1 hour
1 hour or longer and less than 2 hours
2 hours or longer and less than 3 hours
3 hours or longer and less than 4 hours
4 hours or more

On average, what is your assessment of English proficiency of Japanese teacher(s) with whom you team- teach at kindergarten(s)?

Beginner
Intermediate
Advanced
Near native speaker proficiency

On average, what is the approximate proportion of a lesson of which you take control while teaching at kindergarten(s), in contract to the proportion in which your team-teaching Japanese teacher(s) take initiatives?

10% or less
11 - 30%
31 - 50%
51 - 70%
71 - 90%
91 - 100%
Other
....

What are your roles at kindergarten(s)? Select all that apply.

To offer English conversation and pronunciation model/Talk to students.
To motivate, prompt and encourage students to speak English.
To communicate with students outside class.
To teach grammar/syntax.
To model, demonstrate, share, and inform authentic English culture.
To teach English based on the set textbooks.
To discipline students if necessary.
To assist Japanese teachers in lesson planning.
To assist Japanese teachers in communicative activities in class.
To help Japanese teachers with their English.
To promote creative/alternative teaching methods.
To conduct exercises and design games/activities.
To develop teaching materials and resources.
To plan lessons by myself.
To act as a main teacher, not as an assistant in class.
To participate in club activities.
To participate in cleaning activities.
To act as a human tape recorder.
Other

....

Do you teach at any elementary school?

Yes (*Note for readers: Respondents are directed to the same set of items about their experience at elementary school in online questionnaire*)

No*

*Do you teach at any junior high school?

Yes (*Note for readers: Respondents are directed to the same set of items about their experience at Junior high school in online questionnaire*)

No**

**Do you teach at any senior high school?

Yes (*Note for readers: Respondents are directed to the same set of items about their experience at Senior high school in online questionnaire*)

No (*Note for readers: Respondents are directed to the next section in online questionnaire*)

On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being 'not at all satisfied' and 7 being 'completely satisfied', how satisfied are you now with the following aspects of your job as an ALT in Japan?

The amount of teaching you are/were expected to do.

Not at all   Completely satisfied

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

The amount of administrative and clerical work you are/were expected to do

Not at all   Completely satisfied

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Your freedom to decide how to do your job

Not at all   Completely satisfied

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Your opportunities for professional learning

Not at all   Completely satisfied

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Your opportunities for career advancement

Not at all   Completely satisfied

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

The balance between your working time and your private life

Not at all   Completely satisfied

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Your salary

Not at all   Completely satisfied

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Feedback on your performance

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

The level of response that you receive/received from your students during lessons

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Student behaviour

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Your students' improvement in English

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

What you are/were accomplishing with your students

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

The number of staff available to your school

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

The school's physical resources (e.g. buildings, grounds)

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Educational resources (e.g. equipment, teaching materials)

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Your skills and knowledge to do the job as an Assistant Language Teacher

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Your working relationships with Japanese teacher(s) with whom you are/were team-teaching

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Your working relationships with your Principal

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Your working relationships with parents/guardians

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

The value society places on Assistant Language Teachers' work

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Your overall roles as an Assistant Language Teacher

Not at all   Completely satisfied

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Interest in follow-up interview

Would you be interested in participating in a 30 mins follow-up interview (online, telephone or face-to- face)?

    Yes

    No

Worked examples of coding in thematic analysis of the interview data

Theme	Code	Example of extracted data	Comment
Effect of Japanese	Establishing rapport with students	[T]he Japanese helped me in terms of...in getting through to the students on a more personal level (ALT5)	Use of Japanese to communicate and develop relationship with local students
	Efficient linguistic explanation/ instruction	[T]hey're working on a grammar point through a worksheet, and I go and check their answers, and they get a wrong answer, I could explain to them why it's this and not this. (ALT5)	Use of Japanese to explain linguistic concepts to local students more efficiently
	Personal reflection of use of learner first language	I kind of fell into the bad habit of using a lot of Japanese to explain things, like games and stuff, because it was just more efficient (ALT4)	Personal reflection of use of Japanese in class (for explaining linguistic matters to local students)
	Pressure from local teachers	[I]f I spoke a word of Japanese, I got evil eyes from the other end of the room (ALT13)	Negative response from local teachers against use of learners' first language in English class
	Effective planning for team-teaching	I was able to adequately explain my ideas for English classes and discuss those ideas with my supervising JTEs [Japanese Teachers of English]. (ALT21)	Use of Japanese to communicate with local teachers when planning for team-teaching lessons

Theme	Code	Example of extracted data	Comment
	Understanding local school practice	So I think compared to many jets, certainly compared to those who didn't learn as much, I think I had an understanding of how the school worked (ALT7)	ALTs using their ability in Japanese to understand and engage in work community at school
	Japanese as survival skills in local community	I think that was...I would say overall pretty critical for having a positive experience because for one thing in my town, you're not going to survive if you don't speak Japanese (ALT6)	ALTs using their ability in Japanese to engage in local community (outside school)
Frustration from underutilisation	Dead time	So during an eight hour work day, I'm only doing things for an hour and a half and the other six and a half hours I'm literally sitting at a desk with no tasks. (ALT6)	Teachers are not given any task (e.g., lesson preparation) outside lesson hours. Not enough English classes for teachers to engage/participate in.
	Doing nothing in team-teaching	[T]he only part of the role I don't find satisfying is when I'm in a when I'm in a team-teaching environment where I'm not an active part of the lesson itself (ALT2)	Lack of engagement during lessons.
	Human tape recorder	[O]ften I was the tape recorder, or just left to stand there and look foreign (ALT34)	Frustration at tape recorder role and lack of other engagement.

Theme	Code	Example of extracted data	Comment
	Frustration at local system	I was very frustrated with how inefficient the Japanese school and government system was/is (ALT24)	Negative perception against local school curriculum
	Frustration at local teachers' approach	I was extremely frustrated seeing ineffective classrooms full of students who are either sleeping or to tears for not understanding (ALT2)	Negative perception against local teachers' pedagogy
	Reference to alternative pedagogy	I suppose when you know which practices will have a positive outcome and which will not, it's very hard to maintain motivation in the face of poor pedagogy. (ALT14)	Teachers expressing their frustration with a specific reference to their skills and knowledge in alternative approach in language teaching

Appendix C

Linear model of predictors (educational backgrounds including TESOL-related qualification) of the change in satisfaction with team-teaching (95% bias correction and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, $N = 232$)

Predictor variables	b (CI low and high)	SE B	β	t	ρ
Constant	4.586 (4.252, 4.921)	0.170		27.013	.000
Qualification level Bachelor vs. Postgraduate	0.313 (-0.086, 0.712)	0.203	.112	1.545	.124
Completed an education degree or not	-0.338 (-0.902, 0.226)	0.286	-.110	-1.180	.239
Completed a humanities degree or not	-0.308 (-0.657, 0.040)	0.177	-.116	-1.742	.083
Completed a qualification that was accredited for local teaching or not	-0.421 (-0.971, 0.130)	0.279	-.130	-1.507	.133
Present work status	0.225 (-0.140, 0.590)	0.185	.085	1.215	.226
Held a TESOL related qualification or not	0.271 (-0.135, 0.676)	0.206	.100	1.315	.190

$R = 0.243$, $R^2 = 0.059$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.034$, $F (6, 225) = 2.362$, $\rho = .031*$.

Appendix D

Linear model of predictors (educational backgrounds including TESOL-related qualification) of change in satisfaction with students' progress (95% bias correction and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, $N = 232$)

Predictor variables	b (CI low and high)	SE B	β	t	ρ
Constant	4.391 (4.024, 4.758)	0.186		23.602	.000
Qualification level Bachelor vs. Postgraduate	0.390 (-0.048, 0.827)	0.222	.130	1.755	.081
Completed an education degree or not	-0.209 (-0.827, 0.409)	0.314	-.063	-0.666	.506
Completed a humanities degree or not	-0.300 (-0.682, 0.083)	0.194	-.105	-1.545	.124
Completed a qualification that was accredited for local teaching or not	-0.064 (-0.667, 0.539)	0.306	-.018	-0.209	.835
Present work status	-0.132 (-0.532, 0.268)	0.203	-.046	-0.650	.516
Held a TESOL related qualification or not	0.170 (-0.275, 0.614)	0.226	.058	0.752	.453

$R = 0.164$, $R^2 = 0.027$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.001$, $F (6, 225) = 1.031$, $\rho = 0.406$

Appendix E

Linear model of predictors (educational backgrounds including TESOL-related qualification) of change in satisfaction with resources (95% bias correction and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, $N = 232$)

Predictor variables	b (CI low and high)	SE B	β	t	ρ
Constant	5.151 (4.792, 5.510)	0.182		28.301	.000
Qualification level Bachelor vs. Postgraduate	-0.055 (-0.483, 0.373)	0.217	-.019	-0.252	.801
Completed an education degree or not	0.063 (-0.541, 0.668)	0.307	.020	0.206	.837
Completed a humanities degree or not	-0.099 (-0.473, 0.275)	0.190	-.036	-0.523	.602
Completed a qualification that was accredited for local teaching or not	0.156 (-0.434, 0.746)	0.299	.046	0.522	.602
Present work status	0.096 (-0.295, 0.487)	0.198	.035	0.483	.630
Held a TESOL related qualification or not	-0.158 (-0.593, 0.277)	0.221	-.056	-0.717	.474

$R = 0.081$, $R^2 = 0.007$, Adjusted $R^2 = -0.020$, $F (6, 225) = 0.248$, $\rho = 0.960$.

Appendix F

Model 5: Linear model of predictors (educational backgrounds) of change in satisfaction with students' progress (95% bias correction and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, $N = 232$)

Predictor variables	b	$SE\ B$	β	t	ρ
Constant	4.407 (4.047, 4.767)	0.183		24.130	.000
Qualification level Bachelor vs. Postgraduate	0.382 (-.0057, 0.821)	0.223	.127	1.717	.087
Completed an education degree or not	-0.210 (-0.837, 0.416)	0.318	-.064	-.661	.509
Completed a humanities degree or not	-0.299 (-0.682, 0.083)	0.194	-.105	-1.541	.125
Completed a qualification that was accredited for local teaching or not	-0.033 (-0.637, 0.572)	0.307	-.009	-.107	.915
Present work status	-0.128 (-0.529, 0.274)	0.204	-.045	-.628	.531
TESOL certified or not	0.175 (-0.317, 0.666)	0.249	.053	.701	.484

$R = 0.163$, $R^2 = 0.026$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.000$, $F (6, 225) = 1.018$, $\rho = 0.414$

Appendix G

Model 6: Linear model of predictors (educational backgrounds) of change in satisfaction with resources (95% bias correction and accelerated confidence interval reported in parentheses, $N = 232$)

Predictor variables	b (CI low and high)	SE B	β	t	ρ
Constant	5.108 (4.756, 5.460)	0.179		28.584	.000
Qualification level Bachelor vs. Postgraduate	-0.069 (-0.499, 0.360)	0.218	-.024	-.318	.751
Completed an education degree or not	-0.097 (-0.710, 0.516)	0.311	-.030	-.311	.756
Completed a humanities degree or not	-0.133 (-0.507, 0.242)	0.190	-.048	-.699	.485
Completed a qualification that was accredited for local teaching or not	0.158 (-0.433, 0.750)	0.300	.047	.527	.599
Present work status	0.124 (-0.269, 0.517)	0.199	.045	.623	.534
TESOL certified or not	0.138 (-0.343, 0.620)	0.244	.043	.567	.571

$R = 0.076$, $R^2 = 0.006$, Adjusted $R^2 = -0.021$, $F (6, 225) = 0.216$, $\rho = 0.971$

Appendix H

Model 9: Linear model of predictors (TESOL certifications variations) of change in

satisfaction with resources (95% bias correction and accelerated confidence interval

reported in parentheses, $n = 50$)

Predictor variables	b *(CI low and high)*	*SE B*	β	t	ρ
Constant	4.785 (0.963, 8.606)	1.888		2.535	.016
Qualification level	-0.415 (-1.536, 0.706)	0.554	-.138	-0.749	.459
Required study hours	-0.826 (-1.940, 0.289)	0.551	-.298	-1.500	.142
Requirement for learning a language other than English	-0.275 (-1.396, 0.845)	0.554	-.098	-0.497	.622
Number of units studied	0.722 (-0.359, 1.803)	0.534	.245	1.351	.185
Subject (teaching skills)	0.236 (-1.063, 1.535)	0.642	.066	0.367	.715
Subject (contextual knowledge)	0.171 (-1.011, 1.354)	0.584	.053	0.293	.771
Practicum duration in weeks	0.394 (-0.429, 1.216)	0.406	.233	0.969	.339
Institution type in practicum	-0.299 (-1.671, 1.073)	0.678	-.087	-0.441	.662
Learners' proficiency in practicum	-0.216 (-1.439, 1.008)	0.605	-.072	-0.356	.723
Class size in practicum	-0.356 (-1.675, 0.963)	0.652	-.095	-0.547	.588
Present work status	0.586 (-0.387, 1.558)	0.480	.209	1.219	.230

$R = 0.418$, $R^2 = 0.175$, Adjusted $R^2 = -0.064$, $F (11, 38) = 0.732$, $\rho = 0.701$