Margin Walkers: The Experiences of Faculty Employed on Fixed-Term Employment Contracts in Japanese Higher Education Institutions

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Abstract

This thesis contributes to knowledge in higher education (HE) studies, focusing on universities as places of faculty labour. In particular, it explores the teaching and working experiences of international and Japanese faculty employed on fixed-term employment contracts (FTECs) in Japan, concentrating on international staff. To broaden the perspective, tenured professors who had previously worked on FTECs were also interviewed to examine how these contracts affect integration, well-being, and workplace satisfaction post fixed-term employment. This is the first study to apply mixed methods to study both international and Japanese fixed-term faculty in the context of Japanese HE. This study was led by the following overarching question: What are the experiences of faculty employed on fixed-term employment contracts in Japanese higher education institutions (HEIs)?

To answer the question, an explanatory sequential mixed methods approach was used. First, a quantitative questionnaire (n=94) was distributed nationwide, which included two open-ended questions. Based on these responses, 17 participants were selected for in-depth interviews to explore their experiences with FTECs. A survey graph, qualitative summaries, and thematic analysis were used to analyse the data. Two major themes emerged: (1) Experiences in the field of higher education, with six sub-themes (differences in entering a career, faculty positioning in the workplace/field of HE, status in the workplace, experiences of student interactions, stress and well-being in the workplace, language in the workplace), and (2) Personal characteristics complexity; Staff demographic and communication characteristics, with four sub-themes (gender related struggles, race, integration/communication, cultural capital and understanding). Bourdieu's concepts of habitus, capital, and field provided a theoretical lens to help better understand faculty experiences as an interplay between agentic and structural forces in this context.

Furthermore, findings suggest that faculty working on FTECs often experienced limited integration within their departments and the broader academic field in Japan, whereas tenured faculty are more embedded. Departmental integration

was closely tied to well-being: the more integrated an individual was, they had a greater sense of well-being. Additionally, the socio-cultural capitals of Japanese language proficiency and having professional connections were essential for greater integration and career mobility.

Overall, this study offers insights into the lived experiences of both international and Japanese faculty. Tentative practical and policy implications for Japanese HE highlights the need for the Ministry of Education to help HEIs create promotion systems allowing fixed-term faculty to secure permanent positions upon meeting institutional requirements, while ensuring equity through inclusivity and opportunities for faculty participation. By including perspectives rarely examined together, this thesis advanced understanding of structural inequities and supports calls for systemic reform in Japanese HE.

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List of abbreviations

ALT: Assistant Language Teacher

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FTEC: Fixed-Term Employment Contract

GU: General Union

HE: Higher Education

HEI: Higher Education Institution

JALT: Japan Association of Language Teachers

JET: Japan Exchange and Teaching Program

MEXT: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan

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Author's declaration: I declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted in substantially the same form for the award of a higher degree elsewhere. The thesis is not the result of joint research and is my own work alone.

Signature: Brian Dubin

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The purpose of this opening chapter is to establish the context and rationale for the study, and to identify the research gap, and clarify the significance of the issues addressed. While research on international staff perceptions at higher education institutions (HEIs) has been written about in depth internationally, the Japanese context – particularly the intersection of international status and fixed-term employment – has received comparatively less sustained attention. In Japanese HEIs, international faculty are often recruited as part of a wider process of higher education (HE) internationalisation and the expansion of English-medium instruction; yet many, especially language teachers, are employed on fixed-term employment contracts (FTECs). These employment contracts can structure access to departmental resources, voice, and belonging, and they may shape well-being and career trajectories for both international and Japanese faculty. Drawing on Bourdieu's concepts of habitus, capital, and field, this chapter introduces the study's focus and closes with an overview of the thesis structure.

1.1 Motivation for This Study

Having lived and worked in Japan for over 15 years, I have taught learners ranging from elementary school children to university students. Over time, I chose to focus on teaching in HE, as it allowed me to support students in learning a second language, improve their speaking abilities, and foster a genuine interest in English. I also appreciate the academic freedom to explore and research topics within the field of HE.

However, as I gained more experience in Japanese HE, I noticed a troubling pattern: employment contracts were often inequitable, and faculty were sometimes forced to leave positions they would have preferred to keep, regardless of their performance or contributions. This realization planted the seeds for the present study. Motivated by a desire to better understand these employment dynamics, I set out to explore the experiences of both international

and Japanese faculty working on FTECs, with the aim of identifying points of similarity and difference compared to my own.

My personal experiences working in Japanese HEIs are both similar and different to those who participated in this thesis. Since I began working in HEIs in Japan, my experiences have been largely positive, though undermined by short employment contracts and the reluctance of those in power to address issues related to them. Thus, these experiences and my personal opinions differ, to some extent, from the findings, which are based on the substantial number of survey and interview responses.

1.2 Globalization of Higher Education in the 21st Century

Higher education has undergone rapid socio-economic changes in the twenty-first century in no small part due to the impact of globalization. Globalization has influenced education in ways such as educational systems, policies, management, and organizational characteristics (Dale, 1999; Davis & Guppy, 1997; Mok, 2007; Mok & James, 2005; Yang, 2005). HEIs around the world are facing major challenges in areas including governance systems, external relations, curriculum development, mission focus, financing, and research (Shin & Harman, 2009). One of the main goals of globalization is “market competition” (Shin & Harman, 2009, p. 1), which is achieved by governments highlighting the importance of institutional performance while simultaneously distributing power (Henkel, 1997; McLendon et al., 2006; Volkwein & Tandberg, 2008). Governments and policymakers have achieved this power distribution by emphasizing the importance of HE through the lens of economic competition (Altbach, 2009; Deem et al., 2008).

As governments recognized the economic potential of HE, they also became aware of its capacity to strengthen related sectors such as trade (Shin & Harman, 2009). However, trade has not been the only area influenced by globalization. In HE specifically, governance, faculty programs, finance and student enrolment (Marginson, 2006; Stromquist, 2007) have also been affected. While these dimensions are important to consider when discussing

globalization, of specific interest to this study is international faculty programs that include both national and international faculty working on non-permanent employment contracts.

1.3 International Faculty in Higher Education: The Good, The Bad, and The Questionable

What is the purpose of hiring international faculty? It may seem straightforward: invite a foreign lecturer to teach, conduct research, and perhaps enhance the department's or university's reputation. However, the reality for many of these individuals involves unexpected hurdles and structural challenges within the institution. The reasons for hiring international faculty vary by country. For instance, international faculty may be hired to foster competition and eliminate inbreeding within universities (Yudkevich et al., 2015).

Broadly speaking, Van der Wende (2010) says internationalization can be understood as:

> Any relationship across borders between nations, or between single institutions situated within different national systems. It assumes that societies defined as nation-states continue to function as bounded economic, social, and cultural systems even when they become more interconnected as activities crossing their borders increase. (p. 541)

When considering education, internationalization has increasingly been used as a term to discuss HE on a global scale and more generally, post-secondary education (Knight, 2004). Knight (2003) proposed a working definition of internationalization, defining it as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, function, or delivery of post-secondary education" (p. 2). Ota (2018) similarly defines internationalization as "a multifaceted and multidimensional process integrating international, intercultural, and global content and dimensions into the functions and aims of higher education institutions and systems" (p. 93). Internationalization is a key factor in the rationale for hiring international faculty, as these individuals "are seen as a key marker of internationalization by the global rankings and often by

ministries and other policy makers within countries" (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017, p. 3).

In Japanese HEIs, the hiring of international faculty is often aimed at advancing the institution's internationalization efforts, especially at the departmental level. International faculty are hired to teach required English courses to undergraduate students. Despite being directly hired by universities, international faculty often face significant obstacles, including limited involvement in departmental decision-making and are often invisible within the institution beyond their teaching responsibilities. There is a similar lack of integration within many departments, and language barriers can cause issues with communication in the workplace (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017). Some departments will provide a higher level of integration for international faculty, allowing them to participate in committees, faculty development or even provide a research budget, while other HEIs will exclude faculty from everything except teaching classes. Given the nature of the position and the varying leadership styles across departments, it is unsurprising that international faculty report a wide range of experiences across different HEIs in Japan. Outside of Japan, in countries like the United States, work permits, and immigration are problematic for visiting academics (Hutchinson, 2016). Conversely, there has been an increase in welcoming policy and practice (Helms, 2015) despite the changes that need to be made in policy and coordination within universities specifically.

International faculty may experience a variety of challenges in the workplace. These problems typically affect the faculty themselves, not the university who hired them. Issues that may arise from hiring international faculty include quality and fit of the individual hired (Grove, 2015), linguistic issues, lack of integration, difference in teaching styles and administrative cultures, among other communication issues (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017). There also may be mismatches between the international staff hired and organizational vision and culture. Universities may see the hired staff as unfit in some way and equally so, the hired individual may also be struggling with the environment and tasks of the new working atmosphere.

International faculty also face difficulties such as less research funding than their domestic colleagues, lower salaries, increased teaching loads, and unstable career prospects (Bookman, 2020; Rappleye & Vickers, 2015; Véliz et al., 2020). Cultural issues might exist, especially in the classroom due to "cultural differences in educational practices and discourse" (Glass et al., 2022, p. 4). Sabharwal (2011) expands on this saying that international faculty's workplace satisfaction might depend on their citizenship categories (e.g., naturalized, permanent resident, temporary resident, etc.). These problems exist throughout the world, in no small part due to neo-liberal policies that encourage globalization and internationalization in countries where international faculty are hired.

When compared to other countries, Japan has considerably less international faculty in its HEIs at around 4.5% (Huang, 2019). In the UK, 32.7% of faculty are international (Universities UK, 2023), while the number of international faculty at HEIs in the US is around 22% (Furuya et al., 2019). In Canada, roughly 41% of international faculty are non-Canadian, however, this number may not be completely accurate as it includes individuals who came to Canada as children, or to pursue an academic career (Barbaric & Jones, 2017). Australia similarly has a large number of international faculty at around 38%, however, like Canada, many of these faculty members have earned their doctoral degree within the country (Shin & Lee, 2022). Even though the number of international faculty in Japan is small, this number increased significantly since the 1970s, when it was at 0.9% (Huang, 2019). When compared to other countries who have a considerably larger number of international faculty, Japanese HEIs rank significantly lower.

1.4 The Trials and Tribulations of International Faculty in Japan

The challenges faced by international faculty in Japan mirror those experienced by international academics worldwide. Given Japan's distinct history, social etiquette, and language, faculty arriving from Western contexts may find integration and cultural adaptation particularly challenging. While integration can be challenging, it is by no means impossible, as many international faculty

have successfully established themselves within both Japanese HEIs and society at large. There are positive aspects of working in Japanese HEIs, of course. Japan has an advanced HE system with competitive salaries and benefit systems. As top-tier Japanese universities value research, international faculty will have less teaching hours so they can spend more time on their research (Green, 2022).

However, there are difficulties that international faculty must contend with when attempting to integrate into their HEI and academia in Japan in general. While the positives of working in a Japanese HEI exist, there are problems that international faculty will inevitably encounter during their careers working in Japan. While some remain undeterred by these ongoing challenges, others struggle to adapt to the significant cultural and workplace differences and ultimately choose to return to their home country. Although the list of challenges may appear relatively short, they can feel overwhelming in practice. These include cultural barriers, limited Japanese language proficiency, difficulties with integration, and labour-related issues. Labour issues, in this context, refer to the broader labour system and its implementation in Japan, rather than conditions specific to Japanese HEIs. Cultural barriers can seem daunting for international faculty, but the longer they stay in Japan, they will acclimate to the culture. This will be discussed more in Chapter 2, the literature review, when I discuss the concept of *uchi* (insiders) and *soto* (outsiders) members of society (Dale, 1986). International faculty are, inherently, outsiders and will rarely become insiders due to the nature of Japanese culture.

Integration has been an ongoing issue for international faculty in Japanese HEIs, as they are typically not integrated well or at all into their HEIs (Brotherhood et al., 2020), are often pushed to the periphery of their institutions, and considered outsiders, expendable, or temporary by their place of employment (Nishikawa, 2021; Rivers, 2013). The lack of integration is not the biggest hurdle international faculty face in Japan, however. Precarious employment is one of the ways in which international faculty are truly prevented from integrating into their HEIs and it creates instability in their lives outside of

the workplace. The next section will focus specifically on precarious employment in Japan in general and in Japanese HEIs.

1.5 International Faculty as part of Precarious Employment in Japan and Japanese Higher Education Institutions

Precarious employment has been on the rise globally (Cuervo & Wyn, 2016), and Japan has faced a surge in precarious employment since the 1980s. The number of non-regular employees, or employees working on irregular working contracts in all employment contexts has almost doubled since the 1980s and workers are faced with little job security, among a myriad of other issues (Osawa et al., 2013). While the 1980s saw a boom in the country's labour, wealth, and economy, the bubble slowly began to deflate in the late 1990s. The collapse of Japan's bubble economy played a key role in prompting the introduction of FTECs in the HE sector:

> Japanese politicians were understandably reluctant to relax labor laws that protected the electorate, but they allowed a loophole: instead of having to give every new employee a lifelong deal, companies could contract or subcontract new limited-term workers in a manner that liberated firms from the responsibility of paying for the legally required benefits due to regular employees, and freed them up to hire and shed new workers as needed. (Larson-Hall & Stewart, 2019, p. 18)

Thus, FTECs were introduced in Japan and have existed in all employment sectors, including HE, within the country since the late 1990s.

In Japan, the HE sector mirrors other industries in its approach to managing FTECs. Despite university faculty being employed by HEIs, the number of university faculty working on precarious employment contracts specifically has been increasing. There are two types of employment in Japan in general: regular and non-regular employment. Regular employment contracts are "open-ended, fulltime, and direct employment" (Asao, 2011, p. 1). These are employment contracts that are not open-ended, and people are typically "hired to perform a specialized type of work" (Asao, 2011, p. 2). University faculty in

Japan often find themselves employed on FTECs, and job stability is one of many problems they must contend with. In Japanese HEIs, teachers are typically hired on three to five-year FTECs, however some universities provide 10-year FTECs, though universities that provide FTECs longer than 10 years are non-existent. These positions are either teaching only or teaching and research contracts, however the priority is usually teaching.

The destabilization caused by FTECs is problematic for faculty because a lack of job security can affect how they function in the classroom, interact with their colleagues, their integration into their universities or departments, and can affect their personal well-being (Brotherhood et al., 2020; Chen, 2022a; Nagamine, 2018; Nishikawa, 2021; Talbot & Mercer, 2018; Taylor, 2020; Viac & Fraser, 2020). Talbot and Mercer (2018) specifically mention how hiring faculty on precarious employment contracts or FTECs can be demotivating which directly affects teacher's well-being. Furthermore, faculty who are hired on these FTECs have been considered outsiders (Brotherhood et al., 2020) and are often working from the periphery of their HEIs (Nishikawa, 2021). The instability of these contracts can add unnecessary stress to an already hectic work schedule for many university faculty. Problems created by FTECs can similarly affect how teachers function in the classroom, causing a lack of interest when it comes to lesson planning or teaching. When this occurs, students lose out on learning due to teachers whose priorities fall outside of the classroom.

1.6 Fixed-term Employment in Japanese Higher Education: Scale and Regulatory Context

Recent Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) data provide a sense of scale of the number of teachers working on FTECs. In the 2024 School Basic Survey, Japanese universities reported 192,531 full-time teachers (MEXT, 2024). In a separate MEXT survey on the higher education 10-year special rule, which covers universities and research & development corporations, the number of special-rule eligible individuals who were on fixed-term labour contracts as of 1 April 2024 was 95,350; of these 70,020 were

classified as ‘teachers, etc.’ (MEXT, 2025d). While these figures are not a complete census of all fixed-term academic staff – given the survey’s scope and eligibility criteria – they indicate that fixed-term employment constitutes a substantial segment of the HE workforce.

Legally, however, fixed-term employment in Japan is governed by the Labour Contract Act (2007), which introduced an indefinite conversion mechanism: after a prescribed period of successive fixed-term contracts, employees may obtain the right to request conversion to an indefinite-term contract. In HE, and research, sector-specific conditions (often referred to as the 10-year special rule) extend the qualifying period for certain university teachers and researchers (General Union, 2017; MEXT, 2025d). These institutional and legal arrangements underpin the contractual uncertainty examined in this thesis.

1.7 Fixed-Term Employment Contracts in Japanese Higher Education: Evidence and Research Gaps

When considering fixed-term employment in the literature, previous studies have explored the integration of international faculty (Brotherhood et al., 2020; Huang, 2018a; Huang & Chen, 2021; Yonezawa et al., 2013), tokenization (Brown, 2019), precarious work (Osawa et al., 2013), and the well-being of international teachers in Japan (Talbot & Mercer, 2018; Taylor, 2020). Although studies on fixed-term employment are increasing (e.g., Schumann & Kuchinke, 2020), few studies specifically consider the experiences of university faculty working on FTECs, especially in Japanese HEIs. One of those studies, which is by Yamanoi et al. (2005), considers the results of a questionnaire asking Japanese university faculty’s opinions about FTECs.

Based on nationwide institutional and faculty surveys, Yamanoi et al. (2005) found that fixed-term employment systems in Japanese universities are introduced primarily as internally motivated strategies for revitalizing research and education, particularly at national universities. While HEIs report positive effects, especially in research activity, faculty evaluations are significantly more cautious, with persistent concerns about post-contract career prospects,

evaluation transparency, and the concentration of evaluative power. The study concludes that fixed-term systems have limited impact on promoting academic mobility and instead tend to shift matters of maintaining stable employment onto individual faculty without substantially altering structural constraints in the academic labour market. To illustrate further, recent work by Chen (2022a) discusses how FTECs are one of many barriers for international faculty seeking to fully integrate into Japanese HEIs. These two studies are aligned with the present study in their attention to integration and well-being, but they do not focus specifically on how fixed-term employment contracts shape these experiences for university faculty. This will be discussed more in depth in Chapter 2.

However, there is limited research on the relationship between faculty well-being and FTECs specifically (see Cotter & Sato, 2017; Inoue et al., 2011). To add to the existing literature and the gap in understanding the experience of faculty working on FTECs and what steps faculty can take in response to these experiences, this study examines how FTECs shape both international and Japanese faculty members' workplace experiences, with particular attention to integration, job satisfaction, and well-being within their HEI environments.

1.8 Theoretical Framework: Bourdieu's Habitus, Capital, and Field

The theoretical perspective that adds insight to this study is Bourdieu's habitus, capital, and field. Although Bourdieu's concepts have been applied widely, this thesis uses habitus, capital, and field as an interpretive theoretical lens to situate and interpret the findings, rather than as an exhaustive application of the theory. Bourdieu's ideas have been widely used in the West yet have not been used as often in the Asia-Pacific region, specifically Japan (see Itashiki, 2024). Although Bourdieu has recently been used as a theoretical lens in some research conducted in Japanese HEIs (see Smith, 2022; Smith & Colpitts, 2025), it has largely remained absent from discussion in the literature pertaining to Japanese HEIs. This lack of a Bourdieusian perspective is even more noticeable when discussing the working environments of individuals in Japan, especially Japanese HEIs.

This study set out to fill this gap by considering the working environments of both international and Japanese English faculty working on FTECs, by considering participants' habitus, and social and cultural capital. This was useful to understand where and why they are placed in the field of HE in Japan, how they interact with others, and what position and status they hold. Thus, this is one of the first studies that I am aware of that uses this specific theoretical perspective to understand the positionality of this specific group of people within a Japanese HE setting.

1.9 Context of this Study and Contribution to Knowledge

Research on Japan spans a wide range of subjects including economics, language, popular culture, and religion. However, employment practices within Japanese HEIs have received comparatively less sustained attention. Although large-scale studies on employment in Japan exist (e.g., Asao, 2011; Gordon, 2017; Imai, 2011; Miller, 2022; Tsuchida, 2000), research specifically examining the experiences of faculty working on FTECs remains limited. Nevertheless, research in this area has been increasing over the past decade (e.g., Brotherhood et al., 2020; Chen, 2022a, 2022b; Cotter & Sato, 2017; Miller, 2022; Nishikawa, 2021).

In a wider context, this study coincides with ongoing employment issues not only in Japan but also globally. In the UK, for example, HEIs have faced voluntary redundancies and spending cuts (Adams, 2025; MacDonald & Burnell, 2025). Precarious contracts threaten both individual career development and workplace stability. In Japan, such contracts foster unstable working conditions and create conflict within departments, which in turn can spill over into the classroom, ultimately affecting student learning.

One of the objectives of this study is to explore this topic in greater depth by examining not only the experiences of faculty working on these contracts, but also how such contracts affect their lives both within and beyond the workplace. Furthermore, previous studies have only considered the experiences of international participants working on FTECs. Japanese faculty have been

largely absent from these conversations despite being employed on the same working contracts as their international colleagues. This is another gap this research aims to fill as the voices of Japanese participants are just as valuable. Including the perspectives of Japanese participants allows for culturally embedded insights from those born into the culture, as opposed to relying solely on outsider perspectives. Furthermore, by including Japanese faculty working on these contracts, they will have the opportunity to share their experiences with a broader audience. While Japanese faculty may or may not discuss these contracts and working conditions amongst each other, or with their international colleagues, little research has been conducted to include them in the wider conversation about employment practices.

What may be of particular interest to the reader is that, while the information contained in this study is largely acknowledged by most faculty who have worked in Japan for an extended amount of time, those outside of the country, or those just coming to Japan for the first time to work, have little knowledge of the inner workings and experiences of faculty working on FTECs in Japanese HEIs. This is another gap that this study looks to fill. While many of the topics and discussions contained within this thesis are often discussed in conversations in teacher's offices, in break rooms, or more openly during union meetings, there has yet to be a study that puts these experiences down in writing, for everyone inside and outside of the country to read about and understand. By doing this, it is my hope that the conversations about employment contracts and practices will broaden within the country, and perhaps even outside of Japan, and more people will be willing to discuss employment practices and the effects they have on faculty openly, and question the purpose of maintaining these inequitable working contracts.

Remarkably few studies have focused specifically on international staff experiences and HE using Bourdieu as the theoretical lens. In fact, a Google Scholar search using the specific terms (under quotation marks) "international staff experiences", "higher education", and "Bourdieu", yielded only two results, one was a brief comparative paper on cultural contexts in HE, and the other merely a citation. These results were surprising as Bourdieu's theory is not only

complex but has been included in an extensive body of research across disciplines and in educational research. Thus, the contribution to theory is that this is potentially the first study to consider international staff experiences in HE that uses Bourdieu's habitus, capital, and field as a theoretical perspective, albeit not as a full theoretical approach of the thesis.

1.10 Research Aim and Research Questions

The aim of this study is to explore the teaching and working experiences of international and Japanese faculty employed on FTECs, with a particular focus on international staff. However, to avoid bias, tenured professors who had previously worked on these employment contracts were also interviewed to garner a broader perspective as to how they affect integration, well-being, and workplace satisfaction. While the majority of studies investigating this area have included only international faculty, this study sought to include Japanese faculty as well, to acquire a better understanding of these working conditions. A mixed methods approach was used to collect data and gain a more holistic insight of working conditions of these faculty members. First, a quantitative questionnaire was distributed that contained two open-ended questions to faculty and professors across Japan. The questionnaire was distributed widely so that a range of experiences could be collected and studied. From this questionnaire, participants for interviews were selected based on responses to open-ended to avoid bias. The purpose of conducting interviews was to gather a more detailed understanding of those who work, or have worked, on FTECs, and learn about their experiences.

The research questions that guide this study are as follows:

Overall Research question: What are the experiences of faculty employed on fixed-term contracts in Japanese HEIs?

RQ1: What are Japanese university faculty's perceptions of their position within their university/the field of HE in Japan and what is their experience of entering

and working Japanese HE, especially for the majority of international staff who are on short term contracts?

RQ2: How do the experiences and identity characteristics of working on Japanese fixed-term contracts shape their positionality within the structure of Japanese higher education?

RQ2.2: What does it mean in relation to their institutional integration, well-being, and professional/job satisfaction?

RQ2.3: What socio-cultural, health, and economic factors do faculty on fixed-term employment contracts relate to their well-being, why and how?

1.11 Thesis Structure

The overall structure of the study takes the form of six chapters, including this introductory chapter, as outlined below:

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter examines the internationalisation of Japanese HE and the historical introduction of English in Japan, followed by a discussion of the establishment of foreign faculty in Japanese academia. It explores the integration of both international faculty and Japanese faculty. Then, Japanese labour laws in general and HE specifically are examined. Given the centrality of integration inside and outside the workplace, the chapter also addresses the concept of well-being, both generally and in the specific context of Japanese HE. The chapter concludes by introducing Bourdieu's theoretical concepts of habitus, capital, and field, both generally and within the context of Japanese HEIs.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter outlines the mixed methods approach used in this study. It begins with an overview of mixed method research and the three common design

types: convergent parallel, explanatory sequential, and exploratory sequential. This study adopts an explanatory sequential design. The chapter then discusses four diverse epistemological perspectives associated with mixed methods research, postpositivism, constructivism, a transformative worldview, and pragmatism, with pragmatism selected as the most appropriate worldview for researching this context. It concludes with an explanation of the data collection procedures, ethical considerations, and data management strategies.

Chapter 4: Findings

This chapter presents both quantitative and qualitative findings of the study. It begins by exploring participants' entry into the field of HE in Japan, including their habitus, motivations, and background. The next section addresses participant's cultural capital and connections to workplace identity, covering themes such as integration, well-being, willingness to stay at their institution, and employment contracts. The chapter concludes by examining working conditions in Japanese HEIs, including known and unanticipated stressors, work-life balance, and argues that FTECs are not always the primary source workplace stress.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This chapter draws together the key findings and situates them within the existing literature. It begins by addressing RQ1, which explores perceptions of positioning with the field of HE in Japan, focusing on teachers' habitus, capital and departmental hierarchy. The following section expands on RQ1 by examining differences among part-time, full-time fixed-term contract, and tenured faculty. RQ2 and RQ2.2 are then considered, with a focus on how social and cultural capital influence integration and academic participation across employment types. The chapter continues with a discussion of institutional integration, willingness to stay, workplace satisfaction, and well-being. Finally, RQ2.3 is addressed through an analysis of socio-cultural, health, and economic factors affecting faculty on FTECs, arguing the role in which Bourdieu's theory of habitus, capital, and field play in these areas.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

The concluding chapter revisits the research questions and provides concise answers based on the study's findings. It highlights the study's contributions to the field of Japanese HE, particularly in relation to faculty employment and integration. The chapter also outlines the study's limitations and offers recommendations for future research and policy development.

Chapter 2: Literature Review: Exploring Higher Education Institutions, Faculty Experiences in Japan, and Fixed-Term Employment Contracts

This chapter introduces the context of this study which is faculty working on FTECs in Japanese HE, their integration within HEIs and the departments and the implications for well-being and professional trajectories. Importantly, the literature review treats contract status as a distinct factor shaping workplace experiences for both international and Japanese staff. The chapter begins by examining the introduction of English in Japan and the policy rationale for its inclusion in Japanese educational institutions. It then explores how international faculty became part of Japanese HEIs, focusing on integration and the challenges individuals face within the Japanese academic system.

The chapter then discusses labour and employment in Japan from 1947-2000, fixed-term employment contracts in general and academia, and gender in Japanese academia. I then examine the concept of well-being – conceptually within academia, and in relation to stress – and consider how well-being is connected daily working life. I then discuss the role of language, particularly Japanese proficiency, in workplace participation and collegial interactions. Next, neoliberal reforms and labour-market deregulation are discussed in relation to employment policy and workplace mobility in Japan. The final section outlines Bourdieu's habitus, capital, and field, which provide the theoretical lens for analysing relationships among contract status, integration, language, and well-being in Japanese HEIs.

2.1 Internationalization, Globalization, and English in Japan

The earliest influences of internationalization date back to the 1700s when education in Japan was in the beginning stages of being considered globally to make the country internationally competitive, while simultaneously protecting national interests (Seiya, 1965). Although Japan was not formally colonised, it was occupied by the Allied Forces (primarily the United States) from 1945-1952, a period that influenced post-war education policy and language reforms

(Seiya, 1965). Japan nevertheless developed as a largely monolingual nation-state throughout the Edo Period (1603-1868) and Meiji Period (1868-1912), with Japanese being remaining the dominant language of public life (Shimauchi, 2018). However, during the Edo Period, a landmark event took place; the Japan–US Treaty of Amity and Commerce, which was signed in 1858. Butler and Iino (2004) cite this treaty as "the most important incident influencing the introduction of English into Japanese society" (p. 27) as it led to the official start of Japan-US relations (Kitao & Kitao, 1995). These early encounters illustrate a recurring pattern: engagement with the international sphere was typically framed as a strategic, nation-directed project, an orientation later captured by the discourse of *kokusaika* (internationalisation).

From the 1990s onward, however, the terms of engaging with the international sphere were increasingly discussed not only as a matter of Japan internationalising itself, but also as an external process which Japan needed to adapt. Since the bursting of the bubble in 1990 and the ensuing lost decade and loss of national confidence, *kokusaika* has retained a broadly positive image but has become less prominent, with *gurōbaruka* (globalisation) overtaking it in media usage by 2006 (Burgess et al., 2010). Although the term globalisation circulated in English-language discourse from the 1980s, *gurōbaruka* only became common in Japan in the late 1990s and, for a time, appeared at roughly the same frequency as *kokusaika*. Hashimoto (2009) noted that a 2000 Prime Minister's Commission report may have been the first government publication to use the term globalisation (as *gurōbarizēshon*) – initially in a negative sense – while a 2001 White Paper marked its first use in a policy document (Burgess et al., 2010).

Conceptually, *gurōbaruka*, like *kokusaika*, functions as a multifaceted symbol, but it aligns more closely with globalisation as intensified interconnectedness, where actions in one place can have far-reaching effects elsewhere (McGrew, 1992). *Gurōbaruka* is framed as an external process over which Japan has limited influence, and media discourse often casts it in a more passive, less confident register tied to national decline and the need to readjust to a US-led economic order (Iwabuchi, 2005). Similarly, Yonezawa (2003) interprets HE

reform as an attempt to revitalise a society facing an identity crisis under the pressure of globalisation. While *kokusaika* also involves responding to external challenges, it more often implies an active project undertaken by Japanese actors, including efforts to protect or advance national interests; as Mouer and Sugimoto (1986) suggest, this activity is oriented toward the smooth promotion of Japan's national interests. In fact, a 1995 government poll found that after the ambiguous notion of international responsibility, respondents associated *kokusaika* primarily with Japan's prosperity, especially promoting Japanese culture and industries (Itoh, 1998).

Both internationalisation and globalisation played a role in the implementation of English in all levels of education. As such, English began appearing throughout the nation largely as an unofficial second language that came to be taught from primary to high school as a compulsory subject.

2.2 The Establishment of English and Foreign Faculty in Japanese Higher Education Institutions

After Japan's defeat in WWII, English entered the consciousness of the Japanese (Phillipson, 2009) in earnest. Japan re-entered the international spotlight in 1964 when it hosted the Tokyo Olympics. Although English-speaking assistants were available at event venues, the Games highlighted the limited English proficiency of the general population. By the 1970s and 1980s, many people had become dissatisfied with the pace of change in English education (Steele & Zhang, 2016). These pressures, heightened visibility abroad and growing awareness at home, helped set the conditions for a more explicit policy turn toward internationalisation in the 1980s.

Since 1983, government reforms have primarily aimed to preserve Japan's then-successful social and economic model. A year later, in 1984, Nakasone promised to turn Japan into an international country, a commitment that coincided with the establishment of the Educational Reform Council that same year (Burgess et al., 2010). One key strategy was to expand the intake of international students into Japanese universities (Sato et al., 2015) and in this

context, *kokusaika* became central to the rhetoric of HE reform. Nakasone's 1983 goal of attracting 100,000 foreign students thus marked an early step in his broader effort to internationalise Japanese education (Burgess et al., 2010).

As the 1980s gave way to the 1990s, governmental support for English teaching expanded (Yamagami & Tollefson, 2011), alongside MEXT's rollout of policies across primary, secondary, and tertiary educational institutions in response to internationalization (Sato, 2022). Despite sustained government-led reforms to strengthen English education since the 1990s, research suggests that overall proficiency gains have been limited, with communicative outcomes remaining a persistent concern (Steele & Zhang, 2016).

By the end of the 1990s, as Japan's economy weakened and lifelong employment practices eroded, fewer university graduates were hired because firms retained more middle management, which also reduced demand for university places as parents sought clearer employment guarantees (Kariya, 2011). At the same time, demographic decline lowered the number of university entrants, making admission less competitive.

As the new millennium dawned, the number of students studying abroad was declining, and the economy remained stagnant (Sato et al., 2015). The government's response to this was twofold: to raise the number of international students at universities and to strengthen English learning before entry into university. As a result, there was mounting pressure for students to use English (Araki-Metcalfe, 2011) and the policy goals emerged that envisioned all high school students being able to speak English by graduation, and university students would be able to use English at their future workplaces (Hashimoto, 2009). A plan was developed to create an internationalised hub within 30 universities through a governmental initiative called the Global 30 Program, designed to both educate and recruit international students in Japan (Burgess et al., 2010; Tsuneyoshi, 2005). With the growth of international enrolment came an increase in foreign faculty.

In 2002, MEXT released its Developing a Strategic Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities, which sought to expand English-focused university classes and strengthen students' English language skills for entry into the labour market after graduation (Nishikawa, 2021). This initiative adapted a MEXT proposal from 2000 called English as an official language (Hashimoto, 2009). Despite strong promotion of English within Japan, the language is not necessarily viewed favourably, and English learning is often characterised by a "love-hate relationship" (McVeigh, 2004, p. 211). While some individuals devote years to mastering English, many Japanese regard it as a waste of time. Across educational levels, there has been sustained debate over whether English is truly necessary, given that many people have little need to use it in daily life or struggle to use it effectively (Dubin, 2023). Nevertheless, the hiring of international faculty, especially at universities and colleges, has increased (Huang, 2018b) in part due to MEXT mandates encouraging Japanese society to learn English.

As Japanese HEIs expanded how much English learning took place, demand for international faculty also grew. Moreover, due to the declining birth rate and ageing population, the number of university-aged students has been decreasing (Yonezawa, 2019). To help bolster student numbers, MEXT implemented programs to increase the number of international students and faculty within Japan's HEIs (Wadden & Hale, 2019). However, even as international faculty numbers have risen, the changing HE landscape has generated tensions around institutional culture. Poole (2010) argues that Japanese professors in particular may struggle to reconcile academic norms with Western university ideals, potentially producing workplace friction. Japanese faculty are "seen to be divided into two contrasting categories, Weberian 'ideal types,' oriented either centripetally or centrifugally vis-à-vis the social world of the institution as they struggle either to maintain tradition or attempt change" (Poole, 2010, p. xii). Although this dichotomy is evident in many Japanese HEIs, both Japanese and foreign faculty, regardless of their orientation, work together to carry out their academic duties (Nishikawa, 2021).

2.3 Part-Time and Adjunct Teachers: The "Ronin" of Academia

Within Japanese HEIs there are traditionally two types of faculty members, full-time and part-time (Wadden & Hale, 2019), however these two groups can be further distinguished into standard and nonstandard employment (Nagatomo, 2016). Standard employment means that faculty receives tenure and social employment benefits. Non-standard employment is a type of employment that includes part-time, semi-permanent, limited-term, or non-tenure-track positions (Nishikawa, 2021). Many of these part-time, adjunct-style teaching positions have been dubbed the *ronin* teacher (Butler, 2019; Poole, 2010). Butler (2019) describes the characteristics of a ronin:

> For centuries, samurai who had lost their lords – or who didn't want to serve a lord – wandered Japan freely with their swords for hire. Some of these free agent warriors did quite well for themselves. In the twentieth century, university lecturers followed in their path. Welcome to the ronin teacher. (p. 26)

Thus, those without a permanent teaching position could be considered the ronin of academia; teachers who are wandering, working, and trying to find a permanent place within the field of HE in Japan. While Butler uses the comparison of the Ronin specifically for part-time faculty, I am expanding this comparison to include faculty working on FTECs, as the characteristics of these positions are similar in that neither permanently belong to a specific university. There may even be faculty who do not want permanent employment and are content changing jobs every five years.

Nevertheless, the ronin teacher is alive and well in the 21st century, and there are more than ever before as the market for university English teachers has become oversaturated in major Japanese cities such as Tokyo or Osaka. There are more teachers than positions oftentimes, and if unable to find even a limited-term employment contract, teachers must resort to working multiple part-time teaching jobs which can be the equivalent of having a full-time teaching position (Poole, 2010). International faculty, and in many cases Japanese faculty as well, often have difficulty finding work, however, this is not the only problem they face. If able to secure a FTEC, there is also difficulty

integrating into Japanese work environments. In the next section, the concept of integration will be discussed, followed by the integration into Japanese society and the academic workplace.

2.4 Integration of International Faculty and Insider-Outsider Status in Japan

2.4.1 Integration in General

Integration is a word that could mean many things in many contexts; however, it has been used mainly in refugee and migrant studies. Robinson (1998) says, "'integration' is a chaotic concept: a word used by many but understood differently by most" (p. 118). Castles et al. (2001) further this idea saying, "there is no single, generally accepted definition, theory or model of immigrant and refugee integration" (p. 12). To potentially clarify the misconceptions of integration, Ager and Strang (2008) developed a conceptual framework that includes ten indicators to reflect a basic understanding of integration: employment, housing, education, health, social bridges, social bonds, social links, language and cultural knowledge, safety and stability, and rights and citizenship. Alba and Nee (1997) consider integration from three theoretical perspectives, which reflect whether integration is observed as a bilateral or unilateral action: assimilation, multiculturalism, and structuralism.

Assimilation suggests that immigrants are expected to adapt to their host cultures. Multiculturalism "is considered desirable due to its fundamental denial of the assimilation theory and emphasis on the presence of immigrants" (Chen, 2022b, p. 2). However, it is questionable to what extent multiculturalism truly exists at workplaces, including academia. For example, internationalization policies at universities have been criticized as the source for economic and competitive gain rather than multicultural and bilateral adjustments or practices (Mok, 2007; Ota, 2018). Accordingly, this thesis frames integration as multi-dimensional and attends to structural conditions – particularly employment status and contract insecurity – that shape workplace inclusion in HEIs (Ager & Strang, 2008).

For the purposes of this thesis, integration is treated as a multi-dimensional concept. First, it can refer to sociocultural and linguistic integration into Japanese society (e.g., Japanese-language proficiency and everyday cultural participation). Second, it can refer to institutional integration within HEIs (e.g., participation in departmental decision-making, access to committees and resources, and a sense of collegial belonging). Third, it can refer to workplace integration shaped by employment status, where fixed-term faculty may be structurally separated from permanent staff throughout renewal uncertainty and differentiated roles. The empirical chapters focus primarily on institutional and workplace integration within Japanese HEIs, while recognising that sociocultural and linguistic integration can mediate, and be mediated by, workplace experiences. The analysis does not assume a one-way causal relationship between integration and well-being; instead, it examines how these dimensions interact across different positions in the field.

Key areas of integration, specifically employment, “are widely suggested as indicative of successful integration” (Ager & Strang, 2008, p. 169). Out of all the indicators within the framework, employment has been the most researched (Castles et al., 2001). Factors affecting integration include issues such as economic independence, future planning, developing language skills, self-esteem, bolstering self-reliance, and creating relationships with members of the host culture (Africa Educational Trust, 1998; Bloch, 1999; Tomlinson & Egan, 2002), and workplace involvement (Spencer et al., 2006). These factors play a critical role in the integration of migrants into their host cultures, which are dependent not only on the migrant themselves, but equally on the hosts cultures and their policies. However, employment may be the most important means to integration, allowing migrants to start the process of societal integration through their workplace connections.

2.4.2 Foreign Staff Integration in Higher Education

The use of the word integration in HE research is “largely informed by theoretical concepts from migration studies while also considering the practical characteristics of international talents” (Chen, 2022a, p. 3). International faculty

are migrants, thus, their integration into society and HEIs is not unlike the process of societal integration, and they are expected to adhere to academic practices already in place (Brown, 2019; Cooper & Stevens, 2002; Hopwood & McAlpine, 2007). Very little attention is paid to where international faculty come from and what experiences or knowledge they may bring from the cultures they originated from. There is an expectation to integrate, meaning adopt the rules and culture of the workplace where migrant faculty are employed.

In the case of Japan, government policy has been created to increase the number of international teachers recruited within the country, which successfully occurred with an increase in the number of full-time international faculty from 1.17% in 1983 to 5.00% in 2021 (MEXT, 2021). Although demand for foreign faculty is high, as MEXT pushes to increase the number of international teachers within the country, these individuals struggle to successfully integrate into their workplaces (Mihut et al., 2017). The inability to integrate has ties to Japanese culture, including the concepts of *uchi* and *soto*.

2.4.3 Uchi / Soto: Insider and Outsider Status in Japanese Culture

This section examines how cultural and organisational dynamics within Japanese HE–particularly insider-outsider relations, hierarchy, and language practices–shape the positioning, integration, and career trajectories of international faculty.

Japanese society has placed great importance on the concept of close internal group relations (*uchi*) with an eschewal of outsiders (*soto*) (Dale, 1986). This idea exists throughout Japanese society and reaches into all areas and fields within the country, including HE. For example, in a study of international faculty working in Japanese HEIs, Green (2022) identifies how integration is an issue for most and participants in his study mentioned how they had “limited interaction with Japanese faculty on a day-to-day basis” (p. 143), among other daily issues. Additionally, within Japanese HEIs, and amongst Japanese faculty, there is a strong social seniority-based system that exists between junior and senior academics and scholarly work is held in high regard, while

there is a clear social hierarchy between professors and students (Shin, 2015). This can be problematic for not only international faculty, but Japanese faculty as well.

In both Japanese society and HEIs, insiders tend to be trusted and accepted, while outsiders are often not trusted, treated with indifference, and occasionally discriminated against (Triandis, 1995). Boone et al. (2007) describe how “the cultural system not only defines how people tend to behave, but behaviour at the same time reinforces the cultural system in which people live” (p. 211), while Japanese culture “is organized around the view of the self as an interdependent and mutually connected entity” (Kitayama et al., 1997, p. 1260).

International faculty are often placed into lower-ranking positions within universities and generally finding it harder to progress than their Japanese counterparts (Siekkinen et al., 2017). Cultural disparities and an inability to integrate into local academic communities prevents international faculty from being able to gain tenure (Pherali, 2012). Kotake (2024) found that there are various underlying issues that affect international faculty working in Japanese HEIs. These compatibility issues were broken down into six areas: “(1) organizational goals, (2) systems and practices for hiring and evaluating faculty, (3) division of roles between international and Japanese faculty, (4) organizational support for international faculty, (5) organizational culture and atmosphere, and (6) Japanese society's overall system and values” (p. 900).

Likewise, the role of international faculty at universities is ambiguous (Brotherhood et al., 2020; Nishikawa, 2021; Seargeant, 2009; Shin, 2015) and international faculty are generally treated differently from Japanese faculty (Brotherhood et al., 2020; Huang, 2018b). Despite the alleged need for international faculty to help internationalize Japanese HEIs, their integration into the Japanese HE system is questionable at best (Yonezawa & Shimmi, 2015). Additionally, many Japanese universities only use the Japanese language, for example at meetings or in committees, which also hinders the integration of international faculty (Huang et al., 2019). When compared to their Chinese and Korean counterparts, international faculty, especially from America or Britain,

tend to be hired within Humanities and Social Sciences, while Chinese and Korean faculty are hired throughout various disciplines. American and British faculty members are also hired at lower ranking positions. They similarly have weaker Japanese proficiency and scientific achievements, resulting in lower status and integration in Japanese HEIs (Huang & Chen, 2024). Integration is necessary for international faculty to function not only in their workplace, but in society as well.

2.4.4 Integration and Employment Contracts

The literature frequently emphasises the importance of integration, both in society and in the workplace. Where faculty members experience limited integration within their universities, this may affect well-being and fixed-term employment status may hinder opportunities for workplace integration. At the same time, integration may operate differently at departmental and university-wide levels. Accordingly, integration can be understood as multi-dimensional and context-dependent, which may make it difficult to define consistently across institutional contexts.

A case study by Nishikawa (2021) suggests that, despite MEXT-led internationalisation initiatives (e.g., the Top Global 30 Initiative and The Top Global University Project), a disconnect exists between the intended implications of hiring foreign faculty and institutional practice. Many faculty are not integrated properly or at all, and these initiatives ultimately fail to properly integrate foreign faculty. Nishikawa describes:

> These policies may have created boundaries that policymakers are unaware of or choose to ignore. Such policies have also created off-shoots that have had adverse effects on non-tenured foreign faculty, which is the majority of the teaching faculty. One example is the overuse of limited contracts and the offering of irregular contracts to foreign faculty. Another is the lack of published procedures of how to gain tenure at ACU (university pseudonym) and other similar universities. (p.189).

This causes faculty to feel like outsiders not only because they have little power within the university, but because they are not permanently employed and are often not treated as equals within the Japanese HE system. Nishikawa (2021) argues how foreign faculty perceive themselves as lacking any opportunity for promotions to tenure-track, and other permanent positions was non-existent, which accounts for their absence of participation from departmental decision-making and committee work. The perception of foreign faculty was that university administration viewed non-tenured faculty as “temporary teachers” (p. 188) and “there is also a notion that this group of faculty are disposable and are only granted fixed-term contracts by institutions” (p. 188).

Chen (2022a) describes how these FTECs cause faculty members to feel like visitors in their universities and how they are less likely to be committed to their workplace. In her study, Chen (2022a) reported how one of the reasons that many universities hire employees on FTECs is due to a decline in funding and a need to improve scientific research output. Thus, junior faculty are hired on FTECs. FTECs are similarly “particularly destabilizing regarding work and immigration status” (Chen, 2022a, p. 485) and faculty on FTECs are rarely recognized by their universities, and individuals working on these contracts are often considered visitors in their HEIs. Faculty working on FTECs also have heavier workloads, and restricted professional development, creating ambiguous career prospects that can be detrimental to integration. Chen (2022a) also explains how Japanese exclusionism plays a role in the lack of integration of faculty working on FTECs:

> This largely explains the profound impacts of international faculty’s country of origins and previous experiences in Japan on their integration, contributing to informing their domestic knowledge of Japan, such as Japanese language, culture, and Japanese universities’ mechanisms and management, and developing their departmental relationships with their Japanese colleagues and students. This is detrimental to international faculty lacking domestic knowledge of Japan and leads to reduced departmental interactions and stunted professional ambitions (p. 485).

These two studies suggest that faculty working on FTECs are poorly integrated into their HEIs. This lack of integration can create a domino effect shaping not only their experience of working in universities, but also their interactions with colleagues and students, and how they are perceived by administrators and Japanese faculty within their HEIs. Besides integration, well-being is a key factor as to how faculty will integrate into their workplaces and cope with daily life, as well-being and the workplace are interconnected. In the next section, well-being will be considered at first in general and then in the context of Japanese academia.

2.5 The Concept of Well-being

One of the earliest attempts to define well-being comes from Shin and Johnson (1978) who called well-being "a global assessment of a person's quality of life according to his own chosen criteria" (p. 478) which is a definition that has continued to be used in the literature since its establishment (Rees et al., 2010; Stratham & Chase, 2010; Zikmund, 2003). Shortly thereafter, Diener (1984), who was one of the first researchers to study well-being and bring it to the foreground of scientific research, said "well-being is represented by subjective life satisfaction as well as positive and negative affect" (Hascher & Waber, 2021, p. 2). Despite these early definitions, "the question of how wellbeing should be defined (or spelt) still remains largely unresolved" (Dodge et al., 2012, p. 222) and "has given rise to blurred and overly broad definitions" (Forgeard et al., 2011, p. 81). The usage of the phrase 'quality of life' is perhaps unclear causing one to wonder what is quality of life? The World Health Organization (1997) defines quality of life as:

> An individual's perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns. It is a broad ranging concept affected in a complex way by the person's physical health, psychological state, personal beliefs, social relationships and their relationship to salient features of their environment. (p. 1)

Although this definition is succinct, a problem arose in which the term quality of life was being used interchangeably with well-being in various professions (Dodge et al., 2012), causing the actual meaning of well-being to become "conceptually muddy" (Morrow & Mayall, 2009, p. 221). However, the term well-being itself has allowed for psychologists specifically, to "de-medicalize" (Stratham & Chase, 2010, p. 5) the concept of health allowing for a separation between the idea of quality of life from illness (Dodge et al., 2012).

Over 30 years ago Ryff (1989) identified six characteristics that categorize well-being: self-acceptance, environmental mastery, autonomy, positive relations with others, personal growth, and purpose in life. There are various definitions of well-being in the literature (Dodge et al., 2012), and, according to Viac and Fraser (2020) it is "a concept that has gained increasing interest in the development of public policy worldwide since the beginning of the 2000s" (p. 15). Diener and Suh (1997) state:

> Subjective well-being consists of three interrelated components: life satisfaction, pleasant affect, and unpleasant affect. Affect refers to pleasant and unpleasant moods and emotions, whereas life satisfaction refers to a cognitive sense of satisfaction with life. (p. 200)

Similarly, McCallum and Price (2015) define well-being as something that:

> Encompasses intertwined individual, collective and environmental elements which continually interact across the lifespan. Wellbeing is something we all aim for, underpinned by positive notions, yet is unique to each of us and provides us with a sense of who we are which needs to be respected. (pp. 5-6)

Shah and Marks (2004) mention how "Well-being is more than just happiness. As well as feeling satisfied and happy, well-being means developing as a person, being fulfilled, and making a contribution to the community" (p. 2). Even though there have been multiple definitions and theories of well-being which have been theorized throughout the past 30 years, Ryff and Keyes (1995) argue how "the absence of theory-based formulations of well-being is puzzling"

(pp. 719–720), which, to this day, is still an issue when trying to understand and define well-being. There are many concepts and definitions of well-being, but there is no specific formula or theory to define the term.

While various definitions of well-being have been described in the literature, the general understanding of well-being has evolved through decades of research and interest about the topic. More recently, however, Snyder et al. (2011) suggest that well-being exists in three stages: emotional, psychological, and social. The emotional stage considers general life satisfaction, the psychological stage considers satisfaction concerning oneself and personal growth, and the social stage considers belonging and interrelationships. Additionally, terms such as flourishing (Seligman, 2012) and thriving (Su et al., 2014) have been incorporated into the psychological vocabulary of well-being. Through decades of research into what well-being is and what it defines, various models have emerged, one of which is the PERMA model.

2.5.1 The PERMA Model of Well-being

Well-being can be defined as a concept that includes elements of positive emotion, engagement, positive relationships, meaning and accomplishment (Seligman, 2012), which were converted into the acronym PERMA. Within the PERMA model, Seligman (2012) proposes that positive emotion is a subjective measure of “happiness and life satisfaction, and engagement is the subjective measure of being absorbed in a task” (Turner & Thielking, 2019, p. 939). Positive relationships and relationships with other people in general support well-being and “meaning is the subjective experience of belonging to, or serving something which you believe is bigger than yourself” (Turner & Thielking, 2019, p. 939).

When considering PERMA, social support is essential and highlighted by the engagement, relationships, and accomplishment elements. Having social support in the workplace has been influential not only with job satisfaction, but workplace engagement as well (Achor, 2013; Bakker et al., 2011; Orgambidez-Ramos & Almeida, 2017). Achor (2012) found that those who provide support to

their colleagues are more likely to be engaged in their work, satisfied at their jobs, and have better workplace relationships. Similarly, there is a higher rate of job satisfaction if people find their work meaningful (Duffy et al., 2018; Xie et al., 2016). Thus, well-being is important for job satisfaction, workplace engagement, and relationships with colleagues, which are key for maintaining well-being in the workplace.

2.5.2 Extrinsic and Intrinsic Well-being in Academia

Well-being is fundamental to an academic's productivity and development (Bentley et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2020; Pace et al., 2019; Ruggeri et al., 2020) and is considered essential to being a successful teacher, playing a necessary role in day-to-day life both inside and outside of the workplace (Viac & Fraser, 2020). Considering this idea more closely, interpersonal relationships are essential for well-being (Huppert, 2009) and the concept of workplace cooperation is a foundational element of healthy and ethical academic communities (Sasao & Hatta, 2016) and is linked to job satisfaction, potentially reducing turnover rates (Daly & Dee, 2006).

In addition, both extrinsic and intrinsic factors in the workplace contribute to well-being. Farag and Allen (2007) state extrinsic factors include "things that employees desire or seek from their work organisations and work context to satisfy their (lower order) physiological and social needs" (p. 192) including money, healthy working conditions, career advancement, and positive social relationships. Farag and Allen (2007) go on to say that intrinsic factors include "those things that employees desire or seek directly from their work activities to satisfy their (higher order) psychological needs" (p.193) including autonomy, variety of work, and the ability to use skills and knowledge. In addition, both extrinsic and intrinsic work factors are related to organizational commitment and workplace satisfaction and productivity. Thus, well-being could be considered the foundation for faculty to thrive in their universities and plays an important role in both student and teacher success (Day & Gu, 2009).

2.5.3 Well-being and Workplace Stress

Although there are varying elements that contribute to workplace well-being, there are a multitude of factors in academia that make the job even more stressful. These include job security and short-term contracts (Tytherleigh et al., 2005), heavy workload with little recognition or praise (Gillespie et al., 2001), increased numbers of students (Talbot & Mercer, 2018), an imbalance of work- and private-life (Kinman & Wray, 2013; Sasao & Hatta, 2016), higher burnout rate (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Lovewell, 2012), a decline in working conditions and salaries (Nagamine, 2018), and an imbalance of job demands and the ability to respond to them (Viac & Fraser, 2020). An important point to mention in relation to this study specifically is that teacher burnout rates are especially high in Japan (Maslach et al., 2001) due to the intense working demands placed on teachers. Nagamine (2018) mentions how teachers' emotional well-being is at risk because policy reforms fail to consider their working conditions, which is similarly problematic in Japan. Additional stressors specific to academia in HE includes the pressure to publish and conduct research (Kinman, 2001). Stress among researchers is linked to academic relationships and access to support (Castelló et al., 2017; Horta et al., 2019; Sabagh et al., 2018) and many consider the task of writing an article or submitting a piece of work for journal publication a burden, as opposed to an intellectual or academic activity, which causes mental exhaustion (Castelló et al., 2017).

In addition, foreign faculty deal with more stress than their domestic colleagues (Sakurai & Mason, 2022), many of whom work in a setting where English is not the primary language, which adds an additional layer of stress (McAllum, 2017). These stressors not only effect the teacher, but influence teaching efficiency (Talbot & Mercer, 2018). Moreover, stress has shown to affect cognitive functions including concentration, decision making, creativity, and the ability to solve problems (Kinman, 1998). Stress has also been linked to inadequate teaching approaches and a decrease in effective classroom teaching (Gokalp, 2012) and has negatively affected teachers' work performance, psychological status, and even physical health (Pithers, 1995).

2.5.4 Defining Well-being for this Study

For the purposes of this study, well-being is defined as “an umbrella term for psychological concepts such as life satisfaction, life purpose, and positive emotions, all of which are shown to be associated with decreased mortality and improved physical and mental functioning” (Feller et al., 2018, p. 136). It is clear that numerous factors effect faculty’s well-being, which plays an important role in their daily lives, how they function in the classroom, interact with their colleagues and members of the community, and their private lives. Considering this, well-being and integration are connected. If teachers feel they are integrated into their workplaces, this can contribute to their overall sense of well-being and work-life balance. However, if faculty do not feel integrated, their sense of well-being may decline or wane. Given that there are multiple stressors that effect well-being, and numerous hurdles for international and Japanese faculty to contend with regarding integration into their HEIs, one of the more prominent barriers that international faculty must deal with is understanding and being able to use the language of the host country.

2.6 Japanese Language Usage in Higher Education

As Japanese is the primary language in Japan, it is, unsurprisingly, the language of daily use in academia. Being proficient in the language can be of great value to non-native speakers working in Japanese HEIs (Green, 2022). Although Japanese language ability is not a prerequisite to gain tenure or receive a promotion, it is necessary and does have benefits within the HE workplace including the ability to communicate with faculty members and participate in various departmental activities. International faculty will have increased opportunities if they invest the time and energy in learning the language. In Green’s (2022) study of international faculty working in Japanese HEIs, he found that 45% of participants had studied the language prior to employment at their current HEI, 60% of non-tenured faculty could speak Japanese at an administrative level, meaning they could communicate with colleagues, office staff, and students on a daily basis, and 78% of tenured faculty were able to function at minimum on an administrative level in Japanese.

However, studying Japanese, or any language for that matter, is an ongoing process and is truly never-ending. A participant in Green's (2002) study mentioned how knowledge of Japanese is limited for foreigners and "'It's actually a huge barrier. Every time I needed to do an administrative procedure, I felt extremely clumsy and extremely annoying, and that was very frustrating'" (p. 142). International faculty who are not proficient in Japanese are often unable to participate in various aspects of academic life, department committees, and other activities that require a high level of language proficiency. This may prevent them from becoming integrated into the academic community and hinder involvement with colleagues and students (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017).

In addition, Japanese universities will directly or indirectly expect non-Japanese members of staff to improve their Japanese language abilities, which, in the long term, can be valuable in either advancing within the department or the field of Japanese academia. Japanese language proficiency plays an integral role in integrating into both a HEI faculty and society in general. While language proficiency plays a key role in the progression of international academics and faculty, one of the other obstacles that this group as well as their Japanese counterparts face is non-permanent employment contracts and contract renewals.

2.7 Global and Japanese Employment

2.7.1 Neoliberalism and the Demise of Standard Employment Contracts

Neoliberalism can be generally understood as "politically guided intensification of market rule and commodification" (Brenner et al., 2010, p. 184), which has slowly extended across the world since the 1980s. More specifically, neoliberalism can be described as "a theory of political/economic practices that views the market as a central metaphor for understanding organizational effectiveness, where competition, efficiency, privatization, and deregulation are valued" (Apple, 2004; Harvey, 2005; Stromquist, 2002, as cited in Schoorman & Acker-Hocevar, 2010, p. 10). Springer et al. (2016) state how neoliberalism

creates the “political, economic, and social arrangements within society that emphasise market relations, re-tasking the role of the state, and individual responsibility” (p. 2). Over the last two decades, there has been a rapid increase in labour instability caused by the proliferation of neoliberalism (Leathwood & Read, 2022), which has made its way into the global knowledge economy (Smith, 2022, 2024). Furthermore, Felt (2017) insists that “major temporal reorderings within academia stand in coproductive relationship with the growing number of indicator systems” (p. 54), referring to the neoliberal systems that have caused the shift in how academics are hired around the world.

McKenzie (2012) cites that “one of the critical manoeuvres at work in the globalizing practices of neoliberalism involves convincing us of its inevitability” (p. 167). Leathwood and Read (2022) further this point arguing that “the insecurities generated by casualisation, the proliferation of performance indicators and processes of audit can all be seen as part of this neoliberal temporal regime of governance” (p. 758). Imai (2011) emphasizes how this has caused a shift in “advanced industrial societies” (p. 4) to reform employment institutions directly in response to globalization. Ultimately, the steady increase of the neoliberal agenda has crept into every corner of society, sparing few industries.

There is evidence that most advanced economies are undergoing an increase of non-regular, precarious workers (Standing, 2009), however, the rate at which this type of precarious work is occurring varies in different countries (Lee, 2011). As the global employment landscape continues to evolve, few countries remain unaffected by the growing trend toward precarious or fixed-term employment. In Asia, South Korea (Lee, 2013) and Hong Kong (Chung, 2017) have moved towards employing faculty on fixed-term, non-permanent employment contracts.

Faculty in the West also contend with FTECs. Faculty in the UK (Arday, 2022; Leathwood & Read, 2022), the US (Batterbury, 2008; Park, 2012), numerous countries in Europe (Scheuring, 2022), Australia (Nair et al., 2024; Spina et al.,

2022), and Canada (Breshears, 2019; Gosine et al., 2021) face challenges with FTECs in HEIs. Fixed-term employment is a global issue in which faculty from all over the world must exist in unstable, non-permanent working conditions driven by the neoliberal agenda in academia. Prior to the discussion about precarious employment, it is important to consider labour in Japan before and after the War.

2.7.2 Japan Labour Pre- and Post-War (The 1930s-1970s)

From the late nineteenth century, Japan's labour market was marked by what can be referred to as a collar line divide: highly educated white-collar men (*shokuin*) in large firms and government offices enjoyed what later came to define regular employment (secure jobs without term limits, seniority-linked wages, bonuses, rotation, and promotion), while less-educated blue-collar workers (*shokkō*) received far fewer protections and were readily dismissed, meaning that, aside from white-collar men, most workers were effectively non-regular until the 1930s (Gordon, 1985).

In the interwar period, frequent labour disputes, despite unions enrolling under 8% of the workforce, pushed blue-collar workers to demand treatment comparable to white-collar employees, especially job security and semi-annual raises; these demands achieved partial success and helped entrench expectations of regular employment, which the state increasingly endorsed by the 1930s, notably through the mid-1930s Retirement Fund Law extending retirement benefits to all workers in firms with over 50 employees (Gordon, 1985). At the same time, debate intensified over a second divide, the issue of small and medium industry, as workers in smaller manufacturing firms demanded improved treatment, including raises, bonuses, severance and retirement pay, welfare facilities, and job security; during the Depression from late 1929, disputes increasingly centred on resisting dismissals in small as well as large firms (Gordon, 1991).

In the immediate postwar years, legally empowered unions rapidly narrowed the status divide between white- and blue-collar men, replacing staff members

(*shokuin)* and assistant (*kōin)* with a shared category of employee (*jūgyōin) /* company employee *(shain)* and extending monthly pay scales, bonuses, and job security across male regular employment. However, as growth resumed in the early 1950s, firms revived time-limited temporary contracts (three months to one year), which peaked in manufacturing at roughly 8% of workers overall and 12% in large companies (1959-1961); labour shortages from around 1960 enabled many temporaries to unionise and secure conversion to regular status, reducing male temporary work to 4% in very large firms by the late 1960s and 1.6% by the late 1970s (Gordon, 1985).

As this temporary worker issue among men was largely resolved, non-regular work was increasingly channelled into women's employment, especially part-time work, highlighted by the Labour Ministry's first detailed analysis of part-time labour in 1967, which noted that most part-time workers were adult women combining paid work with extensive unpaid domestic labour (Gordon, 1985, Rōdōshō, 1967). This feminisation of non-regular employment was widely normalised through the 1970s and early 1980s (Rōdōshō, 1981) and was reinforced in policy discourse that treated male breadwinning and women's subsidiary labour as the default, while cautiously endorsing equal treatment for a minority of women seeking careers (Ohira, 1980a; Ohira, 1980b).

Meanwhile, a separate dual structure divide between large and small enterprises persisted: economists described segmented labour markets with major gaps in productivity, wages, and security, arguing that most hiring occurred in a premodern sector (Arisawa, 1957; Hein, 2004; Genda, 2011). Although wage and income gaps between firm sizes narrowed somewhat during the high-growth era (including when bonuses are considered), disparities remained and later stabilised, even as subjective middle-class identification rose substantially (Chūshō kigyōchō [Small and Medium Enterprise Agency], 2005; 1975-nen SSM Zenkoku Chōsa Iinkai, 1975). Overall, by the 1970s the white-/blue-collar divide among men had largely been bridged and the large-/small-firm gap had narrowed somewhat, but gender segmentation deepened as regular employment was institutionalised primarily for male breadwinners. There were further changes in employment during the 1980s, which were

discussed earlier in the chapter, including Nakasone's initiatives to make Japan a more internationalized country, as well as maintain its strong economic standing (Burgess et al., 2013).

2.7.3 Changes in Labour in Japan from the 1990s

After the collapse of the bubble economy in the early 1990s and the subsequent period of stagnation, competition from neighbouring countries intensified (Watanabe, 2018). Consequently, Japanese employers sought to reduce the number of regular workers who benefitted from seniority-based wages and job security associated with lifetime employment (Gotō, 2011; Nakano, 2006). In turn, the Liberal Democratic Party government implemented labour market deregulation designed to expand the use of non-regular employment, including fixed-term contracts and temporary agency work (Watanabe, 2012, 2014, 2015). These new deregulation reforms caused "the institutions that supported the rise in standardized career mobility in Japan" to be "put under pressure for change and/or being dissolved" (Imai, 2011, p. 4). These regulations caused a change in the relationships between the state, firms, and labour, ultimately increasing privatization (Imai, 2011). In 1997, structural reforms were made to the fixed-term employment system affecting the post of lecturers in Japanese HEIs (Yamanoi, 2015). These reforms and deregulations that occurred in the latter half of the 1990s were not only a watershed moment in labour market policy (Mawatari, 2000; Suwa, 2000) but also eradicated a 50-year-old ban on private job placement and jettisoned occupational limitations (Tsuchida, 2000).

Towards the end of the 1990s, the government began to ease regulations on the implementation of non-regular employment by introducing amendments to the Temporary Work Agency Law and the Labour Standards Law in 1999 and 2003 (Watanabe, 2012). While these amendments were not exclusively implemented in the name of labour-market flexibility and did incorporate some safeguards for workers, their overall intention was deregulatory than protective. The changes in these laws caused a decline of political power for labour unions vis-à-vis employers, which resulted in changes in policymaking structures such

as the establishment of the Deregulation Committee, which favoured employers over labour unions (Watanabe, 2012). The Liberal Democratic Party's deregulation of non-regular employment from the late 1990s reshaped union strategy and contributed to social problems such as widening inequality and a growing working poor. In response, the Japanese Trade Union Federation began organising non-regular workers (e.g., establishing the Non-regular Workers Centre in 2007), but many enterprise unions still prioritise protecting regular workers, or insiders, over improving conditions for non-regular workers, or outsiders (Watanabe, 2012).

This deregulation created a divide within the types of workers that exist in Japan. There are two broadly categorized types of workers in Japan in general: regular and non-regular workers (Osawa et al., 2013). Imai (2011) mentions how "non-regular employment was deregulated under circumstances in which regular employment was continued to be protected" (pp. 35-36). Thus, regular workers have job security, are hired directly through a company, work full-time, and work voluntary, unpaid overtime for their companies. Non-regular workers are typically hired on fixed-term employment contracts, are not expected to work voluntary overtime, and are usually hired through outsourcing or dispatch companies (Osawa et al., 2013). The next section will focus on the fixed-term employment system in Japan.

2.7.4 Fixed-term Employment in Japan: Regulation and Labour-Market Dualism

Japan has a longstanding history of traditionally strong protections for regular, indefinite-term employees (Takeuchi-Okuno, 2010). Individuals who are employed on long-term, indefinite contracts are regarded as important members of a company, are hired immediately after graduating university, and are typically employed under secure, lifetime employment (Takeuchi-Okuno, 2010). Furthermore, the law in general has provided security for regular workers. For example, the Civil Code states that "an indefinite-term employment contract may be terminated by either party at any time, with two weeks prior notice (Article 627, Paragraph 1 of the Civil Code) and until recently

there has been no statutory provision that generally restricts dismissal" (Takeuchi-Okuno, 2010, pp. 69-70). The Labour Standards Law, mentioned in the previous section, commenced in 1947 and maintained a one-year limit for a single term contract for over 50 years and was not amended until 1998. This amendment was heavily opposed and was finally changed in 2003 (Sato et al., 2015).

However, non-regular workers, for example, those who are employed on part-time, temporary agency workers, or irregular working contracts, have had different workplace experiences when it comes to job security and stability. Takahashi (2024) describes how "non-regular workers are defined as workers who fall under the category of part-time, fixed-term contract, or temporary agency (dispatched) workers, in principle" (p. 8). Since the 1990s, there has been a rapid growth of atypical labour. Fixed-term employment has become a structural feature of the Japanese labour market, with more than one-third of workers now classified as non-regular (Takeuchi-Okuno, 2010). Even prior to the implementation of fixed-term employment, the gap between regular and non-regular workers had been increasing (Robinson et al., 2022); in 1984 it was at 15.3% and by 2025 this number of non-regular workers had increased to 37.3% as shown in Table 2.1 below (Statistics Bureau of Japan, 2025). One of the reasons for the increase in non-regular employees is due to the long depression in the 1990s caused by the collapse of the bubble economy, as well as global competition. This led many companies to reconsider hiring processes and to hire fewer regular employees and increase the number of fixed-term employees (Takeuchi-Okuno, 2010).

Year	Regular employees (10k persons)	Non-regular employees (10k persons)	Non-regular (% of total)
1984	3333	604	15.3
1985	3343	655	16.4
1986	3383	673	16.6
1987	3337	711	17.6

Year	Regular employees (10k persons)	Non-regular employees (10k persons)	Non-regular (% of total)
1988	3377	755	18.3
1989	3452	817	19.1
1990	3488	881	20.2
1991	3639	897	19.8
1992	3705	958	20.5
1993	3756	986	20.8
1994	3805	971	20.3
1995	3779	1001	20.9
1996	3800	1043	21.5
1997	3812	1152	23.2
1998	3794	1173	23.6
1999	3688	1225	24.9
2000	3630	1273	26
2001	3640	1360	27.2
2002	3486	1406	28.7
2003	3444	1496	30.3
2004	3380	1555	31.5
2005	3333	1591	32.3
2006	3342	1664	33.2
2007	3399	1728	33.7
2008	3381	1741	34
2009	3400	1704	33.4
2010	3381	1714	33.6
2011	3335	1820	35.3

Year	Regular employees (10k persons)	Non-regular employees (10k persons)	Non-regular (% of total)
2012	3338	1807	35.1
2013	3288	1873	36.3
2014	3232	1975	37.9
2015	3277	1985	37.7
2016	3341	2014	37.6
2017	3393	2020	37.3
2018	3437	2122	38.2
2019	3476	2169	38.4
2020	3533	2162	38
2021	3578	2065	36.6
2022	3568	2073	36.7
2023	3568	2112	37.2
2024	3599	2137	37.3
2025	3630	2163	37.3

Table 2.1 Employed persons by type of employment (10,000 persons) 1984-2025

Note. Values represent totals for both sexes and are reported in 10,000 persons. For consistency with earlier survey reporting, February observations are used for 1984-2001; from 2002-2025, values are January-March averages to reduce seasonal volatility. Non-regular (% of total) was calculated as non-regular employees ÷ (regular + non-regular employees) × 100. January-March averages are not available in this series for 1999–2001, so February observations were retained through 2001.

Source. Statistics Bureau of Japan. (2025). Labour Force Survey (long-term time series) [Table: Long-term time series table 9, employment by employment type]. Retrieved January 10, 2026.

Gordon (2017) states how the expansion of non-regular work is “arguably more of a poison than a medicine for Japan” (p. 10) and points out that around 40% of Japan’s work force falls into one of the categories of non-regular forms of employment. Gordon (2017) maintains that while the number of regular employees has remained constant throughout this time, the absolute number of regular employees “has been relatively consistent” (p. 15). Imai (2011) expands on this citing how in 1987 around 82% of total employment was regular employment, while 20 years later, in 2007, that number fell to 64%.

Fixed-term employees are disproportionately female, older, or re-employed retirees, and are frequently engaged in work comparable to that of regular employees while receiving lower wages, fewer benefits, and substantially weaker employment security (Takeuchi-Okuno, 2010). Employers rely on fixed-term contracts primarily to maintain workforce flexibility, reduce labour costs, and manage economic fluctuations, effectively positioning fixed-term workers as buffers within Japan’s dual employment system.

2.7.5 Fixed-term Contracts in Japanese Higher Education: Indefinite Conversion Rules and Sector Practices

There have historically been few regulations on fixed-term employment, beyond limits on the maximum length of a single contract term. As a result, case law has provided some protection by restricting employers’ refusal to renew contracts (i.e. placing limits on employers’ ability to end FTECs at contract expiry). The laws relating to fixed-term employment in Japanese academia are like those of other sectors within the country. However, in 2012 the Japanese government introduced a new law that stipulated that faculty working on FTECs for five consecutive years with the same organisation must be offered a permanent position if the employer intends to continue to employ the individual beyond the fifth year (Sato et al., 2015). This law was enacted to counter the growing reliance on contract and short-term hires. However, the employer may rehire the individual on the same terms after a six-month break in employment that begins before the sixth year, should the employer wish to do so.

Embedded in this law was a statement by MEXT that indicated “For teachers, researchers, technical engineers, and research administrators at universities, etc, and research and development agencies, the change to a contract without limit (tenure) was to be made after the fifth year, but this has been extended to the end of the tenth year” (Sato et al., 2015, p. 140). What is important here is that the amendment defines teachers, researchers, and technical engineers separately and does not restrict its scope to technical universities or specific departments, so it applies to all universities and all teaching staff regardless of nationality. Lecturers, post-docs, and researchers are usually employed on FTECs, without the opportunity for tenured or permanent positions (Green, 2022) regardless of the institution.

From this perspective, foreign language faculty can qualify for fixed-term employment for up to ten years under the amendment, however, universities are not obligated to provide tenure if an individual is employed for longer than ten years. It will be up to the individual HEI to determine whether the duration of a fixed-term contract will be one, three, five, or ten years. Part-time faculty’s employment contracts changed alongside those of full-time faculty. They are likewise subject to the same contractual limits and restrictions, even when they work at a single HEI (Sato et al., 2015).

Japanese labour law states that these faculty members are only able to remain in a position for a maximum of ten years prior to being offered a permanent contract (Carlet, 2017). In the case of ten-year contracts, universities that provide longer fixed-term contracts are atypical as most universities offer contracts that last three to five years. Green (2022) points out how universities are more likely to end an employment contract after five years rather than hiring a teacher or lecturer as a permanent employee. Tarumi (2025) reported how recently a total of 701 instructors and researchers working on FTECs at numerous Japanese universities had their contracts terminated before they reached the 10-year mark. This is the point in their employment contract when they would have been eligible to switch to indefinite employment contracts.

Across 18 major research universities, total instructional staff increased from 36,737 in 2013 to 37,255 in 2019, while fixed-term staff rose from 12,625 to 13,249 and tenure-track staff increased from 416 to 1,207 (MEXT, 2020). Although there was not a large increase in fixed-term employment during this time, the number of non-permanent faculty increased. Non-fixed-term faculty increased over 3%, while tenure track faculty increased just over 2% during this time.

Fiscal year	Total instructional staff	Non-fixed-term	Fixed-term	Tenure-track
2013	36,737	23,696 (64.5%)	12,625 (34.4%)	416 (1.1%)
2019	37,255	22,799 (61.2%)	13,249 (35.6%)	1,207 (3.2%)

Table 2.2 Fixed-term vs non-fixed-term employment at 18 major research universities

Note. Data from MEXT (2020, p. 4). Percentages calculated by the author as (n ÷ total) × 100 and rounded to one decimal place.

To supplement statistics within the sector that do not consistently distinguish fixed-term from indefinite employment across all universities, MEXT publishes a dedicated survey focused on fixed-term staff covered by the 10-year special rule linked to Japan's indefinite-conversion framework. While the standard indefinite conversion rule grants a right to apply for conversion after five years, the special rule extends the period to ten years for researchers and instructional staff at universities and research-and-development corporations (MEXT, 2025b).

In its latest report, MEXT (2025c) states that 95,330 people were employed via the special-rule eligible and on fixed-term labour contracts as of 1 April 2024. However, this figure should be interpreted carefully. It does not represent all

fixed-term faculty in Japan, as the analysis is limited to respondents who fall within the scope of the 10-year special rule. In addition, because the survey covers universities (including inter-university research institute corporations), and research and development corporations, and includes multiple occupational categories (e.g., instructional staff, researchers, technical staff, and related roles) (MEXT, 2025c). Therefore, its findings reflect a specific subset of fixed-term staff across these institutions, rather than fixed-term faculty nationwide.

2.7.6 Implications of Fixed-Term Employment for Academic Work and Career Trajectories

The General Union (2017), a teacher's union in Japan, cite how according to Article 19 of the Japanese Labor Contract Law, "even with a limited-term contract, contract renewal cannot be denied without reasonable grounds". Yet universities that have little knowledge of the law will devise various reasons to circumvent the five-year contract rule (General Union, 2017). This practice of evading the five-year contract law is commonplace at many universities throughout Japan. One way in which avoidance of this law is achieved is by what is commonly referred to in Japan as a "cooling off period". This is when the employer arranges "a six-month period of non-employment after which the university can offer the position back to the employee for another five years" (Sato et al., 2015, p. 138). Sato et al. (2015) argue that even if this type of arrangement can be agreed upon, it is questionable as to not only what the university would do in this six-month period, but how the teacher will find employment for such a short period of time.

Fixed-term contracts may have repercussions on integration into departments within HEIs, personal well-being, and mobility. Furthermore, FTECs have consequences on the universities themselves including high staff turnover rates (Miller, 2022), willingness to stay (Kim et al., 2020) and are one of the contributing factors of the declining birthrate in Japan (Sato et al., 2015). It is also expensive to re-hire faculty, costing the university roughly 20% of the salary of the position itself (Bliss, 2004). Even with a comprehensive knowledge

of the employment system, there is no definitive reason stated in the literature, or anywhere else for that matter, why universities continue to enforce these types of contracts, especially when there is no major benefit for the universities themselves, or the individuals employed on them.

The establishment of FTECs in Japan has had a direct impact on the research capabilities and output of many universities. This suggest a plausible contributing mechanism, but it does not by itself establish that FTECs are the primary driver of national-level publication or citation trends. Researchers are often unable to conduct long-term projects, as they are forced to leave their positions before reaching 10 years of employment. This has significantly affected research output, with Japan's global ranking for cited journal articles dropping from 4th to 13th place over the past 20 years (Tarumi & Nakamura, 2025). Representatives from MEXT reported that, as of 1 April 2023, there were 101,602 special-rule eligible fixed-term staff in scope (i.e., a snapshot total, not a count of newly eligible cases). Within that population, 8,230 were those who would have exceeded 10 years of cumulative contract duration by 1 April 2024 if renewed (i.e., the newly reaching-10-years subset for that period). As of 1 May 2024, among those 8,230 individuals, 734 had concluded an indefinite (open-ended) contract, 6,372 continued on fixed-term contracts with the right to request conversion, and 1,124 had ended their employment. Of those continuing on fixed-term contracts (6,372), 560 had exercised the right to convert by 1 May 2024 (8.8%) (MEXT, 2025a).

Despite the numerous problems with FTECs, Sato et al. (2015) suggest Japanese universities take matters into their own hands. Universities could draft contracts that include specific requirements to be fulfilled by the fifth year of employment. If these requirements were met, individuals would gain permanent employment. The universities would then take these drafts and submit them to their local labour office in writing; thus, each HEI would have their own specific employment requirements registered with the local labour office (Sato et al., 2015). If the appropriate conditions were met by the fifth year, then the individual would be eligible to be hired as a permanent employee.

Although this is only an idea for addressing the current employment problem, it is a notable one. It would give universities the authority and autonomy to choose the criteria for hiring faculty permanently while simultaneously creating a more stable work environment for faculty who choose to follow a path towards permanent employment. In actuality, many universities in Japan use a similar system for tenure track positions. However, for those working on FTECs, this type of system does not currently exist, though the benefits would certainly outweigh the various issues caused by the fixed-term employment system. With the decline in the regular employment, career mobility becomes more challenging, as staying employed takes precedence over other, potentially more important areas in an individual's career.

2.8 Career Mobility

Career mobility is of great importance to workers in any field. It is believed that workers on non-permanent contracts have more career mobility than those working on permanent employment contracts. However, this is not necessarily an advantage nor the situation in Japan. Due to the deregulation reforms that occurred in the late 1990s, job mobility among non-regular workers increased to around 19% of the total labour force. As the new century dawned, this number rose to an astounding 50.2% by 2007 (Imai, 2011). Despite this new era of job mobility, changing jobs in Japan was a precarious endeavour to begin with. Many young workers, women, and non-regular workers were displaced, leading to a constant rotation of new jobs that can be directly linked with a decline in working conditions and lifestyle (Urasaka, 2008).

Imai and Sato (2011) investigated how Japanese workplace mobility is considered through the lens of a mobility regime, which argues that postwar career paths for regular employees were institutionally organized around large firms' internal labour markets (stable employment, seniority systems, enterprise unions, and structured school-to-work recruitment), keeping external job-changing relatively low. However, deregulation and post-bubble restructuring expanded and diversified non-regular work (e.g., dispatch/temporary, part-time, contract), creating an added dual structure in which job mobility becomes more

common, but also more insecure and less upward, for non-regular workers. Due to these factors, Japan's labour market experienced a rise of non-regular employment to riskier, more unequal mobility.

This duality of the labour market, specifically workers on non-regular employment contracts, has caused marginalization "from the sphere of organized mobility" meaning "1) the exclusion of non-regular workers from stable mobility – that is, institutionally supported and predictable career mobility – and 2) the exclusion of non-regular workers from opportunities for upward mobility" (Imai and Sato, 2011, p. 30). This exclusion includes youth, women, and less educated people, promoting various forms of disparities, precarity, and social stratification. Neoliberalization can be cited as one of the reasons for the downward trend in career mobility, as well as employment in general in Japan, alongside globalisation and changes in the structures of industry (Imai & Sato, 2011). Over the past 40 years, changes in the employment sector have affected every industry and worker in the country, including those in academia and HE. Although changes have occurred when it comes to both fixed-term employment and mobility, the role of gender in Japanese academia is another area that has undergone changes, but not as successfully as the country had planned.

2.9 The Role of Gender in Japanese Academia

Academia in Japan was largely male dominated since the establishment of the Imperial University in 1886 until the end of WWII (Kimoto, 2015). There had been "absolute gender inequality in education in Japan until that point" (Kimoto, 2015, p. 101). However, The International Women's Year and United Nations Decade for Women in 1975 and 1976 respectively, both influenced gender issues in Japan. These events lead to the 1986 Equal Employment Opportunity Law for Men and Women and the 1999 Basic Act for a Gender-equal society (Arimoto, 2024; Kimoto, 2015), respectively, which promoted gender equality moving into the 21st century. However, despite the intentions to create a more gender balanced working environment, the number of female academics remains lower than in other countries. According to a 2020 OECD survey, while women accounted for an average of 45% of the academic labour market, they

represented only 30% of academics in Japan, a proportion that remains low by international standards (Arimoto, 2024). The average proportion of female researchers across all disciplines is 28.6%; however, this varies considerably by field: engineering (1.9%), sciences (15.1%), agriculture (23.3%), medicine and dentistry (27.9%), pharmacology and nursing (53.2%), social sciences (26.3%), humanities (37.5%), and other fields (41.9%) (Gender Equality Bureau, 2020).

When considering women's roles in Japanese HEIs, including private, national, and public institutions, there is pronounced gender stratification among full-time academic staff in Japanese universities. While women account for just over 35% of lecturers and 34% of assistant professors, their representation declines markedly at higher ranks, falling to 20% at the professor level and hovering below 15% among university presidents. Conversely, women account for slightly over 33% of part-time faculty (see Table 2.2) (MEXT, 2025b), which nears the number to lecturers and assistant professors. These patterns suggest that gender inequality in Japanese HE is not only a matter of employment precarity but is also embedded within promotion and leadership structures.

Academic Position	Men (%)	Women (%)	Total Staff
President	86.3	13.7	790
Vice President	80.5	19.5	1,737
Professor	79.9	20.1	71,496
Associate Professor	72.0	28.0	44,212
Lecturer	64.5	35.5	23,607
Assistant Professor	65.9	34.1	44,903
Part-time faculty	66.7	33.3	200,362

Table 2.3 Gender distribution of full-time academic staff by position at Japanese universities (FY2025)

Note. Data from MEXT, *School Basic Survey*, FY2025.

While academic rank is analytically meaningful for full-time faculty, rank titles among part-time staff vary considerably across institutions and are not consistently tied to promotion or career progression. Because of this, part-time faculty are analysed as a single employment category. Despite the efforts that Japan has put forth with various initiatives to increase the number of women in academia in Japan, systematic reforms must be put in place to deal with the deeply rooted gender gap that has been part of Japanese HE (Arimoto, 2024).

Until now, there has been discussions on the English language and faculty in Japan, integration in general and in academia, well-being in general and academia, the importance of language, employment contracts in Japan and Japanese HEIs, and fixed-term employment. In the final section of this chapter, I will discuss the theoretical aspect of this study, which is Bourdieu's habitus, capital, and field and link it to the previous sections in this chapter.

2.10 Higher Education and Japanese Higher Education Institutions as Bourdieu's Habitus, Capital, and Field

The theoretical aspect chosen to guide this research is Bourdieu's concepts of habitus, capital, and field. The work of Bourdieu, rather than some other theoretical lens, was chosen specifically to help understand the participants' integration and factors that contribute to their well-being in relation to FTECs as a unique positioning of participants in their field – the teaching profession in Japanese HEIs – which operates with certain principles that depend on individual's habitus and capital. These concepts have been widely applied when discussing interactions and relations in HE and HEIs (Bathmaker, 2015; Fudiyartanto & Stahl, 2023; Pherali, 2012; Kim, 2017; Smith & Colpitts, 2025), student mobility (Kim, 2011; Tran, 2016; Waters & Brooks, 2010), student experiences within the HE system (Aitken et al., 2019; Jones et al., 2020; Yu, 2020), and gender inequalities within Japan that can be linked to the HE system (Itashiki, 2024).

Following this rationale, Bourdieu was considered the most appropriate lens for this study, even though other approaches such as communities of practice,

CHAT (cultural historical activity theory), or academic trajectories (McAlpine & Amundsen, 2018) are applicable. However, Bourdieu's habitus, capital, and field were chosen because they help best explain the interplay between faculty's agency and structural conditions. Although research in the Japanese context has increasingly incorporated Bourdieu's theories (see Itashiki, 2024; Smith, 2022; Smith & Colpitts, 2025), their usage remains limited.

The first section explores habitus, its general relevance to individuals, and how it shapes one's ability to navigate and fit into different parts of society and the workplace, both within and beyond Japan. The second section examines capital, what it is, how individuals acquire it, and how it relates to habitus and field in the context of Japanese HE and beyond. The third section focuses on field, explaining its meaning and its connection to both habitus and capital.

2.10.1 Habitus

Bourdieu originally used the term habitus to describe an individual's disposition which allows or prohibits them from participating in various activities in daily life (Reay, 2004). Thatcher and Halvorsrud (2016) explain how "habitus can be interpreted as the learned dispositions actors acquire while growing up, or those practices and cultural competences that give actors a sense of the position they occupy in social space" (p. 139). Habitus is a concept that has been used to discuss class differentiation (Hong & Zhao, 2015), educational inequality (Edgerton & Roberts, 2014; Roksa et al., 2023), and individual's positioning in fields such as the social sciences (Costa et al., 2015) and educational research (Nash, 1999). When considering habitus in HE and HEIs, it has been used to discuss the formation of how Indonesian academics form their identity (Fudiyartanto & Stahl, 2023), academic mobility in the UK (Pherali, 2012), materials science and engineering faculty in the US (Mendoza et al, 2016), and the levels of engagement of faculty members in HEIs in both the UK and Denmark (Larson et al., 2009). Although habitus has been used for studies about HE and HEIs, it has also been the focus of studies about student mobility and experiences in HE (see Burke, 2016a; Jones et al., 2020; Webb et al., 2017).

Fundamentally, habitus is “the elements and aspects of someone’s life that they are born into, raised in, and surrounded by throughout their life that shape them as an individual” (Heffernan, 2022, p. 28) and is shaped by and influences practice (Bourdieu, 1977). Habitus describes a person’s distinctive characteristics, behaviour, beliefs, attitude, tastes, and how they develop and respond to life experiences (Bourdieu, 1989, 1994; Bourdieu & Wacquant, 2013). Bourdieu (1991) describes habitus as a set of dispositions that “generate practices, perceptions, and attitudes which are ‘regular’ without being consciously co-ordinated or governed by any ‘rule’” (p. 12). The concept of habitus on a personal level is not as complex as Bourdieu’s original meaning, however. Heffernan (2022) clarifies the meaning of habitus saying it is “the way an individual thinks, what they value, what they do as a pastime, what they aspire to achieve (among many other characteristics) rarely occur by chance but are often subconscious variations of what fits within their cultural trajectory” (p. 32). Bourdieu furthers this idea saying:

> Even when someone attempted to adopt a style, career, or way of life not necessarily aligned with their social class, that style career, or way of life was destined to occur with the realism of what still ‘fit’ within their social class. (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977, as cited in Heffernan, 2022, p. 33)

Habitus can be used to assess the past, present, and future of a group or individual, and similarly be used to accurately predict why the person is who they are and where they are heading in the future. Reay (2004) emphasizes how habitus “can be used to focus on the ways in which the socially advantaged and disadvantaged play out attitudes of cultural superiority and inferiority ingrained in their habitus in daily interactions” (p. 436). Habitus does cater to those who are more socially advantaged which is akin to individuals working on FTECs compared to those who are permanently employed.

Habitus is not the sole reason for individuals’ social advantages or disadvantages, because neither habitus, capital, nor field act in isolation. Bourdieu uses the term practice to describe how habitus, capital, and field

“define a situation” stating how “habitus, capital, and field are the components of a given relationship, but the result of how well someone’s habitus and capital are received in a field is referred to as their practice” (Heffernan, 2022, p. 34). Bourdieu (1986b) created an equation which explains the process:

[(Habitus)(Capital)] + Field = Practice

Within this formulation, habitus refers to relatively durable dispositions – ways of perceiving, valuing, and acting – that tend to persist over time but may be gradually modified through experience and changing circumstances. However, capital is relational: its value depends on the field in which it is mobilised, meaning that the same resources may carry different weight across fields. Practice, therefore, emerges from the interaction between and individuals disposition (habitus), the resources they can draw from (capital), and the rules and power relations of the field which shape “how much capital someone’s habitus holds in that field” (Heffernan, 2022, p. 34). Practice, including the likelihood of success within a field, emerges from the interaction of habitus and capital within the conditions of that field.

Habitus is not reducible to individual habits or personal choices; rather, it refers to durable dispositions shaped through social and cultural trajectories and prior participation in particular fields. In Japanese HE, processes of inclusion and exclusion are often understood through the insider-outsider distinction of *uchi* and *soto*, which can shape how faculty are positioned within departments and how easily they can access collegial networks and institutional resources. For faculty employed on FTECs, these dynamics may be intensified where individuals’ trajectories and resources do not align with what the department takes as normative – for example, differences in linguistic resources, institutional familiarity, and access to established academic networks. Prior research also suggests that hierarchical systems and tightly interlinked networks within academia can advantage those whose trajectories are more closely aligned with dominant institutional pathways (Hong & Horta, 2025). In Bourdieusian terms, habitus becomes well-informed through sustained participation in a field and through possession of the forms of capital most

valued within it; as Heffernan (2022) notes, this “is more about capital that influences perceptions within a field” (Heffernan, 2022, p. 37). Accordingly, analysing capital is essential for understanding how participants are differentially positioned within the field and how integration and success are made more or less likely.

2.10.2 Bourdieu: The Three Types of Capital and Higher Education Institutions

Bourdieu distinguishes among three broad forms of capital: economic, cultural, and social. Economic capital refers to financial resources and assets, including income, savings, and material resources that can be converted into other advantages. (Burke, 2016b; Heffernan, 2022). The relative value of economic capital varies by field: in contexts where it is strongly rewarded, it can structure opportunities and recognition even when actors do not openly frame money as important. Bourdieu conceptualises cultural capital as resources that are acquired through socialisation and education and that shape what is recognised as legitimate knowledge, taste, and competence within a field. As Heffernan (2022) notes, cultural capital can be understood as the “product of education” (p. 69), and it often contributes to social differentiation because access to valued cultural knowledge and dispositions is unequally distributed. Cultural capital may be embodied (e.g., dispositions, linguistic competence, and cultural familiarity), institutionalised (e.g., qualifications or credentials), or objectified in cultural goods and possessions, which can signal particular tastes and resources (Grenfell, 2014). In the context of Japanese HE, institutionalised and embodied forms of cultural capital (e.g., credentials, linguistic resources, and institutional familiarity) are likely to be especially consequential for positioning and integration.

Cultural capital can be divided into two groups, the first of which is institutional capital. Institutional capital considers where an individual went or goes to school and the prestige of that institution. The institution someone attended will influence where they will be able to eventually become employed and contributes to the trajectory of their career. Educational background will have a

lasting impact on one's career as a university academic (Heffernan, 2022). In Japan, this occurs when an individual attends a prestigious university as an undergraduate, then goes on to do their post-graduate work at the same university, laying the foundation for them to be hired by the department they have studied in, reinforcing meritocratic tendencies (Bourdieu, 1997, 2006; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; Smith & Colpitts, 2025).

Educational capital considers academic skills and ability. If someone attended a prestigious university, they likely hold a specific skill set that the university taught the individual, for example research or teaching (Heffernan, 2022). Educational capital can similarly be tied to meritocratic tendencies and manifests itself in the hiring processes in Japanese HEIs. Educational capital is relevant to Bourdieu's (2000) concept of reproduction, as HEIs will attempt to hire individuals who can reproduce people and ideas that already exists in these departments.

Social capital considers an individual's social network, and who they know in the field who holds capital (Heffernan, 2022). In fact, knowing someone is not the only reason for building social capital, but why that person is worth knowing or associating with. Bourdieu (1986a) explains that social capital is "made up of social obligations ('connections'), which is convertible, in certain conditions, into economic capital" (p. 242). Bourdieu elaborates on this saying:

> The network of relationships is the product of investment strategies, individual or collective, consciously or unconsciously aimed at establishing or reproducing social relationships that are directly usable in the short or long term, i.e., at transforming contingent relations, such as those of neighborhood, the workplace, or even kinship, into relationships that are at once necessary and elective, implying durable obligations subjectively felt (feelings of gratitude, respect, friendship, etc.) or institutionally guaranteed. (1986a, p. 248)

The influence of connections is observable throughout HE in Japan, especially within hiring practices, as an individual will have a greater chance to be hired if

they have connections with someone or various individuals working at the hiring university (Larson-Hall & Stewart, 2019). Capital can be considered a form of control or influence, which is a resource that can be exploited by those who hold power (e.g., tenured professors, deans, university presidents etc.). For the purposes of this study, social capital will be considered regarding faculty's ability to make social connections as well as an understanding and mastery of the specific field of HE in Japan as a means to advance and improve their status in the field. The more social and cultural capital an individual has, the more opportunities they will have to advance in the field. Bourdieu (1986a) remarks how those who already have social capital, which could be in the form of connections, language knowledge, or background, are able to obtain even more cultural capital (Aitken et al., 2019).

Having or lacking cultural capital is akin to the idea that "the rich get richer and the poor stay the same" creating a "snowball effect" (Heffernan, 2022, p. 72) when it comes to advancing in the field. Those who possess the necessary cultural capital are more likely to advance within their field, leveraging it to achieve upward mobility, whether within their university department or when seeking new academic positions. Bourdieu (1977) suggests that when many individuals in a field possess the same form of capital, its value diminishes. Heffernan (2022) illustrates this with the example of the doctoral degree (e.g., PhD, EdD), arguing that although earning such a degree is a significant achievement, it has become increasingly common, and in some countries, even expected, for advancing in an academic career. This is becoming more commonplace in Japan specifically, as holding a master's degree is the bare minimum for an individual to find employment in a HEI, and at minimum a PhD is required to be considered for tenure.

2.10.3 The Chosen Ones: Reproduction and Capital

Bourdieu's (2000) idea that capital attracts capital, particularly within the realm of social capital, is central to his theory of social reproduction. However, he argues that this process does not originate with those at the top of a field's hierarchy, but rather with individuals lower in the hierarchy who attempt to

distinguish themselves from one another. Bourdieu remarks how individuals are aware of the capital they have, and it is not something that is undetermined, secret, or invisible (Heffernan, 2022). Unlike a lottery, this is not a luck-based situation, nor do certain people have an easier path than others for unknown reasons, and “reproduction is about people knowing they will be, or will likely be, recognised for their efforts” hoping that “their investment pays dividends” (Heffernan, 2022, p. 73). These actions are typically carried out by those who are aware of the capital they hold (Atkinson, 2012; Bourdieu, 2000; Heffernan, 2020; Mills, 2008). As a result of this self-awareness, an individual’s capital is noticed by others within the field’s hierarchy.

Individuals who possess greater capital within a field often recognize and support those with less capital, thereby facilitating their upward movement within the field’s hierarchy (Heffernan, 2022). For instance, in academia, a tenured professor might recognize a non-tenured lecturer who excels at teaching, has a solid publication record, and speaks Japanese fluently, yet still lacks a permanent position. The tenured professor may then take the initiative to secure permanent appointment for the lecturer within their department. In this way, individuals with more capital are frequently pursued, either actively or passively, and ultimately hired due to the capital they have accumulated. Those who are considered ‘the chosen ones’ contribute to increasing a network’s capital, thereby elevating the network itself, ultimately to the benefit of the group (Bourdieu, 1989). In the context of Japan, such a hire would benefit not only the department but also the academic program to which the individual is appointed. Heffernan (2022) argues that individuals become ‘the chosen ones’ not solely due to the capital they possess, but also because of their habitus. Regardless of whether they are consciously aware of it, these individuals are often elevated within the university’s departmental hierarchy. Heffernan (2022) further contends that, within academia, the most influential forms of capital include social connections, publications, grants, awards, and one's position within the institutional hierarchy.

Having these forms of social capital can contribute not only to how an individual is perceived and moves within the social hierarchy within an HEI or department,

but also their well-being. Thus, social capital and well-being are connected. Having social capital and capital in general within the workplace leads to positive effects on health and well-being (Murayama et al., 2012) and evidence from research suggests that while social capital alone is important (see Putnam, 1995; Wilkinson & Pickett, 2009), it is equally as important for positive health and well-being (Field, 2017). There are numerous facets to how social capital can affect someone and their career trajectory, as well as their health and well-being.

2.10.4 Field

To understand interactions between people, and explain social events or phenomenon, Bourdieu deemed it necessary to consider the social space in which these events took place (Thomson, 2014). Bourdieu believed it was important to analyse this social space in relation to its historical, local, national, and international contexts to understand how previous information about specific events had been perceived by individuals, and "whose interests were served by those knowledge-generation practices" (Bourdieu, 1993, 1994, 2004 as cited in Thomson, 2014, p. 65). Bourdieu conceptualises a field as a structured social space in which actors struggle over valued resources (capital) and over what counts as legitimate knowledge and practice (1977, 1990b; Bourdieu & Wacquant, 2013). This framing is useful here because it foregrounds how institutional hierarchies shape recognition, legitimacy, and access to resources within Japanese HE.

Within the context of this study, the concept of *field* refers to participants' integration both into their university departments and into the broader discipline of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) within Japanese HEIs. Bourdieu (1990b) likens the field to a sporting arena, where various actors occupy different roles within an implicit hierarchy, from those working behind the scenes to referees and players visible on the field (Thomson, 2014). Social fields, according to Bourdieu, are dynamic and continuously evolving. They are also inherently competitive, allowing only certain individuals or groups to gain advantage and ascend the hierarchical structure (Bourdieu, 1998). This

competitive nature is evident across social spaces and particularly pronounced in academia. In the Japanese context, the academic field is marked by intense competition not only for tenured positions but for stable employment in general. In recent years, securing even FTECs has become significantly more difficult than it was a decade ago.

2.10.5 Fields in Academia

Bourdieu's concept of field has received comparatively less attention than his more widely discussed concepts of capital and habitus. Nevertheless, several studies have placed field at the center of analysis, particularly within academic contexts. For example, field has been used to examine institutional strategies and their relationship to inequality in South African HEIs (Naidoo, 2004), HE participation in England (Bathmaker, 2014), English HE policy (Maton, 2005), the organization of academic fields and subfields in the UK (Beattie, 2018), and the general development of HE as a research field (Clegg, 2012). Altbach (2014) similarly highlights the emergence of HE itself as a distinct academic field.

When considering the intersection of field, academia, and international faculty, Luxon and Peelo (2009) investigate how habitus and capital shape the experiences of non-UK nationals working in British HE, identifying various challenges, including linguistic, cultural, and workplace barriers. Zhang et al. (2022) report that Chinese academics educated in Western institutions often face difficulties reintegrating into Chinese HEIs, struggling to adapt to differing field expectations. However, there is a notable scarcity of literature focusing specifically on field within the context of Japanese HEIs, with only a few relevant sources found (e.g., Arimoto, 2006; Teichler, 1997; Yoshida & Mori, 2021). Much of the existing literature tends to reference field only in passing or outside the full framework of Bourdieu's theory.

Within academia, departmental fields are hierarchical. Professors and associate professors typically occupy higher positions than lecturers or part-time faculty (Heffernan, 2022). As Heffernan notes, "fields are not equitable places" (2022,

p. 51); individuals enter at different positions based on their habitus, and structural inequality is inherent. Many international faculty in Japanese HEIs begin their careers with a deficit in social and cultural capital, such as limited language proficiency or lack of knowledge of institutional norms, placing them at an initial disadvantage (Thomson, 2014). These faculty members often lack full integration into their work environment and must invest significant effort to assimilate into the existing departmental hierarchy (Kim et al., 2012; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2010).

This hierarchy is especially evident in Japanese HEIs. Those with permanent positions, typically professors or associate professors, often hold greater authority in departmental decision-making than associate lecturers, lecturers, or part-time staff (Gosine et al., 2021). In line with this study's focus, Fujimura (2015) cites that permanently employed faculty usually have greater influence over departmental policies and practices. Their status also affords them more research funding, reduced teaching loads, and greater opportunities for professional development. In contrast, individuals employed on FTECs generally have minimal input in decision-making, receive fewer research resources, and carry heavier teaching responsibilities (Miller, 2022), limiting their upward mobility in the departmental hierarchy.

2.10.6 Fields and Reproduction in Higher Education Institutions

Given the existence of hierarchies within faculties at HEIs, Bourdieu's concept of reproduction becomes especially relevant. Bourdieu (2000) describes reproduction as a process by which members of a field valorise their own forms of capital, seeking to select and promote others who possess similar capital. This results in a self-perpetuating cycle that restricts access to the field and reinforces existing power structures (Heffernan, 2022). In academia, reproduction occurs at multiple levels. Individuals with more publications, conference presentations, and a background aligned with institutional norms or expectations are more likely to be selected for advancement than those without these attributes.

In the Japanese context, this pattern is further entrenched by what Wang (2024) refers to as “academic or institutional inbreeding” (p. 16) where elite universities offer tenure-track positions to their own doctoral graduates. This practice, also noted by Horta et al. (2011), applies predominantly to Japanese nationals and effectively excludes international faculty from such opportunities. As a result, reproduction within the field serves not only to reinforce academic hierarchies but also to restrict access based on nationality and institutional affiliation.

The trajectory of any field is shaped by those who occupy it and the forms of capital they prioritize. As Bourdieu (1984) explains, learning the logic of a field involves acquiring specific forms of knowledge, language, skills, and interests that are valued within that space. Similarly, faculties within universities mirror the structure of fields: they are hierarchical and unequally distributed in terms of influence and status. Regardless of institutional context, departmental hierarchies tend to be preserved in ways that ensure their own future reproduction. Those lacking the appropriate habitus or capital are often excluded from upward mobility, both within departmental settings and more broadly academia.

These dynamics are particularly evident in Japanese HEIs, where hierarchies regulate access to influence and advancement. As discussed earlier, career mobility is critical for navigating the academic field. However, those employed on FTECs face significant structural barriers. Compared to tenured or permanent positions, FTECs provide limited opportunities for professional development, participation in decision-making, and accumulation of valued capital. As Yamanoi (2015) argues, FTECs contribute little to the advancement of the field or to the mobility of those occupying these roles.

2.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter synthesised the literature on internationalisation and English in Japanese HE, international and Japanese faculty experiences, integration, well-being, and employment practices. Across these strands, the literature is

substantial but often segmented by focus and level of analysis. Internationalisation research explains macro-level drivers – policy, institutional strategy, and the expansion of English-medium and international programmes – yet frequently treats academic labour conditions as contextual rather than analytically central. By contrast, research on international and non-permanent faculty experiences provides rich accounts of marginalisation, uneven participation, and role stratification, but often stops short of specifying the institutional mechanisms through which inclusion and exclusion are organised. Work on well-being, meanwhile, demonstrates consistent associations between workplace relationships, belonging, stress, and occupational functioning, though it is not always connected to contract status as a structural condition shaping everyday work and futures.

A recurring pattern across the literature reviewed here is that integration is consequential but variably conceptualised. Studies variously operationalise integration as collegial relationships, recognition and voice in departmental life, access to information and decision-making, participation in research cultures, or broader social belonging. This variation is important because it can obscure the extent to which integration is shaped not only by language and cultural knowledge but also by formal employment arrangements that regulate continuity, role expectations, and legitimacy within departments. The literature also suggests that integration and well-being are interlinked: difficulties forming supportive relationships and achieving meaningful participation can compound uncertainty and stress, while strong collegial ties can buffer occupational strain. In the Japanese HE context, these dynamics are frequently intensified by the overlap between workplace inclusion and wider social belonging, particularly for international faculty.

At the same time, several gaps remain in existing research. First, relatively little research explicitly connects FTECs to integration and well-being, rather than treating contract status as an individual circumstance or background variable. Second, research has tended to prioritise international faculty experiences, while Japanese faculty employed on similar fixed-term conditions are less visible, limiting comparative insight into how contract status structures

participation across groups. Third, although Bourdieu's concepts are widely used in HE research, they are less often used to connect employment structures to the everyday processes through which inclusion, recognition, and professional futures are produced within Japanese academic settings.

This thesis brings these strands together by treating contract status as a structuring condition of departmental participation, recognition, and access to valued resources. Using Bourdieu's concepts of habitus, capital, and field, it frames integration not as an outcome of individual adaptation alone, but as a patterned effect of how opportunities to accumulate and convert valued forms of capital are organised across contract types. In doing so, the thesis provides an integrative account of how contractual arrangements intersect with workplace relationships, and institutional hierarchies to shape integration, well-being, and professional trajectories in Japanese HE.

The next chapter outlines the methodology used to address these gaps through an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, combining a national questionnaire with in-depth interviews to connect broad patterns to lived experience across international and Japanese faculty.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter presents the methodological framework underpinning the mixed methods approach adopted for this study. It begins by explaining the rationale for selecting a mixed methods design over purely qualitative or quantitative approaches. I then explore four key ontological perspectives commonly associated with mixed methods research, ultimately justifying the choice of pragmatism as the guiding philosophical stance for this study. Following this, the specific mixed methods design is outlined, along with a detailed description of the research methods, data collection procedures, participant selection, and data analysis techniques. Ethical considerations are also addressed. The chapter concludes with a summary of the methodology and its alignment with the study's overall research aims.

3.1 Mixed Methods Research Approach

A mixed methods research design was implemented for this study, favouring qualitative methods, as the quantitative methods component plays a secondary role (Howe, 2004). In figure 3.1 below, the capitalized "QUAL" is used to indicate the dominance of the qualitative part of the study, while the lowercase "quan" denotes the supporting role of the quantitative aspect of the study. This approach of relying on the qualitative data was used because combining methods can incorporate a range of perspectives and provide more context-sensitive explanations than either method alone (Howe, 2004). Furthermore, initially using quantitative methods "help qualitative researchers define a population of interest based on specific research findings gathered from the quantitative study" (Hesse-Biber, 2010, p.65). A mixed methods research approach was used because it "provides a more complete understanding of a research problem than either approach alone" (Creswell, 2014, p. 32).

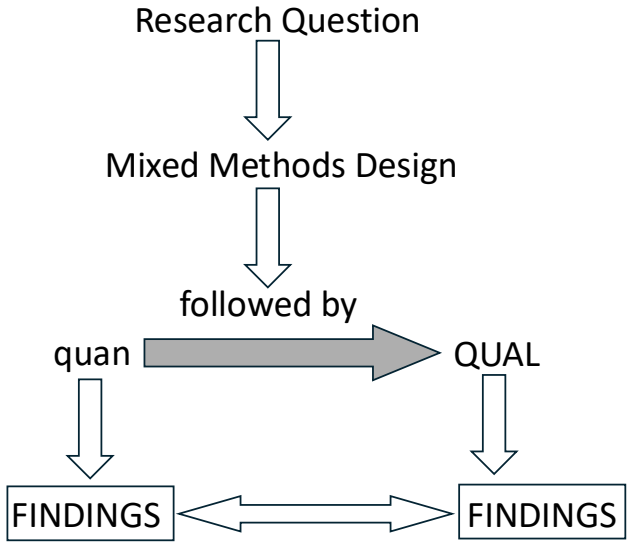

Figure 3.1 Quantitative to Qualitative Exploratory Sequential Study

Note. Adapted from “Mixed Methods Research: Merging Theory with Practice,” by Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 106.

3.2 Types of Mixed Methods Research Designs

Within mixed methods research there are three types of research design: convergent parallel, explanatory sequential, and exploratory sequential mixed methods. In a convergent parallel mixed methods design, the researcher gathers both qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously, analyses the data separately, then “compares the results to see if the findings confirm or disconfirm each other” (Creswell, 2014, p. 269). An explanatory sequential mixed methods design uses the quantitative data from the initial part of the research to “inform the types of participants to be purposefully selected for the qualitative phase and the types of questions that will be asked of the participants” (Creswell, 2014, p. 274). In addition, Hesse-Biber (2010) mentions how “researchers view the quantitative component as in the service of the qualitative component which is considered primary” (p. 106). Finally, an exploratory sequential mixed methods design is the opposite of the explanatory design as it begins with a qualitative approach which then informs the

quantitative part of the research design. In the next section, the reasoning for choosing an explanatory sequential mixed methods design will be discussed.

3.2.1 Explanatory Sequential Mixed Method Design

Upon considering the three different types of mixed methods approaches, an explanatory sequential mixed methods design was selected. The study was designed to begin with the collection and analysis of questionnaire data, which would then inform the qualitative interviews. Explanatory sequential mixed methods were used to garner a general understanding of participant views and then explore them more in depth through interviews. The process consisted of initially distributing a quantitative questionnaire, followed by qualitative interviews with a purposive sub-sample of questionnaire respondents. Interviewees were selected primarily on the specificity of their open-ended survey responses (e.g., concrete examples of working conditions, renewal - practices, workload, or professional trajectories) rather than on emotional tone, and with attention to representing variation in contract status and background where possible. The most important part of this research was the interviews; however, the questionnaires were also important because they helped guide the interviews.

3.2.2 Epistemological Perspectives in Mixed Methods Research

In mixed methods research, four diverse philosophical worldviews, or epistemological perspectives, exist: postpositivism, constructivism, a transformative worldview, and pragmatism (Creswell, 2014). Postpositivism asserts that “knowledge is conjectural (and antifoundational)—absolute truth can never be found. Thus, evidence established in research is always imperfect and fallible” (Creswell, 2014, p. 36). Constructivism cites “individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. Individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences—meanings directed toward certain objects or things” and the researcher is looking for the “complexity of views” (Creswell, 2014, p. 37). A transformative worldview states “research inquiry needs to be intertwined with politics and a political change agenda to confront

social oppression at whatever levels it occurs" (Creswell, 2014, p. 38). Finally, "pragmatism as a worldview arises out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions (as in postpositivism)" (Creswell, 2014, p. 39). Within pragmatism, there is consideration for the process, whether it works, and solutions to the problems (Patton, 1990). Instead of the focus being on methods, the focus is on the problem, and researchers use all existing methods to recognize the problem (Rossman & Wilson, 1985). Considering these four worldviews and their relation to answering the RQs, pragmatism was chosen as it is the most appropriate for this study, which focuses on the problem of FTECs and how they affect integration, well-being, and workplace satisfaction in Japanese HEIs. The next section will discuss in depth why pragmatism was chosen.

3.2.3 Pragmatism as a Worldview for Researching University Faculty

The rationale for selecting pragmatism is based on its suitability for researching university faculties agency, workplace integration, and their experiences working on, or having worked on, FTECs. Pragmatism allows for "the potential and possibility to work back and forth between qualitative data and quantitative data, which often view as incompatible. It offers researchers the opportunity to search for useful points of connection between these two types of data" (Tran, 2017, para. 4). Furthermore, a pragmatic approach argues that it is impossible to be entirely subjective or objective when conducting research (Tran, 2017). In a pragmatic approach, it is the researcher who makes decisions "about what is important and what is appropriate, and those choices inevitably involve aspects of our personal history, social background, and cultural assumptions" (Morgan, 2007, p. 69). Pragmatism is based on the belief that "theories can be both contextual and generalizable by analyzing them for transferability to another situation" (Creswell, 2009, pg. 4). Thus, pragmatism is the most practical method for this study because both quantitative and qualitative methods were used and there were often instances when both qualitative and quantitative data were examined to find connections between both sets of data.

Peirce, one of the founders of pragmatism, suggested that what is important is to explore and notice how things relate, including relating different methods (Fisch, 1986; the Peirce Edition Project, 1998). Pragmatism similarly aligns with mixed methods but also links to the relational sociology of Bourdieu indirectly. This study adopts pragmatism as a guiding approach, alongside Bourdieu's concepts of habitus, capital, and field, to address the research questions. Pragmatism provides a broad perspective by highlighting relational connections, while Bourdieu's framework allows for focused analysis of three distinct areas. In the next section, I will discuss my positionality and study context.

3.3 Study Context

Faculty in Japanese HEIs often find themselves employed on FTECs, especially in the early to mid-stages of their careers. In most Japanese HEIs, faculty are typically hired on three to five-year FTECs, however more recently the Japanese labour law has changed to allow universities to provide 10-year fixed-term contracts (Cotter & Sato, 2017), though universities that provide longer FTECs (10 years or more) are non-existent. It is worthwhile to point out that most "full-time foreigners are contracted" (Burrows, 2007, p. 65), however, this is also the case for Japanese faculty working in the same positions (McCrostie & Spiri, 2008; Miller, 2022). These contracted positions are typically either teaching only or teaching and research contracts, however the priority is teaching. Many universities might view these types of contracts as flexible, providing a rotating foreign language faculty. This gives individuals the opportunity to work at one or more universities to see if teaching in the Japanese HE system is indeed the career for them. Conversely, the constant rotation of faculty can negatively affect teamwork, relationship building, and has the potential to spill over into the classroom, causing a loss in teaching quality (Cotter & Sato, 2017). This is especially true in the later years of an employment contract when individuals typically focus their attention on finding employment. In the next section, I will argue my positionality, and why I chose to undertake this topic as the focus of my research.

3.4 Researcher's Positionality

One of my primary motivations for undertaking this research on FTECs stemmed from my own experience working under such conditions, as previously discussed in the beginning of this thesis, and from observing the impact of FTECs on colleagues around me. Faculty in these positions often appeared nomadic, constantly on the move, unable to settle at a single HEI. I personally find the instability of FTECs to be a significant source of stress, whereas others seemed less affected. In my experience, the first two years of a five-year contract offer some sense of security, but beyond that, concerns about securing future employment become increasingly urgent. This uncertainty prompted me to explore whether others shared similar feelings and whether my own anxieties were common or perhaps unwarranted.

As I conducted interviews and reviewed questionnaire responses, it became clear that my experiences were not isolated. Many participants expressed similar sentiments, though their circumstances varied, some faced more difficult conditions, others less so. This process helped me to recognize the diverse ways in which FTECs are experienced. While some faculty members, both Japanese and international, use these contracts as transitional steps toward more stable positions, others choose to remain on them due to personal preferences or constraints. As such, I came to see the situation as more nuanced than I had initially perceived it to be. FTECs, while often precarious, can also offer a degree of flexibility and serve as steppingstones for some individuals. However, it is by no means the type of position that people want to stay on indefinitely, as most people want a permanent and stable career.

As of the writing of this section (September 2024) my current role at my HEI is as an English adjunct lecturer, however my official title is Instructor of English as a Foreign Language, according to my university. I am responsible for 6 different courses that include mainly first- and second- year university students. However, I occasionally teach third- and fourth-year students as well. My responsibilities include course creation, textbook selection, syllabus design, lesson planning, teaching, grading, and assessment of student work. The

courses I teach are required English courses, as mandated by MEXT. Japanese university students are required to take one 90–100-minute English class per week for 14 or 15 weeks, respectively, depending on the universities schedule and timetable. Presently, I teach ten 100-minute classes over the course of four days, with one day as a designated research day. However, this day is not always used for research. This was especially true at the beginning of the contract, when my research day was used for course preparation. At my previous HEI, I taught 12 classes a week and worked part-time, teaching two additional classes at a different university. In total I was teaching 14 classes a week. This practice of working at one HEI full-time and finding a part-time teaching position at a different HEI is common as it supplements income. It is also a way to make connections in different HEIs, which can be useful when looking for a new teaching position.

Each year, I tend to teach the same courses, however the amount of a single course may increase or decrease. For example, currently, I teach 6 different courses, however, in a previous year I taught 5 different courses. My current position is considered a teaching/research position, though the position is ultimately a teaching position with a research component. Most researchers at Japanese HEIs have anywhere between 3-6 classes they teach a week so they can focus on their research, however, this is not the case with my position.

Presently, I am in the final year of my five-year employment contract at my current HEI. At my previous HEI, the contract was a 10-year contract, renewable three separate times over the course of ten years. However, I only worked three of the ten years due to securing my current position in year three of that contract. Leaving a position prior to the official end of the contract is not uncommon, as many teachers working on FTECs will leave their position if they find either a better job or simply just another 5-year fixed term contract at different HEI to avoid struggling to look for a job in their final contract year (Sato et al., 2015). The next two sections will consider the research questions followed by the methods used in this research.

3.5 Research Questions

The following research questions are addressed in this study:

Overall Research question: What are the experiences of faculty employed on fixed-term contracts in Japanese HEIs?

RQ1: What are Japanese university faculty's perceptions of their position within their university/the field of HE in Japan and what is their experience of entering and working Japanese HE, especially for the majority of international staff who are on short term contracts?

RQ2: How do the experiences and identity characteristics of working on Japanese fixed-term contracts shape their positionality within the structure of Japanese higher education?

> RQ2.2: What does it mean in relation to their institutional integration, well-being, and professional/job satisfaction?
>
> RQ2.3: What socio-cultural, health, and economic factors do faculty on fixed-term employment contracts relate to their well-being, why and how?

3.6 Methods

Qualitative interviews were chosen for this study because they were the most suitable for answering RQ1 which investigates faculty perceptions of their position and agency within their university/the field of HE in Japan. Additionally, responses from the open-ended questions in the quantitative questionnaire were able to provide further insight into RQ1. Similarly, the qualitative interviews were valuable when answering RQ2 in terms of revealing how these employment practices affect faculty experiences and personal identity characteristics intersect with their positionality in the field. These questions (RQ2) were also answered by the open-ended questions in the quantitative questionnaire, as well as other statements in the questionnaire. Conducting interviews with faculty possessing diverse experiences in Japanese HEIs enabled the facilitation of in-depth discussions on these issues. Quantitative

methods were used to assist in mapping the overall experience of international and Japanese staff employed on FTECs in Japan, specifically RQ2.3, which considered participants' socio-cultural, health, and economic factors and their relationship to well-being.

These themes were explored in order to gain a clearer understanding of faculty experiences in Japanese HEIs. MEXT have promoted internationalization by hiring international faculty to work in universities throughout the country. However, research suggests that while internationalization may be occurring in HE in numerical terms (Huang, 2018a), what is happening at Japanese HEIs does not necessarily reflect the ideals of internationalization as a type of multicultural, mutual or bilateral understanding, learning or growth (Brotherhood et al., 2020). Furthermore, the importance placed on advertising and hiring international faculty differ from universities efforts to integrate faculty into institutions upon being hired (Brotherhood, et al., 2020). When comparing how HEIs advertise teaching positions against individual experiences, there are often inconsistencies, and the university work environment may not necessarily reflect the policies of MEXT and their initiatives to make Japanese HEIs international hubs for students and researchers. The following section will discussion the data collection for this study.

3.7 Data Collection

In this section, the methods of data collection will be discussed. First the quantitative questionnaire will be considered, followed by the qualitative interviews, sampling procedure, and an overview of the participants.

3.7.1 Quantitative Questionnaire

The questionnaire items were based on what is known in terms of field, cultural or social capital in the context of Japan, Japanese HEIs, foreign language teaching, and build on existing research of faculty well-being and integration. The purpose of the questionnaire was to 1) map experiences at a more general level and then 2) explore them in the interviews. The questionnaire used for this

study was made in Qualtrics using both English and Japanese, to ensure ease of participation so participants could respond in their native language, or language that was easiest for them. The quantitative methods used for this study came from existing studies and instruments that have been previously validated and tested. Interview questions were used from studies that considered similar research topics, or the topics had relevancy to this specific study.

Section one of the questionnaire asked participants about staff perceptions of their work and work environment. Items 1 through 20 came from the Workplace Environment Survey (WES) (Houston et al., 2006). The original WES used a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) and was maintained for this study as the same Likert-scale was used. However, two items from the original survey were omitted for the questionnaire for this research. These items include, I believe the promotions procedures recognize the variety of work that staff do, and Staff morale is high within my department, institute, school, or unit. These were removed as they would have been difficult for participants to answer, meaning they just do not know the answers or have this information, and might not be relevant for many participants.

Section two of the questionnaire inquired about intent to stay and communication among staff. Questionnaire items 21 through 39 come from a study that considered faculty turnover rate in urban public universities (Daly & Dee, 2006). The framework of this survey is based on Mobley's (1977) conceptualization of intent to stay or leave the current workplace as "the last in a sequence of withdrawal cognition in which an employee actively considers quitting and begins searching for alternate employment" (Daly & Dee, 2006, p. 778). Empirical evidence confirms that intent is the first step when planning to leave one's place of employment (Bluedorn, 1982; Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Tett & Meyer, 1993). The survey in Daly and Dee's (2006) study similarly uses a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). However, some of the questionnaire items were reversed, which is how they appeared in the original study. These include items 21, 30, 36, and 37. Item 30 was changed from "I am not dedicated to this university" to

“I am not dedicated to the department I work in”. This item was changed because using the word university was too broad in the sense that all participants worked for a specific department within a university.

The third section of the questionnaire inquired about belonging and integration in the workplace. Questionnaire items 40-42 come from a survey in a study about the relations between sense of belonging, mental health, and job satisfaction among women in male-dominated industries (Rubin et al., 2018). However, the items in the original study are not specific to HE and consider the working environment of trade unions. Two of the original items were re-worded to apply to HE working environments. Item 41 was changed from “I feel a sense of belonging in the industry” to “I feel a sense of belonging in the academic community.” This was changed because the original item used industry, which is not applicable for this specific research, and was switched to academic community. The other item that was changed was item 42, which was changed from “I didn’t feel like I fitted in well at work” to “I don’t feel like I fit in well at my department/school/institute”. This was also changed due to the wording of the original being too general for this study. Items 43-46, as well as the two open-ended questions (items 48-49) were created by me. The items from Rubin et al.’s (2018) sense of belonging survey was anchored by a strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) scale, however this was changed to 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to match the other survey items and their scales. The remaining items used the 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) scale to match the items on the survey in this study.

The fourth section of the questionnaire inquired about the integration of foreign faculty. Questionnaire items 49-56 came from a study of the internationalization of Japanese universities and the integration of foreign faculty (Nishikawa, 2021). Any instances of “foreign faculty” were changed to faculty as this questionnaire was distributed to both Japanese and International faculty members. The items from Nishikawa’s (2021) survey were anchored by a 6-point Likert scaled from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree), however this was also changed to 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to match the rest of the items in this survey.

The final section of the questionnaire inquired about whether participants worked full-time at a Japanese HEI, how long they've been teaching in Japan, the highest degree held, employment status, current position at their HEI, age, nationality, and whether they would be willing to participate in an interview. These statements were created by me.

3.7.2 Pilot Study

A pilot study of the questionnaire was conducted to refine and assess how the questionnaire worked when distributed to those working in the field of HE in Japan and to assess the length of time it took to complete the questionnaire. The pilot questionnaire was distributed to two individuals who I knew would be critical and provide detailed feedback, especially since they have both been working in the field of HE in Japan for over 20 years. In addition, both individuals have worked on FTECs at multiple HEIs during their careers, and are now both tenured professors, having a diverse perspective of the working environments in Japanese HEIs. Upon the completion of the pilot questionnaire, both participants provided valuable feedback from their experience answering the questionnaire. These points were addressed, and some statements were changed for the final version of the questionnaire that was distributed for this study.

3.7.3 Qualitative Interviews

The interview questions (see Appendix E) were based on the RQs, further inquiring about faculty experiences of field, habitus, integration, well-being, and socio-economic and cultural status within the Japanese HE system. Interview questions one and two were general questions to have participants think about and consider their background in HE in Japan as well as their perception of HE in Japan. Interview questions 3-6 were based on RQ1 and inquired about university faculty's perceptions of their roles within the field of HE and in their previous and current HEIs. The second part of question four inquired about RQ2.3, which related to socio-cultural, health, and economic factors. Question 7 considered RQ2.2, which discusses faculty's relation to their institutional

integration, well-being, and professional/job satisfaction as well as habitus and position in the field of HE. Questions 8 and 9 were informed by the open-ended responses of the questionnaire (items 48-49) and considered communication and whether there was a sense of community within participants' departments (all RQs). Question 10 examined participants' experiences dealing with colleagues and whether they are listened to at their job (RQ2).

Questions 11-14 were all informed by responses in the open-ended section of the questionnaire. Question 11 asked about experiences dealing with permanent and non-permanent staff (RQ1), while question 12 investigated whether language was a cultural barrier for international participants, and how do Japanese participants think their international colleagues experience Japanese culture and the environment in Japan (RQ1, RQ2.2). Questions 13 and 14 inquired about written communication in the workplace, and what language it should be in (English, Japanese, or both), and how participants' command of Japanese / English influences their interactions/relations with their superiors and/or colleagues (RQ1, RQ2.2). Both questions 13 and 14 were also informed by the open-ended questions in the questionnaire. Question 15 asked about how participants balance their work and private life (RQ2.3). Question 16 comes from a study about teacher well-being in the United States, Japan, and Austria (Talbot & Mercer, 2018) and is meant to help answer RQ2.3, as is question 17. Question 18 was also taken from the same study by Talbot and Mercer (2018) which can be used to answer RQ2.3 as well. Question 19 asks about participant knowledge of the Japanese employment system, and their experiences working within it (RQ2) and the final question is a general question, asking participants if they had any statements they wanted to make before the end of the interview. In the following section, the recruitment of participants for this study will be discussed.

3.7.4 Recruitment of Participants

Because this study employed an explanatory sequential mixed-methods design, recruitment occurred in two phases. Questionnaire participants were recruited through professional networks and online communities related to Japanese HE,

with particular emphasis on networks frequented by language-teaching faculty. First, an invitation to participate was emailed to all regional chapters of the Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT). At the time of data collection, JALT was comprised 32 chapters across Japan. Chapter representatives were asked either to forward the invitation to their chapter mailing list or to post the invitation in chapter Facebook groups.

Second, the General Union (GU) of Japan was contacted to distribute the questionnaire to members via a monthly email, as this topic is relevant to members in the colleges and universities branch. Third, a former colleague distributed the invitation within their department at a Japanese HEI, emailing both Japanese and international colleagues. These networks were selected to maximise reach and diversity of respondents; however, because distribution occurred via intermediaries and membership overlap across networks was possible, the total number of individuals who received the invitation cannot be determined with precision and an overall response rate cannot be calculated.

Although the study focuses on experiences of faculty employed on FTECs, eligibility for the questionnaire was intentionally broad; any individual employed in a Japanese HEI under any employment contract type was eligible to participate. This approach allowed for inclusion of boundary cases and facilitated comparison across contractual conditions, while subsequent analyses distinguish respondents employed on FTECs from those in permanent/tenured roles.

The questionnaire was open from October 2023 to December 2023. In total, 133 individuals submitted responses. Because a substantial proportion of respondents did not complete the instrument, analyses reported in this thesis are based on complete cases (n=94), defined as questionnaires in which all items required for the primary analyses were completed. The decision to use complete cases was made to avoid interpretive ambiguity arising from high levels of incompletion on key measures; however, this approach may exclude respondents who discontinued participation for systematic reasons (see limitations below). Within the complete-case sample (n=94), [60%] of

respondents reported being employed on an FTEC and [15%] reported being tenured. Separately, [16%] reported part-time employment and [6%] reported permanent/full-time employment. Because contract status (fixed-term vs permanent/tenured) and workload (full-time vs part-time) are distinct dimensions, these proportions are reported separately (see Table 3.1).

Employment Status	Number of Responses	Overall Percentage
Full-time (tenured)	14/94	15%
Full-time (permanent)	6/94	6%
Full-time (tenure track)	2/94	2%
Full-time (fixed-term/non-permanent)	56/94	60%
Part-time (at one university)	7/94	7%
Part-time (at multiple universities)	8/94	9%
Other	1/94	1%

Table 3.1 Questionnaire participants employment status

Most questionnaire participants were international, while only 10% of them were Japanese (see table 3.2).

Demographics	Number of Repsonses	Overall Percentage
Japanese	9/94	10%
International	85/94	90%

Table 3.2 Number of Japanese and international questionnaire participants

Questionnaire respondents reported a range of academic positions within their higher education institutions (HEIs) (see Table 3.3). The distribution was weighted towards teaching-focused roles (e.g., lecturer, instructor), with fewer respondents in senior managerial or professorial positions (e.g., department head, professor). Because the questionnaire did not collect respondents' primary discipline/teaching area, it is not possible to determine the extent to which the sample was concentrated in any single subject area (e.g., English language education). However, given the recruitment channels used (including professional language-teaching networks and a union mailing list), the sample may over-represent staff working in teaching-intensive roles, which should be considered when interpreting the findings.

Current Position	**Number of Repsonses**	**Overall Percentage**
Department head	1/94	1%
Professor	2/94	2%
Associate Professor	17/94	18%
Assistant Professor	14/94	15%
English Lecturer	44/94	47%
English Instructor	9/94	10%
Practical English Instructor	5/94	5%
Other	2/94	2%

Table 3.3 Current position held by questionnaire participants

The questionnaire findings should be interpreted as evidence of patterns among respondents rather than as population estimates of FTEC faculty across Japanese HEIs. Recruitment relied on volunteer participation through

professional and workplace networks, meaning that the sample is subject to self-selection and coverage bias. Respondents with stronger views or more salient experiences of fixed-term employment may have been more likely to participate, and recruitment channels may have over-represented particular institution types, disciplines, or professional communities. In addition, because the invitation was distributed through intermediaries and the denominator is unknown, a response rate cannot be calculated, and non-response bias cannot be assessed. Finally, restricting analyses to complete cases (n=94) may introduce attrition bias if non-completion was systematic (e.g., related to time constraints, precarious working conditions, or survey fatigue). For these reasons, the survey is treated as descriptive and exploratory, and the qualitative phase is used to contextualise and explain observed patterns rather than to claim statistical representativeness.

For the qualitative phase, interview participants were selected purposively from questionnaire respondents who indicated willingness to be contacted for follow-up interviews. Selection prioritised information-rich cases, drawing on respondents' open-ended questionnaire responses to identify participants able to elaborate on contractual experiences in detail. Open-ended responses were reviewed for specificity (e.g., concrete examples of contract conditions, renewal practices, workload, evaluation, or professional trajectories) rather than for emotional tone. In addition, selection sought variation in employment conditions (including respondents currently employed on FTECs and those in permanent/tenured roles who reported prior experience of fixed-term employment), as well as variation in position type where possible. This approach was used to strengthen the explanatory function of the qualitative phase within an explanatory sequential mixed-methods design.

In total, 24 questionnaire respondents were invited to participate in interviews; 17 responded to the initial email and took part. The adequacy of 17 interviews was assessed in relation to the study aims and the richness of the accounts rather than against a pre-determined sample size target. Interviews were analysed iteratively alongside data collection, and later interviews refined recurring themes rather than introducing substantively new thematic categories.

As interviewees were drawn from volunteers and prioritised those providing more detailed written accounts in the questionnaire, the qualitative sample may over-represent participants who were more engaged with the topic or who had stronger experiences to report. Accordingly, the interview data are used to contextualise and explain patterns observed in the questionnaire rather than to claim representativeness.

Interviews took place over a month and half, between January and March 2024 via Zoom due to the location of participants being spread out across Japan. Interviews averaged around 90 minutes with the shortest interview being 60 minutes and the longest, taking place over two days, lasting over two and a half hours. Participants included 9 males and 8 females, 14 of whom were international faculty and 3 of whom were Japanese faculty. The amount of time participants had been teaching in HE in Japan varied. Six participants had been teaching in HE in Japan for over 15 years, three participants had been teaching between 10-14 years, four participants had taught in HE in Japan between 7-10 years, two participants had been teaching 4-6 years, and two participants had 1-3 years' experience teaching in HE. Only four interview participants were tenured, while three participants were either tenure track or permanently employed by their HEI. Seven participants were working on FTECs at the time of their interviews, and three participants worked part-time at one university (see table 3.2). The next section will discuss how the data was analysed.

Pseudonym	Gender	Nationality	Years of Teaching in HE in Japan	Current position in HEI
Mark	Male	International	1-3	Part-time (at one university)
Eugene	Male	International	15+	Full-time (tenured)
Lee	Male	International	15+	Part-time (at multiple universities)
Meiko	Female	Japanese	15+	Part-time (at one university)
Melanie	Female	International	1-3	Full-time (fixed-term/ non-permanent)
Thurston	Male	International	7-10	Full-time (fixed-term/ non-permanent)
Krist	Male	International	15+	Full-time (tenured)

Pseudonym	Gender	Nationality	Years of Teaching in HE in Japan	Current position in HEI
J	Male	International	7-10	Full-time (tenured)
Kevin	Male	International	7-10	Full-time (permanent)
Belinda	Female	International	4-6	Full-time (tenured)
Deb	Male	International	10-14	Full-time (fixed-term/ non-permanent)
Kurt	Male	International	7-10	Full-time (permanent)
Miki	Female	Japanese	10-14	Full-time (fixed-term/ non-permanent)
Reiko	Female	Japanese	15+	Part-time (at one university)
Kim	Female	International	10-14	Full-time (fixed-term/ non-permanent)
Steve	Male	International	4-6	Full-time (fixed-term/ non-permanent)
Frances	Female	International	15+	Full-time (fixed-term/ non-permanent)

Table 3.4 Interview Participant Information

3.8 Data Analysis

3.8.1 Questionnaire

The purpose of the questionnaire was twofold: to understand the experiences, both past and present, of those who have worked on or currently are working on FTECs in any capacity, and to inform the interviews and explore themes through the two open-ended questions. The questionnaire provided insights into participants' sense of integration, their working environments, and their views on how they fit into the field of HE in Japan. In contrast, the open-ended questions yielded richer detail, revealing more nuanced understandings of integration in general and of the specific challenges faced by international faculty.

The questionnaire was created in Qualtrics, and the data collected from participants was analysed in Qualtrics as well. There was no further analysis, outside of the data that was generated in Qualtrics because the main purpose of the questionnaire was to inform the interviews. However, any interesting

results from the analysis were considered, especially those that stood out or were unexpected. For example, figure 3.2 (below) shows that most participants' teaching and research achievements are not considered equally by promotions committees. Although this is one example, this was one of the ways in which the questionnaire data was analysed.

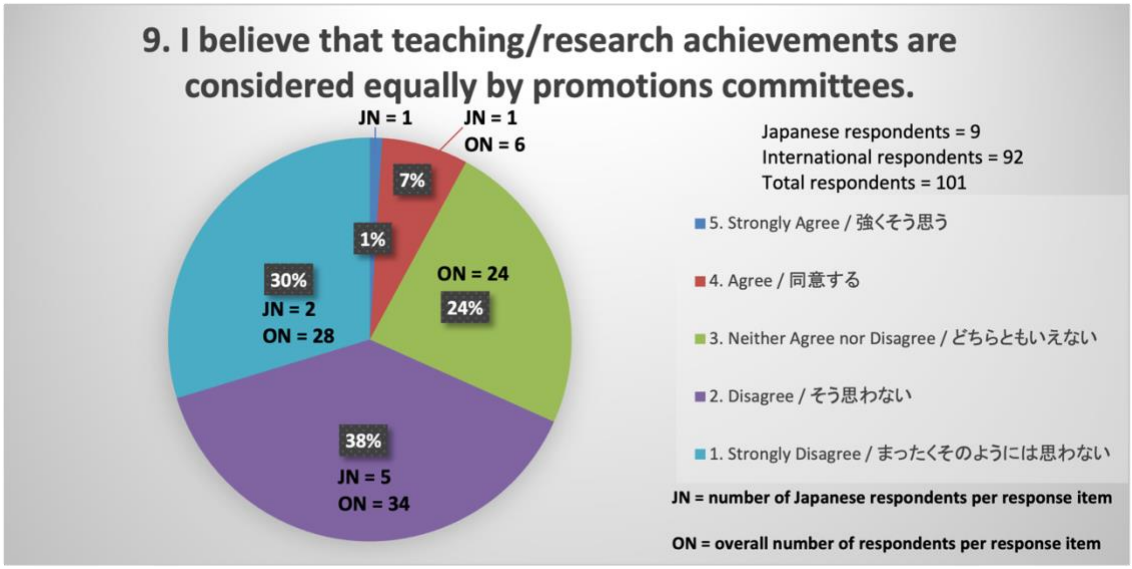

Figure 3.2 Questionnaire responses to questionnaire item 9: I believe teaching and research achievements are considered equally

In addition, the two open-ended questions were influential when it came to recruiting interview participants. Completed open-ended questions were considered based on the following criteria; whether they mentioned a new topic, idea or theme that was not previously discussed. In the next section, the data analysis for the interviews will be examined.

3.8.2 Interviews

The data analysis for the interviews followed Braun and Clarks (2006) thematic analysis. A thematic analysis was chosen as it is the most suitable means of gathering descriptive data that documents human experiences or "natural social life" (Saldaña, 2011, p. 3). Due to interview participants being situated throughout Japan, interviews were conducted over Zoom and were recorded. Upon completion of each interview, an mp3 file of the interview audio was then

imported into Microsoft Word, and the transcription function was used to create a rough transcription of the interviews. Once the transcriptions were completed, they were imported into Atlas.ti. The audio files were then replayed while simultaneously being checked for mistakes. Mistakes largely occurred in Japanese names or places, however, there were times where a participant's utterances were not detected properly and needed correction.

The analytical strategy used in this study followed Braun and Clark's (2005) phases of a thematic analysis. In this strategy, the researcher becomes familiar with the data by reading over the transcripts multiple times, taking notes where applicable, and writing down ideas. This was done by keeping an interview journal in Scrivener. When listening to the audio and going through the transcripts, any remarkable ideas, quotes, or other information were noted in the journal. Initial codes were then created based on parts of the data that stood out. Codes refer to "the most basic segment, or element, of the raw data or information that can be assessed in a meaningful way regarding the phenomenon" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 63). After coding the data, potential themes were chosen and organized, and data relevant to each theme was collected. Themes were organized and checked to make sure there was a relationship to the codes selected from the data. A theme "captures something important about the data in relation to the research question and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set" (Braun & Clark, 2006, p. 82). A semantic approach was taken when identifying themes, meaning themes were "within the explicit or surface meanings of the data…the analyst is not looking for anything beyond what a participant has said" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 84). These emergent themes were used to answer all RQs.

Upon completion of the thematic analysis, three main codes emerged. These codes dealt with the agency of the participants, cultural similarities or differences, and Japanese HEIs or structural differences. The first code contained 3 subcodes, the second code contained 4 subcodes, and the third code contained 2 subcodes (see table 3.3). Upon the completion of the thematic analysis, the open-ended questionnaire items were reviewed again, and a new code emerged from these items, identity and communication. This

code mainly considered RQ2; however, it was significant because it had not been discussed in detail during the interviews, thus it was included in the final set of codes. The next section will discuss potential ethical concerns relevant to the study.

Main Code	Subcode 1	Subcode 2	Subcode 3	Subcode 4
Experiences in the field of HE in Japan	Differences in entering a career	Faculty Positioning in the Workplace/ Field of HE	Status in the workplace	
Identity and Communication	Race	Integration/ Communication	Cultural capital and understanding	Language in the workplace
Complex facets of working in a Japanese university	Stress and well-being in the workplace	Experiences of student interactions		

Table 3.5 Qualitative Codes and Subcodes

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The following ethical steps were taken to maintain participant confidentiality as well as avoid bias in interviews. All participants were given a pseudonym that vastly differs from their real name to avoid any possibility of revealing their identity. Furthermore, surveys were anonymous, aside from participants who disclosed their e-mails to participate in the interviews, however, many email addresses did not contain identifying information about interview participants. Email information is kept secure as the file is password protected, and participant email information is not used in any way in this study. Nonetheless, there is an ethical obligation to include their survey data as anonymous participation in reporting the survey outcomes. A large sample size, aggregate reporting, and interview participants picked from different universities throughout Japan ensured the confidentiality and anonymity of participants.

The online questionnaire itself had an ethics form embedded in the questionnaire that was distributed, thus if an individual consented to be a part of

this study, they would simply click a button to begin the questionnaire (see Appendix D). The interview participants were provided with an additional ethics form that needed to be signed and returned to me prior to the interview (see Appendix C). Both interview and questionnaire participants had 2 weeks from the date of the interview or submission of their questionnaire to withdraw from the study. However, no questionnaire or interview participants withdrew, and all interview participants signed and returned their ethics forms within the allocated time frame.

For complete transparency, I was acquainted with five of the seventeen interview participants. They were former colleagues, or I knew them through other academic avenues. However, this did not impact their interviews in any way and the questions they answered were identical to participants who were unknown to me. Known participants were not treated any differently than the unknown participants, and there was no bias regarding what they said, nor did any procedures differ between the participants.

3.10 Data Management

Video recordings and transcripts of recordings were stored in a password protected file on my computer. They were also backed up and password protected on the Lancaster University OneDrive if a problem occurred, and the data was erased from my computer. As a further precaution, the data was also backed up using the Time Machine function on my Mac computer using an external hard drive, which is also password protected and kept in a locked drawer. All the questionnaire data on Qualtrics was password protected and the interview data on Atlas.ti was similarly password protected and backed up on the Lancaster University OneDrive in the event of computer problems or a computer crash. The video recordings and audio transcripts will be kept by me for 10 years following the completion of my thesis.

3.11 Chapter Summary

In this chapter I argued my approach for the design of this research, beginning with why a mixed methods approach was chosen, followed by a discussion of why an explanatory sequential mixed methods approach was the most suitable for this study. I went on to explore why pragmatism was the most appropriate worldview to take in this specific study. The study context was then discussed, why it was chosen, followed by my positionality within Japanese HE. The participants for both quantitative and qualitative parts of the research were considered, followed by the processes for both the quantitative and qualitative data analysis. In the next chapter, I will discuss the findings of the data collected and how they helped to answer the RQs.

Chapter 4: Findings

This chapter presents the study's findings, organized according to the guiding research questions (see Table 4). The results are drawn from both the qualitative interview data and the quantitative questionnaire responses. As this is a mixed methods study, the findings are presented in an explanatory sequential format: first, the quantitative questionnaire results are discussed (where applicable), followed by the qualitative interview findings. In the case of a section only reporting one type of data, for example qualitative interview findings, there will be no discussion of quantitative findings and vice versa. A synthesis of both data sources concludes each section (where applicable) to highlight the connections and contrasts between the two.

The chapter begins by situating participants within the field of HE in Japan, providing essential context for interpreting their experiences and perspectives. Following this, each research question is addressed in turn: Section 4.1 explores Research Question 1 (RQ1), Section 4.2 addresses Research Question 2 (RQ2), and Section 4.3 examines sub-questions RQ2.2 and RQ2.3, which relate to institutional integration, professional satisfaction, and the socio-cultural, health, and economic factors influencing the well-being of faculty on FTECs. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key findings across all sections.

Research Questions	Findings
RQ1: What are Japanese university faculty's perceptions of their position within their university/the field of HE in Japan? What is their experience of entering and working Japanese HE, especially for the majority of international staff who are on short term contracts?	Experiences in the field of HE in Japan • Differences in entering a career • Faculty Positioning in the Workplace/Field of HE • Status in the workplace • Experiences of student interactions • Stress and well-being in the workplace • Language in the workplace

Research Questions	Findings
RQ2: How do the experiences and identity characteristics of Japanese fixed-term contract faculty shape their positionality within the structure of Japanese higher education?	Personal characteristics complexity; Staff demographic and communication characteristics • Gender Related Struggles • Race • Integration/Communication • Cultural Capital and Understanding

Table 4.1 Overview of findings based on RQs and codes

4.1 Selected Participant Profiles: Backgrounds and Pathways into Japanese Higher Education

This section sets out by identifying the motivations of participants. It explores their early experiences in Japanese HEIs and how they have navigated academia in Japan. Before addressing RQ1 directly, it is important to examine the development of their career paths. Understanding participants' contexts is essential to answering RQ1, which investigates faculty perceptions of their position in the field of HE in Japan. Why did these individuals choose a career in the field of academia. For many participants, it was not necessarily a career goal to enter this field. International participants came to Japan temporarily to work in the Japanese educational system, while others came to study or work in different sectors. Japanese participants had interest in English from an early age, or grew up overseas and maintained an interest in the language after returning to Japan, thus they began a career in Japanese HE.

Participants came from diverse academic and professional backgrounds. Some held degrees in unrelated disciplines and began their careers in business or language schools before transitioning into academia. Many of the interviewees have a background neither in teaching or language, and few participants had a prior background in academia. Some participants did their undergraduate degree in their home country, while others completed their undergraduate degrees oversees. Several later acquired a doctorate (e.g., PhD, EdD) after

working in the field of academia for many years. Their academic origins included fields such as psychology, literature, history, English, and economics. This specific group of participants were chosen because they best represent the experiences of faculty working in HEIs in Japan. The following vignettes present a selected set of participants as illustrative cases, chosen to represent the broader range of backgrounds and entry pathways captured in this study.

4.1.1 Frances

Frances, a fixed-term faculty member, says of her background *“I had been a marketing rep at (a major computer company), and then I was working in the teaching section, teaching people how to sell computers”*. Although many participants had little to no background in education, this was not the case for everyone. Some participants had backgrounds in education, or their families had a history of working in the field of education.

4.1.2 Deb

Deb, a fixed-term faculty member, said of her early teaching experiences and desire to travel:

> *So yeah, teaching has been in my family for basically a couple of generations, and so I started teaching at middle school, which means I guess. What is that? Yeah, middle school or second, we don't have middle school. It's just secondary school... So, it's a different system. And so, I was teaching for a couple of years, and I decided I wanted to travel a little bit more. So, I visited Japan for a short time.*

Like Deb, some participants were drawn to Japan by curiosity and opportunities, rather than a predetermined academic career path. For others, it was simply a chance to try something new, regardless of long-term intentions.

4.1.3 Krist

Krist, a tenured professor, said of his interest in Japan, "*I had no, you know, no preexisting lifelong interest in Japan at all. Never thought about the place ever until about two weeks before I came here.*" Prior to coming to Japan, some participants wanted to travel, (mostly) had an interest in Japanese culture, wanted to study in Japan, or even wanted to improve their Japanese language abilities. Others came to Japan with the intention to leave after a few years. Initially, most worked as an ALT (Assistant Language Teacher) in elementary, junior, or senior high school, were part of the JET (Japan English and Teaching) program or worked in an Eikaiwa (English conversation school).

For most, eventually a decision is made that more credentials are needed because being an ALT or JET is not sustainable long-term, and further progress needs to be made careerwise. Completing a master's degree enables employment in HEIs, which will help further one's academic career. Krist described the reason to get a master's degree as "*more of a pragmatic move*" because he could "*see the writing on the wall*" that his prior employment was not sustainable.

4.1.4 Belinda

Belinda said this about her trajectory of starting off on the JET program and moving upwards:

> *I came on the JET program. I decided to stay. I got a job at a private high school, and I think that's relatively typical as a step on. And then while I was there, I got my masters. One of the reasons behind getting the masters was that I wanted to move into a university position.*

After completing a master's degree, some participants described pursuing doctoral study (e.g., PhD or EdD) to strengthen their prospects of securing more stable employment.

4.1.5 Meiko

Meiko, a part-time faculty member, was born and raised overseas, and described early immersion in English as shaping her motivation to teach. Her level of English proficiency is higher than most Japanese nationals. She completed a master's degree in the United States and later a second master's at a Japanese university. Her immersion in English from childhood sparked a strong interest in language learning, which ultimately motivated her desire to teach and support students in acquiring English. She described her unique experience living overseas as a child:

> *Well, first of all, my first encounter with the English language was when I was four years old. And that's because of my parents, my father's work. He worked in London during the mid 60s. And I was 4 years old, and of course I, we, the whole family moved to London for three years that I'm kind of a so-called returning, how do you say, the almost the first-generation returnee. There wasn't even a Japanese weekend school in London there was only, you know. So, I went to a British school. Yes, and that was my first encounter with the English language.*

Meiko also shared the difficulties she faced coming back to Japan after being immersed in a different culture:

> *You quickly get immersed and you forget Japanese, and then once you come back to Japan, I was seven years old. You quickly forget English and you know, going to the Japanese. So, my parents were a little concerned about that. So, they sent me to not a public Japanese school but a Catholic girl's school in Tokyo. And there were some returnees around me. Five or six of them. And we, you know, stuck together. And we felt that we were a bit different from other Japanese students so that helped and raised our self-esteem, you know, be proud of keeping our, at least my British accent, I hope.*

Meiko also discussed how she went on to get earn two master's degrees, one in education, the other in second language acquisition. She had a high level of

motivation to become an English teacher, thus used her background to help achieve that goal.

4.1.6 Miki

Miki, a full-time faculty member, grew up in a family of educators and was introduced to teaching at a young age. She developed an interest in English, pursued formal qualifications to become an English teacher, and has maintained a high level of language proficiency throughout her career. She says of her introduction to teaching:

> *My family is entirely in education. My father was a high school teacher. My brother, he is currently teaching at high school. My sister is also another high school teacher, and my mom was in the management office in high school, so my entire family is actually into education, and my dream was always becoming a teacher.*

She went on to explain her interest in the English language and why she chose to become an English teacher:

> *So, when I was in university or maybe junior high school 13, 15, around that age, I questioned myself, what am I good at? Then I was at that time good at English. English was one of my best subjects at school, so I said OK, I'm going to become an English teacher. I'm going to teach English. Then I actually went to university to become an English teacher to get the teaching certificate of English.*

Although her experiences differed markedly from Meiko's, Miki's family background in education – together with her interest in, and aptitude for, English – shaped her decision to become an English teacher.

4.1.7 Reiko

Reiko currently has minimal contact with English in her professional life, despite going through and teaching in the Japanese educational system. Reiko's

academic interests shifted toward the Farsi language, and she now resides in the Middle East. Although no longer working in Japanese HE, she previously taught at several Japanese HEIs and navigated the academic system before relocating abroad. She shares about her experience becoming interesting in the Middle East:

> *I studied in (university name). It become (different university name) after changing names. But before it changed names it was a university for foreign studies. But the people can learn the many languages there. So, I decided to learn the Persian language in university. It is very interesting for me to learn about Iran and Iranian history or Iranian language, Iranian social system...*

Reiko also discussed her experiences teaching in Japanese HE as well:

> *In Kagoshima I was appointing to association of professor…I was a lecturer. When I was appointed associate professor…I was hired by the project. Fortunately, that project continued for six years. So, I had a job for the six years (as) appointed associated professor. It's like an associate professor. I had class, but I could have that zemi (lecture) class.*

Although Reiko did not discuss her experiences with English in detail, she went on to talk about how she began to find a way to teach Persian and move to Iran. She also described how she had taken Japanese university students abroad to Iran as well.

Taken together, these vignettes illustrate diverse but patterned pathways into the Japanese HE system. Several participants described unplanned or exploratory initial entry into Japan (e.g., short-term visits or school-based roles), followed by credentialing decisions (master's and, for some, doctoral study) aimed at improving career sustainability and access to university posts. Others emphasised longer-standing orientations to English shaped by family background, early immersion, or returnee experiences. Across individual cases, the accounts foreground how motivations, capital, and institutional opportunities

interacted to shape participants' early positioning and subsequent trajectories. These varied entry pathways and forms of accumulated capital provide essential context for understanding how participants subsequently perceived their professional status and positioning within Japanese HE.

4.2 Perceived Professional Status and Positioning Within Japanese Higher Education Institutions

This section addresses RQ1 by exploring participants' perceptions of their professional status and experiences within the field of HE in Japan. As Heffernan (2022) observes, "fields are not equitable places," (p. 53) given their inherently competitive nature. Bourdieu (1998) similarly argues that individuals within a field continuously strive to improve their standing within its hierarchical structure. This dynamic is evident in Japanese HEIs, where institutional hierarchies significantly influence how faculty are positioned within their departments and the broader academic field.

Faculty on FTECs are often burdened with heavier teaching loads, limited opportunities for research, and in many cases, extended working hours. Some also assume administrative responsibilities that rival or exceed those of their tenured counterparts. These conditions contribute to a structurally unequal environment that hinders the accumulation of cultural and social capital necessary for career advancement, reinforcing marginalization within the academic field.

4.2.1 Positioning and Status

When considering their positioning within departments, questionnaire participants reported an increasing workload over the past year (Figure 4.1).

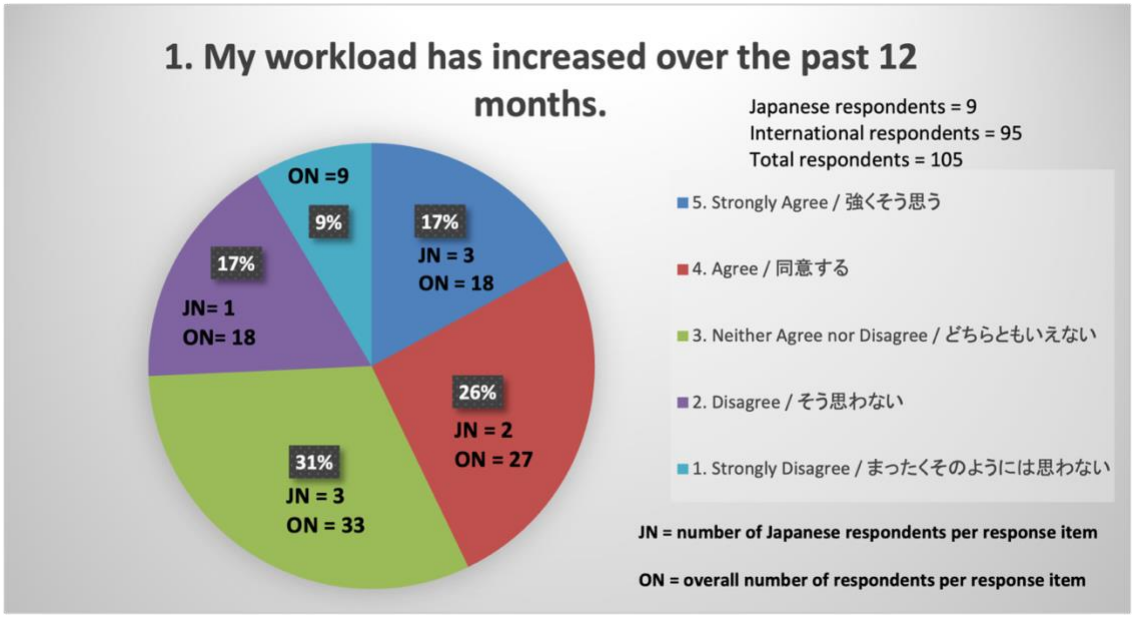

Figure 4.1 Workload over the past year

Most participants were aware of the role they played within their university, yet many felt their efforts went unrecognized by colleagues or supervisors (Figure 4.2). Despite this, a strong sense of autonomy was reported. Teaching was consistently prioritized over research (Figure 4.3), which is unsurprising given the largely teaching-focused nature of most participants' roles.

Figure 4.2 Acknowledgement for a job well done

Figure 4.3 Allotted time for research

Miki, an interview participant, discussed having an irregular amount of administrative work:

> *There are so much administration job for the very little, very few full-time teachers because I think 70% or maybe 80% of the teachers can be part time and they divide the work so much and they still have a lot of administration job and that's why there are so little full-time teachers, even on the contract basis. But we get so much administration job that we become so busy and becoming a full-time teacher means not being able to work for your PhD thesis.*

Steve remarked "*I mean, one thing with our contracts as compared to the tenured contracts is that we have quite high teaching loads.*" Depending on the university, fixed-term positions may have a research component but typically have a heavier course load than a research position would, teaching between 10-12 classes a week. Although some fixed-term contracts included research responsibilities, many teachers on these contacts were responsible for 10-12 classes per week, depending on the institution. Within individual faculties, differing academic subfields hold varying values. Some departments prioritize teaching, while others emphasize research output (Heffernan, 2022).

Despite these differences, interview participants were generally content with their roles in their HEIs. Regardless of contract type, tenured, fixed-term, or part-time, most felt they contributed meaningfully to their departments, reinforcing their position within the field and enhancing their cultural capital within the institution. Committee involvement was viewed as one of numerous indicators of integration. Belinda noted: "*the fact that I am on the different committees means I, in theory, have a voice in terms of like how changes and different things could be improved*". Committee work, especially for tenured or permanent faculty, can solidify one's place within the departmental hierarchy, reinforcing a sense of belonging.

However, participants also described experiences of exclusion and isolation, illustrating that employment within a department does not always equate to full integration. Some felt unsupported by colleagues or disconnected from institutional life. This was particularly evident in relationships between international and Japanese faculty. Thurston said of this:

> *But it's interesting, there's this disconnect between the Japanese side and the foreign side. It's kind of layered all the way through because of the lack of the connection. They're working together connected, you get in the phone side even just, in the tutor's room or the staff room, or just around campus, you'll say hello in the Japanese staff room. It's nice, that sort of stuff, but there's no banter or opportunity to really communicate.*

Lee also mentioned a disconnect between Japanese and foreign faculty at the universities he works for:

> *Ah yeah, there's a sense of community at staff meetings which are like annually, or biannually or quarterly. But there is a disconnect between Japanese faculty and foreign faculty at all universities I work at on a daily basis. However, when there is a department staff meeting, everyone is best friends.*

While not all participants reported this divide, the issue of limited cross-cultural engagement within departments points to ongoing barriers to integration. For

many, the distinction between being present in the institution and being fully embedded in its social and professional networks remained clear.

4.3 Status in the Workplace: Faculty's Experiences Working in Japanese Higher Education Institutions

In this section, I continue my discussion on the findings of RQ1 which consider perceptions of faculty's positions within their HEI. It will also examine the relation between faculty's habitus and their positioning in the field of HE in Japan.

4.3.1 Organizational Commitment and Intent to Stay

Despite the impermanence of the job, questionnaire participants were divided when it came to staying at their current HEI until the end of their contracts or until retirement (Figure 4.4). While 42% of participants indicated they would leave prior to their contract expiring, 38% stated they would stay, with the remainder of participants being neutral or undecided.

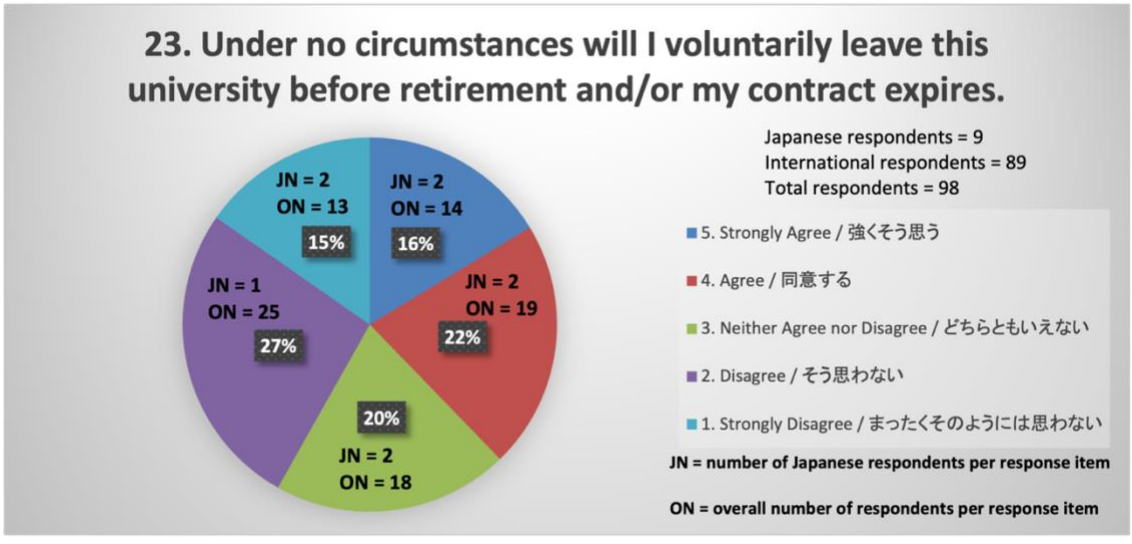

Figure 4.4 Intent to stay: I will voluntarily leave this university

This sentiment was echoed by several interview participants. Tenured or permanently employed participants indicated plans to remain at their current institutions until retirement, while fixed-term contract teachers typically intended

to stay until they could secure a position at a different university, regardless of where they were in their contract. Their decisions reflect the competitive nature of the academic field in Japan, where opportunities for advancement are limited and highly sought after (Bourdieu, 1990a; Grenfell, 2012; Grenfell & James, 1998; Schirato & Roberts, 2018; Webb et al., 2002; Heffernan, 2022).

However, other questionnaire responses presented an alternative perspective. Many participants indicated reluctance to leave their current positions (Figures 4.5 and 4.6), not necessarily due to workplace satisfaction, but because of limited job prospects. This mirrors findings by Höhle (2024), who reported that across Europe, teachers on FTECs were more likely to leave academia entirely if no path to permanent employment existed. While similar research has yet to be conducted in Japan, such studies would be valuable for understanding employment trajectories among faculty working on FTECs.

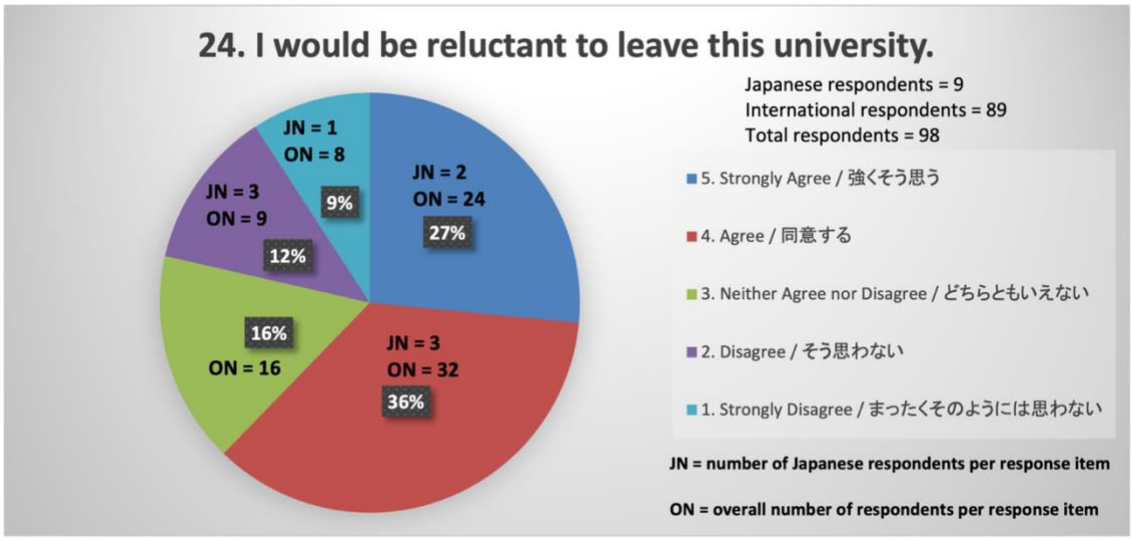

Figure 4.5 Intent to stay: Reluctance to leave current position

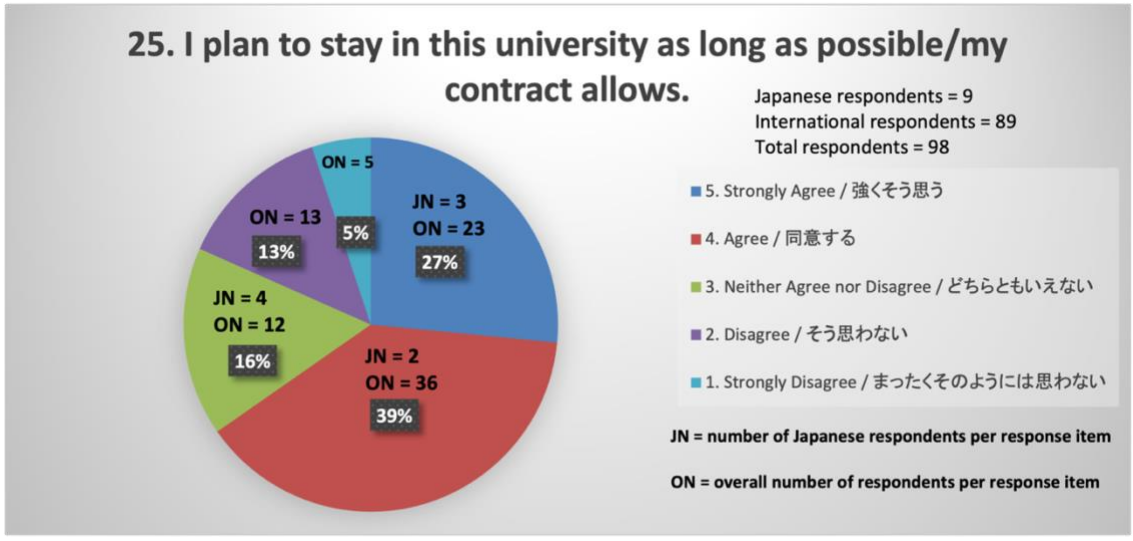

Figure 4.6 Intent to stay at university as long as possible

Communication within the workplace was open and most participants felt they were able to communicate with colleagues (Figure 4.7), a view largely supported by interview data. Still, some participants expressed dissatisfaction, suggesting communication within the workplace could be improved. Many participants spoke highly of their workplace, stating it was the best university for them; however some disagreed and felt a different university might offer better opportunities.

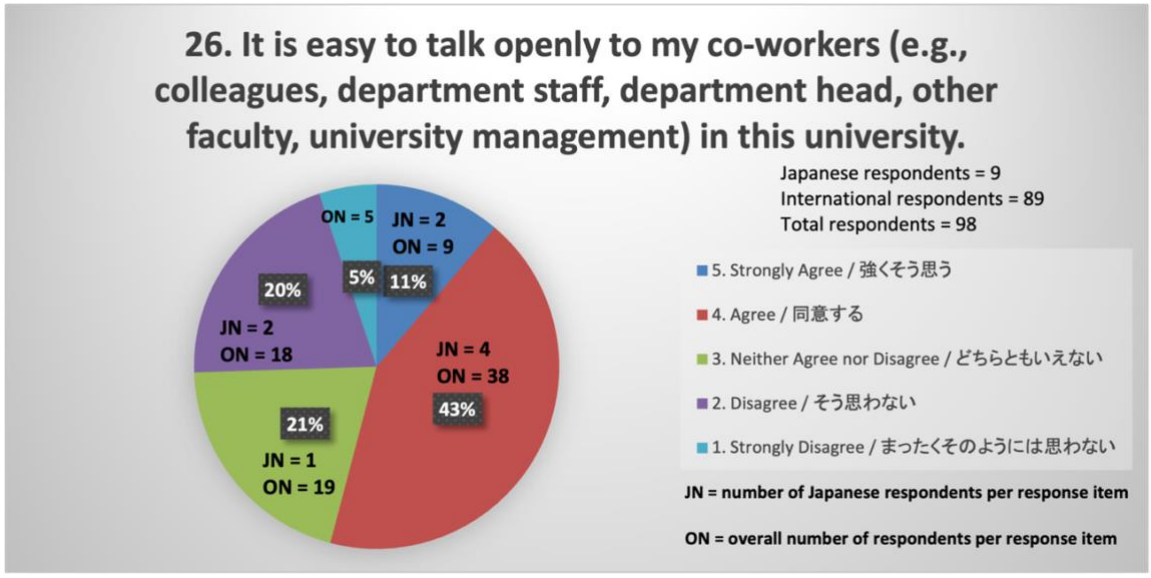

Figure 4.7 Workplace communication

Job opportunities within participants' areas of residence were limited, thus searching for work outside their current location was likely to yield greater prospects (Figure 4.8). Additionally, many participants reported they would struggle to find a comparable job or secure immediate employment if they left their current university (Figure 4.9). Interestingly, some believed they could find work outside academia with relative ease. Although this theme was not featured prominently in interview data, several participants mentioned concerns about job searches following the end of their contracts.

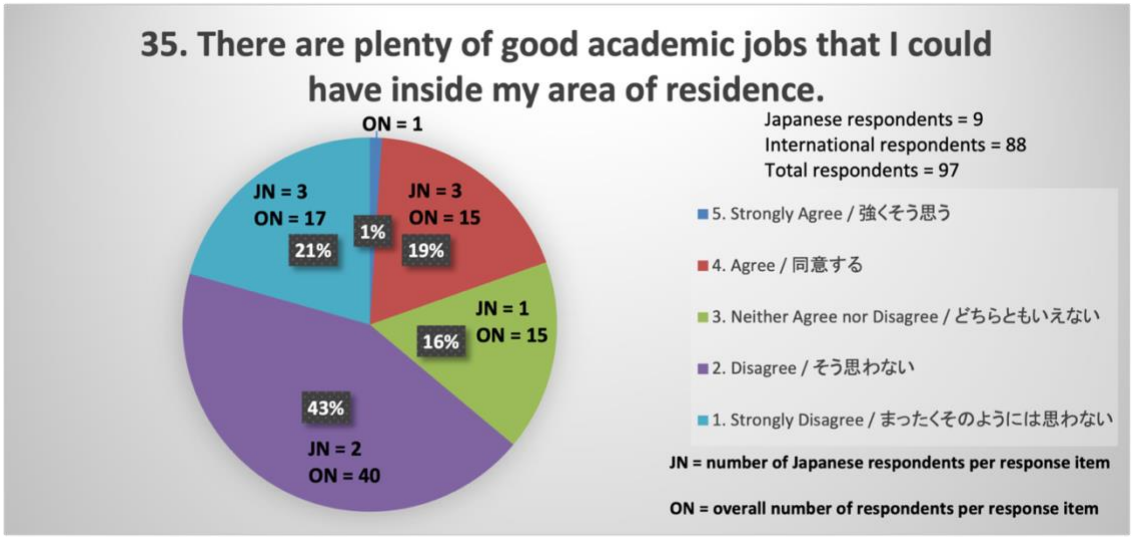

Figure 4.8 Job availability in area of residence

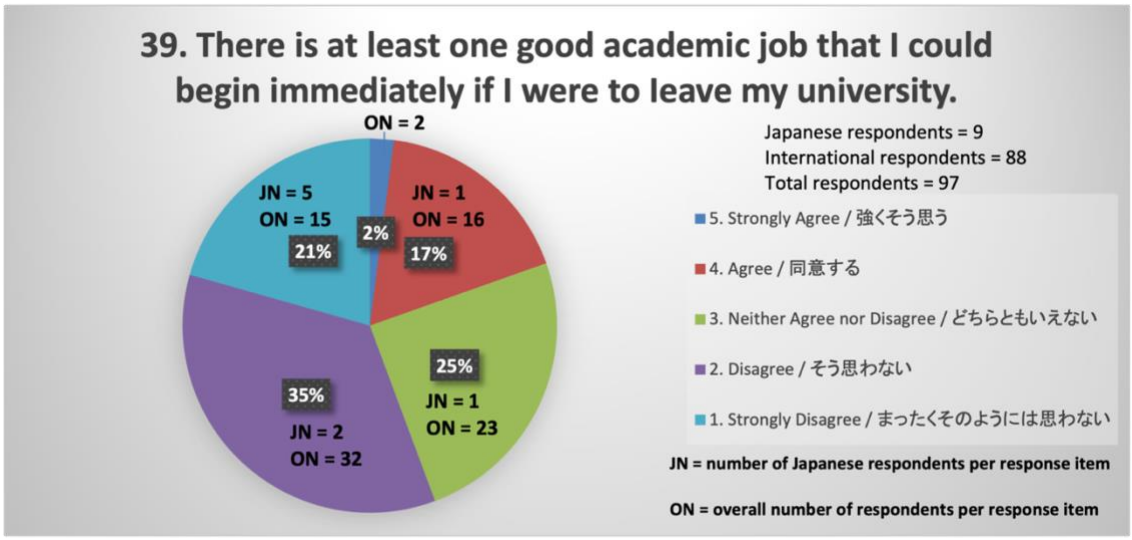

Figure 4.9 Ability to find work after immediately leaving current position

Questionnaire participants were generally satisfied with their current university and reported few reasons to leave aside from contract expiration. They maintained positive workplace relationships and experienced a level of social integration that supported their overall well-being. However, limited local job opportunities and uncertainty about finding similar academic roles highlight the increasing competitiveness of Japan's academic job market over the past decade.

The questionnaire item about willingness to stay asked individuals whether they intended to leave during their current employment contract to work at another university or stay the maximum duration of their employment contract. This topic garnered a variety of responses from some participants wanting to stay until the end of their contract, to how leaving early in a contract may be a desirable option for continuous full-time employment. Lee said of this:

> *And most people that are on the shokutaku (temporary) contract, the five-year contract, make it known that they're looking for the next contract one or two years into that contract. It's a five-year contract, but everybody knows that in the third year, if they don't have a good offer they're gonna stick around for the 4th or 5th year.*

Similarly, a questionnaire participant mentioned in an open-ended response why a teacher might leave a contract early:

> *…but if someone leaves at the official end of a contract year, but before the end of the maximum term to take a confirmed 'bird in the hand' opportunity of the next job versus the unknown 1-2 years later, they are looked down upon…*

This 'bird in the hand' opportunity versus a future of uncertain employment opportunities is important when considering reasons to stay or leave, but also regarding social capital and habitus within the field. Faculty on FTECs often choose to leave their current positions before the end of the maximum term to avoid the risk of scrambling to find work right before a new academic year begins.

Despite what the questionnaire respondent stated above, it is not always looked down upon to leave after the end of a contract year but prior to the maximum term of employment. This is due to a minimal chance of contract renewal after the fifth or tenth year (Rothman, 2019). The lack of inclusiveness and integration within a department plays a direct role in turnover rates as these individuals have no enduring obligation to their university (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017). Thus, the chances for turnover, especially earlier within an individual's employment contract, are greater as there is no specific reason for them to stay until the end of their maximum term of employment.

4.4 Experiences of Student Interactions, Stress and Well-being, and Language in the Workplace

In this section, I examine the socio-cultural, health, and economic factors that faculty on FTECs associate with their well-being, addressing RQ1. Key issues frequently raised in interviews included macro-economic issues in Japan, workplace stress, general stress related to the job, and the impact of FTECs. These topics will be explored in the following sections, beginning with stress in the workplace and stress from student interactions.

Macro-level economic conditions were mentioned by a small group of participants as shaping employment conditions across sectors, including HE. Miki discussed economic factors. She addressed the economic recession that occurred in Japan, and how Japanese people in their 20s to 40s felt the brunt of the recession, could not marry or have children, causing the current population to decline:

> *So, the Japanese economy itself has the structural issue of the shrinking population and aging society and shrinking younger population, shrinking market, but that the very result of the actions that they took 30 years ago and it's simply coming back, it's inevitable that we need to face the change in any of the sectors in the society, including higher education.*

Considering these macro-economic conditions is necessary here, as it is one of many factors that affect faculty in Japanese HEIs, despite it not being an issue that individuals deal with on a daily basis.

4.4.1 Stressors in the Workplace: Uncertainty and The Unknown

Workplace stress can stem from a range of situations and may also have repercussions for life beyond work. Faculty in Japanese HEIs are no exception, facing numerous stressors, from workplace relationships, to publishing research, to dealing with students, and so on. All interview participants discussed stress and how it manifests in their daily lives. Belinda discussed the fear of not knowing what will happen in the immediate future regarding work or responsibilities, saying there is:

> *Constant stress about whether someone's just going to suddenly ask you to do something when you kind of don't necessarily have the time to do that, or you've been planning to do something else and suddenly that's not going to become possible anymore. Like so basically not knowing what's coming but knowing that something is coming and that something should be coming, but having absolutely no idea of the timing of it, it's kind of like the Nankai Trough[1], but for work, it's sort of like there is something coming towards you. You just don't know when it's going to hit kind of situation.*

J mentions similar stressors at work, citing how colleagues will "*call you to have a meeting, but they won't tell you the content of the meeting*", which is not only disruptive, but also can cause stress due to the potential urgency of the meeting. He goes on to say how, often, these urgent requests for meetings are not urgent at all "*and then you go and you're like, oh, I just need you to, could*

[1] The Nankai Trough is an ocean-floor trench that runs through a large part of Western and Central Japan. Seismic experts predict a potentially devastating earthquake in the region within the next 50 years, though it is impossible to predict exactly when it will occur.

you look at this syllabus for a minute? It's like come on. Come on, guy..." While these unexpected occurrences were one way stress emerged, a related stressor – addressed in the following subsection – was the challenge of maintaining an appropriate work-life balance.

4.4.2 Work-Life Balance: A Little Bit in the Red

Overall, tenured faculty, full-time permanent staff, and full-time contract teachers appeared to face the greatest difficulty balancing work and private life. Though it seemed that tenured, full-time permanent, and full-time contract teachers had the most difficult time balancing their work and private life. Deb said of this:

> *It's still a lot of work and many hours that should be family time or time at home. It just gets swallowed up by all the other things that I need to do, including of course grading and other school meetings and opening ceremonies and etcetera. So it's what I would call a little bit in the red, so it should be kind of at least 50-50, but it's more like 70-30. It's not good but…*

Reiko, a former fixed-term contract teacher, mentioned the difficulties of balancing work and family life saying, "*I couldn't get any support to care for my child so it's difficult to have a balance to care for my child or my job*". Similarly, Miki mentioned difficulties balancing family life and work saying:

> *That's one of the issues that I actually encountered this year, I could not balance my private life and work... I actually work too much, and I came back late, very, quite late at night and I couldn't cook for my children. For example, I go for grocery shopping and there was nothing in the refrigerator at all or things like that. So that's a difficult point and that was actually one of the reasons why I thought I might not be able to work for this national university for so long.*

While some participants mentioned not having enough time to spend with their family, other participants accepted the fact that their job was busy sometimes

and not as busy other times, regardless of whether it interfered with their private life. J said of this:

> *And you know, like you try to leave work at work, but sometimes it follows you home. It's just being an academic, right? But you know, on the flip side there are swaths of time when all you have is time.*

In general, participants dealt with the work-life balance as part of the job, regardless of whether it was balanced or not. Many participants were able to balance their work and home lives and avoided them colliding with one another. But there were some participants who had difficulty doing so, and those tended to be individuals with families and children. They had too many responsibilities at work or were not able to juggle the number of classes and duties they had within the workday; thus they had to work extra hours or stay late at work. Whether someone was a permanent or fixed-term contract employee had little relevance to work-life balance, as participants in both positions described instances of imbalance between work and private life. Steve said of work and family life, "*You go from the morning to early afternoon or something in the campus. Come home, eat dinner and bath and stuff for the kids, and then at nighttime I'll do research, PhD related stuff*".

Although there were times when a work-life balance could be maintained, this was not the case throughout the year, and often, it was a challenge for participants to keep that balance from leaning too heavily towards work. It is important to mention that not every participant's work-life balance was uneven. There were some participants who could maintain a healthy work-life balance and had few problems separating the two, however, often, the balance was uneven.

However, in some instances individuals must choose what hobby or part of their private life they are going to give up if they want to achieve an adequate work-life balance. Belinda said of this:

> *Something else is going to have to give, and it's what is going to give. Is it going to be my teaching? Is it going to be my ability to go climbing? Is it*

> *going to be my PhD and research? Like of those things, the one that's probably going to give, crappy as it is, I have to say it is going to be teaching because the climbing is just like one small thing a week, and it's like physical and stuff as well.*

Belinda's situation is more common because most people who are working and pursuing a PhD have hobbies outside of academia and they need to maintain these hobbies for both work-life balance and their mental well-being. In a more extreme case overwork, Krist mentioned how he sleeps at work multiple nights a week:

> *The reason I'm here at 9:00 AM is because I sleep here. I sleep in the dormitory two or three...Yeah, it depends on the year. This year has been two nights a week, but there were years where I was here four nights a week.*

Conversely, when considering a positive work-life balance, Euguene positively commented how "*basically, from now (the end of January) until the 1st of April, I may be working from home or not even working. Just you know, I have a lot of freedom to do what I want*". Among the different types of stressors, interactions with students may at times serve as a source of stress.

4.4.3 Student Interactions

Participants' experiences with students varied based on tenure status. Tenured professors typically teach elective seminars or specialty courses that students choose based on their interests or major. In contrast, non-tenured faculty, including part-time and full-time contract teachers, teach compulsory communication English courses. Student motivation in these compulsory courses tends to vary, as they are required by MEXT as part of the national curriculum. Meiko said of Japanese students, *"I heard a lot of, quite a few teachers complaining about the students, childishness, Japanese students' childishness and low motivation".*

Deb says of her students, "*their motivation for English at least is very, very low. Unless they're like (in the) English department or they want to go abroad*".

However, it's important to point out that student motivation varies depending on the university, department, classmates, and whether they are taking compulsory English, an elective English course, or participating in an English-language program.

4.4.4 Well-being and the Workplace

While stressors such as student-related issues and uncertainty in the workplace affected participants' well-being to some extent, they were not so severe as to interfere with daily activities. However, Melanie recalled that her initial adjustment to HE work significantly impacted her mental health:

> *There was even a time like, especially that first term I was really struggling to adjust. I was calling out a bunch, taking some sick days and eventually the office kind of like, are you OK? And I was like, I can't really explain this in Japanese. So, how do you explain taking a mental health day kind of thing?*

Awareness of mental health is gradually increasing in Japan, and the issue is being taken more seriously. Culturally, many Japanese continue to attend work regardless of their emotional state and may cope with stress in ways that are often more private than those commonly observed in Western contexts. Although all jobs include stressors that can affect well-being, none of the participants described their challenges as overwhelming or unmanageable.

Workplace relationships emerged as another important factor influencing well-being. Most participants reported positive interactions with colleagues they saw regularly. However, relationships with Japanese faculty or superiors varied depending on the institution. Lee reflected on this dynamic:

> *I think well, foreigners are always, generally speaking, more happy and you know, willing to interact where the Japanese faculty or the, sorry, the*

> *domestic faculty are more reserved, unless there's official things to talk about. Like from my experience, domestic faculty don't want to talk about what they did on the weekend or how their home life is. Where like foreigners talk about everything. So, but you know, I find that domestic faculty, if you're talking about internal research or internal publications or international conferences, they're more than happy to talk about it, but that's the extent of the conversation.*

While Lee's comment reflects a common experience, it should be seen as a generalization rather than a universal truth.

Conversely, Kevin mentions how he has a positive relationship with his Japanese colleagues, "*I don't feel like there's anybody that I can't talk to them about whatever*" and mentions how "*the kind of department head and sub department head that have always been very supportive*". Meiko similarly reflected positively on her current workplace, *"working at (current university) was the most comfortable place. I don't know why, but maybe because of the communication with the teachers. I had almost no communication with other teachers at other universities"*. Frances similarly mentions how "*I feel like any of the staff. Yeah, I could go to and talk to about anything at any time... I just feel like that's really open*".

These kinds of reciprocal interactions foster a sense of integration, strengthen workplace relationships, and contribute to overall well-being. The ability to communicate and collaborate with both Japanese and international colleagues help establish belonging and supports a more positive work environment.

Although most participants described working in a positive environment, some felt that their current social climate was inadequate, and there were few opportunities to converse with Japanese colleagues, or there was difficulty communicating with other international colleagues. Frances said of this "*There would be nastiness and there would be rumours and there would be…And so, you're just trying to be friendly with everyone, and you don't say much*". Other

participants similarly described negative experiences with colleagues and how it added another layer of stress to the workplace.

4.5 Integration and Communication: The (Dis)connection Between Fixed-Term Employment Contracts and Integration

This section addresses RQ2 and its sub-questions, exploring the role of FTECs in shaping faculty integration, well-being, and professional job satisfaction. At universities, integration typically occurs at the departmental level, rather than the institutional level, as departments often function as distinct entities or fields. Nonetheless, integration within a department can foster a sense of belonging to the larger university community, even if integration outside one's department does not take place. These dynamics influence an individual’s cultural capital and habitus. Additionally, FTECs intersect with gender, age, and racial factors in the workplace, further impacting both cultural and social capital. In the following section, I will examine how integration contributes to well-being and job satisfaction, and how these factors relate to faculty’s habitus and their positioning within the field.

4.5.1 Integration into Japanese Working Environments

Integration in Japanese HEIs was a contentious topic, as there were a variety of responses from questionnaire participants ranging from those who were content at their jobs, though not necessarily integrated, to others who felt that integration was acceptable for the type of position it was. Many felt integrated into their HEIs or departments and considered themselves part of their universities (Figure 4.10).

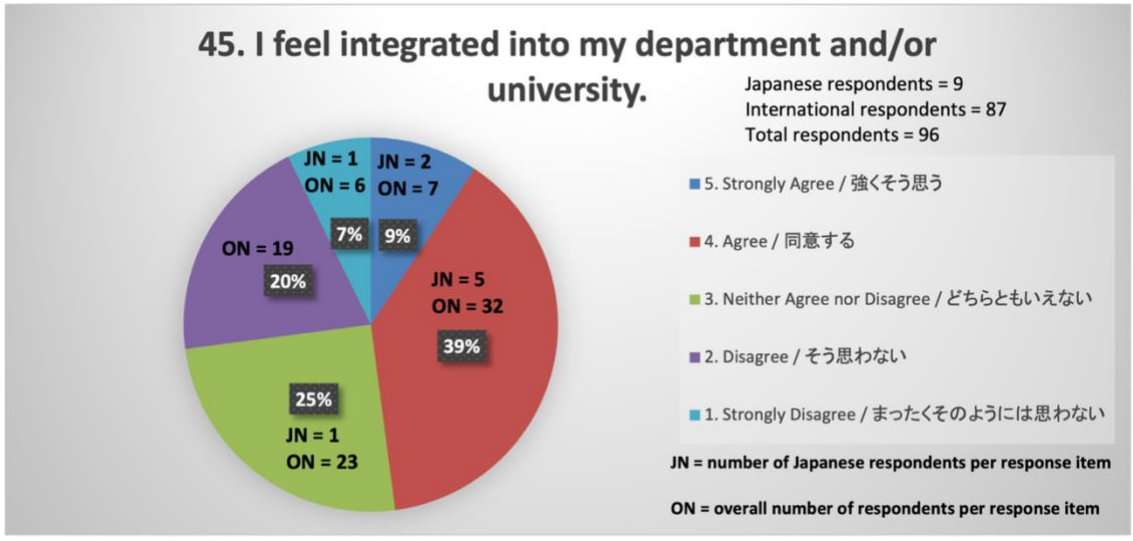

Figure 4.10 Integration into department and/or university

While some questionnaire participants felt that their HEI supports non-tenured faculty with professional development, a larger subset of participants felt their HEI did not (Figure 4.11), with many participants providing a neutral response. This suggests that a sense of integration does not necessarily reflect active institutional support. Even where participants felt integrated, support for professional development was often perceived as minimal.

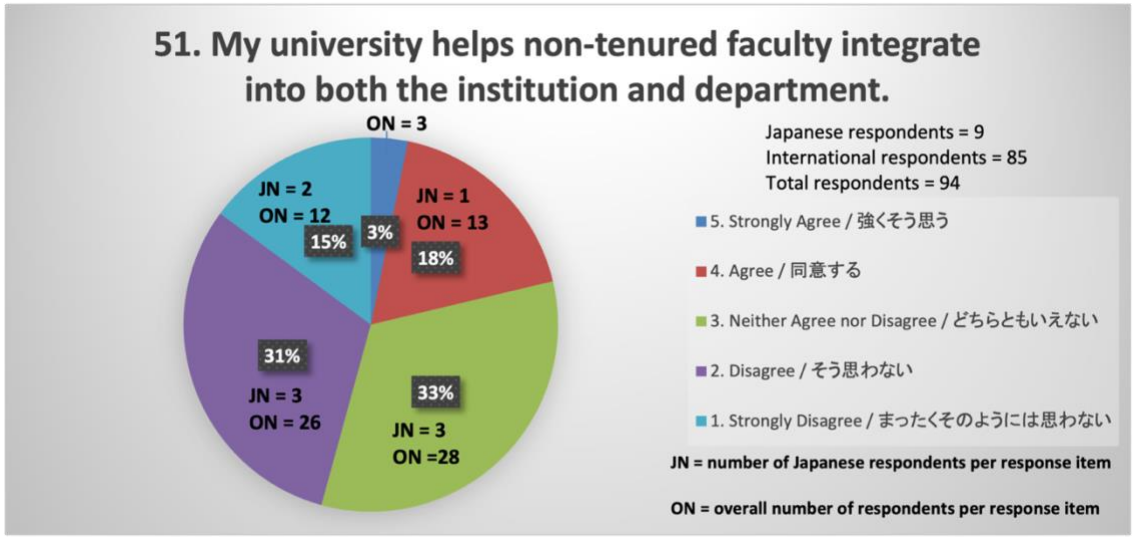

Figure 4.11 Assistance from university to help non-tenured faculty integrate into department

Many participants reported little to no support when integrating into their departments, often hindering cultural capital within the hierarchy of their HEIs. The consensus was that non-tenured faculty were poorly integrated, although a small fraction of participants felt otherwise. Similarly, most non-tenured faculty members perceived themselves as underappreciated at their HEI (Figure 4.12), with many participants expressing uncertainty about this matter. Additionally, participants felt that non-tenured faculty had little to no influence over departmental decisions (Figure 4.13).

Participants also suggested that non-tenured faculty were not considered essential to their HEIs (Figure 4.14), though many were unsure. While a small number of non-tenured faculty cited receiving support from their department, the majority believed that such support was either insufficient or non-existent. Overall, there was a perception that non-tenured faculty were not integrated into their HEIs and were undervalued as employees. Furthermore, they were seen as having little to no influence over departmental decisions and were regarded as non-essential. It is important to mention that many participants were unsure about these issues, so it would be biased to claim that all participants shared this view.

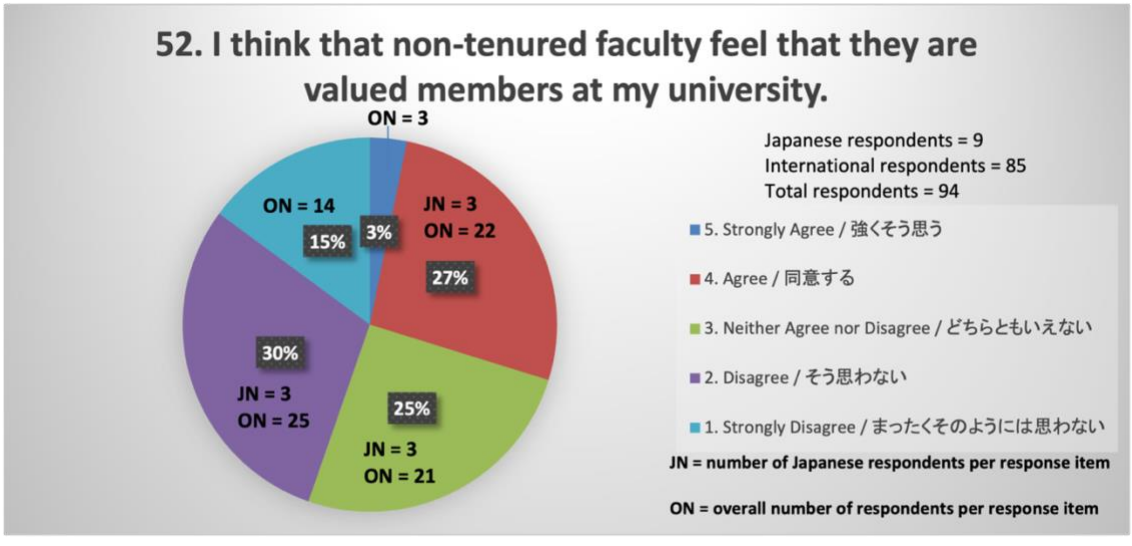

Figure 4.12 Non-tenured faculty members' perception of their value at their HEI

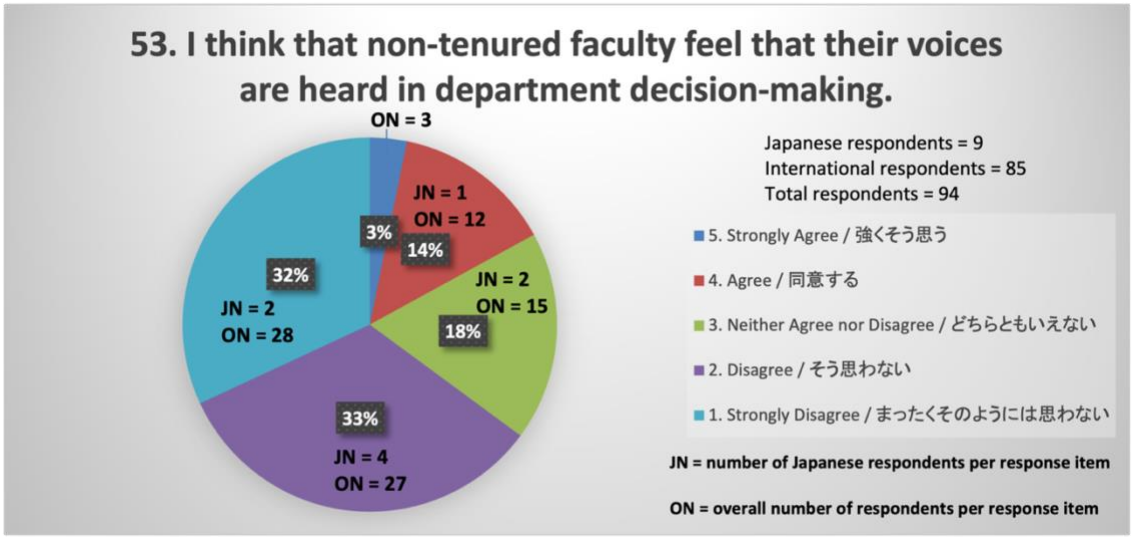

Figure 4.13 Non-tenured faculty members' perception of their integration and participation at their department

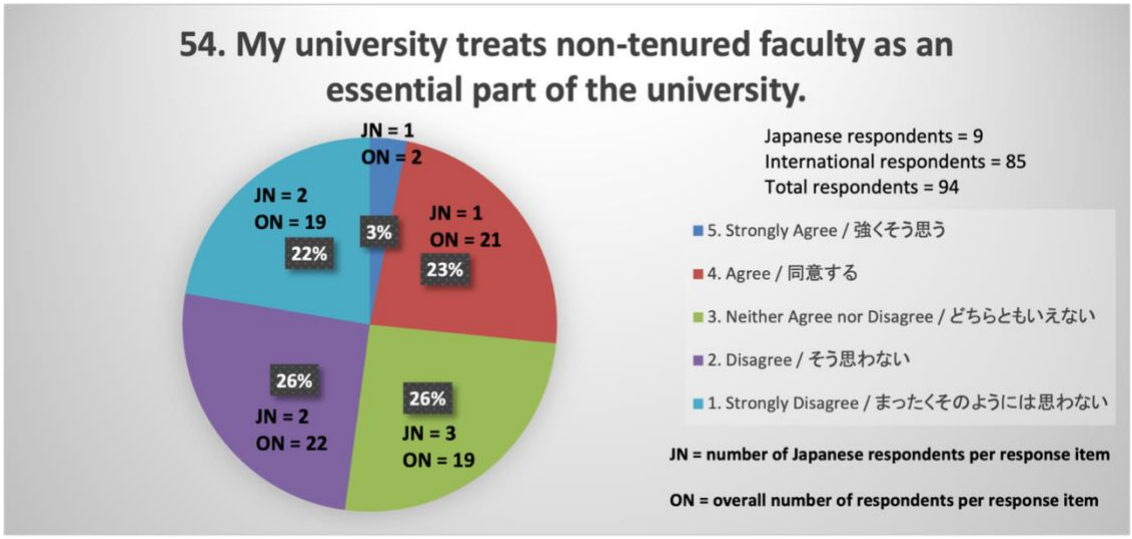

Figure 4.14 Non-tenured faculty members' perception of whether they are an essential part of their university

Participant perceptions of non-tenured faculty, as expressed in the open-ended questionnaire items, suggest that these individuals are often viewed as outcasts. While MEXT requires the hiring of English faculty, this is not always done with the intent to fully integrate these teachers into the department. This lack of integration impacts their cultural capital and habitus, as Heffernan (2022) argues, "without the habitus to build the necessary relationships, the

chances of turning educational capital into social capital is minimal" (p. 77). Non-tenured faculty are often treated as lesser members within the department.

One questionnaire participant wrote in response to statement 48 (What do you think about your university's efforts to ensure faculty who are working under non-permanent contracts are integrated into the university, for example, how non-permanent faculty are supported, accepted, treated equally etc.?), "*It doesn't really matter, does it? We are forced to be on short-term contracts, so why would I, or the university, bother to integrate us into the university since we will be gone within a few short years anyways?*" A different questionnaire participant elaborated on this lack of integration, describing non-permanent contracts as a deliberate strategy to keep employees disconnected from the university:

> *Employees are purposely put under non-permanent contracts to not integrate them into the university. It is a feature not a bug. The negative effects are not accounted for and when they are pointed out (when there is actually a rare avenue to point them out) they are quickly and summarily dismissed. Most workers are worried about their job security, so they are very careful to not rock the boat. This creates a huge disincentive to be proactive to make things better. When the university finally sees some effects of this they can't see any connection to their behaviour. Nothing is done and the cycle continues. There are always warm bodies willing to accept contracts and do an acceptable job, but excellence actively discouraged.*

This reveals the expendability of FTECs from the standpoint of their departments and HEIs, which contributes to their marginal integration. A third questionnaire participant shared their experience, describing how non-permanent faculty are sidelined:

> *We (the non-permanent English teachers) are sort of just cast aside as glorified English teachers. One concrete example is our department website, which features an academic profile for each faculty member*

(including a photo, a description, and a list of their achievements) EXCEPT the non-permanent faculty members - we only get our names listed on the website.

Three different questionnaire participants discussed their lack of integration in their HEIS. One questionnaire participant criticized their lack of integration saying that:

We are disposable, and they let us know it. Therefore, I feel no loyalty or care about doing a good job. However, some may try their best because they will need a letter of recommendation eventually.

Another questionnaire participant mentioned:

Non-tenure track faculty (none in my faculty) in my university are not treated well. Underpaid, not supported and thought to be easily replaced. This is true also for Japanese nationals.

A third questionnaire participant stated how:

I feel that there is almost no integration. All of the foreign English teachers are literally segregated into a different teacher's room, away from the Japanese staff in our department.

In addition to these experiences, Melanie specifically cited how the foreign and Japanese staff are segregated into two separate offices:

There are two staff rooms across from each other. They stick all the Japanese TOEIC[2] teachers in one. And then all the foreign teachers just get stuck in the other and I wish we could mix all those. My (access) card

[2] TOEIC stands for Test of English for International Communication. The TOEIC test measures English-language listening and reading skills. In many universities, Japanese-English faculty teach TOEIC prep courses for students, which are specifically designed to prepare them for the TOEIC test.

literally can't get into their room. So, if I wanted to just go and have a chat with them, I couldn't really knock on the door and get one of them to come out.

As highlighted by several studies (e.g., Brotherhood et al., 2020; Nishikawa, 2021), many fixed-term faculty are treated as peripheral figures, with departmental integration often lacking. However, this experience is not universal. Some fixed-term faculty reported being treated well, included in decision-making, and fully integrated into their departments. For these individuals, integration leads to a stronger sense of belonging and the acquisition of cultural capital and habitus. Integration, therefore, varies widely across universities, with some fixed-term faculty being marginalized while others experience a more cohesive and supportive environment. As will be explored in the next section, interview participants had diverse experiences, ranging from minimal integration to significant inclusion within their HEIs.

Structural problems with internal communication within departments were also described, with separate meetings for Japanese and international staff limiting interaction and workplace integration. A questionnaire participant described:

Even if there are meetings, many universities continue to hold separate meetings for Japanese and foreigners. Even though they are a group of English faculty members, they are teaching and supervising mainly in Japanese. As a result, workers are divided linguistically and opportunities for interaction are lost [translated from Japanese].

These structural issues affect all employees working on FTECs, and indeed segregate international and Japanese faculty in some HEIs regardless of whether it is intentional.

4.5.2 Employment Contracts

Integration does not come easily to those working on FTECs, which was discussed at length among interview participants. Although the idea of integration being fleeting is not widely held, it is not uncommon either. FTECs

do not provide a sense of security in the workplace, and these employment contracts are not unlike a countdown timer. Lee says of this:

> *It's specifically with universities; it's the five-year maximum contracts that's detrimental to career development. Because it's not five years, as I probably stated before, it's like 3 years you're looking for your next job already. At four years you're getting panicky.*

Furthering this idea, Kevin said of the situation:

> *I know that apparently the fixed-term contract things and the whole cutting the contract short so that you can't qualify for full time employment, I think that was specifically, the universities were one of the first ones to do that and then after it kind of got tested as like, oh, this is something we can do.*

Universities recognized that FTECs were a way to prevent faculty from being permanently employed, entering the departmental hierarchy, and securing benefits and retirement packages. This similarly restricts capital within the field of HE in Japan. Miki discusses how some faculty elect to stay on part-time contracts until retirement:

> *So, there are many people who worked as part time teachers, and they finished as part time teachers, and they're continued looking for full time position. But they never got it, they became late 50s or 60s and they gave up and they stopped, or they retired as part time teachers or they quit teaching in the university, and they looked for different kind of job, like cram school teachers.*

Although Miki primarily addresses part-time faculty, this idea applies to many full-time faculty on FTECs as well. Miki further highlights the impermanence of the job, noting, "*The teachers in university are continuously looking for a job, but people don't know that. And when I tell them that I switched jobs from this university to that university, they're like, 'Oh, why?'*" Miki underscores an important point: the general Japanese public holds an idealized view of

university faculty, perceiving them as permanent, stable, and elite professionals in prestigious, long-term positions. However, most people are unaware of the realities behind these roles, seeing only their status without understanding the nuances of the position and the structural barriers that faculty must contend with.

Universities seem to be intent on maintaining inequitable working contracts. Eugene offered the following perspective: *"With the five-year system, I think people are more afraid of having a difficult teacher on their books than they are of losing a good teacher"*. Krist compared the hiring process to immigration, explaining:

> *A university is like a company. It's like a country. It's a community, right? And employment is like immigration. Who do we let in and how long do we let them stay? And what's the standard of evaluation for acceptance?*

Throughout the interviews, it became evident that many participants had limited understanding of employment laws, preventing them from fully grasping why their universities enforce FTECs. J emphasized the need for better education on the subject, stating, "*We need a lot more education on it. To be honest, we need to be oriented to it. We need to learn about it".*

Participants tended to have limited knowledge of employment laws in Japan. This knowledge gap may stem from various factors, including language barriers, lack of institutional support, or assumptions that such matters are handled administratively. When the topic of employment laws was raised during interviews, most participants admitted to knowing very little. Deb says of this, "*I don't feel that I know enough about it in general or in my own situation, to be honest. So, if anything job related comes up, I'm in trouble because I don't know who to talk to, what the rules are*". This lack of awareness can place teachers at a disadvantage, particularly when navigating contract renewals or employment disputes. It underscores the importance of improving access to information about labour laws and ensuring that faculty, regardless of nationality or contract type, understand their rights and responsibilities. This

system is, in many ways, designed to prevent faculty from acquiring the cultural capital and habitus necessary to navigate the academic field and departmental hierarchies more effectively.

An international questionnaire participant highlighted additional sources of insecurity associated with part-time and non-permanent employment, including visa renewal and perceived procedural or legal ambiguity:

> *The Japanese government grants visas to part-time teachers for only one year. For example, even if you have been a part-time teacher at a university for 30 years, your visa must be renewed every year. Therefore, they are not actively employed by universities. Some universities consider it a hassle to hire foreign teachers (especially full-time teachers). If the Japanese government does not change, I do not think the field of education will change either* [translated from Japanese].

One Japanese questionnaire participant described their experiences dealing with the Labour Standards Office (LSO), which had been called to the participants university due to questionable labour practices among part-time employees. The participant described how "*on (specific date), the Labor Standards Inspection Office issued a 'corrective action recommendation' to my current university for inadequate clarification of working conditions and inadequate management of working hours* [translated from Japanese]." The same participant also recounted:

> *At a faculty meeting, the former representative of the majority of workers who organized the meeting told us that part-time instructors cannot take "annual paid leave" because they work at their own discretion like full-time instructors. This is utter ignorance of the basics of the law* [translated from Japanese].

It is evident from participant experiences that integration is often ambiguous within HEI departments. Universities may attempt to be opaque about rules and regulations; however, it is ultimately the responsibility of the worker to make sure they understand employment and labour laws. Regardless of contract

type, workers need to familiarize themselves with labour laws, so they do not get mistreated in the workplace. The next section will consider gender, race, and socio-cultural factors that effect integration in Japanese HEIs.

4.6 Gender Related Struggles, Race, Integration, Cultural Capital and Understanding

This final section addresses RQ2 and its sub-questions, focusing on the integration, well-being, job satisfaction, and the socio-cultural, health, and economic circumstances of faculty employed on FTECs. I begin the section by examining gender and race in Japanese HEIs.

4.6.1 Gender Struggles in Japanese Higher Education Institutions

Gender disparities, balancing family life with work, and the experiences of women in the workplace was discussed throughout interviews. Melanie described how it was "*Overwhelming to be one of the few women in the staff room*" and noted that for women working on FTECs, starting a family, could be particularly difficult:

> *It can be really rough to, like, get through the system when you're a woman, like thinking about planning your family. I don't plan to have kids, but even for me, I was like, man, if I was on a three-year contract, how would I plan a pregnancy on a three-year contract? Because if I get pregnant in the first year, people will be like, oh, I can't believe she got the job and then got pregnant, right away and had to take maternity leave and then even in the second year, you're still trying to prove yourself. But you're like, well, if I get pregnant my third year, I might not get a chance at a long-term contract. And then I don't get maternity benefits if I just like, lose this job, lose this contract so it can be pretty hard for women I think who are trying to work out the planning situation.*

Eugene added to Melanie's point saying:

> *There's certainly a gender aspect to it, of course, because, you know, there are a lot of female teachers, maybe caregivers at the same time. Yeah, and (they) can't necessarily take three or four days off to go to a conference in another city.*

However, Kim described how some women might be hesitant to ask for help, saying "*So, I think like women don't…they're scared of really asking for accommodations, maybe, or I don't know why. Because these days it's not a big deal, I mean, there's more and more working mothers*". While some woman may be hesitant to ask for time off or help as working mother's, this is changing and is not the case for all working women in HE in Japan.

Although women face more challenges than men working in HE in Japan, Miki mentioned there is some flexibility, despite the rigidity of the system, "*but flexible working hours is another, is a very positive side for women, females like me who have family with children and a lot of family responsibilities*". While inequalities still exist in the workplace, conditions are improving, though not at a rapid pace. As gender equality is still an issue in Japan, it is not likely to be reconciled any time soon.

4.6.2 Race and Identity in Japanese Higher Education Institutions

While family matters and gender disparities were a concern for many, race was also a factor as there is a minority of non-White, non-Western English teachers in Japanese HEIs. Deb spoke of her experiences saying:

> *Being a woman in higher education and being a Black woman, non-native speaker from a different country that people have never heard of, and there are different positionalities that kind of, you know, kind of like make up my identity but basically, they're all misunderstood in all different possible ways, and so the expectations that people have of me sometimes are unrealistic, completely wrong, or insulting.*

Although Deb was the only Black participant in this study, her story about being treated differently because of her race and background may resonate with other

non-White English teachers in Japanese HEIs. Glasgow (2025) provides a comprehensive look into the experiences of Black educators in Japan, which offers more nuanced insight into this topic. In addition to dealing with colleagues or superiors who misunderstand non-White academics, Deb also discussed her negative interactions with male superiors:

> *It's been challenging when dealing with upper-level male administration people. People talking over you not because you're not making sense, but because you're female. There's lots of mansplaining, which means repeating what I just said in different words, even though I didn't ask for help.*

Women and non-White academics in Japan face challenges that their White colleagues will rarely experience. Often, these individuals have difficulty accruing social and cultural capital within the workplace and field of academia, regardless their qualifications, the type of employment contract they work on, or the connections they might have. These inequalities contribute to decreased well-being, integration, and add an extra layer of pressure to the daily stressors already present in the workplace.

4.6.3 Integration and Well-Being in the Workplace

Perceptions on integration within participants' departments and university varied throughout interviews. Policy changes had the potential to create a sense of exclusion among faculty. Fixed-term faculty were often excluded from the dissemination of information, which was another example of how these faculty members were not integrated. Miki says of this:

> *And some policy changes in the university are systematic changes of the university might not be provided as an information to the like part time, lecturers and lecturers, sometimes surprised, oh is this the new kind of change from this year? I never knew, so that kind of issues of information can be caused.*

Despite the lack of departmental integration described by some participants, others felt differently. These participants worked in HEIs where there was integration on some level, and they felt like they were part of a community within their department. They believed they could make changes and had a voice to some extent, and at the very least were part of a group alongside their colleagues and had a place and purpose in their department. Mark states:

> *So, with some of the full-time faculty, they definitely are really receptive to ideas and changes, to the curriculum that I have, and you know they will help improve materials or something that I created. So, they're really you know, interested in hearing new ideas.*

J mentioned how his implementation of a specific program has been able to garner both funding and substantial support from his university for programme development:

> *I started the program here at this university, we're doing it. The university is so into it, they're funding it. They give us a budget for it. We won some awards last year at the conference as well. Some individual students awards and things. Interest in it is off the charts now, since it's highly motivating the students and stuff.*

Tenured participants had well-informed habitus (Bourdieu, 1977), or in academia specifically "hard capital" (Heffernan, 2022, p. 37) which is based on factors that include standing within the field of academia or at one's own HEI. Interview participants had mixed feelings as to whether integration was occurring at the departmental level. While some participants expressed how some level of departmental integration existed, others did not. While this may be true for many, as some participants have indicated, not every individual will have a negative experience. However, many faculty working on FTECs have more difficulty integrating than permanent employees or tenured professors which influences their well-being both inside and outside of the workplace. When universities hire faculty on FTECs, this simultaneously restricts their social capital and habitus within the field including departmental hierarchies.

This would come as little surprise to those who are working in Japanese HEIs, as it is something that these individuals consistently struggle with.

Maintaining FTECs, which prevents upward mobility among faculty, is a form of *doxa*, or a set of unquestioned beliefs that people hold about the world (e.g., Bourdieu, 1977, 1990b, 2000). However, in this specific context, doxa is understood as the implementation of FTECs which prevent faculty from ever setting foot on the hierarchal ladder of the university they work in. Doxa is used unquestioningly by department deans, hiring committees, and other decision-makers who establish hiring rules and policies. These practices are rarely, if ever, questioned by external evaluators or outside consultation. By keeping these hiring practices internal, away from anyone outside of the university, the social structures that exist within a department can be reproduced indefinitely.

Regarding FTECs, this means departments can continue these hiring practices free from outside interference, allowing them to reproduce existing hiring structures without scrutiny. In this instance of FTECs in Japanese HEIs, these contracts also take “the form of symbolic power which is mediated by various forms of accumulated capital (cultural, economic, social)” (Deer, 2014, p. 116) meaning the roles of social and cultural capital are contributing to doxa.

4.6.4 What it Means to Teach in Higher Education in Japan on a Fixed-Term Employment Contract

Throughout both the interviews and questionnaire responses, recurring themes emerged regarding how faculty working on FTECs perceive their positioning within Japanese HE. Despite some faculty expressing satisfaction with their roles, those on FTECs often experience limited integration into their HEIs. In contrast, tenured professors and permanent faculty tended to be more integrated, although there were occasional instances where teachers who work on FTECs are successfully integrated into their department. FTECs inhibit the accumulation of capital within the academic field, as these employment contracts frequently entail heavier teaching loads and, in some cases, increased administrative responsibilities, limiting mobility and professional

development. While these conditions do not necessarily constitute unfavourable working environments, they are inherently unstable. Furthermore, women and non-White academics face additional challenges due to possessing comparatively less social and cultural capital than their male counterparts, as they are often underrepresented in both the workplace and the broader academic field.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented and discussed the findings of the study in relation to RQ1 and RQ2, along with the sub-questions associated with each. These questions explored the integration, workplace satisfaction, and well-being of tenured and non-tenured university faculty, with particular attention to their habitus and capital within their departments, institutions, and the broader field of academia in Japan.

The findings indicate that faculty on FTECs possess limited capital within both their departments and the wider academic field, which in turn constrains the development of their habitus. By contrast, tenured professors tend to hold greater social and cultural capital, which affords them enhanced positioning and influence within the institution and across the academic field.

Although permanently employed faculty also experience stress, often stemming from departmental responsibilities beyond teaching, faculty on FTECs encounter different stressors. These include challenges in balancing professional and personal life, particularly for parents, and difficulties managing disengaged students in compulsory English classes. Faculty well-being differs notably between departments, influenced by varying levels of collegiality, support, and interpersonal relationships.

Women and non-White academics face additional structural and interpersonal barriers compared to their White male counterparts. While some succeed and thrive in their roles, they are often a social and numerical minority and may experience inequitable working conditions. In particular, women who are raising

families or planning to do so may encounter disadvantages within a system that provides unreliable support for working mothers. Similarly, Black and other non-White academics are subject to both overt and subtle forms of discrimination.

The next chapter examines these findings in greater depth and situates them within the broader literature on HE, drawing comparisons with research conducted both in Japan and internationally.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This study investigated the working conditions of international and Japanese faculty who are currently or were previously employed on FTECs in Japanese HEIs. Drawing on questionnaire and interview data, this chapter discusses how fixed-term employment relates to workplace experiences, particularly participation, integration, and well-being within departments.

The findings indicate that several dynamics shaping faculty experiences in Japanese HEIs have not been highlighted in much of the existing literature on fixed-term employment. These include hierarchical positioning and contract type within the field, organisational norms that structure participation in departmental life, and (for some international staff) socio-cultural positioning and communicative practices (Green, 2022).

Building on the conceptual framework from Chapter 2, contract status is treated here as the primary structuring condition shaping job security, workplace participation, and recognition. International status intersects with contract status but remains analytically distinct: it may shape socio-cultural positioning and everyday interactions, whereas contract status more directly structures workplace and institutional integration. This chapter is organised in relation to the research questions: it first addresses RQ1 (positioning and entry into Japanese HE), then considers RQ2 and RQ2.2 (capital, participation, and integration across employment types), before addressing RQ2.3 (how socio-cultural, health, and economic factors intersect with contract status to shape well-being).

5.1 Perceptions of Positioning Within the Field of Higher Education in Japan

Drawing on Bourdieu, analyses of HE emphasise that academic fields are hierarchical, and that institutional prestige, rank, and forms of capital shape recognition and mobility (Bathmaker, 2015; Maton, 2005; Naidoo, 2004). This

section interprets participants' perceptions of positioning through that lens, with contract type treated as a practical marker of status.

Participants described feeling positioned differently within Japanese HEIs, often in ways that related to insider–outsider boundaries. Although the concept of *uchi* (insider) and *soto* (outsider) (Dale, 1986) was relevant for some international faculty, the more consistent divider across participant accounts was employment category: both Japanese and international participants on FTECs described challenges of departmental integration and experiences of being treated as peripheral (Nishikawa, 2021).

Permanent and tenured faculty reported greater stability and integration within their departments, and their positioning in the field reflected this security. While some had previously worked in fixed-term positions, they were no longer subject to repeated fixed-term contract renewals. By contrast, participants employed on fixed-term and part-time contracts described weaker job stability and more constrained mobility, particularly in relation to long-term planning and career progression.

These patterns were reinforced by gatekeeping processes within the academic field. Participants identified hiring committees, senior faculty, department heads, and university leaders as shaping access to positions and mobility opportunities. In line with recruitment and field competition (Heffernan, 2022), participants described increasingly competitive conditions, particularly for teaching-focused and fixed-term positions. Several participants noted that competition was intensified in major metropolitan areas, where ongoing job searching and short-term appointments were experienced as a persistent feature of academic life.

Gendered expectations and care responsibilities further constrained mobility for some participants, especially women with families. They reported being expected to assume heavier teaching-related responsibilities (including preparation, assessment, and associated administrative work), which limited time for research, thus restricting mobility within the field. This aligns with

research suggesting that women academics in Japan often carry higher teaching and administrative loads and have fewer research hours than male colleagues (Kimoto, 2015), as well as national statistics indicating persistent gender inequality in academia (Arimoto, 2024; Gender Equality Bureau, 2020; MEXT, 2025b). Rather than treating this as a general social problem, the present discussion highlights how gendered constraints intersect with employment type to shape the conditions under which capital can be accumulated and converted into recognition and job security.

5.2 Contract Status as a Marker of Departmental Positioning

Although this section focuses on the accounts of faculty employed on FTECs, contrasting these accounts with tenured participant experiences helps clarify how employment category functions as a status marker within departmental fields. Tenured staff occupied a qualitatively different position from colleagues employed on fixed-term and part-time contracts, not only in terms of workload but in terms of the forms of participation through which recognition and influence are produced.

As the literature suggests, tenured faculty typically carry responsibilities beyond teaching, including committee work, research, publishing, conference activity, and administrative duties (Larson-Hall & Stewart, 2019). In the present study, these responsibilities were also experienced as integration mechanisms: they provided routine access to decision-making arenas, information flows, and collegial networks. This access strengthened workplace and institutional integration and supported the accumulation of valued forms of departmental capital. In Bourdieusian terms, tenure operates as institutionalised security that stabilises one’s position and facilitates the conversion of participation into recognition and influence.

In contrast, fixed-term status constrained access to these participation-based mechanisms. Research on casualisation and non-standard employment links fixed-term contracts to job insecurity, constrained autonomy, and the ongoing need to demonstrate employability (McKenzie, 2012). The present study

extends this discussion by showing how these pressures were experienced through reduced institutional participation and, in some contexts, workplace separation. The key distinction, therefore, is not simply workload intensity, but the way employment status structures participation and recognition within the institution – supporting the thesis's broader claim that contract status functions as a primary structuring condition.

Across institutions, participants reported common patterns consistent with hierarchal differentiation by contract type. Many described heavy teaching loads, limited time for research, minimal access to research funding, and lower workplace status. At the same time, experiences varied across current and previous HEIs, and participants described different strategies for navigating these conditions. In line with Ashwin's (2012) emphasis on the dynamic relationship between structural influences and individual agency, participants' accounts suggest that institutional policies around FTECs often functioned as cultural and structural constraints. At the same time, individuals attempted to adapt to, negotiate, and in some cases resist these conditions through everyday practice. Importantly, what counted as valued contribution also varied by department. As Heffernan (2022) notes, departments attribute different amounts of capital to different achievements, with some placing greater value on teaching and others prioritising research output. These differences shaped how participants interpreted their own positioning and prospects within departmental fields.

Some participants also indicated that expectations and workloads did not align clearly with contract status alone. For example, some Japanese faculty reported heavier administrative loads despite not being permanently employed, and some suggested that institutional expectations were higher for Japanese staff simply because they were Japanese. These accounts reinforce the need to treat employment type as the primary structuring condition while remaining attentive to intersecting organisational norms and identity-based expectations that shape everyday experiences in departments.

Participants further described navigating labour laws and regulations that made pathways to permanent employment difficult and unclear (Ikezoe, 2018; see also Takahashi, 2024). The perceived inflexibility and opacity of contract arrangements were experienced as barriers to securing permanent employment and progression within departments, and may function as deterrents to upward mobility while working on FTECs.

Finally, many participants described limited opportunities for collegial interaction with both Japanese and international colleagues. Among international interviewees, this sometimes meant minimal everyday contact with Japanese staff; in a small number of cases, participants reported virtually no interaction and limited knowledge of who their departmental colleagues were. Based on interview and questionnaire responses, some universities appeared to separate Japanese and international faculty to some extent. While this cannot be assumed across all Japanese HEIs, these accounts align with prior research linking workplace separation to unfavourable working conditions and constrained integration (e.g., Brotherhood et al., 2020; Chen, 2022a, 2022b; Huang, 2018b; Nishikawa, 2021). From an integration perspective, such separation is not merely the absence of personal interaction: it functions as a structural constraint on institutional participation by limiting access to informal networks, information flows, and departmental decision-making, thereby weakening workplace and institutional integration.

5.3 Contract Status, Networks, and Mobility in Departmental Fields

Consistent with Bourdieu's account of social capital and with research on academic networking, career progression often depends on informal ties that can reproduce hierarchical structures within the field (Bourdieu, 1986; Heffernan, 2020). This section discusses how these processes intersect with contract status in shaping mobility opportunities in Japanese HE.

After securing placement at a Japanese HEI, participants' trajectories varied depending on factors such as qualifications, departmental hierarchical positioning, professional connections, and access to valued forms of capital.

Despite this variation, participants repeatedly described uncertain and constrained pathways to more secure employment. Although formal processes may appear similar, accounts suggested that participation in departmental life and access to collegial networks influence visibility, recognition, and advancement, making mobility unevenly accessible in practice.

Collegial networks were described as relevant not only for day-to-day integration, but also for access to more secure roles. Participants described being offered positions from within their department or learning about opportunities through an acquaintance at another university. This illustrates both capital attracting capital (Heffernan, 2022) and processes of reproduction within the field (Bourdieu, 2000), particularly where permanent positions were secured through departmental connections. As Field (2017) notes, sustaining social capital also requires ongoing work to maintain and renew connections, which can disproportionately benefit those who already have access to well-established professional networks.

Social networking plays a significant role in Japanese academia (Green, 2022). Interview participants described examples of being hired through personal connections (for example, knowing someone on a hiring committee) or being offered a more secure position because their department valued an individual's work. This aligns with the observation that "hiring committees typically prefer to hire trusted acquaintances (or at least those recommended by trusted acquaintances) over unknown entities" (Larsen-Hall & Stewart, 2019, p. 17). Importantly, these findings also suggest that contract status shapes the conditions under which networks can be built and mobilised: where fixed-term positions limit routine interaction, committee participation, and informal access to information flows. Thus, opportunities to accumulate social capital become more constrained, potentially reinforcing stratification across employment categories.

The next section examines tenure as institutionalised security and routinised participation, clarifying why permanent employment is experienced as a

qualitative shift in access to recognised contribution and integration mechanisms.

5.4 Tenure as Institutionalised Security and Routinised Participation

Research on Japanese HE suggests that institutional practices can diverge from nominal categories, producing localised meanings of tenure and regular employment (McVeigh, 2002). In this study, tenure was frequently experienced less as a post-probationary status and more as the attainment of stable, non-contract, full-time employment. Larson-Hall and Stewart (2019) describe how “at Japanese universities, ‘tenure’ is in practice, if not in name, really just a matter of securing regular, non-contract, full-time employment” (p. 18). Rothman (2019) similarly frames the core distinction as employment security, saying how “a tenured instructor is a permanent employee who cannot be dismissed for arbitrary reasons” (p. 188). In this sense, tenure functions primarily as institutionalised job security within the field (Larson-Hall & Stewart. 2019; Rothman, 2019). Comparisons with Western tenure should therefore be made cautiously, since systems vary substantially across countries and institutions. For the present thesis, the relevant point is that tenure in the Japanese context is experienced through security and its institutional consequences: stable rules, recognised standing, and routine access to departmental participation.

In participants’ accounts, tenured and full-time permanent faculty described responsibilities beyond teaching, including committee work, departmental decision-making, seminar and major-specific teaching, and (in some cases) graduate teaching and support for research grant applications. These responsibilities functioned as integration mechanisms. They provided routine access to decision-making arenas, information flows, and collegial networks, thereby strengthening workplace and institutional integration and enabling the accumulation of valued forms of departmental capital.

What counted as valued contributions varied across departments. As Heffernan (2022) notes “different faculties will also attribute their own amounts of capital to

various achievements" (p. 51). In some contexts, grant-related work was strongly valued; in others, publications, conference activity, or curriculum development carried greater weight. This variation helps explain why integration was described as an institutional process tied to recognised participation rather than as interpersonal belonging alone.

Autonomy and solidarity also shaped how integration was experienced (Austin & Rice, 1998; Véliz et al., 2020). Where individuals reported dissatisfaction with autonomy (Youn & Price, 2009) or a lack of solidarity among colleagues (Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992), integration was described as fragile. Nevertheless, in this study, tenured faculty generally had greater opportunities to influence departmental decisions and to participate in institutional life, strengthening integration and enabling greater mobility within departmental hierarchies.

5.5 Integration Mechanisms and Workplace Separation

Studies on faculty integration and collegiality suggest that participation in informal networks and governance structures supports professional identity and well-being (Olsen & Sorcellini, 1992). Building on the multi-dimensional approach to integration set out in Chapter 2, the discussion here foregrounds workplace and institutional integration. The central claim is that contract status systematically mediates access to mechanisms through which integration is produced, including the structuring of interaction, participation in decision-making, and access to informal departmental information flows.

5.5.1 Non-Integration Under Fixed Term Employment

Few questionnaire participants described their integration positively, and many reported a severe lack of integration within their HEI or department. Interview accounts similarly emphasised restricted opportunities for collegial interaction, limited participation in departmental activities beyond teaching, and uncertainty about whether long-term investment in departmental life was viable under repeated employment cycles.

Participant accounts also linked non-integration to the distribution of work and status attached to different forms of academic labour. Within HEIs, teaching is often treated as less valued than research and publications (Webb et al., 2002). Where fixed-term positions were structured as teaching-heavy with minimal time for research, faculty had fewer opportunities to accumulate and mobilise capital associated with recognition and progression (Heffernan, 2022). From an integration perspective, heavy teaching loads and restricted research support can therefore operate as mechanisms that structurally constrain participation, visibility, and advancement.

Participants employed on FTECs were keenly aware of the temporary nature of their positions. Over time, this awareness shaped how they interpreted their positioning within departmental hierarchies and their prospects for advancement. Several participants reported feeling under-recognised, lacking adequate funding or time to conduct research, and occupying lower positions within departmental structures with limited opportunities for upward mobility. These patterns align with prior research on fixed-term and non-permanent employment in Japanese HEIs (Brotherhood et al., 2020; Chen, 2022a, 2022b; Miller, 2022; Nishikawa, 2021). In this study, these experiences were not framed simply as dissatisfaction with workload, but because of limited access to recognised participation pathways through which capital and credibility are accumulated. This reinforces the argument that contract status shapes baseline conditions for integration, recognition, and mobility within departmental fields.

5.5.2 Physical Separation and the “International Ghetto”

Foreign faculty are often physically separated from Japanese colleagues through office allocation (and, in some cases, building allocation), which can function as more than a logistical arrangement. Altbach and Yudkevich (2017) note that in some Western contexts expatriate academics may form their own subcultures, thereby limiting their engagement with mainstream university life. In the present context, however, participants described separation less as voluntary subcultural formation and more as an institutional boundary that

dictates who has routine access to collegial interaction and departmental information flows.

This boundary is important because it intersects with employment status and role differentiation. In Japanese HEIs, the idea of international is often routinely linked to particular job types (especially language teaching roles that are disproportionately fixed-term), meaning that physical separation can align with wider practices of workplace segmentation. When informal access is restricted – through separate staff rooms, limited entry to shared spaces, or weak inclusion in routine interactions – opportunities to develop collegial relationships, learn tacit departmental norms, and gain visibility within the department are reduced. Over time, this can constrain the accumulation and mobilisation of social and cultural capital that are valued within the departmental field.

Interpreted through Bourdieu's lens, this kind of separation can stabilise existing distributions of capital and preserve established hierarchies (Bourdieu, 1989). Access to valued cultural capital (for example, procedural knowledge, committee participation, informal mentoring, and the practical know-how needed to navigate the institution) is often distributed through proximity and regular interaction rather than through formal policy alone. Where fixed-term faculty are structurally positioned at the margins of these interactional spaces, capital becomes harder to acquire and convert, reinforcing a pattern in which advantage accumulates among those already positioned centrally (Heffernan, 2022). The next section builds on this by showing how these constraints on participation and recognition were reflected in participants' accounts of well-being.

5.6 Well-being Outcomes Shaped by Contract Status

As reviewed in chapter 2, well-being is treated as multi-dimensional rather than reducible to job satisfaction alone (Synder et al., 2011; Viac & Fraser, 2020). Building on the employment and participation conditions discussed previously, this section interprets participants' accounts of well-being, maintaining contract

status as the central structuring condition while recognising intersecting socio-cultural, gendered, and organisational factors.

The PERMA model (positive emotion, engagement, positive relationships, meaning and accomplishment) provides one useful interpretive framework for identifying how participants described the quality of their working lives (Seligman, 2012). Participants referenced multiple PERMA elements across their careers, but accounts often foregrounded relationships, engagement, and affective experience (positive and negative) more strongly than meaning and accomplishment. A consistent pattern was that limited collegial relationships and weak workplace belonging were linked to reduced well-being for many fixed-term faculty, aligning the relationships element of PERMA with workplace integration as an everyday condition.

In addition, Farag and Allen (2009) argue that “overall job satisfaction is strongly influenced by the realisation (or failure to do so) of the various work orientations” (p. 204). For the present study, the relevant point is that many fixed-term participants described deficits in orientations linked to security and recognition (e.g., job security, status, and clear role structure), workplace belonging (e.g., teamwork and a supportive social climate), and recovery time outside of work. They also described limited opportunities for autonomy and longer-term professional development. These deficits align with the broader claim that contract status shapes access to participation and recognition, with downstream consequences for well-being.

Many participants on FTECs described a lack of the workplace conditions that would make their jobs sustainable, which contributed to diminished well-being. Participants most often mentioned limited job security, reduced recognition and status, fewer opportunities for teamwork and a supportive social climate, and insufficient time for leisure and recovery outside of work. Mental health emerged in a small number of interview accounts. While this was not a dominant theme across the dataset, Inoue et al. (2011) report that fixed-term employees may experience slightly higher occurrences of stress-related mental health issues than permanent employees. The present study does not claim

strong causal effects in relation to health; rather, it indicates that where stress and reduced well-bring were reported, participants often linked these experiences to insecurity, constrained participation, and limited collegial support.

5.6.1 Stress and Work-Life Balance Under Stratified Roles

Stress and work-life balance were discussed in depth by both questionnaire and interview participants, although the sources of stress differed across employment categories. Tenured participants described stressors related to meetings, administrative responsibilities, committee work, and the interpersonal and political dimensions of departmental life. Fixed-term participants more frequently described stressors tied to teaching-heavy roles, student-related demands, and limited support or communication within departments.

Participants also described uneven pressures around research and publication. For many fixed-term faculty, research was not formally required, yet it remained important for progression in the field. This created a tension in which research was experienced as necessary for mobility but difficult to sustain under heavy teaching loads. Prior research notes that research can be experienced as particularly demanding, while teaching also generates stress through workload and expectations (Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). Participants similarly described stressors linked to teaching and classroom demands as well as organisational issues such as inadequate time to finish work, poor communication, and limited support (Gillespie et al., 2001; Gokalp, 2012; Kinman, 2001; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992; Sakurai & Mason, 2022; Nagamine, 2018; Viac & Fraser, 2020).

Work-life balance varied among participants. Some reported a workable balance; others described persistent overwork and difficulty sustaining life outside of the workplace. Snyder et al. (2011) highlight an emotional dimension of well-being connected to life satisfaction, which is undermined when individuals are unable to disengage from work demands. This aligns with research linking excessive workload and poor work-life balance to negative outcomes (Horta et al., 2019; Opstrup & Pihl-Thingvad, 2016; Pace et al., 2019;

Sabagh et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2011), including Japanese academic contexts (Sasao & Hatta, 2016). In the present study, these pressures were not described as individual time-management problems, but as outcomes of employment and participation conditions – particularly heavy teaching loads, limited autonomy, and blurred boundaries created by renewal uncertainty.

5.6.2 Economic and Health Considerations

Economic factors were not always discussed explicitly, but stable employment functions as a baseline condition for economic security. Finkelstein et al. (2022) suggest that economic stability and health are often linked, even if individuals do not articulate this connection directly. In Bourdieusian terms, employment security in a cultural subfield is shaped by the broader economic field (Bourdieu, 1994); stable academic employment provides resources and predictability that can support well-being and reduce stress associated with future uncertainty.

However, income and well-being do not consistently correlate in straightforward ways. Misheva (2016), for example, reports that having a steady income does not necessarily produce positive emotional well-being. This may help explain why participants did not always mention economic factors in their accounts, even when employment insecurity clearly shaped everyday planning and perceptions of stability.

Health was discussed only briefly in most accounts, apart from a small number of interviewees who addressed mental health or the health of family members. The present findings therefore align with much of the existing literature in which stress and well-being are discussed more prominently than specific health outcomes in relation to fixed-term employment (e.g., Inoue et al., 2011), while also reflecting that health is often mentioned as a related issue rather than a primary focus (Gosanine et al., 2021; Spina et al., 2019).

For some international faculty, socio-cultural factors (including communicative practices and cultural familiarity) shaped everyday interaction and informal

inclusion (Green, 2022). In this thesis, these dynamics are treated as intersecting and contextual: they matter chiefly insofar as they mediate access to workplace participation and institutional recognition, thereby interacting with the contract-based constraints described above.

5.7 Contract Status as a Structuring Condition

Overall, the findings suggest that contract status operates as a primary structuring condition shaping positioning, participation, and recognition within Japanese HEIs. The key differences between tenured/permanent and fixed-term employment were not reducible to workload demands alone; rather employment type structured access to the arenas through which workplace and institutional integration are produced, including decision-making, information flows, and routine collegial interaction. Tenure and permanent employment therefore functioned as institutionalised security with practical consequences for participation and visibility.

A second point concerns reproduction through networks. Informal ties and departmental support were repeatedly described as important in recruitment and progression, echoing accounts of social capital and reproduction in academic fields (Bourdieu, 1986; Bourdieu, 2000; Heffernan, 2020). However, the capacity to build and sustain such ties was itself shaped by contract category. Where fixed-term roles limited participation and informal access, networks were harder to develop and mobilise, reinforcing stratification through mechanisms that are experienced as everyday and routine rather than explicitly exclusionary.

This chapter also clarifies integration as an institutional and workplace process rather than a purely individual achievement. Although socio-cultural positioning and communicative practices were relevant for some international staff, participant accounts suggested that workplace separation and role segmentation functioned as structural constraints on participants for both Japanese and international staff. In this sense, difficulties with integration are better interpreted as patterned outcomes of organisational arrangements that

distribute access to interaction, information, and recognition unevenly across employment categories.

Finally, participants' well-being was closely tied to these employment and participation conditions. Where participants described diminished well-being, they often linked it to insecurity, constrained autonomy, limited collegial support, high workload, and weak boundaries between work and personal time. Gendered expectations and care responsibilities were also described as intersecting constraints for some participants, potentially limiting research time and mobility opportunities. These findings support the central claim that contract status shapes the baseline conditions for integration and recognition, with intersecting factors shaping how those conditions are experienced in day-to-day workplace interactions.

Taken together, the discussion in this chapter suggests that variation in integration and well-being should be understood primarily as patterned effects of employment category and participation conditions, rather than as individual differences alone. The following section summarises the chapter's key claims and sets up the thesis conclusions in Chapter 6.

5.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter interpreted the findings from Chapter 4 in relation to the literature and the conceptual framework, showing how contract status emerged as the primary structuring condition shaping faculty positioning within departmental fields in Japanese HE. Across accounts, employment category influenced access to participation, recognition, and mobility, and therefore shaped how staff understood their standing within departments and within the wider academic field. Tenure and permanent employment functioned as institutionalised security, not only reducing employment uncertainty but also providing routine access to committees, decision-making arenas, information flows, and collegial networks. These arenas functioned as practical mechanisms through which workplace and institutional integration are produced

and maintained, and through which contributions become visible and recognised within departments.

In contrast, fixed-term employment constrained access to these integration mechanisms through teaching-heavy roles, limited participation pathways, renewal uncertainty, and (in some cases) workplace separation. These conditions weakened opportunities to accumulate and convert valued forms of capital within departmental settings, contributing to stratification across employment categories and narrowing the practical pathways through which non-permanent staff could build influence, credibility, and longer-term prospects. Recruitment and progression were also shaped by networks, which often operated alongside formal merit-based criteria. However, the capacity to build and sustain these ties was itself patterned by contract category, since restricted participation and peripheral positioning limited routine exposure to the relationships and information channels through which opportunities emerge. In this way, the chapter illustrates how stratification can be reproduced through everyday organisational practices as well as through formal employment arrangements.

The chapter further demonstrated that well-being outcomes were closely tied to these employment and participation conditions. For many fixed-term faculty, insecurity, limited autonomy, weak collegial support, high workload, and difficulties maintaining work–life balance were common stressors, while tenured staff described different stress profiles linked more strongly to governance responsibilities, committee workloads, and departmental administration. Finally, socio-cultural positioning, gendered expectations, and care responsibilities intersected with contract status for some participants, at times amplifying constraints on participation and well-being. These intersecting factors were treated as analytically distinct from contract status, but relevant insofar as they mediated everyday interaction, informal inclusion, and access to the workplace opportunities through which recognition and mobility are produced. Chapter 6 draws these strands together by outlining the thesis's contributions to knowledge, limitations, and implications for policy and practice in Japanese HE.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This study set out to explore and understand the working conditions of faculty currently or previously employed on FTECs in HEIs in Japan. This chapter begins by revisiting the research questions and addressing them in light of the study's findings, followed by a discussion of their implications and the study's contribution to the field of HE, both globally and in the context of Japan. Finally, the chapter will conclude by considering the limitations and possibilities for future research.

6.1 Addressing the Research Questions

The present study sought to understand the experiences of faculty working on FTECs in Japanese HEIs. However, understanding the overall experiences required acknowledging the nuances of the positions themselves, the inner workings of Japanese culture and HEIs, including departmental hierarchies, and developing a comprehensive view of academia in Japan and how individuals position themselves within it. The research questions that guided this study were as follows:

Overall Research question: What are the experiences of faculty employed on fixed-term contracts in Japanese HEIs?

RQ1: What are Japanese university faculty's perceptions of their position within their university/the field of HE in Japan and what is their experience of entering and working Japanese HE, especially for the majority of international staff who are on short term contracts?

RQ2: How do the experiences and identity characteristics of working on Japanese fixed-term contracts shape their positionality within the structure of Japanese higher education?

> RQ2.2: What does it mean in relation to their institutional integration, well-being, and professional/job satisfaction?

RQ2.3: What socio-cultural, health, and economic factors do faculty on fixed-term employment contracts relate to their well-being, why and how?

In the following sections, I will answer the research questions and provide implications for the findings of each RQ.

6.1.1 Perceptions of Faculty's Positions in the Field and their Higher Education Insitutions

RQ1 inquired about faculty's perceptions of their positioning in the field and within their HEIs. Participant views varied, particularly among individuals working on FTECs. While tenured professors tended to be more positive about their place in the field, individuals without permanent employment were less optimistic. Many participants described difficulties integrating into their departments, as well as challenges establishing a place in the broader field of HE. As previous research has shown (e.g. Brotherhood et al., 2020; Chen 2022a, 2022b; Nishikawa, 2021), faculty on FTECs in Japanese HEIs often have unfavourable perceptions of their standing in the field, including the departments they work in.

Most participants without permanent employment struggled to find their place within their departments, a challenge they perceived as more significant than integrating into the broader field of HE. Although this was the case for those working on FTECs, tenured participants had a better feel for their positioning in their department and the field of HE, having stronger capital due to stable positioning. A small number of participants – particularly women with family responsibilities – also described gendered expectations that shaped how they were recognised and how easily they could pursue mobility in the field. They reported being expected to assume heavier teaching-related (and associated administrative) responsibilities, which reduced time for research and professional engagement, further constraining opportunities to accumulate and convert valued forms of capital. Part-time participants were varied in their placement in the field. Some were content working multiple part-time jobs, with

no intention of moving to a full-time or permanent position. Others sought upward mobility in the hierarchal ladder to procure a fixed-term position and work towards acquiring a tenured job.

6.1.2 Cultural Capital and its Role in Faculty Experiences

RQ1 similarly inquired about the characteristics that participants highlighted regarding faculty experiences in Japanese HEIs, considering how cultural capital was used in the field. Participants described diverse experiences depending upon the HEI, department, and employment contract type. While some participants reported positive experiences and worked in supportive environments, others felt marginalized because of the perceived status of their positioning within their department. Participants' experiences were largely based around integration and well-being within their departments, as well as workplace responsibility.

Within the field, cultural capital was based on current positions and employment status in participant's departments. Capital, in general, is acquired through a progression in the field, acquaintances and connections, and accomplishments (e.g. publications, presentations, where they work, etc.), thus participant's cultural capital varied, however, there were some consistencies. Typically, participants who held a permanent position had greater cultural capital than those who did not. Participants who did not hold a permanent position held less cultural capital, due to the restrictions of working on FTECs. However, this is not to say that one cannot advance within the departmental hierarchy or the field of HE in Japan. Bourdieu's (1988) notion that social connections, and the ability to advance within a field through accumulated capital, remains highly relevant. Knowing someone in a higher position often increases one's chances of securing employment, regardless of formal qualifications (Larson-Hall & Stewart, 2019) or one's status within an HEI.

6.1.3 Perspectives on Fixed-Term Policies and Institutional Integration

RQ2 investigated faculty experiences working on FTECs, and their integration in their HEI, well-being and job satisfaction. Integration was mainly dependent

upon participants' current role in their HEI. Most tenured professors were more integrated into their department because of their workplace responsibilities, and in many instances had a say in decision making in their department, creating a necessary role for them. The integration of participants working on FTECs varied. While some were more integrated into their department, others were not. It was context-dependent regarding participant integration, however, in many cases integration was lacking among non-permanent workers. Due to this lack of integration, participants felt less committed to their HEI, noting that it was common to begin job searches in the third or fourth year to avoid unemployment after their contract term ended.

Most participants, regardless of their contract type, were satisfied with the job itself and their place of employment, even if integration was inadequate. Interestingly, the type of employment contract had little impact on the nature of the job or on whether individuals enjoyed their working environment, such as their relationships with colleagues, their students, or their overall stress levels. However, some participants were overworked, including faculty working on FTECs, and felt they did not have a proper work-life balance. This included excessive teaching loads, administrative work, or other responsibilities, which influenced their well-being and was one of many stressors they dealt with at their HEI. Other stressors included student motivation and an unequal balance of teaching and research time, which affected both tenured and non-tenured faculty.

6.1.4 Habitus and Positioning in the Field

RQ2.2 considered faculty's habitus and positioning in the field, which varied according to each participant's circumstances and trajectory. For many participants, entry into Japanese HEIs involved some degree of adjustment between prior dispositions and the expectations of institutional and departmental life. Over time, participants described adapting their practices and orientations in ways that supported participation in workplace groups and departments, as well as broader engagement in Japanese society. However, the extent to which this adaptation led to fuller integration was shaped not only

by individual experience, but also by institutional context and employment status. In particular, faculty working on FTECs often faced constraints on participation and continuity that limited their inclusion within departments, even where they had developed the dispositions and practices needed to navigate the local context.

Positioning within the field of HE also varied depending on several factors, including the length of time working in Japanese HE, number of publications, conference presentations, and professional connections. These factors significantly shaped an individual's capital within the field. The more capital one possessed, the greater their chances of securing employment; conversely, those with less capital faced greater challenges in navigating the competitive academic job market.

6.1.5 Socio-cultural, Health, and Economic Factors Affecting Faculty Well-Being

RQ2.3 examined the relation between socio-cultural, health, economic factors, and well-being of faculty working on FTECs. Integration into an individual's institutional department played a part as to whether they had positive well-being. The more integrated someone was within their department, the greater their sense of well-being. While integration may positively influence health-related factors, there is no direct correlation between integration and health. However, some research on health and well-being in Japan does exist (see Inoue et al., 2011). Similarly, there was little to no discussion of health issues based on integration or socio-cultural factors. Economic factors were rarely cited, aside from participants mentioning the importance of employment when connected to daily life, paying rent, mortgages, and supporting a family. Finkelstein et al. (2022) argue that those without economic stability are more likely to suffer various health issues, and although this was not specifically mentioned in the study, there is the possibility that this problem could arise with individuals working on FTECs in the future.

Although no specific health concerns were identified by participants, several noted influential socio-cultural factors. These issues were discussed in relation to departmental relationships and participation, rather than socio-cultural experiences outside the workplace. Participants described difficulties engaging fully with colleagues and navigating departmental dynamics, which at times contributed to feelings of isolation and exclusion from informal departmental networks. In turn, these experiences led some participants to question their role within the department and their position within the wider field of academia.

6.1.6 Fixed-Term Employment, Integration, and Well-Being in Japanese Higher Education

This concluding section synthesises the findings in relation to the central research question, with particular attention to fixed-term employment, integration, and well-being in Japanese HE. Faculty working on FTECs were generally not integrated into their HEIs or departments. While this was not the case for all, most full-time and part-time fixed-term faculty reported feeling like outsiders, with limited integration and wavering loyalty toward their institutions. Their commitment to the HEI may be driven by the prospect of securing a letter of recommendation or equivalent support to bolster their capital in the academic job market. However, their dedication to their students was largely unwavering, regardless of the contract type. Despite stressors that were mentioned due to student motivation or attitudes, participants enjoyed teaching their students and being in the classroom.

All tenured participants went through the same system as participants currently working on FTECs, so they were keenly aware of the challenges of working on FTECs. However, the longer participants remained in Japan, the more they increased their capital by acquiring master's or doctoral degrees, making connections in the field of HE, working full-time and part-time at multiple HEIs to gain experience, improving Japanese language skills to be able to function in an HE environment, and presenting at domestic and international conferences.

Participants were satisfied with their current positions but frustrated by the need to seek new employment within five to ten years. Redirecting focus away from work or research to seek new employment can negatively affect classroom performance, attitude towards work, interactions with colleagues, and accumulation of capital within their department and the broader field. Though this is not always true as many individuals will continue to publish and present at conferences while looking for employment. While these employment contracts are not detrimental to habitus or capital in the field, they do impact them to varying degrees and may impact upward mobility, among other areas.

6.2 Contributions to the Field of Higher Education

This study sought to garner an understanding of individuals working on FTECs in Japanese HEIs. As mentioned previously, there have been few studies that have specifically focused on FTECs, integration, well-being, and workplace satisfaction in the Japanese context. While research on these employment contracts is limited, there have been studies on the integration of international faculty in Japanese HEIs and well-being. However, what many of these studies lack is a Japanese perspective. By providing this, even in a small way, anyone who reads this study can potentially garner more insight from those working on FTECs. Although these findings may be familiar to those working within Japanese HEIs, they are intended to inform a broader audience and highlight a critical issue that deserves further discussion and action toward systemic reform.

6.3 Contributions to Knowledge

This thesis is one of the first detailed mixed methods studies of international FTEC faculty in Japan, which includes Japanese faculty. Previous research has been largely qualitative, with few studies taking a quantitative approach. A mixed methods approach was used, combining a suitable sample size using a quantitative survey and qualitative interviews. Finally, the application of Bourdieu's habitus, capital, and field concepts was used to explain the precarious nature of these FTEC contracts in Japanese HE. Bourdieu's

concepts, to the best of my knowledge, have not been used in this way prior to this thesis.

A reflection on researcher positionality is also important given the Bourdieusian orientation of this thesis. My own position in the field of Japanese HE, including my habitus, accumulated professional experience, and forms of capital, shaped the study in both productive and constraining ways. This positioning likely supported access to participants, facilitated rapport during interviews, and informed my sensitivity to issues such as contract insecurity, departmental integration, and the practical value of linguistic and social capital. At the same time, proximity to the field may also have influenced which experiences appeared most salient in interpretation, including the risk of normalising institutional practices that participants themselves experienced as exclusionary. In this sense, the findings should be read not as field-neutral observations, but as knowledge produced through a situated research relationship. The mixed methods design, inclusion of both Japanese and international participants, and explicit acknowledgement of sampling limitations were therefore important in strengthening the credibility and balance of the analysis.

6.4 Policy and Practice

Although policy reform in Japan often progresses at an exceedingly slow pace, there remains cautious optimism for change, though not in the immediate future. Universities continue to show reluctance to revise their stance on FTECs or adapt these contracts to meet institutional and individual needs more effectively. A policy shift within academia could potentially influence other industries, yet such developments may pose challenges for policymakers hesitant to implement structural reforms.

Since their introduction in the late 1990s, fixed-term employment policies have evolved incrementally, from one-year contracts to three- to five-year terms, with some HEIs now permitting employment of up to ten years. A more flexible approach would allow HEIs to determine whether a position should be fixed-term or permanent, based on institutional needs and circumstances. Granting

universities such autonomy could enable more employment frameworks tailored to institutional needs, while maintaining accountability and fairness.

While most educators seek permanent employment, some may prefer flexible arrangements that allow them to balance multiple part-time positions or external commitments. Therefore, policymakers and HE departments must critically evaluate whether current FTECs are equitable and how they might be restructured to better serve both institutional and individual interests. Meaningful reform has the potential to create a more sustainable, competitive, and equitable academic environment.

For faculty seeking long-term employment, the possibility of transitioning from fixed-term to permanent status could encourage deeper engagement through curriculum development, research productivity, and contributions to departmental life. Individual HEIs could establish transparent criteria for such transitions, rewarding commitment and performance. In parallel, faculty who prefer flexibility would retain the freedom to move between institutions. Ultimately, revising FTEC policies could benefit both educators and institutions by fostering stability, motivation, and a stronger sense of belonging within Japanese HE.

6.5 Limitations

While this study provided a breadth of information about faculty with experience working on FTECs, it was not without its limitations. The main limitation was the lack of Japanese participants. From the outset of this research, I envisioned half of the interview participants to be Japanese and half to be international faculty. However, there were only three Japanese interview participants and fewer than 10 Japanese questionnaire respondents. This was a rather sizeable limitation as one of the goals of this study was to understand and learn about the experiences of Japanese faculty working on FTECs and their international counterparts. It is unclear as to why there were so few Japanese participants. However, while the questionnaire was in Japanese, in hindsight it would have been preferable to conduct interviews in Japanese, which would likely have

eased the burden on those who were hesitant to speak English. Employment contracts are a sensitive topic in Japanese academia, and despite data being securely handled, participants may have feared that their comments could be disclosed or traced back to them.

A second limitation concerns the wording in the questionnaire section of the study, where *university* was used in the open-ended questions rather than the more precise term *department*. I believe that using *department* would have been more appropriate as many participants do not know what goes on in departments outside of their own. Some participants may have had broader knowledge of university-wide matters, but most of the participants only know what is happening in their department, thus it is difficult to answer a question they have little insight into. This point was also mentioned in open-ended questions by participants and is something that should have been corrected prior to the distribution of the questionnaire.

6.6 Future Research

While this study contributes to the growing body of research on employment contracts, well-being, and faculty integration in Japanese HEIs, there remains room for further exploration. As noted earlier, future studies must include more Japanese faculty voices. Without this, research risks repeating the same narratives and overlooking critical insights. Japanese faculty play a central role in these employment contracts, and greater inclusion of their perspectives would deepen understanding not only of the contracts themselves but also of how they are perceived by Japanese nationals.

Additionally, the development of an original questionnaire would strengthen future research, as the instrument used in this study was adapted from previous work. Although I was able to successfully gather responses and conduct interviews across Japan, a larger number of questionnaire participants could yield even richer data. This is not a shortcoming of the present study, but rather a consideration for future research in this area.

6.7 Concluding Remarks

Research that explores the integration and well-being of international faculty has been increasing over the last decade in Japan; however, it is still a minor research field compared to applied linguistics, which is what most researchers focus on in the country. Teachers and researchers want to read and learn about pedagogy they can use in the classroom, not working contracts and issues pertaining to policy. However, employment contracts, their function, and why they exist are equally as important as pedagogy.

The experiences of faculty in Japanese HE are shaped not only by individual teaching ability, motivation, and professional commitment, but also by the institutional conditions under which they work. In particular, the findings highlight the importance of employment arrangements, especially FTECs, in structuring access to resources, participation in departmental life, and opportunities to accumulate and convert valued forms of capital within HEIs. These differences, in turn, shaped how participants understood their position within their institutions and within the wider field of Japanese HE.

Integration and well-being are best understood as both personal and structural, rather than as outcomes of individual adaptation alone. Where fixed-term contracts limited continuity, recognition, and participation, participants often described insecurity, constrained autonomy, and uncertainty about their professional futures. Improving faculty integration and well-being in Japanese HEIs may therefore require not only support for collegiality and professional development, but also careful attention to the institutional use of fixed-term contracts, as this shapes inclusion, progression, and belonging across employment categories.

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Appendix A: Ethics Application Form

Research Ethics Application Form v1.9.7

Research Ethics Application Form v1.9.7 **EdAp**

The experiences of university teachers on fixed-term employment contracts in Japan - Approved

Information Regarding this Research Project

Are you conducting a research project?

(for more information on research projects please see our ethics pages)

(•) Yes ( ) No

Does your research only involve animals?

( ) Yes (•) No

Are you undertaking this research as/are you filling this form out as:

( ) Academic/Research Staff
( ) Non Academic Staff
( ) Staff Undertaking a Programme of Study
(•) PhD or DClinPsy student or MPhil
( ) Undergraduate, Masters, Master by Research or other taught postgraduate programme

Which Faculty are you in?

Faculty of Arts and Social Science

Which department are you in?

Educational Research

Will your project require NHS REC approval? (If you are not sure please read the guidance in the information button)

○ Yes ◉ No

Do you need Health Research Authority (HRA) approval? (Please read the guidance in the information button)

○ Yes ◉ No

Have you already obtained, or will you be applying for ethical approval, from another institution outside of Lancaster University? (For example, an external institution such as: another University's Research Ethics Committee, the NHS or an institution abroad (eg an IRB in the USA)? Please select one of the following:

- ◉ No, I do not need ethical approval from an external institution.
- ○ Yes, I have already received ethical approval from an external institution.
- ○ Yes, I will be applying for ethical approval from an external institution after I have received confirmation of ethical approval from my Faculty Research Ethics Committee (FREC) at Lancaster University, if the FREC grants approval.

Is this an amendment to a project previously approved by Lancaster University?

○ Yes ◉ No

Will your research involve any of the following? (Multiple selections are possible, please see i icon for details)

- ☑ Human Participants
- ☐ Data relating to humans (Secondary/Pre-existing data only)
- ☐ Data collection from online sources such as social media platforms, discussion forums, online chat-rooms
- ☐ Human Tissue
- ☐ None of the above

Project Information

Please confirm/amend the title of this project.

The experiences of university teachers on fixed-term employment contracts in Japan

Estimated Project Start Date 03/07/2023

Estimated End Date 30/11/2023

Is this a funded Project?

○ Yes ◉ No

Research Site(s) Information

Will you be recruiting participants from research sites outside of Lancaster University? *(E.g. Schools, workplaces, etc; please read the guidance in the information button for more information)*

◉ Yes ○ No

Please provide the number, type and location of external research sites that you are using (please see help text for details).

Minimum 3, maximum 20 different public and private universities throughout Japan.

Applicant Details

Are you the named Principal Investigator at Lancaster University?

◉ Yes ○ No

Please check your contact details are correct. You can update these fields via the personal details section located in the top right of the screen. Click on your name and email address in the top right to access "Personal details". For more details on how to do this, please read the guidance in the information button.

First Name

Brian

Surname

Dubin

Department

Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences

Faculty

Higher Educational Research

Email

b.dubin@lancaster.ac.uk

Principal Investigator

You have stated that you are the Principal Investigator for this project.

First Name

Brian

Surname

Dubin

Department

Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences

Email

b.dubin@lancaster.ac.uk

Supervisor Details

Search for your supervisor's name. *If you cannot find your supervisor in the system please contact rso-systems@lancaster.ac.uk to have them added.*

First Name

Natasa

Surname

Lackovic

Department

Ed Red

Faculty

FASS

Email

n.lackovic@lancaster.ac.uk

Do you need to add a second supervisor to sign off on this project?

○ Yes ◉ No

Additional Team Members

Other then those already added, please select which type of team members will be working on this project:

- ☑ I am not working with any other team members.
- ☐ Staff
- ☐ Student
- ☐ External

Details about the participants

As you are conducting research with Human Participants/Tissue you will need to answer the following questions before your application can be reviewed.

If you have any queries about this please contact your Ethics Officer before proceeding.

What's the minimum number of participants needed for this project?

50

What's the maximum number of expected participants?

200

Do you intend to recruit participants from online sources such as social media platforms, discussion forums, or online chat rooms?

○ Yes ◉ No

Will you get written consent and give a participant information sheet with a written description of your research to all potential participants?

◉ Yes ○ No ○ I don't know

Will any participants be asked to take part in the study without their consent or knowledge at the time or will deception of any sort be involved?

○ Yes ◉ No ○ I don't know

Is your research with any vulnerable groups?

(Vulnerable group as defined by Lancaster University Guidelines)

○ Yes ◉ No ○ I don't know

Is your research with any adults (aged 18 or older)?

◉ Yes ○ No

Is your research data collected with completely anonymous adult (aged 18 or older) participants, with no contact details or other uniquely identifying information (e.g. date of birth) being recorded?

◉ Yes ○ No

Is your research with adult participants (aged 18 years, or older) in private interactions (for example, one to one interviews, online questionnaires)?

(•) Yes ( ) No

Is your research with any young people (under 18 years old)?

( ) Yes (•) No ( ) I don't know

Does your research involve discussion of personally sensitive subjects which the participant might not be willing to otherwise talk about in public (e.g. medical conditions)?

( ) Yes (•) No ( ) I don't know

Could the study induce psychological stress or anxiety, or produce humiliation or cause harm or negative consequences beyond the risks encountered in a participant's usual, everyday life?

( ) Yes (•) No ( ) I don't know

Is there a risk that the nature of the research topic might lead to disclosures from the participant concerning either:

- Their own or others involvement in illegal activities
- Other activities that represent a threat to themselves or others (e.g. sexual activity, drug use, or professional misconduct)?

( ) Yes (•) No ( ) I don't know

Does the study involve any of the following:

- Physically intrusive procedures including touching or attaching equipment to participants
- Administration of substances
- Ultrasound or sources of non-ionising radiation (e.g. lasers)
- Sources of ionising radiation, (e.g. X-rays)
- Collection or use of samples of Human Tissue (e.g. Saliva, skin cells, blood etc.)

( ) Yes (•) No ( ) I don't know

Details about Participant relationships

Do you have a current or prior relationship with potential participants? For example, teaching or assessing students or managing or influencing staff (this list is not exhaustive).

(•) Yes ( ) No ( ) I don't know

Will you ensure that the prior relationship does not cause the participant to feel/perceive pressure to participate, and will you explain that their decision whether to participate or not will have no effect on their learning, assessment, treatment, or rights?

(•) Yes ( ) No ( ) I don't know

If you need written permission from a senior manager in an organisation where research will take place (e.g. school, business) will you gain this in advance of undertaking your research?

( ) Yes (•) No ( ) I don't know ( ) N/A

Will you be using a gatekeeper to access participants?

( ) Yes (•) No ( ) I don't know if I will be using a gatekeeper

Will participants be subjected to any undue incentives to participate?

( ) Yes (•) No ( ) I don't know

Will you ensure that there is no perceived pressure to participate?

(•) Yes ( ) No ( ) I don't know

Participant data

Will you be using video recording or photography as part of your research or publication of results?

( ) Yes (•) No

Will you be using audio recording as part of your research?

(•) Yes ( ) No

Will you be using audio recordings in outputs (e.g. giving a presentation in a conference, using it for teaching)?

( ) Yes (•) No

Will you be using portable devices to record participants (e.g. audio, video recorders, mobile phone, etc)?

- ○ No
- ◉ Yes, and all portable devices will be encrypted as per the Lancaster University ISS standards, in particular where they are used for recording identifiable data
- ○ Yes, but these cannot be encrypted because they do not have encryption functionality. Therefore I confirm that any identifiable data (including audio and video recordings of participants) will be deleted from the recording device(s) as quickly as possible (e.g. when it has been transferred to a secure medium, such as a password protected and encrypted laptop or stored in OneDrive) and that the device will be stored securely in the meantime

Will you be using other portable storage devices in particular for identifiable data (e.g. laptop, USB drive, etc)? (Please read the help text)

- ○ No
- ◉ Yes, and they will be encrypted as per the Lancaster University ISS standards in particular where they are used for recording identifiable data

Will anybody external to the research team be transcribing the research data?

○ Yes ◉ No

General Queries

Does the funder or any organisations involved in the research have a vested interest in specific research outcomes that would affect the independence of the research?

○ Yes ◉ No ○ I don't know

Does any member of the research team, or their families and friends, have any links to the funder or organisations involved in the research?

○ Yes ◉ No ○ I don't know

Can the research results be freely disseminated?

◉ Yes ○ No ○ I don't know

Will you use data from potentially illicit, illegal, or unethical sources (e.g. pornography, related to terrorism, dark web, leaked information)?

○ Yes ◉ No ○ I don't know

Will you be gathering/working with any special category personal data?

○ Yes ◉ No ○ I don't know

Are there any other ethical considerations which haven't been covered?

○ Yes ◉ No ○ I don't know

REC Review Details

Based on the answers you have given so far you will need to answer some additional questions to allow reviewers to assess your application.

It is recommended that you do not proceed until you have completed **all of the previous questions**.

Please confirm that you have finished answering the previous questions and are happy to proceed.

☑ I confirm that I have answered all of the previous questions, and am happy to proceed with the application.

As you are student in Education Research, please confirm that you have read the guidance provided by the department.

☑ Yes i have read the guidance from Educational Research.

Questions for REC Review

Summarise your research protocol in lay terms (indicative maximum length 150 words).

Note: The summary of the protocol should concisely but clearly tell the Ethics Committee (in simple terms and in a way which would be understandable to a general audience) what you are broadly planning to do in your study. Your study will be reviewed by colleagues from different disciplines who will not be familiar with your specific field of research and it may also be reviewed by the lay members of the Research Ethics Committee; therefore avoid jargon and use simple terms. A helpful format may include a sentence or two about the background/ "problem" the research is addressing, why it is important, followed by a description of the basic design and target population. Think of it as a snapshot of your study.

The purpose of this research is to consider the experiences of both international and Japanese teachers working on fixed-term/precarious/limited-term employment contracts in Japanese universities. This study will consider how these teachers perceive their position within their university and/or the field of higher education in Japan. It will also consider how fixed-term employment contract policy is considered by university teachers in relation to their institutional integration, well-being, and job satisfaction, as well as their socio-cultural, health, and economic factors. Fixed-term employment policy in higher education is an area where there is still not a significant amount of research, especially in Japan. Thus, it is important to discuss this issue and garner perspectives from teachers working both on these fixed-term contracts and outside of these contracts. This research will help to fill a gap in the literature regarding contract workers who teach at universities throughout Japan. This is an area that is not heavily researched, and it is important as it affects thousands of teachers across the country. A questionnaire will be distributed to teachers at various universities throughout Japan and interviews will be conducted with teachers recruited through the questionnaire.

State the Aims and Objectives of the project in Lay persons' language.

Overall Research Question: What are the experiences of teachers employed on fixed-term contracts in Japanese higher education institutions?
RQ1: How do university teachers perceive their position within their university/the field of higher education in Japan?
RQ2: How is fixed-term employment contract policy considered by university teachers in relation to their institutional integration, well-being, and professional/job satisfaction?
RQ3: What socio-cultural, health, and economic factors do teachers on fixed-term employment contracts relate to their well-being, why and how?

Participant Information

Please explain the number of participants you intend to include in your study and explain your rationale in detail (eg who will be recruited, how, where from; and expected availability of participants). If your study contains multiple parts eg interviews, focus groups, online questionnaires) please clearly explain the numbers and recruitment details for each of these cohorts (see help text).

This study will consist of both a questionnaire and interviews. The questionnaire will be distributed first, then the data will be transcribed and this will be used to inform the interviews. The following is the rationale for both the questionnaire and interviews.

Questionnaire: This will be distributed via Google Forms by myself, the researcher, to teachers working at various universities in Japan. I intend to ask previous colleagues, who are in charge of a large number of teachers to help distribute this survey via email distribution. I will also ask the General Union, a teachers union in Japan, to assist with the distribution of questionnaires as I am a member, as well as the Japanese Association of Language Teachers, of which I am a member proofread two different journals with this organization. I believe I will be able to acquire somewhere between 50-200 questionnaire responses based on when the questionnaire is distributed and how many people are able to participate due to work responsibilities and other time constraints.

Interviews: The interview participants will be recruited through the questionnaire. At the end of the questionnaire, there will be a question asking about participating in an interview either in person or via an online video conferencing platform as I'll ask for a contact e-mail in the questionnaire if someone is interested in being interviewed. Depending on the response from the questionnaires, I intend to interview between 5-10 teachers. Interviews will last between 60-90 minutes each. Interviews will take place either online or in person. If interviews take place online, they will be via Zoom, Teams, or Skype, depending on the preference of the participant. Participants will have the option to turn their cameras off during the interviews if they do not feel comfortable with a video recording, thus I will only record audio. If interviews take place in person, the interviews will be recorded with a handheld USB recorder that can be connected to a computer to transfer the recordings. Once imported onto a computer, the interviews will be transcribed using otter.ai, an AI (artificial intelligence) transcription service available on the internet, to do the preliminary transcriptions, then I will re-check the transcriptions for errors. The transcriptions will be stored on both an external USB drive as well as a computer that will be backed up regularly using an external hard drive. Both will be password protected.

Information about the Research

What are your dissemination plans? E.g publishing in PhD thesis, publishing in academic journal, presenting in a conference (talk or poster).

The plans for the dissemination are to publish in an academic journal, as well as present at conferences. I may also publish my Ph.D. thesis, however, am presently undecided about that.

Data Storage

How long will you retain the research data?

The research data will be kept for 10 years.

How long and where will you store any personal and/or sensitive data?

The data will be stored for 10 years. Personal and/or sensitive data will be stored on a removable USB drive that is password protected. It will also be stored on a computer and the data itself will be password protected. Only I will know the passwords. The data on the computer will be backed up via an external hard drive.

Please explain when and how you will anonymise data and delete any identifiable record?

Interview participants will be given a letter (i.e., Participant A) to prevent any indication of who is involved in the research. By doing this, it will be impossible to guess the gender or workplace of a participant.

Project Documentation*

Important Notice about uploaded documents:

When your application has been reviewed if you are asked to make any changes to your uploaded documents please highlight the changes on the updated document(s) using the highlighter so that they are easy to see.

Please confirm that you have read and applied, where appropriate, the guidance on completing the Participant Information Sheet, Consent Form, and other related documents and that you followed the guidance in the help button for a quality check of these documents. For information and guidance, please use the relevant link below:

FST Ethics Webpage

FHM Ethics Webpage

FASS-LUMS Ethics Webpage

REAMS Webpage

☑ I confirm that I have followed the guidance.

In addition to completing this form you must submit all supporting materials.

Please indicate which of the following documents are appropriate for your project:

- ☐ I have no updated documents and confirm that all relevant documents were included in previous submissions.
- ☐ Advertising materials (posters, emails)
- ☐ Research Proposal (DClinPsy)
- ☐ Letters/emails of invitation to participate
- ☑ Consent forms
- ☑ Participant information sheet(s)
- ☑ Interview question guides
- ☐ Focus group scripts
- ☑ Questionnaires, surveys, demographic sheets
- ☐ Workshop guide(s)
- ☐ Debrief sheet(s)
- ☐ Transcription (confidentiality) agreement
- ☐ Other
- ☐ None of the above.

Please upload the documents in the correct sections below:

Please ensure these are the latest version of the documents to prevent the application being returned for corrections you have already made.

Please upload all consent forms to be used in this project.

Documents

Type	Document Name	File Name	Version Date	Version	Size
Consent Form	Consent Form Dubin, Brian	Consent Form Dubin, Brian.docx	10/06/2023	1	35.4 KB

Please upload all Participant Information Sheets:

Documents

Type	Document Name	File Name	Version Date	Version	Size
Participant Information Sheet	Participant Information Sheet Dubin, Brian	Participant Information Sheet Dubin, Brian.docx	10/06/2023	1	41.4 KB

Please upload all different Interview Question Guides.

Documents

Type	Document Name	File Name	Version Date	Version	Size
Interview question guide	Interview Question Dubin, Brian	Interview Question Dubin, Brian.docx	10/06/2023	1	17.0 KB

Please upload all Questionnaires, surveys, demographic sheets

Documents

Type	Document Name	File Name	Version Date	Version	Size
Questionnaires, surveys, demographic sheets	Questionnaire Dubin, Brian	Questionnaire Dubin, Brian.docx	10/06/2023	1	26.6 KB

Declaration

Please Note

Research Services monitors projects entered into the online system, and may select projects for quality control.

All research at Lancaster university must comply with the LU data storage and governance guidance as well as the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and the UK Data Protection Act 2018. (Data Protection Guidance webpage)

☑ I confirm that I have read and will comply with the LU Data Storage and Governance guidance and that my data use and storage plans comply with the General data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and the UK Data Protection Act 2018.

Have you that you have undertaken a health and safety risk assessment for your project through your departmental process? (Health and Safety Guidance)

☑ I have undertaken a health and safety assesment for your project through my departmental process, and where required will follow the appropriate guidance for the control and management of any foreseeable risks.

When you are satisfied that this application has been completed please click "Request" below to send this application to your supervisor for approval.

Signed: This form was signed by Dr Natasa Lackovic (n.lackovic@lancaster.ac.uk) on 25/06/2023 10:39 PM

Please read the terms and conditions below:

- You have read and will abide by Lancaster University's Code of Practice and will ensure that all staff and students involved in the project will also abide by it.
- If appropriate a confidentiality agreement will be used.
- You will complete a data management plan with the Library if appropriate. Guidance from Library.
- You will provide your contact details, as well as those of either your supervisor (for students) or an appropriate person for complaints (such as HoD) to any participants with whom you interact, so they know whom to contact in case of questions or complaints?
- That University policy will be followed for secure storage of identifiable data on all portable devices and if necessary you will seek guidance from ISS.
- That you have completed the ISS Information Security training and passed the assessment.
- That you will abide by Lancaster University's lone working policy for field work if appropriate.
- On behalf of the institution you accept responsibility for the project in relation to promoting good research practice and the prevention of misconduct (including plagiarism and fabrication or misrepresentation of results).
- To the best of your knowledge the information you have provided is correct at the time of submission.
- If anything changes in your research project you will submit an amendment.

Applicant Only: To complete and submit this application please click "Sign" below:

Signed: This form was signed by Brian Dubin (b.dubin@lancaster.ac.uk) on 23/06/2023 11:59 PM

Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet / 参加者情報シート

Title / タイトル: Margin Walkers: The Experiences of Faculty Employed on Fixed-Term Employment Contracts in Japanese Higher Education Institutions/ 「マージン・ウォーカーズ：日本の高等教育機関における有期雇用契約教員の経験」

For further information about how Lancaster University processes personal data for research purposes and your data rights please visit our webpage: www.lancaster.ac.uk/research/data-protection

研究目的のための個人情報の取り扱いや収集されたデータの著作権につきましては、ランカスター大学のホームページをご覧ください。

www.lancaster.ac.uk/research/data-protection.当該ホームページは英語のみで記載されておりますので、予めご了承ください。

I am a PhD student at Lancaster University, and I would like to invite you to take part in a research study about the experiences of university teachers working on fixed-term employment contracts in Japanese universities. / 私は現在、ランカスター大学の博士課程に在籍しております。先生方におかれましては、大変ご多忙のことと存じますが、「日本の大学で有期/任期付き雇用契約で働いている大学教員の経験に関する調査研究」へ参加・ご協力いただきますようお願い申し上げます。

Please take time to read the following information carefully before you decide whether or not you wish to take part. / 本研究に参加・ご協力いただくかご判断される前に、当該研究の趣旨についてご一読願います。

What is the study about? / 何の研究ですか？

This study aims to investigate the experiences of both international and Japanese teachers working on fixed-term/precarious/limited-term employment contracts in Japanese universities, as well as teachers working outside of these employment contracts. This study will consider how these teachers perceive their position within their university and the field of higher education in Japan. / 本研究の目的は、日本の大学で有期・期限・期間雇用契約で働いている外国人教員と日本人教員、およびこれらの雇用契約以外で働いている教員の経験について調査することである。本研究では、これらの教員が大学内や日本の高等教育現場における自らの立場をどのように認識しているかについて考察する。

Why have I been invited? /ご協力依頼した理由について

I have approached you because you are a teacher at a higher education institution in Japan. Additionally, you have experience working on or with employment contracts that meet the criteria for the purpose of this study. I would be very grateful if you would agree to take part in this study. / あなたが日本の高等教育機関で教鞭を執っておられるということで、お声がけさせていただきました。さらに、この研究目的の基準を満たす雇用契約での勤務経験、または雇用契約のご経験がおありですので、この研究に参加・ご協力いただけると大変助かります。よろしくお願いいたします。

What will I be asked to do if I take part? /本研究に参加・ご協力いただく場合、どのような質問にお答えいただくのかについて

If you decided to take part, this would involve the following: Take part in the questionnaire and potentially participate in an interview as well, if you choose to. These will include questions about your workplace environment, integration into your workplace, personal well-being, and other socio-economic issues. The survey should take around 20 minutes to complete, while the interview would last between 60-90 minutes. / 本研究に参加・ご協力いただける場合：研究者が作成したアンケート用紙にお答えいただく形式で、所要時間は 20 分程度。設問は、職場環境、職場への溶け込み具合、幸福感、その他の社会的・経済的な状況や問題点についての質問が含まれます。もしご協力いただけるのであれば、インタビューにも参加・ご協力お願いいたします。インタビューの所要時間は、60～90 分程度の予定です。

What are the possible benefits from taking part? / 本研究に参加・ご協力いただく場合のメリットについて

Taking part in this study will allow you to share your experiences working on a fixed-term employment contract. If you are outside of this type of contract, it will allow you to give your thoughts and opinions on these types of working contracts and help contribute to the understanding of people working on these contracts. / この調査研究に参加・ご協力いただくことで、有期/任期付き雇用契約で働いた経験を他の先生方と共有していただけます。また、有期/任期付き雇用契約以外の労働契約を結んでいる先生方人は、有期/任期付き雇用契約についてご自分の考えや意見を述べることができ、有期/任期付き雇用契約で働く先生方への理解を深めていただくことができます。

Do I have to take part? / 研究への参加・協力は強制なのでしょうか？

No. It’s completely up to you to decide whether or not you take part. Your participation is voluntary. / いいえ、任意参加となっております。（ご協力いただけると大変助かります）

What if I change my mind? / もし気が変わったら？

If you change your mind, you are free to withdraw at any time during your participation in this study. If you want to withdraw, please let me know, and I will extract any ideas or information (=data) you contributed to the study and destroy them. However, it is difficult and often impossible to take out data from one specific participant when this has already been anonymised or pooled together with other people’s data. Questionnaire data will not be able to be withdrawn because the data is anonymised from the beginning, this cannot be identified. Regarding interviews, you can only withdraw up to 2 weeks after taking part in the study. / この研究への参加途中で、もし気が変わられても、いつでも自由にご辞退いただけます。もしご辞退される場合は、その旨をお知らせください。この研究にお寄せいただいたご意見や情報データを抽出し、破棄させていただきます。しかし、すでに匿名化されていたり、他の人のデータと一緒に取りまとめられている場合には、特定の参加者のデータを取り出すことは困難であり、多くの場合いたしかねます。アンケートは無記名形式のため、アンケート提出後に研究参加を取りやめることができないことをご了承願います。なお、インタビューに関しましては、参加後２週間までであれば、撤回に応じさせていただきます。

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part? / 研究に参加することでどのようなデメリットやリスクが考えられますか。

It is unlikely that there will be any major disadvantages to taking part. However, taking part will mean investing 15-20 minutes to complete the questionnaire and 60-90 minutes for an interview if you choose to be interviewed. / 研究に参加・ご協力いただくことで大きなデメリットが生じることはまずありません。研究者が作成したアンケートにお答えいただく形式で、所要時間は 15〜20 分程度です。インタビューにご協力いただく場合の所要時間は 60〜90 分程度です。

Will my data be identifiable? /アンケートやインタビューで個人が特定されますか。

After the interview, only I, the researcher conducting this study will have access to the ideas you share with me. I will keep all personal information about you (e.g., your name and other information about you that can identify you) confidential, that is I will not share it with others. I will remove any personal information from the written record of your contribution. All reasonable steps will be taken to protect the anonymity of the participants involved in this project. / 本研究実施者のみ、あなたのインタビュー内容等にアクセスする権限を持っております。対象者の個人情報（氏名や個人を特定できるその他の情報）の保護に十分配慮し、収集した文書記録から個人情報を削除いたします。この調査研究への参加者の匿名性を保持するために、あらゆる妥当な措置を取らせていただきます。

How will I use the information you have shared with me and what will happen to the results of the research study? / 参加者の情報はどのように使用され、調査研究の結果はどうなるのでしょうか。

I will use the information you have shared with me for research purposes only. This will include my PhD thesis and any subsequent publications, such as journal articles. I may also present the results of my study at academic conferences. However, the data will be anonymized to protect your personal information. / 得られたデータは本研究以外には使用いたしません。本研究結果は、研究者の博士論文及び雑誌記事などを含む出版物で発表いたします。また、研究結果を学会で発表することもあります。いずれの場合も対象者を特定できる情報は使用しないため、個人が特定されることはありません。

When writing up the findings from this study, I would like to reproduce some of the views and ideas you shared with me. I will only use anonymised quotes (e.g., from my interview with you), so that although I will use your exact words, all reasonable steps will be taken to protect your anonymity in our publications. / この研究調査で得られた知見を出版物で文章化する際、参加・ご協力いただいた先生方と分かち合ったご意見やアイデアを転載させていただきたいと考えております。その際は、匿名化された引用（インタビュー場面から引用）のみを使用いたします。先生方の言葉は正確に引用いたしますが、個人が特定されることのないよう、あらゆる妥当な措置を取らせていただきます。

How my data will be stored / 私のデータの保存方法

Your data will be stored in encrypted files (that is no-one other than me, the researcher will be able to access them) and on password-protected computers. I will store hard copies of any data securely in locked cabinets in my office. I will keep data that can identify you separately from non-personal information (e.g., your views on a specific topic). In accordance with Lancaster University guidelines, I will keep the data securely for a minimum of ten years.

あなたのデータは暗号化されたファイル（本研究実施者・ブライアン　デュビンのみアクセス可能）に保存され、パスワードで保護されたコンピュータ

に保存されます。データのハードコピーは、本研究実施者のオフィスの鍵付きキャビネットに安全に保管します。個人情報（個人を特定できるデータ）は、非個人情報（特定のトピックに関する意見など）とは別に保管します。ランカスター大学のガイドラインに従い、データは最低 10 年間安全に保管いたします。

What if I have a question or concern? / ご質問やご意見をお寄せいただく場合には

If you have any queries or if you are unhappy with anything that happens concerning your participation in the study, please contact myself, Brian Dubin, at b.dubin@lancaster.ac.uk or my supervisor, Dr. Natasa Lackovic, at n.lackovic@lancaster.ac.uk. If you have any concerns or complaints that you wish to discuss with a person who is not directly involved in the research, you can also contact the Head of Department and Deputy Director of the Centre for Global Higher Education, Dr. Paul Ashwin at paul.ashwin@lancaster.ac.uk.

本研究へ参加・ご協力いただくにあたり、ご質問やご意見をお寄せいただく場合は、本研究実施者ブライアン・デュビン（b.dubin@lancaster.ac.uk）、または私の指導教官ナターシャ・ラコヴィック博士（n.lackovic@lancaster.ac.uk）までご連絡ください。本調査研究に直接関与していない第三者にご相談やご意見をお寄せいただく場合は、グローバル高等教育センター科長兼副所長ポール・アシュウィン博士（paul.ashwin@lancaster.ac.uk）が対応させていただきます。ただし、ナターシャ・ラコヴィック博士やポール・アシュウィン博士は英語でのみ対応させていただきますので、予めご了承くださいませ。

This study has been reviewed and approved by the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences and Lancaster Management School’s Research Ethics Committee.

本研究は、芸術社会科学部およびランカスター・マネジメント・スクールの研究倫理委員会の審査・承認を得ております。

Thank you for considering your participation in this project.

このプロジェクトへの参加をご検討いただき、誠にありがとうございます。

Appendix C: Consent Form

Project Title / プロジェクト名: Margin Walkers: The Experiences of Faculty Employed on Fixed-Term Employment Contracts in Japanese Higher Education Institutions

Name of Researcher / 研究者名: Brian Dubin

Email: b.dubin@lancaster.co.uk

Please tick each box / 各ボックスにチェックを入れてください。

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. 私は、上記研究の情報シートを読み、理解したことを確認します。私は、情報を検討し、質問をする機会があり、満足のいく回答を得ました。	☐
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time during my participation in this study and within 2 weeks after I took part in the study, without giving any reason. If I withdraw within [2 weeks] of taking part in the study, my interview data will be removed. However, data from the questionnaire will not be removed as it is anonymised. 私は、本研究への参加は自発的なものであり、本研究への参加中および参加後 2 週間以内であれば、理由を述べることなくいつでも参加を辞退することができることを理解しています。 研究参加後[2 週間]以内に参加を辞退した場合、私のインタビュー	☐

データは削除されます。ただし、アンケートのデータは匿名化されているため、削除されることはありません。	
3. I understand that any information given by me may be used in future reports, academic articles, publications, or presentations by the researcher, but my personal information will not be included, and all reasonable steps will be taken to protect the anonymity of the participants involved in this project. 私は、私が提供したいかなる情報も、研究者による将来の報告書、学術論文、出版物、または発表に使用される可能性があることを理解しますが、私の個人情報が含まれることはなく、このプロジェクトに関与した参加者の匿名性を保護するためにあらゆる合理的な措置が講じられます。	☐
4. I understand that my name/my organisation's name will not appear in any reports, articles, or presentation without my consent. 私は、私の同意なくして、報告書、記事、プレゼンテーションに私または私の組織の名前が掲載されないことを理解します。	☐
5. I understand that any interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed and that data will be protected on encrypted devices and kept secure. 私は、インタビューが録音・録画され、データは暗号化されたデバイスで保護され、安全に保管されることを理解します。	☐
6. I understand that data will be kept according to Lancaster University guidelines for a minimum of 10 years after the end of the study.	☐

データはランカスター大学のガイドラインに従い、研究終了後最低 10 年間保存されることを理解します。	
7. I agree to take part in the above study. /上記の研究に参加することに同意します。	□

_____ _____ _____

Name of Participant/参加者名 Date/日付 Signature/署名

I confirm that the participant was given an opportunity to ask questions about the study, and all the questions asked by the participant have been answered correctly and to the best of my ability. I confirm that the individual has not been coerced into giving consent, and the consent has been given freely and voluntarily.

私は、参加者に本試験に関する質問をする機会が与えられ、参加者からの質問にはすべて正しく、可能な限り回答したことを確認します。私は、本人が同意を強制されておらず、同意は自由かつ自発的に行われたことを確認します。

Signature of Researcher / person taking the consent 研究者/同意取得者の署名

_____

Date / 日付 _____

Day/month/year 日／月／年

One copy of this form will be given to the participant and the original kept in the files of the researcher at Lancaster University / 本書式の 1 部は参加者に配布され、原本はランカスター大学の研究者のファイルに保管される。

Appendix D: Survey Questions and Ethics

Questionnaire research information / アンケート調査情報

My name is Brian Dubin, and I am a doctoral student at Lancaster University, UK. I am interested in your experiences as a university teacher working on a fixed-term employment contract. The purpose of this research is to help better understand the experiences of both international and domestic teachers working on fixed-term/precarious/limited-term employment contracts and teachers working outside of these contracts (i.e., tenured, or permanently employed teachers) in national universities, in Japan or elsewhere. / 私の名前はブライアン・デュビンで、イギリスのランカスター大学で博士課程に在籍しています。私は、有期雇用契約で働く大学教員としてのあなたの経験に興味があります。この研究の目的は、日本やその他の国の国立大学において、有期・無期・期間雇用契約で働く外国人教員と国内教員、そしてこれらの契約以外で働く教員（すなわち、終身雇用教員）の経験をよりよく理解することです。

Anonymity / 匿名性

The questionnaire is anonymous, which means that your responses will be recorded anonymously. Completing the questionnaire should take 15-20 minutes of your time and would be of great help. / アンケートの回答は匿名で記録されます。アンケートにお答えいただく時間は 15 分から 20 分程度で、大変役に立ちます。

Use of questionnaire data / アンケートデータの利用

The data collected from this questionnaire will be used in my doctoral research thesis, and any related publications and/or presentations, whether in academic journals or open public access articles. The findings can hopefully inform higher

education policy. / このアンケートで収集したデータは、私の博士研究論文、および関連する出版物やプレゼンテーション（学術誌であれ、一般公開記事であれ）に使用される。調査結果は、高等教育の政策に役立てたいと考えています。

If you have any questions, comments, or concerns, please feel free to contact Brian Dubin at b.dubin@lancaster.ac.uk. / ご質問、ご意見、ご不明な点などございましたら、ブライアン・デュビン（b.dubin@lancaster.ac.uk）までお気軽にご連絡ください。

If you have not received a satisfactory answer, please contact: Dr Natasa Lackovic at n.lackovic@lancaster.ac.uk, and if you still have questions or concerns, then please contact Dr Jan McArthur at j.mcarthur@lancaster.ac.uk. / 満足のいく回答が得られなかった場合は、下記までご連絡ください： ナタサ・ラコヴィッチ博士（n.lackovic@lancaster.ac.uk）まで、また、ご質問やご不明な点がある場合は、ヤン・マッカーサー博士（j.mcarthur@lancaster.ac.uk）までご連絡ください。

Thank you for taking time to participate in this questionnaire. / アンケートにご協力いただき誠にありがとうございました。

Section 1: Staff perceptions of their work and work environment / 第 1 章：スタッフの仕事と職場環境に対する認識

Instructions: Please choose the best answer for each statement between 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

次のステートメントについて、1（そう思わない）から 5（強くそう思う）の間で最も適切な答えを選んでください。

5 = strongly agree / そう思う

4 = agree / 同意する

3 = neither agree nor disagree / どちらともいえない

2 = disagree / 異なる

1 = strongly disagree / そう思わない

Workloads management / ワークロード管理

1. My workload has increased over the past 12 months. / 過去 12 ヶ月間に仕事量が増えた。
2. I often need to work after hours to meet my work requirements. / 仕事の要件を満たすために、時間外に働く必要があることが多い。
3. The amount of administration work I am expected to do is reasonable. / 私に期待される管理業務の量は妥当なものである。
4. I do not have enough time to get everything done on my job. / 仕事をこなすのに十分な時間がない。
5. My workload is too demanding for my job. / 仕事量が多すぎる。

Teaching and research / 教育と研究

6. The number of students I am expected to teach and/or supervise is reasonable. / 私が指導および/または監督することが期待されている学生の数は妥当である。
7. I have time to do good quality research. / 質の高い研究をする時間がある。

8. I feel pressured to attract external research funding. / 外部研究資金の獲得にプレッシャーを感じる。

9. I believe that teaching and research achievements are considered equally by promotions committees. / 昇進委員会では、教育と研究の業績が同等に考慮されると思います。

Work environment / 職場環境

10. I know what is expected of me in my role. / 自分の役割において何が期待されているかを理解している。

11. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort in order to help this university be successful / 私は、この大学の成功のために多大な努力を惜しみません。

12. I feel acknowledged for a job well done. / よくやったと認められた気がする。

13. I am supported when change and new initiatives are being introduced. / 変化や新しい取り組みが導入される際、私はサポートされる。

Staff Job Satisfaction / スタッフの仕事満足度

14. I have the freedom to choose my own method of working. / 私には自分の働き方を選ぶ自由がある。

15. I receive recognition for good work. / 私は良い仕事をしたことを評価される。

16. I am satisfied with the amount of responsibility I am given in relation to the following: / 以下について、自分に与えられている責任の大きさに満足している:

- Research / 研究
- teaching / 教授
- leadership/management / リーダーシップ/マネジメント
- administrative duties / 管理業務

17. I am satisfied with my salary or rate of pay. / 自分の給与に満足している。

18. There is opportunity for for advancement in my university/department. / 私の大学／学部には昇進の機会がある。

Section 2: Intent to Stay and Communication among Staff / 第 2 章：滞在意向とスタッフ間のコミュニケーション

Instructions: Please choose the best answer for each statement between 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

次のステートメントについて、1（そう思わない）から 5（そう思う）の間で最も適切な答えを選んでください。

Intent to Stay / 滞在の意思

19. I plan to leave this university as soon as possible. / できるだけ早くこの大学を去るつもりだ。

20. Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this university before retirement and/or my contract expires. / 私は、いかなる場合においても、定年および/または契約満了前に本学を自主的に退職することはありません。

21. I would be reluctant to leave this university. / 私はこの大学を離れたくない。

22. I plan to stay in this university as long as possible/my contract allows. / 契約が許す限り、この大学に残るつもりだ。

Communication Openness / コミュニケーションの開放性

23. It is easy to talk openly to my co-workers (e.g., colleagues, department staff, department head, other faculty, university management) in this university. / この大学では、同僚（同僚、部門スタッフ、部門長、他の教員、大学経営陣など）とオープンに話しやすい。

24. Communication in this university is very open. / この大学のコミュニケーションはとてもオープンだ。

25. I find it enjoyable to talk to other co-workers in the university. / 大学の同僚と話すのは楽しい。

26. It is easy to ask advice from any co-worker in this university. / この大学では、どんな同僚にもアドバイスを求めやすい。

Organizational Commitment / 組織のコミットメント

27. I speak highly of this university to my friends. / 私はこの大学のことを友人に高く評価しています。

28. I am not dedicated to the department I work in. / 私は自分の所属する部署に専念しているわけではない。

29. I am proud to tell others I am part of this university. / 私はこの大学の一員であることを誇りに思う。

30. This department inspires the very best job performance in me. / この部署は、私の中で最高の仕事ぶりを鼓舞してくれる。

31. This university is the best of all possible places to work. / この大学は、あらゆる可能性の中で最高の職場である。

Job Opportunity / 求人情報

32. There are plenty of good academic jobs that I could have inside my area of residence. / 私が住んでいる首都圏には、良い学問的な仕事がたくさんある。

33. There are plenty of good academic jobs that I could have outside my area of residence. / 私が住んでいる首都圏以外でも、学問的に良い仕事はたくさんある。

34. Given the state of the academic job market, finding a job would be very difficult for me. / アカデミックな就職市場の状況を考えると、私にとって就職は非常に難しいだろう。

35. It would be difficult for me to find an academic job that I like as well as my job at my current university. / 今の大学での仕事と同じように、自分の好きな学問的な仕事を見つけるのは難しいでしょう。

36. There is at least one good academic job that I could begin immediately if I were to leave the university. / 大学を辞めたとしても、すぐに始められる良い学問的な仕事が少なくとも 1 つある。

37. I have job opportunities outside of academia. / 私は学業以外でも仕事の機会がある。

Section 3: Belonging / Integration at Work / 第 3 章： 職場における帰属／統合

Instructions: Please choose the best answer for each statement between 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). For questions that are open-ended, please answer in as much detail as possible. Open-ended questions in this section are questions 47-48.

それぞれの記述について、1（そう思わない）から 5（そう思う）の間で最も適切な答えを選んでください。自由形式の質問については、できるだけ詳しくお答えください。このセクションの自由形式の質問は、質問 47〜48 です。

Sense of Belonging / 帰属意識

38. I feel accepted by my co-workers. / 同僚に受け入れられていると感じる。

39. I feel a sense of belonging in the academic community. / 学者コミュニティへの帰属感を感じている。

40. I don’t feel like I fit in well at my department/school/institute. / 自分の所属する部署／学校／研究所になじめない。

41. I think that my department/school/institute is a good match to who I am as an academic. / 私の所属する学部・研究科・研究所等、研究者としての私に合っていると思う。

42. I feel integrated into my department and/or university. / 自分の学部や大学に溶け込んでいると感じる。

43. I feel like I am a part of my university. / 自分が大学の一部であることを実感している。

44. I can successfully integrate with Japanese/international faculty at my university. / 私は大学の日本人／外国人教員とうまく融合できる。

Open-ended questions / 自由形式の質問

45. What do you think about your current university's work to ensure faculty who are working on non-permanent contracts are supported, accepted, and equally treated, or in other words – integrated into the university? / 非正規雇用で働く教員を支援し、受け入れ、平等に処遇する、言い換えれば、大学に溶け込むための現在の大学の取り組みについてどう思いますか？

46. How can Japanese universities better assist in helping integrate international staff with Japanese staff? / 日本の大学は、外国人スタッフと日本人スタッフの融合をどのように支援すればよいのでしょうか？

Section 4: Integration of Non-Tenured Faculty / 第 4 章： 有期/任期付き・非常勤の統合

Instructions: Please choose the best answer for each statement between 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). それぞれの記述について、1（まったくそのようには思わない）から 5（強くそう思う）の間で最も適切な答えを選んでください。

Integration into Japanese Working Environment / 日本の労働環境に溶け込む

47. My university helps non-tenured faculty integrate effectively into their working environment. / 私の大学は、任期なし教職員が職場環境に効果的に溶け込めるよう支援している。(removed)

48. My university supports non-tenured faculty with their continuing professional development. / 私の大学では、任期なし教職員の継続的な専門能力開発を支援している。

49. My university helps non-tenured faculty integrate into both the institution and department. / 私の大学では、任期なし教職員が大学や学部の両方に溶け込めるよう支援している。

50. Non-tenured faculty feel that they are valued members at my university. / 任期なし教職員は、私の大学で評価されるメンバーだと感じている。

51. Non-tenured faculty feel that their voices are heard in department decision-making. / 任期なし教職員は、自分たちの声が部門の意思決定に反映されていると感じている。

52. My university leadership (e.g., faculty chair) routinely seeks non-tenured faculty input on matters that concern their ability to perform effectively as members of the university. / 私の大学の指導者（例えば、教授会議長）は、大学の構成員として 効果的に職務を遂行する能力に関わる事柄について、任期なし教職員の意見を日常的に求めている。

53. My university treats non-tenured faculty as an essential part of the university. / 私の大学では、任期なし教職員も大学の重要な一部として扱っている。

Section 5: Demographics / 第 5 章：人口統計

Instructions: For this section, please choose the answer that best represents your current working situation and work experience. For number 64, only respond if you would be willing to participate in an interview. If you do not wish to participate, please leave 64 blank.

このセクションでは、あなたの現在の勤務状況および職務経験を表す最も適切な答えを選んでください。64 については、面接に参加する意思がある場合のみ回答してください。参加したくない場合は、64 番を空欄のままにしてください。

54. Do you work full-time at a university in Japan? / 日本の大学ではフルタイムで働いていますか？

    Yes / はい

    No / いいえ

55. How long have you been teaching at the university level in Japan? / 日本の大学で教えて何年になりますか？

    1-3 years / 1-3 年

    4-6 years / 4-6 年

7-10 years / 7-10 年

10-14 years / 10-14 年

More than 15 years / 15 年以上

56. What is the highest degree you currently hold? / 現在お持ちの最高学位は何ですか？

Bachelor’s Degree / 学士号

Master’s Degree / 修士号

Professional Doctorate (e.g., EdD) / 専門職博士号（EdD 等）

Doctor of Philosophy (e.g., PhD) / 博士号（PhD 等）

Other / 他

57. What is your employment status at your university? / あなたの大学での雇用形態を教えてください。

Full-time (permanent) / フルタイム（正社員）

Full-time (tenure track) / フルタイム（テニュア・トラック）

Full-time (fixed-term/non-permanent) / フルタイム（任期なし）

Tenured / 任期あり

Part-time (at one university) / 非常勤（1 つ大学で）

Part-time (at multiple universities) / 非常勤（複数の大学で）

Other / 他

58. What position to you currently hold? / 現在の役職は？

Department head / 部長

Professor / 教授

Associate Professor / 准教授

Assistant Professor / 助教授

Lecturer / 講師

Instructor / 教員

Practical English Instructor / 実際的な英語教師

Other / 他

59. Age Group / 年齢層

25 or younger / 25 歳以下

26-35 / 26-35 歳

36-45 / 36-45 歳

46-55 / 46-55 歳

Over 55 / 55 歳以上

60. What is your nationality? / あなたの国籍は？

United Kingdom / イギリス

Eastern Europe (e.g., Poland, Ukraine, Croatia) / 東欧（ポーランド、ウクライナ、クロアチア等）

Western Europe (e.g., Germany, France, Italy, Greece) / 西ヨーロッパ（ドイツ、フランス、イタリア、ギリシャ等）

Central Europe (e.g., Hungary, Austria, Serbia, Switzerland) / 中央ヨーロッパ（ハンガリー、オーストリア、セルビア、スイス等）

North America (e.g., United Sates, Mexico, Canada) / 北米（アメリカ、メキシコ、カナダ等）

South America (e.g., Brazil, Chile) / 南米（ブラジル、チリ等）

Australia or New Zealand / オーストラリアまたはニュージーランド

East Asia (e.g., South Korea, China, Taiwan) / 東アジア（韓国、中国、台湾等）

Japan / 日本

Southeast Asia (e.g., Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines) / 東南アジア（シンガポール、インドネシア、フィリピン等）

South Asia (e.g., India, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh) / 南アジア（インド、スリランカ、バングラデシュ等）

North Africa (e.g., Tunisia, Egypt, Libya, Sudan) / 北アフリカ（チュニジア、エジト、リビア、スーダン等）

Central Africa (e.g., Gambia, Botswana, Republic of the Congo) / 中央アフリカ（ガンビア、ボツワナ、コンゴ共和国等）

South Africa (e.g., Botswana, Namibia, Malawi) / 南アフリカ（ボツワナ、ナミビア、マラウイ等）

Middle East (e.g., Qatar, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Syria) / 中東（カタール、イラク、サウジアラビア、シリア等）

Other / 他

61. If you would be willing to participate in a face to face or Zoom interview, please include your contact information below. I will contact you with the interview questions for your consideration. Participation is voluntary. Please choose which form of interview you prefer.

対面または Zoom でのインタビューにご協力いただける方は、下記に連絡先をご記入ください。折り返し、インタビューの質問事項をご連絡いたします。参加は任意です。ご希望のインタビュー形式をお選びください。

Face to face interview / 対面インタビュー

Zoom interview / Zoom インタビュー

Other (i.e., Teams, Skype etc.) / 他（例えば Teams, Skype 等）

Email address / メールアドレス

Consent/Agreement / 同意/合意

By clicking the next button (below), you are agreeing to your responses recorded in the questionnaire being used in this research, as stipulated above. Thank you for taking time to participate in this questionnaire. / 次のボタン（下）をクリックすることで、上記の通り、アンケートに記録されたあなたの回答が本調査に使用されることに同意したことになります。アンケートにご協力いただき、誠にありがとうございました。

Message to participants who wanted a copy of their questionnaire responses.

Subject: Fixed-Term Employment Questionnaire Responses 「有期/任期付き契約教員の経験」のアンケート回答の写しです。

Here is a copy of your responses.

こちらがお答えいただいたアンケート回答の写しです。

Thank you for taking the time to fill out the questionnaire.

アンケートにご協力いただき誠にありがとうございました。

Brian Dubin

ブライアン デュビン

Appendix E: Interview Questions

1. Talk about your background, why did you come to Japan (or become interested in teaching for Japanese interviewees), and why did you decide to teach/become engaged in HE in Japan? Talk about your trajectory.

2. How would you describe Japanese HE?

3. Can you describe a moment or event that was difficult, motivating, challenging, or pleasant in your HE experiences.

4. How would you describe your position in your HE institution (university)? What I mean by that is your role/position in your department and university at large.

    4.1. Do you feel that you have been able to integrate into the field of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) at your university? (integrate into the staff community or English teachers and how integrated your department is in the larger university community)

    4.2. Do you feel that your current role in your department is helping you work towards your career goals (e.g., finding permanent work, publishing, research, etc.)?

5. As an international member of staff what do you find interesting (or challenging) in Japanese HEIs? (For Japanese interviewees, change to member of staff and ask about positives and negatives of Japanese HEI's).

6. Talk about/discuss contributions you have made to your program/department. Are you able to contribute to the improvement of the program/department you work in at your university? If so how? If not, why not? Do you think you have actively participated in your current academic position?

7. Can you discuss experiences you've had in which you felt a sense of satisfaction from your teaching and/or the work you do for your department?

8. What is the communication like in your department in general? This could be between tenured and non-tenured staff, Japanese and non-Japanese staff, supervisors, and non-tenured staff.

9. Do you feel that there is a sense of community within your department? On a broader scale the university?

10. Talk about your experiences dealing with your colleagues, supervisor, and/or coordinator. What have your interactions been like? Do you feel that you are listened to at your job by these people?

11. What are your experiences dealing with both permanent and non-permanent staff? How would you describe the positions and experiences of staff who tenured and non-permanent teaching?

12. Is the language / culture a barrier in Japan for you? For Japanese participants → How do you think that your international colleagues experience Japanese culture and the environment in Japan? What kinds of experiences do you think they have working in a Japanese HEI?

13. What do you think about written communication? (Administrative documents, emails etc. In what language should be they be distributed?

14. Thinking about language, how does your own command of Japanese / English influence your interactions, relations with your superiors and/or colleagues? Can you give me an example? Can you tell me a bit more?

15. How do you balance your work and private life? Can you give me an example? Elaborate of that a little?

16. What are some daily challenges that you encounter at work? What are some strategies that you have for dealing with daily challenges at work?

17. Can you discuss some instances of stress in your workplace? What are some of the leading causes of stress in your current academic position? (e.g., dealing with problematic students, an excess of administrative work, grading and marking student assignments, etc.)

18. Can you talk about how whether being a teacher is important to your sense of self (who you are)?

19. What do you know about the Japanese employment system? How does it work in HE? How does the system relate to career progress in HE in Japan? How do you feel about your own situation?

20. Is there anything else you would like to discuss regarding any of these topics? You're welcome to share any other experiences you have had.