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Professional development in Japanese non-native English speaking teachers' identity and efficacy

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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN JAPANESE NON-NATIVE ENGLISH
SPEAKING TEACHERS' IDENTITY AND EFFICACY

by

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To my parents

ABSTRACT

This mixed methods study investigates how Japanese non-native English speaking teachers' (NNESTs) efficacy and identity are developed and differentiated from those of native English speaking teachers (NESTs). To explore NNESTs' efficacy, this study focuses on the contributing factors, such as student engagement, classroom management, instructional strategies, self-perceived English proficiency, their teaching and teacher education backgrounds, culture related to teaching, and so on. For the portion of teacher identity, this study analyzes four perspectives: their role identity, professional identity, teacher education and professional development, English proficiency. After the data were collected from Japanese NNESTs, they were compared and contrasted with their NESTs' counterparts. The primary goal of this study is to identify the characteristics of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity and investigate how their individual, educational, cultural, and other social factors influence their efficacy and identity development.

Forty six (46) Japanese NNESTs and one hundred and two (102) NESTs who were teaching in the junior high, high school, and college levels in Japan participated in a survey. Five Japanese NNESTs and six NESTs from the three types of grade levels were interviewed. Data analysis procedures comprised a statistical analysis of the survey data and a theme analysis of the interview data, and both data sets were integrated to discover the mixed method findings.

There were several major findings from this research. First, there was a positive correlation between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy, particularly efficacy for instructional strategies, and self-perceived English proficiency. Therefore, higher English proficiency can be a predictor of a higher level of overall teacher efficacy and efficacy for

instructional strategies. Second, although Japanese NNESTs' efficacy for student

engagement was lower than efficacy for classroom management and instructional

strategies, they demonstrated various strategies for increasing their students' motivation.

Third, their Japanese use in instruction influenced their teacher identity, and being a

language model and a behavioral role model was reflected on their Japanese NNESTs'

identity. Finally, college NESTs showed significantly higher teacher efficacy compared

to different groups. Both Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy and identity were

formed by their previous teaching experiences, various roles as teachers, perceptions of

Japanese educational system, culture, and students. The conclusion includes suggestions

and implications for administrators, teacher educators, and Japanese NNESTs.

PUBLIC ABSTRACT

Non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) represent more than 80% of English teachers worldwide, leading to a critical comparison with native English speaking teachers (NESTs) in the English as a Foreign Language classroom. Some scholars found that NESTs believe they have strong linguistic skills and pedagogical weaknesses, whereas NNESTs have a stronger pedagogy but weaker linguistic knowledge. Furthermore, NNESTs can have low confidence in teaching practices and self-perceived language needs. Thus, understanding NNESTs' ideas of their capability can improve pedagogical quality and ultimately reduce the stereotypes and obstacles they regularly face. Additionally, few studies on NNESTs focus specifically on their professional identity, and studies connecting Japanese NNESTs' identity and efficacy are nonexistent.

This mixed methods study relied on data that included a survey and interviews from Japanese NNESTs and NESTs. This study investigates the methods of motivating students, classroom management, and instruction during the class, perceptions of their English proficiency, experience of teacher preparation, and the influence of culture in teaching. Several major findings were discovered. First, there was a relationship between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and self-perceived English proficiency. Although Japanese NNESTs' self-evaluated their capability of motivating students as low, they had various strategies for motivating them. Secondly, NNESTs believe that they are a language model for their students. Finally, NESTs teaching at a college level self-perceived their capability of teaching activities as highest. Consequently, the developmental processes

associated with each type of teacher's personal and professional experiences are situated

in their social, cultural, and educational settings.

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CHAPTER I   INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

According to Tapia (2010), nearly a billion people worldwide speak English, and those who speak it as a second or foreign language are more in number than native English speakers. Because non-native English speakers outnumber the English speakers from Australia, Canada, Britain, United States, and New Zealand combined, "their geographical distribution, numerical strength, and varied users of English, the non-native users have made English, as it were, a window on the world" (Kachru, 1986, p. 20). Thus, it is hardly surprising that the number of non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) has grown significantly (Maum, 2002). Braine (2010) also estimated "about 80% of the English teachers worldwide are nonnative speakers (NNS) of the language" (p. X).

The number of NNESTs has been growing, leading to increasing controversies between native and non-native speaking English teachers, especially since the 1980s (Smith et al., 2007). For example, Park (2012) stated that NNESTs are discouraged because of their lack of English proficiency. According to Braine (2010), NNESTs' inferiority to NESTs in English proficiency hinders their teaching, and their accent may be associated with their non-native status and their teacher identity. Also, as Varghese et al. (2005) mentioned, the status of NNESTs has been compared critically with native English speaking teachers (NESTs). For the sake of teacher education and the professional development of NNESTs, it is necessary to understand the dichotomy between NNESTs and NESTs, and its effect on the former's teacher identity and efficacy.

As many researchers indicate, the most predominant finding about NNESTs is that they have less power in teaching practices and lower status, particularly when applying for a teaching position, because of their English proficiency, lack of cultural knowledge (Lazaraton, 2003), lack of vocabulary knowledge, and confidence in teaching other languages (Kamhi-Stein, 2000). Liu (1999) investigated how NNESTs labeled themselves in his interviews. He discovered that NNESTs considered various dimensions related to NNESTs' status. These dimensions included their English competency, cultural backgrounds, English policy in their native countries, and their own acceptance of being NNESTs. These factors reveal the power structure between NNESTs and NESTs, which indicates the problem of dichotomizing the two types of teachers. In addition to teachers' own perceptions, Hertel and Sunderman's (2009) study researched students' perceptions of foreign language teachers and discovered that students preferred native speaking language teachers because of their pronunciation, cultural knowledge, and vocabulary.

Another important feature of NNESTs in the literature is their English proficiency by comparing to NESTs. There are some studies investigating issues between NNESTs' self-perceived English proficiency and confidence in teaching English. Ma (2012) investigated how NNESTs in Hong Kong perceived both NNESTs and NESTs' strengths and weaknesses. In her mixed methods study, she collected data from 53 questionnaires and three interviews from NNESTs in Hong Kong. She found that her subjects perceived NESTs as having strong linguistic skills but pedagogical weaknesses; whereas NNESTs perceived themselves to have a stronger pedagogy but weak linguistic knowledge. Tang (1997) also conducted one of the first studies of NNESTs' self-perceptions. Her study

surveyed 47 NNESTs who were taking a retraining program in Hong Kong. According to her findings, all of the 47 NNESTs in her study believed that NESTs are superior in speaking, pronunciation, listening, vocabulary, and reading. In contrast, NNESTs perceived themselves to have more of an advantage due to a shared first language and a past English learning experience.

Accent is also a critical issue between NNESTs and NESTs. Jenkins (2005) interviewed eight NNESTs from Italy, Japan, Malaysia, Poland, and Spain about their attitudes and identifications toward native and non-native English accents. Their perceptions of their own English pronunciation varied. Some teachers perceived their pronunciation more positively or negatively; at the same time, a couple of teachers associated their identity with their English pronunciation. They wished to sound not like native speakers of English but as they did.

Although the literature has stated that NNESTs are less powerful and lower status compared to NESTs, native speaking language teachers did not necessarily perceive themselves as being superior in teaching grammar. Thus, the stereotypical image of NNESTs and NESTs does not apply to how each teacher characterizes their skill set; however, many educators and researchers might recognize the dichotomy between these two types of teachers because of their own and others' perceptions explained above. The issues between NESTs and NNESTs are not simple, so they cannot be clearly divided based on the difference in skill sets.

NNESTs are likely to underestimate their own abilities, while perceiving their counterparts to have advantages that they do not enjoy because of their non-native status. However, because of their own English learning experience and their shared culture with

their students, NNESTs have stronger empathy toward their students (Braine, 2010). Furthermore, in her analysis of literature, Kamhi-Stein (2000) recognized concerns that NNESTs have the need to improve. She explained that because NNESTs have low confidence in teaching practices and self-perceived language needs, they believe that others see them as unqualified English teachers and their status as NNESTs is weakened. She also insisted that because of their lack of visibility in the professional ESL/EFL educational setting, their experiences are not reflected in publications or in the experiences of their supervisors. Because of the negative perceptions of NNESTs cultural background, linguistic proficiency, confidence, and ethnicity, these influence their fear of the hiring process. Kamhi-Stein (2000) concluded that these NNESTs' concerns about their language proficiency and other sociological factors influence their self-perceptions as English teachers.

Much of the research stated above has looked at NNESTs and NESTs from a student's or teacher's perspective. After learning about both types of teachers, the current study aims to investigate, specifically, how NNESTs' efficacy and identities are developed while gaining their teaching experience in an EFL setting. This research examines Japanese NNESTs' teacher efficacy and identity development teaching in Japanese educational settings compared to NESTs. Thus, the purpose of this investigation is to focus on NNESTs' professional development. In other words, this research contextualizes NNESTs' positions, how both types of teachers construct their teacher efficacy and identity, what factors influence the development, and whether both types of teachers have similar and distinctive characteristics. Furthermore, as a NNEST myself, this present study focuses on exploring how one becomes a confident language teacher

while making the most of NNEST's abilities and how their teacher efficacy and professional identity development influences each other. If NNESTs develop valuable teacher efficacy and identity, they will be able to accurately self-evaluate themselves; thus, eventually understanding their teacher efficacy and identity helps NNESTs become more competent teachers. In addition to their teacher efficacy development, as Varghese et al. (2005) described, understanding their teacher identity professionally, culturally, politically, and personally disentangles their ability to improve themselves as English teachers.

Theoretical Framework

Bandura's Concepts of Self-Efficacy and Teacher Efficacy

Bandura's self-efficacy beliefs are an important concept that influences people's accomplishment in various ways (Bandura, 1994). Bandura (1994) described perceived self-efficacy as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives" (p. 71). He also stated four effective ways of building self-efficacy: success, vicarious experiences provided by social models, social persuasion, and reduction of people's stress reactions, alteration of negative emotional proclivities, and misinterpretations of physical states (Bandura, 1994). Any success can enhance beliefs in individual practices, whereas failures decrease self-efficacy before it is established concretely. In addition, observing others' successes can enhance people's beliefs that they too can succeed in the same activities; however, others' failures can also diminish people's self-efficacy. Social persuasion means that people can be persuaded to believe that they have the potential to be successful. Interestingly, those who obtain "unrealistic boosts in efficacy" might give

up quickly when they face difficulties (Bandura, 1994). Lastly, emotional factors play a significant role in self-efficacy. For example, people who have a high sense of self-efficacy tend to see their own position with a positive attitude to successfully facilitate their own performance. However, those who have self-doubt are likely to debilitate their performance.

As self-efficacy considered domain specific, teacher efficacy limits it in the educational context to teachers' beliefs of their capability to organize and implement a series of actions in order to accomplish a particular teaching task (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Therefore, self-efficacy can be applied to any kind of activities related to individuals' beliefs that lead to the capability of performing at a certain level, whereas teacher efficacy limits their beliefs within their performance of a specific teaching task. Teacher efficacy is important because of its cyclical nature. Greater efficacy will bring more positive effort and perseverance, which will lead to higher performance. However, the reverse is true, too. In other words, lower teacher efficacy will result in lower levels of teaching performance (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Hence, as Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) explain, teacher efficacy is reflected in teaching performance. If teachers can accomplish teaching tasks successfully, the cyclical process will lead to the development of higher efficacy. Furthermore, teachers' efficacy can be enhanced by several factors, such as persistence and motivation (Zimmerman, 1995), goal settings and teaching strategies (Hoy & Hoy, 2000), commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992), acceptance of new pedagogical strategies (Midgley et al, 1989), and outstanding planning and organization (Allinder, 1994). Interestingly, Chacón (2005) found that teachers' self-efficacy and instructional strategies were positively correlated, so teachers who had

higher self-efficacy tended to use both communicative-oriented and grammar-oriented teaching approaches. In addition, teachers' self-reported English proficiency led to their higher self-efficacy for motivating students and designing various instructional strategies (Chacón, 2005). Examining teachers' self-efficacy in the quantitative phase of this research reveals their attitudes in student engagement, classroom management, and instruction. In addition to the quantitative results, qualitative findings will provide the processes of and approaches to their teaching related activities.

Teacher Identity

Identity is defined as a way to see "self" and one's "self-concept" (Mead, 1934) by including knowledge, beliefs, disposition, interests, and orientation towards work and change (Spillane, 2000). According to Knowles (1992) and Nias (1989), exploring teacher identity has developed into a research area of its own. Teachers encounter various factors, such as expectations of students and peers, their own teaching skills, social context, and interactions with others, all of which influence the development of their identity (Kwo, 2010). According to Woods and Carlyle (2002), the wider the gap between a teacher's social and personal identities, the less developed is their self-concept. Hence, "self-concept is an accommodation of the self and social identity" (Kwo, 2010, p. 47). Because developing teacher identity is a dynamic process, teachers might have divided identities to separate their professional ones from their social ones.

There are two theories of identity that relate to this study. First, social identity theory, based on social categories, is connected to power and status. This concept indicates that individuals form their identity and understand themselves from the society to which they belong (Hogg & Abrams, 1998). It has been argued that NESTs have

greater power and better status than NNESTs because of the characteristics of native speakers (Varghese et al., 2005), such as language proficiency and cultural knowledge. Second, Beijaard et al. (2004) defined teachers' professional identity as a combination of person and context, which is a dynamic and complex process based on self-image and teacher roles (Volkmann and Anderson, 1998). Because of the differences between NNESTs and NESTs, teachers' roles can vary from different types of teachers and individual teachers. Gaudelli (1999) found that teacher identity influenced classroom practice, course materials, and the emphases on particular topics. In Varghese et al.'s (2005) study, the researchers discovered NNESTs were influenced by their surrounding people while staying in the U.S. (and not in their home country), which also affected their self-perception and self-confidence.

Secondly, another major identity theory is teachers' professional identity that is defined in various ways in teacher education. In some research, the concept of professional identity is "related to teachers' concepts or images of self" (e.g., Knowles, 1992; Nias, 1989). In contrast, there are some studies that emphasize "teachers' roles" (e.g., Goodson & Cole, 1994, Volkmann & Anderson, 1998) and significant ideas about reflection and evaluation in order to develop a professional identity (e.g., Cooper & Olson, 1996; Kerby, 1991). Furthermore, teachers' professional identities in education are not only influenced by other people and society's expectations and understanding, but also "their experiences in practice and their personal backgrounds" (Tickle, 2000). Since there are multiple ways to define teachers' professional identity, it is critical to explore what teachers' professional identity means, specifically in the context of this study. Thus,

through a qualitative phase in this study, I have investigated and defined teachers'

professional identity.

Significance of the Study

According to Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), teacher efficacy is a type of self-

efficacy that teachers think they are capable of doing in a certain activity, and it is a

cognitive process of beliefs. They stated that teacher efficacy is a combination of a

teacher's perception of his/her teaching capabilities and the ability to successfully

implement teaching tasks. Therefore, the level of teacher efficacy beliefs influences their

performance in teaching (Bouffard-Bouchard et al., 1991), and these beliefs shape the

levels of their effort, persistence, resilience, and endurance for stress (Bandura, 1997).

Hence, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) argued that teacher efficacy positively affects

students' performance and teachers' persistence in difficult situations. Consequently,

building appropriate teacher efficacy is a possible way for improving NNESTs'

confidence, exploring how they perceive themselves, and understanding how students

view their teaching abilities in the light of a more confident style. Therefore, it is

necessary for NNESTs to develop teacher efficacy, so that they can become more

competent teachers.

In this study, teacher identity is another concept used to investigate the process of

NNESTs' professional development. As multiple researchers addressed (Kerby, 1991;

Coldron and Smith, 1999; Dillabough, 1999), teachers' professional identity is a

constantly changing process of interpreting and reinterpreting experiences. According to

Velez-Rendon (2010), numerous factors, such as teachers' educational and personal

backgrounds, experiences facing struggles, cooperation with other teachers, and teacher

preparation, construct their teacher identity. Therefore, it is important to learn NNESTs' identity formation by investigating their background components. Furthermore, Duff and Uchida (1997) stated there is little research on language teacher identity, particularly for NNESTs' identity development (Johnson, 2001), even though the dichotomy between NNESTs and NESTs has been actively debated.

Teachers' roles are related to their professional identity (Goodson & Cole, 1994; Volkmann & Anderson, 1998) as well. Holland et al. (1998) described that teachers develop particular roles through social interactions, which forms their roles as teachers in a socially and culturally meaningful context. As Farrel (2011) argued, it is necessary to improve language teachers' professional role identity because it forms many factors related to teaching, such as beliefs, values, teaching philosophy, and practices that influence the teacher in and out of the classroom. Hence, it is critical to learn how NNESTs build their teacher identity and how they are influenced by their teacher identity formation.

The present study focuses on the setting of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) programs in secondary and post-secondary institutions in Japan. Although there are approximately 88,000 English teachers from secondary school to the university level in Japan (MEXT, 2007), there are only a few studies about NNESTs' teacher efficacy (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008) and Japanese English teachers' identity (Nagatomo, 2012). Specifically, contrasting two types of teachers, this study provides extensive perspectives of Japanese NNESTs. Moreover, cultural traits and cultural norms should be considered an element of teacher efficacy and identity development. Nagatomo (2012) pointed to the difficulty in acquiring English for the Japanese because of their cultural traits, such as

concepts of saving face, group mentality, shyness, and nervousness. According to her, the weight given to university entrance examinations, lack of emphasis on improving communication skills, and grammar-translation instruction result in impoverished English language proficiency among Japanese NNESTs. Adding on these issues by Nagatomo (2012), sociocultural factors can construct part of Japanese teachers' efficacy and identity development.

Because studies of teacher efficacy in a Japanese educational context are rare, this study will be useful in investigating how their teacher efficacy develops and how it relates to teacher identity, specifically in a Japanese teaching context. Nagatomo (2012) argued that Japanese English teachers consider themselves as non-native English speakers who have struggled with English in the past, just as their students currently do. However, they tend to eagerly encourage their students by presenting themselves as language acquisition models, so that their students can envisage brighter futures (Nagatomo, 2012). Despite this strength of reflecting themselves on students, it might not necessarily lead to increasing their confidence and competence in teaching. Lack of teacher efficacy can also reduce their lower performance in teaching, including producing less motivation for students' learning (Zakeri & Alavi, 2011) and less concentration on academic activities (Chacón, 2005). Thus, it is necessary to develop a positive process of building both teacher efficacy and identity. Consequently, exploring Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity development in teaching will illuminate self-perceptions of their professional development more deeply.

It is important to know the factors that can improve and hinder Japanese NNESTs' teaching from the perspectives of teacher efficacy and identity. It is necessary

to train them knowing what they need to improve in order to be supported, especially when they are developing their teacher efficacy and identity. This research will provide a process of how Japanese NNESTs evaluate themselves as English teachers and how teacher educators and educational environments can support NNESTs by building their confidence in utilizing their second language. In order to understand how NNESTs build confidence in teaching English, this study has explored how the development of their teacher efficacy and identity is facilitated or hampered based on their teaching everyday activities, self-perceived English proficiency, relationships with students, teacher training and study abroad experience, and cultural backgrounds.

Purpose Statement

The difference between NNESTs and NESTs has been recognized and analyzed based on strengths and weaknesses both from teachers' and students' perspectives. Although research on teacher identity has been popular, studies specifically on NNEST professional identity are few, and the research on connecting Japanese NNESTs' identity and efficacy is nonexistent. In order to address this gap in the literature, this study will examine the processes of how NNESTs develop their teacher efficacy and identity as foreign language teachers and how they can enhance both their pedagogical skills and self-assurance.

Research in the area of teacher efficacy, identity, and beliefs indicates that it is important to study the specific background factors of the teachers. Therefore, to facilitate the improvement of Japanese NNESTs' psychological foundations as teachers, this study examines their background factors including: English learning backgrounds under the Japanese educational system, training experience, exposure to the target language and

culture, experience through teaching in educational settings and involvement in professional organizations, life and personal experience other than teaching, beliefs about pedagogy, and teaching philosophy. Through studying these elements, this research explores how the psychological development of their teacher efficacy and identity relates to each other and what differences can be observed between NNESTs and NESTs. Consequently, this research will provide a meaningful guide for teacher trainers and aid in-service NNESTs to become more competent teachers.

Research Questions

Based on the previously stated purposes and theoretical frameworks, these three research questions are proposed.

1. What is the nature of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and the effect of background characteristics on this efficacy?

Employing the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001), three subscales in the TSES will be investigated: efficacy for instructional strategies (Factor 1), classroom management (Factor 2), and student engagement (Factor 3). First, Factor 1 measures to what extent teachers can perform well in their classroom teaching activities. Second, Factor 2 assesses to what extent they are capable of guiding their students' behavior in the classroom. Finally, Factor 3 gauges how much teachers can enhance their students' motivation and learning development. The TSES includes a total of 24 Likert-scale questions.

In addition to scrutinizing their psychological development based on their educational backgrounds under the Japanese school system, teacher training experience, contact with English language and culture, influence from outside resources, and their

English proficiency, Japanese NNESTs' efficacy will be quantitatively analyzed based on the TSES. This research will investigate how these factors construct teacher efficacy, and I am particularly interested in whether there are some specific characteristics that Japanese NNESTs possess because of Japanese societal conventions. This can be best assessed through qualitative study.

2. What is the *relationship* between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and professional identity, and how are they developed?

This research question asks whether Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity have positive or negative correlations, and moreover, this question is intended to focus on how these two psychological elements are related to other factors. Therefore, the analysis will examine each teacher's developmental processes and tendencies of their teacher identity and efficacy through the individual interview data and a larger group of survey data.

Teacher training and study abroad experience might greatly affect their strong efficacy; therefore, my method takes into account teacher training experiences and seeks to analyze the consequences of such training in Japanese NNESTs' pedagogy and professional development. Furthermore, each teacher has her own beliefs and philosophy in teaching that are constructed based on their language teaching and learning backgrounds and past experiences. Japanese NNESTs also may be concerned with their accents and knowledge of the target culture, which may, in turn, hinder their confidence in teaching English. NNESTs' accent influences their identity and status as English teachers. While recording Japanese NNESTs' self-perceptions of their own pronunciation, I will analyze how they perceive their own accents and whether their

perceptions affect their teaching and identity development. Finally, their cultural background as Japanese teachers influences their teaching. Moreover, Japanese NNESTs are expected to teach the target culture in the language classroom despite the fact that they are outside of the English speaking culture. Hence, this study focuses on investigating how the Japanese culture affects their teaching of English. For example, I am interested in studying whether Japanese culture influences teachers' identity, efficacy, the relationship between them and their students, and their work ethic. This research question will include both the qualitative and quantitative portions of the study.

3. What are the differences between NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy and identity development?

This mixed methods research question will yield comparative perspectives between the characteristics of NNESTs and NESTs' teacher efficacy and identity development. This research question allows me to examine whether there are some distinct and similar attributes when synthesizing two different groups of teachers in qualitative and quantitative phases. For example, this part of the study will reveal how both types of teachers perceive their teacher training experiences, educational backgrounds in their home countries, their own cultural backgrounds, pedagogical beliefs, and insights on how their accents affect their teacher identity and pedagogy. Focusing on the development of teacher efficacy and identity, I will compare findings between NNESTs and NESTs based on how each teacher's background influences these psychological elements. Eventually, the comparison will be utilized to understand how NNESTs situate themselves based on their past experiences.

Limitations of the Study

The present study focuses on Japanese NNESTs in a Japanese school setting. The results may not necessarily transfer to all NNESTs in the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) setting, specifically, in countries where English is used as a primary medium of instruction, such as Singapore and India. English teachers in those countries may possess different perspectives on their educational backgrounds and exposure to English. However, this study may be adapted to other EFL settings with similar cultural backgrounds, e.g. Korea, China, and Taiwan. With respect to teacher identity, this research will be limited to Japanese NNESTs' professional identity as teachers, even though their identities as English teachers certainly extend beyond their time within schools.

Although this research will include participants who have a range of teaching experiences, it also might not apply to all the English teaching population in Japan due to individual differences. In addition, this is not a longitudinal study; therefore, the findings are based on the data provided by the participants at the time of the research. No follow-up contact was conducted.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the purpose of this present study is to understand how Japanese NNESTs develop their efficacy and identity. Although researchers have investigated the differences between NNESTs and NESTs from the perceptions of students and NNESTs themselves, almost no studies exist that investigate the relationship between NNESTs' teacher efficacy and identity and the comparison with their NESTs' counterpart. This mixed methods research addresses the professional development processes of Japanese

NNESTs compared to NESTs in Japan, focusing on teacher efficacy, teacher identity,

training and educational backgrounds, previous life experiences, teaching experiences,

pedagogical beliefs, issues of accents, and influence from societal and cultural factors.

Consequently, understanding NNESTs' ideas of their capability can improve pedagogical

quality and ultimately reduce the stereotypes and obstacles they might regularly face.

CHAPTER II   LITERATURE REVIEW

In chapter I, I briefly presented an overview of my research and theoretical frameworks. Chapter II will present a detailed literature review of four main topics: efficacy beliefs and teacher efficacy, NNESTs' efficacy, social identity theory and teacher identity, and NNESTs' identity. Specifically, I will emphasize how teacher efficacy and identity influence teachers' professional development. Examining structures of self-efficacy beliefs and teacher efficacy and introducing social identity theory and group membership will highlight key psychological elements in becoming a competent teacher. The chapter will end with a review of research that addresses concepts also related to the setting and topic of this study, including issues of NNESTs' accent weakening their position due to their own and students' perceptions, challenges to and possibilities of teaching culture in EFL settings, NNESTs' interculturality, and development of confidence through teacher education and collaborative teaching.

Efficacy Beliefs and Teacher Efficacy

According to Bandura (1995), "Efficacy beliefs influence how people think, feel, motivate themselves, and act" (p. 2). In the educational environment, Bandura (1995) insisted that teachers' efficacy beliefs affect both their general educational orientations and specific instructional activities. Additionally, Ashton and Webb (1986) asserted that teachers' efficacy beliefs are a predictor of the academic success of their students. This section includes a discussion of overarching self-efficacy and specific teacher efficacy theories.

Bandura's Concepts of Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1994) described perceived self-efficacy as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives" (p. 71). He also stated four effective ways of building self-efficacy: success, vicarious experiences provided by social models, social persuasion, and reduction of people's stress reactions, alteration of negative emotional proclivities and misinterpretations of physical states (Bandura, 1994). Any success can enhance beliefs in individual practices, whereas failures decrease self-efficacy before it is concretely established. In addition, observing others' successes can enhance people's beliefs that they too can succeed in the same activities; however, others' failures can also diminish people's self-efficacy. Social persuasion means that people believe that they have the potential to be successful by being persuaded into believing that they can be successful. Interestingly, those who obtain "unrealistic boosts in efficacy" might give up quickly when they face difficulties (Bandura, 1994, p. 74). Lastly, emotional factors play significant roles in self-efficacy. For example, people who have a high sense of self-efficacy tend to see their own position with a positive attitude to successfully facilitate their own performance. However, those who have self-doubt are likely to negatively impact their performance.

Strong self-efficacy improves human accomplishment and maintains personal commitment to complete tasks (Bandura, 1994). According to Bandura (1994), there are four psychological processes in the efficacy-activated process: cognitive processes, motivational processes, affective processes, and selection processes. In the cognitive processes, purposive goal setting drives people, and those who have stronger self-efficacy

set higher goals. Motivation plays a significant role in driving people to reach their goals and believing in themselves. In addition, it is important that they set goals and plan the steps to reach the goals beforehand in order to accomplish those goals. Affective processes convey that people's beliefs are affected by emotional factors, such as anxiety and stress, specifically in difficult situations. In the selection processes, beliefs in efficacy can vary from what activities people choose to do. For example, the more engagement people have in their interests, the better they prepare to pursue success. Based on these four efficacy-activated processes, people can enhance their self-efficacy by self-training to pursue their goals. Hence, teachers can also use these processes to develop not only their self-efficacy, but also their professional identity.

Key Aspects of Efficacy

Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy as individual beliefs of capability for actions that relates to cognitive, behavioral, and social skills to accomplish various purposes. Success is an outcome of persistent trial and progress after attempting alternative strategies and behaviors. Thus, people who possess strong self-doubt easily give up this generative process if they fail to reach initial effort. Each individual has varieties in cognitive, behavioral, and social skills and the use of them under diverse conditions. Hence, although people have similar skills, they perform differently depending on the occasion. They may perform well, average, or poorly based on the situation. Collins (1982) researched children who have high and low perceived self-efficacy relating to math. At each level the group of children who were efficacious adjusted their strategies for solving problems, worked more accurately, and showed a more positive attitude for

learning math. Consequently, self-efficacy greatly influences students' performance

which operates underlying skills partially and independently.

According to Bandura (1977), people constantly make decisions in their daily

lives, which involves choices of activities and social backgrounds that are made based on

the judgment of efficacy. Individuals try not to exceed their capabilities of tasks and

situations, and they engage in activities which they judge themselves to be capable of

dealing with. Bandura (1986) also explained how this choice process is associated with

personal development, in which the positive engagement with appropriate efficacy plays

a part in the improvement of competencies. However, perceived ineffective efficacy leads

people to hinder their improvement of activities and engagement in environments for

their growth, and retards their positive change. Therefore, an accurate assessment of their

own efficacy builds successful perceptions of their own capability. People who

overestimate their own capabilities struggle with failures due to their overwhelming

conditions, whereas people who underestimate their own capabilities limit themselves

without cultivating potential and experiencing opportunities for growth. Hence, the most

functional efficacy judgments are those that provide slightly higher tasks to individuals

that are capable performing the task. Proper self-evaluation of efficacy sets realistic

challenges and goals for personal development.

In addition to choice process, Bandura (1986) described that persistence is another

important effect of self-efficacy. There are strong correlations between self-efficacy and

persistence towards completing activities, whereas self-doubt hinders effort and promotes

giving up. Thus, knowledge and competency attained by perseverant effort encourages

achievement. In contrast, although self-doubt produces a stimulus for learning, it hampers

previously gained skills. Hence, "people who see themselves as efficacious set themselves challenges that enlist their interest and involvement in activities" (p. 395) by devoting effort and a positive attitude for success. People with high self-efficacy perform, feel, and think differently from those who possess low self-efficacy, and highly efficacious people are responsible for their future rather than just anticipating it.

Teacher Efficacy

While self-efficacy includes the entire individual self, in this study, teacher efficacy is defined as teachers' beliefs in their capability to organize and implement a series of actions in order to accomplish a particular teaching task (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), which is limited to the educational context. Therefore, self-efficacy can be applied to any kind of activities related to individuals' beliefs that lead to the capability of performing at a certain level. However, teacher efficacy limits their beliefs within their performance of a specific teaching task. According to Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), self-perception of teaching competence and beliefs in a specific teaching situation contributes to teacher efficacy and outcomes from efficacy beliefs.

Components of Teacher Efficacy

While seeking valid instruments to measure teacher efficacy, past researchers attempted to discover and develop factors of teacher efficacy. Gibson and Dembo (1984) conducted factor analysis on two dimensions, such as "Personal Teaching Efficacy" and "Teaching Efficacy." They defined personal teaching efficacy as teachers' beliefs that they possess their abilities and skills leading to student learning, which reflects Bandura's concept of self-efficacy. In contrast, teaching efficacy is teachers' beliefs about their abilities and skills that are considered limited due to the circumstances surrounding

students , such as family backgrounds, parents, and home environments. Therefore, "this dimension reflects the teacher's belief about the general relationship between teaching and learning" (p. 574). To sum up, personal teaching efficacy is defined as teachers' perceptions of their competency for teaching, whereas general teaching efficacy refers to their influence on students' environments outside of school and to teachers' effort to improve student performance. Personal Teaching Efficacy is also a belief of influence on students' performance, motivation, and external influences that are an expected outcome of how much they can anticipate to accomplish from their teaching.

One important characteristic in teacher efficacy is its cyclical nature. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) argued that greater efficacy for teachers will bring more positive effort and perseverance, which will lead to higher performance; however, the reverse is true, as well. As they mentioned, lower teacher efficacy will result in lower levels of teaching performance. Hence, according to Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), teachers' sense of efficacy is reflected in their teaching performance. If teachers can accomplish teaching tasks successfully, the process will lead to developing their efficacy beliefs; which in turn will foster more successful teaching tasks.
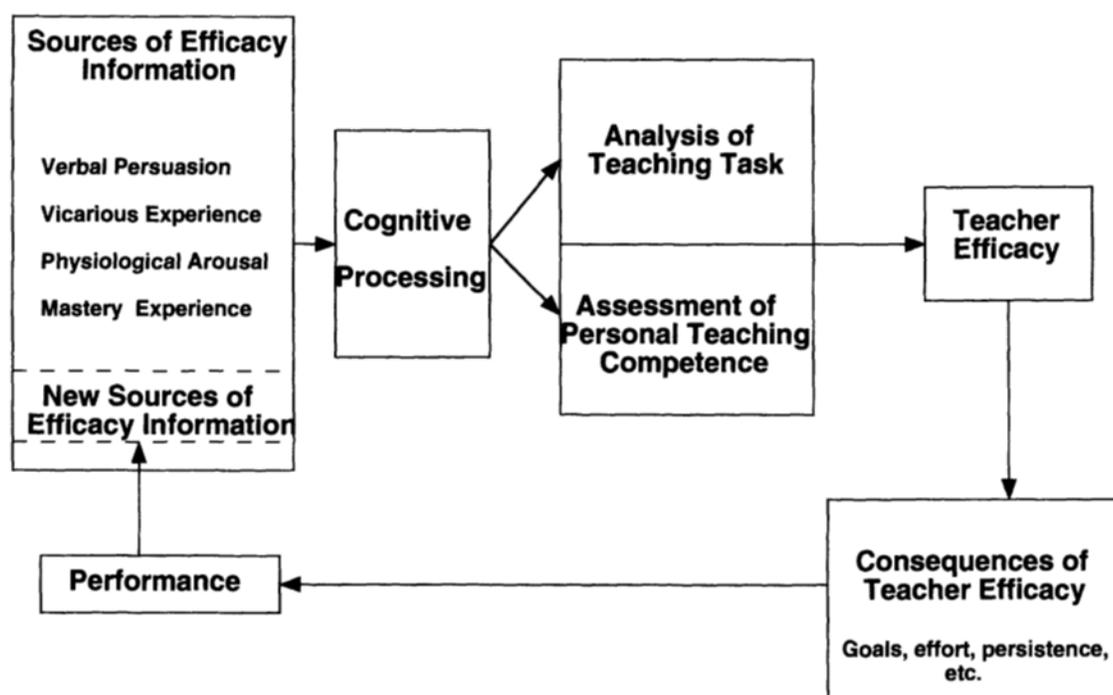
Figure 2.1. The cyclical nature of teacher efficacy

Teacher efficacy includes four significant sources. Bandura (1986, 1997)

recognized four sources of efficacy: verbal persuasion, vicarious experience,

physiological and emotional arousal, and mastery experience. Based on Bandura's four

sources of efficacy, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) contextualized these sources in

teaching. First, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) explained that verbal persuasion provides

encouragement and feedback that improves teaching practices. For example, professional

development workshops contribute to information about teaching tasks, which allows

teachers to gain skills in pedagogy. Feedback is another form of verbal persuasion, which

can enhance or reduce their personal teaching competence. Second, in teaching,

observing and contacting with other teachers and learning from professional literature,

teachers gain vicarious experiences. Watching successful teacher models has an effect on

teaching performance. In contrast, observing others' failures decreases efficacy beliefs

and whether a task is feasible or not. Third, physiological and emotional arousal influences teaching performance positively and negatively. While appropriate levels of arousal enhance teachers' performance by focusing on teaching practices, high levels of arousal diminish their capabilities and skills. Finally, mastery experience contributes to promoting competent performance in the future. Specifically, accomplishing difficult tasks reinforces efficacy beliefs. In a teaching context, "teachers gain information about how their strengths and weaknesses play out in managing, instructing, and evaluating a group of students" (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 229). Therefore, while building positive experiences in teaching practices, it is important for teachers to assess their capabilities of teaching.

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) explained the importance of how the four sources are interpreted. For example, cognitive processing determines how much the four sources of efficacy information are reflected on, and "how they will influence the analysis of the teaching task and the assessment of personal teaching competence" (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 230). Based on making judgments regarding the four sources and limitations in a particular teaching context, teachers analyze the task and self-assess their teaching competence. In the first step, it is necessary for teachers to "assess what will be required of them in the anticipated teaching situation" (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 231). This analysis leads to an understanding of the expected difficulty and success that these teachers may face in a teaching context. The analysis of the teaching task is similar to general teaching efficacy. The latter means that individuals judge whether their strategies and capabilities are appropriate for their teaching. These beliefs about teaching tasks in a particular teaching context and self-assessment of teaching competence contributes to

forming teacher efficacy and influences their teaching performances. Hence, "when the task is seen as routine, one that has been handled successfully many times, there is little active analysis of the task, and efficacy is based on memories of how well the task has been handled in the past" (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 234). In contrast, novice or inexperienced teachers depend more on their analysis of tasks and vicarious experience. Bandura (1977) also insisted that beliefs in analysis of task and assessment of teaching competence are not likely to change without compelling evidence or reevaluation. Therefore, it is important to help those teachers develop their teacher efficacy early in their career.

Furthermore, teachers' efficacy can be enhanced by several factors, such as persistence and motivation (Zimmerman, 1995), goal setting and teaching strategies (Hoy & Hoy, 2000), commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992), acceptance of new pedagogical strategies (Midgley et al., 1989), outstanding planning and organization (Allinder, 1994), classroom management behavior (Giallo & Little, 2003), responsibility for students' learning (Darling-Hammond et al., 2002), trust and openness (Goddard et al., 2004), and job satisfaction (Caprara et al., 2006). Conversely, lower teacher efficacy will lead to less motivation for students' learning (Zakeri & Alavi, 2011), less concentration on academic activities, and the use of traditional pedagogical techniques, such as dialogues, grammar explanations, pattern practice, and translation (Chacón, 2005). Ross (1998) also suggested that teachers reinforce their efficacy beliefs stably with more experience. Thus, this research on teacher efficacy provided data on how much NNESTs possess teacher efficacy and how their backgrounds and pedagogical practices influence the development of teacher efficacy.

Relationship between Teacher Efficacy and Students' Performance

As Cheung (2008) argued, teacher efficacy leads to students' better academic achievement, motivation, autonomy, and a strong belief in their own self-efficacy. The relationship between teacher efficacy and students' performance reveals the importance of understanding teachers' efficacy in relation to effective teaching practice and their students' performance. Lin et al. (2002) studied American and Taiwanese preservice teachers and compared their levels of teacher efficacy. Based on this research, the difference between collectivism and individualism, cultural differences, and parental support revealed a gap between the two countries' groups of teachers, in which American teachers' efficacy was statistically significantly higher than Taiwanese teachers. American teachers showed a higher sense of efficacy in instructing students' practices and positive attitudes toward schools, which resulted in students' active involvement in their own learning. However, the researchers did not investigate the relationship between the level of teacher efficacy and students' performance.

Additionally, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) found a significant correlation between teacher efficacy and student achievement. The second and fifth graders who had teachers with a higher sense of efficacy surpassed their peers in a math exam. Moreover, third graders' teachers' Personal Teaching Efficacy correlated their students' achievement on the Canadian Achievement Tests administered at the beginning and the end of the year. In Watson's study (1991), Personal Teaching Efficacy was positively correlated with reading scores, and General Teaching Efficacy was positively correlated with math scores. As I explained previously, high or low sense of teacher efficacy can influence students' performance. For example, teachers' capability of providing

alternative explanations gives students opportunities to understand the content better in context. Hence, the more capabilities that teachers possess in instruction, the better chance students have to improve what they learn.

Three Factors in Teacher Efficacy

According to Bandura (1993), teachers' beliefs in their teacher efficacy affect their students' learning environment. He also asserted that the higher sense of efficacy teachers have, the more confident they are in teaching students who have behavioral issues and are low performers. In Tschannen-Moran et al.'s (2001) TSES, teacher efficacy is investigated from three perspectives, such as how much they could control students' behavior in their class ("Efficacy for Management"), how much they motivated students with low interest in learning ("Efficacy for Engagement"), and how much they could employ various teaching strategies ("Efficacy for Instructional Strategies") (Chacón, 2005, p. 262).

As I discussed Gibson and Dembo's (1984) two factors of teacher efficacy, personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy, provoked considerable debates and confusions about their meanings (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Although past major teacher efficacy instruments were analyzed based on these two factors, as Tschannen-Moran et al. (2001) explained, the instruments had been a subject of discussion for more than 20 years due to their validity and reliability. After analyzing past teacher efficacy instruments, Tschannen-Moran et al. (2001) modified them based on three studies, which will be discussed in the next section.

Instruments Used to Measure Teacher Efficacy

There are several major teacher efficacy scales in history, such as the RAND measure (Armor et al., 1976), the Teacher Locus of Control (Rose & Medway, 1981), the Webb Efficacy Scale (Ashton et al., 1982), the Ashton Vignettes (Ashton et al., 1982), the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), Bandura's Teacher Efficacy Scale (Bandura, undated), and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Because the reliability and validity had been an issue for these scales on teacher efficacy, multiple researchers (Brouwers et al., 2002; Klassen et al., 2009; Nie et al., 2012) analyzed these instruments. After factor analysis was implemented, the TSES showed appropriate reliability and validity, particularly, these researchers analyzed the instrument internationally including Asian countries, such as Korea and Singapore.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) created the TSES based on Bandura's teacher self-efficacy scale (Bandura, undated) and Gibson and Dembo's (1984) Likert scale. There are short and long forms of the TSES; the short and long forms consist of 12 and 24 items respectively. The TSES contains three factors: efficacy for instructional strategies (Factor 1), efficacy for classroom management (Factor 2), and efficacy for student engagement (Factor 3) on a nine-point Likert scale. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) assessed reliability for these three factors and proved high reliability for all of them. Additionally, Klassen et al. (2009) tested the validity in five countries: Canada, Cyprus, Korea, Singapore, and the U.S, and demonstrated considerable outcome invariance in factors within similar cultural groups, such as countries within North America, East Asia, and Europe. Hence, those researchers showed the TSES as a reliable

instrument to measure teacher efficacy. In the next section, I will examine these three factors through empirical studies about NNESTs' efficacy.

<div align="center">**NNESTs' Efficacy**</div>

NNESTs' efficacy has been investigated in some EFL settings, such as in Venezuela, Jordan, China, and Iran. Chacón (2005) conducted a mixed methods study in Venezuela, and the rest of the studies were quantitative research based on surveys.

NNESTs' Efficacy for Management

Researchers have found that the higher efficacy for management that teachers had, the better they handled students with humanistic approaches and the more classroom management strategies they used. Chacón (2005), in a mixed methods study, surveyed more than 100 teachers using the adapted version of the TSES (Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001) and interviewed 20 middle school English teachers in Venezuela teachers using four short vignettes. She provoked important arguments in efficacy for management. First, teachers who have a high sense of teacher efficacy believe that they can teach difficult students; however, teachers with a low sense of teacher efficacy believe that students rely on their environment and there is little they can do. Moreover, teachers with high teacher efficacy tend to be more humanistic than teachers with low teacher efficacy who tend to be custodial. Humanistic teachers draw attention to "cooperation, interaction, and experience as well as student autonomy" (p. 260), whereas custodial teachers control students in a rigid manner. These two notions make a clear contrast between teachers with high and low efficacy; however, both high and low efficacious teachers are fond of traditional teaching methodologies, such as grammar-translation, grammar explanations, and pattern practice. Secondly, Chacón (2005) explained that "efficacy beliefs of

practicing teachers tend to be stable as they grow in years of experience" (p. 266), and it becomes difficult to change their practices once established.

Abu-Tineh et al.'s (2011) surveyed 566 public elementary, middle, and high school NNESTs in Jordan. They investigated the relationship between teacher efficacy and three dimensions of classroom management styles: instructional management, people management, and behavior management. Instructional management items measured how participants' classroom routines were formed and teaching materials were utilized. People management items were measured by the way teacher-student relationships were developed. Behavior management items were measured by how teachers established classroom rules and reward systems and incorporated students' input to the class. The researchers concluded that the higher the participants' self-perceived personal teaching efficacy was, the more various classroom management styles they implemented. They also stated the cyclical nature between instructional management styles and personal teaching efficacy; thus, teachers' instructional management influences teachers' efficacy beliefs about their capabilities of teaching performance connecting to students' learning and vice versa. Although researchers discovered that Jordanian teachers possessed a high level of personal teaching efficacy, their general teaching efficacy was lower than their personal teaching efficacy. As a result, Abu-Tineh et al. (2011) suggested that more training is necessary, particularly for dealing with difficult students, who have complicated family backgrounds.

As explained above, efficacy for classroom management is closely related to teachers' self-perceived capability of building a relationship with students. According to Chacón (2005) and Abu-Tineh et al. (2011), the approaches teachers used to handle

students, the usage of teaching methods, and varieties of classroom management strategies can be different depending on the level of teacher efficacy.

NNESTs' Efficacy for Engagement

In multiple teacher efficacy studies, student engagement was the lowest efficacious factor compared to classroom management and instructional strategies. Huangfu (2012) analyzed 112 questionnaires about Chinese college EFL teachers' efficacy on their motivational behaviors by implementing the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES). The results revealed that the participants possessed stronger teacher efficacy in instructional strategies than classroom management and student engagement. The teachers felt competent in dealing with students' learning difficulties and instructions and less competent to enhance students' learning motivation and classroom participation, and manage a language classroom. Additionally, the researcher scrutinized four indicators of their motivational teaching behaviors: creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive self-evaluation. As an implication, teacher efficacy and their motivational teaching behaviors are closely related; thus, it is critical to enhance teacher efficacy and the use of motivational strategies in teacher training programs. Regarding these four gauges, the participants implemented generating students' initial motivation and maintaining and protecting their motivation more frequently than the other two. Also, the results showed that Chinese EFL teachers perceived their higher efficacy to deal with students' learning difficulties and provide effective instructions, whereas they revealed lower efficacy to improve students' motivation and active classroom participation. These results were consistent with past studies on EFL teacher

efficacy (Chacón, 2005; Eslami et al., 2008). Moreover, Huangfu (2012) implied that teacher efficacy for student engagement, such as reinforcing students' value for learning, understanding those who are falling behind, and motivating those who have low interest in learning, generates students' initial motivation and enhances their motivation for learning. From the regression analysis, the researcher concluded that efficacy for instructional strategies is the best predictor of teachers' motivational behaviors in teaching. In other words, the higher their teacher efficacy in instructional strategies is, the more frequently they perceive to use their motivational strategies with their students.

Based on the claims that the way teachers instruct is not only affected by their teacher training but also based on their "personal, experiential, and local types of knowledge (Mann, 2005), Zakeri and Alavi (2011) investigated the relationship between English teachers' knowledge and teacher efficacy. Fifty-five novice English teachers in Tehran responded to a questionnaire created from the TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT, Cambridge ESOL). She found that lower teacher efficacy correlated with less effort for motivating their students. What's more, as other researchers asserted (Chacón, 2005; Eslami et al., 2008), she claimed that the more proficient teachers evaluate their own four English skills, the higher their teacher efficacy is. Hence, this study highlights the importance of possessing appropriate language proficiency for English teachers, which correlates with their teacher efficacy.

According to some studies about teacher efficacy for engagement, NNESTs showed lower levels of efficacy compared to the other two factors. Specifically, the researchers (Chacón, 2005; Eslami et al., 2008; Huangfu, 2012) found that NNESTs

possess lower efficacy to improve students' motivation and active classroom participation. Also, Huangfu (2012) argued that there is a positive correlation between the level of teacher efficacy for instructional strategies and their frequency of strategy use to raise students' motivation. Finally, Zakeri and Alavi (2011) discovered that the level of teacher efficacy impacts how much effort NNESTs devote to motivating students.

NNESTs' Efficacy for Instructional Strategies

According to Chacón (2005), it is important to address that NNESTs' efficacy for instructional strategies correlates with factors, such as teacher efficacy and their self-perceived English proficiency; therefore, efficacy for instructional strategies can be a predictor for NNESTs' background factors, and vice versa. In Chacón's (2005) study, she found that teacher efficacy and instructional strategies were positively correlated, so teachers who had a higher sense of efficacy tended to use both communicative-oriented and grammar-translation teaching approaches. Communicative-oriented teaching aims to put language learners' linguistic knowledge to use in the actual act of communicating. Alternatively, the Grammar-Translation Method is implemented by using learners' native language to help them cognitively understand the target language grammar (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). Chacón's (2005) findings revealed the positive correlation between teachers' self-reported English proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, writing, and cultural knowledge, and efficacy for engagement and instructional strategies. In other words, teachers' self-reported English proficiency leads to their higher sense of efficacy for motivating students and designing various instructional strategies. Although teachers' higher self-reported English proficiency in writing correlates with a higher sense of efficacy for the management of students, this correlation does not apply to other English

skills. In contrast, the lower the efficacy in pedagogy, the less effort teachers devote to motivating students and teaching them the value of learning English (Chacón, 2005).

While Chacón (2005) was examining teachers' English competency and their teacher efficacy concurrently, she revealed how their attitudes toward teaching affects their pedagogy in the class. As suggestions for teacher education, Chacón (2005) highlighted that there is a positive correlation between in-service teacher training and higher teacher efficacy in instructional strategies and student engagement in learning English. Eslami and Fatahi (2008) also researched the importance of enhancing EFL teachers' mastery experiences by improving their English proficiency and communicative language teaching and learning strategies. They studied 40 Iranian high school EFL teachers with one to five years of experience in teaching English. They used the TSES (Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001), self-reported proficiency (Chacón, 2005; Butler, 2004), and self-reported pedagogical strategy use considering grammatically-oriented and communicatively-oriented approaches (Eslami & Valizadeh, 2004). All of these instruments were administered in Farsi. Eslami and Fatahi's (2008) findings exhibited that efficacy for class management and instructional strategies are higher than student engagement, yet novice Iranian EFL teachers feel more efficacious in applying instructional strategies than in managing an EFL class. Another interesting point about Iranian EFL teacher efficacy is that the higher their teacher efficacy is, the more likely they are to use communicative-oriented strategies in their classes and inclined to focus more on meaning rather than accuracy. Most importantly, positive correlations were found between the Iranian EFL teachers' perceived self-efficacy beliefs and their self-reported English proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Consequently,

the researchers emphasized that teacher education programs and schools provide English language enhancement classes for EFL teachers in order for them to maintain or improve their language proficiency.

More specifically, in an English teaching context in Japan regarding instructional strategies, Samimy and Kobayashi (2004) explored Japanese sociocultural, political, and educational elements that have significant influence on curricular innovation through Communicative Language Teaching. In Japan, English is used for educational purposes, and moreover, Japanese students do not have an immediate need to study communicative English, but rather learn it for high school and university entrance exams. Thus, the researchers concluded that the grammar instruction should remain an important part of the curriculum and that purely communicative syllabi may not be feasible in Japanese English education. Similarly, Oda and Takada (2005) argued, ESL teaching methods are not necessarily effective in an EFL setting.

Japanese NNESTs' English competency is another issue. In Butler's (2004) study regarding self-assessment of Japanese NNEST's English proficiency levels, 85.3% of the participants consider that they do not meet the necessary level to teach English. Specifically for high school NNESTs, some of them are not confident in conducting their classes only in English and are anxious about the increase of preparation time. Because of the English only policy, it is critical for Japanese NNESTs to improve their English proficiency. However, lots of high school NNESTs claim that nothing will change unless university entrance exams change (Yamada & Hristoskova, 2011). This belief is deep-rooted after decades of competitive situations regarding exams.

In teacher efficacy for instructional strategies, there are two major findings from the previous studies. According to Chacón (2005), her NNEST participants' self-perceived English proficiency correlated with their efficacy for instructional strategies. Also, Eslami and Fatahi (2008) found that teachers with a high level of efficacy tended to implement communicative-oriented teaching methods in instruction. Hence, NNESTs' English proficiency and teaching methods are related to their level of their teacher efficacy for instructional strategies.

Social Identity Theory and Teacher Identity

Different scholars have different conceptualizations of identity. Identity is defined as a way to see the "self" and one's "self-concept" (Mead, 1934) which includes knowledge, beliefs, disposition, interests, and orientation toward work and change (Spillane, 2000). Gee (2000) also defined identity as being "a certain kind of person in a given context" (p. 99) and people can have different identities in the same context. Norton (2000) also defined identity as "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space and, how the person understands possibilities for the future" (p. 5). According to Woodward (1997), identity contains various constructions that are not only national and ethnic but more than these. For example, Woodward (1997) explained that identity is "relational," is "maintained through social and material conditions," and that varies "between the collective and the individual level" (p. 12). Thus, identity is a process of identification through which we see ourselves in a certain way and are seen by others in a particular way. By borrowing Tajfel's (1978) concept of social identity theory and combining notions of identity mentioned above, in this study, teacher identity is defined as how

teachers see themselves based on their beliefs, knowledge, and experiences through interactions with in and out of social domains.

Social Identity Theory and Group Membership

Tajfel (1978) described social identity as viewing individual's self through the relationship with the surrounding environment from the perspectives of certain social groups and categories. Hetherington (1998) also defined social identity as a construct that includes the representation of seeing oneself and others. In addition to Hetherington's definition, Hogg and Abrams (1999) also explained that social identity theory is based on categorization and social perception, intergroup behavior, and social psychological understandings about intergroup conflict and prejudice. According to Tajfel (1978), observing social identity from an intergroup aspect, social categorization can play a key role in positioning individuals in society. They can belong to various social groups and the membership impacts their self-images both positively and negatively.

Berger et al. (1966) added that the individuals' defined identities in society are recognized as real identities. Applying this concept, Tajfel (1978) revealed four important notions of group membership, which relate to NNESTs' issues. First, an individual will stay as a member and also seek new groups if the group has a positive effect for the individual. Second, although an individual does not want to leave a group because of the objective reasons, s/he tends to leave it if it is not personally satisfying. Third, if leaving a group is difficult, an individual can accept the circumstances or strive for desirable change with social action. Finally, all groups exist with other groups; therefore "'positive aspects of social identity' and the reinterpretation of attributes and engagement in social action only acquire meaning in relation to, or in comparisons with, other groups" (p. 64).

According to Hogg and Abrams (1998) and Terry and Hogg (2000), social

identity theory offers a concept of social identity that is founded on social categories

which divide people into certain types and give each type a specific power, status, and

prestige. As Hogg and Abrams (1998) described, "people derive their identity (their sense

of self, their self-concept) in great part from the social categories to which they belong"

(p. 19). They also mentioned that categorizing others is a subjective activity which refers

to the self. As human beings, while categorizing others, we classify ourselves by

investigating relations between ourselves and others. Hogg and Abrams (1998) concluded

that a group of individuals see their behaviors as exhibiting the unique qualities of the

group.

Group Membership by Self-Categorization

As Hogg and Abrams (1998) specified, "self-categorization is the process which

transforms individuals into groups" (p. 21). Therefore, self-categorization is based on

internal decisions, while social identity focuses on external factors. They also explained

individuals can have motivations or goals for embracing certain self-categorizations,

which is a dynamic negotiation and construction in new contexts. Ingroup members are

considered as falling into the same category as the self, whereas outgroup members are

regarded falling into a different category. People categorize others based on their

differences and similarities to self. Consequently, social identity and self-categorization

are related to self-esteem and self-understanding according to membership in specific

social groups (Hogg & Abrams, 1999).

Terry et al. (1999) described how social identity and self-categorization influence

people's attitudes because of their particular group memberships and their patterns. Even

though attitudes might differ between individuals based on their idiosyncratic traits, people define and categorize themselves as members of particular groups. Furthermore, Terry et al. (2000) explained that the process of activating a group trait makes the attitudes of group members normative because this promotes self-esteem among group members and reduces uncertainty. Self-esteem becomes an inevitable motivation in order to contribute to positive intergroup characteristics. As a result, group members have preferences and want to maintain the consistency that comes from being part of a group. In order to improve a group model, strong motivation, which leads to consistent behavior, is necessary. As Terry et al. (1999) concluded, strong group norms produce more consistency between attitude and behavior, whereas weak group norms cause inconsistency.

Social Comparison and Stereotyping as Group Members

During the categorization process, individuals compare themselves to others, which is called social comparisons (Festinger, 1954). When people make distinctions between the self as an ingroup member and the other as an outgroup member, they reveal a tendency to discriminate group differences to a great extent (Hogg & Abrams, 1998). On this process, Hogg and Abrams (1998) explained that social identity theory advocates that positive self-esteem is derived from an evaluation of the individual's ingroup social identity as positive by comparing to the outgroup, whereas the outgroup is evaluated negatively. This outcome produces stereotyping, which is derived from categorization between ingroup and outgroup based on subjective beliefs regarding "attitudes, beliefs and values, affective reactions, emotions, behavioral norms, styles of speech and language and so on" (Hogg & Abrams, 1998, p. 21).

Stereotyping is therefore related to social identity and group membership and influenced by evaluative distinctions between groups (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Hogg and Abrams (1988) also explained that people are infused with their ingroup characteristics that reflect themselves positively, and they attempt to accept ingroup and outgroup categorization while only focusing on their positive ingroup attributes. The important notion of stereotypes is shared by a number of individuals. As Perkins (1979) described, stereotypes are "prototypes of 'shared cultural meanings'" (p. 141), which are derived from social relationships. Hogg and Abrams (1988) argued that ingroup members unite based on shared norms and a desire for social consistency.

Because second language learning occurs while adopting an outgroup language, it is possible for learners to prevent positive ingroup attitudes to obtain native-like proficiency (Lambert, 1974; Tayler, Meynard & Rheault, 1977). Giles and Byrne (1982) concluded several factors hindering second language acquisition as non-native language speakers: groups possess strong first language identity and do not possess alternative identities; there are few other groups or there are only lower-status groups; their ethnolinguistics is subjective and vital; and they see social change as competition. Under these circumstances, obtaining native-like proficiency can be considered as being at risk of one's ethnic identity. It can also create accusations and betrayal of group and provide fear of assimilation (Hogg & Abrams, 1998). Hence, Hogg and Abrams (1998) pointed out that social identity analysis can be employed to observe intergroup phenomenon during the process of second language acquisition.

Social Identity Theory in NNESTs

NNESTs are exposed to a view of comparison and power imbalance toward NESTs. By being compared with NESTs, NNESTs sometimes do not enjoy their label as NNESTs due to their inequality and inferiority in comparison, which sometimes produces a stereotype toward NNESTs. The characteristics of NNESTs are based on their own recognition and outgroups' views. Thus, they can be exposed to stereotypical judgment by students, administrators, and even society. For example, because of the stereotype of English teachers, "the teachers were often compared unfavorably with Caucasian teachers, leading to a feeling of disempowerment" (Braine, 2010, p. 19). Although strengths and weaknesses depend on individual teachers regardless of NNESTs or NESTs, the concern for stereotypes about their ethnicity creates fear for NNESTs' hiring procedures. Some researchers argued that NNESTs' language identity has influenced hiring practices due to students' attitudes toward teachers (Mahboob, 2004) and the teachers' self-perceptions (Amin, 1997). According to Amin (1997), NNESTs sometimes cannot teach effectively due to their students' perceptions that NNESTs cannot teach English because they are non-native speakers. Their students' performance decrease even though NNESTs are qualified teachers. Addotionally, In spite of sharing a common language and culture with students in the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) setting, NNESTs might have poor self-image and feelings of inferiority (Reves & Medgys, 1994).

Varghese et al. (2005) analyzed three research articles that explored the formation of language teacher identity by examining the theoretical frameworks used by each study. These studies incorporated three theories: "Tajfel's (1978) social identity theory, Lave and Wenger's (1991) theory of situated learning, and Simon's (1995) concept of the

image-text" (p. 21). Using Tajfel's (1978) social identity theory, Johnson (2001) found that Non-Native English Speaking (NNES) graduate students were reminded by selves constantly of their NNES group membership by comparisons with peers in terms of their confidence about academic work, interactions with faculty and other students (Milambling, 2000; Saylor, 2000), and job openings specifically asking for native English speakers (Norton, 1997). Because of these characteristics, Varghese et al. (2005) insisted that non-native English speakers' social identifications are more important than native English speakers, particularly as ESL teachers and MA TESOL students.

Johnson (2005) investigated how a Mexican female MA TESOL student, Marc, constructed her identity. Collecting data over a year and a half, the researcher found that the participant formed multiple identities as a graduate student in TESOL, ESL teacher, and English learner. Although Marc's native English speaking practicum supervisor hoped that Marc accepted herself as an ESL teacher, she struggled to do so, often identifying herself as an ESL student and shifting between the ingroup as an ESL teacher and the outgroup as an ESL learner. This influenced not only her own identity development but also her colleagues' view of her. Particularly for her language proficiency, her psychological pressure that she should be ahead of her students and linguistically competent in English challenged her appropriate identity formation. Furthermore, while being labeled as a NNEST and therefore a member of the outgroup, her experience in a NNESTs' discussion group in a professional conference helped her build self-esteem as teacher or supported a positive self-image.

According to social identity theory, NNESTs' identity can be affected by how others see them. As Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (2001) explained, the difference between

NNESTs and NESTs is determined by the social context and environment. Hence, it is necessary to observe the process of building NNESTs' identities so that they can establish an appropriate teacher identity, which hopefully correlates positively with their teacher efficacy.

Teachers' Professional Identity

Teachers develop their identity not only from ingroup and outgroup factors but also over the course of their entire career. It is through the process of teaching every day that they become professional teachers. In order to understand how teacher identity is formed, it is important to understand various stages of this development, especially in the case of language teachers who play a significant role in student success at language learning.

Teachers' professional identity is not fixed (Coldron & Smith, 1999; Dillabough, 1999) but an ongoing process of interpreting and reinterpreting experiences (Kerby, 1991). It is a dynamic and complex process based on self-image and teacher roles (Volkmann & Anderson, 1998); it changes depending on the relationships with others and the contexts (Coldron & Smith, 1999) and the meanings attributed to actions and everyday practices (Dillabough, 1999); it is a process in which individuals accept or contradict behaviors, attitudes, and values based on their life experience (Samuel & Stephens, 2000). Thus, Beijaard et al. (2004) defined teachers' professional identity as a combination of person and context. Furthermore, they described the importance of sub-identities and agencies in teachers' professional identity. The more experienced the teachers, the more harmonious their sub-identities become. Additionally, a sense of agency leads to active involvement in professional development. These researchers also

looked at the attributes of teachers' professional identity. Gardner (1995) investigated the relationship between teacher training and their professional identity and discovered that their professional experience becomes stable after their training, and moreover, additional professional development improves their professional identity. Antonek et al. (1997) reported that teachers' professional identity development involves various sources, such as content knowledge, relationships with others, and pedagogy. Sugrue (1997) also found that several factors that construct student teachers' professional identities, such as their family, significant others, observation by experienced teachers, unusual incidents in teaching, political and cultural contexts in teaching, and acceptance of their understanding.

Professional identity relates to concepts of teachers and images of self (Knowles, 1992; Nias, 1989), teachers' roles (Goodson & Cole, 1994; Volkmann & Anderson, 1998), reflection and self-evaluation (Cooper & Olson, 1996; Kerby, 1991), and previous experiences in teaching and personal backgrounds (Tickle, 2000). According to Knowles (1992) and Nias (1989), exploring teacher identity has developed its own research area due to teachers' concepts of self that creates professional image as teachers. Self-image is an important concept because it constructs various teachers' role identities to succeed in different professional activities (Farrell, 2011). However, Knowles (1992) portrayed that teacher professional identity is a vague and integrated concept that includes various aspects. In particular, teachers encounter various factors, such as students' and peers' expectations, their own teaching skills, social context, and interactions with others, which influence their development of teacher identity (Kwo, 2010). Thus, developing teacher identity is a dynamic process. In addition to the shifting elements of teacher identity,

teachers might have divided identities if they separate their professional identities from their social identities. According to Woods and Carlyle (2002), the wider the gaps teachers have between their social and personal identities, the less self-concept they develop. Hence, "self-concept is an accommodation of the self and social identity" (Kwo, 2010, p. 47).

As explained previously, professional identity is formed by various factors through teachers' past experiences and is influenced in and out of teaching contexts. Similarly, according to Farrel (2011), professional role identity is to understand for themselves how to join the community and how to connect with others in educational and non-educational settings. As Holland et al. (1998) suggested, teacher learn to identify to play a particular role through social interaction, which becomes their roles in the socially and culturally meaningful context. Developing language teacher professional role identity is necessary because it forms a center of their "beliefs, assumptions, values, and practices that guide teacher actions both inside and outside of the classrooms" (Farrel, 2011, p. 54). Urrieta (2007) also mentioned role identity should be observed objectively by oneself through interactions with others from both inside and outside. Additionally, teacher role identity is related to their teaching philosophy, beliefs, and self as teachers (Walkington, 2005). In Farrel's (2011) study, he found 16 teacher role identities in three clusters, such as "Teacher as Manager, Teacher as 'Accumulator' and Teacher as Professional" (p. 57), through participants' reflective discussions. During his research, he attempted not to change ESL teachers' role identity but to enhance their awareness of role identity, so that it could help them determine when and how to change their role identity.

NNESTs' Professional Identity

According to Braine (1997), because the term NNEST has a connotation of "otherness," NNESTs may struggle with their identity as teachers. Although the dichotomy between NESTs and NNESTs has been actively discussed, there has not been much written on NNESTs' professional identity development (Johnson, 2001). According to Velez-Rendon (2010), professional identity is developed from their educational and personal backgrounds, beliefs and experiences facing difficulties and problems, cooperation with other teachers, and teacher preparation experiences. While professional teacher identity development is important, a novice English teacher is more engaged with delivering the subject matter. It is through the passage of time and experience that s/he is able to enhance the subject matter with the right classroom management techniques and pedagogical skills. These, in turn, also shape his/her professional identity. Thus, as Johnson (2001) explained, it is important, particularly for teacher educators, to understand the process of NNESTs' professional identity formation; however, there is little research on language teacher identity (Duff & Uchida, 1997). In particular, English teachers' identity formation is influenced by their own learning experiences, educational systems, pre-service and in-service trainings, colleagues, institutional settings, and organizations they belong to. Consequently, it is necessary to research their long-term professional career development.

Specifically for non-native speaking language teachers in a foreign language setting, Kiernan (2010) argued that their strengths are their own foreign language learning experiences, and they can serve as guides and models to their students by sharing their common first language. For them, language teacher identity means

negotiating a position with regard to their ability in the foreign language and the culture associated with the language. Accordingly, there are four dimensions to language teachers' identity: temporary elements (social networks, interests, fashions), gradually changing elements (social role, age), social background (language, class, religion, nationality), and biological features (race, gender, physical appearance). The identity change goes through at different periods in life, which shows strands of identity on a fictional day linked to place.

Additionally, Pasternak and Bailey (2004) pointed out that an extra challenge for NNESTs is the expectation that language teachers should possess high speaking proficiency. Many of NNESTs also feel inferior to NESTs, particularly concerning their English fluency, communication skills, speaking, pronunciation, listening, and vocabulary. On the basis of these dissenting elements in NNESTs, improving proficiency is crucial to build their confidence and success, it is necessary to provide language training to them in order to become "effective, self-confident, and satisfied professionals" (Medgyes, 1994, p. 179).

Kamhi-Stein et al. (2004) also conducted a survey from 55 K-12 NESTs and 32 K-12 NNESTs on their self-perceived language needs, prejudice, and confidence as a teacher. NESTs perceived their English proficiency better than NNESTs, whereas NNESTs' strengths were cultural awareness, empathy, and the linguistic advantage provided by their non-native status. NNESTs also positively perceived their ability to build a rapport with the parents of their students. Furthermore, based on their self-report, NNESTs ranked their grammar skills third best, yet NESTs ranked grammar as their worst skill. Particularly in elementary education, NNESTs have a linguistic advantage

because of their L1. In addition, Braine (2004) found NESTs self-identified as superior teachers, and they revealed themselves as having more confidence in using English and teaching culture. In contrast, he mentioned that NNESTs recognized themselves as being able to build positive relationship with their students and being confident in their L1 use for effective teaching. All things considered, NNESTs and NESTs have complex sets of differences and similarities according to both self-perceptions and students perceptions. Hence, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) raise both types of teachers' consciousness and awareness in order to bridge the gap between NNESTs and NESTs.

Teacher's professional identity is related to a teacher's role (Goodson & Cole, 1994; Volkmann & Anderson, 1998), and an element of teacher's role is to become a student's role model. In Duff and Uchida's (1997) study about postsecondary Japanese NNETSs, participants insisted Japanese NNESTs could be good bilingual role models. Particularly, Japanese NNESTs consider themselves as non-native English speakers who struggled in learning English just as their students (Medgyes, 1994). Additionally, Gaudelli (1999) investigated teacher identity from perspectives of personal backgrounds, such as gender, family history, religion, ethnicity, athletic background, and travel experiences. Conducting an ethnographic study, he found that teacher identity influenced classroom practice, course materials, and the emphases on particular topics. Moreover, teacher identity was influenced by the perceptions of others. This is akin to Gee's (2000) concept of Discourse-identity, which considers the perception of others as individual traits. Thus, a teacher may be perceived as strict or lenient or a certain type of role model by those around him or her, and these perceptions are seen as traits of that teacher. To understand various types of professional teacher identity, Japanese NNESTs' identities

should be investigated considering background factors, such as their personal, societal, educational, and cultural perspectives.

Interactive Factors with NNESTs' Efficacy and Identity

Although scholars have not always focused on NNESTs' efficacy and identity per se as constructs, in the course of their research on the NNEST experience, they have identified important themes that would potentially relate to and influence them. Thus, in this section, I will review these major themes in the scholarly literature, such as NNESTs' accent, their self-perceptions and students' perceptions, teaching culture in an EFL setting, and teacher education for NNESTs.

Non-native Speaking English Teachers' Accent

One of the factors of NNESTs' ambiguous status can be accent, which is defined as a distinctive pronunciation generated by groups of people. According to Braine (2010), NNESTs were not confident of their own accent despite the fact that students could not recognize the difference between native or non-native accent. Their lack of confidence in pronunciation may reduce their teacher efficacy, particularly in language instruction. Their self-perception of their accent can also affect their identity because of their lack of confidence. Jenkins' (2005) study of eight NNESTs' in-depth interviews provides how much all the participants showed their strong preference for native English speakers' accent. In contrast, despite the teachers' high proficiency in English and strong academic background, half of them were uncertain or negative about their own accent. Therefore, Jenkins insisted that the strong preference for native accent illustrates their longing for native speakers' identity. Kelch and Santana-Williamson (2002) investigated English learners' attitudes toward six varieties: Standard American, Southern American,

British, English by a Portuguese, a German, and a Japanese speaker. After listening to all the speaking samples, English learners answered a questionnaire for measuring their attitudes toward each accent. Interestingly, students' could not distinguish native and non-native speakers' accent. Specifically, 39% of the students thought Southern American accent as non-native. Conversely, the Portuguese and Japanese accent were evaluated as native by 40% and 30% of the students respectively. However, those students' attitudes reflect their perceptions of native speakers' accent. For example, a teacher examined as a native speaker was discerned as possessing a higher level of education and training experience. As Braine (2010) asserted, NNESTs admire NESTs' accent but are not confident of their own accent although students cannot differentiate between native or non-native accent. This can become an issue for NNESTs as they work toward enhancing their teacher professional identity. However, Braine (2004) also explained that NNESTs' pronunciation does not affect students' attitudes toward NNESTs; thus, NNESTs should focus on their professionalism. Consequently, Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (1996) point out that NNESTs' goal of English accent is not that they sound like native speakers but their pronunciation does not destruct their communication.

Relationship between NNESTs' Identity and Cultural Content

In research on teacher identity in Japan, Duff and Uchida (1997) conducted an ethnographic case study to investigate how EFL teachers identify themselves linguistically, socially, and culturally with stereotypes and values. The researchers argued that the identity of EFL teachers in Japan is formed by their personal histories and previous educational, professional, and cultural experiences. For example, in their study,

a female Japanese NNEST recognizes herself as playing the role of empathetic counselor, and often female students see female Japanese teachers as role models. Another female Japanese NNEST participant felt she was alienated from mainstream Japanese society because of her extensive international experience. For her, English classes were for communication, but gradually, her class became her connection to Japanese culture, and she became her students' mentor and cultural informant. Interestingly, both Japanese NNESTs perceived the roles of non-native and native speaking teachers differently. When teaching English in Japan, teacher identity is subject to "the local classroom culture, the institutional culture, and the textbook or curriculum" (Duff & Uchida, 1997, p. 469). At the same time, participant teachers felt pressure to entertain their students. This is particularly true for English teachers in Japan due to the fact that Japan is a monolingual country with distinctive culture in an EFL setting. In addition to the differences in language and culture, for some students, learning English is not their immediate needs for communication.

Moreover, EFL countries are willing to promote the target language culture, yet realistically, it is difficult because of classroom time restriction and lack of resources (Osawa, 1979). According to Hertel and Sunderman (2009), teaching culture is one of the strengths for NESTs but not for NNESTs based on student perception. Also, as Lazaraton (2003) described, researchers report that NESTs play the role of "rich sources of cultural information" (p. 219), whereas NNESTs show a lack of cultural knowledge. However, because EFL teachers have a common language and culture with their students, they must have mutual understanding about learning English, and sharing accomplishments and struggles. Nagatomo (2012) stated that it is significant for EFL learners to have NNESTs

as language models, as they pursue the goal of learning a language and associated culture, especially when they are not exposed to the target language and culture all the time.

A dichotomy between NNESTs and NESTs has been actively discussed in the ESL/EFL field, and each type of teacher has both strengths and weaknesses in language teaching and perceptions of teaching culture in the classrooms. Deciding how to display a target language culture is difficult, particularly for non-native speaking teachers. In contrast, native speaking teachers receive praise for their cultural knowledge. This comparison may generate the level of NNESTs' efficacy to lessen and their teacher identity to hinder from appropriate development. Although some researchers explained that teachers are often categorized by this dichotomy, NNESTs can be successful and ideal language teachers (Moussu et al., 2008). For example, Japanese NNESTs can be a good role model because they have experienced the same challenges and struggles like their students are experiencing. By learning from proficient language models, students can believe that they can achieve a high level of English competency as their teachers are (Nagatomo, 2012). However, as Lazaraton (2003) describes, researchers report that NESTs play the role of "rich sources of cultural information" (p. 219), whereas NNESTs show a lack of cultural knowledge. Interestingly, even though both types of teachers' beliefs about culture and teaching are similar, their practices and interactions in the classroom are different. NESTs emphasize various dimensions of English speaking culture about which they are knowledgeable. In contrast, NNESTs contrast their own culture with English speaking culture.

Promoting intercultural competency might lead to NNESTs' higher efficacy and appropriate teacher identity development. Kramsch (1994) demonstrates cultural

competency is more than understanding the general culture or speaking a target language. It is necessary for language learners and teachers to promote intercultural language teaching and learning and to employ the knowledge in a right context in order to provide authenticity. Similarly, interculturality means a respect and an awareness of difference and a capacity to observe oneself through others' insight (Kramsch, 2005), and according to Risager (2007), transnationality indicates a spread and mobility of cultural flows through social networks. According to Byram's (2000) intercultural competence, there are five elements: attitudes, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness/political education. Also, Risager (2007) mentions a role of the intercultural speaker as a mediator. This role associates a person with identities of various people, groups, and concepts, which is related to the "intercultural competences of the others" (p. 234). She insisted that this is the role of the teacher. By fostering learners interculturally in a limited EFL setting, teachers are expected to be mediators and connect their learners to others outside using intercultural competency. While researching how two NNESTs' cultural identities affected their teaching of culture in their classrooms, Menard-Warwick (2008) found that both teachers utilized their intercultural and transnational experience in their classrooms despite the differences in addressing culture.

Göbel and Helmke (2010) described how German NNESTs are able to provide quality intercultural instruction, thus coming across as interculturally competent and improving the status of NNESTs in teaching culture. Interestingly, Göbel and Helmke (2010) explained that the more contact teachers have with the target culture, the more they are able to integrate cultural and intercultural topics more explicitly. Those teachers

who have high intercultural competency are able to compare their experience and knowledge of their own as well as the target cultures in their classroom. In contrast, teachers with less experience in the target culture rarely presented cultural and intercultural topics in the class. This contrast is easy to understand because culturally competent teachers can implement lessons based on their own cultural awareness, knowledge, and experience, and they are not afraid to answer student questions regarding the target culture, thereby generating discussion. However, if teachers do not have enough confidence to address the target culture, it is difficult to enhance students' cultural awareness, particularly for objective culture due to its complexities and abstract definitions. Consequently, Göbel and Helmke (2010) concluded that intense intercultural contact may help NNESTs enhance their cultural awareness and lead to understanding "cultural meaning, interpretation and significance into the practice of their classrooms" (p. 1580).

Göbel and Helmke (2010) also found that those teachers who received more directive content presented their instruction based on intercultural comparisons and subjective culture. Moreover, they attempted to incorporate their students' ideas and experiences into their lessons. In contrast, teachers who received only general teaching directions did not interpret the cultural content for students to raise their cultural awareness. Those teachers did not connect the target culture to their students' ideas and experiences because the teachers could not present concrete examples or their perspectives; therefore, students were not involved in interactions to acquire interculturality. Based on these findings, NNESTs can be more culturally competent teachers if they obtain more intensive intercultural contact. Furthermore, it is important to

select valuable topics to enhance students' interculturality and to prepare for lessons with specific directions so that students can be involved in reflecting their own culture against a target culture.

Finally, as Samimy and Kobayashi (2004) and Oda and Takada (2005) found, grammar instruction should remain as an effective teaching method, whereas communicative teaching approach may not be practical in Japanese English education system.

Connecting this standpoint to issues of NNESTs and NESTs, NNESTs can teach authentic English to their students because they know appropriate sociocultural situations and their students' reality. Samimy and Kobayashi (2004) asserted the concept of English as international language and intercultural communicative competence is more meaningful than presenting monolingual native speakers. Consequently, culture in an EFL setting should include learners' culture, target culture, as well as international culture.

Students' Perceptions Influencing NNESTs' Identity and Efficacy

As Tajfel (1978) defined social identity as perceiving individual's self through the relationship with surrounded settings from the perspectives of specific social groups and categories; thus, how students view NNESTs also influence their teacher identity development. From their students' perspectives, there are strengths and weaknesses that they perceive in NNESTs and NESTs as they teach language based on previous research (Hertel & Sunderman, 2009). While NESTs can teach better for oral communication, vocabulary, and culture, Hertel and Sunderman (2009) explained that students perceived NNESTs as effective at teaching grammar and answering questions. NNESTs are also

seen as a role model, and their similar language learning background and experience

make them empathetic toward the students (Nagatomo, 2012). Nagatomo (2012) also

claimed NNESTs can be a good language model. This is significant for learners as they

are pursuing the goal of learning a language and associated culture, particularly in an

EFL setting, where the students are not exposed to the target language and culture all the

time. Thus, how students picture themselves becoming proficient in English means more

than just learning the language. Students must believe that they can be as proficient as

their English teachers, and this belief will affect students' learning attitudes.

In Samimy and Brutt-Griffler's (1999) study, non-native graduate students

admitted that NESTs are not necessarily superior to NNESTs. Instead, successful

teaching relied on factors such as the objectives of a program, age, and level of students

as well as individual teachers' personalities and skills. However, non-native graduate

students' participants struggled with the English curriculum, pre-service teacher

education and professional development, lack of preparation for teaching methodology,

deficiencies in support and resources available to English teachers like attending

conferences, and updated teaching materials.

Building NNESTs' Confidence through Teacher Education

Teacher efficacy and identity are formed by teachers' previous experience.

Teacher efficacy is reinforced by teaching experience (Ross, 1998), as well as teachers'

professional identity is developed through various elements based on their past

experiences and is impacted in and out of teaching contexts (Kwo, 2010). Because this

present study investigates processes of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity

development, it is necessary to observe how participants' past teacher education

experience and to understand how they can enhance their efficacy and identity through teacher education as implication. The following studies were conducted in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) and ESL (English as a Second Language) countries to explore how NNESTs' teacher education influences their beliefs and pedagogy in teaching English. These studies are relevant to teacher education in the Japanese educational context.

Kurihara and Samimy (2007) researched eight Japanese NNESTs about how their teacher training experience in the U.S. impacts their beliefs and practices in teaching English. In this research, they concluded that their participants believed their oversea training to be valuable experience and perceived English language as means of communication. Therefore, the participants pointed out that it is necessary to improve their communicative competency for their better pedagogy. Also, the researchers mentioned that the U.S. teacher training programs successfully facilitated their participants' confidence and their daily teaching practices. Overall, the training had a positive impact on Japanese NNESTs.

While Major and Yamashita (2004) traced Ayako, a Japanese female English teacher's milestones along her sojourn in the U.S., they investigated an NNES MA TESOL graduate's concerns about the preparedness after going back to Japan through her exchange with her NNES professor. As Takada (2000) claimed, Japanese-born English teachers are the outcomes of the Japanese educational system. In addition, Major and Yamashita (2004) described that teacher training in Japanese universities is generic and theoretical rather than methodological and classroom based, which is not enough to educate competent English teachers. They manifested the needs for appropriate training,

funds, time, and energy for Japanese NNESTs. Concurrently, Japanese NNESTs are struggling finding time for curriculum planning and professional development outside of the classrooms due to their workload.

In Major and Yamashita's (2004) study, they discovered a couple of important findings from the perspectives of NNESTs' professional identity development, such as Ayako's formation of new NNES professional identity, educational and sociopolitical concerns in Japan, and the development of her methodological knowledge. Ayako's background that her father was trilingual in Southern Japan and studied for her master's in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) influenced her identity as a NNEST. Furthermore, her successful learning experience during her master's program and conference presentations in the TESOL community supported her confidence and preparation for being an EFL teacher. Major and Yamashita (2004) also explained that teaching English practices in Japan were influenced by each school, prefectural, and nationwide guidelines, and these were complicatedly connecting each other. Moreover, because of the promotion of internationalization in Japan, it is critical for Japanese NNESTs to improve students' English proficiency, but at the same time, they should teach the importance of Japanese language as well. Lastly, from Ayako's TESOL teacher education experience, she learned ESL classes were student-centered, whereas Japanese EFL classes commonly depended on a lecture format. This major difference certainly influenced Ayako's beliefs in pedagogy.

In Japan, Kachi and Lee (2001) researched two Japanese NNESTs and three American NESTs into their training backgrounds and teaching experiences in team-teaching. According to this research, the two Japanese NNESTs did not receive any

training for team-teaching, whereas the three American NESTs had some practical

training for the Japanese culture and relationship development with Japanese NNESTs.

Those researchers emphasized the obstacles for team-teaching are lack of time for

preparation, Japanese NNESTs' lack of English proficiency, curriculum, class size,

discipline, and NESTs' uncooperative attitudes toward teaching. Thus, both types of

teachers had complaints about each other.

Based on these analyses, Kachi and Lee (2001) suggested some implication for

team-teaching. Because Japanese NNESTs' English proficiency was a concern for both

types of participants, teachers' qualification should be regarded. As for NESTs, their

professional development should be a part of their qualification. Additionally, more

structured pre-service and in-service training for team-teaching is needed. In terms of

pre-service preparation, improving English proficiency for Japanese NNESTs and

gaining teaching methodologies are significant. Also, to avoid cultural misunderstanding,

it is necessary to enhance both Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' cultural awareness and

intercultural knowledge. Particularly for ongoing and in-service teacher education, both

teachers should discuss their lesson plans, reflect on team-teaching, and share the

information so that they can grow their critical views of team-teaching.

As widely known, some Asian NNESTs, such as from Japan, Korea, and Hong

Kong, have a hard time finding a teaching job after receiving higher degrees because

language program administrators prefer to hire unqualified NESTs rather than qualified

NNESTs (Braine, 2004). Kamhi-Stein et al. (2004) asserted the challenges for NNESTs

to build confidence because of emphasis on product-oriented approach rather than

communicative methodology. These challenges include a heavy teaching load, large class

sizes, students' low proficiency in English and lack of discipline, low job satisfaction, low perceived effectiveness in their first year of teaching, the school culture, and their credibility. Brinton (2004) also described NNES (non-native English speaking) student teachers' lack of confidence is derived from their self-perceived weaknesses of their language skills. Thus, as Lee (2004) explained, "one big challenge NNESTs are facing is, therefore, how to salvage the public's eroding confidence in their ability to teach English and how to boost their own confidence" (p. 233).

As Chacón (2005) emphasized, there is a relationship between teacher training and teacher efficacy in instructional strategies and student engagement. Additionally, Gardner (1995) found that teacher training and additional professional development influenced teacher identity formation. Therefore, teacher education plays an important role for teacher efficacy and identity development. In an Asian context, Lee (2004) explored how teacher education programs can prepare for NNESTs' teaching EFL in secondary schools in Hong Kong. Hong Kong is one of the leading countries regarding EFL Education, yet Lee (2004) pointed out that there is still a power imbalance between NNESTs and NESTs there, which can affect NNESTs' appropriate teacher efficacy and identity development. To support NNESTs in Hong Kong, Lee (2004) suggested how teacher education can facilitate their professional development. Because of the growing concerns about NNESTs in Hong Kong, the government decided to evaluate their language proficiency. Benchmark tests assessed secondary school English teachers' four skills, such as reading, writing, speaking, and listening, and classroom language use based on the observations. Lots of NNESTs could not pass the benchmark tests, which shows their low proficiency, and some critics blamed the students' low performance was

on their teachers' low proficiency. Especially, past studies found that there was a correlation between teacher efficacy and their English proficiency (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Valizadeh, 2004). On a basis of the benchmark tests' results, Lee (2004) emphasized it is significant for NNESTs to improve their English proficiency to have native or near-native competence, and moreover, she suggested four strategies for NNESTs' preparation: (1) encouraging reflections on their teaching, (2) capitalizing on their strengths, (3) reinforcing their language improvement, and (4) using NNEST educators as role models.

Finally, Brady and Gulikers (2004) researched how MA TESOL NNES student teachers progress their student teaching. In this research, there were several main concerns for NNES student teachers. First, their students' perceptions and self-perceptions raise issues. For example, all NNES student teachers were concerned about how they were perceived by students as a teacher because Intensive English Program (IEP) students paid an expensive tuition, and some students did not want to learn from NNES student teachers. Also, due to lack of English proficiency, NNES student teachers felt insecurity and anxiety about their classes, confused the students in language activities, and were less autonomous compared to native English speaking student teachers. Second, there were problems between host instructors and NNES student teachers. For instance, there were sometimes lack of compromise, interpersonal issues, and cultural misunderstanding. On one hand NNES student teachers also had a hard time to figure out when is the good timing to talk with their host teachers; on the other hand, some IEP instructors complained that some NNES student teachers were difficult to work with. Third, just as other teaching settings, NNES faced that they had to follow the

program's curriculum, textbook, and host teachers. These concerns can potentially hinder student teachers' efficacy and appropriate identity development.

Conclusions

Enhancing teacher efficacy beliefs and developing strong teacher identity are key elements of Japanese NNESTs' professional development, particularly in an EFL setting. While reviewing literature about language teachers, I realized NNESTs are at risk to have intense pressure from being compared with NESTs. Because of the comparison of NNESTs' language proficiency with NESTs as well as the influence from their own culture and categorization as NNESTs, NNESTs expand more effort to become proficient English teachers. Chacón (2005), Eslami and Fatahi (2008), and Zakeri and Alavi (2011) found a positive correlation between NNESTs' efficacy and their self-reported English proficiency, which corresponds with RQ#1 in the present study investigating Japanese NNESTs' efficacy in a Japanese EFL context. Chacón (2005) also investigated the relationship between NNESTs efficacy and teacher training. These two factors are explored in RQ#1.

Social identity theory can explain the constructs of NNESTs' identity. The NNESTs' position has been historically formed by comparing social groups and categories to NESTs. As previously explained about social comparison and stereotyping, I discussed how the distinction between ingroup and outgroup memberships influences social comparisons and relates to stereotyping by positively distinguishing oneself (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). From studies on NNESTs' identity development through social identity theory (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2001; Johnson, 2005; Varghese et al., 2005), I examined their experiences in differentiating their identity with NESTs. To explain the

process, their professional and role identity are investigated in RQ#2. Additionally, in an

EFL setting, NNESTs' own and L2 cultures affect their identity development due to their

linguistic, social, and educational circumstances. In this present study, the findings from

RQ#1 are integrated into RQ#2 to explore the relationship between Japanese NNESTs'

efficacy and their professional identity.

In this study, I focus on their accent, self and students' perceptions, the

importance of interculturality, and teacher education. Including these issues, this research

compares the differences between NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy and identity

development in RQ#3. Finally, this study is intended to suggest how NNESTs can foster

their confidence in teaching so that they can be pedagogically and psychologically

competent teachers.

CHAPTER III   METHODOLOGY

Two principal elements of this present study are to investigate teacher efficacy and identity. Teacher efficacy has been quantitatively measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), and Bandura's Teacher Efficacy Scale (Bandura, undated) in the past. In contrast, research on identity has been explored by utilizing qualitative approaches. For these reasons, a mixed methods study was used in this research by analyzing each conventional approach separately and finally by integrating both analyses.

In Phase 1, interview data were collected for the qualitative strand, whereas a survey was implemented for the quantitative strand. For both strands of data collection, four types of teachers − college Japanese NNESTs, junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs, college NESTs, and junior high and high school NESTs − participated in the study. In Phase 2, qualitative and quantitative strands were analyzed separately. For the interviews, I analyzed categories and themes based on coding and also used comparative analysis. For the survey, both descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted to investigate each group of teachers' traits, especially which groups possessed higher or lower teacher efficacy. In Phase 3, both qualitative and quantitative data sets were merged by comparing and contrasting them between groups of teachers. In Phase 4, the data sets from interpretations and discussions were made specifically focusing on the relationship between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity compared to NESTs. While examining each phase, the methodological processes of this mixed methods study will be addressed to investigate how Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity are constructed and how they differ from their NESTs' counterpart.

Overview of Mixed Methods Design

Johnson et al. (2007) defined mixed methods research as the combinations of procedures with qualitative and quantitative research in order to complete a study with more depth and breadth. Mixed methods research is also the combination of two forms of data, not only for collecting and analyzing it with multiple types of methods, but also for including diverse philosophical assumptions. Creswell and Clark (2011) explained that mixed methods research contains elements that supplement each approach's limitations by using two methods and expanding outcomes from both types of data. Moreover, in a neutral sense, researchers can use all tools for data collection from both qualitative and quantitative research without restriction (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). According to Creswell and Clark (2011), a mixed methods approach is suitable for studies that have research problems for which one data source might not be sufficient. Thus, certain questions are supported by mixed methods research better than by a quantitative or qualitative study alone. Because two major research interests in this present study are teacher efficacy and identity, each element includes a qualitative and quantitative focus in nature. Teacher efficacy has been gauged dominantly quantitatively, whereas teacher identity has been studied qualitatively. In the mixed methods study, a typology-based approach is used to focus on identifying practical designs and selecting and adapting appropriate designs based on the purpose and questions of the study. Hall and Howard (2008) insisted that a synergistic approach would bring greater effects than the total of individual components by combining them. Consequently, a mixed methods approach provided meaningful results and implications to this study.

Convergent Parallel Design

In mixed methods research, a typology-based approach is stressed to classify the useful mixed methods designs and to select appropriate designs based on the purposes and research questions of the study (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Based on the concept of a typology-based approach, this study has implemented *the convergent parallel design*, in which qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis occurred independently and concurrently. The interview is carried out for the qualitative strand, and the survey is conducted for the quantitative strand. Each data set is analyzed independently, and finally, both strands are synthesized during the interpretation.

The main purpose of this design is "to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic" (Morse, 1991, p. 122). According to Green et al. (1989), complementarity in mixed methods research enhances the quality of the results from both qualitative and quantitative methods to improve the validity and interpretability by increasing strengths and impeding biases. This present study investigated the relationship between teacher efficacy and identity development in Japanese English teachers. Thus, the qualitative interview was utilized to measure the process and influence of their teacher efficacy and identity, whereas the quantitative survey was conducted to assess the levels of their teacher efficacy and the relationship between it and their background information. Due to the use of two methods to examine teacher efficacy and identity, I could explore a phenomenon from different angles. Particularly for teacher efficacy and identity studies, most of the research on teacher identity has been conducted using a qualitative approach, whereas most of the research on self-efficacy has been explored using a quantitative approach. Thus, utilizing a different method from other studies may

bring new perspectives. In addition, using a mixed methods approach is meaningful for

this study so as to transfer to similar EFL contexts.
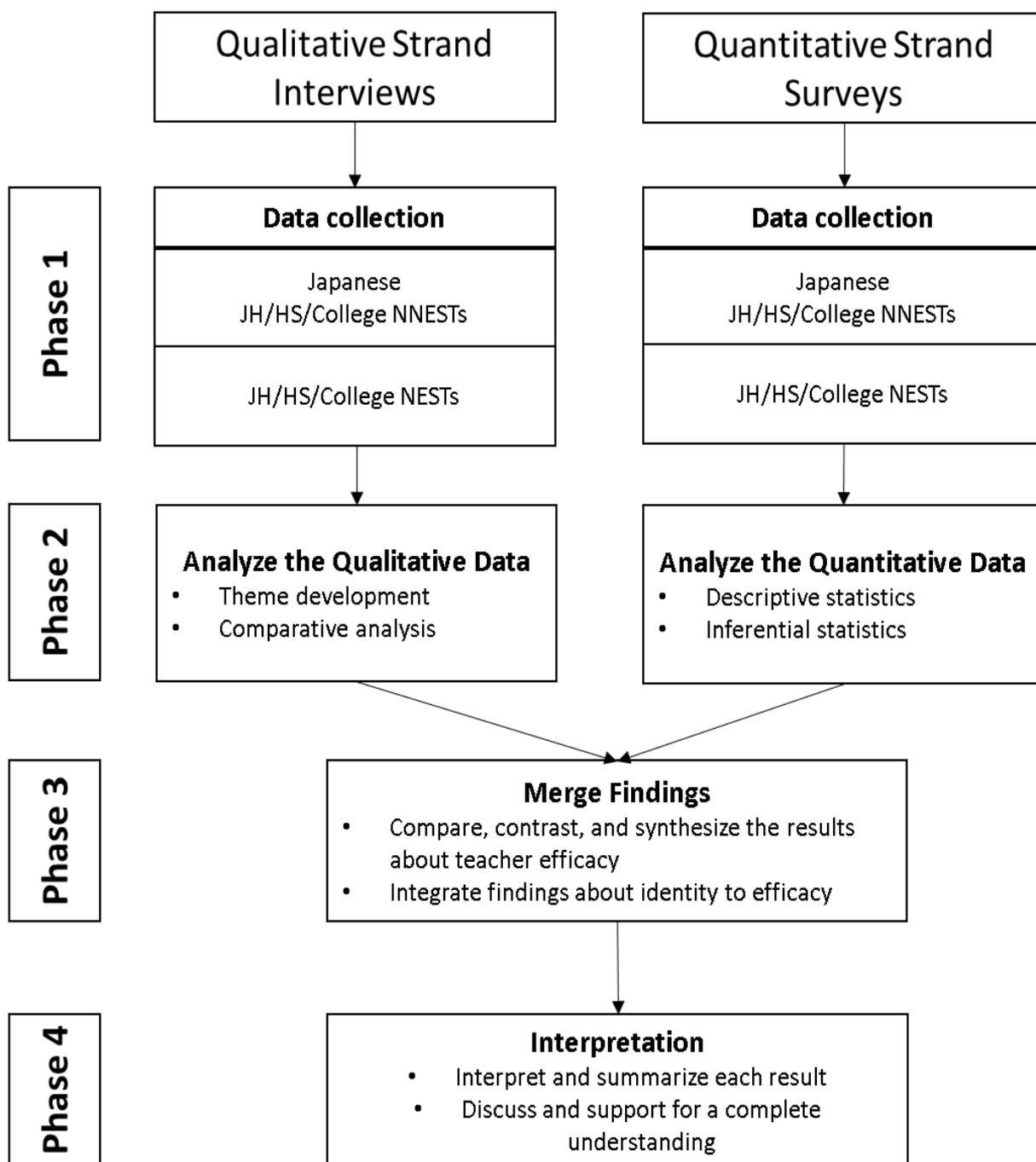
Figure 3.1. Design of the convergent parallel study

Pilot Study

A small case qualitative study was implemented for the pilot study, which consisted of three methods: classroom observations, interviews, and think-aloud protocols. The participants were two Japanese NNESTs teaching English in a college in Japan.

Classroom Observations in a Japanese College Setting

Classroom observations occurred in the two Japanese NNESTs' English classes in a Japanese university in mid-July, 2013. One of the participants was male with about ten years of teaching experience in Japan at the college level; the other was a female who had been teaching classes at the university for two years. For one-and-a-half weeks, I observed their beginning level English courses for all four skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and their intermediate level courses for reading/writing and speaking/listening, totaling 19 classes. Field notes were taken with detailed descriptions of teacher-directed activity and teacher behavior during each class. Also, my responses and questions considered what the teachers and their students were doing in the classroom. Finally, the instructors' teaching behavior patterns were questioned and recognized while in the class.

While observing classes, it was possible to see both teachers' meaningful pedagogical activities in class, such as their use of teaching methods, English and Japanese use in the classroom instructions, classroom management strategies, the ways that the participants built their relationship with students, and so on. During the observations, I focused on the participants' teacher efficacy and identity that they showed through their classroom activities, and some of the actions depended on these factors. For

example, strategies for giving feedback were an interesting contrast between the two

teachers. Takayama (2014) found that one tried to give positive feedback with less

control to his students in class, whereas the other teacher sometimes gave harsh feedback

on students' performance with more control, yet her students still enjoyed their classes.

Considering the multiple complex factors in the classroom, it was hard to objectively

measure how much they perceived their capability of their classroom activities from the

observations. Particularly, teacher efficacy is a self-perception, so it is difficult to connect

how they considered themselves capable of teaching activities and what they actually did

in the class, which is not the focus of my dissertation study. Additionally, there might be

a mismatch between how they did in class and how I perceived them. These findings

became more obvious after interviewing them; therefore, I concluded that interviews are

a more effective research method for my dissertation study. Furthermore, a series of

classroom observations was time-consuming, and sometimes arranging the schedule with

the teachers was problematic.

Interviews from Two College NNESTs

While observing classes, two interview sessions were conducted for both teachers

about their teacher efficacy, identities, beliefs in pedagogy, perceptions of culture, and

educational and training backgrounds. All the interviews, which totaled to about two

hours for each teacher, were recorded and transcribed. Because of this observation

process, I could connect what they had actually done in the classroom with what they had

intended to do, based on their pedagogy. I also found gaps between their perceptions of

confidence levels in teaching and their pedagogical behaviors in classes. This finding was

helpful in understanding how the participants perceived their efficacy and identity.

Interestingly, how they were observed in their classrooms did not necessarily match how they had evaluated themselves as teachers. For example, one of the participants had a high level of English proficiency after living in the U.S. for more than 20 years and appeared confident in her class. However, in the interview she told me that she doubted her use of teaching methods because of her short teaching experience and a lack of teacher training. Thus, her teacher efficacy was considered "low." In contrast, the other teacher showed a higher level of teacher efficacy both in the classroom and during his interview because of his ten years of teaching and teacher training experience, which had helped him gain his pedagogical knowledge. Therefore, I found that the length of teaching and teacher training experience can be significant factors in developing teacher efficacy (Takayama, 2014). As a result, both survey and interview questions were included and analyzed the relationships between teacher efficacy and these factors.

Think-Aloud Protocols by an Online Survey

In the think-aloud protocols, three participants answered an online survey on Qualtrics from February to early-March in 2014. Two were teaching English at the Japanese college level, and the third was a graduate student at a university in the U.S. with four years of teaching experience at the high school level. By Skype, the two college teachers in Japan verbalized whatever they saw, thought, felt, and experienced while they were answering the online survey. However, the graduate student was on site when she responded to the survey. Both online and on site think-aloud data were recorded, which took approximately half an hour for each think-aloud. The online survey was created based on the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001). The survey included questions to measure participants' teacher efficacy, identity, their

beliefs in pedagogy, and some demographic and background questions. Additionally, at the end of the procedure, I asked them to give me feedback on whether the survey questions had clear wording and content and whether the flow of the questions had been logical. According to my participants' responses, most of the questions were comprehensible. However, some questions were not applicable for all the participants due to the differences between their institutions, or the questions were so broad that they did not know how to answer them. Hence, I had to improve the questions by providing guidance or follow-up questions. It was also an opportunity to anticipate how long the survey took, specifically for non-native speakers of English. It took about 15 minutes to go through silently; thus, it was assumed to be appropriate even for Japanese NNESTs.

Taking Methodological Procedures to the Dissertation Study

Conducting a pilot study was worthwhile because it was possible to discover differences between what the participants said in the interview and how they behaved in the class in the qualitative strands. As explained above, interviews were the most appropriate and efficient form of understanding Japanese NNESTs' teacher efficacy and identity development because they could explain and reflect on how they perceived their own capability of teaching activities and their identity as English teachers. Also, by using the think-aloud protocols, it was feasible to receive feedback and improve the weaknesses of my survey. Based on their feedback, wording on the survey was changed to be clearer and more specific to target Japanese NNESTs. Classroom observations were a meaningful method to learn how the participants demonstrated themselves as teachers in the classroom. However, because of the gap between their perceived teacher efficacy and classroom behaviors, classroom observations became less intriguing for the dissertation

study. Furthermore, because there would be 11 participants total for the qualitative strand, finding a time in which to observe all 11 participants in class would be incredibly hard. In conclusion, interviews provided more in-depth findings for the participants' teacher efficacy and identity development than classroom observations. Hence, I would focus only on interviews for the qualitative strand in my dissertation study.

<div align="center">**Setting: EFL Education in Japan**</div>

This research was set in Japan including Japanese NNESTs and non-Japanese NESTs. I interviewed and conducted a survey of both types of participants in Japan; therefore, the context of this study was a setting where English is taught as a foreign language. Furthermore, those participants were immersed in the Japanese culture and society that possessed distinctive traditions and a monolingual structure, which would provide a certain perspective of the EFL context. In both strands, I recruited participants from post-secondary and secondary schools.

The English Learning Population at Educational Institutions in Japan

The majority of junior high, high school, and college students in Japan study English as a foreign language; therefore, it is obvious that English is the most prevalent foreign language that is learned in Japan. Before 2011, mandatory foreign language education started from the junior high school level, but after 2011, English education became mandatory starting from fifth grade in elementary school. Although fifth and sixth graders study English once a week for 50 minutes, the primary goal for English education in Japan is to enhance students' communicative competence by learning culture and language and improving the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing (MEXT, 2011b). According to MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports,

Science and Technology; 2014), there are approximately 10,600 junior high schools, 5,000 high schools, and 775 universities including public and private institutions. Hence, most Japanese people learn English for three years at least, and most continue learning for six years.

Issues of Japanese NNESTs in Japan. Throughout all the levels of education, MEXT aims to teach English communicatively based on its internationalization policy. Internationalization policy promotes Japanese English learners to grow into global citizens who can be active members of the global community. In addition, English Only Policy requires high school English teachers to use English exclusively in instruction, which MEXT (2008) announced to promote English instruction in English. This policy is intended to improve Japanese English learners' communicative competence. Due to this English Only Policy, high school English teachers are encouraged to implement English classroom instruction in English. However, the high-stakes university and high school entrance exams with its emphasis on reading skills, grammar ability, pronunciation, and listening comprehension have a negative impact on the ability to achieve these goals (Underwood, 2010). The pressure to do well on the exams puts pressure both on Japanese English teachers and learners. This, in turn, influences their teaching practices, making them more inclined to use the Grammar-Translation Method. Thus, in-class instructions have been implemented for the sake of succeeding in entrance exams (Underwood, 2010).

Despite the drive to implement the communicative teaching approach by MEXT, Watanabe (2008) mentioned that teaching English communicatively is difficult for secondary school English teachers due to four reasons. First, secondary school Japanese

NNESTs obtain little teacher training experience in the communicative teaching approach when they are pursuing their college degree. Thus, many teachers might not have appropriate knowledge about the communicative approach. Second, less than 50% of secondary school Japanese NNESTs achieves sufficient English proficiency on the TOEFL according to MEXT's (MEXT, 2011b) survey; thus, their English proficiency is an issue. Third, many Japanese NNESTs evaluate their own speaking competence as weak, and moreover, they do not want to lose respect from their students by making mistakes in front of them. Fourth, many secondary school Japanese NNESTs believe that it is important for students to enhance their grammar knowledge and reading skills for the university entrance exam, which decelerates the use of the communicative teaching approach. Based on these concerns, it is crucial for Japanese NNESTs to improve their English proficiency, particularly for their communicative competence.

The English Teaching Population and Teacher Preparation in Japan

There are a total of approximately 88,000 Japanese NNESTs from junior high school, high school, and university levels in Japan (MEXT, 2007) and the total of approximately 16,000 NESTs in Japan (Richards, 2009). Among NESTs in Japan, ALTs (Assistant Language Teachers) play a significant role for the internationalization policy in Japanese English education. ALTs are sent from The Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme, whose objective has been to promote international exchange between Japan and other countries for the past 27 years. The Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR) administers the JET Programme. In 2013, 4,372 participants from 40 countries joined the program, and all the three NEST interview participants in this study were ALTs from the JET Programme.

In spite of the promotion of MEXT's internationalization policy, grammar translation method is still the most commonly used teaching method in the English class in Japan (Underwood, 2010). As explained above, this is because of the competitive nature of high school and university entrance exams because grammar translation method is considered as the most efficient and successful method to improve test scores. Although some teachers and schools attempt to incorporate the communicative teaching approach into the instruction, it is difficult both for teachers and students to change the teaching method after being exposed to this approach for many years (Asahi Newspaper, 2008).

Although this present study researched Japanese NNESTs, findings can be applied to neighboring countries that possess similar educational systems and cultural backgrounds in teaching and learning English, such as China, Taiwan, and Korea (Mee, 1999). Mee (1999) mentioned that rote learning and a teacher-centered approach are common instruction in the classroom in China. Unlike these countries, English is acquired as the first language and the main language at school in Singapore; thus, students learn English as immersion.

Requirements for Participant Selection

I was interested in investigating the differences between Japanese NNESTs and non-Japanese NESTs by considering their cultural backgrounds. Thus, two types of English teachers who meet the following criteria were the focal participants: (1) Japanese NNESTs who were native speakers of Japanese and non-native speakers of English who had experience learning English under the Japanese educational system, (2) non-Japanese NESTs who were native speakers of English and non-native speakers of Japanese who

received their education under their own country's educational systems. Both types of

teachers were teaching English either part-time or full-time in Japan at the time of data

collection. Furthermore, different participants were chosen for qualitative and

quantitative data collection not to influence the results of each data set. In Japanese

NNESTs and non-Japanese NESTs, the participants were divided into junior high and

high school English teachers and those who taught in colleges.

Schools representing different educational levels was chosen because English

teachers have different characteristics based on the grade levels of educational

institutions due to the emphasis on high school and university entrance exams. Therefore,

"stratified sampling"/ "dimensional sampling" (Teddlie & Yu, 2007) was conducted with

representatives of different educational levels. The reason for choosing teachers in

different grade levels was that I was interested in investigating whether the differences

had a relationship with participants' background factors and classroom management.

Thus, four groups of teachers participated in this study.

Internal Review Board and Consent Procedures

Several months before the participant recruitment, the process of applying for

Internal Review Board (IRB) was started. While planning for recruitment and consent

processes, I contacted a coordinator at a university in Japan whether some of his Japanese

NNESTs and non-Japanese NESTs' colleagues could participate in the interview portion

of the study as well as other Japanese NNESTs and NESTs could cooperate on an online

survey. Because individual teachers' email addresses are not open to the public due to the

privacy protection laws in Japan, it was necessary to contact a program coordinator to get

each teacher's information. After receiving his permission, the email exchanges about

this process were reported as agreement between the university and me regarding this study. This was the procedure to receive participants' contact information, and also the coordinator was reminded not to tell the participants whether or not they could participate in the study until the IRB approved the research. Additionally, to conduct this study in Japan, it was necessary to request the coordinator in a Japanese university to be a local context reviewer, and he accepted the offer. After receiving IRB approval in mid-March, 2014, a recruitment email for interviews was sent to ask for participants, receive contact information, meet with the participants, and explain the study informally. After recognizing potential participants, some screening questions were asked via email. Screening questions were: Are you a non-native speaker of English and a native speaker of Japanese? Are you a native speaker of English and a non-native speaker of Japanese? (If they are a native speaker of Japanese,) do you have experience learning English under the Japanese educational system? (If they are a native speaker of English,) where are you from and where did you get your formal education? While recruiting interview participants, recruitment emails for an online survey were sent to ask for cooperation. After receiving responses with permission, the consent form was sent to the survey participants.

As a way of minimizing the possibility of coercion, the teacher participants were emailed a consent letter before data collection began. As soon as IRB approval was obtained, the consent letter was emailed to the teacher participants. In the body of the email, as well as in the consent letter, I offered to discuss the study over email with the teacher participants individually. They were asked to read the consent letter and to respond via email giving their consent to participate in the study. The teacher participants

were assured during this process that they should in no way feel obligated to continue

their participation in the study.

Interview Participant Selection

A total of 11 Japanese NNESTs and non-Japanese NESTs participated in

interviews.

Table 3.1. The number of participants in interviews

	College	Junior high / High school
Japanese NNESTs	2	3
Non-Japanese NESTs	3	3

For the interview, the goal was to recruit a total of 12 participants and three from each

type of teacher. Participant selection was made based on a convenience sampling, which

is administered by selecting participants based on "time, money, location, availability of

sites or respondents, and so on" (Merriam, 2009, p. 79). For both the college Japanese

NNESTs and non-Japanese NESTs, I was given access by a university where I could find

qualified teachers for this study.

To recruit college teacher participants, an email was sent to an English program

coordinator in the university to solicit his colleagues for participation in the interviews.

Because of the interests in collecting data from different cultural backgrounds for three

non-Japanese NESTs, I asked the coordinator to introduce NESTs who were from

different countries. The aim was to recruit participants with differing native cultures and

educational experiences so that this present study would highlight differences and

generate broad perspectives among NESTs. The program coordinator was also asked to

find Japanese NNESTs to participate in the interviews. Eventually, he provided contact

information from two Japanese NNESTs and three non-Japanese NESTs who were from

the U.K., Canada, and the U.S. After receiving IRB approval, those five teachers were

contacted to solicit participation for the interviews. Because it was necessary to find one

more participant for the Japanese college NNESTs category, I contacted many teachers

who I met in the professional conferences and also requested some English teachers in

Japan to be potential participants. In addition, those teachers who participated in the

interviews were asked to refer me to their colleagues and friends. In spite of my effort to

find one more participant by snowball sampling (Merriam, 2009), I could not find one.

Thus, there were two college Japanese NNEST and three non-Japanese NEST

participants for the interviews.

To select interview participants from secondary schools, I contacted the high

school I graduated from and requested if there were English teachers who could

participate in this study. Thus, this participant selection procedure was adopted by

convenience sampling (Merriam, 2009) based on the location and availability of sites.

After talking with the English program coordinator in the high school, he and his

colleagues were willing to attend the interviews. To get at least one participant from a

junior high school level, I found one through an English teacher who was teaching at a

language school in Japan. For non-Japanese NESTs, when I contacted the high school I

graduated from, the program coordinator also gave me American ALT contact

information. Then, the ALT willingly gave me permission to interview her.

Regarding the other two secondary school non-Japanese NESTs, a Japanese

English teacher who knew ALTs in town introduced me to both. Similar to the college

non-Japanese NEST participant selection, I attempted to request participation from

different countries. Although I could finally get permission to interview only two

American and one Canadian ALTs, it was logical because the United States and Canada

are the top two countries with respect to the number of participants as ALTs (JET

Programme, 2015). Therefore, for the secondary school non-Japanese NEST category,

participants were selected from the two major countries that have sent many ALTs.

Table 3.2. Interview participants' profiles

	Name	Country	Interview data collected
College	Miho	Japan	June 9 and 17, 2014
	Yoko	Japan	June 30 and July 8, 2014
	Ron	Britain	June 11, 2014*
	Max	Canada	June 20 and 24, 2014
	Sandra	USA	June 13 and 20, 2014
Junior high/ High school	Satoshi	Japan	June 21 and July 10, 2014
	Keita	Japan	July 1 and 10, 2014
	Toshie	Japan	July 22 and 23, 2014
	Donna	USA	June 24 and 25, 2014
	Paul	Canada	June 28 and July 10, 2014
	Andrew	USA	July 7 and 9, 2014

*I had two separate interviews on the same day with a break in the interviews.

Survey Participant Selection

A total of 148 Japanese NNESTs and non-Japanese NESTs participated in this

survey.

Table 3.3. The number of participants in a survey

	College	Junior high/High school	Total
Japanese NNESTs	20	26	46
Non-Japanese NESTs	64	38	102
Total	84	64	148

In the survey, participants were chosen by the stratified sampling (Clark & Creswell,

2008), which they were from subgroups of both Japanese NNESTs and NESTs teaching

in a junior high and high school level and a college level as representative of the population. Also, convenience sampling (Merriam, 2009) was implemented depending on connections through networking and professional conferences in order to collect the maximum participants based on the accessibility and location. Given the nature of privacy laws in Japan, individual teachers' email addresses are not open to the public. Thus, I contacted program coordinators I knew through my pilot study and professional conferences, asking whether they could introduce me to potential participants for my study.

 To solicit cooperation for the survey, several approaches were used starting in April 2014. To begin with, contact was made with educational institutions in Japan, including APU Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Ritsumeikan University, Chuo University, Notre Dame Seishin Univeresity, Tsuda College, Japan Women's University, and Nagoya University. The selection of these universities was based on my previous work and connections with program coordinators and teachers through conferences. While contacting universities, I also requested participation in the survey through English teacher acquaintances and English teachers who I met in professional conferences in the past to distribute the information of the survey. Moreover, all the interview participants were asked to distribute the information of my study to increase more participation. In addition to targeting individual institutions, contacting professional organizations was a critical approach to inviting more participants. Because these groups' contact information was publicly open on the Internet, it was accessible. A request was sent to JALT (The Japan Association for Language Teaching), JACET (The Japan Association of College English Teachers), JASELE (Japan Society of English Language Education),

LET (Japan Association for Language Education and Technology), ETJ (English

Teachers in Japan), The National Federation of Prefectural English Teachers'

Organizations, The Association for Japan Exchange and Teaching (AJET), The English

Language Education Council, Inc., and Eigo Net. I solicited cooperation from their

members and recruited survey participants from April to December in 2014. An online

message was sent to the main office of the organization to ask for permission to distribute

the survey to each regional and special interest group. Additionally, when being present

in Japan in the summer of 2014, I attended regional professional meetings among English

teachers to invite participation in the survey.

Although many English teachers and institutions cooperated on my survey

through networking, it was still difficult to achieve the goal number of participants. I

originally planned to solicit participation from more than 50 teachers from each group.

There was a major gap between Japanese NNESTs and non-Japanese NESTs with respect

to participation in the survey. The number of the participants was skewed with greater

participation from non-Japanese NESTs. For example, because the Japanese culture and

academic tradition do not allow public access to non-institutional members, it was

difficult to ask for cooperation for the survey without having any connections with the

organization beforehand. For most of the organizations, when I asked to get permission to

distribute my survey to each regional branch, they did not allow me to do so.

Interestingly, those organizations where most of the members were non-Japanese NESTs

were more willing to distribute the survey than other groups containing more Japanese

NNESTs. As a result, it was particularly difficult to recruit Japanese NNESTs. In

contrast, non-Japanese college NESTs were the most active participants in the study, which was the sole group that met the target number.

Phase 1: Qualitative Data Collection

The qualitative strand in Phase 1 consisted of a series of semi-structured interviews designed to contribute to an in-depth data analysis. The formal interview with the teachers was conducted in person, and the locations depended on participant convenience in a private space, e.g., a conference room at school. The interviews were conducted in June and July 2014 when I was present in Japan. Each interview was audiotaped, and there were two 60 minute interview sessions approximately for a total of two hours with each participant. There were 37 questions in total, and from the pilot study, it was found to be tiring for participants to finish all the questions at one time. Moreover, to build rapport with interview participants, it was meaningful to have the first session to ask questions about their background information, such as their teaching and training experience, professional development, English learning experience and self-perceived proficiency, and pedagogy. Then, in the second session, they were asked about the main themes of this study, such as their teacher efficacy, teacher identity, personality, and culture related to teaching. In fact, it was effective to build rapport with the interview participants, and indeed, they tended to answer questions in the second session more expansively. Finally, because junior high and high school NNESTs were occasionally comfortable being interviewed in Japanese, we spoke in Japanese depending on their choice.

For a portion of the interview, I developed questions based on the following thematic categories: teaching and training experiences, professional development,

English learning experience, pedagogy, self-perceptions of English proficiency and accent, teacher efficacy, teacher identity, personality, and culture (Appendix C). The interview questions about teacher efficacy were derived from the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES, Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) where the same questions were used as survey questions. To carry out more in-depth data analysis, I changed wording and made the questions open-ended to fit the nature of the qualitative data collection. For instance, the survey questions about teacher efficacy measured how much participants were able to conduct their teaching activities, whereas the interview questions asked how they applied their teacher efficacy to actual teaching. Questions about teacher identity were generated to investigate how Japanese NNESTs' identity relates to their past experiences, students, identity as Japanese and as non-native speakers, and teacher efficacy beliefs. Other questions were derived from examining participants' background information. To investigate NNESTs' efficacy and identity, previous research indicate potential factors: teacher training and professional development experience; English proficiency; and influence from Japanese and the target culture. As mentioned above, the pilot study helped with improving the interview protocol by reflecting research questions to conduct the interviews effectively in this present research.

Positionality Statement

Hall (1990) explained that "there's no enunciation without positionality. You have to position yourself somewhere in order to say anything at all" (p. 18). By acknowledging who the researchers are as individuals and group members within their respective social positions, it is necessary to situate themselves objectively as well as be mindfully subjective.

I was born in Japan and lived there for 30 years. After studying in the U.S. for a year, I went back to Japan and started teaching English at a university and a high school in southern Japan. I taught beginning level English grammar and TOEFL test-taking skills at the university and TOEIC test-taking skills at the high school about a year. Particularly, the setting of the university was interesting. The student population was half international, and the rest were Japanese students. In this EFL environment, I taught English to Japanese English learners by using Japanese. As an NNEST, myself, I shared Japanese as a first language and cultural and social norms with my students, which was the fun part of teaching. I felt myself as a half student and a half teacher because I was a novice teacher who just started a teaching career and a relatively young teacher in the university. After this experience, I pursued a master's degree in TESOL in the U.S. Although I did not teach English full-time after my master's graduation, I taught an English listening course to Japanese English learners in a Midwestern university for two summers; therefore, I taught English to Japanese students in EFL and ESL settings by utilizing both English and Japanese. Teaching English to Japanese students in Japan and the U.S. was a different experience to me because they have different types of exposure to English in EFL and ESL environments. Particularly, I taught test-taking strategies in Japan, and the students had a specific goal of obtaining certain scores on tests. In contrast, Japanese students who were learning in the U.S., they wanted to improve their communicative abilities in English and overall academic skills. This experience provided me different perspectives on students' needs depending on their surrounding environment.

In contrast to these English teaching experiences to Japanese English learners in EFL and ESL settings, I also taught Japanese for six years in a Midwestern U.S. university. This gave me a native speaking teacher's viewpoint in language teaching. When I taught English to Japanese English learners, of course, I was more knowledgeable than my students, but I still felt I was learning and growing along with my students. Thus, I perceived this teaching experience as a growth process based on a joint effort with my students. By contrast, teaching Japanese as a native speaker meant to be a cultural ambassador and educate learners by utilizing myself as a language and cultural model. Additionally, it did not take a long time to be comfortable teaching my mother tongue even though I was not a trained Japanese teacher. It was probably because I mostly taught the beginning level Japanese, but at the same time, I was confident in pragmatics and culture due to my native speaker's insights as a Japanese person.

After living in Japan for many years, my living and teaching experience in the U.S. brought me both insider and outsider perspectives as a Japanese English teacher for my study. Understanding Japanese educational systems, characteristics of Japanese English learners, and social and cultural norms, it is true that I have assumptions toward English education and teachers in Japan through my own experience. By sharing these mutual understandings with my Japanese NNEST participants, I felt more empathy toward them because I could see their approaches and struggles as part of my experience. On the other hand, toward NEST participants, I, myself as a non-native speaker of English from Japan, viewed them as outsiders of the Japanese educational context from different cultural backgrounds. This factor differentiated between the NESTs and me as a Japanese NNEST, especially for conducting research in Japan. However, as a native

speaking teacher of Japanese in the U.S., I learned how Japanese and American culture affected my teaching in a foreign language setting. I always felt it is impossible to bring complete Japanese culture to the U.S. educational environment. I have to adapt the class to suit the students. Thus, as a researcher studying both native and non-native language speaking teachers, I tried to understand my participants' views that shared the same language and culture with their students or came from different language and cultural backgrounds.

I consider that experiencing the position of the both native and non-native speaking teachers can be an advantage and a disadvantage. Particularly as a native speaker of Japanese, I assumed I had shared thoughts with Japanese NNEST participants, which can be a bias. Compared to NESTs, I had had more expectations and beliefs in Japanese NNESTs' responses. In contrast, I might not have had assumptions of NESTs responses, and I rather attempted to understand their perspectives which were new for me. Moreover, for both types of teachers, I tried to understand there were individual differences in teaching and learning English experiences.

Phase 1: Quantitative Data Collection

The survey was conducted on Qualtrics, which is the online survey system that allows respondents to answer questions through the Internet anonymously. The online survey was presented in English, and it contained elements to measure teacher efficacy, to ask questions about the target culture and teacher identity, and to seek their demographic information based on the Likert scale and short answers. The survey consisted of 37 Likert scale and short answer questions, with 24 from the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), 11 capturing

demographic information, and two focusing on teacher identity. The online survey data were collected between April 2014 and January 2015 (Appendix D).

The survey could be completed in approximately 15 minutes based on the pilot study that was tested for NNESTs in order to make it potentially accessible to a greater number of Japanese NNESTs participants. In order to attract a higher number of participants and based on the feedback from the pilot study, the language use and the structure of the survey questions were improved. These were not significant changes to introduce threats to validity, rather to modify wording by using more simple and common words for Japanese NNESTs so that they could understand the meaning of the survey questions easily.

Validity of Instrument for Teacher Efficacy

The primary focus on investigating teacher efficacy was how to find a valid instrument to measure it. According to several studies about teacher efficacy scales (Brouwers et al., 2002; Klassen et al., 2009; and Nie et al., 2012), validity and reliability have been issues in measuring teacher efficacy. In analyses of four teacher efficacy scales — the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), Bandura's Teacher Efficacy Scale (Bandura, undated), and the Ashton Vignettes (Ashton, et al., 1982) — the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) has been demonstrated to have validity and reliability; thus, it was used in this study.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) created a measurement by expanding Bandura's teacher self-efficacy scale and incorporating Gibson and Dembo's Likert scale instrument. The new instrument, called the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES),

consists of 24 items in the long form and 12 items in the short form. In this present study, the TSES long form was utilized. It has a nine-point scale and includes three factors: efficacy for instructional strategies (Factor 1), efficacy for classroom management (Factor 2), and efficacy for student engagement (Factor 3). First, Factor 1 measures to what extent teachers can perform well in their classroom teaching activities. Second, Factor 2 assesses to what extent they are capable of guiding their students' behavior in the classroom. Finally, Factor 3 gauges how much teachers can enhance their students' motivation and learning development.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) implemented factor analysis and measured reliabilities, and they found high reliabilities for all three sub-scales: 0.91 for instruction, 0.90 for management, and 0.87 for engagement. Regarding construct validity, the researchers investigated whether their new measurement correlated with existing teacher efficacy scales. The RAND researchers created two teacher efficacy items at the beginning of the teacher efficacy study in 1970's (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), and the long form of the TSES positively correlated with the RAND organization's items as well as with Gibson and Dembo's items. In addition to the positive correlation in the long form, the short form demonstrated similar correlation. Overall, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) concluded that the TSES is fairly reliable and valid.

Klassen et al. (2009) tested the validity of TSES in five countries: Canada, Cyprus, Korea, Singapore, and the U.S. They found substantial evidence of invariance in factors within culturally similar areas, such as in East Asian countries and North American countries, and across six groups of teachers drawn from five countries in North America, East Asia, and Europe. They concluded that there was strong measurement

invariance within similar cultures and in the same geographical regions. For example, Canadian and American teachers and Korean and Singapore teachers exhibited the same patterns respectively even though the teachers taught at different grade levels. Interestingly, the findings showed that North American teachers as a group rated higher in self-efficacy than East Asian teachers, which confirmed internal reliability across similar cultural and geographic groups.

Nie et al. (2012) advocated the validity and reliability based on factor analysis in the TSES. Three subscale factors had reasonable reliability, such as 0.91 for efficacy for motivation, 0.91 for efficacy for classroom management, and 0.83 for efficacy for instruction. Regarding validity, the researchers insisted that the most valid form collapsed three factors into one general factor. Overall, according to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001), Klassen et al. (2009), and Nie et al. (2012), the factorial structure of the TSES was stable even across different countries and cultures. Specifically, Klassen et al.'s (2009) and Nie et al.'s (2012) studies included East Asian countries, e.g. Korea and Singapore, and so demonstrated the adaptability of the instrument in a Japanese context. Due to the strong evidence of its validity and reliability, I utilized the TSES long form with 24 questions by rewording it to fit language teaching context because the TSES questions were created for general teaching context. As I explained above, multiple researchers have tested this instrument and analyzed it, most notably, Klassen et al. (2009) and Nie et al. (2012), collected their data internationally, including in Korea and Singapore. They asserted the validity and reliability of the TSES; specifically, Nie et al. (2012) revised the scale to suit the Singaporean context based on interviews with two educational psychologists and three teachers. Similarly, the wording of the original TSES

was modified, specifically for Japanese NNESTs, so that they could understand the meaning of the questions easily. Lastly, the TSES long form with 24 items was implemented, which contained eight questions each from three subcategories in order to maintain the survey's validity.

Although some researchers conducted their online survey on a five-point Likert scale, the original TSES was used, which is a nine-point scale rating from 1 (Not at all) to 9 (A great deal), so that I could take advantage of previous researchers' corroborated validity (Klassen, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Furthermore, the order of the questions remained the same to not reduce validity.

English Proficiency and Demographic Questions on Survey

As multiple researchers (Chacón, 2005; Eslami et al., 2008; Zakeri, 2011) argued, NNESTs' self-reported English proficiency and teacher efficacy were positively correlated. Therefore, self-perceived English proficiency on a five-point Likert scale was included. To quantify the scale, one was no response, two was assigned responses of not proficient at all, and six indicated responses of completely proficient. Thus, a higher number meant that participants agreed more strongly with statements corresponding with high English proficiency. This self-perceived English proficiency was divided by skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, communication, and pronunciation. For the demographic questions, the survey assessed participants' gender, type of teachers (native or non-native speaker of English), type of schools, students' proficiency levels and skills they are teaching, school size, the number of students they are teaching, the length of their teaching and living in English speaking countries, and their teacher training experience. Two short answer questions about teacher identity

addressed how English teachers describe themselves and how they understand the

necessary characteristics of English teachers in Japan.

Phase 2: Qualitative Data Analysis

The goal of this study for the qualitative strand is to understand differences and

similarities in the psychological development of individual participants in teacher

efficacy and identity; therefore, I investigated the tendencies and varieties in findings

from semi-structured interviews. Twenty-two interview sessions were carried out with 11

participants for a total of 22 hours. After collecting interview data, the data were

transcribed. As I explained, Japanese junior high and high school NNESTs were more

comfortable being interviewed in Japanese than in English; therefore, the part spoken in

Japanese was translated into English. While transcribing, I took analytic memos and

notes on comments in the margin. Finally, the interviews provided data to examine how

participants enhanced or sometimes failed to develop their teacher efficacy and identity

through teaching.

Coding Processes

According to Coffey and Atkinson (1996), codes are researchers' creations and

change gradually, which can be expanded, combined, and improved through interactions

with data. At first, while listening to the two Japanese college NNESTs' interviews and

reading their transcriptions, the interview data were open coded. Merriam (2009)

explained that researchers attempt to identify which data may be beneficial for further

analysis on this phase. Thus, while open coding several Japanese NNESTs' interviews, a

coding list and definitions were gradually developed. Because my focal participants were

Japanese NNESTs, I repeated open coding, developed the coding list, and scrutinized the

codes again, particularly for these five Japanese NNESTs.

While reading transcripts, I color coded the codes and definitions (Appendix E)

and attempted to find data that corresponds with the definitions. When color coding,

crucial notes, comments, and terms were also recorded in the margin. After this color

coding, analytical coding was conducted, which is "coding that comes from interpretation

and reflection on meaning" (Richards, 2005). At this stage, color codes and side notes

were interpreted to create categories. Eventually, these notes were merged into categories

and themes, which were provided from basic patterns and repetitive regularities.

Analyzing and connecting repetitive data to lead to specific categories from individual

teacher's interviews, I found distinctive themes which related to teacher efficacy and

identity by including multiple teachers' data. Categories were key concepts for making

inferences; thus, I strived to find relationships among these categories from the data.

During this process, each teacher's similarities and differences were also carefully

searched and connected to construct themes. To sum up, from each teacher's tendency,

categories were derived, and based on the categories, themes were generated by

repetitions that emerged by analyzing multiple teachers' interview data.

To develop themes, several strategies were used. Bazeley (2013) suggested that

patterns and trends should be found from reading and analyzing data. It is also important

to highlight specifically crucial quotes and compile them to generate themes. Although I

was constantly writing down comments and analytical memos, I further took notes on my

assertions and identified consequences that connected to theories from the literature. As a

result, in order to answer research questions for the part of Japanese NNESTs, I merged

codes with themes: teacher efficacy for engagement, teacher efficacy for management, teacher efficacy for instructional strategies, teachers' role identity, professional identity, teacher education and professional development experience, and self-perception of English proficiency. The NESTs' themes were: teacher efficacy for engagement, teacher efficacy for management, teacher efficacy for instructional strategies, and teacher identity. Due to the significant differences between college and junior high and high school teachers within the curricula, training and teaching backgrounds, and English proficiency, the analysis was separated by the school levels.

Comparative Analysis Processes

Comparative analysis procedures were used because the participants of this present study included four different types of teachers. According to Bazeley (2013), if the research includes participants who possess various characteristics, comparison is built in research questions. The comparison process during coding was developed from differences in multiple groups or conditions. In this present study, it was necessary to explore contrasts and similarities among different types of teachers in different school levels. Hence, in each category, data across groups were compared. The group comparison occurred between Japanese college NNESTs and Japanese junior high and high school NNESTs because of the difference in curriculum, students' goals and motivation, and each teacher's English proficiency. After analyzing these groups, another comparison was drawn between Japanese NNESTs and non-Japanese NESTs by themes.

Phase 2: Quantitative Data Analysis

Descriptive Statistics

In order to investigate the nature of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy (RQ#1), three factors of teacher efficacy (Efficacy for Engagement, Efficacy for Management, Efficacy for Instructional Strategies) were analyzed based on their means and standard deviations in each factor and interpreted to explore trends towards each teacher efficacy subscale. For Japanese NNESTs' background information, their English proficiency in seven skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, communication, and pronunciation) was analyzed from their means and standard deviations to find out whether there were certain skills that Japanese NNESTs self-reported higher or lower than others.

Prior to comparing between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' characteristics of teacher efficacy and identity (RQ#3), NESTs' efficacy was investigated by calculating three factors of teacher efficacy on TSES. The means and standard deviations of NESTs' efficacy survey questions were analyzed as I did for Japanese NNESTs in order to explore the particular tendencies.

Reliability and Correlation Analysis on Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy

First of all, to confirm the reliability of the TSES for RQ#1, Cronbach's Alpha was conducted for three factors in teacher efficacy, which "measures the degree of internal consistency among items on a scale" (Wuensch, 2012, p. 1). This statistical procedure is particularly beneficial when the scale is administered only once. Secondly, the correlation between three factors of teacher efficacy (efficacy for engagement, management, and instructional strategies) and three background components: (1) the length of teaching experience (2) the length of living experience in English speaking

countries (3) self-reported Japanese NNESTs' English proficiency was analyzed. Because it was unrealistic to examine correlations between seven skills of English proficiency and three factors of teacher efficacy, due to too many variables, seven skills of English proficiency were combined. After analyzing combined English proficiency as total proficiency, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated, and this concluded that it was appropriate to combine as total English proficiency. In addition to analyzing correlation between the three factors of teacher efficacy and each background information, three factors of teacher efficacy were combined as total teacher efficacy and calculated. All the analyses related to Japanese NNESTs' efficacy were also used for investigating RQ#2.

Analysis by T-Test, ANCOVA, and ANOVA on Japanese NNESTs' and NESTs' Efficacy

First, to understand how Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' are different in the means of three teacher efficacy factors, effect size between these two groups was calculated by Cohen's d. After this procedure, *t*-test was also run to investigate how the two types of teachers were different in each teacher efficacy factor so that I could see whether there were significant mean differences in three teacher efficacy factors. Then, to explore how the differences in types of teachers (Japanese NNESTs and NESTs) and grade levels (College and junior high and high schools) influence teacher efficacy, ANCOVA (Analysis of Covariance) was run. Three independent variables were investigated: (1) the two types of teachers (2) the grade levels (3) the interaction between types of teachers and grade levels. After finding whether there were statistically significant factors among those three, one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) was

conducted as well. In this procedure, two one-way ANOVAs were calculated based on the different grade levels that participants were teaching, and types of teachers were the independent variable. In each grade level, means and standard deviations of total teacher efficacy between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs were compared, which these two results were analyzed together as marginal means. By comparing these means based on grade levels, it is possible to discover which group has the significantly higher level of teacher efficacy than the other.

Phase 3: Merge Findings

Strategies for Merging Two Sets of Findings

According to Creswell and Clark (2011), the first step of merging data is to explore commonly occurring data in both studies, and then compare, contrast, and synthesize the data, arranging it in a table or discussion. This process facilitates the understanding of both data sets after analyzing each independently. Because of the fewer participants in the qualitative study, the quantitative data had more variables, which showed different, even contradictory patterns. After synthesis, I found differences between both data sets from each perspective. The common themes were discovered between these two data sets, and the themes that emerged only in one data set were categorized as a difference. Teacher efficacy and identity were analyzed from the quantitative data based on similarities and differences as generating from thematic variables.

Side-by-Side Comparison for Merged Data Analysis

Another approach was a *side-by-side comparison for merged data analysis* (Creswell & Clark, 2011), in which I presented the quantitative and qualitative findings

together in discussions and in summary tables to compare both results. In addition to discussing details, summary tables exhibited both qualitative findings and quantitative results side-by-side provided evidence for each theme. Also, the elements of teacher identity were incorporated into the tables so that it was possible to explore the connections between teacher efficacy and identity.

According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), "integration does not necessarily mean creating a single understanding on the basis of the results" (p. 305). However, the issue in this phase was how to handle data in case I could not find intersections between the two data sets. To avoid this phenomenon, interview and survey questions were controlled to ask the same constructs, so that both data sets shared the same themes of interests. Moreover, I was cautious about methodological or data quality problems, e.g. sampling and data analysis procedures. When data discrepancy occurred, after reexamining the inconsistency, the data were scrutinized again whether both data sets contained two different perspectives of the same phenomenon.

Processes of Side-by-Side Comparison for Merged Data Analysis

As a partial example table above, the interview and survey data about teacher efficacy for engagement were summarized in each column depending on the themes. After this analysis process, major characteristics and findings about teacher identity were added as another column, which also fell into the same theme. Hence, in a specific theme, interview and survey data on teacher efficacy and interview data on teacher identity were placed in the same row. This strategy was utilized to investigate the relationship between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and teacher identity (RQ#2) and the differences between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy and identity development (RQ#3).

Table 3.4. Comparison of information from interview and survey data between Japanese
NNESTs' efficacy and their professional identity (partial excerpt as example)

Theme	Japanese NNESTs' efficacy		Japanese NNESTs' identity
	Face-to-face Interviews	Online Survey	Face-to-face Interviews
Japanese college NNESTs' Efficacy for Engagement	More affective approaches to engaging students • Provide vicarious experience • Motivate students by reminding their dreams as a long-term goal • Students' self-accountability • Problem about big class sizes	The lowest rate among three factors • The mean was lower for junior/high school teachers (M=5.24) • Particularly low teacher efficacy to improve students who are failing (M=4.90) and to assist families (M=3.00) • College students have firmly set motivation and difficult to change it • Do not deal with students' parents • Students' own responsibility for learning	Roles as a teacher • Behavioral role model as a teacher • Have social responsibility • English teacher as a language model • Empathy toward students' language learning • Teacher as a learner • Provide vicarious experience • Life experience connects to teacher identity • Share knowledge with students • Advantage as a non-native speaker of English

Phase 4: Interpretation

Making Inferences and Interpreting Integrative Data

It is important to have trustworthy inferences in mixed methods research to enhance "inference quality" that relates to internal validity and credibility and "inference transferability" that links with generalizability (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), it is significant to understand participants' behaviors in their cultural and social contexts. As a native Japanese and a Japanese who has lived in the U.S. for more than eight years, my identity and experiences helped in understanding both circumstances of Japanese NNESTs and NESTs.

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) suggested some guidelines to make plausible inferences. I always reminded myself about research questions and purposes so that all of my analyses and interpretations were accurate for the study. Also, to make a credible

inference, I correlated between participants' perceptions of social construct and my reflective viewpoints from the study (Mertens, 2005). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) insisted that, to enhance inferences of mixed methods research in particular, it is crucial to evaluate the inferences from the qualitative analysis based on its standards as well as the quantitative analysis from its standards. Furthermore, it is necessary to assess meta-inferences accurately, when integrating two data sets that are inconsistent. Conclusions should link the findings closely and qualitative inferences should be consistent with quantitative inferences.

As befits the convergent parallel mixed methods design used in this study, research questions were generated by the scholarly literature, the qualitative data generated in the interviews, and the descriptive statistics from the survey. This process allowed me to provide thematic concepts, which can then be generalized based on quantitative data in order to appeal to a broader audience. The interpretation of the qualitative data provided in-depth insights of results of the quantitative data, allowing specific themes to become particularly distinctive within the qualitative data set. In other words, one interview provided unique data not found in the other interviews. Ideally, when both data sets were synthesized, they would connect to the findings from both strands. Moreover, the interpretation of the quantitative data was reflective of findings from the qualitative data and exhibited numerical persuasiveness.

Reducing Threats to Validity

Issues in data collection. Creswell and Clark (2011) addressed numerous points of potential threats to validity in mixed methods research. During the data collection stage, two strategies were employed to minimize the threats. First, qualitative and

quantitative participants were drawn from the same population of Japanese NNESTs and NESTs teaching in Japan; therefore, appropriate participants were selected for each strand. Another point was that separate data collection procedures were used to avoid potential bias on each data collection. Additionally, different participants were selected for qualitative and quantitative data collection not to influence the results of each data set.

Issues in data analysis and interpretation. First, it is critical that qualitative and quantitative data analysis should be carried out separately. Then, as exhibited in Phase 3, a combined display with qualitative findings and quantitative results should be used for merging data analysis, which is the proper approach to converge data according to Creswell and Clark (2011). Moreover, implementing inferential statistics reinforces the analysis of qualitative results. During the interpretation, although it is difficult to resolve disparate findings, reanalyzing the data and evaluating the analysis processes are important for consistent interpretation. Creswell and Clark (2011) also advised to remind of discussing mixed methods research questions, which is crucial for researchers. It is necessary to keep the research questions always in mind so that the processes of analysis and interpretation are not deviated from the original findings.

Summary of the Design: Correspondence of Research Questions, Analysis

Procedures, and Data Sources

Table 3.5. Correspondence of research questions, analysis procedures, and data sources

Research Questions	Analysis Procedures	Data Sources
RQ#1: What is the nature of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and the effect of background characteristics on this efficacy?	Quantitative: Descriptive and inferential statistics of TSES	• Survey NNESTs only
RQ#2: What is the *relationship* between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and their professional identity?	Qualitative: Theme analysis and comparative/relational analysis of interviews	• Interview NNESTs only
	Quantitative: Descriptive and inferential statistics of TSES	• Survey NNESTs only
	Mixed methods: Exploration of integrated findings	• Interview and survey NNESTs only
RQ#3: What are the differences between NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy and identity development?	Qualitative: Theme analysis and comparative/relational analysis of interviews	• Interview NNESTs and NESTs
	Quantitative: Descriptive and inferential statistics of TSES	• Survey NNESTs and NESTs
	Mixed methods: Exploration of integrated findings	• Interview and survey NNESTs and NESTs

In this convergent parallel design, data analysis procedures were divided based on the research questions. First, to investigate the characteristics of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy (RQ#1), online survey results were analyzed. Although the survey was collected from four types of teachers (Japanese NNESTs teaching at colleges, Japanese NNESTs teaching at junior high and high schools, non-Japanese NESTs teaching at colleges, and

non-Japanese NESTs teaching junior high and high schools), data only from Japanese NNEST's teaching at junior high, high schools, and colleges were analyzed for RQ#1. For this quantitative portion, descriptive statistics from the TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001) was examined for 24 survey questions, then inferential statistics was conducted to investigate the relationship between teacher efficacy and other background factors.

Secondly, because the relationship between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity was explored (RQ#2), both of their survey and interview data sets were analyzed. As explained previously, for the qualitative portion, I analyzed data about teacher efficacy and identity with areas that were correlated; such as teacher training and professional development experience, teaching and study abroad experiences, English proficiency, and cultural factors. They are important underlying elements which possibly influence the participants' efficacy and identity. For the quantitative portion of the analysis, results from RQ#1 were utilized. After independently analyzing each data set, on Phase 3, they were merged and interpreted.

Finally, a comparison between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy and identity development was explored (RQ#3). NESTs' interview data and survey results were studied separately in the qualitative and quantitative analysis. As I did for Japanese NNESTs, NESTs' interview and survey results were analyzed separately in Phase 2. After merging them, the NESTs' results were compared and contrasted with the Japanese NNESTs' findings from RQ#2. Finally, the synthesized data between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs was interpreted. In the next chapter, findings about participants' teacher

efficacy and identity are discussed along with the procedures mentioned above on each

phase.

CHAPTER IV   RESULTS

In this mixed methods study, I investigated how Japanese NNESTs' efficacy is formed, how it is related to their teacher identity, and how their teacher efficacy and identity are similar or different from their NESTs counterparts. To explore these features, I analyzed interview and survey data by looking at each research question.

RQ1: What is the nature of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and the effect of background characteristics on this efficacy?

To explore the characteristics of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy, online survey data based on Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) was analyzed quantitatively. From the statistical analysis, I examined three factors of teacher efficacy (efficacy for engagement, efficacy for management, efficacy for instructional strategies) about what the data informed as characteristics of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy. While analyzing, I scrutinized the connections between teacher efficacy and related background factors, such as English proficiency, the length of teaching experience, and the length of living in an English-speaking country.

RQ2: What is the *relationship* between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and their professional identity?

I analyzed Japanese NNESTs' interview data by categorizing the three factors of teacher efficacy and teacher identity connecting to background components, such as their experience in teacher education and professional development as well as English proficiency. After investigating these elements, I merged interview and survey data regarding Japanese efficacy and identity. While applying findings from RQ#1, quantitative and qualitative results were summarized based on themes. From a table of

side-by-side comparison for merged data analysis (Creswell & Clark, 2011), I analyzed

the relationship between Japanese NNESTs efficacy and identity.

RQ3: What are the differences between NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy and

identity development?

Finally, I analyzed NESTs' survey and interview data sets as I did for their

Japanese NNESTs counterparts. For the qualitative data analysis, I examined the NESTs'

three efficacy factors and identity as well as the survey results from the TSES, which was

computed statistically. I ran one-way ANOVAs and ANCOVA to investigate which types

of teachers possess high teacher efficacy. These NESTs qualitative and quantitative data

sets were merged, and finally, both Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' data were compared.

This chapter presents results divided by research questions.

Japanese NNESTS' efficacy (Research Question #1): Quantitative Results

Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy

There were 24 survey questions on the TSES. I computed the mean and standard

deviation for each question and the three factors of teacher efficacy, such as efficacy for

student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. The TSES

online survey was a nine-point Likert scale rating from 1 (Not at all) to 9 (A great deal);

therefore, the higher the Likert scale number the greater the participants' teacher efficacy.

Table 4.1. Means and standard deviations of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy for engagement, management, and instructional strategies (N=46)

	Engagement		Management		Instructional Strategies	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
College	5.24	.87	6.48	1.41	6.29	.97
JH/HS	5.69	1.14	6.38	1.08	6.38	1.15
Total	5.50	1.05	6.42	1.22	6.34	1.07

Results of Japanese NNESTs' three factors of teacher efficacy. Teacher

efficacy for student engagement was significantly lower compared to the other two

factors. The results in the present study correspond with past teacher efficacy research

(Chacón, 2005; Eslami et al., 2008; Huangfu, 2012). Particularly, the mean of college

Japanese NNESTs' engagement (M=5.24) was lower than their junior high and high

school counterparts (M=5.69). Japanese NNESTs may have had difficulty with handling

students with low motivation, which corresponds to Chacón's (2005) study that showed

the lower score than others in teacher efficacy for engagement. Applying Chacón's

(2005) claim about correlation between a high sense of teacher efficacy and the capability

of teaching difficult students, the higher teacher efficacy becomes, the better teachers can

deal with difficult students. Thus, it is necessary for Japanese NNESTs to develop skills

to handle difficult students.

Japanese NNESTs agreed with statements that indicated strength in teacher

efficacy for classroom management as the highest among three teacher efficacy factors.

However, the levels of self-perceived capability were scattered depending on individual

teachers because the standard deviation was wider than other factors. This shows that

some of the Japanese NNESTs are confident in their classroom management, whereas

others are not as much. Japanese NNESTs self-perceived the relationship between

teachers and students, which Abu-Tineh et al. (2011) defined as "people management,"

as the lowest. According to Abu-Tineh et al. (2011), people management relates to

teachers' beliefs about dealing with students as people and their developmental process of

teacher-student relationship. For the college Japanese NNESTs, they might not face many

uncooperative students, yet it is also difficult to change adult students' attitudes towards learning English in the class.

Efficacy for instructional strategies was relatively high for both types of teachers, similar to classroom management. There can be two reasons for this outcome. First, many experienced teachers (M=14.57 years) participated in this study, whereas there were only a few teachers who had been teaching less than three years. Thus, many of the participants of this study were experienced in teaching and capable of dealing with various instructional strategies. Second, questions from Japanese students related to instruction may not be so linguistically difficult because of their experience with the content.

Japanese NNESTs' Self-perceived English Proficiency

Table 4.2. Japanese NNESTs' self-perceived English proficiency (N=46)

	College		JH/HS		Total	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Proficiency in Listening	5.10	.97	4.08	1.23	4.52	1.23
Proficiency in Speaking	4.80	1.20	4.04	1.31	4.37	1.31
Proficiency in Reading	5.25	.91	4.42	1.07	4.78	1.07
Proficiency in Writing	5.00	1.08	4.15	1.12	4.52	1.17
Proficiency in Grammar	4.85	1.35	4.54	1.14	4.67	1.23
Proficiency in Communication	4.90	1.17	4.31	1.23	4.57	1.22
Proficiency in Pronunciation	4.75	1.16	4.23	1.42	4.46	1.33

In order to investigate the relationship between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and their self-perceived English proficiency, a five-point Likert scale (one as no response, two as not proficient at all up to six as completely proficient) was implemented to rate their English skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, communication, and pronunciation. For all the seven skills in their self-perceived English

proficiency, the means of college Japanese NNESTs were higher than junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs. One explanation is because of the linguistic levels that college teachers have to teach, so they have to keep up with their language skills. College Japanese NNESTs self-perceived their reading and listening skills as high. Similarly, junior high and high school NNESTs self-perceived their reading and grammar as high. Both types of teachers rated their reading skills high which is the input skill that second language learners can improve on their own. Particularly for junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs, grammar instruction is a major part of their teaching; thus, they may be constantly brushing up on their knowledge of grammar for teaching and learning. In contrast, both types of teachers perceived their speaking skills and pronunciation as less proficient than others. It might be difficult for NNESTs to improve speaking and pronunciation, especially in an EFL setting. There are few opportunities to be exposed to speaking English and improving pronunciation. According to Shumin (1997), learning to speak a new foreign language is difficult because foreign language learners require a large amount of time and exposure that they have to receive based on the comprehensible input, and effective oral communication is necessary for the ability to employ the language appropriately in various interactions. Fraser (2000) also pointed out that it is necessary to improve learners' pronunciation with effective courses and materials. Additionally, Gilakjani (2012) stated that "pronunciation can be one of the most difficult parts of a language for EFL learners to master and one of the least favorite topics for teachers to address in the EFL classroom" (p. 127). Hence, the low scores of proficiency in speaking and pronunciation on this research correspond to past studies.

Reliability and Correlation Analysis

Test reliability of the three factors on TSES by using Cronbach's Alpha.

Before conducting inferential statistics, I analyzed the reliability of three factors on TSES

among Japanese NNESTs. The values of Cronbach's Alpha were .797, .906, and .885, for

efficacy for engagement, management, and instructional strategies respectively. These

values exhibited the relatively high reliability of the instrument and yielded similar

results to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2001) reliabilities 0.87 for engagement, 0.90 for

management, and 0.91 for instructional strategies.

Table 4.3. Represents Cronbach's Alpha on efficacy for engagement, management, and
instructional strategies among Japanese NNESTs (N=46)

Reliability Statistics	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Engagement	.797	8
Management	.906	8
Instructional Strategies	.885	8

Relationships with teacher efficacy and three background elements. I

investigated three relationships between (1) teacher efficacy and the length of their

teaching experience (2) teacher efficacy and the length of living experience in English-

speaking countries and (3) teacher efficacy and self-reported Japanese NNESTs' English

proficiency. To investigate the nature of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy specifically, these

three elements were chosen based on the past studies in different EFL contexts, such as in

Venezuela (Chacón, 2005) and Iran (Eslami et al., 2008; Zakeri et al., 2011). Therefore,

the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was measured on each correlation.

Because there were seven variables listed as skills in proficiency and three factors in

teacher efficacy, they were combined to create total proficiency and total efficacy respectively.

Before exploring the correlation between teacher efficacy and English proficiency, the R square was calculated for total proficiency, grade levels, and interaction between both in a linear regression model. The value of R square was .197. In the regression analysis, the relationship between teacher efficacy for instructional strategies and total proficiency was statistically significant ($p<.01$), and also the correlation between total teacher efficacy and total proficiency was statistically significant ($p<.05$); however, other factors, such as the length of teaching and the length of living in English-speaking countries, were not statistically significant between the total teacher efficacy and other two factors.

Table 4.4. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between teacher efficacy and three background factors (N=46)

	Length of teaching	Living abroad	English proficiency
Engagement	.178	-.124	.195
Management	-.077	.002	.093
Instructional strategies	.209	-.106	.540**
Total	.109	-.082	.311*

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

As multiple researchers (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008) pointed out, there is a positive correlation between efficacy for instructional strategies and English proficiency. This study agreed with past research findings and suggestions about the strong relationship between them. In other words, as Japanese NNESTs' perceived efficacy for instructional strategies increases, their English proficiency increases as well. One

explanation is that NNESTs have to use their linguistic knowledge and skills more for their language instruction than for engaging students or managing classrooms. Hence, it is possible to claim as Japanese NNESTs' self-perceived English proficiency improves, their teacher efficacy enhances. Similarly, as Chacón (2005) suggested, English competency in speaking, listening, reading, and writing results in a higher sense of teacher efficacy. This study also revealed the correlation between NNESTs' English proficiency and their teacher efficacy. In contrast, the length of teaching and studying in English-speaking countries did not connect with teacher efficacy in this study.

The correlation between teacher efficacy and both the length of teaching and living experience in English-speaking countries were not statistically significant in this study. First, regarding the relationship between teacher efficacy and the length of teaching (M=14.57, N=46), the number of years that the participants taught was skewed to under 10 years. Also, for the length of living experience in English-speaking countries, about 40% of the participants fell within a year (M=3.7). The initial reason for this result was because a large number of participants' concentration of experience of living in English-speaking countries was within a year, and also the participant size was limited (N=46).

Conclusion: The Nature of Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy from the Survey Data

From the descriptive statistics, the score of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy for engagement was the lowest among the three factors, which shows that Japanese NNESTs seem to struggle to motivate students. Particularly for the public junior high and high school settings, students' motivation can vary from individuals; thus, it is difficult for junior high and high school teachers to raise and maintain their students' motivation.

Regarding Japanese NNESTs' English proficiency, input skills, such as reading and listening, were higher than output skills, such as speaking and pronunciation.

From the inferential statistics, although the correlations between teacher efficacy and the years of teaching and the length of living experience in English-speaking countries were not statistically significant, Japanese NNESTs' English proficiency could be a strong predictor of their efficacy for instructional strategies and their overall teacher efficacy. This corresponds to previous studies (Chacón, 2005; Eslami and Fatahi, 2008) in EFL settings.

Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy (Research Question #2): Qualitative Results

To investigate the relationship between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and their professional identity, interview data of a total of five Japanese NNESTs (two teaching at a university level, two at a high school level, and one at a junior high school level) were analyzed.

Table 4.5. Japanese NNEST interview participants' profiles

	Miho	Yoko	Satoshi	Keita	Toshie
Years of teaching	7 years	20 years	25 years	4 years	10 years
Grade levels	College	College	HS	HS	JH
Degrees	Current doctoral student MATESOL BA in Eng. Ed.	MATESOL BA in Eng. Literature	BA in Eng. Ed.	BA in Elementary Ed.	BA in Eng. literature
Training backgrounds	Doctoral in TESOL MATESOL BA in Eng. Ed.	MATESOL	BA in Eng. Ed. MEXT	BA in Elem. Ed. MEXT	8-week TESOL Program MEXT
Study abroad	USA Britain	USA	Britain	N/A	Britain Australia USA

Japanese NNESTs' Profiles

Miho. A Japanese female teacher in her mid-30's, Miho had taught English in a Japanese university setting for the past seven years. Prior to that, she also taught English at a high school and a community college for several years. She studied abroad in the U.S. for a year when she was majoring in English education for her bachelor's degree and earned a master's degree in TESOL in the U.K. Thus, she lived in English-speaking countries for a total of two years. When she studied English education in a public university in southern Japan, she was trained based on the traditional teacher education program in the College of Education, such as taking core courses for majoring in education, creating a curriculum and lesson plans, observing classes, demonstrating micro lessons, and student teaching for a total of five weeks at a junior high and an elementary school. She expressed her teacher training experience saying, "doing my master's training was a good way of training although it didn't have any practice teaching, but it prepared me in ideas in pedagogy."

When I interviewed her, she was teaching and coordinating a low-intermediate level of intensive English courses at a university. In her institution, she would receive some professional development opportunities. She explained, "after I started teaching full-time, there has not been any formal training, but we have a lot of professional development programs, so I try to participate in as many [as] trainings as possible." Teachers in her institution had lectures for professional development purposes, observed classes, and gave feedback to each other. Outside of the campus, she belonged to multiple professional organizations, such as JALT (The Japan Association for Language Teaching) and participated in regional meetings and several national conferences every

year. She even obtained funding from the university and took the TOEFL iBT to improve her English and apply the test-taking skills to teach them to her students.

She had enjoyed studying English and was determined to be an English teacher from a young age. When she was a high school student, she participated in an English camp for three days, which motivated her to study English further. She described this experience as "really fun." Also telling me, "I enjoyed it so much. I think it motivated me to study more." She had been listening to English since junior high school. Miho also liked reading, so if she had spare time, she would read English books; therefore, Miho considered listening and reading skills as her strengths as well as grammar and writing. However, she self-reported that she should improve her speaking, communication, pronunciation, and accent.

Yoko. Yoko was a Japanese female English teacher, and she had a lot of professional experience in teaching and other fields. She majored in English literature for her bachelor's degree and had been teaching English for the past 20 years since she was 25 years old. She started her English teaching career from a nation-wide private language school in Tokyo. After only a three day training, she immediately started teaching English classes. After teaching there for three years, she worked in Singapore for a year and Indonesia for six months. She also had worked as a translator and visited more than 30 countries for professional and personal occasions. As well as gaining her international experiences, she earned a master's in TESOL in the U.S. At the end of the degree, she taught ESL for a month as a practicum at a community college in California. After coming back home in Japan, she started her own private English school at home. She had a strong belief in her own way of teaching and said, "It's like my way of living,

propagating my way of living to people. That's [the] way I feel really motivated doing this job, and I feel more than I think. I consider this job more than the job." She mostly taught test-taking skills, such as the TOEIC, TOEFL, and EIKEN tests, and English conversation skills at her private school. The proficiency levels of her students varied. At the same time, she had been teaching at a university for the past 10 years.

Yoko improved her English proficiency once she began teaching English at a private English school through communicating with her NEST colleagues. She described those days saying, "I started to mix around with foreign teachers, and that gave me GREAT influence 'cause I started to drink coffee, I started to watch movies, which I hadn't done before then." She also said, "When I started teaching English is the same time I started speaking in English, so that culture-wise, I changed a lot. Everybody says that 'You changed after started speaking English.'" She also became interested in gaining cultural knowledge from this experience. Unlike Miho, Yoko perceived her teacher education in an MA TESOL program as minimally beneficial because of her prior intensive teaching experience both at a private English school and her own school. She reported only learning classroom management skills was helpful for her professional development. At the time of the interview, she was not taking any professional development courses or participating in professional groups or conferences. She was rather interested in training to be a translator and to teach small children.

Satoshi. Satoshi was a male teacher with 25 years of teaching experience. At the time I interviewed him, he was teaching at a college-bound and highly competitive high school. Before that, he had taught English at three high schools and one junior high school. It is normal in Japanese public schools for teachers to be assigned to teach at

different schools either every six years or sometimes three years. Thus, he taught at different types of schools, such as college bound high schools and a part-time (teijisei) high school. At the time of the interview, he was a coordinator of the English program at the high school.

Satoshi had always wanted to be an English teacher and explained, "Even when I was young, I was probably interested in English" and "I studied English much more than any other subjects." Like Miho, he majored in English education and received a formal teacher education at a Japanese university. During his undergraduate years, he experienced student teaching for a month. In the first year he started teaching, he had to take a training program every week, which was a nation-wide program for public school English teachers. This training program included not only English pedagogy but also student career guidance. However, he was not sure how the training program was helpful for his teaching career because he explained, "I'm sure that it helped me a lot, but I'm not really sure in what ways. But at least, I made many friends during the program, so that was very helpful for me even now."

He played a significant role as a coordinator of Super Global High School (SGH) as well. Fifty-six high schools were selected nation-wide as SGH to promote high school students to be global leaders in the future. He took initiative with an assistant language teacher (ALT) and instructed lessons about global issues. To be global citizens, students discussed different global issues every month and were expected to foster logical and critical thinking skills. They worked as a group, wrote a report, and presented each topic. Because of this MEXT's (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and

Technology) five-year funding program, his duties accumulated even more, yet he was proud of this special experience and seemed to enjoy teaching at this school.

Keita. Keita was a young-looking male teacher about 30 years old and had majored in elementary education at a teacher's college. He switched his specialty subject from social studies to English in his senior year. Because of his last minute decision, his experience in teacher education as an English teacher took place only in the last year of his undergraduate degree. He earned about twice as many credits than necessary within four years and obtained seven teaching licenses, such as kindergarten, elementary, junior high and high school social studies and English.

Keita had been teaching for the past four years: for a year at a junior high school and for three years at two different high schools. When I interviewed him, he was teaching the four basic English skills at the same college-bound high school in which Satoshi taught. When he talked about his English proficiency, he said that, "I think my English is poor, so I must train my English skill." Because he perceived his own English proficiency was not good enough to be an English teacher, he was actively engaged in professional development. He read books for pedagogy and answered questions on the university entrance exams almost every day to teach test-taking skills. Other than these self-taught strategies, he had joined a weekly English conversation group. Two or three ALTs and several Japanese NNESTs participated in the group, and he joined it regularly.

When Keita was a high school student, his parents wanted him to be a doctor; therefore, he studied hard when he was high school, yet he could not enter a medical school. Eventually, he spent three years studying for it and entered a teacher's college in his fourth year. He described this experience as "jigoku" (hell). After several years of

hard work, Keita said, "I found so much value to go to the university" and appreciated the experience. He had not studied abroad and did not care about traveling abroad, either.

Toshie. Toshie was a friendly female junior high school teacher with ten years of teaching experience at six different junior high schools. She majored in English literature for her undergraduate degree and earned an English teaching license for secondary schools. She seemed an active person and enjoyed supervising club activities and communicating with her students. She explained, "I thought about being a high school teacher, but junior high school teachers can have close contact to our students not only about teaching English but also school events and club activities, right? In high school, everything gets more specified, and teachers don't have much contact with their students, so although the work is tough, I thought teaching at a junior high school level would be more fun."

She had lived in three English-speaking countries each for a short term. First, when she was in college, she participated in an exchange program in the U.K. for half a year. After starting teaching English at a junior high school, she took six months off and studied TESOL for eight weeks in Australia. Her motivation for studying TESOL was stemmed from her lack of teacher training and the inadequacies she felt from it. Finally, three years ago, she was selected by MEXT for a professional development opportunity in Delaware. When she was there, she studied ESL, audited graduate courses, and visited local schools. While constantly building her language and pedagogy, she took English conversation lessons from a private language school to improve her proficiency. Besides learning English, she even participated in a two-week government program in France for

studying French which she studied as a foreign language when she was an undergraduate. She said that if she had time, she would like to travel abroad.

The current topic of her pedagogical improvement was to instruct her lessons in English as much as possible. She said, "I decided on a topic to improve my teaching for my own professional development. I hadn't taught entirely in English, so I wanted to pick a topic so that I would teach using more English, and I wanted to challenge myself through the topic." Even in a junior high school, she strived to create an English speaking atmosphere and a collaborative classroom through pair and group work.

Themes Relating to Efficacy for Japanese NNESTs

Interview data were collected from two college Japanese NNESTs (Miho and Yoko), two high school Japanese NNESTs (Satoshi and Keita), and a junior high school Japanese NNEST (Toshie). To explore their teacher efficacy, I asked a total of seven questions: three for efficacy for engagement, two for efficacy for management, and two for efficacy for instructional strategies.

Characteristics of Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy for Engagement

Efficacy for engagement is defined as how much teachers perceive themselves to be capable of motivating students for their learning (Chacón, 2005) such as motivating students who show a low interest in learning, understanding students who are failing, fostering students' creative and critical thinking skills, and helping them value learning. In the quantitative strand, teacher efficacy for engagement was significantly lower compared to management and instructional strategies.

Sharing NNESTs' own experience in language learning with students. Miho shared her own positive English learning experiences with her students. Sharing language

learning experiences is a concept associated with Bandura's (1994) vicarious experiences supplied by social models." As a model of a non-native English speaker (NNES), she gave her personal experiences to engage her students in learning English. Miho said:

> To motivate them, I try to show them what they can do if their English was better, so showing them examples or being an example myself to motivate them… When [what] we are discussing in class relates to my personal experience, I say "yeah, when I was a student in San Francisco," for example, and then, tell them an anecdote about my experiences [and] how my being an English speaker helped me with my life experiences.

She referred to her experiences as a student in San Francisco in order to motivate her students to learn English and to inform them of the positive outcomes of improving their English proficiency.

She also had exchange classes in which her students spoke half in English and half in Japanese for the duration of the class time with international students so that they could practice their target languages with each other. It is possible for her to conduct this lesson because the university she taught at was an international school in which half of the students were Japanese and the rest were international students. Therefore, she took advantage of this benefit of the university.

Demonstrating positive outcomes to students. Yoko had a different approach from Miho. Usually, Yoko asked her students what their dreams were and occasionally reminded them why they were studying English. She attempted to motivate her students to remember their dreams as long-term goals not only for studying English but also for their lives. However, she strongly believed that if her students were not willing to learn, she could not motivate them. Yoko explained:

> I just would like to remind [them] of their dreams, if they are not willing to learn English, I don't [can't] motivate that [them], I can't motivate them. I can't force them to study English or I'm not [going to force them], I don't intend to do that at all. It's their free [will], if they want to [study], they can. Basically, I don't think everybody should speak English, you know, in Japan cause they can survive, no problem. So I don't want to force them.

She realized that intrinsic motivation was the important factor but at the same time, she did not believe that it was necessary for all the Japanese students to learn English. Because of her Japanese background, she had experienced Japanese as the sole language in Japan. Most Japanese people go through their daily lives without communicating in English. If students were not motivated to learn English, she understood it and believed that she could not push them further. Due to the fact that it is not necessary to communicate in English on a daily basis, she occasionally emphasized her students' dreams as a symbol of their long-term goal and strived to raise their intrinsic motivation.

This goal-oriented attitude toward teaching is derived from her own learning style, and she constantly studied and self-learned English. She explained her attitudes towards learning English, which framed her expectations regarding her students' learning:

> I self-learned English, so I don't [have any teacher to] blame. I didn't depend on any teachers [for my learning]. My English conversation skills also I learned myself, so I didn't [blame anyone]. I never went to any cram schools or conversation schools, so I didn't depend on anybody. It's just my attitude towards life, so I want them [my students] to take that kind of attitude. Don't depend on me too much. It's the students and their mothers' problem, figure it out. I'll give you opportunities, and I'll let you know how you can [achieve fluency], what's important [is] to develop English [speaking] and language skill. I try to tell my students to do my best, but I can't do more than that.

Yoko was an efficient learner by self-learning. She wanted her students to be like her as efficient learners. Yoko drove herself to improve her English proficiency and teaching

skills by taking self-accountability. Self-accountability is the attitude that she wants her students to have towards their education. For five years, she taught about 8,000 hours intensively before entering her master's program, from which she gained a lot of her teaching experience. In addition, owning her private language school strongly influenced her current teaching practice in college. For example, she insisted the individual instructions are the most effective methods for English learners. Because sometimes there are too many students like 50 in a class, the college classroom settings are not as efficient as her private lessons. Teaching private lessons agrees with her logic that she felt more responsible for her private students in her own English school than university classes. She was mostly teaching test-taking strategies in her school; therefore, it was clear that either they passed or failed the tests. In addition to this reason, she was the sole teacher to her private students. In contrast, she claimed that there were multiple complicated factors in the university setting such as individual differences, time constraints, curricula, and university policies. Because of her experience both in private classes and the university classes, she asserted that, particularly for college students, learning occurs based on their own responsibility.

In order to raise Satoshi's students' interest in learning English, he sometimes persuaded his students to have a positive attitude on learning English and displayed his role as a model like Miho did:

> I try to teach them the meaning of using English, the necessity of English, and the possibility of their future goals if they can speak English. I try to be a role model showing positive outcomes if they can speak English.

By being a successful role model as an NNES, Satoshi educated his students by demonstrating himself as a vicarious model. At his competitive and college-bound high

school, students' motivation was not a major issue. The problem was that some students

were enthusiastic about studying English only to pass the university entrance exam.

However, his students also had to improve their communication skills as global citizens

due to the goals for SGH. For these reasons, he described the importance of assistant

language teachers' (ALT) involvement in the class. He said:

> While communicating with them, I try to show myself as a model to my students even a Japanese person can communicate competently by using English… Even though I haven't gone through any special trainings, I, as a typical Japanese person, can communicate with native speakers of English like this, and I want to show it.

Although Satoshi was a competent English teacher with 25 years of teaching experience,

he had not lived in any English-speaking countries for a long-term period, which is

typical for public school English teachers in Japan. However, he can manage classes with

confident and appropriate English proficiency as a high school teacher. Consequently, he

become a language and role model as a NNES.

Employing strategies to motivate students. Some of the interview participants

addressed that stimulus teaching methods help students motivate their learning, which

corresponds to Huangfu's (2012) finding that the higher the teachers' efficacy for

instructional strategies is, the more frequently they perceive to use motivational

strategies. Particularly, junior high and high school NNEST participants presented more

concrete teaching methods based on their classroom practices. Satoshi said, "I change to

form pairs for each activity on purpose. Also, I set the time for an activity [to be] short. I

always use these strategies. I think 'change' (henka) is necessary for students." In

general, a period at a high school is fifty minutes long, whereas the length can be 100

minutes or longer at a university. The issue of high school students' concentration might

be part of the reason that Satoshi thinks multiple short activities work more effectively.

He tried to create his lessons not to repeat the same types of activities and rote practices.

Thus, he insisted "change" is an important factor for his students' effective learning.

Keita also utilized pair work as well as Satoshi, and Keita tried to motivate his

students with his own methodological practices. He often assigned pair and group work

and explained, "I provide them small steps by scaffolding from reachable goals like

quizzes. Also, if students can do something that they couldn't do before, I praise them."

He further described his step-by-step approach as following:

> The biggest goal for our students is to pass the entrance exams, so by then, they
> have to go through mock exams for a national standardized test, mid-terms, and
> final exams, and even there are smaller goals like quizzes.

Because of the students' need for passing the university entrance exam, both Satoshi and

Keita believed that achieving the goal was the priority for teaching English, but their

focus seems different. As explained, I found Satoshi was willing to enhance his students'

communication skills, particularly for his classes for SGH. In contrast, because Keita was

mainly teaching a class for reading skills, his focus might have been more on test

preparation, but he invited his students to do reading activities in English so that they

could use English while being involved in reading activities. Regarding this issue of the

university entrance exam, Keita's example illustrated how he struggled with a gap

between his students' needs and his expectations. Some of his students did not submit

their assignments at all. Instead, they did their assignments for their cram schools. He

told those students that they lost their attendance points and received lower grades for the

course, yet at the same time, he did not want to persuade them because they put their

effort on studying to meet their own goals. Thus, he sometimes faced the dilemma between his own and students' goals.

As Satoshi and Keita did, Toshie, a junior high school teacher, also suggested practical classroom-based strategies for engaging students. She incorporated topics in which her students were interested in her lessons, e.g., using sports and soccer for male students and celebrities and movies for female students. Another strategy she adopted was the involvement of ALTs. In contrast to Satoshi, who brought his ALT to demonstrate himself as a role model in terms of communicating with native speakers, Toshie utilized an ALT as a motivator for her students and promoted them to communicate with an ALT. In her case, she played the roles of facilitator and translator to fill the language gap between her ALT and students so that they could be more involved in English through communication with native speakers.

Approaches to students who are falling behind. Improving the understanding of students who are falling behind is an important element of teacher efficacy for engagement. In Toshie's interviews, there were two interesting arguments that I did not observe in other participants' interviews. First, she emphasized the attention she gave to students who were falling behind. She explained that she designed her class to be comprehensive and meaningful for students. Also, she was eager to receive a professional development opportunity to facilitate their learning English. When I confirmed her motivation for supporting them, she clearly admitted her interest in professional development. Second, as she gained more teaching experience, it became easier for her to discipline students. When she was younger, she struggled with students that easily resisted her redirection. However, as she gained more experience in teaching and

classroom management, she could handle her students' behavioral issues confidently and competently. Teaching at the junior high school level can be difficult because of the classroom discipline; however, gaining experience in management expands her capacity for creating collaborative and low affective classrooms.

Responsibility for students' learning. Both Miho and Yoko answered that most of the responsibility for learning English depends on each student. Both of them agreed that they could provide learning resources and information and were willing to facilitate their students' learning and give opportunities to practice for their language improvement. However, they clearly stated, even at the beginning of the semester, that individual students were responsible for their own learning. Miho said:

> As a teacher, I only provide opportunities to practice English or learn English and also facilitate activities, sometimes, provide information or resources or knowledge or model of writing English. But for learning, it's their responsibility, and I tell them from Day 1, it's up to you.

Just like Miho, Yoko believed to have limitations when teaching university students because of the limited class time and larger class size. She could pass her grammar knowledge onto her students, yet most of their responsibility for learning English depended on them. It is significant for them to commit to improving their English skills.

Compared to those two college NNESTs, all three junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs agreed that they had more responsibility for their students' motivation than the two college teachers. Although Satoshi and Keita stated practicing English on their own was their students' responsibility, both teachers believed motivating their students was a significant task. Satoshi claimed that if his students' motivation decreased,

it would be his responsibility. Toshie had a slightly different view of motivation due to her status as a junior high school teacher. For younger pupils, such as elementary and junior high school students, she explained that it sometimes occurred that they liked English because they liked their English teachers. She believed teachers create a great impact on students' learning. As a result, she hoped that her students liked English and became engaged learners.

Summary: Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy for Engagement

From the Japanese NNESTs' interviews, I found how they approached engaging students' learning English in a Japanese educational setting. A college NNEST shared her own English learning experience with her students. Another college Japanese NNEST reminded her students the reasons why they studied English, and a high school Japanese NNEST tried to be a language and role model as a non-native speaker of English. To stimulate students, junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs utilized pedagogical strategies, such as inviting students for pair and group work, scaffolding their activities, and choosing topics that were intriguing for students. A junior high school Japanese NNEST was particularly focused on supporting students who were falling behind.

Integration between Quantitative and Qualitative Strands in Teacher Efficacy for Engagement

As explained in the quantitative analysis, the mean of engagement was the lowest among three factors. In particular, Japanese NNESTs struggled for coping with students with low motivation and students who were failing. From the interviews, most of the Japanese NNEST participants mentioned that unmotivated students are difficult to deal with; however, they exhibited some strategies to raise their motivation. For example,

Miho shared her own positive English learning experiences with her students by being as

a model of NNES. Similarly, while displaying his role as a model, Satoshi persuaded his

students to have a positive attitude when learning English. Yoko also reminded her

students of the reasons for learning English. Additionally, some of the participants

utilized stimulus teaching methods to help students stay motivated. For example, they

brought topics in which students were interested into their classroom instruction. Toshie

described her students who were failing and showed her strong efficacy for coping with

those students by giving additional attention to them. As the survey results indicated,

interview participants also showed their difficulties in motivating students for learning

English and dealing with difficult students. Hence, quantitative results revealed lower

teacher efficacy for engagement compared to other factors; however, qualitative findings

for these five teachers showed Japanese NNESTs' teacher efficacy to some extent based

on their various strategy use to engage students' learning.

Characteristics of Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy for Management

Efficacy for management is defined as how much teachers perceive themselves to

be capable of classroom management (Chacón, 2005), such as controlling disruptive

students' behaviors, establishing classroom rules and getting students to follow them, and

showing teachers' expectation about classroom management. In the quantitative strand,

efficacy for management was rated the highest by Japanese NNESTs among three

factors; however, the levels of self-perceived capability were scattered based on

individual teachers.

Building relationships with students for effective classroom management. In

order to run the classroom smoothly and help students focus on their activities in class, it

is necessary to build effective relationships between teachers and students. Each interview participant had different approaches to building relationships with students. Miho insisted that she tried to build friendly but formal relationships with her students. In addition to this idea, she said, "I don't think you can teach students effectively without having a good rapport." In her logic, developing good rapport builds relationships with students. Concurrently, she attempted to build a friendly relationship with her students, yet she was careful not to be friends. In contrast to Miho's relaxed approach to building relationships with students, Yoko explained:

> I think [the] teacher-student relationship is enough between [us] in the classroom. I don't know what kind of relationship, but probably…trust. We should trust each other, and I always wonder if I should, be closer to them, but I can't 'cause it's the time. Semester is only like 4 months and then it's impossible to get to know well each other 'cause there are many students in the class. No time to communicate individually.

Her excerpt displays her passive attitudes toward establishing relationships because of the time constraint and class size. She was not sure if she wanted to build close relationships, rather she hoped to build relationships so that they could trust each other.

The way junior high and high school teachers build relationships with students differs from university teachers. For example, Satoshi raised a point by saying "I differentiate myself as a teacher from my students very clearly." This notion is important in the Japanese high school setting because students are not as mature as in universities because of their age. Once students take advantage of their teachers, it is difficult to change their relationships and classroom management strategies. Thus, Satoshi bore it in mind not to be too friendly but to establish sensible relationships for both him and his students. In order to meet this goal, he utilized his instructional strategies. He explained:

> After school, I give feedback on their work. Also, after checking their assignments, I always give them feedback actively. This is the way I try to build relationship with my students.

While giving individual feedback about students' academic work, Satoshi attempted to build relationships with his students. Adding to his strategies for giving individual feedback, "creating a meaningful lesson is the only method that I can build good relationship with my students," he said. Thus, he strives to connect with his students through his English teaching practice.

As Satoshi did, Toshie also tried to build her relationship with her students through her teaching practice in the classroom. She explained, "I try to create an atmosphere where students can easily speak up. I don't talk only one way to my students, but I listen to my students' thoughts and opinions, and eventually build our classes together." Her attitudes toward classroom management are based on establishing a supportive classroom and collaborating with her students. She also cared about making the classroom a comfortable learning environment. Therefore, she said:

> [Our classroom rules are] don't laugh at your classmates who make mistakes, and in the classroom, it's OK to make mistakes, so they should actively participate in the activities, and so on.

In the Japanese junior high school setting, students can be easily distracted, which sometimes hinders their learning outcomes. For example, as one of her classroom management strategies, she directed students not to laugh at other students because some students' pronunciation sounded like a native speaker of English or they were fluent. Especially for adolescent students in Japan, they sometimes cannot accept something different from the majority. When she encountered this situation, she told her students to change their attitudes.

To build a relationship with students to improve classroom management, Keita paid attention to individual students as Satoshi did, yet the topics he communicated with his students were different. For example, when he passed by his students in the hallway, he tried to talk with them so that he could build relationships not only around teaching English but also about their lives in general. He highlighted:

> In the English class, we speak English to improve their language skills, but outside of the class, I think it is important to speak English in order to understand my students and to understand each other. So I talk to my students.

This attitude illustrates his strong belief and respect for the maturity of his students. He attempted to understand his students and did not push classroom rules on them. He said, "I don't deal with my students with oppressive manners and attitudes, rather I face them as human beings. I don't think they are kids, they are high school students, and I respect them as adults." He hoped to build a compassionate relationship with his students. To meet this goal, he established his classroom management system by not forcing his students to follow them but confirming the importance and necessity of the rules. This can be derived from his past relationship with his teachers. He described some of his teachers with harsh expressions like "I hated most of my teachers, most of them." Referring to his negative experience with his teachers, he utilizes them as his negative role model. He said, "I still think that I don't want to be like those kinds of teachers." At the same time, he still acknowledges that there was some positive influences that these teachers had on him. For example, he said, "I liked only one or two teachers."

Establishing classroom management systems. Because both Miho and Yoko worked at the same university, they basically followed the same program policy on their syllabi. Adding to the policy, Miho expanded her own classroom management system by

discussing and establishing it with her students. She and her students created the classroom policies, and she compiled them into a handout. All of the students were supposed to follow the rules. Some of the rules were: "at class, speak English loud; when someone asks a question, we have to have an idea; enjoy every class; try to study English every day," and so on. Following those basic rules, Miho shared responsibility with her students about their English class and, more importantly, she gave her students autonomy. Because students were involved in building their classroom rules, they could have felt responsibility for their own discipline in the class. In addition to creating classroom policies together, Miho explained her expectations between her and her students.

> I think it's crucial if you want to have [a] functional class. I would be strict, but polite and respectful, so I'm not shouting or scolding at the students, but I just tell them what I expect, and expect them to behave in a way that is mutually acceptable. So I have no class management problem 'cause they understand. I come from the Japanese culture where they are used to being disciplined and polite, so my expectation and students' expectation are not so different, usually.

Despite her calm personality, she had not had classroom discipline problems because of her effort to build mutually acceptable relationships, which would not work only based on her effort. Her strategies for classroom management, especially for college students, are to build a classroom management system together, and both Miho and her students should be responsible for that.

In contrast to Miho's mutual approach to classroom management, Yoko had different perspectives. She described her Japanese students as obedient and well-disciplined in class; therefore, she did not need extra control of them. This corresponds to the result of showing Japanese NNESTs' high efficacy on a survey in this present study.

In particular, college Japanese NNESTs may not encounter many uncooperative students, which encourages their efficacy for classroom management. However, Yoko also raised an interesting point about her classroom discipline by saying, "they are really obedient, listen to me quietly or at least, quietly doing something else, some other classes' homework." Her attitude to those students who were doing something unrelated to the class is to ignore them and let them do it as long as they do not bother other students. She believed that it was based on their choice and did not require her further effort. This connects her explanation about how to establish relationships with her students. As Yoko did not emphasize it due to the time constraint and class size, she was content with her classes as they were. Additionally, because of her teaching experience in private language schools, she strived to focus on her teaching practices rather than classroom discipline. Both Yoko and Miho dealt with their college students as grown-up individuals but in different ways.

Approaches to dealing with difficult students. Japanese NNEST participants showed different approaches to their difficult students. Miho explained the most difficult students in the following:

> Students who don't open up and say what they want with their life or with their studies, students who don't know why they are here. There are sometimes students who are not motivated. They came to this school for their second or third choice, then usually, their motivation is low.

The primary problem was that she could not see what her students' goals were, or how they connected to their issues of motivation. As she said, it was difficult to keep their motivation if they were unwilling to study at this international school. Particularly, if they did not wish to learn English, they would have motivational issues. At the same

time, this type of issue sometimes happens after the university entrance exam. Because of the competition, Japanese high school students do not always enter the universities they want. Therefore, her excerpt revealed not only issues of individual students' motivation but also the Japanese educational system. This issue should be addressed as an important remark. Considering it, she struggled with those students who did not show or even have goals. Especially in an EFL setting, communicating in English is not a required skill for most Japanese people. Moreover, after the intensive study for the university entrance exam, many college students lose their motivation for learning. Once students enter a university, they realize the demands for studying are less than what they faced in high school, and the time in college becomes their moratorium before they enter the workforce (Buckley, 1985). Thus, behind these motivation problems, social and educational factors are examined.

By contrast, Yoko talked about her Korean student who was difficult to control in the class and made a negative impression on her. This restless Korean female student easily got bored and started falling asleep after five minutes in class. Instead of giving individual feedback, Yoko provided some simple tasks for the student to keep her busy. As a semester went by, she became mature and could behave better, yet Yoko retained the idea that Japanese students were easier to discipline compared to international students. Because of shared culture and mutual expectations as Japanese, Yoko thought disciplining Japanese students was easier than disciplining non-Japanese students. For most of the classes, she only had a few international students, and the rest were Japanese. Yoko's approach towards student discipline is different from Miho's classroom management. In order to manage unmotivated students, Miho believed that individual

consultation is the most effective method. However, in Yoko's approach, the correction

of difficult students occurred in the classroom.

For the question about the most difficult group of students to handle, university

Japanese NNESTs and Toshie indicated that students who have low motivation were

particularly hard to deal with. She said:

> Because they are junior high school students, sometimes they don't want to study
> certain subjects. Some students don't think they need to speak English nor plan to
> speak English in the future, and they don't understand the necessity for studying
> it. So they don't know why they have to study. I explain to them why they have to
> study it, but they don't understand it.

By bringing short-term and long-term goals into her classes, she persuaded her students

to understand the necessity of learning English. She utilized the high school entrance

exam as a short-term goal and learning English and culture for the purpose of

communication as a long-term goal. She explained, "In a junior high school, studying

English is necessary for their high school entrance exam, but if we see a long-term goal,

they can develop communication skills to connect with lots of people. Also, they can

learn others' cultures and countries by learning English, so they can learn broad and

different perspectives from Japanese, which will help them in the future." Although those

students who were already motivated responded her goals sincerely, those who were not

interested in learning English still did not understand the importance. Even so, most of

the students understood her concerns.

In the high school setting, Satoshi dealt with his students who did not speak up or

show their own thoughts and opinions. He considered learning English for

communication to be the most important reason for learning English; thus, if students

gave up interactions, he believed it was difficult to help them. If some students thought

that interacting in English was too difficult, he tried to scaffold more language activities and engage them in activities.

Summary: Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy for Management

Japanese NNESTs' interview participants believed that building relationships with students was key to managing effective classrooms. To accomplish this, a college Japanese NNEST attempted to develop good rapport with her students; however, it depended on individual teachers as well as grade levels. For example, a high school Japanese NNEST clearly differentiated himself as a teacher from his students, whereas a college Japanese NNEST tried to build friendly but formal relationships with her students. Additionally, junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs built relationships with students by giving feedback individually and providing effective teaching practices in the class. Another strategy for Japanese NNESTs was to establish classroom management systems by discussing with students to take responsibility for their own classroom discipline. At the same time, how to deal with difficult students seemed to influence classroom management and their motivation towards learning English.

Integration between Quantitative and Qualitative Strands in Teacher Efficacy for Management

In the quantitative strand, Japanese NNEST participants agreed the most with statements relating to efficacy for management among the three factors. Although they disagreed with statements that indicated strength in "people management," they agreed with guiding students to follow classroom rules as strong. Abu-Tineh et al. (2011) defined people management as teachers' beliefs about dealing with students as people and the developmental process of teacher-student relationship. This indicates Japanese

NNESTs' leadership in classroom management. Regarding both building relationships with students and establishing classroom management systems, Japanese NNESTs considered these as important elements of classroom management. However, Yoko experienced her struggle for building relationships with students due to the class size and limited time during a semester. She considered a teacher-student relationship as appropriate. In contrast, other teachers attempted to develop more profound relationships by communicating with students individually, creating the supportive classroom atmosphere, and building a good rapport. As well as connecting with students by using these strategies, Japanese NNESTs also distinguished themselves and students while keeping a formal teacher-student relationship. Due to the teacher-centered classroom culture in Japan, particularly for junior high and high school levels, Japanese NNESTs were fairly confident about classroom management.

Characteristics of Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy for Instructional Strategies

Efficacy for instructional strategies is defined as how much teachers perceive themselves to be capable of using strategies for teaching instructions (Chacón, 2005) such as providing an alternative explanation or example to get students to understand, assessing students' performance by various techniques, and adapting lessons to appropriate levels to each student. Quantitative results of teacher efficacy for instructional strategies revealed almost the same level of strong efficacy as management. In particular, Japanese NNESTs ranked high for their capability of providing an alternative explanation or example and responding to difficult questions from their students. Additionally, in the regression analysis, the relationship between teacher

efficacy for instructional strategies and English proficiency was statistically significant at the .01 level, which revealed the positive correlation between the two factors.

Providing an alternative explanation for clarification. Regarding Japanese NNESTs' capability of offering alternative explanations, both Miho and Yoko mentioned they explained language instruction in English and Japanese to a great extent. Because both of them were teaching at a university considered as an international school, their school's program policy required them to use English in the classroom. Both teachers instructed their lessons almost completely in English, and they first tried to explain instruction in English alternatively. They said to repeat explaining English one more time or more, if necessary, and finally switched to Japanese. They explained and instructed in English as much as possible by taking advantage of their high English proficiency and program policy.

Related to this issue, Yoko provided her perspectives of Japanese use in class.

I thought I was a little useless because I'm Japanese, but they banned me using Japanese language. That means I don't have to be Japanese, I thought. And then I'm still asking myself, do I need to be Japanese in this environment?

She was teaching in a classroom setting that expected all the activities conducted in English, but most of the English teachers were non-Japanese. This usage of Japanese influences her identity as a Japanese NNEST; therefore, the capability for alternative explanations includes an issue of identity.

Compared to Japanese college NNESTs, junior high and high school NNESTs used more or all Japanese for alternative explanations because their students cannot understand them in English. Among three junior high and high school teachers, only Satoshi occasionally explained instruction in English. Even though his students had good

comprehension, they sometimes could not understand his explanations because of their lack of vocabulary knowledge. If this was the case, he demonstrated the usage of the vocabulary in context. If he could not draw their answers, he changed his questions. Through these processes, he used English, which he thinks is an advantage because his students feel secure. Satoshi's more communicative approach to alternative explanations contrasts with Keita, who explained only in Japanese to help with his student's comprehension. When he taught grammar, he told his students to refer to their textbook and provided simple examples that they could easily apply. This is because his class is for reading skill development.

To get students to understand explanations in language instructions, a choice of language use, either English or Japanese, can associate with Japanese NNESTs' efficacy for instructional strategies. Toshie once set her goal of instructing her class mostly in English. When she taught the second and third graders (Japanese equivalent to eighth and ninth graders) in junior high, she said she used English from 80 to 90 percent for her professional development, yet for teaching the first graders, she spoke English about a half of her class time. She had a structured instruction, such as starting from demonstrating examples, inviting her students to answer questions, repeating correct models as a whole class, and practicing and teaching each other in pairs and groups. In spite of this supportive learning environment as a class, she did not feel confident that her students could understand her explanations. These educators' experiences described that explaining in Japanese contributes to improving students' comprehension; however, I could not find a relationship between English proficiency and explanation in English.

Use of various assessment strategies. Another gauge of teacher efficacy for instructional strategies is student evaluation. Miho believed that it is necessary to assess her students' performance holistically for a long-term period. Because of her program's policy, her students had to take quizzes and exams often as well as being evaluated by their assignments. She considered these components as a semester goal, and she was more interested in evaluating her students' success by measuring based on their realistic, long-term goals. However, because of the school policy for testing, she cares about test scores in reality. She explained this issue as:

> Measuring students' success is not just about test[s] or courses. It's about their life skill and developing as a learner, so what's more important is what they can do with English after leaving their English course. This is difficult to evaluate, and I can only tell anecdotes, but still there are students who left English curriculum. They went and studied abroad further or they have aspirations for their career, and they are trying different things with their language skill to achieve their goals. So seeing how students develop after leaving English courses makes me realize that this student is a success. She is a successful student because of what she is doing with language. It's not possible to say this is a success right after one semester or two semesters, but I think we have to see [for] a long term.

Her excerpt illustrates her view of long-term evaluation and life-long English learning. Due to a program policy, her students had to achieve a certain TOEFL score and grade to graduate from the university, yet at the same time, she wanted her students to pursue fruitful life goals by applying their knowledge of English language to their real lives. Although she might not be able to follow her students after graduation, she could still hear their performance through other teachers and their extracurricular experiences, e.g. study abroad and campus activities.

Unlike Miho, Yoko strongly believed that tests could evaluate her students' performance. She considered test scores as reliable sources of language learners' progress

because standardized tests like TOEIC and EIKEN, have various contexts and examine

learners' improvement by scores precisely. Her advocacy of standardized tests is derived

from her own teaching and learning experience. She said, "To examine my own ability, I

always use to take tests [like] TOEIC." Also, she had been teaching test-taking skills for

more than 10 years. Her belief in tests influences her attitude toward students' evaluation.

Similar to Yoko, a primary source for evaluation for junior high and high school

Japanese NNESTs are tests. However, other than exams, each teacher explained their

different assessment strategies. Satoshi evaluated his students' performance based on

their fluency and communication skills in speaking and composition in writing. For

speaking, he gave his students one-on-one oral exams by adopting the EIKEN oral exam.

However, he explained about the difficulty in conducting this type of test depending on

the class size. As Major and Yamashita (2004) stated, the number of students in the

classroom can be an obstacle in a Japanese EFL setting, but it is not allowed to change

because of the control under MEXT. He explained, "If we have 40 students in a class, it's

very difficult to conduct it. When I conducted oral exams more actively, it was in a small

school, small class. There were only 10 or 15 students. If we have this class size, we can

often do it." Toshie also claimed that she had done conversation tests individually.

Toshie graded her students by language skills, such as communication skills,

active participation, comprehension for grammar structure, comprehension for the

content, writing composition, and ability to express themselves. Her unique approach was

the use of student self-evaluation. She explained this strategy:

> I give each student a self-evaluation sheet, and they have to report how many
> times they raise your hands. When I create a grading sheet, I calculate the total

points at the end of the semesters. Depending on how many times they raise their hands, I give them A, B, C, and such a score.

She claimed that her students participated actively in the class, which might come from their responsibilities that they self-evaluated in class. Hence, she considered this evaluation method as positive.

Keita described his assessment strategies from different perspectives. He explained his philosophy of assessment that "I don't evaluate based on my subjectivity at all. For example, I don't evaluate negatively because of the student's bad behavior in class, rather I evaluate based on their exam results. If they didn't do well, I monitor whether they do better for their make-up exams. I evaluate like either white or black, so I don't judge based on their classroom behavior."

This statement displayed his strong belief that students should be evaluated by objective sources. According to his standard, assessing from students' classroom behavior is subjective; measuring their comprehension by test scores is objective because it is based on concrete data. As a consequent, he attempted to evaluate his students' performance with a fair viewpoint.

Summary: Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy for Instructional Strategies

Capability of providing an alternative explanation is an indicator for teacher efficacy for instructional strategies, which revealed Japanese NNESTs' English and Japanese use for instruction. College Japanese NNEST participants tried to use English for alternative explanations and switched to Japanese only when students could not understand after several explanations in English because of their program policy that promoted not speaking English in class. Thus, their school environment influenced their

language use in class. In contrast, junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs tended to use Japanese more for their instruction; however, they also explained in English and employed strategies to draw answers from students, e.g., changing wording and demonstrating models. Another instructional strategy used was how to assess students' learning outcomes. A college Japanese NNEST evaluated her students' learning not only from quizzes and exams, but also from long-term learning. Similarly, a Japanese participant evaluated her students holistically based on participation, communication skills, comprehension, and ability to express themselves. In contrast, there was a teacher who relied on test scores and the test validity.

Integration between Quantitative and Qualitative Strands in Teacher Efficacy for Instructional Strategies

The noticeable result in the quantitative strand was to exhibit the strong positive correlation between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy for instructional strategies and their English proficiency. Therefore, Japanese NNEST efficacy for instructional strategies can be a predictor of English proficiency, and vice versa, and moreover, enhancing proficiency provides their effective instruction. From the descriptive statistical analysis, teacher efficacy for instructional strategies was rated almost as high as efficacy for management. In particular, Japanese NNESTs ranked high for their capability of providing an alternative explanation or example and responding to difficult questions from their students. From the qualitative analysis, to provide an alternative explanation or respond to difficult questions, Japanese NNESTs' usage of Japanese is a key to being an effective English teacher in Japan. Because of their students' lack of proficiency and better mutual understanding between teachers and students, Japanese was effectively

used in instruction. Also, the quantitative result showed that the score of Japanese

NNESTs' efficacy for the use of various assessment strategies was low. In the interviews,

participants emphasized exam assessment, which may limit their assessment strategies.

Conclusion: The Nature of Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy from a Survey and

Interviews

First, despite the fact that teacher efficacy for engagement was significantly low

compared to the other two factors in the quantitative analysis, Japanese NNESTs adopted

various approaches to show their teacher efficacy for engagement. Particularly, sharing

their language learning experience with students is a meaningful strategy for NNESTs.

Some teachers also provided positive outcomes for learning English to students'

motivation, for example, setting long-term and short-term goals, being a vicarious model,

and informing students about advantages of learning English. Providing stimulus

instructions was specifically used by junior high and high school Japanese NNEST

participants. They created their activities to engage students by scaffolding from

reachable goals, and incorporating cultural elements into their lessons. Additionally, a

junior high school teacher participant had strong empathy with her students who were

falling behind, which exhibits her high teacher efficacy for engagement on TSES as well.

Regarding classroom management, although teachers' approaches were different

depending on the students' grade levels and their maturity, Japanese NNESTs

emphasized that it is important to build relationships with students. Interestingly,

Japanese NNESTs evaluated their efficacy for building relationships with students as low

on the survey, yet efficacy for classroom management was rated the highest among three

teacher efficacy factors. In order to build strong relationships, Japanese NNESTs created

low affective classroom atmosphere, paid attention to individual students, and gave them feedback individually. Each teacher had different perspectives of difficult students, but multiple teachers agreed that students who do not speak up and show low motivation are difficult to deal with. Thus, this efficacy for management relates to issues of students' engagement as well.

All of the Japanese NNEST interview participants showed strong efficacy for explicit explanations for clarification in instruction, and survey participants also ranked high for their capability of providing an alternative explanation and responding to difficult questions. However, because of the only English use in class, a college Japanese NNEST felt her role as meaningless. Also, based on the students' language proficiency, teachers have to decide their Japanese and English use when it is appropriate. According to the quantitative analysis, Japanese NNEST efficacy for instructional strategies can be a predictor of English proficiency, and vice versa. Thus, English proficiency influences their effective instruction, which integrates Japanese NNESTs' identity, their first and second language use, and their English proficiency with teacher efficacy. With respect to students' evaluation, Japanese NNESTs exhibited less efficacy for using various assessment strategies because of their heavy emphasis on exams. Most of the participants attempted to evaluate students' performance with various methods, yet the biggest goal for students is to pass the entrance exams. Therefore, tests were the primary source for assessment.

Japanese NNESTs' Identity from Four Perspectives (Research Question #2):

Qualitative Results

To investigate the relationship between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and their professional identity (RQ#2), first, I would explain the identity themes to provide a counterpart to the efficacy exploration that already has been done in the previous section in the response to RQ#1. Then, the relational and comparative analyses were carried out subsequently to address how Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity relate to each other.

Japanese NNESTs' Identity Relating to Students: Role Identity

As mentioned in the previous chapter, teacher identity is not static (Coldron and Smith, 1999; Dillabough, 1999) and processes of constantly interpreting and reinterpreting experiences (Kerby, 1991). Although various factors are involved in developing teachers' identity (Kwo, 2010), four main traits were found with relation to teacher identity in this study, such as role identity, professional identity, teacher education and professional development, and English proficiency. According to Holland et al. (1998), teachers identify to play a particular role through social interaction, which becomes their roles in the socially and culturally meaningful context. Urrieta (2007) also mentioned that teachers' role identity should be observed objectively by themselves through interactions with others from both inside and outside. Thus, teachers' role identity is socially constructed and labeled to play particular roles in an educational setting.

Ingroup identity related to students' language learning. Hogg and Abrams (1998) explained that the distinction between ingroup and outgroup generates positive

self-esteem to their ingroup social identity. Additionally, the development of teacher

identity is a dynamic and complex process on the basis of self-image and teacher roles

(Volkmann and Anderson, 1998), which changes depending on the relation to others and

the contexts (Coldron and Smith, 1999). Through contacting students in educational and

non-educational settings, Japanese NNESTs can become bilingual role model (Duff &

Uchida, 1997). In Miho's interview, she described a role as a language model.

> As a local and an achievable target for the students, I tell them, I started with this [beginning language] level and I started this way. If you do what you have to do, you can be like me or even better, I say. You can use English not just for teaching. I'm just an English teacher. You can do business with English or be a diplomat using English. So I present myself as a stepping stone or a way they can be, a model [that] they can be.

In this excerpt, she hoped her students would view her as a role model, but concurrently,

she wanted her students to identify her position as an achievable goal, that they can be

competent in English and employ their skills in their professions. After teaching her

students, she expects them to work on life-long goals and social good. Yoko also

considered herself as a language model when saying:

> I experienced all kinds of English learning methods myself. 'Cause I struggled, too, just like they did. They are from zero to up to where they are. I experienced all. I've been there, so I know what they are thinking. I know how they feel about learning English.

Her experience in learning English is a process of her struggle with learning it. Hence,

she reflects herself on her students and gives empathy to them.

Ingroup identity as students' behavioral guide. In addition to being a language

model, teachers find a specific role through social interaction in the culturally and

socially meaningful context (Holland et al., 1998). From Miho's interview, she insisted

one aspect of teachers is to be a behavioral role model for her students in the Japanese

society. She explained:

> [I am a] language model, but also [a] behavior[al model], too. So I have to be careful when I'm walking downtown. I shouldn't be.., I should be responsible [for] all the actions I make because I'm seen as a kind of model person and model language speaker. So I feel that always, kind of social pressure, but responsibility.

In the interview, she also said, "I'm always thinking about teaching" and "all of my life

experiences are connected to who I am and how I present myself as a teacher." She views

herself as a teacher who possesses social responsibility through her students' and public

eyes, which are framed by her previous experiences. Having a strong teacher identity by

thinking about her teaching on a daily basis, she perceives her role as an English

language model. She also believes that she should be a model in the Japanese society as a

teacher.

As Miho recognized her role identity as a teacher, Yoko described herself in a

slightly different way by saying, "I want them to consider myself as their model, role

model." Miho perceived herself as a teacher from educational and societal viewpoints,

whereas Yoko described herself as a teacher as well as a learner rather than bridging her

students and society or some outside factors by saying, "I'm a teacher, but at the same

time, I'm a learner." Her statement corresponds to Farrell's (2011) English teacher's role

identity as learner. This defines that teachers seek their knowledge about teaching and the

subject. Yoko also recognized herself as an elicitor and promoter. Behind her

perceptions, her background as an owner of a private English school emerges. Similar to

Miho, who stated that her life experience connected to her identity as a teacher, Yoko's

teaching experience in her own school made a much stronger impression than teaching at

a university. For example, she emphasized the importance of teaching at her school by

explaining:

> I get tired teaching university classes because those classes are just kind of a top-
> down thing. I'm supposed to play the role. There is a curriculum.

She further described that she felt like a "part of the machine." She had a dilemma

without freedom for curricula and teaching materials. In contrast to her teaching

experience in the university, she mentioned her motivation for teaching to her private

students saying, "Without that, I can't survive. This is my source of energy, so I can't

stop doing this." She recognized herself as a sole teacher for her private lessons rather

than an instructor in a university classroom setting. As Tickle (2000) asserted that

previous experiences in teaching and personal backgrounds construct teacher identity,

Yoko's previous teaching experience as a private teacher influences her attitudes toward

her teaching in a university setting.

Miho sees her role as an educator not only for teaching English, but also for

encouraging them to apply their English learning experience to their lives. Yoko focuses

on her role of a teacher as passing her knowledge in English onto her students. She stated

"I'm just sharing my knowledge with others as a learner, as a teacher." Prior to this

quote, Yoko mentioned a story about how much one of her students, who she taught

privately, was motivated by their meaningful one-on-one relationship. This also

demonstrates how previous teaching experience affects her motivation for teaching in a

private setting.

Ingroup identity as specific grade level teachers. Satoshi and Keita shared two

elements of their teacher identity, specifically as Japanese high school teachers, which

this specific context influence their teacher identity. First, their shared goal for teaching

English was to guide students to pass the university entrance exam. As Satoshi described:

> Whichever school I taught, what I put in my effort the most is to let my students achieve their goals after graduation. We are doing our best to achieve and assure their goals after graduation. I think every teacher thinks this way and tries to do their best. What I have learned is I strongly feel that there are various students and parents who have different perspectives.

In his excerpt, Satoshi did not directly refer to the university entrance exam; however, as

explained in Satoshi and Keita's profiles, they were teaching at a competitive college-

bound high school. Therefore, they take a great amount of responsibility for their

students' entrance into universities. Keita even possessed a stronger feeling of

responsibility towards his students' career goals based on his own experience in studying

for the university entrance exam for four years total.

> I thought about my future career so much, and I suffered so much from a university entrance exam, and I had to spend extra years to prepare for the university entrance exam. I want to use these experiences to apply to my students' guidance.

This Japanese high school NNEST's identity as a guide for his students' career goal is

significant due to his responsibility for students and their parents. Furthermore, because

of Keita's harsh experience devoting four years to studying, he demonstrated his strong

empathy for his students to succeed in passing the entrance exam and guiding them to

promising future careers.

Secondly, a remarkable point Keita showed was that his identity was shaped not

as an English teacher but as a high school teacher. He explained this concept:

> [When majoring in social studies education,] we have to choose which subject area we teach in social studies, like geography, world history, Japanese history, and civics. For example, if we want to be a teacher for geography, we can meet a part of our students, like only 30% of the students, [because students will choose

one or two areas they want to study]. So I will have few opportunities to communicate with our students, and for university entrance exams, I will contribute to them very little. For the second-stage exams, we only have few schools asking for those subjects as a testing area. In that sense, English can contribute to the students either in the literature track or the science track. Also, I devoted my effort to studying English the most, so I chose to be an English teacher, but I don't mean that I like English very much.

Majoring in elementary education with a concentration on social studies, he could have taught it instead of English, yet he chose to teach English due to the effort he devoted when he was studying for the university entrance exam. What's more, the sequence of his experience in high school and in preparation for four years for the university entrance exam greatly impacted his identity as a high school teacher. His hope to interact with more students and influence them is a crucial factor for his teacher identity.

Keita's will to connect with students is similar to Toshie's teacher identity as well. As introduced in her profile, she became not a high school but a junior high school English teacher because she wanted to be closely involved with her students' activities, such as school events and clubs. Even on weekends, she enjoyed supervising her junior high school volleyball team and interacted with her students outside of the classroom. She explained her motivation to become a junior high school teacher by explaining, "In a high school, everything gets more specified, and teachers don't have much contact with their students. So although the work is tough, I thought teaching at a junior high school level would be more fun."

Outgroup expectations as teachers. Another component of NNESTs' identity is the teacher's role as an actor. Satoshi even explained why he thought being like an actor was important by saying, "When I was a student teacher, a teacher who was supervising me often told me that teachers should be an actor in class." In this excerpt, Satoshi

learned and constructed his new identity by interacting with his supervisor, which relates

that teacher identity changes based on the relationships with others and the contexts

(Coldron and Smith, 1999). In addition, he considered a teacher's personality as a

significant factor. He said, "The most important element in teaching English is, I think,

teachers' personality, at first. It comes first for me." He did not explicitly mention what

kinds of personality are favorable, yet he insisted that teachers should be enthusiastic

about what they teach. Also, when he talked about someone who influenced him as a

teacher, he brought up his junior high school English teacher.

> My junior high school teacher definitely influenced me significantly because of
> his personality that he was good at entertaining his students. In our generation,
> schools were rough, and students were wild. Even in that kind of time, the teacher
> could deal with any types of students with encouraging attitudes to his students.
> Of course, there were some rough times for him, which he couldn't necessarily do
> well, but he tried to motivate and encourage his students in the class.

This explanation demonstrates his meaning of teacher personality. He touched upon his

junior high school teacher as an entertainer and motivator (Farrell, 2011) with positive

attitudes. Satoshi's past English teacher made an impression on him as well as his

supervisor when he was a student teacher regarding teachers' personality associating with

identity development.

Keita also raised the idea of being an actor as a good quality for teachers. He said,

"Someone who likes performing in front of people or who exaggerate reacting in a nice

way is suitable for teaching." Especially as an English teacher, he believed that "someone

who can act, acting out like a foreigner" is valuable as a teacher, which is also the way to

attract Japanese English learners' attention and be beneficial for their engagement.

Although he perceived himself as a quiet person, he asserted that being a teacher as an

actor was effective. Moreover, he explained that he changed his personality when he taught. He said that "in front of my students, I kind of act out and play a role like an entertainer." Despite his reserved personality, he attempted to be more upbeat in his English classes, which he compared himself to outgroup members who had enthusiasm by nature.

   Outgroup factors influencing learners' achievement. In the Japanese educational system, most of the school districts determined which junior high school students should attend; therefore, their achievement gap can be wide for various reasons. However, the gap becomes narrower in each high school because of the high school entrance exam. Thus, Toshie's concern is inevitable as a junior high school teacher and added this statement in the interview:

> Math and English are the subjects in which students' achievement gap becomes very wide, so the polarization of the students into high and low proficiency is intensifying. We have to see the long-term goals like high school entrance exams or even further into the future, and we need to instruct our students.

She explained that some schools attempted to form smaller classes or arrange two teachers in the class because of the difficulty of English for Japanese speakers. For these reasons, she cared about those students who fell behind. This revealed the outgroup factor that Toshie's teacher identity was influenced.

   As a junior high school English teacher, Toshie's distinctive role as a teacher is that of a supporter, specifically for low achieving students. She was consistent across the interviews and insisted that she cared, "about low proficient students and mainly think about those students." Because she had been teaching English at public junior high

schools, there were various factors that could improve or hinder students' learning, such

as motivation for their academic goals, aptitude, and home environment. She stated:

> Those students who have high English proficiency can do anything by themselves, but those students who have low proficiency cannot complete tasks by themselves, and they don't know how to deal with things. They are not even sure whether they are able to understand the topics, so I have to support them. If they can get some hints, understand the content, and realize what they are learning is fun, they might think that they want to try to do it and study for skills. They might think English is useful in the future. They might also think they want to see a movie with subtitles, which brings more interests in learning English for them. So I think I want to push those students who are struggling learning English.

She was particularly willing to encourage those students whose English proficiency was

lower than other students and who did not find the significance of learning English in

their lives. Here, adding to a role as a supporter specifically for low proficient students,

she played the role of a motivator.

Outgroup influenced by cultural factors. Being a facilitator is another

characteristic that shows Toshie's robust identity as a teacher. First, she hopes:

> In a junior high school, studying English is necessary for their high school entrance exam, but if we see a long-term goal, they can develop communication skills to connect with lots of people. Also, they can learn others' cultures and countries by learning English, so they can learn broad and different perspectives, which will help them in the future.

She wanted her students not only to study English for passing the high school entrance

exam but also to enhance their communication skills and intercultural knowledge. She

has the strongest interests in incorporating culture into her classes among all the Japanese

NNEST participants in this study. Because of her fruitful experience living in different

cultures, such as the U.K., Australia, and the U.S., she sometimes talked about her own

stories to her students with cultural references. As an English teacher, she believed that

she was educated about the target culture. Toshie said:

> Of course, we need expertise in English language, but it's not interesting enough, so we should know about English-speaking culture and inform it to our students. It will be more fun for our students, so we might play the role of a social studies teacher. If we have various knowledge, we can make our classes more fun.

In order to pursue her goal to teach cultural knowledge to her students, she tried to play the role of social studies teacher by teaching English, which exhibited that she was providing more than language instruction. Again, here she passes her cultural knowledge onto her students by showing her experience in different cultures.

Through her experience, she became an interculturally competent English teacher and attempted to apply her knowledge and experience to her class. As an example of the difference between Japanese and other English-speaking cultures, she talked about honorific language.

> I often tell my students that Japanese people emphasize hierarchy, so we have different levels of formality in Japanese. We have to use various honorific forms depending on situations. In English, we have respect forms, but because people in English-speaking culture emphasize connections with others, the expressions are not as structured as Japanese language. For example, even for teachers or elderly people, people call them by their first names.

In this excerpt, while comparing the structure of Japanese and English languages, she introduced culture in relation to people. She engaged her students in learning by constantly contrasting Japanese and English-speaking cultures and played a role as a facilitator enhancing her students' cultural awareness.

Summary: Japanese NNESTs' Identity Relating to Students: Role Identity

Based on Hogg and Abrams' (1998) notion of ingroup and outgroup distinction in social identity theory, I discussed six perspectives in teachers' role identity relating to students. In students' learning, being a language and behavioral model is an important role identity as Japanese NNESTs. Multiple interview participants were willing to be

their students' role models by sharing their English learning background and applying their life and teaching experience. Junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs showed distinctive identity as specific grade level teachers because they wanted their students to achieve their goals, such as passing entrance exams and pursuing career goals. A junior high school Japanese NNEST was also willing to connect with her students closely. In contrast, interview participants were influenced by outgroup factors. For example, two high school Japanese NNESTs agreed that teaching with enthusiasm was an important role for teachers. This notion was affected by students, other teachers, and comparison with outgroup members. Another outgroup component was to enhance students' achievement, which was influenced by school districts and class sizes. Therefore, a junior high Japanese NNEST tried to fill her students' achievement gap, particularly for those students who were falling behind. This participant also fostered her students' cultural knowledge by providing cultural references based on her study abroad experience.

Japanese NNESTs' Identity Relating to Other Teachers and Professional Development: Professional Identity

Velez-Rendon (2010) stated that professional identity is developed from one's educational and personal background, beliefs and experiences facing difficulties and problems, cooperation with other teachers, and teacher preparation experiences. In contrast, Walkington (2005) explained that teacher role identity is related to their teaching philosophy, beliefs, and self as teachers. Therefore, teachers' professional identity is developed while they are accumulating their previous experiences and background factors as teachers, whereas their role identity is on the basis of beliefs in perceiving their roles as teachers.

Ingroup identity using Japanese as a mutual language. Both Miho and Yoko

showed positive and negative perspectives of themselves as NNESTs. First, both of them

supported the role of Japanese as their mutual language with their students. Miho said:

> I think it's better if a teacher knows students' first language, and how the
> language is constructed or characteristics of Japanese grammar, maybe. So they
> are aware of the kind of mistakes students make or the kind of thinking like in
> writing.

Because of her language learning background as Japanese, knowledge of Japanese, and

capability of understanding her students' logic, Miho believes these factors to be an

advantage of a NNEST. In Yoko's case, she realized an advantage of the usage of

Japanese through her NEST colleague. Because of the program policy as an international

school, she hesitated to speak Japanese in class. However, her NEST supervisor, one day,

told her that she could use Japanese if it was effective for her instruction, and he even

said to her that his students would understand grammar points better if he could have

explained them in Japanese. Although she still spoke English all the time in her class, she

could realize the benefit of sharing a mutual language with her students.

Ingroup identity by observing other teachers' classes. As explained in Toshie's

profile, although she did not obtain teacher education for her bachelor's degree, she

attempted to engage in professional development after starting teaching at junior high

schools. Adding to improving her pedagogical knowledge and English proficiency, she

realized that observing her colleagues' classes was the most meaningful.

> I think observing my colleagues' classes helps best. This is our school's method
> for professional development, and we observe our colleagues' classes, write out
> feedback and comments, and give them to each other. Since I've come to this
> school, we've done it every year. Also, I join workshops and use what I have
> learned from them for my class.

Her school had structured procedures for their teachers' classroom observations. She learned better by observing "those teachers who have long experience in teaching or who use technology in class." In this sense, English teachers at her school form a community of practice with apprenticeship. She and her colleagues observe each other's classes and collaborate to improve their classes. Furthermore, she analyzed her own needs and goals so that she could gain the most benefit from the classroom observation. Specifically for her interest in technology use in the classroom, she found her classroom observation in the US public schools more meaningful. She argued:

> I visited some public junior high schools in the U.S., and the teachers there thought that Japan was a high tech country, so they thought Japanese teachers used technology in the classroom, but I think the U.S. is more advanced country in terms of the technology use. In fact, students did their assignments on their computers at home and sent the data to their teachers' computer, and each student had an iPad, so I felt Japan was behind. I was amazed.

This experience stimulated her motivation for technology use in class, and she incorporated it into one of the goals of her professional development.

Ingroup identity development through teaching in class and self-studying. As with Miho, Satoshi received a typical teacher training when he was an undergraduate in education. On the first year of his teaching career, he had a weekly nation-wide teacher training program, which was mandatory for first year teachers. Every Thursday, he did not teach classes but took the program. Topics of the program were teaching methodologies, student guidance, and so on. It lasted only for the first year, but the Board of Education sometimes provided elective workshops, but these were not compulsory. He also had experience as a student teacher for a month, yet with hindsight, he thought the experience was quite different from his real teaching in the class. The reason this might

be true is because his experience was only for a month, and there are different levels of

responsibility as a classroom teacher and a student teacher.

In addition to Satoshi's structured teacher education, he realized that he could

improve his professional development through teaching in his classes. He explained the

meaning of his everyday teaching like this:

> I have to construct my classes in a way in which students should be very active
> and eager to learn. So, of course I think the official training program was very
> helpful. But for me, everyday preparation for the class is very essential or
> indispensable.

He gained his knowledge and practice of his pedagogy and student guidance through

teacher education, but from his perspective, the most effective method to improve his

professional development was to make his daily instruction more meaningful for his

students. As a result, he could encourage his students' learning outcomes and expect

them to be better engaged.

As explained in Keita's profile, although he received his bachelor's degree in

elementary education, he was teaching English in a high school when he was

interviewed. His perception of professional development is to self-study to improve his

pedagogy and increase his English proficiency. He believed that focusing on these two

areas was the most effective. He insisted that "we don't have a professional development

opportunity, particularly. We sometimes have a workshop, but I don't learn enough from

the workshop, so I have to study myself." Once or twice a year, English teachers have to

join professional development workshops, but he did not think he could gain his

knowledge from these. He explained:

> [The workshops were] just like two days long. Besides, for half of one of the days,
> we do the same thing among all the subject teachers, so for a workshop about

English pedagogy, it's only about two sessions for a couple of hours in the afternoon.

A problem here is that Japanese NNESTs only have a short workshop, which makes it difficult to find the meaningful consequences for their classroom instruction. Even more seriously, most public school teachers have a time constraint on their professional development. As Satoshi explained, "the most noticeable point is our excessive amount of workload. Lately, even on news, compared to other advanced countries, Japanese teachers' workload surpasses them, which can be a serious problem." He also asserted that supervising club activities and writing reports added significant time to Japanese NNESTs' job. Including in their issues of workload, Keita could not find the necessity for the workshop. Rather, he acknowledged self-study as being more meaningful than attending workshops. For the first three years, when he self-studied, he focused on his language skills, such as test-taking strategies, building vocabulary words, improving his English pronunciation, and developing reading skills, yet currently, he was more interested in learning classroom management. Thus, he wanted to gain these skills by self-learning. While reading books about pedagogy and second language acquisition theories and solving problems on standardized tests, he participated in an English conversation group every other week.

Other than his self-studying strategies, he discussed issues with his colleagues in the school. He said "I ask teachers in the high school about what I should do in this situation or ask some advice from other teachers." Because he was one of the youngest English teachers in the high school, he asked for suggestions from other experienced teachers.

Ingroup identity in promoting collaborative learning. A goal of improving

Toshie's instruction is to research students' collaborative learning. She described it:

> From research on education, pair work has been thought as effective. Also, we have to take a professional development program in the first year of our teaching. We are told that we should use pair work there. Because I'm always the youngest English teacher, other teachers observe my class. So, I have to plan for the lesson. I often read books or research articles that emphasize the importance of pair work. Also, it has been said that group work and pair work are important for classroom management.

Through her professional development training, she learned the effectiveness of pair and

group work. Especially in the public junior high and high schools, there are

approximately 30 to 40 students in a classroom; therefore, it is necessary to divide her

students into pairs or small groups so that they can be engaged in their activities. What's

more, they create supportive learning environments through their interactions. Toshie

explained:

> By teaching and learning from each other, they can create their own pleasure in learning English. I observed classes at a school that researched on collaborative learning, and we will research on it at my school, too. Inviting my students to practice some activities by using collaborative learning, I can see low proficient students work collaboratively for fun. I also see those students who are not engaging in activities teach other students, so I think collaborative learning is important for building good relationships between students.

Another goal for her professional development is to encourage students' collaborative

learning and conduct action research. By patiently guiding her students to understand the

importance of pair and group work, she made an effort to have cooperative learning as a

routine. First, her students did not want to work with others, yet they reluctantly did, and

finally it became their routine. She sets some professional development goals and drives

herself to reach them.

Ingroup identity with positive attitudes towards teacher education and professional development. There are various factors that construct teachers' professional identity, and Velez-Rendon (2010) argued that teacher education is one of the elements that influences their teacher identity. Gardner (1995) also discovered additional professional development improves their professional identity. Based on these perspectives, teacher education and professional development influence their teacher identity formation; thus, it is necessary to investigate how these two factors impact on the process of NNESTs' professional identity development. As introduced in the profile, Miho had a firm teacher training background for her undergraduate degree and had been always enthusiastic about receiving professional development opportunities after teaching. When she was interviewed, she was studying for a doctoral degree. While having a baby, she had been taking distance courses from a British university. She explained this as the most helpful professional development experience. She said, "Having a PhD will really help me do well, professionally, in many ways. It will increase my confidence and also hopefully my study will help my students, so I would like to focus more on that side." Her ultimate goal for gaining the degree was to improve her pedagogy and teacher efficacy as well as support her students' learning performance. She was a teacher who constantly strived to enhance her teacher efficacy through teacher education and professional development, but at the same time, she always bore her students in mind.

In addition to pursuing her doctoral degree, she said:

Presenting at conferences is one thing, and we have students' feedback at the end of the semester. But reading students' comments about how I teach, how I connect with students, that's really really helpful for myself to develop, I think.

She had been attending and presenting at conferences every year, and interestingly, she also considered her students' feedback as part of professional development. Moreover, she described her positive experience of getting feedback on her teaching, for which she received a teacher award.

> In the past, I received an award from the university for my teaching and for university services, and I think those are good incentives to help teachers try to develop and maintain standard[s].

This success effectively enhances her teacher efficacy as Bandura (1994) argued. I assume that Miho receives her students' feedback sincerely, improves her pedagogy and interaction with students, and obtains positive feedback, which is a cyclical enhancement for her professional development. Overall, Miho incorporates multiple methods, such as getting a degree, participating in conferences, and reflecting students' feedback, into her professional development.

Ingroup identity for effective professional development. I would like to particularly note Satoshi and Toshie asserted that the most meaningful professional development was that MEXT should send Japanese NNESTs abroad to get more training. Both teachers had been sent to study abroad by MEXT, but even so, they insisted that if more teachers can participate in the training opportunity and bring their knowledge back to their classrooms, it would positively affect students' learning outcomes. Satoshi said:

> What I want them to do the most is to send me abroad either for a long-term or a short-term period. I stayed in the U.K. for two months through MEXT. I think that's the most beneficial training many teachers want. Staying in English-speaking countries and receiving trainings is meaningful. If it's difficult to stay there for a long time like for two months, I think joining a college-bound ESL program even for two weeks is still good.

Based on his own experience of studying in the U.K., he believes that study abroad is the most effective for professional development even for teachers who are currently teaching. Toshie agreed that she wanted to study abroad in order to brush up her English proficiency and pedagogy; however, she also understood the difficulty in implementing it by saying "because of the opportunities and funding situation, we probably can't, but if the government can be proactive, English teachers can facilitate the knowledge to our students, I think."

Outgroup attitudes toward professional development. In contrast to Miho and Toshie's positive stance, Yoko had a different approach to her professional development. First, her motivation for teaching is not necessarily to teach English for college students. As discussed previously, she believed private tutoring is the most effective teaching method; therefore, she has owned her English school and taught there for more than 10 years. When she was interviewed, she said that she was more interested in being a translator or teaching other subjects in English. She explained:

> I want to be teaching [and] be a college teacher, but teaching other subject[s] in English. I want to be using English. That's my motivation. I want to be using English, and I want to be speaking in English, at the same time, teaching some other subject, not English language. [That is what] I've always wanted to [do]. Before I chose TESOL [for her master's], I was looking into other subjects, psychology and other things.

She eventually studied TESOL and taught English at a university level; however, she still thought about studying and teaching something else rather than English. Yoko said that "I wish I could be teaching other, some other subject in English, so that's why sometimes it makes me think [about] taking [a] second master." Due to her teaching interests in other subjects or other reasons, she was not receiving any particular professional development

while teaching at the university. The only activity she might have considered as professional development was to talk with her colleagues. Yoko did not seem to discuss anything related to pedagogy; therefore, she did not show stance on her professional development.

Outgroup comparison with NESTs in English proficiency and intercultural knowledge as NNESTs. Although both Miho and Yoko had high English proficiency, they analyzed their language proficiency and students' needs objectively. Miho described:

> I want to keep learning and developing as teacher or while teaching, and I don't think I'm perfect. I'm never going to be perfect, and I'm never content with what I can do. So I want to keep learning, especially, how to teach more effectively, and motivating students is not a problem because most of my students are motivated, but keep their motivation and to show them or show others how effective the teaching is. That's difficult.

She self-evaluated her own English proficiency neutrally by saying she would not be perfect in English language. Adding to this viewpoint, she displayed her dedication to improving her English skills and pedagogy. Because of her status as a coordinator of the beginning English sections, she views herself as a teacher who requires to grow as well as a supervisor of other teachers who are teaching the beginning level. Additionally, teaching the primary level brings her a specific perspective because, as she described:

> I'm conscious, always when I'm talking to my students, I'm conscious about the way I speak, and in fact that I'm not a native speaker of English. I'm aware of that and how that affects my English teaching, I'm not quite sure. For example, we have a lot of courses in school, and I know I probably won't teach any advanced English levels because, at first, the level of English proficiency requires to teach that level. I think it's a bit too high for me being a non-native English speaker.

Again, Miho evaluated her English proficiency with a fair attitude, which reminded her of the difficulty of teaching advanced levels as a NNEST. She explained how she always

monitored when interacting with her students, which is derived from her status as a

NNEST. At the same time, she identified that her speech in class was easily

comprehensible to her students because of her vocabulary use and speed. Thus, admitting

herself to be a NNEST, she attempts to make the most of her ability for teaching a

beginning level as a NNEST.

Like Miho, who self-evaluated her own English proficiency objectively, Yoko

also believed she needed to improve her language skills, but she saw the status of NNEST

as an advantage. She imagined herself as a non-native speaker of English and said, "I

think I have advantage because I have this explicit knowledge about language."

Furthermore, she compared herself as a NNEST to NESTs and said:

> If you are [a] native speaker, I think it's almost impossible to teach others to be
> able to speak that language 'cause they are naturally came to you. And then, when
> you are realized, you are speaking [the language], so it's implicit.

In this part, she defended her perception of native speakers' language acquisition of the

target language. Due to their implicit knowledge of language, she identified her NNEST's

position as an advantage. As Lee (2004) explained, because of NNESTs' own English

learning experience, NNESTs with high English proficiency have advantages to

recognize their students' processes and facilitate their problems with various options. In

fact, Hertel and Sunderman (2009) mentioned that students perceived NNESTs as

effective at teaching grammar and answering questions.

As I explained above, Miho and Yoko recognized themselves as NNESTs and

utilized the fact as an advantage. Although none of the junior high and high school

Japanese NNEST participants directly labeled themselves as NNESTs, Satoshi and

Toshie expressed their role as NNESTs. Satoshi asserted two roles as a Japanese NNEST,

such as his roles of a language model and a motivator. While communicating with ALTs, he wanted to demonstrate himself as a model non-native English speaker who could be proficient. Behind this thought, he explained the reason that "even though I haven't gone through any special training, I, as a typical Japanese person, can communicate with native speakers like this, and I want to show it." He was a trained high school English teacher, yet he had not lived abroad for a long-term period. However, he is confident about his English proficiency, and more importantly, he wants to utilize himself as a language model to encourage his students and hopes that they realize they can be proficient like himself. Furthermore, he said, "I try to be a role model showing that they can have positive outcomes if they can speak English." Hence, he strives to motivate his students by showing himself as a language model.

Toshie's viewpoint as a NNEST is influenced by her intercultural knowledge. She said "because I know Japanese culture and language structure, I think I can situate myself in my students' perspectives and can teach them." Situating oneself in other's perspectives is the basis of intercultural competence (Byram, 2000). As explained above, while taking a role of facilitator, she employed her identity as Japanese and experience in different cultures in order to better understand her students. By sharing the same L1 culture, Toshie demonstrates her empathy with her students.

Outgroup influence by the relationship between teacher identity and English proficiency. In the previous studies and this present study, the correlation between teacher efficacy and English proficiency was discovered. The relationship between teacher identity and English proficiency also should be investigated to understand how English proficiency influences both teacher efficacy and identity development. In

Johnson's research (2005), a participant's English proficiency challenged her appropriate

identity formation due to the psychological pressure from her belief that she should be

linguistically competent in English in front of her students. This can commonly occur in

an EFL setting; therefore, in this section, Japanese NNESTs' self-perceived English

proficiency is observed.

As previous research shows, English proficiency and teacher efficacy are

positively correlated. Miho and Yoko's English proficiency was high, and both of them

perceived their proficiency objectively and comfortably. Both Miho and Yoko evaluated

their reading, writing, and grammar skills as strong, but regarding speaking and

communication, they believed they had to improve more.

Miho linked her weakness in speaking to her lack of vocabulary and knowledge

of idioms. Also, due to her lack of communication strategies, she sometimes worried that

she interrupted improperly during the discussion; thus, people thought she was rude. She

also wondered if her communication was hindered because of her accent. In addition to

the issue of accent, she was the least confident about her pronunciation among all the

English skills. She explained:

> Accent, pronunciation, and intonation are the difficult things. I don't try to sound like somebody. I think I used to [sound like a natural speaker] right after I studied in America. I probably tried to sound like an American, maybe. And when I was studying in the U.K., maybe I caught more [of a] British accent. Then, over the years, I probably lost [it], and I'm not trying to sound particularly like a [native] speaker, but trying to be natural. And also, I tell my students you don't have to speak like an American. You can never be, so pronunciation is something I was the least confident [about] when I was a student and still now. But I can, most of the time, make myself understood.

In this excerpt, she discussed her accent as part of her identity as neither American nor

British but herself. Although she said that she was not confident about her accent, I

assume she accepted it as she was by saying "I'm not trying to sound particularly like a [native] speaker". More importantly, she answered a question about how to perceive her own accent like this, "my opinion is as long as the speech is legible, any accent should be accepted, and students shouldn't be afraid of how they speak." She claimed that as far as her and her students' speech was intelligible, they should not be afraid of speaking up. In terms of accent, the university she worked at was situated as an international school, where most of the students were from Asian countries. Particularly in this environment, her claim is rational for the school and her students.

Yoko briefly self-evaluated her English proficiency, saying that her speaking and listening skills were weak, and she believed she had to improve them. Regarding pronunciation, she even thought some of her students' pronunciation was better than hers. Yoko's view is different from Miho, who always reflects herself as a teacher. In contrast to Miho, Yoko possesses interesting backgrounds and experiences in her life and wants to pass her knowledge and experience on to her students; however, she is like a language trainer, not an educator. In spite of their great English proficiency, they have different perspectives on their teacher identity, pedagogy, relationships with students, and their own proficiency. Both are equally proficient, but due to their past experiences, their attitudes are different.

Satoshi seems to be fairly confident about his English proficiency with his long-term teaching experience, taking a role as a language model for his students. However, he had not assessed his own English proficiency much before and struggled with self-evaluating it. He asserted that his English improved through the contact with ALTs. Other than that, he had not worked on enhancing his English. Although he was confident

about his grammar knowledge, he evaluated listening and speaking as his weakest skills

and reading, writing, and communication as average.

A distinctive point he made about his English proficiency was his stance on

varieties in English. Even though he was sent by MEXT to study in England for two

months, he said he did not improve his language skills much. However, he learned

something more than that.

> I don't think it helped me improve my English ability, but I had a lot of
> opportunities to talk with English people, I mean, foreigners coming from
> European countries like France, Italy, Germany, and they spoke many Englishes.
> That helped me to understand there are many English[es] in the world, and we
> don't have to be very accurate in speaking. That's what I experienced. But that I
> studied abroad, I don't think helped me, helped my English ability to improve my
> English. It doesn't matter.

Through this experience, he realized that he found varieties of English in the world and

could communicate with English speakers without problems. As Miho described, as far

as non-native English speakers can communicate in English, he accepts the difference

and considers that they do not have to be preoccupied with accuracy. As for his English

pronunciation, he had the same position as Miho, by saying "I'm quite satisfied with my

pronunciation because I think I can, I hope that I can make myself understood in

English." Similar to Miho, he emphasized his intelligibility rather than particular

pronunciation.

Toshie evaluated her own English proficiency as intermediate. Just as other

Japanese NNEST participants perceived, she was also the least confident about her

speaking ability, yet she felt comfortable in writing. Her living experience in the U.K.,

Australia, and the U.S. also influenced her perception of her proficiency. She explained:

> I'm not a very outgoing person and sometimes afraid of making mistakes as a typical Japanese, and I don't know how to answer, but other people are not like that, especially, European students. I learned that's OK. After this experience, I became more confident and active.

Because of her academic experience with other international students, her attitudes toward language learning changed. Like many Japanese English learners worry, she was nervous about making mistakes in English; however, she became more confident and was not afraid of making mistakes any more. Furthermore, her experience in different countries had an impact on her perceptions about pronunciation as well.

> Because of the prevalent use of English, there should be various English accents. So we should have content to communicate and we can actually communicate with an accent. If we can communicate, that's fine. As an English teacher, I think my pronunciation should be standard not to confuse my students, but I'm not too confident.

Here, when communicating, her focus is not accent but what she wants to convey through communication. Due to her past experience, she knows varieties in accent, but at the same time, she wants to set some kind of standard for her students.

Compared to Satoshi and Toshie, Keita perceived his English as less proficient. Throughout the interviews, he described his English proficiency in this way, "I think my English is poor" and "[my English skills are] so bad." However, he perceived his grammar knowledge as his strength. When Asian international students came to his high school and had an exchange with his students, he found those international students' weakness in English skills, which was their grammar. He talked about it like this:

> They were able to speak English very well, but their knowledge of grammar was a little poor, I think. So [about] their speaking or other three skills, reading, listening, writing, I think they are good at, especially speaking, but their knowledge of grammar was a little poor, so I think grammar is my strength.

Because of most of the Japanese NNESTs' emphasis on teaching and learning English through grammar, Keita also realized it was his strong skill. Moreover, he also believed it was difficult to improve his proficiency. He described "my English skill improve[s] a little, for example, pronunciation, speaking skill, and vocabulary," "English accent is difficult. I can hardly improve my pronunciation." Although he devoted his effort to self-study for his English improvement and attended an English conversation group regularly, it was difficult for him to identify his enhancement. In addition, as Yoko did, he compared his pronunciation to his students and said "some students' pronunciation is better than mine. They are so great. How did they get those pronunciation?" This low perception of his pronunciation influenced his instruction. He explained how he felt about teaching English pronunciation like this:

> I don't think I can do too well on accent, so I can't tell about accent to my students. I don't teach accent, and I can't. I will teach some basic English pronunciation like "heard" not "hear-d," but something like the pronunciation "a" could vary four different sounds, I can't teach.

Even though he has knowledge about English language, he sometimes seems to have difficulty to apply it to teaching instruction. This directly connects to his confidence level in teaching. He also worried about how to deal with his expatriate student.

> I have an expatriate (kikokushijo), and this student's English is much better than mine, so what can I say, particularly for pronunciation? I'm not confident of teaching it. I think even if I teach them, they might not listen to me. If my students are junior high school students, I might be able to do it, but in the class with an expatriate, it's difficult for me.

Because of his lack of confidence in English proficiency, he sometimes has a hard time with his instruction for particular skills, such as pronunciation and communication.

Summary: Japanese NNESTs' Identity Relating to Other Teachers and Professional Development: Professional Identity

I investigated Japanese NNESTs' identity from the concept of social identity theory. Japanese NNESTs' identity is influenced by ingroup and outgroup members and environment. Their identity is arbitrary, and moreover, they have multiple roles and identities as well. There are several ingroup and outgroup factors in Japanese NNESTs' identity relating to other teachers and professional development, which associates with their professional identity. For college Japanese NNESTs', sharing a mutual language with students and using Japanese could be an advantage if it was effective. In addition, by observing other teachers' classes, a junior high Japanese NNEST learned pedagogical knowledge from experienced teachers. She also observed classes that aroused her interests, such as using technology in class and teaching classes based on collaborative learning. In contrast to learning from other teachers, some participants believed self-learning was more effective than professional development workshops. Another teacher also perceived everyday teaching practice was the most meaningful professional development. Finally, a junior high and a high school Japanese NNESTs suggested that MEXT should send Japanese NNESTs to study abroad for their language and pedagogical improvement.

Japanese NNEST participants also perceived themselves by comparing with outgroup members and factors. The main factors were comparison with NESTs in English proficiency and cultural knowledge. Japanese NNEST participants self-evaluated their own English proficiency objectively and believed the necessity of their language improvement as non-native speakers of English. At the same time, a college Japanese

NNEST considered her NNEST's position as an advantage to facilitate her students'

processes of learning English. Another participant believed sharing the L1 culture with

her students influenced her pedagogy in class. Most of the interview participants showed

confidence in their English proficiency. Although they perceived their speaking skills and

pronunciation as weak, they acknowledged it as identity of non-native English speakers.

Particularly, those teachers who studied abroad discovered that there were varieties in

English, which provided them understanding and acceptance of the varieties.

Conclusion: Integration between Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy and Identity

Relationship between Teacher Efficacy for Engagement and Teacher Identity

From the quantitative findings about teacher efficacy, Japanese NNESTs' efficacy

for engagement was the lowest score among three factors (M=5.50). This result revealed

that Japanese NNESTs were less efficacious for student engagement, particularly for

dealing with those students who are failing and have low interest in learning English. The

first reason for this outcome may be derived from the participants' belief in their

students' self-accountability towards learning. In the interviews, most of the Japanese

NNESTs admitted that students had more responsibility for their own learning than the

teachers, although levels of responsibility were different based on individual teachers.

Because younger students need more supervision for learning, as the grade levels go

higher, students' responsibility accumulates and teachers' responsibility decreases. When

investigating the relationship between students' motivation and Japanese NNESTs'

identity, junior high and high school NNEST participants were more positive about

playing a role as a motivator. In contrast, college NNEST participants wanted to be a

language model and shared their knowledge as a teacher. This showed that most of the

Japanese NNEST participants were eager to be vicarious models that allow students to learn how to perceive the process of improving their language and utilizing it. As Bandura (1986, 1997) stated, observing others' success or failure can be a source of efficacy. Connecting this notion to their NNESTs' identity, being a successful language model can provide a positive vicarious experience towards students, which shows their identity as non-native speakers of English.

Relationship between Teacher Efficacy for Management and Teacher Identity

As the survey results showed, efficacy for management scored the highest among the three factors, which means Japanese NNEST participants perceived their skills of classroom management as the most capable. This corresponds to their humanistic approaches. Chacón (2005) described that the correlation between teachers' levels of efficacy and a humanistic management style compared to custodial style. One of the interview participants discussed classroom rules with her students and created them together with a polite and respectful manner. Another participant claimed that he invited his students to understand the importance of the classroom rules without pushing to obey them. Another teacher's approach was to encourage students' active participation and allowed them to make mistakes in class. Behind these humanistic approaches, their teacher identity as respectful of students allows them to facilitate their classroom discipline, not by control but by empathy and collaboration.

Relationship between Teacher Efficacy for Instructional Strategies and Teacher Identity

This study revealed relationships between teacher identity and Japanese NNESTs' instructional strategies from three perspectives. First, the mean score for this factor was

equally high as efficacy for management, yet Japanese NNESTs displayed low efficacy to use various assessment strategies. As the qualitative data illustrated, there is a heavy dependence on exam assessment in a Japanese educational setting, particularly for junior high and high school NNESTs. For most of the Japanese students, their ultimate goal is to pass the entrance exams; therefore, the teachers' curriculum and instruction are influenced by the exams. Because of this reason, few teachers employ holistic assessment with long-term goals. Of course, some Japanese NNESTs want to evaluate students' performance not only from tests but also other elements, such as being involved with language activities outside of the class, improving English proficiency over the semesters, and studying abroad. However, realistically, it is difficult for teachers to follow their students' performance for a long-term period with various assessment methods. Due to this context in Japan, exam assessment is prevalent in a Japanese school setting, which may influence survey participants' low efficacy in the use of various assessment strategies. Additionally, this emphasis on exams impacts particularly junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs' role identity which Satoshi and Keita addressed their strong sense of supporting students' career goals. This identity relates to their responsibility for their students' success.

Second, the usage of Japanese in class was emerged as a factor that related their efficacy for instructional strategies to their identity. Because of their students' lower English proficiency and their goals for achieving good test scores, junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs often used Japanese in class, which presents an advantage because of efficiency of the instruction for students. In contrast, college Japanese NNESTs tend to use English more in instruction; however, I found the only English use

could make them feel as meaningless; therefore, the notion of the first and second language use in class connects to NNESTs' identity. Adding to this Japanese use, it can be an advantage for Japanese NNESTs to share the same culture and understanding students' logic. This viewpoint leads to their identity as NNESTs through the connection with students in the same educational, social, and cultural group.

Third, another distinct characteristic between teacher efficacy for instructional strategies and teacher identity was their relationship. The more instructional strategies Japanese NNESTs had with a positive experience through teacher training and professional development, the more accepting they were of various instructional methods through these experiences. For example, three of the participants had more rigorous teacher training and professional development backgrounds as they majored in English education, received teacher training overseas programs, and actively participated in professional opportunities by collaborating with their colleagues. The other two also had teacher training and professional development to some extent; however, they tended to pursue their own way of gaining knowledge about pedagogy, e.g., self-taught theories from books without joining professional development opportunities. From this finding, the more Japanese NNESTs believe their capability of managing various situations and students in instruction and classroom management, the more outside resources in professional development they learn and accept with positive attitudes.

Comparison of Japanese NNESTs' and NESTs' Efficacy (Research Question #3):

Quantitative Results

Descriptive Statistics Analysis of NESTs' Efficacy

Table 4.6. Means and standard deviations of NESTs' efficacy for engagement, management, and instructional strategies

	Engagement		Management		Instructional Strategies	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
College	5.47	.98	7.14	.98	7.02	.96
JH/HS	5.47	.99	6.04	1.19	6.69	1.04
Total	5.47	.98	6.73	1.19	6.90	1.00

Characteristics of NESTs' efficacy. Based on this analysis, NESTs showed strong efficacy in instructional strategies and management. Specifically for NESTs' efficacy for management, all the means for college NESTs surpassed their junior high and high school counterparts. There are three possible explanations behind this outcome. First, once college NESTs start teaching at a college level, they tend to keep teaching, and many of the participants for this study have also taught for a long-term period (M=16.72). In contrast, most of the junior high and high school NESTs worked as ALTs, and they can renew their contract every year and teach up to five years. Hence, junior high and high school NESTs' years of teaching experience was fewer (M=5.61) than their college counterparts. Second, many Japanese colleges require at least a master's degrees for teaching English. Most of the college NESTs earned their master's degrees and extensive teacher training experience; however, junior high and high school NESTs experienced fewer teacher training opportunities. Finally, while college NESTs work for a specific university, ALTs have to teach at multiple junior high and high schools. They might teach different schools almost every day and make contact with hundreds of

students in total; therefore, it is difficult for them to build close relationships with their students.

Similarities and differences between Japanese NNESTs' and NESTs' efficacy. The mean scores of teacher efficacy for management and instructional strategies were considerably higher than efficacy for engagement for both Japanese NNESTs and NESTs. In particular, the means of management and instructional strategies for college NESTs (M=7.14, M=7.02) were significantly higher than other groups. Furthermore, NESTs rated efficacy for instructional strategies higher (M=6.90) than their Japanese NNEST counterpart (M=6.34). This shows their potential as native speaking teachers the most because instructional strategies are directly related to language activities.

Test Reliability of the Three Factors on TSES by Using Cronbach's Alpha

Table 4.7. Represents Cronbach's Alpha on efficacy for engagement, management, and
        instructional strategies among NESTs (N=102)

Reliability Statistics	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Engagement	.781	8
Management	.882	8
Instructional Strategies	.818	8

Before conducting inferential statistics, I analyzed the reliability of three factors on TSES among NESTs as implemented to Japanese NNESTs. The values of Cronbach's Alpha were .781, .882, and .818, for efficacy for engagement, management, and instructional strategies respectively. Although these values were lower than their Japanese NNESTs' counterpart, they still exhibited the fairly high reliability of the instrument.

Analysis by T-Test on Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy

Table 4.8. Analysis of mean differences in teacher efficacy between Japanese NNESTs
and NESTs

	t-test for equality of means		
	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Engagement	-.145	146	.885
Management	1.450	146	.149
Instructional Strategies	3.080	146	.002**

**. The teacher efficacy for instructional strategies is significant at the .01 level.

      T-test was conducted to compare the means between Japanese NNESTs and

NESTs' on each teacher efficacy factor. Similar to the results of the effect size, efficacy

for instructional strategies was statistically significant at the .01 level, but the other two

factors were not. Thus, the findings from this t-test suggest that Japanese NNESTs and

NESTs responded differently to teacher efficacy for instructional strategies in a way that

statistically significant. However, there was no significant differences in management,

and particularly in engagement between the two types of teachers. The results of this

study may represent the difference in teacher efficacy for instructional strategies between

the population of Japanese NNESTs and NESTs.

Analysis of Effect Size on Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' Efficacy

Table 4.9. Analysis of effect size of three teacher efficacy factors between Japanese
NNESTs and NESTs

	Effect size
Engagement	.025
Management	.256
Instructional Strategies	.540

I calculated Cohen's d to investigate the effect size, which is the difference

between the means of Japanese NNESTs and NESTs in each teacher efficacy factor

divided by the pooled standard deviation. According to Cohen (1992), effect size

indicated the magnitude of phenomena, and he defined small, medium, and large effect

sizes as .20, .50, and .80 respectively. As shown above, because of the biggest mean

differences in teacher efficacy for instructional strategies between Japanese NNESTs

(M=6.34) and NESTs (M=6.90), it displayed the medium effect size. Teacher efficacy for

management showed the small effect size, and engagement was the smallest. These

results revealed that teacher efficacy for instructional strategies showed the moderate

level of effect size and management as small, yet engagement did not show effect on

those two different types of teachers.

Analysis by ANOVA and ANCOVA on Japanese NNESTs' and NESTs' Efficacy

Table 4.10. Analysis of teacher efficacy between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs by types
of teachers and the interaction between grade levels and types of teachers

Source	Type III sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Types of teachers	1.600	1	1.600	2.139	.146	.015
Grade levels	.861	1	.861	1.151	.285	.008
Interaction	2.979	1	2.979	3.983	.048*	.027
Error	107.701	144	.748			

*. The interaction between types of teachers and grade levels is significant at the .05 level
(2-tailed).

      Investigating relationships between teacher efficacy and background factors.

First, ANCOVA (Analysis of Covariance) was run to investigate (1) the relationship in

teacher efficacy about the interaction between types of teachers and grade levels and (2)

the relationship in teacher efficacy between two types of teachers. Based on this analysis,

the difference between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs did not influence their level of teacher efficacy as well as teacher efficacy was not affected by grade levels. However, the interaction between them were statistically significant at the .05 level. Therefore, it was necessary to explore what difference in language background or grade level accounted for this result.

Table 4.11. Mean differences between Japanese NNESTs' and NESTs' efficacy

		Japanese NNESTs	NESTs	p-value
College	Mean	6.00	6.54	.0148*
	SD	.96	.80	
JH/HS	Mean	6.15	6.07	.716
	SD	.97	.84	

*. P-value is significant at the .05 level.

Comparison by grade levels. Next, two one-way ANOVAs were conducted to investigate teacher efficacy by comparing Japanese NNESTs and NESTs at a college level and those at a junior high and high school level. The first analysis of total teacher efficacy comparing means between college Japanese NNESTs and college NESTs showed statistically significant results (p<.05) close to .01. This is interpreted that college NESTs' efficacy is significantly higher than their Japanese NNESTs counterparts. A possible reason behind this result depends on that college NESTs' length of teaching (M=16.72) was longer than their Japanese college NNESTs' counterparts (M=10.20), which can influence each type of teacher's scores of efficacy.

In the second analysis, there was no statistically significant result of the mean difference between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy in a junior high and high school level. Interestingly, the mean of Japanese junior high and high school NNESTs' total efficacy was slightly higher (M=6.15) than their NESTs' counterparts (M=6.07) in

contrast to the total efficacy of Japanese NNESTs (M=6.54) and NESTs (M=6.00) in a

college level. The mean of Japanese junior high and high school NNESTs' total efficacy

was not markedly different.

As explained in RQ#1, junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs have to

deal with more various students than college Japanese NNESTs in different levels of

motivation, academic skills, parental support, and so on. Although the junior high and

high school Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' positions and roles are different, there are

some negative rationales which may impede their teacher efficacy.

Comparison of Japanese NNESTs' and NESTs' Efficacy (Research Question #3):

Qualitative Results

Table 4.12. NEST interview participants' profiles

	Ron	Max	Sandra	Donna	Paul	Andrew
Years of teaching	20 years	14 years	5.5 years	1 years	10 years	4 years
Grade levels	College	College	College	HS	Elem./JH	Elem./JH
Degrees	Diploma in TESOL (ongoing) MA in linguistics	MA in applied linguistics /TESOL	MA TESOL/ Global Studies BA in Elem. Ed	BA in Asian Studies	BA in Ed. Will start online course for ESL Ed.	BA in social studies TEFL online certificate
Training background	CELTA (4 weeks)	JET training		JET training	JET training	JET training

NEST Interview Participants' Profiles

Ron, Max, and Sandra were teaching English at the same international university

in Japan, where half of the students were Japanese and the rest were international

students mostly from Asian countries.

Ron. Ron was from the U.K. and had lived in Japan for the last 13 years. He had taught ESL/EFL in eight different countries in Europe and Japan since he graduated from university in 1994. For him, the most memorable teacher training experience was to study for CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) for four weeks. He explained that this practice-oriented certificate was necessary to teach in Europe, and he still utilized teaching methodologies from this program after 20 years. He considered his master's degree in applied linguistics to be too theoretical; thus, he did not even identify his MA as teacher training experience. When he was interviewed, he was studying for a diploma in TESL because he wanted to move back to Europe to teach there after he completed his contract in Japan.

Max. Max was a friendly Canadian English teacher who lived in Japan for 14 years. He participated in a three month TESOL program in 1999 in Canada, and then he started teaching English in Japan as an ALT for a year. After that, he taught English to junior high and high school students at a cram school (juku) concentrated on only teaching English. He received a master's in applied linguistics and TESOL in Australia. As Ron said, Max also thought the focus of the program was on research and second language acquisition and not much about teaching practice. Therefore, he believed his pedagogical knowledge improved from his actual teaching in the classroom. He gained professional development through communicating with his colleagues. Even when he was an ALT, he observed Japanese NNESTs and tried to learn from them. In the university, he was coordinating 17 intermediate level sections; thus, he had taken less teaching load but more administrative work lately. He seemed to enjoy the communication with his colleagues and other level coordinators that this administrative

role provided. Through these interactions, he explained how much he was influenced positively by his colleagues, which he recognized as the most effective professional development.

Sandra. Sandra was a smiley young teacher from the U.S. who graduated from elementary education and taught as a substitute teacher in the U.S. for a few years. Because she did not like teaching children, she switched her career to teaching college level EFL. She taught English at a university in China for two years and moved back to the States to get a master's in TESOL and Global Studies. When she was interviewed, she had lived in Japan about a year and a half. Additionally, she was a world traveler, having visited 23 countries, and described that she loved change and challenge. Thus, living abroad and teaching in different countries seemed a perfect fit for her. As Ron and Max said, Sandra also considered her master's degree not as practical because there was a lot of overlap with her BA in elementary education. She perceived herself as an introvert, which affected her sensitivity towards students' performance in class. Finally, she was thinking about moving and teaching in another country after completing her contract in Japan.

Donna. Donna was an outgoing Asian American teacher who had been working as an ALT a little more than a year in Japan since immediately after her college graduation. She was teaching at the same college bound high school as Satoshi and Keita worked. Her teacher training experience was only a three day orientation in Tokyo for all new ALTs. Because of the excess of the information at the orientation, she felt it was more meaningful for her networking than for gaining her pedagogical knowledge. While taking the initiative in creating materials for SGH at the high school, she also worked as a

prefectural advisor (PA) for the regional JET. For this job, she mainly distributed information to support ALTs in the prefecture. Many ALTs work for multiple schools or even teach at different schools every day, but due to her work as a PA and for SGH duties, she worked only for the high school. It was clear that she was a responsible person to take the role as a PA and to be involved in SGH activities. For her bachelor's degree, she majored in Asian Studies concentrated on Japanese language. Thus, she intensively studied Japanese up to an advanced level in the U.S. and studied abroad in Tokyo about 10 months.

Paul. Paul was a Canadian English teacher, and he had a lot of international experiences. He lived in Germany for 12 years and went to Canadian international school there. Also, his parents were from Finland; therefore, he spoke English, German, and Finish fluently. Currently, he worked for two junior high and five elementary schools and had lived in Japan for six years because this period was his second time living in Japan as an ALT. He was a trained teacher receiving bachelor's in education in Canada, so he took courses about educational theories and practices, visited schools to observe classes, and did student teaching for two semesters. After his college graduation, he taught various subjects, such as social studies, English, music, and health education, from elementary to high school students in Canada. He would start an online course for ESL teachers soon. Currently, he was interested in special education due to the increase of the need he felt in class.

Andrew. Andrew was from Texas and had lived in Japan for two years. Like Paul, he was also teaching at two junior high and five elementary schools and majored in education with social studies as a focus. Thus, he took specific courses for teaching social

studies for his BA. He was content with his university's rigorous structure of the teacher training program and felt like he gained a lot from this experience. He was a certified teacher for middle school and high school levels in Texas. When he was undergraduate, he studied Japanese as a foreign language for two years. After his college graduation, he supported special need students and taught general social studies classes as an assistant teacher for two years. Through the JET Programme association, he found a TEFL online certificate course and took it for 120 hours. His experience in facilitating special education students greatly influenced his pedagogy and teaching styles.

Themes of Comparison between Japanese NNESTs and NESTS

      NESTs' use of various strategies to enhance students' engagement. Japanese NNESTs attempted to encourage their students by demonstrating positive outcomes of learning English and taking a role of a language model. In contrast, NESTs had different approaches. For example, Ron employed pop culture to engage his students as well as to incorporate various types of activities into his instruction to suit all the students. Moreover, his insight as an outsider brings an interesting perspective to Japanese English learners. He said:

> I use praise. I praise the students for the good stuff rather than focusing on the bad stuff. And if there is bad stuff, I don't do it. I tend to correct stuff from the whole class and put it on the board rather than one student say "you said this" or "I'll say this." So, I hope this is motivating for them.

He further explained:

> I find with Japanese students that that … praise is better than discipline, and the Japanese students they see themselves usually as teacher and student. If we discipline one student, the whole group often feels protective of that student, so it's better to, I think, better take the disruption and trying [to engage] them into something positive in class.

He described a characteristic of Japanese students as a group that became protective for negative feedback, particularly if it targeted individual students. Therefore, he found praise was more effective for motivating students than discipline. This may come from a collectivist social structure in Japanese classrooms. A couple of Japanese NNESTs emphasized how demonstrating positive outcomes can motivate their students for learning English; however, none of them mentioned the effective use of praise.

Ron also insisted that building relationships with students was important for their immediate motivation, which means students like the teacher, materials, and each other. He believed none of them should be missing and these three factors are used to enhance students' motivation for learning. Sandra also believed that building a meaningful relationship increased students' motivation. Although she had a total of 300 students for a semester when she was teaching in China, she memorized all the students' names. This attitude was derived from her own experience that she studied harder when her teachers knew her name. Hence, she memorized her students' names as quickly as possible so that she could exhibit her attention to students. Consequently, Japanese NNESTs considered that building relationships with students were equally important as NESTs did, yet both types of teachers' aims were different from each other. Japanese NNESTs' strategies for a building good relationship with students were used for effective classroom management that they tried to achieve. In contrast, the NESTs' intention of building a relationship was to raise their students' motivation for learning.

Both Ron and Max stated that giving individual feedback was an effective strategy for student engagement. This is the same approach that Satoshi and Keita mentioned, too. As Keita did, Ron also talked with his students by personalizing

interaction so that he could show his interests in his individual students. Although Max did not directly relate his strategies for giving feedback to engaging students, he employed his feedback as a source of it.

> I think that the time feel I'm doing a good job is when my feedback is appropriate, so what I mean is, you can spend hours and hours giving feedback that will be lost on the students. That's really [a] waste of time for you and [a] waste of time for them, but if you can get the right kind of feedback at the right time, I think that I feel like I'm doing a good job. They seem to, when they even get good feedback, they can internalize things and learn from their own mistakes or learn from what they did right and continue those things.

He hopes his feedback facilitates his students' learning, but at the same time, he wants to work on providing it efficiently for both his students and himself.

Max had another strategy to increase students' motivation that he provided achievable goals. Particularly, his research interest is how to instruct his students to become better listeners; therefore, he utilized a listening practice as his example how to raise students' motivation.

> I think there is better methods for motivating students by getting them to realize am… getting them to realize the… kind of whatever self-satisfaction that you can get when you become successful with the language. So you know, especially with listening, everyone tries to listen to TED Talks and these complicated things, and I tell "look, that's great, but we need to do is listen to instead of one TED Talk, and try to understand this 15 minutes, and you drive yourself crazy. Just go listen to half now or something easy and fun. And your confidence will increase a lot," and then what I see it happening makes me feel pretty good. So, yeah, I don't know, so stuff like that. So be more realistic about my goals for them.

Goal setting can be a crucial factor for language learning motivation, especially for Japanese students because most of the time, they are not exposed to English. To build confidence, he found that they should set realistic goals, and hopefully they could accomplish one by one so that they could reach desirable goals.

With respect to the level of responsibility for students' learning, Sandra reflected on her teaching experience in China and Japan. In these cultures, students sometimes expect to be given every possible help. Thus, she asserted:

> I think from what I've experienced so far with students in Japan and China, they kind of expect you to feed them to like get all the information from you. And I just try to emphasize all the time, you're the one that's earning your grade, like you're the one that's earning every time you don't, you know, turning an assignment, that's not because of me, or something I didn't. It's you, like you are earning this grade, and your development and your progress has to do with how much effort you put into it. I, especially with language, like I, I can't, there is little I can do to help you. I can give you the tools you need, and I can give you the practice in class, but a lot of has to do with their motivation.

Regardless of Japanese NNESTs or NESTs, all the teachers claimed students should take responsibility for their own learning; however, Sandra found that Japanese English learners tend to ask for their teachers' assistance to great extent. Hence, once in a while, she reminded her students of their responsibility for their performance.

For ALTs, depending on the school districts, teachers' approaches to motivating students can be different. For example, Donna did not have any frustration in terms of student engagement because most of her students were highly motivated. However, Paul and Andrew taught at seven schools and were exposed to many students who had various levels of motivation, academic skills, aptitude, and so on. Therefore, both of them had diverse strategies. For example, Paul used cultural elements, such as popular songs and the Jeopardy game. Because some of his junior high school students would like to take Eiken, he asked some questions from the test. Furthermore, he tried to interact with his students outside of the English class, e.g., during cleaning time and breaks because he believed one-on-one interactions with students to be effective. Second, Andrew showed his availability to help students by providing resources that they were interested in, such

as comic books, sports, and video games. Also, borrowing his girlfriend's idea, he employed rewards for his class activities. He gave his students a stamp sheet and motivational stickers based on how many they spoke up and answered questions. After collecting a certain number of stamps, students would get prizes. He conducted this reward system only at junior high schools but started at elementary schools, too, because he found it was also effective for younger students. Interestingly, as explained the strategy use for praise above, only NESTs showed to employ positive reinforcement in this study.

NESTs' struggles for classroom management in a Japanese educational setting. Miho explained that the most difficult students were those who did not have purposes why they were learning English. Those students' goal-oriented behavior associates their levels of motivation. Similar to Miho, among the three college NESTs, the most difficult students were also the ones who could not be engaged in activities in class. Sandra interestingly called those students "slackers," and she particularly had difficulty with handling them because her class was a mixture of low motivated Japanese students and highly motivated international students. In this instance, she faced issues of students' motivation and classroom management because she said that her focus was too much on how to encourage students who were not motivated. She sometimes felt that motivated students were neglected. Another point Ron raised about student engagement was how to encourage quiet students who did not speak in class. Eliciting responses from those students is difficult even for an experienced teacher like him. Overall, in the college level, teachers did not face many classroom management problems.

Related to the classroom issues, junior high and high school NESTs, Paul and Andrew had another shared thought about the school system, which influences Japanese NNESTs and Japanese classrooms. Paul described it:

> Basically, it's [the classroom is] really regimented, so that's a key word "regimented." So I love the way Japanese teacher[s are] respect[ed]. You stand up and you bow, you greet, say good morning. Sometimes, it's too regimented, so there is no space for creative thinking. It's like they are afraid to, you know, you went to Japanese school, were you ever afraid to get the wrong answer or you didn't want to raise your hand?

As he said, it is true that there are particular structures and expectations about discipline in Japanese classes. Students might have pressure to answer correctly or ask questions that make sense, so students are expected to behave in unity as a whole class. Teachers are viewed based on some specific expectations by students, other teachers, and society to fit in the Japanese school culture. For example, when Andrew would bring a coffee mug to the classroom, he was told by his Japanese NNEST colleague that he should not bring and drink it in the classroom, which surprised him. However, Japanese teachers do not drink coffee or anything in the classroom. Moreover, Andrew talked about the time he started teaching in Japan as a very nervous memory and said "My comfort level at first was, oh, I was a nervous wreck to first couple of months. I didn't want to screw up. I wanted to make sure I was doing a good job. Especially, I felt so kind of everything seems to me so different and so strict." Although he studied Japanese language and culture when he was undergraduate, he had to adapt himself to "strict" school systems. This view was resulted not in Japanese NNESTs but in NESTs based on their previous experiences in different educational, cultural, and social backgrounds.

NESTs' instructional strategies towards Japanese English learners. Ron pointed out two profound insights regarding his pedagogy, such as showing intimate knowledge as a native speaker and understanding Japanese students' discourse in the class. First, he answered he could easily provide alternative explanations to students even at the beginning of his career. For example, he implemented various strategies such as putting information on the board, giving different contexts, using a dictionary, and providing individual feedback. Adding to these strategies, he explained:

> I think in this situation, it does it does help to be a native speaker just because you have so much more depth, but you also need to be ah, no, it's not enough native speaking. You need to be native speaker teacher cause you have to then know how to to filter this information to share to with the students.

He believed that he could help his students due to his profound knowledge about English language due to his ability as a native speaker and an experienced teacher. He clearly addressed his capability of alternative explanations as a native speaking teacher's expertise. However, Japanese NNESTs also exhibited their capability and effective strategies for alternative explanations by using Japanese as their sharing first language with students. This contrast displays that both types of teachers make the most of their ability as NNESTs and NESTs. Second, he pointed out Japanese English learners' unique classroom discourse and communication style that sometimes frustrated him.

> I think because of the different very different discourse styles between Japanese and English. Usually, in a role play or something, the the Japanese students will only give the same information they would give if they were speaking in Japanese. But in English, we give more information when we speak. And also we ask for more information, so if students have this willingness to communicate, and this, they are able to get over this like to realize that communicating in English is different from communicating in Japanese. Then, this is success for me, you know, if I can get the students to be. It's fairly difficult because you know the lots of things most students say. I just I find very strange.

Analyzing the difference between Japanese and English discourse style, he attempted to

promote Japanese students' conversations and to enhance their communication skills. He

also explained about a gap between Japanese English learners and international students'

language improvement because they talk more and give more information in

conversation. Those international students who are studying Japanese apply their

English-speaking discourse to making a conversation in Japanese. Based on his theory,

international students who are learning Japanese improve much faster than Japanese

English learners. Hence, it is important for him to encourage his Japanese students to ask

appropriate follow-up questions and keep the conversation going. Similar to the struggle

for the structure of classroom management in a Japanese educational setting, this

students' discourse style is particularly distinctive for NESTs but not for Japanese

NNESTs, which was not heard from them in the interviews.

Ron and Sandra asserted that providing alternative explanations was not hard.

Instead of mentioning whether it was difficult or not, Max described his unique approach.

After recognizing who understood his explanations and who did not, he paired up

students and let them explain to each other. He even allowed them to speak in Japanese

or their first language. His instructional strategy here is to make the class more efficient.

He also explained that "it's just, it's not a communicative activity. It's trying to get the

information across [to] them as soon as possible, and so sometimes I'll take that short

cut."

The distinctive instructional activity that Sandra stated was her class preparation.

She always organized her teaching materials on PowerPoint slides, and this elaborate

preparation became part of her teaching philosophy. While teaching the same level a couple of times, she kept adding information and improving the slides.

NESTs' instructional strategies from the perspective of collaborating with Japanese NNESTs. Because ALTs are supposed to assist Japanese NNESTs, ALTs are not normally involved in assessment other than oral exams while Japanese NNESTs are more responsible for students' assessment. As Miho mentioned, she was willing to evaluate her students' achievement holistically for a long-term period. Her statement was distinguishing because other Japanese NNESTs and NESTs mostly described strategies for tests, assignments, and in-class activities. Even though tests are the primary source for assessment for all the Japanese NNESTs, Toshie added that she assessed her students' performance based on not only exams but also her students' self-evaluation and active participation, which college NESTs also implemented these strategies. Overall, Japanese NNESTs have more responsibility and use more various strategies for assessment than NESTs in this study.

Donna and Paul explained their relationship with Japanese NNESTs in the classroom, for example, if students could not understand what Donna said, they either relied on their dictionaries or eventually asked their Japanese NNESTs, probably because high school students' English proficiency is not good enough to understand NESTs' explanations. Paul worked collaboratively with his Japanese NNEST in class. For instance, he and his Japanese NNEST demonstrated a role-play, and he believed this collaboration as effective instruction.

Andrew directly explained the importance of collaborative teaching in the interview. He said:

> I've definitely learned the benefits of good co-teaching. In some way, the American education system has been slowly but really talking about, first time I graduate college, was co-teaching, co-teaching, team teaching. And I had some good experiences where I was in the states, but especially my Japanese English teacher, I saw how good co-teaching and to take part in getting along can really benefit everybody.

As he mentioned above, it is critical to understand ALTs and Japanese NNESTs supplement each other so that students can receive the most benefit, particularly in an EFL setting.

Summary: Themes of Comparison between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs

To motivate students, Japanese NNESTs took the role of a language model, which was the distinctive strategy for motivating students. NEST participants approached their students similarly and differently compared to Japanese NNESTs. For example, they utilized cultural elements to stimulate their learners' interests, built meaningful relationships with students, gave individual feedback, facilitated to reach achievable goals, and provided resources to assist students' learning by understanding the characteristics of Japanese English learners. For classroom management, NEST participants sometimes had difficulty with engaging students who did not have goals for learning English, which Japanese NNESTs also revealed as a struggle. Additionally, junior high and high school NESTs were bewildered by the differences in the school system between in their home countries and Japan. NESTs also showed unique insights about their classroom instruction, such as understanding Japanese students' discourse and allowing students to speak Japanese and explain to each other so that the teacher did not need to explain many times. Finally, collaboration with Japanese NNESTs could be both favorable and unfavorable experiences for NESTs; however, NEST participants believed

in the importance and positive effect of collaboration between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs.

Comparison of Japanese NNESTs' and NESTs' Identity (Research Question #3): Qualitative Results

Similarities and Differences between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' Role Identity

Ron and Max's perspectives of teachers' role identity share many characteristics that Japanese NNESTs raised. Ron played various roles as a teacher, such as a motivator, a tutor, an assessor, a facilitator, and a language model. Max recognized the role of an entertainer as important. He explained:

> when I was an ALT, I think that one of the qualities you needed, and this kind of back to our conversation the other day, but one of the qualities you need is being energetic and it's because you have to meet so many new classes all the time, and you have to be an entertainer, and then really. Otherwise, you don't, you are not really a good spokesperson for English 'cause they get this one chance once in a semester or once in a couple of month to see it, you know, teacher from another country. And so, it's it's their, if they have the impression that that's boring, then that's going to affect them down the line, so I think that being energetic is a really important trait for that kind of work.

He started his teaching career as an ALT, which shaped his notion that teachers should be energetic to engage students so that they could learn English positively. He adopted it for teaching college level based on his past experience. Max's concept of teacher as engaging and entertaining students was similar to Satoshi and Keita's statement in their interviews. They explained their teacher role as an actor, and they described that teachers should encourage their students to be active in class. To engage students, Satoshi insisted that Japanese NNESTs should be entertainers to some extent. Max supported that a teacher as an entertainer is an important quality; however, the reason for this role was slightly different from Japanese NNESTs. If he can take this role, he believes that he can be an

effective English teacher as well as he can engage his students. Thus, he wants to facilitate his students for their better performance based on the engagement in class activities, which his better teaching performance influences his students' learning outcomes.

Ron particularly demonstrated his interesting stance as a teacher in relation to students.

> In the first class, I teach I always tell the students they are the boss because they they are paying my wages. Their tuition pays for me, so I'm not the boss; they are the boss. And if they have any problems, you know, they tell me we don't like this, we don't like that because they are paying me. You know, I work for them, so that's the first thing I always say.

He showed respect to his students by saying they would take the initiative in their learning, but at the same time, they might take an advantage of his attitude. However, Ron was confident about his ability to handle students by showing that he worked for them based on his teaching philosophy and experience. This Ron's statement is interesting to compare to Japanese NNESTs' concept of teacher-student relationship. As Yoko said, the teacher-student relationship is probably enough for English teachers, and particularly for public junior high and high school teachers, some students might take advantage of this friendship type of relationship. Therefore, it may be important for Japanese NNESTs to show their authority to some extent. However, accepting students to speak up about his class administration shows a high level of teacher efficacy. Hence, Ron's attitude that considers students as a boss displays his strong teacher efficacy.

Donna became more involved in teaching and preparation due to the SGH activities. She realized that she was still developing as a teacher by saying "slightly underqualified".

>There are a lot of things that if I had previous maybe hands-on experience or just more training or something, I feel like I would have at least come in with higher standard and or like at least sort of a base-line to know what to expect 'cause even if I had only worked with say American students before, I could've had that as something like a sort of guideline to springboard off, but instead I just don't know what's happening, hahaha, and so the first few months, maybe for just a couple of months, I was like I don't know what's happening, hahaha. Maybe I could've been more involved or more helpful or something. And then, in general, the overall quality of my entire year of working may have been better.

She had only been teaching for a year and half after her college graduation; thus, her qualification and confidence level are different from Paul and Andrew. However, she also said that her status as an ALT reduced her pressure because she was not a main teacher in the classroom. This view was different from Japanese NNESTs because they considered themselves as main classroom teacher and behaved to take the role.

Compared to Donna, Andrew seemed to be confident and comfortable in teaching. He described himself as a motivated teacher as well as a motivator for students. He even said that his motivation for teaching became stronger in Japan because he was a foreigner and students showed their willingness to study with him. Even in his teaching philosophy, his positive attitude toward teaching is observed. He described "every student wants to and can learn. Am, and they can all achieve their ability. I really realize this, especially teaching special ed but also here. Every student may not end up being, you know, super good [at] English, but everyone can prove and can achieve their ability level." As explained previously, his past teaching experience in special education influences this philosophy, and moreover, this statement demonstrates his belief and confidence that he can support his students to perform better. This teaching philosophy was not observed in Japanese NNESTs, which they recognized their role identities as more practice-oriented, e.g., teacher as a behavioral and language model, a facilitator, and

a supporter for low achieving students. Of course, Japanese NNESTs possess their own ideal teaching philosophy, yet based on their past experience and shared cultural and social norms with students, Japanese NNESTs might be more realistic for teaching and learning English than NESTs.

As a negative element for NESTs' role identity, both Paul and Andrew expressed that they sometimes felt themselves as "human tape recorders." As a native speaker language model, they occasionally repeated the same sentences or phrases again and again or had to repeat the same lessons multiple times a day. This notion was derived only from NESTs in the interviews but not observed from NNEST participants.

Qualities as NESTs in Japan

Ron and Sandra asserted specific personality traits as important qualities of teachers. Ron considered "patience" to be important because of Japanese English learners' discourse style. As explained above, he insisted that Japanese students were not actively involved in communication activities; therefore, teachers need to observe and facilitate them patiently. Similarly, Sandra identified "flexibility" as an important quality for teaching in Japan. She explained the reason that this is particularly important for her as a NEST who teaches abroad, which was not observed from Japanese NNESTs' interviews because they shared culture and social norms with their students. Japanese NNESTs know the system of the classroom and students' cultural and social behaviors in a Japanese educational setting. In contrast, it is critical for NESTs to accept differences, which can be cultural, educational, institutional, and individual varieties.

Students' Perceptions toward NESTs

Regarding a specific identity for NESTs, Max mentioned students' perception

toward NESTs by saying, "there is a stereotype that 'oh, my teacher is from Canada, so

he is an expert at teaching English,' which is not, not necessarily true. That's not just

'cause you're from Canada, or America, or wherever [the] native speaking country [is. It]

doesn't mean you're going to be a great English teacher." Although he recognized

students' perceptions and expectations toward NESTs, he expressed that being native

speakers did not necessarily mean competent teachers. Even with his insider view of

NEST, as a teacher, he feels that he needs more than the native speaker status, which Ron

also stated the same. Compared to Japanese NNESTs about this theme, interestingly

enough, none of the Japanese NNEST participants received negative perceptions as

English teachers from their students. Rather, Japanese NNESTs even explained positive

reactions from their students because of their quality as a role and a language model.

Consequently, both types of teaches are recognized and respected by students from

different perspectives.

In contrast to Max's insider view of NEST, Paul explained his students'

perception of native speakers by a slightly different way.

> I guess often they look at me as the expert because I'm Canadian, so they're like
> "oh, you're the foreigner, you're the expert, you should know the all the grammar
> points, and the expert on the issue." So that's the way they look like, and they
> expect, so that role is very easy for foreigners to do in Japan that being a teacher
> of English 'cause they are like, you grew up in an English-speaking country, and
> you are the expert, and you can talk about culture or grammar or different things.
> So the expert on English teaching.

He did not agree or disagree Japanese English learners' perception of native speakers, yet

he just accepted it. Although Paul was a trained teacher and taught in Canada, his role as

an ALT was different from those university English teachers. He dealt with younger

students and might not encounter linguistically and pedagogically difficult situations like

some university NESTs do. Consequently, he took his students' perception as his own

identity.

Conclusion: Integration between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' Efficacy and Their

Professional Identity

Teacher Efficacy for Engagement Compared in Japanese NNESTs and NESTs

Both Japanese NNESTs and NESTs agreed statements that indicated strength in

efficacy for engagement was the lowest among the three factors. Particularly, junior high

and high school NESTs scored lower (M=5.47) than their Japanese NNESTs' counterpart

(M=5.69). This might be because of their status as assistant language teachers. On the

TSES, the tendency of NESTs' scores of each item was similar to their Japanese

NNESTs' counterpart, yet NESTs' approaches for student engagement were different.

The main characteristics of Japanese NNESTs' strategies to encourage students' learning

were to be a role model as a same non-native speaker of English. As a result, Japanese

NNESTs demonstrate themselves as vicarious model to their students. NESTs employed

the same student engagement strategies as Japanese NNESTs did. For example, a

majority of both types of teachers valued individual feedback and interaction with their

students in and outside of the classroom as a source of students' motivation. Offering

feedback corresponds to one of the Farrell's (2011) English teacher role identities. In

contrast, NESTs' approaches to students to encourage their learning are different. NESTs

seem to recognize praise, positive feedback, and rewards as effective to engage their

students. While figuring out what approaches work the best for Japanese students, NESTs

tend to utilize positive feedback, which I did not find from Japanese NNESTs. This may be related to the teachers' cultural differences, and the way Japanese educational setting are formed.

Teacher Efficacy for Management Compared to Japanese NNESTs and NESTs

Although the NESTs' score for efficacy for management was the highest among all the groups of teachers, junior high and high school NESTs' mean score for this factor was the lowest. This reflects that grade levels influence their classroom management. For college NESTs' classroom management, interview participants claimed that difficult students are unmotivated or quiet students. However, on the survey, college NESTs' long-term teaching experience (M=16.72) and the nature of the college students as a disciplined group may have influenced high efficacy for management. In contrast, most of the junior high and high school NESTs work as ALTs, which they are hired for a short-term contract from one to three years. Junior high and high school NESTs' length of teaching was significantly shorter than their college NESTs' counterpart (M=5.61). Furthermore, because of their role as ALTs, they are not actively included in classroom management. As one of the interview participants addressed, ALTs are not given much control over classroom management and do not have much autonomy to it, either. In addition, most of them teach at several schools; therefore, it is difficult for them to have strong connection with their students. These factors generate the difference between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs in classroom management. Additionally, Japanese NNESTs seem to distinguish themselves from students; otherwise, it is sometimes difficult for them to administer a class. Conversely, NESTs do not have much autonomy about classroom management because of their status as ALTs regardless of their ability

or not. Specifically, those NESTs who had teaching experience back in their countries struggled for the gap between teaching as a main classroom teacher and working as an ALT.

Another key term was to build good rapport with students because both types of teachers believed that building good rapport with students is important for effective classroom management. As explained above, particularly for junior high and high school NESTs, because they have to teach at several schools and teach different schools every day, it is difficult for them to establish rapport. There might be multiple reasons for their struggles, such as cultural, social, and educational differences in Japan compared to their own countries. One of my participants raised this issue in the interview and said,

> I met too many JET ALTs who were just hate everything, and then hate their jobs just because they thought it was going to be the same as home. Japanese have structures to do things. They may allow you to have put some input. They may not. They're not going to change the system over night, but if you can just show off few students that there is big reward about there. They can go and visit it. They can go to get them to think critically outside the box. I think you'll feel a lot more success, I think you'll [be a] lot more successful.

He pointed out that some ALTs lack knowledge about Japanese culture and educational system in Japan. Adding on this concern, he suggested that they should incorporate their backgrounds as NESTs into their teaching so that they could contribute to their students' learning outcomes.

Teacher Efficacy for Instructional Strategies Compared to Japanese NNESTs and NESTs

From the results of the t-test on three factors of teacher efficacy, instructional strategies was only statistically significant between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs. This finding revealed that these two types of teachers responded differently to teacher efficacy

for instructional strategies in a way that was statistically significant. The results of this study may represent the difference in teacher efficacy for instructional strategies between the population of Japanese NNESTs and NESTs.

The NESTs' score for efficacy for instructional strategies was higher than Japanese NNESTs, specifically college NESTs were significantly higher than any other groups. Two points that NESTs distinguished themselves from Japanese NNESTs in instructional strategies were the importance of understanding Japanese English learners' classroom discourse and communication style and the importance of classroom preparation. First, a NEST interview participant revealed his struggle with the difference between his Japanese students and previous European students. Because of a lack of Japanese English learners' initiative for effective communication, he had to learn their students' discourse and encourage to expand their communication more. Second, another interview participant found that the more prepared the teachers are, the more successful in their instruction. This, of course, applies to any teachers, and they prepare for class even if they differ in degree, but at the same time, he was the only participant who mentioned to class preparation.

Teacher Identity Compared to Japanese NNESTs and NESTs

As each type of teacher's role identity, there were some overlaps and differences. Both of them claimed their teachers' roles as motivator, entertainer, facilitator, and a language model. Conversely, there were some contrasts, such as students' and their own perceptions as English teachers in Japan, influence on their language use in instruction, and each teacher's characteristics as non-native and native speakers of English. First, NESTs perceived that their students consider NESTs as experts at teaching English

because they teach their mother tongue. This shows that Japanese English learners possess strong expectation towards NESTs; however, at the same time, one NEST interview participant claimed that being native speakers of English does not mean a competent teacher. Hence, NESTs realize that they require more qualifications to be a proficient English teacher than just being native speakers. In contrast, Japanese NNESTs considered themselves as learners instead of recognizing as experts. While teaching English as a foreign language, it is critical for NNESTs to improve their language proficiency, which is a constant challenge. Consequently, teacher identity can be influenced by how they are perceived as either NNESTs or NESTs by students and how they perceive themselves as well.

Second, when exhibiting advantages as NNESTs by sharing the same first language and culture with their students, Japanese NNESTs' first language use in instruction influences their teacher identity development. Japanese NNEST interview participants asserted that they could understand the processes of their students' language development and logic of their thoughts, which improves the relationship with their students and eventually brings into their appropriate teacher identity, especially in an EFL context. Consequently, Japanese NNESTs perceived themselves as empathetic toward students' language learning. This notion may exist less in the relationship between NESTs and their students.

Finally, both types of teachers have their own unique features on their teacher identity. For example, some NESTs interview participants stated "patience" and "flexibility" as important quality that English teachers should have when teaching in Japan. Specifically for NESTs, teaching to students who are going through different

educational system in a different culture can be challenging, and sometimes unexpected situations can occur. Thus, it is necessary for them to possess courage and perseverance to deal with unforeseen circumstances. Another interesting characteristic that particularly junior high and high school NESTs have was their perception themselves as "human tape recorders." As a model English speaker as native, they sometimes have to repeat simple English sentence structures over and over again. Through this type of language activity, they do not find a significant role as a teacher, which may affect their teacher identity. Conversely, Japanese NNESTs pursue to be a language model and behavioral role model by demonstrating themselves as non-native speaker of English. This leads students to encouraging their learning and being a vicarious model.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I analyzed the development of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity, the relationships between them, and the comparison with their NESTs' counterpart along the three research questions. First, Japanese NNESTs' efficacy was analyzed quantitatively based on the TSES (RQ#1). Two statistically significant results were revealed, which were positive correlations between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and English proficiency and their efficacy for instructional strategies and English proficiency. As multiple researchers demonstrated (Chacón, 2005; Eslami and Fatahi, 2008), English proficiency can be a predictor of teachers efficacy and efficacy for instructional strategies. However, the length of their teaching experience and the length of their living experience in English-speaking countries did not correlate in this present study.

Second, in the qualitative strand, Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity were analyzed based on the themes from the interview data. Three factors of teacher efficacy

were examined, and then, teacher identity themes were investigated. Subsequently, these qualitative data sets were integrated into the quantitative findings from RQ#1 to explore the relationship between Japanese NNESTs efficacy and identity development (RQ#2). Although many Japanese NNESTs seemed to have difficulty motivating their students from the quantitative results, the interview participants addressed various strategies for encouraging their students' learning. Being a behavioral and language model and being a facilitator were distinctive characteristics of Japanese NNESTs. In the quantitative strand, they showed higher teacher efficacy for management and instructional strategies as well as the interview participants exhibited their capabilities of these factors. Specifically, Japanese NNESTs' English and Japanese language use in instruction associated with their teacher identity development.

Finally, Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy and identity development was compared and contrasted (RQ#3) based on the results from quantitative and qualitative strands, which was integrated in the end. In the quantitative strand, college NESTs were found that they had significantly high level of teacher efficacy compared to other groups of teachers. The qualitative analysis displayed that each type of teacher had different characteristics by taking advantage of their strengths and previous experiences. For NESTs, teaching at junior high and high schools as ALTs distinguished them from other groups of teachers, which provided specific teacher efficacy and identity. Consequently, differences between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs were formed by their personal and professional experiences in their own social, cultural, and educational contexts. By reflecting on these findings, I will discuss conclusions and implications in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V   CONCLUSIONS

In this study, I have investigated the development of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity and compared them to their NEST counterparts. The research questions that led to this study are:

RQ#1: What is the nature of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and the effect of background characteristics on this efficacy?

RQ#2: What is the *relationship* between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and their professional identity?

RQ#3: What are the differences between NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy and identity development?

To answer these research questions, quantitative and qualitative analyses were preformed based on various themes and theoretical frameworks. In this chapter, I will summarize the findings, propose implications from them, and recommend applications and further research.

Before conducting this research, I found that NNESTs were subject to critical comparison with NESTs (Varghese et al., 2005) and have less power in teaching practice and lower status particularly when applying for a teaching position because of their English proficiency, lack of cultural knowledge (Lazaraton, 2003), vocabulary knowledge, and confidence in teaching other languages (Kamhi-Stein, 2000). According to Braine (2010), NNESTs' inferiority to NESTs in English proficiency hinders their teaching, and their accent may be associated with their non-native status and their teacher identity. Although it was necessary for Japanese NNESTs to build adequate teacher efficacy and identity, it had not been investigated by research, specifically in a Japanese

educational setting. Kamhi-Stein (2000) also explained that because NNESTs have low confidence in teaching practices, they believe that others see them as unqualified English teachers and their status as NNESTs is weakened. She also argued that NNESTs' professional positions were not entirely explored in ESL/EFL education and their experiences were not reflected in publications or in the experiences of their supervisors. Thus, Kamhi-Stein (2000) concluded that these NNESTs' concerns about their language proficiency and sociological factors influence their self-perceptions as English teachers.

I applied the concepts of teacher efficacy and social identity theory while investigating Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity respectively. There were critical elements towards their efficacy and identity development, such as how three factors of teacher efficacy (efficacy for management, engagement, and instructional strategies) influence Japanese NNESTs' efficacy development and how social categorization impacts NNESTs through their teacher roles and their professional identities. A survey and interviews were conducted based on these themes.

<p align="center">**Research Question One: The Nature of Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy and**</p>
<p align="center">**Background Characteristics**</p>

What is the nature of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and the effect of background characteristics on this efficacy?

From the analysis of the survey, as previous research in EFL settings showed (Chacón, 2005; Eslami et al., 2008; Huangfu, 2012), Japanese NNESTs' score of efficacy for engagement was lower than efficacy for management and instructional strategies. Additionally, there was no correlation between efficacy for engagement and other background characteristics, such as the length of their teaching experience, the length of

living experience in English speaking countries, and self-reported English proficiency.

The results revealed Japanese NNESTs' difficulty with handing students with low

motivation. Students' low motivation is caused by the strong monolingual culture and

entrance exams that impact learners' motivation in Japan; thus, it is not necessary for

some students to learn English.

The score for classroom management was the highest among the three efficacy

factors; however, it was not correlated with any background effects. Specifically,

Japanese NNESTs rated lower for the items about how to deal with disruptive and

uncooperative students, which indicates their teacher-student relationship (Abu-Tineh et

al., 2011). As Abu-Tineh et al. (2011) showed people management was more difficult

than students' behavior management, Japanese NNESTs' classroom management based

on daily classroom routines in instruction were rated higher than the teacher-student

relationship. Thus, Japanese NNESTs seemed to be confident of guiding daily classroom

management instructions, whereas it was difficult to react promptly to troublesome

students. To deal with this situation, Japanese NNESTs need a certain level of experience

and knowledge.

Most importantly, teacher efficacy for instructional strategies was the only factor

that exhibited a statistically significant result in this analysis. The relationship between

efficacy for instructional strategies and self-reported English proficiency was positively

correlated (p<0.05), which corresponds to previous studies (Chacón, 2005; Eslami and

Fatahi, 2008) in EFL settings in other countries. Therefore, Japanese NNESTs' efficacy

for instructional strategies can be a predictor of their self-reported English proficiency,

and vice versa. This is understandable because teachers apply their linguistic skills the

most to their instructional activities in and out of class. As Chacón (2005) implied, it is crucial to improve NNESTs' English proficiency to develop a strong sense of efficacy. In addition to the result of instructional strategies, the correlation between Japanese NNEST participants' overall teacher efficacy and self-reported English proficiency was statistically significant (p<0.05); therefore, this quantitative result also suggested the importance of improving Japanese NNESTs' English proficiency to raise their teacher efficacy. As a result, in this study, the length of their teaching experience and the length of living experience in English speaking countries did not impact Japanese NNESTs' efficacy, yet it is critical to address that their self-reported English proficiency influences their teacher efficacy, particularly for their instructional strategies.

Research Question Two: The Relationship between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and their Professional Identity

What is the *relationship* between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and their professional identity?

Five Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity were investigated from interviews based on qualitative themes. Also, teacher efficacy was scrutinized by overlapping themes from the quantitative analysis from RQ#1 from the perspectives of three teacher efficacy factors. To explore the relationships between Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity, there were some overlapping findings from qualitative and quantitative analyses.

Teacher efficacy for engagement related to teacher identity. Regarding teacher efficacy for engagement, the qualitative results revealed that the participants shared their language learning experience with their students and demonstrated positive outcomes to students' learning of English. These two were the major characteristics of the Japanese

NNEST participants' approaches to raising their students' motivation. For the former factor, I found the association between Bandura's (1994) "vicarious experiences provided by social models" for learners and a non-native English speaker as a role model. Japanese NNESTs seemed to want to be a social, behavioral, and language model, so they indicated their own learning path for their students. Hopefully, Japanese NNESTs could be successful vicarious models for their students and demonstrate their empathy for students' language learning process. Providing positive outcomes of learning English is another strategy that multiple participants addressed in the interviews. They offered various approaches to engage students, for example, one invited her students to write out their dreams that reflected their future goals as a result of learning English. Another teacher patiently explained the benefits of learning English and acquiring fluency. In this strategy, again, he attempted to be a behavioral and language model to his students by sharing the common first language and educational and social backgrounds. Competent Japanese NNESTs hoped to be successful role models to show their students that they could also be competent English learners, which revealed their ingroup teacher identity relative to their students.

Another important point that displays a level of teacher efficacy for engagement is how to deal with students who are failing. One of the interview participants particularly cared about those students who were falling behind, and she explained her strategies for managing them, such as designing her lessons to be comprehensive even for low achieving students and supporting note-taking for their reviews. Teachers' efforts for coping with students who are failing is a reliable index to measure the level of efficacy for engagement; therefore, her statement showed her teacher efficacy to some extent.

Other Japanese NNEST participants addressed their strategies to motivate students from the instructional viewpoints. Their teaching methods were to use pair and group activities, set short activities so that students did not get bored, scaffold and set reachable goals, incorporate topics that students were interested in, and involve ALTs effectively in class activities. From the quantitative analysis, Japanese NNESTs rated teacher efficacy for engagement the lowest among the three factors; however, the qualitative results showed the participants use various strategies to raise students' motivation. It may be difficult for teachers to increase the motivation of students who have low interest in English, especially in an EFL setting. This can be a reason that Japanese NNESTs seemed to possess various strategies to cope with the issues of learners' engagement. Specifically, those teachers who were confident about their language proficiency and their teaching experience hoped to be considered a successful role model as a non-native English speaker for their students. This is also notable Japanese NNESTs' ingroup identity relating to their students. Although quantitative results revealed lower teacher efficacy for engagement compared to other factors, qualitative findings displayed some degrees of Japanese NNESTs' efficacy based on their strategy use to engage students' learning.

Teacher efficacy for management related to teacher identity. In Abu-Tineh et al.'s (2011) study, they found that building teacher-student relationships was more difficult than classroom management related to instruction and students' behaviors. From the interviews in this present study, Japanese NNEST participants showed the different stance on their classroom management. For example, one Japanese NNEST built her relationships with students by having a friendly attitude and believed that establishing

good rapport was important for effective classroom management. In contrast, the other teacher considered that the typical teacher-student relationship was good enough as long as they could have appropriate classroom management. In fact, it was difficult for some participants to build a profound relationship with students due to their class size and time constraints. Another teacher clearly differentiated himself from his students because it could cause problems in terms of his classroom management. Additionally, multiple teachers agreed that giving individual feedback and attention can be an effective strategy for management.

The strategies for handling difficult students in class shared the elements of teacher efficacy for management and engagement. As Chacón (2005) described, the higher the teachers' self-perceived teacher efficacy becomes, the better they believe that they can deal with difficult students. Thus, those teachers who paid more attention to difficult students might possess a high level of teacher efficacy. Some interview participants approached difficult students by applying various methods, which indicated their level of teacher efficacy. Some of the participants perceived unmotivated students as the most difficult; however, this exposes some background reasons why they do not motivate learning English. For example, a monolingual Japanese culture is one reason, and the Japanese educational system that heavily concentrates on entrance exams can be another reason. Additionally, a Japanese NNESTs participant explained that some Japanese students were not used to speaking out their thoughts in class; therefore, encouraging them can be challenging for Japanese NNESTs as well. Considering difficult students, Japanese NNESTs play a role as a motivator. Farrel (2011) included a teacher's role as a motivator in his 16 teacher role identities and explained the significance of

motivating students and keeping them on learning tasks. As one of the interview participants described, low proficient students do not know how to handle learning English, whereas students with high proficiency and high motivation can learn by themselves. For those students who requires extra support, it is important for Japanese NNESTs to be a motivator for learning English. Concurrently, teachers need to be an appropriate facilitator to improve their students' learning outcomes.

These approaches to classroom management can be dependent on Japanese NNESTs' role identities, which indicates their ingroup identity relating to students by motivating and facilitating them to have better classroom management. As the survey results showed, efficacy for management scored the highest among the three factors, which means Japanese NNEST participants perceived their skills of classroom management as the most capable. Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) described that the correlation between teachers' levels of efficacy and a humanistic management style. For example, an interview participant discussed classroom rules with her students and established them together, which corresponded to Abu-Tineh et al.'s (2011) behavior management that allowed students' input to the class management. The researchers argued that there was a relationship between various classroom management strategies use and the level of teacher efficacy. Another participant asserted that he invited his students to understand the significance of the classroom rules without forcing them to obey the rules. Another teacher promoted students' active participation and allowed them to make mistakes in class. Behind these humanistic approaches, Japanese NNESTs' identity by motivating and supporting their students' learning was revealed through classroom management.

Teacher efficacy for instructional strategies related to teacher identity. As explained in the quantitative findings, teacher efficacy for instructional strategies was positively correlated with the teachers' perceptions of their own English proficiency; therefore, efficacy for instructional strategies is influenced by NNESTs' language ability. This can be predictable because English teachers apply their linguistic knowledge to their language instruction the most. In addition, the score of teacher efficacy for instructional strategies was rated relatively high on the TSES.

Adding to their relationship between teacher efficacy for instructional strategies and Japanese NNESTs' English proficiency, I found a certain level of teacher efficacy for instructional strategies. This related to the Japanese NNESTs' effective use of Japanese and knowledge about students' backgrounds in instruction. Some interview participants indicated positive perspectives as NNESTs, which related to their teacher identity. Since Japanese NNESTs shared their common first language and culture, backgrounds in a Japanese educational setting, and social norms with their students, they perceived they could understand their students well. Moreover, they considered themselves English teachers as learners, which corresponded to Farrell's (2011) English teacher's role identity as learner. This notion indicates that part of Japanese NNESTs' ingroup identity stems from modeling themselves as behavioral guides for their students and seeking to increase their knowledge about the subject and teaching. Despite their high level of English proficiency, those Japanese NNESTs were willing to improve their English skills. In reverse, this identity supports their English improvement as well as revealed a point of comparison between NNESTs and NESTs, who are the outgroup members, in English proficiency. In the interview, a Japanese NNEST argued that it might not

possible to teach English if teachers have acquired it; therefore, she believed that her

explicit knowledge about English helped her teach it. This also supports Lee's (2004)

study that NNESTs with high English proficiency have advantages to recognize their

students' learning processes and facilitate their problems with various options due to their

own English learning experience.

Through classroom instruction, Japanese NNEST participants displayed their

roles as language models and motivators, which closely connects to their ingroup identity

related to students' learning. During the class, Japanese NNESTs attempted to be a

language model and showed students that it is possible to be competent English speakers

while working with ALTs.

Teacher efficacy and identity related to teacher education and professional

development. Another significant point that connects teacher efficacy and teacher

identity is Japanese NNESTs' teacher education and professional development. As

Velez-Rendon (2010) argued, teacher education influenced their teacher identity, and

moreover, Gardner (1995) found that additional professional development improved their

professional identity. From the interviews, positive attitudes towards professional

development led to the participant's confidence in teaching, which corresponded to Brady

and Gulikers' (2004) suggestion about building confidence in teaching based on

professional development. Japanese NNESTs' positive attitudes towards professional

development constructs their ingroup identity as competent English teachers. While

gaining teacher training, they try to apply their knowledge to their pedagogy, which may

result in success. Bandura (1994) explained that this successful experience effectively

increased teacher efficacy. This cycle displays a successful model of enhancing teacher efficacy.

In contrast, in spite of their decent experience of teacher education and professional development, a couple of interview participants took a neutral position on these factors. These three of the participants had more rigorous teacher training and professional development backgrounds; they majored in English education, received teacher training in overseas programs, and actively participated in professional opportunities by collaborating with their colleagues. Consequently, their active participation in professional development influences their NNESTs' ingroup identity. The other two also had teacher training and professional development to some extent; however, they tended to pursue their own way of gaining knowledge about pedagogy, e.g., self-taught theories from books without joining professional development opportunities. They strongly believed that the real teaching experience in the classroom was much more effective than what they had learned from teacher training and professional development. Additionally, some interview participants described that they were comfortable gaining their pedagogical knowledge by self-teaching rather than obtaining professional development. Self-teaching displays attitudes of Japanese NNESTs' ingroup identity towards professional development by teaching in class and self-studying. From this finding, the more Japanese NNESTs believe their capability of managing various situations and students in instruction and classroom management, the more accepting they are for their professional development by learning from outside resources with positive attitudes.

A grade level can be a strong factor to determine their teacher identity. Two Japanese NNESTs clearly stated that they identified themselves as "junior high" or "high school" teachers but not as "English" teachers, which reveals that grade level can build Japanese NNESTs' ingroup identity. This is based on their goals and motivations for being teachers. One wanted to be a high school English teacher to contact more students and lead to their career success. Another was willing to be involved with students' activities by closely supervising them. Hence, their teacher identity described how they wanted to be as teachers and how much they were capable to facilitate their students learning. Stepping even further from applying teacher education and professional development experience to their daily teaching instruction and classroom management, incorporating research into instruction and conducting action research in the classroom can enhance students' performance. Finally, as a quantitative result from RQ#1 revealed, teacher efficacy and self-reported English proficiency was positively correlated; therefore, it is significant for Japanese NNESTs to improve their English proficiency for their own better performance in teaching and students' learning outcomes (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008). Hence, it is important for Japanese NNESTs to improve their English proficiency during their teacher training and professional development (Kachi & Lee, 2001).

Research Question Three: The differences between NNESTs and NESTs in efficacy

and identity development

What are the differences between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy and

identity development?

In addition to the concept of teacher efficacy, the difference between Japanese

NNESTs and NESTs were explained by social identity theory. Comparing Japanese

NNESTs and NESTs distinguishes each group membership and self-categorization,

which impacts self-esteem and self-understanding (Hogg & Abrams, 1998). By applying

social identity theory, I will compare and contrast differences and similarities between

Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' characteristics of teacher efficacy and identity in a

Japanese educational setting.

Teacher efficacy for engagement compared to Japanese NNESTs and NESTs.

To raise students' motivation, Japanese NNESTs demonstrated positive outcomes of

learning English and played roles of a social, behavioral, and language model. Whereas

NESTs incorporated cultural elements into instruction, gave praise, rewards, and

individual feedback, built meaningful relationships with students, provided achievable

goals, and adapted past experiences for teaching English in Japan. Compared to Japanese

NNESTs' strategies to their efficacy for engagement, NESTs possessed even more

varieties. To raise students' motivation, NESTs utilized their perceptions from the

outsiders' perspectives of the language and culture. Some elements overlapped with

Japanese NNESTs' strategies for student engagement, such as teaching cultural

components, believing the importance of building appropriate relationships with students,

and providing approachable goals.

A British English teacher pointed out that negative feedback caused conflict with his students in the past; thus, he realized that it did not influence Japanese students positively. Thus, he utilized more positive feedback rather than negative feedback, which I could not find from the results of the Japanese NNESTs' interviews. Although both types of teachers attempted to provide individual feedback to build an effective teacher-student relationship, a NEST participant raised the point that the content of the feedback should be positive specifically for Japanese English learners. Similar to a strategy for giving feedback, another distinctive difference between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs was NESTs' approaches to building a teacher-student relationship in a Japanese educational setting. An American teacher adapted her teaching experience in China to fit in the Japanese educational context. For some NESTs, students' expectations toward teachers are different from the relationship in their own countries. Thus, this adjustment is necessary, particularly for NESTs while Japanese NNESTs may be competent in understanding students' expectations and needs due to sharing the same social, cultural, and educational backgrounds.

Teacher efficacy for management compared to Japanese NNESTs and NESTs. As Japanese NNEST participants pointed out, some NESTs also had difficulty handling those students who were not motivated for learning English and did not express their own thoughts in class. However, ALTs at junior high and high school levels obtained different types of struggles and frustrations toward classroom management because of their role as ALTs. This notion of categorization of ALTs are on the basis of how social identity and self-categorization influence people's attitudes because of their particular group memberships and their patterns (Terry et al., 1999). A lack of autonomy

for classroom management can cause junior high and high school NESTs' lower efficacy for management.

Another unique difference between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs in classroom management was an ALTs' perception of the Japanese school system. A couple of interview participants considered Japanese classrooms as disciplined, regimented, and sometimes too rigid. Due to Japanese NNESTs' understanding of the school system, they do not find it frustrating; however, for some NESTs, it may be a challenge to adapt.

Teacher efficacy for instructional strategies compared to Japanese NNESTs and NESTs. One of the NEST interview participants addressed the distinctive Japanese English learners' discourse from the outsiders' perspective. For example, Japanese English learners did not expand their conversation during speaking. This might be derived from Japanese cultural or societal norms, yet this NEST believed that it is necessary to encourage students in expanding a conversation so that they can improve their language skills. As Japanese NNESTs showed a certain level of efficacy for explaining alternatively and giving appropriate examples, NESTs also were comfortable with those elements in instruction.

In teacher efficacy for instructional strategies, ALTs displayed some interesting points that were not found for Japanese NNESTs. First, because Japanese NNESTs are responsible for students' assessment, ALTs were not given opportunities for evaluating students' performance other than an oral assessment. Additionally, because they always collaborated with Japanese NNESTs, the relationship with them can be an issue. Some ALTs can build a good relationship with their Japanese NNESTs, but others cannot. As De Oliveira and Richardson (2004) explained, a quality blend of personalities of

NNESTs and NESTs with mutual admiration and respect led to the successful collaborations between NNESTs and NESTs. As a result of these efforts, both of them should understand the benefit of their collaborations so that they can equally gain their professional development.

Because the ALTs' role is supposed to assist Japanese NNESTs, both teachers are expected to work collaboratively, although their relationships might not be always cooperative. Sometimes, both NNESTs and NESTs have difficulties due to multiple hurdles, such as Japanese NNESTs' proficiency, class size, curriculum, and NESTs' uncooperative attitudes towards teaching (Kachi & Lee, 2001). Importantly, an American teacher participant strongly described the effectiveness of collaborative teaching between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs. This issue will be discussed in the section of implications.

Each type of teacher exhibited their language backgrounds as their characteristics of English teachers. Japanese NNESTs effectively used Japanese in classroom instruction. In contrast, NESTs were perceived as experts for teaching English by students because of their status as NESTs, but at the same time, they believed that being just a native speaker is not good enough as an English teacher. Their first language heavily impacts their instruction.

Teacher identity compared to Japanese NNESTs and NESTs. Some of the Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' role identities were overlapped in this study. Both types of teachers addressed their role as an "actor" to engage and entertain students. Also, a couple of Japanese NNESTs described their role as motivating students. These findings corresponded to Farrell's (2011) English teacher role identity as an entertainer. Another NEST possessed the identity as employee for his students. His belief was that students

paid for their tuitions and wage for teachers; thus, he considered his students as a boss, and he believed that he should work for students. This concept was particular for this participant. Instead of having this notion, Japanese NNESTs might demonstrate empathy for students (Kamhi-Stein et al., 2004). By reflecting Japanese NNESTs' English learning experiences, they empathize with their students (Nagatomo, 2012).

Both types of teachers claimed their roles as entertainer, motivator, facilitator, and a language model. There were some contrasts, such as students' and their own perceptions as English teachers in Japan, influence on their language use in instruction, and each teacher's characteristics as non-native and native speakers of English. As I explained in the comparison between Japanese NNESTs and NESTs' efficacy for instructional strategies, NESTs were sometimes perceived by their students as experts at teaching English because their first language is English. However, NEST interview participants were aware that being native speakers of English did not mean a competent teacher. Therefore, NESTs argued that they should not only be native speakers but also proficient English teachers. In contrast, Japanese NNESTs considered themselves as teachers as learners (Farrell, 2011) rather than experts. Teaching English as a foreign language is a challenge for NNESTs; therefore, it is necessary to keep improving their English proficiency. As a result, teacher identity can be impacted by how students perceive NNESTs or NESTs (Mahboob, 2004) and how teachers perceive themselves (Amin, 1997) as well.

Also, as explained previously, Japanese NNESTs shared the same first language and culture with their students, which was different from NESTs' approach in teacher efficacy in instructional strategies. Japanese NNESTs' first language use in instruction

affects their teacher identity development. Kiernan (2010) argued that non-native speaking language teachers shared their own language learning experiences with students and they can provide appropriate models and guides by utilizing their common first language. Similarly, Japanese NNEST interview participants described that they could understand the processes of their students' learning successes and struggles, which can positively influence the relationships with their students and reinforce their teacher identity development in an EFL context. This notion can link to Japanese NNESTs' empathy with their students' language learning, which corresponds to being NNESTs as a role model, and their similar language learning background and experience make them empathetic toward the students (Nagatomo, 2012). Of course, NESTs emphasize with Japanese English learners, yet as a couple of participants explained, they also need a certain level of patience and flexibility to teach students in a different school system and a different cultural and societal setting. Consequently, it is important for NESTs to possess courage and perseverance to deal with unexpected circumstances.

ALTs seem to struggle the most with their teacher identity compared to other groups of teachers. For example, an American ALT perceived herself as a slightly underqualified English teacher because of her lack of teacher training. Her status as an ALT might reduce her pressure towards her classroom management and instruction. However, at the same time, they do not have autonomy, particularly for classroom management. As explained in the previous section, it can create conflict with their teaching and insecure identity as an English teacher. Another characteristic for ALTs was their perception of themselves as "human tape recorders." As model native English speakers, they sometimes have to repeat simple English sentence structures over and over

again. Through this type of language activity, they do not find a significant role as teachers, which may affect their teacher identity. Conversely, Japanese NNESTs pursue to be a language model (Nagatomo, 2012) and behavioral role model by demonstrating themselves as non-native speakers of English. This leads students to encouraging their own learning and being a vicarious model.

Furthermore, NESTs' past teaching experience influenced their teaching in Japan, which also applies to Japanese NNESTs. An American ALT indicated his teaching philosophy, which was impacted by his teaching experience in the U.S. as a special education teacher. This related to the development of teacher role identity (Walkington, 2005) and professional identity based on his personal and teaching experiences (Tickle, 2000). Similarly, Two Japanese NNEST participants shared their former teaching and professional experiences. Because one of the Japanese NNESTs owned her English school, this experience constructed and heavily impacted her teacher identity. In addition, another Japanese NNEST shared his experience about failing university entrance exams for three consecutive years, which affected his teacher identity and teaching philosophy later on.

Summary: Japanese NNESTs' Efficacy and Identity from Methodological and Theoretical Perspectives

One of the major findings of Japanese NNESTs' teacher efficacy was the correlation between their efficacy and self-reported English proficiency, which revealed that the more they were efficacious in teaching, the higher their self-reported English proficiency was. Therefore, it is significant for Japanese NNESTs to enhance their English proficiency. Although they agreed that the statement of their teacher efficacy for

student engagement was low, I found they tried to cope with their weaknesses based on various strategies, such as being a language and behavioral role model, providing positive outcomes of learning English, sharing language learning experience with students, and implementing instructional strategies to motivate students.

Theoretically, Japanese NNESTs' role and professional identity could be associated with ingroup and outgroup membership in social identity theory. Japanese NNEST participants attempted to be role models and built relationships with students, which constructed their ingroup identity. In contrast, improving students' achievement and raising their cultural awareness could be considered outgroup factors. In addition, Japanese NNESTs' professional identity related to other teachers and professional development. As ingroup identity, sharing the mutual language and culture with students and using Japanese in class affected their teacher identity. Also, observing other teachers' classes and learning from them in pedagogy related to their ingroup identity. In contrast, Japanese NNESTs' English proficiency and cultural knowledge were the major outgroup elements influenced by their teaching environmental factors and the comparison with NESTs. Importantly, interview participants agreed that study abroad experience enhanced their awareness of varieties in English.

Implications and Suggestions for Administrators, Educators, and Japanese NNESTs

Suggestions for Administrators for Japanese NNESTs

To build appropriate teacher efficacy and teacher identity, teacher education plays an important role particularly for novice teachers. Moreover, previous experiences in teaching (Tickle, 2000) and mastery experience (Bandura; 1986, 1997) influence teacher efficacy and identity development. Thus, obtaining effective professional development is

critical. While improving Japanese NNESTs' pedagogical knowledge and application, administrators should provide long-term teacher training and professional development not only at the university level of teacher training programs but also continuous professional development, particularly for novice teachers. It is true that teaching experience in class is meaningful, but as some of the participants exhibited, strong teacher education backgrounds help teachers apply the knowledge to actual teaching situations throughout their career.

In Kurihara and Samimy's (2007) study, they found that their Japanese NNEST participants believed their oversea training to be a valuable experience. This led to their perception of developing language skills explicitly for communication as being important. Also in Major and Yamashita's (2004) study, they argued three benefits for receiving teacher education in English speaking countries: (1) English learners can acquire methodologies because their training focuses on content knowledge, (2) there are only a few MA TESOL programs in Japan, and (3) they can gain cross-cultural and first-hand cultural experience by immersing themselves. By applying these benefits in practice, Japanese NNESTs can teach their students to understand the importance of learning English for communicative and cultural purposes. In Japan, sometimes English seems more prestigious than Japanese, but Japanese NNESTs have to educate their students for language equity and neutrality, and more importantly, Japanese NNESTs themselves should change their mentality about the role of English teachers from transmitting knowledge to facilitating and guiding students' interactions. Furthermore, Major and Yamashita (2004) emphasized the significance of pre-service teachers'

reflection and action research on teaching and the necessity of accepting linguistic varieties and multiculturalism, adding to knowledge and skills.

In this present study, multiple Japanese NNESTs suggested that MEXT should send Japanese NNESTs to English speaking countries as part of their professional development. It may be difficult for them to earn a master's degree due to their time constraints, but even for a short-term period, the experience will be meaningful, especially for young, novice teachers. It was interesting to observe this opinion from those Japanese NNESTs who had experienced study abroad through MEXT. They described their experience in taking ESL courses, communicating with students from different countries, and visiting local schools during their training as meaningful. Hence, those teachers supported their own professional development experience and believed it was important for their teaching career.

Suggestions for Teacher Educators for Japanese NNESTs

In this present study, I found the positive correlation between teacher efficacy and Japanese NNESTs' self-perception of English proficiency. Thus, increasing their English proficiency should be incorporated into the teacher education curriculum. In Lee's (2004) study, all of the 18 pre-service NNEST participants were motivated English learners and considered their language improvement important. As a teacher educator in Hong Kong, she raised her pre-service teachers' awareness to enhance their English proficiency so that they could maintain and improve to native or near-native competency. Hence, teacher educators should help pre-service NNESTs to engage in continuous language and instructional training. Particularly, she emphasized NNEST educators as successful role

models for NNES pre-service teachers through reflecting teacher educators' selves and improving their instructional practices.

In fact, pre-service teachers who are in EFL education in Japan have to take courses to improve their English proficiency, yet it might not be enough. As Pasternak and Bailey (2004) pointed out, acquiring high speaking proficiency is a challenge for NNESTs because of their complex concern about their English fluency, communication skills, speaking, pronunciation, listening, and vocabulary. Therefore, it is critical to enhance Japanese NNESTs' oral and aural proficiency, and courses for these skills should be included in the curriculum. This will develop stronger teacher efficacy for instructional strategies and engagement. Furthermore, Brinton (2004) explained that NNES student teachers' self-perceived weaknesses of their language skills lead to lack of confidence; therefore, it is important to improve their English proficiency to build their confidence in teaching as well.

According to Brady and Gulikers (2004), there are three suggestions for teacher educators to support development of pre-service teachers' efficacy and confidence. First of all, teacher educators can bolster confidence by assessing and giving students feedback on "how effectively they are managing classroom discourse" (p. 217) because classroom discourse can contain various factors such as interpersonal relationships, beliefs, values, learning, classroom practices, etc. Particularly, NNES student teachers should know the classroom discourse that they are experiencing. As one of the NEST interview participants observed Japanese English learners' classroom discourse, it would help to apply knowledge to actual classroom instruction. While analyzing discourse in the class and tracking students' errors to use as data for NNES student teacher training, Brady and

Gulikers (2004) recommended that classroom discourse should be explicitly taught so that NNES student teachers can develop to teach well in their teaching context. Secondly, it is vital to reflect on their teaching practices in order to build their confidence and self-esteem because especially young professionals lack confidence and they are sometimes too self-conscious about their language proficiency. To reinforce NNES student teachers' confidence in pedagogy and reflective capabilities, teacher educators should understand counterproductive concerns, e.g., attaining perfect English pronunciation. Thirdly, it is important to educate all student teachers to understand that their students' educational and cultural backgrounds influence their classroom behaviors. In addition, host teachers should know NNES student teachers' culture in teacher and student relationships because their transition from students to classroom teachers influences their perspectives as an educator.

NNESTs and NESTs' collaboration may be a potential method for teacher education. Matsuda and Matsuda (2004) investigated a collaborative model with NNESTs and NESTs to explore how online journal sharing can maximize each type of teachers' strengths while encouraging learning from differences. According to those researchers, journals are getting popular in teacher education to monitor teachers' progress, provide formative responses, and gain in-depth insights for teachers. In this study, participants could successfully create a supportive and collaborative atmosphere through their email journal exchange for class activity ideas. Consequently, it is possible for non-native and native English speaking student teachers to gain autonomy, support the differences between NNESTs and NESTs' values, and allow them to learn from each other.

Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) explained NNES student teachers' challenging experience in ESL context through living in English speaking countries. The researchers revealed that even those who perceived themselves as competent English teachers in their home countries found that their confidence and self-identity was challenged because self-image and self-esteem as professionals may be context dependent. Thus, it is important for EFL teachers to be educated based on learner factors (age, motivation, aptitude, goals), teacher factors (knowledge, skills, training, experience, personality), and contextual factors (amount of input, degree of contact with native speakers, availability of authentic materials). Kurihara and Samimy (2007) also found that teacher training programs influenced such a positive impact on Japanese NNESTs' communicative teaching practice that they argued teaching English is not only teaching linguistic skills but also developing learners' communication skills in English. After the Japanese NNESTs experienced the teacher training programs overseas, they came to support communicative-oriented teaching, student-focused instruction, and meaning-based practices more. Thus, to specifically improve EFL teacher education, enhancing Japanese NNESTs' communication skills and raising their awareness of communicative teaching can be a possible approach to improving their teacher efficacy and identity.

Finally, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) described that more emphasis needs to be placed on the multidimensionality and expertise in TESOL methodologies than on nativeness and authenticity. Therefore, special courses or seminars can be added to the existing curricula in order to discuss specific issues and concerns related to English language teaching professionals. As a result of these efforts, NNESTs can sharpen their

linguistic and pedagogical expertise and discuss issues to raise their own consciousness and awareness to bridge NNESTs and NESTs gaps.

Suggestions for Japanese NNESTs

As discussed in the previous section, enhancing English proficiency is a primary effort to improve a level of teacher efficacy and build adequate teacher identity. For example, like one of the Japanese NNEST interview participants took part in an English conversation group regularly, the Board of Education might sometimes organize this type of study group. As facilitators, ALTs also participated in the groups; thus, it is beneficial for Japanese NNESTs to improve their oral proficiency. Japanese NNESTs can make the most of their professional development opportunities. In addition, there may be numerous local English teacher groups, and some of them regularly hold group meetings, presentations, and workshops. This is a great opportunity to learn pedagogical knowledge and feasible classroom practice.

Other than these strategies, Lee (2004) specifically recommended several points for NNESTs preparation. It is crucial to use English as much as possible so that students can be exposed to it. In particular, in an EFL setting, it is important to shift from L1 to more English use for students' English improvement. Due to the students' needs to understand English explicitly, teacher education programs should provide opportunities to develop grammar knowledge and raise pre-service teachers' language awareness. She also pointed out that NNESTs who have high English proficiency can understand their students' English learning paths because of their own English learning experience. Thus, she argued that NNESTs have advantages to recognize their students' struggles with error corrections and facilitate their problems by trying out various options. Additionally,

NNESTs can teach particularly difficult or confusing sounds in English pronunciation because they can be aware of their students' difficulties.

In the real classroom setting, especially for junior high and high school Japanese NNESTs, collaborating with NESTs can improve a level of teacher efficacy and adequate teacher identity. It is true that some Japanese NNESTs feel pressure by working with NESTs depending on how students and Japanese NNESTs, themselves, perceive the collaboration and how well each teacher builds their relationship. However, the benefit of collaborative work can "build program coherence, expand individual resources, and reduce individual burdens for planning and preparation" (Little, 1987, p. 504). According to Shannon and Meath-Lang (1992), collaboration derives from awareness, appreciation of different talents, techniques and skills, and capabilities of appreciation of differences. While observing the process of the Brazilian NNEST and NEST's collaborative partnership in ESL teaching, De Oliveira and Richardson (2004) argued both types of teachers have to understand their own thoughts and negotiate their ideas with each other to learn different perspectives. Both teachers can share and enhance their class materials and save preparation time. As De Oliveira and Richardson (2004) described, it is necessary to have mutual respect and admiration between the two types of teachers. Although it might not be easy to collaborate while both of them are engaged and satisfied with their roles, it will lead to meaningful teaching practice for them, and most importantly for their students.

As one of the NEST participants asserted, team-teaching is beneficial in a Japanese educational setting although there are complex factors that hinder team-teaching, e.g., lack of time for preparation and Japanese NNESTs' English proficiency,

class size, classroom management, curriculum, and both types of teachers' uncooperative attitudes (Kachi & Lee, 2001). To solve these problems, as Kachi and Lee (2001) suggested, it is crucial for both types of teachers to understand each other's cultures; thus, they should be educated to enhance their cultural awareness and intercultural knowledge. Finally, they should discuss their lesson plans, review their team-teaching practices, and share the information so that they can improve their critical perspectives of team-teaching. As benefits for students, NNESTs can get more familiar with the target language culture, and NESTs can share successful NNESTs' experience with their students and use NNESTs as a model. In conclusion, the key to success in collaborations is a quality blend of personalities of NNESTs and NESTs with mutual admiration and respect (De Oliveira & Richardson, 2004). As a result of these efforts, both of them should understand the benefit of their collaborations so that they can equally gain their professional development.

Study Limitations

Considering the large population of NNESTs and NESTs in Japan, the sampling size of my study is limited, particularly for Japanese NNESTs in the survey. I struggled with recruiting Japanese NNESTs; however, recruiting NESTs was not difficult after contacting the appropriate organizations and discovering their group members were willing to support my research. College NESTs especially were more willing to participate, which is probably because their active participation in the online survey may display their confidence in presenting their teacher efficacy and their interests in research, and they might be more aware of research and how it is developed. Additionally, college

NESTs' length of teaching (M=16.72) was longer than their Japanese college NNEST counterparts (M=10.20), which might influence the results of their teacher efficacy.

In the interviews, multiple participants worked for the same schools. Both college NNESTs and NESTs taught in the same university; therefore, the data may be unified specifically for the part of their curriculum and professional development provided by the university. However, their background information and their teacher efficacy and identity were not influenced each other. Also, in the implications, although I referred to previous research, I did not consult with administrators and educators in teacher education programs regarding teacher efficacy and identity. Thus, they might have a different interpretation of my data.

Lastly, I included cultural elements in this research, for example, how participants incorporated culture into their pedagogy and how English speaking culture or Japanese culture influence their teacher efficacy and identity development. However, these cultural factors were not the focus of this study but the secondary data source to investigate Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity.

Implications for Future Research

There were few studies investigating Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity, and moreover, none of the studies related to or compared them with their NEST counterparts. Because of my study's sample size, it is difficult to generalize the results to the Japanese NNESTs' population. Thus, my primary suggestion is to conduct a larger study for their teacher efficacy and identity, especially for a quantitative strand.

In this study, intersections between quantitative and qualitative data were only on teacher efficacy but not on teacher identity. Therefore, it would be great if the numerical

data for teacher identity can be collected or methods are found to convert the qualitative identity data quantitatively. As a result, the study comprising teacher efficacy and identity will be a more complete mixed methods study.

From the perspective of teacher education, I hope to see future research explore teacher efficacy and identity development, applying them to teacher education programs and professional development. It is important to help Japanese NNESTs improve their English proficiency and pedagogical skills under their teacher training. Teacher educators should facilitate their psychological development as English teachers, particularly in an EFL setting, so that Japanese NNESTs can best demonstrate their teaching ability as well as effectively improve their students' performance.

Finally, as explained in the previous section, culture was not the main focus of this study. Thus, investigating their Japanese NNESTs' efficacy and identity from a cultural perspective might be a possible future research. It will be interesting to explore how Japanese culture influences and whether it enhances or hinders Japanese NNESTs' efficacy, identity, and professional development in teaching English.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Recruitment Email

Subject: Request for cooperation from English teachers

Dear   ,

I am Hiromi Takayama originally from Oita, and currently in a PhD program at the University of Iowa, Iowa, USA. I am writing this note to request your cooperation in soliciting participants for a survey related to my dissertation research in English language teaching and learning. Before distributing this request to each Chapter, I would like to ask you if this request is reasonable to ask JALT members.

My research will examine the differences in teacher efficacy and identity between teachers who grew up in Japan versus those who grew up as native English speakers. I will compare data from the survey to examine how Japanese English teachers, who grew up speaking Japanese and later learned English under the Japanese educational system, developed their teacher efficacy and identity, as well as how they have enhanced both their pedagogical skills and self-assurance, in contrast to native English speaking teachers currently teaching in Japan. The survey is online and will take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. I am requesting assistance from your Chapter to distribute my survey to your regional members in order to solicit participants.

For my survey, I am looking for two types of teachers: Japanese English teachers and non-Japanese English teachers currently teaching junior high, high school, and university levels, in Japan. The online survey consists of 36 Likert scale and short answer questions, with 24 questions about teacher sense of efficacy, 11 capturing demographic information, and two focusing on teacher identity. If you allow me the opportunity to distribute my online survey, it will support my dissertation study tremendously.

I deeply appreciate your understanding and cooperation. I would be happy to answer any questions regarding my research or provide you with additional information. I hope this request will not bother you.

Thank you for time and patience. I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Hiromi Takayama
Hiromi-takayama@uiowa.edu

Appendix B

Consent Letter

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of the study is to get better understanding of how English teachers in Japan enhance their professional development. This study will also explore how teacher efficacy is related to identity, beliefs, teacher training experiences, and cultural background.

You are invited to participate in this study because you are between 22 and 65 years old and teach English either part-time or full-time currently in secondary or post-secondary schools in Japan and meet one of the following:

- Japanese English teachers who are native speakers of Japanese and non-native speakers of English and who have experience learning English under the Japanese educational system or
- Non-Japanese English teachers who are native speakers of English and non-native speakers of Japanese and who received their education under their own country's educational system.

Your name and contact information was received to send out the survey to you through getting permission from your program coordinators, JALT (The Japan Association for Language Teaching), or LET (Japan Association for Language Education and Technology) Approximately 512 teachers will take part in this study at the University of Iowa.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to participate in an interview and to complete an online survey. The interview will contain questions about your teaching and training experience, the process of professional development, your own English learning experience and English proficiency, pedagogical skills, teacher efficacy, teacher identity, and cultural background. During this interview, you will be asked questions similar to the following: How long have you taught English and what skill levels have you taught? What kinds of methods were used when you were learning English in school? What are the things you do to make students enjoy learning English? How would you describe yourself as a teacher? You can skip questions if you choose not to answer them.

The interview can take place either in person or via Skype. If you choose to participate in the interview via Skype, you will need to install Skype on your computer and add the researchers as a contact. To protect your privacy, you are encouraged to select a private place for participating in the interview via Skype.

You will also be asked to complete an online survey. The online survey will contain questions about instructional strategies, classroom management, and student motivation in the context of teaching English in Japan. The online survey will also ask as you about basic background information about your teaching environment, English proficiency, and identity as an English teacher. You can choose not to participate in the online survey. You can skip questions if you choose not to answer them. If you choose to participate in the survey, you will receive the survey link through email.

The information you provide will be kept confidential, however federal regulatory agencies and the University of Iowa Institutional Review Board (a committee that reviews and approves research studies) may inspect and copy records pertaining to this research. It will not be possible to link your responses to your identity. All study information will be stored in locked files in locked offices and in password protected computer files on secured computers.

If we write a report about this study we will do so in such a way that you cannot be identified. We are not responsible for the risks you may incur by using Skype. Skype does not encrypt your data so when you use Skype, they may be able to see or store your information. Because we use Skype as a means to run the experiments and collect data, we have no ability to control what Skype does with the data you provide to Skype to generate your account. However, your account is password protected. Upon request, we can provide you with a copy of the Skype privacy policy.

There are no known risks from being in this study, and you will not benefit personally. However we hope that others may benefit in the future from what we learn as a result of this study, particularly non-native English speaking teachers.

You will not incur any costs for being in this research study.

You will not be paid for being in this research study.

Taking part in this research study is completely voluntary. If you decide not to be in this study, or if you stop participating at any time, you won't be penalized or lose any benefits for which you otherwise qualify.

If you are interested in participating in this study, please contact the researcher by email hiromi-takayama@uiowa.edu.

If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Hiromi Takayama at 662 Phillips Hall, in Iowa City, Iowa 52242; hiromi-takayama@uiowa.edu; (319) 335-2152, supervised by Pamela M. Wesely at N 282 Lindquist Center, in Iowa City, Iowa 52242; pamela-wesely@uiowa.edu; (319) 335-5261. If you have questions about the rights of research subjects, please contact the Human Subjects Office, 105 Hardin Library for the Health Sciences, 600 Newton Rd, The University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA 52242-1098, (319) 335-6564, or e-mail irb@uiowa.edu. To offer input about your experiences as a research subject or to speak to someone other than the research staff, call the Human Subjects Office at the number above.

Thank you very much for your consideration. If you would like to participate, please spend about 15 minutes to respond to this survey:
https://uiowa.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_5528wAbwf3VVO8R&Preview=Survey&BrandID=uiowa

I truly appreciate your cooperation in advance.

Sincerely,
Hiromi Takayama
Ph.D. Candidate, Foreign Language and ESL Education, University of Iowa

Appendix C

Interview Protocols

Questions about teaching and training experience

1. How long have you taught English and what skill levels have you taught?
2. Tell me about how you were trained as a teacher.
3. 2. (If so,) explain the process of the teacher training program. For example, number of classes, semesters, or types of classes you have taken.
4. 2. (If so,) in what ways was the teacher training helpful to your teaching career?
5. Are you receiving any teacher training right now?
6. Tell me about your professional development now. What is the most helpful?

Questions about development as a professional

7. Please describe how you felt in your first semester of teaching. Were you comfortable or nervous about teaching at the beginning of your teaching career?
8. How have you changed your teaching practices from the first year to now in the class?
9. How do you feel about yourself now as a teacher compared to when you started?
10. When do you feel like you're doing a good job? When do you feel like you're not doing a good job?

Questions about English learning experience

11. What kind of methods were used when you were learning English in school? Give examples, was it grammar translation, worksheet, communicative based?
12. What aspects of learning English did you enjoy and not enjoy? Please explain.
13. Did you also learn English outside of school (e.g. at a private language school, cram school, or private tutors)?
14. 11. (If so,) how did you learn or use English when you were outside of school? (e.g. TV, popular culture, or talking with peers?)

Questions about pedagogy

15. What are the most important elements of teaching any English course?
16. What kind of methods do you like to use in your English instruction (e.g. teacher-centered or student-centered, grammar translation method, communicative teaching approach, etc.)?
17. If you have changed your teaching methods over the years, why did you change?

Questions about English proficiency

18. How do you evaluate your own English proficiency in speaking, listening, reading, writing, grammar, and communication?
19. What is your opinion about accent? How do you perceive your English pronunciation?

Questions about teacher efficacy

20. What are the things you do to make students enjoy learning English? How do you motivate them to do well?
21. Do you think it is important to build relationships with students? How do you do that? (e.g. military, motherly, friend-like)
22. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?
23. What measures do you use to evaluate your students' learning success in English? (e.g. based on exams or making fluent conversation)
24. Do you think it's important to establish a classroom management system? How do you establish a classroom management system with your students?
25. What kinds of students give you the most difficulty and how do you handle those students?
26. How much do you think you are responsible for your students' learning? (half teacher? half students? all students? all teachers?)

Questions about teacher identity

27. How would you describe yourself as a teacher?
28. In what way does being Japanese/non-Japanese affect your English teaching?
29. As a non-native/native English speaker, have you ever had a positive or negative reaction from your students simply because of your non-native/native English speaker status in your home country? If yes, why? Describe the qualities that make a teacher effective in Japan. Give a specific example of why that quality is important. What are the obstacles in achieving these qualities?
30. Please describe your professional "journey." What have you learned during this journey? What else would you like to learn?
31. Can you summarize briefly your teaching philosophy? Describe your personal and professional events contributed to developing your teaching philosophy.
32. What connections can you notice between your life experiences (personal and professional) and who you are as a teacher? How are your beliefs, assumptions and perceptions of yourself reflected in your teaching practice?
33. In what way have significant people in your personal and professional life contributed to the way you see yourself as a teacher (development of your teacher identity)?

Questions about personality

34. Does your personality change when you teach English? If so, in what ways do you change?

Questions about culture

35. Have you had any first-hand experience with the target culture? (e.g. study abroad, tourism, or living in the target culture)
36. 36. (If so,) how did that influence your teaching English?
37. Do you teach culture in your English class? If so, how do you teach it?

Appendix D

Online Survey

Thank you for accessing this questionnaire about Japanese English teachers' identity and professional development. It should only take about fifteen minutes to complete. Please finish the entire questionnaire, and please be honest. You will not have to enter your name at any time, and we have no way of detecting who you are.   If you have any questions about this questionnaire, please contact Hiromi Takayama at the University of Iowa. Her email address is hiromi-takayama@uiowa.edu, and her phone number is 319-335-2152.   Thank you very much for your help and your responses!

How much can you do? Select one response for each activity.

	Not At All		Very Little		Some Influence		Quite A Bit		A Great Deal
How much can you get through to the most difficult students?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much can you help your students think critically?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much can you control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much can you motivate students who show low interest in learning English?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much can you get students to believe they can do well in learning English?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much can you help your students value learning English?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
To what extent can you evaluate your students' comprehension?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you encourage student creativity?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you get your students to follow classroom rules?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How well can you establish a classroom management system with your students?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
To what extent can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How well can you respond to uncooperative students?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please answer if you are a non-native English speaker. How would you describe your level of proficiency in English in the following areas?

	Not Proficient At All	Below-Average Proficient	Average Proficient	Above-Average Proficient	Completely Proficient
Listening	○	○	○	○	○
Speaking	○	○	○	○	○
Reading	○	○	○	○	○
Writing	○	○	○	○	○
Grammar	○	○	○	○	○
Communication	○	○	○	○	○
Pronunciation	○	○	○	○	○

Demographic information. Please answer the following questions.

Gender
○ Male
○ Female

Are you a native speaker of English?
○ Yes
○ No

How long have you lived in English speaking countries? Write your answer in years and months. Do not write descriptions.

What level do you teach? Choose the one you teach the most.
- ○ Elementary School
- ○ Junior High School
- ○ High School
- ○ College
- ○ Other _____

What levels do you teach in your English language program?
- ❑ Beginning
- ❑ High beginning - Low intermediate
- ❑ Intermediate
- ❑ Intermediate high
- ❑ Advanced
- ❑ Native-like

Approximately how many students do you have in your school? Write the number (ex. 1,000). Do not write descriptions.

Approximately how many students do you teach? Write the number (ex. 100). Do not write descriptions.

How long have you been teaching English? Write your answer in years and months. Do not write descriptions.

What skills do you teach in your English language program? Check all that apply.
- ❑ Listening
- ❑ Speaking
- ❑ Reading
- ❑ Writing
- ❑ Communication
- ❑ Pronunciation
- ❑ Grammar
- ❑ Integrated skills
- ❑ Test-taking skills
- ❑ Others _____

Before you started teaching or while teaching, did you have any teacher training?
- ❑ Studied in department of Education
- ❑ Studied in a graduate school
- ❑ Received training from schools where I teach / taught
- ❑ Received training from colleagues
- ❑ Received training through workshops
- ❑ None
- ❑ Others _____

How would you describe yourself as a teacher?

Describe the qualities that make a teacher effective in Japan. What are the obstacles in achieving these qualities?

Appendix E

Coding Category Table

Codes	Definitions	Examples
Training	Past teacher training experience, e.g., studied pedagogy at college or graduate school, earned related degrees in teaching	• Had only few practice teaching, intensive training programs I had in my bachelor's degree
Professional development	Further teacher training experience to enhance professional knowledge, e.g., attends conferences and workshops, works with colleagues, earns additional certificates and training	• Taken TOEFL iBT using the university funding • Join the conference or to present, go to many conferences every year
Change from beginning of the career to now	Change in teaching related activities from the beginning to current career	• The ways I approach lessons changed what they are, of course, who I'm teaching to is different, and the methodology, I think, is quite different
Own language proficiency	English or foreign language proficiency	• Listening, reading, writing are the stronger skills • I can understand more than I can speak
Affective as a teacher	A teacher statement related to emotions experienced as a teacher	• Teachers are a little insecure in the beginning of a new position • It was a little difficult to connect with students
Relationship with students	Physical and affective relationship with students	• Email me or come to me, and ask for advice about their future • They want to talk with me about how much they learned
Classroom instruction	how much teachers could employ various teaching strategies	• We are doing both explicit and deductive grammar approach • When English explanation fails, I explain quickly in Japanese
Student engagement	how much teachers motivated students with low interest in learning	• I try to show them what they can do if their English was better • Tell them an anecdote about my experiences how my being an English speaker helped me with my life experiences
Classroom management	how much teachers could control students' behavior in their class	• We also make a class policy • Show them to let them know that this is the rule they came up with and we have to try and stick to it

Beliefs in what the participant does	Beliefs related to teaching	• Measuring students' success is not about just about test or courses. It's about their life skill and developing as a learner
Administrations	Statement about administrations and being involved in administrations	• I'm a coordinator for the level I'm teaching, and I attend more meetings than other teachers
Learning strategies	English or foreign language learning strategies	• Recommended us that you should listend to Eikaiwa Nyumon, and then I subscribed the textbook • I listened to English every day in my university days
Cultural experience	Experience in being involved with other cultures, cultural activities related to teaching	• I come from the Japanese culture where they are used to being disciplined and polite
Teacher as a role model	Taking roles as a teacher	• I'm seen as a kind of model person and model language speaker • As a teacher, I only provide opportunities to practice English or learn English and also facilitate activities
Related to students	Activities students are involved in teaching	• Students who don't open up, and say what they want with their life or with their study • "Teacher, I was spoken to a foreigner today. S/he asked me a direction, but I couldn't understand what they were saying, so I just ran away."
Identity	Statement about teacher identity (who they are as teachers)	• I'm non-threatening, I try not to be scary • I should be responsible all the actions I take
Students' perception	Students' perceptions of the participants and their actions	• There was a preference for native speaker teachers for advanced classes even if the teacher was perfectly bilingual
Someone significant	Some people who influenced the participants	• My master's program professor was very supportive, very energetic
Personality	Statement showing personality traits	• I would say I become more active and in high spirit, I think
Overseas experience	Experience living abroad	• When I studied abroad, I was in the U.K. and traveled around Europe

		• I studied abroad as an exchange student for one year in San Francisco
Teaching experience	Past teaching experience	• I taught many levels from beginner level, from children, up to adults in some situations • I've been teaching for the last 7 years
Professional experience other than teaching	Past professional experience not teaching related	• I was an assistant director in the radio station in Singapore

Appendix F

Comparison of information from interview and survey data between Japanese NNESTs
and NESTs' efficacy and their professional identity (partial excerpt as example)

Theme	NESTs' efficacy		Japanese NNESTs' efficacy/Identity
	Face-to-face interviews	Online survey	
College NESTs' Efficacy for Engagement	Some different factors from college Japanese NNESTs' efficacy • Incorporate various types of activities into instruction • Use praise and positive feedback • Build good relationships with students for their immediate motivation • Memorize students' names as quickly as possible • Give individual feedback as a source of students' motivation • Provide achievable goals • Encourage students' self-accountability	Similar tendencies for strengths and weaknesses to Japanese college NNESTs • The mean of college NESTs' efficacy for engagement was identical as JH/HS NESTs (M=5.47)	• Provide vicarious experience • Encourage students' self-accountability • Particularly low teacher efficacy to improve students who are failing and to assist families • College students have firmly set motivation and teachers have difficulty changing it
Junior high and high school NESTs' Efficacy for Engagement	Different approaches compared to JH/HS Japanese NNESTs • Use cultural elements in class • Interact with students outside of class • Provide resources students are interested in • Give rewards	Similar tendencies with JH/HS Japanese NNESTs • The mean of JH/HS NESTs' efficacy for engagement was identical as college NESTs (M=5.47)	• Try not to bore students by "change" • Be a successful role model • Scaffold students to achieve a big goal (university entrance exams) • Incorporate topics that students are interested in • Encourage students' self-accountability • There are students who possess various levels of motivation under the public school system
College NESTs' Efficacy for Management	Students' motivation and attitude affect classroom management • The most difficult students are ones who are not motivated • Difficult to encourage quiet students to speak up	Significantly higher than other groups • All the means for college NESTs surpassed their JH/HS counterparts • Significantly higher mean compared to other groups • Participants for this study, this group had more years of teaching experience (M=16.72) • Firm training experience	• Build good rapport • Develop own class rules with students • Management related to students' motivation • Individual consultation is effective • Highest mean among three factors (M=6.48) • Difficult to force adult students to discipline in the class

			• Class as a disciplined group is an important notion
Junior high and high school NESTs' Efficacy for Management	Status as ALTs and different class styles • Classroom management is not their job because they are ALTs • Not given much control over classroom management • Do not have much autonomy about classroom management • It is hard to build a rapport with students because ALTs do not come to one school often • Japanese classroom is "regimented"/"strict"	Status as ALTs • Lowest mean among all NNESTs and NESTs' groups • ALTs' years of teaching experience is fewer (M=5.61) • Less training experience • Teach different schools every day and unable to build close relationships with students • Low autonomy for classroom management influences the low mean	• Teachers distinguish themselves from students • Give individual feedback/attention • Establish low affective classroom atmosphere • Attention to students who are falling behind • Management related to students' motivation • The mean was high (M=6.38) • The class size influences disruptive students • Difficult for JH/HS teachers to keep students' focus on class activities • Class as a disciplined group is an important notion