

Understanding Japanese Sojourning Experiences in a Study Abroad Context

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)

Marystella Amaldas

Graduate School of Asia Pacific Studies
Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University



September 2013

ABSTRACT

The Internationalization of higher education is a major theme in the current educational debate in Japan. Various policies and projects were implemented by the Japanese government to send the Japanese youths on exchange programs as part of their university curriculum. This research examines the Japanese students who were on study abroad programs, to comprehend what they had learnt and experienced at their host environment. In order to understand and answer many of the ongoing challenges prevalent in Japanese universities with respect to sojourning, three popular study abroad destinations were chosen for the study including: the University of Hawaii (UH) at Manoa, in Hawaii; the University of British Columbia (UBC), in Vancouver; and the Singapore Management University (SMU), in Singapore, towards evaluating sojourning challenges abroad. The conceptual framework in this study was developed from Bakhtin's and Bourdieu's ideologies that enabled the formulation of the research questions for the fieldwork undertaken. In-depth interviews and focus group discussions with 46 Japanese students were conducted to capture their experiences at the study abroad sites. The research instigated the respondents to view their sojourning experiences by incorporating: personal growth; intercultural maturity; career development; and academic progress from the study abroad exchange programs that led the researcher to capture the essence of the challenges. Qualitative evaluations helped the research to deploy coping strategies towards sojourners through negotiations with the native speakers in their study abroad setting. The data was evaluated qualitatively

based on the motivational factors involved in the Japanese students decision making which included: improving the targeted English language; social status; develop the international friendship network; possess dual (local and global) identities; and travel.

Keywords: Higher Education, Internationalization, Japanese Youths, Learning

Experiences, Study Abroad.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to take this opportunity to thank '*The Fuji Xerox Foundation*' for their financial support with the fieldtrip research undertaken. At APU, I would like to give my special thanks to my supervisor, Professor Ko Yiu Chung for his esteemed help and kind support towards enabling me to travel and present my research findings at an International Conference at Las Vegas, Nevada, the United States of America (U.S.A.).

I would like to thank Professor A. Mani for providing guidance on the fieldwork and valuable contacts at the UH, UBC and SMU. I would like to extend my gratitude to Professor Edger Porter, Professor Arii Ken, Professor Sato Yoichiro, Professor Jeremy Eades, Professor Fellizar, Professor Salazar, and Nakamura Nobuhiro, for their kind support with my research.

At each of the universities, I would like to thank the academics, administrators and Japanese students involved in the study abroad programs, which provided valuable cooperation, support and hospitality extended to me to complete the fieldwork successfully. Finally, I would like to extend my gratitude to my fellow authors (Dr

Avinash Shankaranarayanan and Christine Amaldas) for all their support and help provided towards enhancing my research and thesis.

I wish to thank my beloved sister, Christine Amaldas for encouraging me to continue my graduate studies at APU as well as providing her prayers and financial support. Her guidance was a major factor in my educational aspirations and achievements. Finally, all my successes are due to the infinite Lord Almighty, without whom nothing is possible.

Marystella Amaldas

September 2013

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Marystella Amaldas, hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for the award of another degree or diploma at any university or institutions of tertiary education. Information that has derived from published and unpublished work of others, has been cited or acknowledged appropriately.

Marystella Amaldas

September 2013

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	I
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	III
DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY	V
TABLE OF CONTENTS	VI
LIST OF FIGURES	IX
LIST OF TABLES	X
RELEVANT PUBLICATIONS	XI
GLOSSARY	XII
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Internationalization in Japanese Institutions	7
1.3 Understanding the Concept of Sojourning	11
1.4 Theoretical and Conceptual Framework	16
1.5 Site Selection	25
1.6 Research Question(s)	31
1.7 Significance of the Study	33
1.8 Limitations	33

1.9	Structure of Thesis	35
1.10	Summary	37
CHAPTER 2		38
LITERATURE REVIEW		38
2.1	Introduction	38
2.2	Trends and Initiatives in Contemporary Japan	38
2.3	The Internationalization Process within Japanese Universities	48
2.4	Relevant Theories in Study Abroad Contexts	53
2.5	Summary	60
CHAPTER 3		61
RESEARCH SITES AND METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK		61
3.1	Introduction	61
3.2	Selection of Research Strategy	63
3.3	Methodological Framework	63
3.3.1	Qualitative Method used in Data Collection	63
3.3.2	Choice of Research Sites	75
3.3.3	Interview Guide Construction	77
3.3.4	Data Collection Methodology	78
3.3.5	Methodological Limitations	91
3.4	Summary	94
CHAPTER 4		96
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION		96
4.1	Introduction	96
4.1.1	Participant's Background and Previous Learning Experiences	98
4.1.2	Participant's Pre-Sojourning Experiences	106
4.1.3	Motivations of exchange program(s)	108

4.1.4	Sojourning Experiences	118
4.1.5	Host Cultural Acquisition	149
4.1.6	Host Family	153
4.1.7	Post-sojourning Perceptions	156
4.2	Summary	159
CHAPTER 5		161
CONCLUSION		161
5.1	Introduction	161
5.2	Outcomes of the Research	163
5.2.1	Background and Previous Learning Experiences	164
5.2.2	Pre-Sojourning Experiences	165
5.2.3	Motivations of exchange program(s)	167
5.2.4	Personal Goals	168
5.2.5	Career Goals	169
5.2.6	Evaluating the Research Questions	170
5.2.7	Host Cultural Acquisitions	185
5.2.8	Host Family	186
5.2.9	Post-Sojourning Perceptions: Future directions	187
5.3	Implications of the Study	188
5.3.1	Pedagogical Implications	189
5.4	Recommended Policies	193
BIBLIOGRAPHY		209
APPENDIX A		223
APPENDIX B		228

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1.1: NUMBER OF JAPANESE COLLEGE STUDENTS STUDYING ABROAD	8
FIGURE 1.2: TRENDS OF JAPANESE STUDENTS ON STUDY ABROAD	9
FIGURE 2.1: THE NUMBER OF JAPANESE STUDENTS STUDYING OVERSEAS	44
FIGURE 2.2: JAPANESE STUDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES, (1954 -2004)	45

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1.1: THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	19
TABLE 2.1: NUMBER OF JAPANESE STUDENTS STUDYING ABROAD IN 2009	46
TABLE 2.2: CHANGING TRENDS OF JAPANESE STUDENTS IN THE U.S.A.	47
TABLE 3.1: NUMBER OF JAPANESE STUDENTS AT UH, UBC AND SMU	65
TABLE 3.2: THE NUMBER OF SOJOURNERS IN STUDY ABROAD CONTEXTS	66
TABLE 4.1: JAPAN VS. THE STUDY ABROAD SITES (FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION)	99
TABLE 4.2: MEAN AGE OF JAPANESE PARTICIPANTS IN STUDY ABROAD SITES	100
TABLE 4.3: MEAN AGE OF JAPANESE PARTICIPANTS IN THE 3 SITES	100
TABLE 4.4: MEAN AND SD OF MALE AND FEMALE AT THE 3 SITES	100
TABLE 4.5: MALE/FEMALE * SITE * AGE CROSS TABULATION	101
TABLE 5.1: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE STUDY ABROAD SITES	164
TABLE 5.2: STRATEGY PLANNING FOR STUDY ABROAD	196

RELEVANT PUBLICATIONS

1. Amaldas, *et al.*, (2013). “The Learning Experiences of Japanese Sojourners in Study Abroad Contexts”, *The International Journal of Ethics, Leadership and Business Management*, Vol. 8, pp. 8-24.
2. Amaldas, *et al.*, (2013). “Understanding the English Language Learning Experiences of Chinese Students in China, Japan and Singapore”, *The International Journal of Creative Thinking and Educational Research*, Vol. 10, pp. 1-12.
3. Amaldas *et al.*, (2012). “Japanese Sojourners in Higher Education Reform for Internationalization in Contemporary Japan”, *The Frontiers in Education: Computer Science and Computer Engineering (FECS’12)*, Vol. II, pp. 632-637.

GLOSSARY

AEP	- Academic Exchange Program
APU	- Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University
BC	- British Columbia
CLE	- Centre for Language Education
EAS	- Educational Advisory Services
FY	- Fiscal Year
GARIOA	- Government Aid and Relief in Occupied Areas
GPA	- Grade Point Average
HPU	- Hawaiian Pacific University
IAIs	- Independent Administrative Institutions
IE	- International Exchange
IIE	- Institution of International Education
ISA	- International Student Association
JASSO	- Japan Student Services Organization
JUSEC	- Japan-United States Educational Commission
MBA	- Master of Business Administration
MEXT	- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
MIX	- Manoa International Exchange
NIAD-UE	- National Institution for Academic Degrees and Universities Evaluation
NTU	- Nanyang Technological University
NUS	- National University of Singapore
OECD	- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OPT	- Optional Practical Training
PRC	- Peoples Republic of China
RU	- Ritsumeikan University
SIM	- Singapore Institute of Management
SEED-Net	- South Asia Engineering Education Development Network
SLS	- Second Language Studies
SMU	- Singapore Management University
TIM	- Travel Industry Management

TOEFL	-	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEFL: iBT	-	Test of English for International Communication: Internet-Based Test
TOFIC	-	Test of English for International Communication
U.K.	-	United Kingdom
U.S.A.	-	United States of America
UBC	-	University of British Columbia
UH	-	University of Hawaii
UNESCO	-	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
YMCA	-	Young Men's Christian Association
YWCA	-	Young Women's Christian Association

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

In the last two decades, there has been considerable research on study abroad and its effects on second language acquisition, cross-cultural psychology and intercultural or international relations, and identity expansion (Freed, 1995, 1998; Collentine and Freed, 2004; and Coleman, 1998). As a result, it is widely accepted that learning acquisition in a study abroad setting depends on a myriad of factors, one of the most important being the context in which learning itself occurs. The Japanese government is urging the nation's higher education institutions to internationalize with the purpose of promoting sustainable development within its knowledge-based societies¹. Many observers argue that most of the Japanese higher education institutions are unsatisfactorily internationalized compared with those of other industrialized countries, even though, some Japanese universities are highly regarded as

¹ This chapter has been adapted from Amaldas *et al.*, 2012. "*Japanese Sojourners in Higher Education Reform for Internationalization in Contemporary Japan*", The Frontiers in Education: Computer Science and Computer Engineering (FECS'12), Vol. II, pp. 632-637.

internationally ranked universities in the world. The dynamics and structure of internationalization is highly diverse. The need for well-planned policy initiatives is essential to guide and foster the process in particular institutions (Yonezawa, Hiroko and Daisuke, 2009).

Based on a comprehensive survey of reviews of internationalization in Japanese universities, the perceptions of the Japanese university leaders of an “international” characteristic is undefined. Exploration on the internationalization in Japanese higher education is taking place in the present context and possible roles of the government and institutions in Japan (Yonezawa et al., 2009). A paradigm for rigorous scientific assessment of study abroad programs focuses on how study abroad experiences affect psychological constructs as opposed to looking solely at its related outcomes as proposed by McLeod and Wainwright (2009).

The need for autonomous initiatives should emphasize on both the universities and the academics to instigate the internationalization of higher education so that positive results (increase in exchange student number) may be obtained. The Japanese government and the nation’s higher education institutions are still in the process of discovering their identities amidst the rapidly changing regional circumstances

(Yonezawa et al., 2009). As a result, unsettled inconsistency is seen in the direction of national and institutional strategies. With the purpose of sustaining a continuous internationalization process, dynamic initiatives by academics and universities have to enhance knowledge creation and exchange are indispensable. Moreover, Japan's strong identity based on a well-developed higher educational system and constant growth among its neighboring countries in the field of science and technology by having a significant impact on policy direction and the actual internationalization process (Yonezawa et al., 2009).

Research into international student learning suggests that the experience of study abroad experiences impact students (Sojourners) long after their completion of their studies at the host country. On one hand, the experience is extremely positive, if the student decides to settle permanently in their host country of study, which is obvious in many cases. On the other hand, there have been cases reported as incidences that led to students' perception of being lonely, disoriented and experiencing culture shock (Furnham, 1997; Tomich *et al.*, 2000). Models of culture shock suggest that this phenomenon is associated with a number of psychological problems including depression, social withdrawal, loneliness, lack of concentration and hostility (Oberg,

1960). Literature suggests that the students' perception of adjustment to a new culture and academic environment causes them considerable stress and has a direct impact on their learning perceptions (Ballard, 1987; Ward and Kennedy, 1993; Volet and Renshaw, 1996).

Researchers like Biggs (1991) and Volet & Renshaw (1996) reported that the stereotyped negative views of Asian students (especially from China, Korea and Japan) as passive and inactive learners. Language acquisition difficulties often highlighted as the main source of stress for international students learning the targeted second language. However, many researchers have suggested that difficulties may arise from different learning styles and underdeveloped analytical skills (Cortazzi and Jin, 1997). Barker, Chiled, Gallois, Jones and Callan (1991) proposed that both 'students and staff may over attribute problems for difficulties with English' when, in fact, the problems stem from unfamiliarity with cultural norms or simply with the new environment (Barker, *et al.*, 1991: 83).

Models of adjustments, cultural values and culture shock (Anderson, 1994; Tomich *et al.*, 2000; Tsang, 2001) have deepened our understanding of student's experiences of cultural transitions. However, study exists on the variations in individual

student's cross-cultural experience (Ward and Kennedy, 1993). The specific needs of a particular cultural and generated groups have also been insufficiently researched (Wright, 1997). Finally, there is an inadequate understanding of the different strategies that students adapt in response to cross-cultural experiences and events. In response to these limitations, 'there has been a shift in international student research from viewing the problems presented by international students as having their cause in personality, experience or behavior' to viewing them as developed from 'a mismatch between the needs of the students and the responses of the universities' (Harris, 1997: 36). Japanese students overseas face particular challenges as observed by the researcher: self-management; independent study; extended working hours; writing with academics that have fewer experiences teaching Japanese students; and facing the complexity of a host and academic culture not forgetting the difficulties of learning the targeted second language.

While research into international students experiences has been increasing, with the growth in the number of students going abroad for study, there is a lack of literature in relation to the specific nature of students learning experiences and the coping strategies they adopt in the process of their cross-cultural transition. Furthermore,

there has been a lack in the study of international student's particular learning needs and the manner in which these needs maybe best accommodated by universities. This shortage of information on international students' experiences is partly due to many of the early studies treated international students as a homogenous group with the same interests, desires, issues and concerns. The focus in much of the cross-cultural literature also tends to be base on general themes associated with learning approaches and adjustments to cultural differences (Anderson, 1994; Biggs, 1991; Tomich *et al.*, 2000; Tsang, 2001). In this respect, issues of race, culture, gender and nationality have given little importance. These research needs led to the influence of the current study.

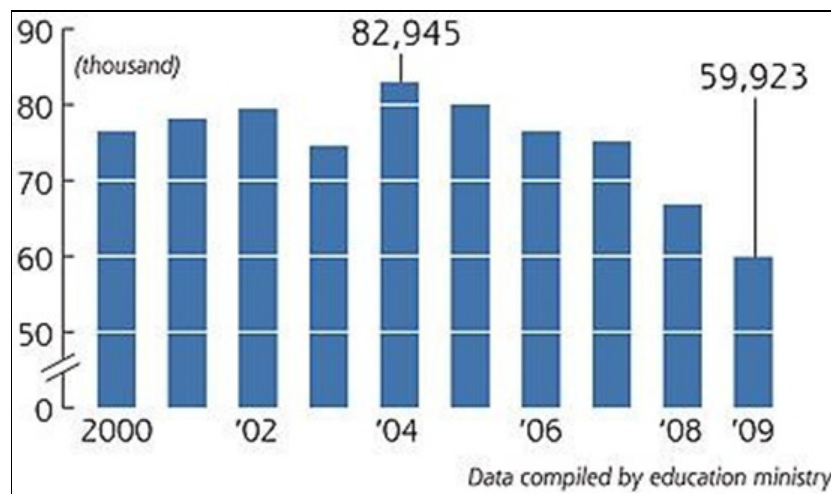
Despite the abundance of research on different aspects of in-classroom and outside classroom settings in study abroad, many questions remain as to what specific types of interactions take place when students participate in both contexts; and how these affects their experiences. When students travel overseas, they enter a learning environment, which already been constructed, by a variety of locally negotiated social, cultural and political dimensions that affect their place in the host classroom and the degree to which they participate.

1.2 Internationalization in Japanese Institutions

Internationalization of higher education is a strategic theme in the current educational reforms of Japan. Many policies and projects introduced in Japan both at the international level and within regional universities concerning reforming higher education. The internationalization of Japanese universities has been pursued by four distinct activities: (a) internationalizing the curriculum at Japan's universities; (b) introduction of foreign languages; (c) sending Japanese students for short and long term international exchange programs (Japan Trends and Development, 2013); and (d) welcoming more than a hundred thousand international students (*The Japan Times*, 2010). All these activities often carried out either fully or partially depending on the emphasis placed on internationalization at various Japanese universities. Internationalization and globalization has changed the way the Japanese higher education institutions view internationalization by bringing forward knowledge acquisition to the forefront in these institutions. Renewed emphasis on research, scientific knowledge production, and human capital formation for international competition has led Japanese universities to seek more network linkages with international partner institutions. One of the key areas which has been an accepted

practice is to allow faculty and students who are most inclined to pursue international connections and opportunities autonomously which is a apparent move towards a more integrated internationalization standard. The number of Japanese students studying abroad as shown in Figure 1.1 can observe this.

Figure 1.1: Number of Japanese College Students Studying Abroad

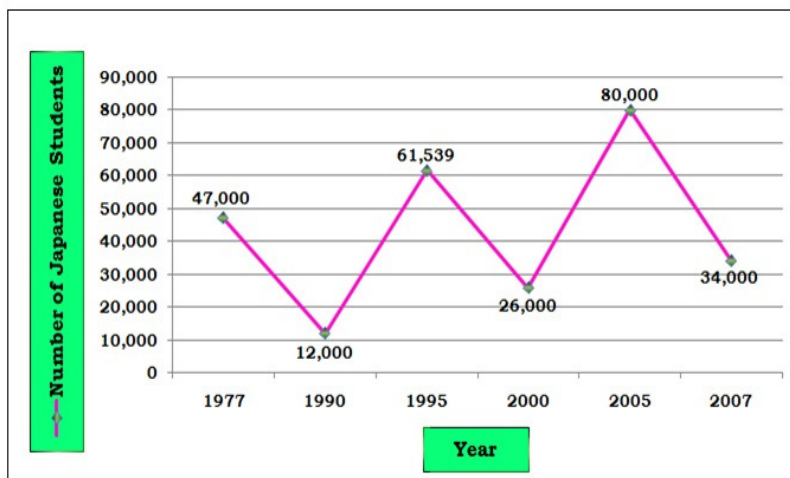


Source: <http://www.universitiesnews.com/2012/03/26/japan-40-universities-could-receive-5-year-grants/>

One of the major efforts of all tertiary institutions in Japan in the last two decades has been to internationalize the minds of university students by sending them abroad for a period as part of the university curriculum. Throughout the 1980s and 1990s in Japan, discussions of internationalization were frequent in relation to many different institutions of society, including education. The Figure 1.2 depicts the trends of Japanese students on study abroad context and its integration in this chapter to show

the changing patterns of the Japanese students sojourning to U.S.A., United Kingdom (UK) and other countries over the years (Adapted by the author from the data reported by Ayano, (2006); *The Japan Times*, 2010; and The Ministry of Justice, Immigration Control Office, 2001).

Figure 1.2: Trends of Japanese Students on Study Abroad



Source: Adapted by the author from (Ayano, 2006; The Japan Times, 2010; and The Ministry of Justice, Immigration Control Office, 2001)

It is notable that in this research, Figure 1.2 is used by the researcher for demonstrating the trends of the Japanese sojourners in a graphical format. A prominent example of using higher education for internationalization strategy was to target 100,000 foreign students in higher education; this goal was finally realized in 2003 (*The Japan Times*, 2010). In Japan, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) had reported that the overall number of Japanese students

travelling overseas for study had increased in the early years of the twenty first century.

In 2005, for instance, 80,000 students went overseas.

This was 1.3 times higher than that of ten years earlier (*The Japan Times*, 2010). The most common destination was the US. Since then, the number has been gradually decreasing. The peak reached in 1977, when a total number of 47,000 Japanese were studying in the U.S.A. By 2007, their number fell to 34,000 while increasing numbers observed in the UK as the next popular destination. In 1990, the number of Japanese who went to the UK to study was approximately 12,000 (Ayano, 2006) which later increased to more than 26,000 in 2000 of which approximately 5,300 were students from higher education (The Ministry of Justice, Immigration Control Office, 2001).

Economic growth after World War II in Japan and the Japanese government's policy in the light of worldwide movements towards globalization has made studying abroad accessible for more Japanese youth. It is not only accessible for the few elites but also for anyone who has the desire and the financial support in the form of scholarships and bursaries. For example, Japanese universities now offer study abroad programs as a course requirement (Hayashi, 2000) wherein Ritsumeikan University

(RU), for instance, has built a hostel on-campus of UBC in Canada, to send the Japanese students (sojourners) on a permanent basis. These facilities are provided by the local universities to encourage more Japanese students to study abroad on a regular basis.

1.3 Understanding the Concept of Sojourning

Approximately 1.5 million international students were enrolled in higher education outside their countries of origin in 1996 (UNESCO, 1996). Various statistical sources provided by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) also showed that between 1977 and 1993, China moved from fourth to first place as a source of providing international students; and Japan moved from thirteenth to second in rank. Between 1977 and 1997, there was a boost in the number of Japanese students from 12,874 to 64,284 crossing the national borders to study abroad. In the year 2000, this was forecasted at 109,308 students (Ichimoto, 2000).

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), including the U.S.A., Europe, Australia and Canada are the net exporters of higher education (Jolley, 1997) enabling changes to the domestic concept of higher education

from an elite oriented to a mass based system resulting in the construction of a mass market and valuing of overseas students (Rhoades and Smart, 1996: 126). According to Habu (2000), in the 1980s, educational services began to be marketed abroad, and consequently, Asia-Pacific was regarded as a region of economic dynamism. In the broad-spectrum, the motivation to connect oneself into the globalization of higher education system is termed as 'commercialism' and enthusiastic 'recruitment activities' by educational institutions in host countries (Habu, 2000: 44).

Obtaining higher education through study abroad programs is currently a global phenomenon. The trendsetter seen in today's globalized universities is to internationalize their respective campuses across the globe leading to a growing number of technical departments motivating their students to participate in exchange programs with relevance to capitalizing on foreign languages and culture (Jackson, 2008: 1). Currently, the trends of study abroad have changed drastically. Recently multiple number of program choices are offered with a variety of purposes to meet the demands of the academic sojourners. These includes: foreign language learning and cultural enhancement; professional skills development in other international markets; and completing the coursework in their native language. Academic sojourners are either led

by academics from their home tertiary institutions or they go on exchange programs on their own to take courses with domestic students in the host universities. During their study abroad, accommodation arrangements may differ with examples including: home stays; dormitories with local and other international students; shared accommodations with students from the same ethnic and linguistic groups (Jackson, 2008: 1).

The term 'sojourn' means to reside temporarily in a foreign land for a certain period of time". Sojourn is derived from the French word sojourner, which means, "stay for a time" (Webster, 2013). According to Furnham (1988), the definition of a 'sojourner' is quite complex to comprehend. Many researchers like Valentine and Mosley (2000) and Church (1982) described that sojourners are "temporary migrants with voluntary intercultural contacts" or "relatively short-term visitors who come into contact with new cultures where permanent settlement is not the purpose of the sojourner" rather it varies according to their desires. The term 'sojourner' is applicable to many types of travelers including employees, students, trainees, technical assistants, tourists, businessmen, military personnel, missionaries, foreign-service officers and professors as described by Brein and David (1971). The timeline and the purpose of travel are the significant elements that define sojourners which Furnham (1988) has

identified as being the most important, giving an indication of the temporal extremes that set apart major groups of travelers from sojourners. Sojourners are goal-oriented with specific objectives (Furnham, 1988). These voluntary travelers have a specific purpose for travel and have an instant desire to fulfill the requirements of their sojourn, whether it is being educational, business-oriented or voluntary work based (Patron, 2007: 16, 17).

The study abroad students are different from other groups of sojourners because they sojourn not with the motive of migrating but with the motive of achieving academic goals, cultural exchange and gain further academic knowledge. Sojourning students are immersed in host country surroundings for a specific period which naturally implies an element of alienation and dual membership (residence permit), which are not similar to the irregular commitments to which the migrants must adjust. The sojourner has a choice to avoid these issues by living in a physically or psychologically challenged environment (Patron, 2007: 20, 21). The research examines the experiences amongst Japanese students in their sojourning to educational sites in other societies. Smith (1956) stressed that the sojourners' involvement does not depend only on adaptation but epitomized through processes of learning and adjustment that

may have far-reaching implications if this predicament is not resolved. Academic sojourners study abroad with the motive of gaining future qualifications and experiences, whether or not they receive any funds from their government.

Paige (1990), classifies these academic sojourners as temporary residents in a country which is not their place of origin but who are participants (students) in the study abroad exchange programs. Researchers like Eide (1970); Furnham and Bochner (1986) have articulated that the sojourner's voluntary relocation abroad and their re-entry to their country of origin are anticipated and planned. The nature of an academic sojourner's purpose includes: education; cultural learning; and personal development which is unique from other sojourners. These sojourners travel on their own accord for a specific assignment (contracted for a certain timeline) with the intention of returning to their home country upon the completion of the sojourning period (Berry, 1990; 2002). The Japanese students leave their comfort zone in Japan for the first time in their life to move to a foreign country become self-organized during their sojourning period abroad. The Japanese students who have been living under the shadow of their parents are exposed to new environments, people, culture, curriculum, political issues, language, food, among many other things.

1.4 Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

Social research contains numerous theories, which are highly applicable to the application areas of the sojourning domain. For example, the experiential learning theory is the contribution of Dewey (1938) and Kolb (1984) and others, stating that the excellent way for humans to learn are through their encounter and experience firsthand. Kolb (1984) affirms that learners take their new perspectives out to the world to have new experiences, which keep the cycle of learning in motion. Similarly, one specific theory that has used by many study abroad researchers for explaining students' learning is the "Theory of Adjustment" or simply W-Curve Theory (W-Curve, 2013). This model consists of a five stage process which Pedersen (1995) divided the experience abroad into five stages of culture which in a cultural context is applicable but not aptly suited to our goal of investigating several key areas of sojourning. Although, Kolb model is applicable to sojourning, the personal experiences encountered during study abroad cannot be justified using these approaches.

Due to some of these limitations inherent in the theories evaluated previously, the construction of the theoretical and conceptual framework was derived from the work of Bakhtin (1986) and Bourdieu's (1991) notion of the language, culture and

identity. Bakhtin's (1981, 1986) conceptualization of intertwined relationship between identity, culture, and dialogue (communication between people) and Boudieu's (1977, 1991) notion of language and cultural learning of academic sojourners provided an understanding of this research concerning the Japanese sojourners in study abroad contexts. This study has constructed its theoretical and conceptual framework using Bakhtin's and Boudieu's theories that was visualized through the work of Jackson (2008). Like other theories, Bakhtin and Bourdieu's theories too have their limitations. Although Bakhtin has linked identity, culture and language using his theory, Jackson (2008) affirmed that pedagogical issues that required an explicate theory were ignored by the Russian theorist. On the other hand, Jackson confirms the limitation of Bourdieu's conceptualization of habitus and highlights to the reader that his focus on practices, as she states,

“is that they are not objectively determined and ultimately, are not products of free will. His definition, habitus are culturally conditioned structures that inhabit the bodies and minds of individuals ('social agents'). Through practices, field influence habitus ('dispositions') and habitus, in turn, pervade field. While practices are presumed to mediate between them, it is impossible to directly observe habitus.”

(Jackson, 2008: 25)

The Russian (Bakhtin) and French (Bourdieu) theorists' conceptualization viewed from the perspectives of Jackson (2008), Pica (1994), Kolb (1984), Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang (2006), Segalowitz and Freed (2004), Lafford (1995) and Lapkins *et al*, (1995) and other secondary sources have been used in answering the research questions and evaluate its findings in this study.

Motivations are (as seen in Table 1.1), driving forces that reinforces an action toward a desired goal (language and cultural acquisition, global identity, job prospects and travel). Intrinsic motivations are within an individual (e.g. a student will perform well on an assignment to obtain good grades only if the student is interested in doing the assignment). Extrinsic motivations are external factors (parents, teachers and peers) that persuade an individual to perform a task so that they can satisfy others through their achievements (e.g. a student perform well on an assignment to obtain good grades some interest or no interest in doing the assignment but to make their parents happy). Experiences (as seen in Table 1.1), derived from the knowledge of skill or events, and gained through an individual's involvement in some activity or exposure to an event (Bourdieu, 1991). Learning through experiences is the best source of knowledge for human beings (e.g. language learning is best achieved through exposures to activities in

the host environment). Perceptions (as seen in Table 1.1), are drawn from real-life experiences that allow for interaction between people (sojourners and the locals) and relate to the host environment (Bourdieu, 1991).

Table 1.1: Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

Focus of Study	Applied Theories
<u>Pre-Sojourning</u>	<p><u>Motivations (Bourdieu, 1991)</u></p> <p>Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations either internally (self-motivation) or externally (from others including parents, teachers, peers, etc.) in the light of attaining ‘linguistic capital’ enables an individual to truly attain the ‘symbolic and material resources’ (Financial Resources, Social Status and Knowledge) in their society as depicted by Bourdieu, (1991).</p>
<u>Sojourning</u>	<p><u>Experiences (Bakhtin, 1986)</u></p> <p>Merge the influences of both host environment’s ‘already prepared viewpoints and positions’ (social structures) and subjective experience on the individual (Bakhtin, 1986).</p>
<u>Post-Sojourning</u>	<p><u>Perceptions (Bourdieu, 1991)</u></p> <p>Acquisition of ‘linguistic and cultural capital’ from the host environment facilitates the access to a global identity reconciled with the imperceptible learning, performed within the family and ethnic group (Bourdieu, 1991).</p>

It also involves the cognitive processes required to process information gained through 'linguistic and cultural capital' of the environment that are critical to our survival creating an individual's experience of the world around themselves combined with one's cultural norms and knowledge from their own ethnic group to become a global person.

In the first phase (as seen in Table 1.1), during the pre-sojourning stage, the Japanese students are excited, curious, and to some extent nervous about their travel and stay in a new surrounding for the next one year. Their parents, relatives and friends also join in the excitement and preparation of study abroad event. The time-space between their pre-sojourning stage and the sojourning stage is the period where the Japanese sojourners manipulated by many factors such as parents; teachers; peers; and an individual contribute to the motivation to travel abroad for the purpose of study. This motivation develops into one's own expectations of acquiring 'linguistics capital' as described by Boudieu (1991) to attain the social status in the society, acquire knowledge and financial resources.

In the second phase (as seen in Table 1.1), during their sojourning stage, the Japanese students, through own observation skills, quickly learn the system of the host

environment and adopt its practices, learning the strategies of survival to adjust oneself to fit into the system and adapt to norms. Both in the classroom environment and outside the classroom environment these sojourners do many of their daily activities merging the influences of both host environment's 'already prepared viewpoints and positions' (social structures) and (Bakhtin, 1986) subjective experience on the individual. While this may sound simplistic, these students on exchange programs are faced with difficulties; assessing the situation on which decisions depend can be a very complex, in terms of accommodation in the host country environment, excepting new curriculum and numerous assignments in the host university environment and relationship and interactions with their host family, peers and local community in their natural setting.

In their final phase (as seen in Table 1.1), during their post-sojourning stage, the Japanese student's perceptions about themselves as a person, the whole program and the things around them change. It is a transition period in their lives. The whole notion about being Japanese changed. It is a reflection period for many things. Achievement of 'linguistic and cultural capital' (Bourdieu, 1991) from the host environment facilitates the access to a global identity reconciled with Japanese identity possessed through the imperceptible learning from the own society broadens their perspectives and perception.

The time-space between the pre-sojourning and post-sojourning stage, is the period where the Japanese sojourner's perceptions develops into expectations of being created as a internationalized person comes about. The mind-set of being a globalized person when they return home, they are internationalized personals. The Japanese students use the knowledge they have gained during their sojourning period into practice at their workplace, home and society. The significance of their study abroad, contributes to a better and comfortable life for the individual participants, their family and friends, institutions rendering a wider variety of programs with improvised curriculums and the society and country can enjoy the benefits of the new concepts, strategies and approaches provided by young intellectuals leading the workforce towards high employment rate and economic growth.

The Japanese students on the study abroad programs go with the mind-set of becoming an internationalized person or a "global person". There are many ways in which we come to understand globalization just as there are various paths in which we understand modernity (Stevens, 1998). At the macro level, the movement of students signals not only Japan's increasing international role and its dependency on global trade but also a shift in the values of Japanese society itself. At the micro level, the

globalization of higher education means that increasing numbers of students are studying abroad and must negotiate new social and cultural environments. A varied range of studies have been carried out among students (as indicated in Table 1.1) within and outside of Japan conducted theoretically to reveal the characteristics of globalization and its impacts on economy, politics, culture and education (Luke and Luke, 2000: 278). However, overwhelmingly, concentration is lesser on issues such as gender relations and identity issues in contemporary Japan. The totalized concept of globalization is 'the mother of all meta narratives' (Luke and Luke, 2000: 278).

Statistics indicated that there were 2.7 million students enrolled in higher educational programs outside their home countries who were motivated to go through the three phases of sojourning (as indicated in Table 1.1): pre-sojourning, sojourning and post-sojourning as observed in 2004. UNESCO (OECD, 2007) estimated that this number could rise to almost eight million by 2025 (Davis, 2003). The choice of study abroad duration varies between (Brockington, Hoffa and Martin, 2005) short-term (one week to three or four months) and long-term (one year) depending on the sojourner's selection criteria.

Data collection methods were based on a simplistic interview guide that was developed to interview Japanese students (46 students overall) involving in-depth interviews and focus group discussions capturing the essence and experiences of Japanese students abroad. The theoretical framework met with uncertainty, which then led the researcher to apply the theoretical concepts of Bakhtin, (1986), and Bourdieu, (1991) approach towards data collection.

The data collected from the three sites as previously discussed in section 1.2. In this study, both individual and focus group interviews conducted amongst forty-six students capturing information on their international experiences at the selected study sites. At all the three institutions, well-informed English language teachers, study abroad administrators and academics interviewed for their insights. The Japanese student's experiences were seen as an important characteristic to take into account in this study. The research focused on understanding and interpreting the student's experiences of positive and negative critical incidents in their learning environments. The understanding of student's educational backgrounds, thus, was seen as essential to the overall understanding of their experiences. Potential differences across the three study sites were also considered in the analysis.

1.5 Site Selection

This research examines the Japanese students who were currently enrolled or returning from study abroad programs (analysis in three stages: Pre-Sojourning, Sojourning and Post-Sojourning), to comprehend what they have learnt and the experiences they undergo to elicit some answers to the challenges that Japanese universities are currently facing. The three popular study abroad destinations chosen for the study includes: the University of Hawaii (UH) at Manoa, in Hawaii; the University of British Columbia (UBC), in Vancouver; and the Singapore Management University (SMU), in Singapore.

(A) University of Hawaii at Manoa

Founded in 1907, the University of Hawaii at Mānoa is the flagship campus of the University of Hawaii System. A destination of choice, students and faculty come from across the nation and the world to take advantage of UH Mānoa's unique research opportunities, diverse community, nationally-ranked Division I athletic program, and beautiful landscape. Consistently ranked a “best value” among U.S. colleges and universities, our students get a great education and have a unique multicultural global experience in a Hawaiian place of learning: truly like no other place on earth. One of

only 32 institutions nationwide to hold the distinction of being a land grant, sea grant and space grant research institution, UH Mānoa is ranked in the top 30 public universities in federal research funding for engineering and science and 49th overall by the National Science Foundation (UH, 2013). In 2009, UH Mānoa received \$330 million in awards, with research grants reaching \$216 million and non-research awards reaching \$114 million. Seven of UH Mānoa's faculty are currently members of the National Academy of Sciences, the National Academy of Engineering and the National Institute of Medicine. Classified by the Carnegie Foundation as having "very high research activity", UH Mānoa is known for its pioneering research in such fields as oceanography, astronomy, Pacific Islands and Asian area studies, linguistics, cancer research, and genetics having a student population of around 20,426 with Undergraduates representation at 14,655; Graduate and professional at 5,771 having 91.1 percent influx of local students and 6.8 percent International students (UH, 2013).

(B) University of British Columbia

The University of British Columbia is a global centre for research and teaching, consistently ranked among the 40 best universities of the world. Surrounded by the beauty of the Canadian West, UBC embraces bold new ways of thinking that attract

exceptional students and faculty. It is a place where innovative ideas are nurtured in a globally connected research community, providing unparalleled opportunities to learn, discover and contribute. UBC holds an international reputation for excellence in advanced research and learning, offering a wide-range of innovative programs in the arts, sciences, medicine, law, business and other faculties to its students. With a total economic impact of \$10 billion in local income and over 39,700 jobs, UBC contributes strongly to the economy of BC and Canada. The UBC Library is the 2nd-largest research library in Canada. Its collection include 5.4 million volumes, 5.2 million microforms, more than 808,000 maps, audio, video and graphic materials and nearly 56,000 serial subscriptions. The library has more than 261,000 e-books, the largest biomedical collection in Western Canada, and the largest Asian-language collection in Canada. UBC advances learning and teaching by expanding learning opportunities outside the classroom. This includes informal educational settings and enriched learning opportunities—co-op placements, international service learning, and community service learning. As of 2010/2011 UBC had 56,382 students spanning 8,437 international students; 275,000 alumni in 120 countries and 13,893 faculty and staff members (UBC, 2013).

UBC ranks in the top ten universities in North America in commercializing research and for its patent activity in the Life Sciences. As one of the world's leading universities, UBC makes a meaningful contribution to innovation capacity in Canada and internationally.

(C) Singapore Management University

It was in 1997 that the Singapore government first mooted the idea of a third university for Singapore. Then Deputy Prime Minister Dr Tony Tan believed that the new university should be different from the two established institutions; the National University of Singapore (NUS) and Nanyang Technological University (NTU). The government wanted SMU to be an experiment in diversity. The experiment began with the choice of the Chairman of the new institution, Mr Ho Kwon Ping, a renowned and successful business entrepreneur. He joined by an SMU task force of academics, including Professor Tan Chin Tiong, who determined that SMU should be an American-style university offering a broad-based education, in contrast to Singapore's tradition of the more specialized British model. A review of many undergraduate business schools to serve as a model for SMU narrowed the search down to the Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania.

The Wharton-SMU agreement was signed in February 1999 followed in June by the Wharton-SMU Research Centre collaboration. In July 1999, Professor Janice Bellace, then Deputy Dean of the Wharton School, commenced a two-year term as SMU's first president. Dr Tony Tan remarked at that time about the SMU-Wharton relationship: "We hope to be able to tap the expertise and support of Wharton's faculty and extensive alumni network of public and private sector leaders, while offering Wharton a 'beach-head in Asia'." In 2000, SMU made its first home at a single, two-storey building on Evans Road at the edge of the Bukit Timah Campus. Often referred to as the cradle of tertiary education in Singapore, the campus, officially opened as Raffles College in 1929, has been home to several institutions, where many political and business leaders of Singapore and Malaysia were educated.

SMU is now a premier university in Asia the Singapore Management University (SMU) is internationally recognized for its excellent research and distinguished teaching. Established in 2000, SMU's mission is to generate leading edge research with global impact and produce broad-based, creative and entrepreneurial leaders for the knowledge-based economy. It is known to be a pioneer in Singapore for its interactive and technologically enabled pedagogy of seminar-style teaching in

small class sizes that remains its unique hallmark. Home to about 8,000 students, SMU comprises six schools: School of Accountancy, Lee Kong Chian School of Business, School of Economics, School of Information Systems, School of Law and School of Social Sciences, offering a wide range of bachelor's, master's and PhD degree programs in business and other disciplines (SMU, 2013).

The selection of the study sites were based on the availability of student numbers (Japanese Sojourners onsite at the time of data collection) on the selected institutions which had attracted substantial number of Japanese exchange students in the past from various universities in Japan including Ritsumeikan. It maybe stated that the Japanese students who have chosen these universities as exchange students towards improving their English language skills while pursuing other educational goals were the target respondents evaluated in this research.

All of the respondents at the time of the interviews were enrolled in their undergraduate studies at various universities within Japan. They had volunteered at their universities to go to one of the three selected institutions using two approaches: their universities had prior agreement with the destination university for the purpose of academic exchange of students; the students had attained a certain level of English

language proficiency (e.g. includes Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), Test of English for International Communication (TOFIC), Test of English as a Foreign Language: Internet-based Test (TOEFL: iBT) and academic competency for sojourners to study at an English oriented institution. The major reason for the selection of the three sites undertaken in the research is that these were developed countries having English as its first language. The three universities also shared the common characteristics of being open to diversified students from across the globe catering to a truly multi-cultural environment.

1.6 Research Question(s)

The study takes a qualitative approach towards observing the Japanese sojourners in a study abroad context based on the following research question:

“How do Japanese students negotiate/adjust with native speakers in their study abroad classroom and host country settings?”

The aims of this research are to elaborate on the main research question mentioned above followed by the related sub questions:

- How do Japanese students experience their learning environments (home and host universities and Japan and host country) and learning incidents (phenomenon)?
- How do they respond/adjust to their perceptions of their learning environments (home and host universities and Japan and host country) and learning incidents (phenomenon)?
- Does the study abroad experience impact (positive or negative influence) participant's particular learning needs: foreign language learning; resume builder; job prospects; social status; travel; and widen their friendship circle?
 - i. Do different learning environments (institutional contexts: home and host universities) moderate the impact of study abroad on the learning strategies they use?
 - ii. Do individual characteristics (ambitious, sociable, pro-active, lazy, adventurous, unfriendly and clinging) moderate the impact of study abroad on the learning strategies they use?
- What are their particular learning needs, given their perception of their learning environment and how can these needs be best accommodated by both their home and host institutions?

1.7 Significance of the Study

Based on the research questions crafted above, the study examines: (A) the learning experiences of Japanese students to find out how they perceived their new learning environments during their study abroad; (B) to explore the coping strategies they employed to manage, understand and construct meaning out of their learning situations and their perceptions of their environment, learning needs and the ways in which those needs could be best accommodated by the institutions in which they were studying. This study will attempt to investigate how the dynamics of both micro and macro level insights will shape up student opportunities based on their learning experiences across time and space.

1.8 Limitations

Marshall and Rossman, (2006, p. 42) stressed that it is important for researchers to address the limitations of a study, which “reminds the reader what the study is and is not (its boundaries) and how its results can and cannot contribute to the understanding”. There are several inherent limitations to the present study:

- The tentative conclusion of this study can be best applicable to contexts of similar features only. More research is required to produce further insights to this study due to the fact that only forty-six Japanese students were volunteer to participant in this study. It may be that the Japanese students going to Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore are highly self-selective group that have made clear choices owing to long-term goals of their lives.
- Associations between student's learning experiences and their learning achievements are not evident in this study, as no TOEFL, TOEIC and TOEFL: iBT scores either in Japan or in their new destinations were collected. Such statistics would have not been possible as it would have faced administrative restrictions.
- The possibility of interaction between student's learning experiences and their learning styles (Melton, 1990) was not considered as the study is interested in finding out some broad patterns of instructional and learning practices.
- Some of the policies were taken from Japanese manuscripts with the help of university academics, policymakers and administrators. Hence, discrepancies could occur during the validity of the policies described in this thesis due to translation of archival data obtained through the above sources.

- The researcher was unable to research on both the short and long-term exchange programs as planned at the earlier stage of her research because it was not approved by the Centre for Language Education (CLE).
- Gender related issues with regards to study abroad could not be addressed owing to the limitation of research done in the area of study.
- The administration restrictions at institution also added on to lack of data.
- Finally, as noted in the methodology chapter the respondents were selected based on convenience sampling.

1.9 Structure of Thesis

The introductory chapter described the need for sojourning of Japanese students in an international context with an important research question. The second chapter will review the literature related to internationalization of Japanese students concerning the study abroad phenomenon as a background to this study. It will situate the study abroad phenomenon in the context of training Japanese students outside Japan. It will observe the theoretical orientations of the research providing the underlying interdisciplinary approaches along with the literature surrounding its culture,

expectations and perspectives of experiential learning. Research into the student's approaches to learning is also reviewed. The focus of the literature reviewed in the chapter is those that explore the experiences of the study abroad exchange of students.

Chapter 3 illustrates the three study sites considered for observation followed by the instruments used for gathering the data. The learning trajectories of the forty-six students selected for individual and focus group interviews were conducted. This chapter comprises of the observations, which were made at the research sites.

The penultimate chapter would analyze the data collected in context with: pre-sojourn, sojourn and post-sojourn. To appreciate the nature of their sojourn experiences, it would be presented in a chronological order, capturing both positive and negative aspects from the Japanese student's perspectives. Focus group interviews, the observations at the study abroad sites and the discussions with teachers, program coordinators and individuals in sojourning societies were utilized to analyze the data. The concluding chapter would re-examine the research objectives and questions in the light of findings of the study by advocating critical recommendations as a means of addressing the complex nature of language and cultural learning experiences abroad.

1.10 Summary

The introductory chapter has provided an overview of the research by attempting to place the entire study in the broader framework of internationalization wherein efforts are pursued by the Japanese sojourners were placed as an aspect of clearly crafted strategy of the Japanese government rather than universities merely sending them for an alternate learning experience. The second part of the chapter provides a brief overview of the literature related to the research problem. The theoretical and conceptual framework and the conceptualization of the research undertaken are discussed in the third and fourth sections. The remaining chapter provided the research objectives, research methodology and the expected outcomes of the study followed by the summary of the thesis.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the study abroad phenomenon examining the post-war contemporary trends and initiatives in study abroad enacted in Japan. The first section describes the significance to going abroad for widening their global awareness. The second section examines the internationalization and globalization aspects of the study abroad context. The rest of the chapter describes the conceptualization of study abroad as a global phenomenon and definition of ‘study abroad contexts’.

2.2 Trends and Initiatives in Contemporary Japan

Globalization and internationalization are inter-related. Globalization is the result of the reality of the twenty first century’s economic and academic trends across the globe. Policies and practices undertaken by academic systems, institutions and even

individuals to cope with the global academic environment is part of internationalization. Commercial advantage, knowledge and language acquisition, enhancing the curriculum with international content, are the motivations of internationalization. Internationalization includes specific initiatives such as branch campuses, cross-border collaborative arrangements, programs for international students, establishing English-medium programs and degrees, etc. Efforts to monitor international initiatives and ensure quality are integral to the international higher education environment (Altbach and Knight, 2007). New educational opportunities to Japanese students were facilitated through globalization resulted in the creation of an international recruitment market in which some higher education institutions view students in financial terms and not as members of a scholarly community (Habu, 2000).

Globalization is the key cause of knowledge being gradually becoming a commodity that moves between countries. The development of a knowledge-based economy has created competition amongst employers across the globe in terms of recruiting the best brains and among the education providers that train the best brains. Student migration to other countries for receiving higher education is an ongoing

phenomenon for many decades. The international student mobility can affect in the future due to the changes in the progress of how higher education is delivered.

Gradually more institutions of higher education are collaborating with universities across the globe. The concept of building new branch campuses abroad and internet-based education are slowly changing the structure and relationships that traditionally existed in higher education. International student migration is welcomed by governments of countries that send and receive sojourning students. Host countries provide scholarships to sojourning students to build up their international status and relations with their partner universities. Cost of living and tuition fees are disbursed by most sojourning students. The sojourning student body stimulates the local economies of the host countries by bringing in foreign exchange for expenditure in the cities and regions where education providers are situated (Mary, 2006).

After its defeat in the Second World War, Japan improved its relationship with the U.S.A. by becoming an ally. Japan grew swiftly and became successful in trade, fishery, agriculture and industrial development. Besides its economy, Japan became a stable and highly developed country with a parliamentary democracy. Japan wanted to take a step further to succeed in the country's grey areas such as the Pacific Rim trade,

international business opportunities, high technology, international relations wherein education was used as a tool for economic progression.

Japan encouraged young Japanese who were interested in Pacific Rim trade, international business opportunities and high-end technology for study abroad. In Japan, students were allowed to make the necessary connections for launching their careers, as well as get background knowledge about the business practices and strategies used by Japan's top companies. With the incentive of a guarantee of lifetime employment, a large percentage of laborers in Japan's economic system have job security to some extent.

The Japan-US Educational Commission (JUSEC) was established in 1979 as a bi-national commission with support from the governments of Japan and the U.S.A. From 1951 to 1979 the Fulbright office was funded by the U.S.A. government alone, and from 1949 to 1951 approximately 1,000 young Japanese travelled to the U.S.A. for study under the Government Aid and Relief in Occupied Areas (GARIOA) program (Fulbright, 2004).

The Educational Advisory Service (EAS) of JUSEC was established in 1964. It continued to engage in activities to promote educational exchanges between Japan and

the U.S.A. to support the overall mission of JUSEC mainly by providing advice and information on American higher education to the Japanese public. In the 1990's, the number of Japanese students studying in the U.S. reached a plateau between 45,000 and 47,000. Japan was at its pinnacle in sending students to the U.S. between 1997 and 1998. However, during 1998 and 1999, China became the top country of origin for foreign students while Japan became the second country in rank to send students to the U.S.A. (Fulbright, 2004a).

Recent research and inquiry into educational programs abroad have been stimulated and led by governmental initiatives and study abroad organizations (e.g. JUSEC, EAS and GARIOA). Upon review of the current literature, it becomes obvious that many more initiatives and organizations have been involved. Although Japan is making great efforts to increase the student population with respect to the study abroad phenomena; by 2001, the number of Japanese students fell further resulting in Japan becoming the third most student migrant country. Since 2001, after China and India took their position as the major source of student(s) supply to the U.S.A., Japan has maintained its fourth position after 2001. During 2010 - 2011, the number of Japanese students studying in the U.S.A. decreased by 14 percent, following the general trend of

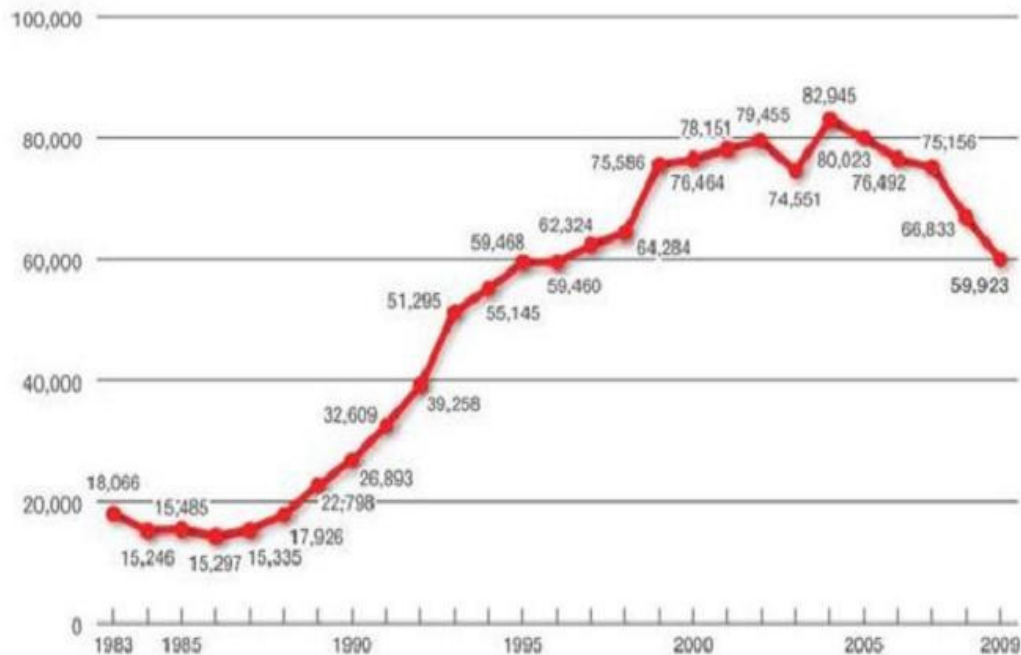
decline since its peak between 1997 and 1998. In 1994 and 1995 and between 1998 and 1999, Japan was the premier dispatcher of students to the U.S.A. but has since fallen to seventh place due to surges in students from India, China and South Korea, and the effects of a rapidly shrinking young population (Fulbright, 2004).

Between 2004 and 2005 the total number of Japanese students studying at U.S. universities and colleges was 42,215. On one hand, there was a significant decline in the number of Japanese students between 2003 and 2004 by 11.2 percent; and on the other hand, there was an increase between 2004 and 2005 by 3.4 percent in the number of Japanese students compared to the previous year.

In FY2005, human resource development and education through its advising service became important objectives of EAS. Besides providing advice to prospective students, the EAS's significant role was also to provide professional development programs to study-abroad advisors at Japanese universities and educational organizations. As a service, to Americans, EAS provided information and briefings on Japanese education. The briefings, which included information on current trends of Japanese students seeking educational opportunities in the U.S.A., were especially

popular and in high demand by representatives of the U.S. higher education institutions (Fulbright, 2004).

Figure 2.1: The number of Japanese students studying overseas

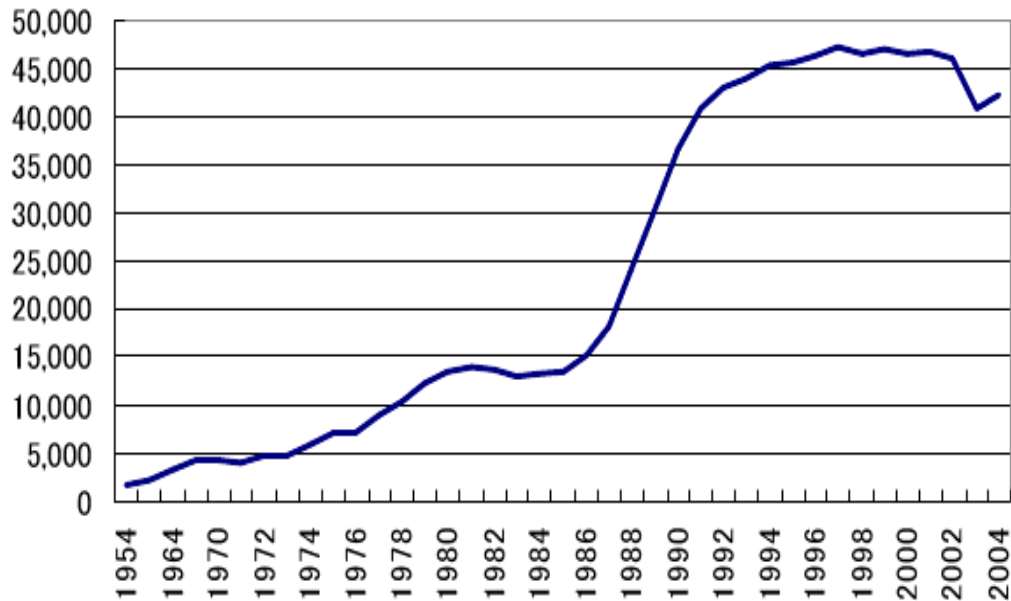


Source: <http://www.nippon.com/en/genre/society/100028/>

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), has reported that the number of Japanese studying abroad totaled 66,833 in 2008 indicating 8,323 lesser by students than the year before. On the other hand, the number of foreign students studying in Japan reached a record-high. The Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO) has reported that the largest number of foreigners studying in Japan reached to 141,774 in 2010, up 9,054 from the year before. Since 2004, the

number of foreigners studying in Japan has been growing. In 2004, it reached its peak of 82,945 foreign students (*Japan Today*, Thursday 29 December 2010).

Figure 2.2: Japanese Students in the United States, (1954 -2004)



Source: <http://www.fulbright.jp/pub/ar2004.swf>

In 2008, the number of foreign students in Japan was 123,829. While the above change was in progress, recruitment for jobs among university graduates also underwent changes. The current job recruitment process in Japan is apparently discouraging Japanese students from studying abroad for fear of missing out on opportunities to apply for jobs in a given period. Students are reluctant to study abroad because of current economic conditions. By 2020, the Japanese government aims to have 300,000

foreigners studying in Japan and the same number of Japanese studying abroad (*Japan Today*, Thursday 29 December 2010).

Table 2.1: Number of Japanese Students studying abroad in 2009

	Country or region	Number of students (previous year)	Year-on-year increase/decrease	
1.	United States	24,842 (29,264)	-4,422	-15.1%
2.	China	15,409 (16,733)	-1,324	-7.9%
3.	Britain	3,781 (4,465)	-594	-13.3%
4.	Australia	2,701 (2,974)	-273	-9.2%
5.	Taiwan	2,142 (2,182)	-40	-1.8%
6.	Germany	2,140 (2,234)	-94	-4.2%
7.	Canada	2,005 (2,169)	-164	-7.6%
8.	France	1,847 (1,908)	-61	-3.2%
9.	New Zealand	1,025 (1,051)	-26	-2.5%
10.	South Korea	989 (1,062)	-73	-6.9%
	Others	2,952 (2,791)	161	5.8%
	Total	59,923 (66,833)	-6,910	-10.3%

Source: <http://www.nippon.com/en/genre/society/l00028/>

It hopes to increase the number of Japanese students studying overseas by encouraging them to enroll in short and long term exchange programs to overcome the growing dislike among Japanese youths towards spending longer periods outside Japan. The Institute of International Education (IIE) reported that the U.S.A. was the most popular destination for Japanese studying abroad in 2008 at 29,264. In 2009, the number fell to 24,842 from the previous year, with China as the second most popular at

16,733 followed by 4,465 in Britain. In 2009 and 2010, among the Japanese students studying in the U.S.A. 52.6 percent are undergraduate students. They were the dominant group, followed by 21.7 percent graduate students, 17.4 percent others and 8.3 percent of Optional Practical Training (OPT). Table 2.2 illustrates the major downward trend among Japanese students going to the U.S.A. (Open Door Fact Sheet: Japan, 2013).

Table 2.2: Changing trends of Japanese students in the U.S.A.

Year	No. of students from Japan	Change from the Previous Year (%)	No. of U.S. Study Abroad Students going to Japan
2011/12	19,966	-6.2%	n/a
2010/11	21,290	-14.3%	4,134(down 33%)
2009/10	24,842	-15.1%	6,166 (up 6.6%)
2008/09	29,264	-13.9%	5,784
2007/08	33,974	-3.7%	5,708
2006/07	35,282	-8.9%	5,012
2005/06	38,712	-8.3%	4,411
2004/05	42,215	3.4%	4,101
2003/04	40,835	-11.2%	3,707
2002/03	45,960	-1.8%	3,457
2001/02	46,810	0.7%	3,168
2000/01	46,497	-0.8%	2,618
1999/00	46,872	1.0%	2,679
1998/99	46,406	-1.4%	2,485
1997/98	47,073	1.7%	2,285
1996/97	46,292	-	2,018

Source: <http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/Fact-Sheets-by-Country/2012>

2.3 The Internationalization Process within Japanese Universities

The exercise of internationalization and globalization in Japanese universities, illustrates the strong ideological basis for Japanese students going abroad. In his writing on ‘The Dialectic of Internationalization and Globalization in Japanese Universities’, Bradley stated in the (*Abstract*) that:

“Concurrently, the advent of a new law governing public universities, which took effect in April of 2004, entails that they become Independent Administrative Institutions (IAIs) and ostensibly more transparent and accountable in funding and outcomes. While the public universities are only a minority of the higher education institutions in Japan, they have a disproportionate influence due to their elite status. The problem of change deriving from internationalization and globalization in Japanese universities is not that it is ideological but that it is bureaucratically driven and not openly ideological”.

(Bradley, 2003)

The features of internationalization within Japanese universities can be highlighted by the following three main features which contribute to the reforms in Japan’s internationalization drive towards higher education. These features include: (i) internationalization of higher education as a strategic theme in Japan; (ii) policies and projects at the national level and within universities; and (iii) the internationalization of education. Each of the three features is elaborated further in the following subsections.

(i) *Internationalization of higher education as a strategic theme in Japan*

Since the nineteenth century, the Japanese universities have used the term (kokusaika) internationalization in various forms to make changes in the Japanese educational system. The history of the contemporary education of Japan was influenced by scholars from the industrialized west. Scholars were invited by the Japan universities to deliver their specialized knowledge to the Japanese students. Lincicome's (1999) analysis on the Taisho era's (1912-1926) liberal "international education movement" (kokusai kyôiku undô) illustrates Japan's utilization of internationalization as a recurring theme to reform various projects Bradley (2003: 3). This historical episode has shown that actors surrounding any effort at internationalization are not necessarily universal in their outlook. According to Lincicome (1999), the common historical misconception that supports the discourses of internationalization necessarily rejects strong forms of nationalism. Bradley asserts that since 1980, the reform of the Japanese universities has been a debatable theme which has also been part of the discussion evolving the meaning of internationalization in the wider Japanese society (Bradley 2003: 3).

The term ‘internationalization’ can refer to the number of people and their movements. According to Sugiyama (1992), the difference between internal (international students studying in Japan) and external (Japanese on study abroad) internationalization is an excellent model of categorical and formalized system to account for internationalization. Bradley (2003: 3) highlighted to the reader that in 1983, when Nakasone Yasuhiro was the Prime Minister of Japan, the governmental agencies targeted to attract a substantial number of foreign students. Japan could only achieve its goal two decades later (The Daily Yomiuri, 2003).

Between the late 1980s and early 1990s, the Japanese economy was strongly growing, which also caused international political tensions. Japan used internationalization as a strategy to lessen the friction and withstand the efforts to fully open markets due to psychological barrier to openness (Bradley, 2003: 4).

In 1987, Japan started the Japan Exchange and Teaching program (JET) in which Japanese students studying in junior and senior high schools across Japan get to meet foreign language teaching assistants from the United States of America, Britain, Australia, and New Zealand. As Japan was eager to improve its relations with Europe; in 1988, France and Germany were also included in this program (McConnell, 2000:

73). Activities and programs have been part of Japan's internationalization. Besides the activities and programs there are policies and projects established for Japan's internationalization.

(ii) *Policies and Projects at the National level and within Universities*

The recent trends and developments in higher education system of the Japanese universities are caused by the high expectations from the society plus the intensive international competition towards a knowledge based society. Globalization demands for the enhancement of quality assurance internationally resulting in a better cross-border cooperation and exchange between universities. Therefore, Japan's university education movement is advancing towards the framework construction of the exchange between universities. Quality assurance of higher education consists of: (standards for establishing universities; establishment of the system of approval; and quality assurance and accreditation system. The National Institution for Academic Degrees and Universities Evaluation (NIAD-UE) and MEXT contribute in the development of higher education in Japan. Activities such as the "Global 30" Project and the South Asia Engineering Education Development Network (SEED-Net) Project

organized for the purpose of higher education advancement in Japan (Japan Trends and Development, 2013).

(iii) *Internationalization of Education*

The globalization advancement demands for Japan's curriculum transformation in the Japanese university educational system which became the key concern for academics, administrators and policy makers contributing to rigorous changes that contributed to the curriculum changes in the education sectors for the purpose of the internationalization of Japan's higher education. Japan has comprehended the need for a millennium framework construction across the globe especially in Asia for exchanges to occur between universities; this will enrich the regional cooperation in East Asia due to the enhancement of international relationships taking place among universities (Japan Trends and Development, 2013).

While the three main features of internationalization within Japanese universities contribute to the reform in Japan's internationalization in higher education; "study abroad" also requires promotion amongst the Japanese university students to develop their international experience and intercultural knowledge paving the pathway to the internationalization of Japanese universities (Asaoka and Yano, 2009).

2.4 Relevant Theories in Study Abroad Contexts

Bakhtin and Bourdieu have theorized the learning that takes place in study abroad contexts. Mikhail Bakhtin (1895-1975) is a Russian Philosopher, a Soviet visionary, literary critic and cultural theorist. Bakhtin's (1981, 1986) notion of conceptualization concerning the link between identity, culture, and language failed to extend an unambiguous theory of language learning or address pedagogical issues (Jackson, 2008: 15). Bakhtin affirmed that language is immersed in social contexts for easy interaction and understanding among communities. Bakhtin and Bourdieu's contribution in the area of research on language, identity and culture has been complimented with Jackson's (2008) unique contributions on the merits of study abroad in her book, *'Language, Identity and Study Abroad'* (2008):

“The inter-disciplinary draws on: socio-cultural notions of language; culture and identity; social cross-cultural psychology; and intercultural or international relations. It is based on the premise that student sojourners, educators and indeed anyone who interacts across cultures (whether at home or abroad), could benefit from a heightened awareness of the language, identity and cultural factors that impact on the development of intercultural communicative competence. As such, it provides insight into potential trajectories that may or may not lead to intercultural personhood”.

(Jackson, 2008: 10, 11).

In her view, Bakhtin's, dialogue is the very foundation of culture and human development: 'to be the means to communicate dialogically. When the dialogue is finished, all is finished...' (Bakhtin, 1984: 213). In his view, it is a special form of interaction that lies at the heart of the creative nature of our existence (Jackson, 2008: 16) through dialogue with people from other linguistic and cultural backgrounds; Bakhtin (1981) argued that an individual may be exposed to new ideas, utterances, values and worldview. Jackson stated that if this process was undoubtedly open, Bakhtin was convinced that substantial personal development could take place in both interlocutors:

'The person who understands must not reject the possibility of changing or even abandoning his already prepared viewpoints and positions. In the act of understanding, a struggle occurs that results in mutual change and enrichment'

(Bakhtin, 1986: 142).

Jackson (2008) further asserted that Bakhtin was convinced that an individual's knowledge of another culture or language deepens and boosts his or her own knowledge capacity, highlighting to the reader about Bakhtin's warning against substitute of an individual's culture or language with the other. Jackson (2008) claimed that Bakhtin provided a somewhat idealist notion of what should happen in an intercultural event:

“A dialogic encounter of two cultures does not result in merging and mixing. Each retains his own unity and open totality, but they are mutually enriched”.

(Bakhtin, 1986: 7)

Jackson (2008) discussed about Bakhtin’s Dialogue, where she stated that he theorized, ‘transcends the enclosed and one-sided nature of the culture’s respective meaning’ (p. 19). She has highlighted to the reader that if an individual lacks an understanding of the speech genre that is culturally accepted in a particular situation (e.g. casual chat), miscommunication and misunderstandings are prone to arise. Bakhtin (1986) reasoned that this may, in turn, threaten one’s identity, self-image and willingness to interact further (Jackson, 2008: 20).

Similarly, Pierre Bourdieu (1930-2002) a French sociologist, intellectual and avid political activist, was acknowledged by Jackson, (2008) for his vast development on a number of conceptual tools that have relevance to this study. Bourdieu’s notions of field and habitus, helped to explain the complex relationship between language, culture and positioning within specific socio-cultural contexts as described by (Jackson, 2008: 22) contributed to the researcher’s study. Bakhtin and Bourdieu identified that verbal communication and social life are inseparably bound together. Jackson (2008),

emphasized on Bourdieu theory, on the concept of field ‘market or game’ which “basically refers to a social arena in which people (social agents) maneuver and strive hard to quest for their personal needs (e.g. status, knowledge, financial strength).”

Bourdieu’s vision as described by Jackson, (2008) a field is a system of social positions and relations structured internally in terms of power differentials. The keystone of this hierarchy consists of a sets of values and worldviews which ascertain what ‘the social agents’ in a particular socio-cultural contexts consider essential (e.g. trying hard). Bourdieu’s acknowledgement of the power differential and knowledge gap between second language students and their teachers was stressed by (Jackson, 2008: 23) describing that on one hand, within this ‘game’, students may work hard to grasp the knowledge that the educators possess if they consider it to be useful towards the progress of their family and themselves. On the other hand, within this field, there may be refusal to accept (from the student’s perspective) the fact that the knowledge and skills that are valued in mainstream society (e.g. by the teachers) are beyond their capacity or unimportant to them.

Jackson (2008) confirms that Bourdieu (1977, 1991) detailed the term ‘body techniques’ which was uniquely initiated by Marcel Mauss to include the entirety of

learned habits (e.g. daily routines), skills, styles, tastes, values and beliefs shared by specific groups, societies, or nations. The 'social agents' act and respond to this 'set of dispositions' in particular ways in social exchanges promptly which is what Bourdieu believed as the practices ('actions with a history').

Habitus from a Bourdieu's perspective includes the 'durable motivations, perceptions and forms of knowledge (Jackson, 2008: 23) that people strongly believe in because they are living in a specific social environment and that naturally drives them to act in certain ways'(Layder, 1997: 236) Bourdieu (1991) used the term 'linguistic habitus' to describe the 'sub-set' of disposition's is obtained while learning to speak in particular socio-cultural contexts (e.g. at home, at school). An individual's linguistic habitus is a collection of experiences and infused knowledge, which directs the language usage in daily life (Jackson 2008: 24). Bourdieu (1977, 1991) explanation as described by Jackson (2008) is when people go into 'new' fields, they naturally bring with them sets of dispositions (habitus); these behaviors and worldviews may not be a comfortable fit within the new field.

Jackson (2008) asserts that despite the sojourners efforts to adjust themselves to speak the targeted language using the correct accent and communication style and

seek to transform themselves in their host environment, they may not be allowed to fully adopt a new persona and position in the field (Jackson, 2008: 24).

The assimilation of the study abroad students into the host environment concerns the need to become accustomed to the academic requirements and challenges of their host universities. According to Patron (2007), in order for them to produce excellent results within their host university milieu, it is important that the study abroad students adjust to the host university's academic practices and expectations especially with regards to the language requirement of the host country.

In order to be successful, the academic sojourners are immersed in the host university setting as they are required to involve themselves in 'culture learning', particularly academic culture and intellectual endeavors. In her writing, Patron describes the study abroad sojourners as 'unofficial ambassador' of their home country and as such she stated that their role is likely to be thrust on them as much as on other groups of travelers (Patron, 2007). Then again, because of their young age, this role may be either accepted or rejected by the study abroad students which depends greatly on the type of acceptance these academic sojourners experience. Patron (2007) affirms that:

“Their self-esteem may be affected positively if their reception by host individuals demonstrates genuine interest in them. Conversely the effect can be negative as a result of prejudice from host nationals. Learning in this situation, whether of knowledge, skills, customs or attitudes, implies a process of personal goal seeking, coping and defense which ultimately influences the outcome of the sojourn. The rupture in their established interpersonal network, culture contrast and the concurrent difficulties in communication experienced by foreign students generally culminate in problems of adjustment”.

(Patron, 2007: 19, 20)

Ultimately, it is the academic sojourner’s responsibility to assure that they successful adapt to their host university environment (Ward et al., 2001). In her view, Patron (2007) confirmed that the analysis of the psychology of the contact experiences of academic sojourners, in terms of motives and other variables such as timeframe and type of involvement help to define this group to a greater degree (Patron, 2007: 20).

2.5 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the study abroad phenomenon in order to provide an overall background to the thesis. The chapter examined the trends and initiatives in study abroad enacted in Japan to encourage domestic students and especially the undergraduate students. The second part provided a review of the related studies to study abroad and selected research theory. The subsequent section delved into the conceptualization of study abroad as a global phenomenon. The consequent sections have provided an overview of the definition of study abroad, the major theorists who explain the learning that takes place in ‘study abroad contexts’. The discussions in this chapter have laid the foundations for the following chapters methodological issues of the thesis. The review of studies indicated in the chapter has helped to establish not only the research instruments to be used but also the analytical strategies undertaken in the thesis. They also relate to the concluding chapter in pointing out the need to highlight the relevance of the study’s findings to existing research. A varied range of studies have been carried out among students within and outside Japan. As this study seeks to compare Japanese students sojourning to learn in English in study abroad contexts, only related studies were taken up for examination in this chapter.

Chapter 3

Research Sites and Methodological Framework

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research sites and the methodology used in this study. The three research sites were at the UH at Manoa, the University of British Columbia (UBC) at Vancouver and the Singapore Management University (SMU) at Singapore. The study sections consist of descriptive clarification of the research strategies used by the researcher in this study to collect the data, the choice of participants, the research sites and the in-depth method of data collection used to understand the motivations, experiences, expectations and perceptions of the undergraduate Japanese sojourners, their family and friends. The interviews allowed the researcher to discover and understand the cognitive thinking and emotions of the participant's perceptions in study abroad contexts.

The first part of the chapter explains the choice of approach, method and sites in this study. The second part of the chapter explores the research sites and methodological framework. In this section, the researcher provides a detailed explanation of the research accomplished at all the three fieldwork sites. The researcher collected a five year research data on Japanese students who have enrolled in the Manoa International Exchange (MIX) program at UH, in the Academic Exchange Program (AEP) at UBC with the permissions of the academics in charge of all the three programs. This was not possible for the International Exchange (IE) program at SMU because of administrative restrictions from the Ministry of Education.

The evaluation for this study was based on the researcher's fieldwork observations and the rich source of information gathered from the in-depth interviews of respondents and digital data collections. The third section of the chapter investigates construction of the interview guide and the final section looks at the perspectives of two great philosophers in the field of culture, language and identity; Bakhtin and Bourdieu and other scholars in this area of research that are the significant elements of the study abroad contexts.

3.2 Selection of Research Strategy

Most studies that have measured students in study abroad contexts have used qualitative methods of data collection. Many researchers have studied about the policy making, project development, students and university perspectives and internationalization of the Japanese education system in contemporary Japan. This study is exploratory in nature. The research plan consists of the study objective, selections of participants and research sites, and the methods of data collection. The design used by the researcher in this study is an ethnographic one; it uses the methods of non-participant observation, open-ended, semi-structured in-depth interviews which were recorded on site and transcribed. This is to achieve the maximum information on the experiences of Japanese students in their natural environment and their adjustments with native speakers in their study abroad classroom and host country settings.

3.3 Methodological Framework

3.3.1 Qualitative Method used in Data Collection

The literature review and preliminary research identified many contributive factors in both areas of the internationalization in the higher education in Japan and also

the Japanese sojourners in study abroad contexts. The methodology enabled the researcher to “study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena” (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, p. 3). Besides, qualitative approach which helped the researcher to observe the sojourners in their natural environment and relate the incidents, real stories and experiences gave many interesting insights into study.

The qualitative phase of this study consisted of sixty-five in-depth interviews among forty-six students, two host family agents, one Counselor, two Program Managers, nine Professors, four Coordinators and one Teaching Assistant from all three sojourning sites. The in-depth interview method used in this phase allowed the researcher to focus on the main points of the interview. Of the total forty-six respondents including five APU returnees (one Japanese female and four Japanese male students), ten were from Hawaii, twenty-three were from Vancouver and eight were from Singapore. The Japanese males and the Japanese females represented in this study were not equal in number. Thirty-one Japanese female students and fifteen Japanese male students participated in this study. In UH, there were six female student participants and seven male student participants, in UBC, there were nineteen female

students and four male student participants and in SMU, there were six female students and four male student participants in this study. In this chapter, the researcher introduced three different study abroad programs organized in three popular exchange program sites; all of which are long-term programs in which the Japanese students who went across the globe participated. The Japanese students involved in these exchange programs were second and third year students from universities across the four main islands of Japan. The one year program is in an English-speaking country which was established by their own respective university in exchange program agreement with UH, UBC and SMU.

Table 3.1: Number of Japanese students at UH, UBC and SMU

Name of Exchange Program	Exchange Universities	No. of Japanese Exchange Students	Interviews at UH, UBC and SMU		No. of Participants at UH, UBC and SMU
			Individual	Focus Group	
MIX	UH	23	8	1 (5 in a group)	13
AEP	UBC	99	13	2 (5 in a group)	23
IE	SMU	10	4	1 (6 in a group)	10

Source: Formulated by the Author

The in-depth interviews collected were based on Pratt et al, (2006), which states that, “Unlike quantitative findings, qualitative findings lack an agreed upon “significance level.” There is no “magic number” of interviews or observations that

should be conducted in a qualitative research project which is applicable to the researcher's domain area. What is "enough" depends on what question(s) a researcher seeks to answer" (Pratt et al., 2009: p. 856). This allowed the researcher to focus on the main points of the interviews with similarities to Adler and Adler's notion of qualitative research methods (Baker and Edwards, 2012) which refers to differences from the quantitative approaches in many important aspects of social research. Hence emphasis on numbers might not have an effect on this approach but Table 3.1 has been developed the researcher here to express clarity to the data collected.

Table 3.2: The Number of Sojourners in Study Abroad Contexts

Study Abroad Sites				
Gender	UH and APU Returnees	UBC	SMU and APU Returnees	Total
Male	5 + (2) Returnee	4	2 + (2) Returnee	15
Female	5 + (1) Returnee	19	6	31

Table 3.1 and 3.2 indicates that the sample data collected involves: 23 sojourners who were approached towards data collection from the MIX program. Only 50.0% (13 respondents) responded to the queries of the researcher Similarly, UBC had the maximum number of Japanese Sojourners (99 enrolled) of which 23.23% (23 respondents) participated in the qualitative questionnaire and interviews conducted from

the AEP program. Likewise, SMU had 10 sojourners were approached towards data collection from the IE program. 100% (10 respondents) agreed to participate in the qualitative interviews. Qualitative researchers generally study fewer people, but delve more deeply into those individuals, settings, subcultures, and scenes. Through this they hope to generate a subjective understanding of how and why people perceive, reflects role-take, interpret and interact (Baker and Edwards, 2012: 8) with the context of sojourning abroad. The in-depth interview method used in this phase allowed the researcher to focus on the main points of the interview. Hatch beliefs that,

“It is a characteristic of qualitative research that studies change as they are being implemented dynamically due to the host country settings. Because the goal is to get inside a social phenomenon in a special social setting, it is difficult if not impossible to reconstruct a design a priori that takes into account what the researcher finds out upon actually entering the social setting to be studied.”

(Hatch, 2002, p. 10)

In all the three locations of the research, personal connections were crucial to qualitative aspects of research. Having been both an undergraduate student and a Masters student at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) helped the researcher in approaching academics and administrative staff dealing with exchange students. At

APU, my work as a teaching and research assistant helped me gain the opportunity of interviewing Japanese students.

Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research relies on reasons behind various aspects of behavior which helps to understand human behavior and motives. It is vital to understand the core characteristics of qualitative research. Both Marshall and Rossman (2006) have suggested that qualitative research is “a broad approach to the study of a social phenomenon” and “its various genres are naturalistic, interpretive and increasingly critical and they draw on multiple methods of inquiry” (p. 2) in their book on *Designing Qualitative Research* (2006). Qualitative method based study is “uniquely suited to uncovering the unexpected and exploring new avenues commanding flexibility in the proposal so that data gathering can respond to increasingly refined research questions” (Marshall and Rossman, 2006, p. 38). According to Marshall and Rossman (2006, p. 34), this study undertaken by the researcher is *exploratory* which “identifies or discovers important categories of meaning or seeks to generate hypotheses of further research” and also *descriptive* in terms of “documents and describes a phenomenon”. The nature of qualitative method paves for further investigation into this study compared to quantitative approach which contributes to short answers mostly not

generating for further research. According to Marshall and Rossman (2006, p. 38), qualitative research is “uniquely suited to uncovering the unexpected and exploring new avenues...that demands flexibility in the proposal so that data gathering can respond to increasingly refined research questions” as it is exploratory and descriptive. Hence, the need is for smaller but focused samples rather than large random samples, which qualitative research categorizes data into patterns as the primary basis for organizing and reporting results.

The disadvantage of closed-ended questionnaire limits the choice of response of the participants and does not allow the researcher to explore additional information of the individual respondents. Two sets of interview guides and their respective consent forms were prepared: one was for the individual interviews and the other was for the focus group interviews. The individual interview guide consisted of 17 questions and the focus group interview guide consisted of 19 questions. “Some of us find it useful to write out a set of 10 to 20 prospective questions” (Stake, 1995, p. 20). Open-ended questions were chosen in order to obtain in-depth responses along with a description or explanation as these would allow the interviewee to answer the questions however they choose to respond since there was no right or wrong answer.

Open-ended questions are flexible making these types of questions gave the researcher flexibility during the interview, allowing new questions to be brought up during the interview based on the interviewee responses. With a framework of themes explored, the researcher used the open-ended, semi-structured questions and completed the interview smoothly. According to Marshall and Rossman (2006), the role of the researcher depends greatly on one's choice of paradigm belief. Hatch (2002) affirms that a researcher must have a firm grasp of his or her ontological (nature of reality) and epistemological (relationship of knower and known) beliefs before beginning the planning stages of a study, since one's view's of ontology and epistemology will affect most phases of the study, from design, data collection and role of the researcher to data analysis and conclusion.

Marshall and Rossman (2006) brought widen the scope into the variation of the researcher's role by discussing the level of researcher *participantness*, *revealedness*, *intensiveness* and *extensiveness*. First, the researcher must decide among the varying levels of *participantness*, or "the degree of actual participation in daily life" (p. 72). At one extreme, there is the "full participant" and at the other extreme is the "complete observer," with a range of mixes in between (p. 72). Next, Marshall and Rossman

(2006) discuss the researcher's *revealedness*, or "the extent to which the participants know there is a study going on. Full disclosure lies at one end of the continuum while complete secrecy lies at the other end", (p. 73). The researcher's *intensiveness* is describe as "the amount of time spent in the setting on a daily basis," (p. 73). The researcher level of while the *extensiveness* is "the duration of the study over time" (p. 73).

In this study, the researcher's *participantness*, was only as a 'partial observer' as she observed the body language, facial expressions and gestures of the participants during the interview. The researcher had the opportunity to observe the students during the 'Coffee Hour' sometimes at the libraries and eating places while at UH; at UBC the researcher was able to observe the students during the dinner she attended and at the Rits House where the researcher spent most of her time during her field research. In the case of SMU, the researcher spent most of her time in the campus and especially at the Lee Kong Chian School of Business.

The researcher's *revealedness*, was notable, during her visit to all the three research sites. This study has obtained informed consent from all the Japanese exchange students even to some extent among all the international students who were involved in

the exchange programs. During her stay at all the three sites, the students knew that the researcher is at the site for her own study purposes and through word of mouth, many of all the Japanese students on exchange at that point of time came to know of the researcher's presence at their campuses. To some extent, even some of the international students who were associated with the Japanese students in the exchange program came to know of the researcher's existence at their university's vicinity. The investigator's point of *intensiveness* was elevated; the researcher was very friendly towards the Japanese exchange students. She interacted with all of the students whenever she met them at corridors of classrooms, libraries, computer labs and hostel and campus settings. The Japanese students were very kind and helpful to the researcher in some instances and lastly, *extensiveness* of the researcher was reasonably good. The researcher conducted follow-up emails and through those emails asked the students questions with regards to their post-sojourning experiences.

The researcher's objective, when writing up the thesis, was to use the language and perspectives of the respondents as a benchmark towards understanding the emotional and cognitive thinking mechanisms of the Japanese exchange students and achieve the maximum insight into their real-life experiences. The exact words spoken

by the participants in English and their perspectives of the host environment are used to inform the reader in the following chapters on findings and discussion which will relate to the concluding chapter of this study. By using the exact words of the respondents in this study, the researcher hopes to provide an opportunity for the reader to judge for himself or herself the English proficiency level of the Japanese students who went on the exchange program to UH, UBC and SMU. By using the exact words of the respondents in this study, the researcher hopes to provide an opportunity for the reader to judge for himself or herself the English proficiency level of the Japanese students who went on the exchange program to UH, UBC and SMU. This is vital to this kind of study as it will not misconstrue the meaning of the words used by the respondents during the in-depth individual and group interviews. This will provide the reader with a clear understanding of their meaning and interpretations that truly matter the most (Woods, 1986). The researcher has used 'SIC' which is a Latin term 'sicut' which means 'just as', or foregoing the mistakes (or apparent mistake) that was made by the interviewee during the interview which is quoted in the thesis (Urban Dictionary, 2013). The researcher has typed "[sic]" immediately after the errors to indicate that it's actually those words were spoken by them (participants) which were grammatically incorrect rather than an error in transcription. (Guide to Transcribing, 2013).

As mentioned in the earlier part of this chapter, the researcher has used ethnographic methods to observe the participant's facial expressions,(e.g. anger, happiness, embarrassment, excitement, guilt, pride in achievement, relief, satisfaction, sensory pleasure, shame, amusement and shame) physical expressions (e.g. eye contact, fiddling, attention, slouching, scratching the chin or ear and crosses their arms across the chest) body language, as from the point of view of the subject (not the participant ethnographer) and recorded all observed behavior and described all gestures used by the respondents to answer the questions raised during the face-to-face interview with relations to the study. This non-verbal communication are easily understood and interpreted. The respondent's actions were more significant than the words they spoke during the interviews. The ethnographic methods of observing the characteristics body language and facial expressions of the Japanese respondents combination with the terms such as ("sad", "happy", "worried", "angry" and "excited") used by the Japanese respondents in the in-depth interviews as discussed above enabled better collection of interviews by the researcher as elucidated in the next chapter in detail. Chapter four will use the transcribed voices of the respondents in all the three fieldwork sites to answer the research questions and discuss the findings of the study.

3.3.2 Choice of Research Sites

The data for the study were drawn from Japanese students in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore. Owing to the limited time available for fieldwork and financial costs, only three institutions were identified for fieldwork. APU conducts short-term and long-term exchange programs for Japanese undergraduate students. The fieldwork at APU was begun in the Fall of 2010 and Fall of 2011 Academic Year. At APU, the academics and administrative staff working on the exchange programs were approached. The researcher paralleled her efforts to reach the Japanese students along with the collection of secondary data at the APU library. The APU library staff was very kind and helpful in getting the journal articles, periodical, digital data essential for the research to take off.

With the help of the Professor Arie Ken (Student Exchange Coordinator), Nitano Miki San and Akari Miyakoshi San (Academic Office), the researcher was able to attend a presentation held at the APU library by Japanese exchange returnees from the exchange program. The presentation made it possible for the researcher to meet the Japanese exchange returnees after their presentation; thereafter conduct the interviews with them. The Academic Office sent the list of names and email addresses of the

returnees to the researcher. This helped the researcher to contact and get in touch with the Japanese exchange returnees. Out of the six returnees, five agreed to give interview about the exchange experiences to the researcher. Although, it was assured that identity of interviewee will be kept undisclosed for ethical reasons, one of returnees withdrew from the interview. The interviews were conducted from May 2011 to August 2011 with all the five returnees. Three interviewees had gone to UH at Manoa and other two were from the Singapore Management University (SMU). The interviewees were very busy job-hunting, besides fulfilling their credit requirements so that they can graduate and settle in jobs.

An earlier estimation that the researcher would conduct in-depth interviews during an immersion program held during the summer vacation in August 2011 was not approved by the Centre for Language Education (CLE). The faculty wished that the researcher should have contacted the CLE prior to the first program class or even before recruiting guidance held in the early weeks in each semester. Since this English Immersion program was being conducted for the first time at the Singapore Institute of Management (SIM), they felt that it was too sensitive.

The faculties felt that this is inappropriate time or right program to allow the researcher to be present in the program. As a result, other possibilities of continuing the same kind of study were explored by the researcher. The researcher narrowed down her study from her initial strategy of studying both the short and long term programs to only the long term program aiming at only the three institutions.

3.3.3 Interview Guide Construction

The interview guide was designed based on the ideas of the two great philosophers in the field of culture, language and identity: Bakhtin (1895 - 1975) and Bourdieu (1930-2002). Since the research explores the experiences of Japanese sojourners in their host environment setting, questions were designed based on identity, culture and language to suit the study. As the study centers on the learning experiences of Japanese sojourners who travel from their home culture where it is mono-lingual, mono-cultural and mono-identity to another culture where they become visibly different and smaller in number; the significance of examining the current understanding of the construction of cultural and social identity.

3.3.4 Data Collection Methodology

The researcher went about meeting academics and administrative staff at APU to discuss how they could help her to approach faculties and contact the three educational institutions which were very popular amongst Japanese students going on study abroad programs. The study sites had to be accessible for research. A realistic site is where (a) entry is possible; (b) there is a high probability that a rich mix of processes, people, programs, interactions, and structures of interest are present; (c) the researcher is likely to be able to build trusting relations with the participants of the study; and (d) data quality and credibility of the study are reasonably assured (Marshall and Rossman, 2006, p.61).

With the help of Professor Edgar Porter, Pro-Vice President of APU, the researcher was able to get permission from Professor Darrell Kicker (International Exchange Coordinator) at the Manoa International Exchange (MIX). This enabled the researcher to get in touch with the Japanese students on exchange programs at the UH at Manoa. The initial arrangement was for the researcher to stay at the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA). Prior to her visit to Hawaii, the researcher contacted Professor Sato Yoichiro with regard to her accommodation in Hawaii. She was advised

by Professor Sato to stay at the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA). The researcher took the advice of Professor Sato and arranged her accommodation at the YWCA which was only five minutes away from the UH campus by bus. At APU, the researcher was fully supported by her supervisor Professor Ko Yiu Chung, financially and academically. This relieved the researcher's worry on the travel, accommodation and living expenses in all the three research sites. The researcher left Japan on the 30th of September 2011. She had exactly four weeks to complete her fieldwork at Hawaii. After the weekend, the researcher went to meet Professor Kicker at the UH campus and discussed with him about her research and the vital support she needed from him to conduct the interviews. The researcher was invited by Professor Kicker to the 'Coffee Hour' for exchange students which were held every Friday at three o'clock in the afternoon at the Sinclair Library.

The researcher with enthusiasm agreed to attend the gathering. This gave the researcher the opportunity to meet the exchange students and some of the international students as well. At the 'Coffee Hour' the researcher met many exchange Japanese students. Unfortunately, she missed some of the Japanese students who were attending classes at the University of Hawaii. Meanwhile, with the help of the librarians and staff

at both the Hamilton Library and the Sinclair Library, the researcher collected all the digital data and published materials essential for her research.

The librarians at both the libraries also assisted the researcher to search for the materials related to her area of study and help to print the collected materials. The collection of digital data and published materials collection was completed with the help and support of the staff at both the libraries of UH. Due to financial constraint, the researcher planned to spend one month at each of the fieldwork sites. The researcher went to the 'Coffee Hour' on the second Friday of her visit at the UH. She was still not able to meet any of the Japanese exchange students.

The researcher visited Professor Kicker's office again to seek his help with regards to her fieldwork at UH. Professor Kicker gave her the contacts of some of the faculties at the UH campus who had vast experience in teaching Japanese students. The name list of the twenty-three Japanese students on exchange at that point of time was given to the researcher and was advised to contact the sojourners via an email. The researcher followed the advice of Professor Kicker and tried to contact the Japanese exchange students but was unsuccessful. Professor Kicker contacted all the twenty-three students twice via email to inform them about the researcher's fieldwork at UH. In the

interim, the researcher contacted the academics, Administrators and Directors to conduct interviews with them. The interviews with the academics were successfully completed. The researcher met Professor Kicker and told him about her fieldwork challenges and the difficulties which was faced during data collection with the Japanese students.

The researcher was supposed to return to Japan on the 1st of November 2011. As the one month of fieldwork at the UH was coming to an end, the researcher experienced anxiety and stress because until that point of time, there was zero progress in conducting the in-depth interviews with the Japanese exchange students at the UH. Professor Kicker helped the researcher to meet up with one of the female Japanese students during the ‘Coffee Hour’ on the third Friday of her visit at the UH. This female student contacted the other students by emails and informed about the researcher visit and study at the UH and she also agreed to participate in the interview. By the late evening of the day, after the ‘Coffee Hour’ meeting, the researcher received emails from some of the Japanese students.

The first interview was conducted with a male Japanese student at his hostel located within the UH campus on Monday. After the interview, the Japanese male

student volunteered to help the researcher by contacting his peers through the Facebook. He also conveyed the message to the researcher that neither he nor his twenty-three peers received any emails with regards to the visit of the researcher. The researcher assumed that this could be due to some kind of technical error. He also told the researcher that his peers would be busy attending classes; meeting deadlines to submit reports and having to fulfill other personal chores. By the end of the day, nine more Japanese students agreed to participate in the in-depth interviews. With the help of the two (male and female) Japanese sojourners, the researcher successfully completed one focus group interview (five participants); and five individual interviews. This was done two days prior to the researcher's departure from Hawaii. Since UH does not have a host family program, the researcher contacted Ms Barbara Bancel, the Personnel (International Hospitality Center of Honolulu) via an email. During the stay at Hawaii, the researcher was unable to conduct a face-to-face interview with Ms Barbara because she was away for meetings. The researcher received all the vital information essential for her study through the email contact of Ms Barbara. At UH, a total of nineteen participants contributed to the research which included academics, students and host family Personnel.

The field research was tiring owing to the lack of adequate accommodation at Hawaii. The YWCA hostel was the worst experience of the fieldwork. During the interviews with some of the Japanese students, the researcher realized that she made a wise decision by taking the advice of Professor Sato with regards to her accommodation at Hawaii. The feedback provided by some of the Japanese exchange students astonished the researcher about the poor environmental conditions of the YMCA hostel. It would have been also time consuming for the researcher to travel long distance from the YMCA hostel to the UH. The researcher was convinced that she chose to stay at the YWCA. The fieldwork itself was excellent and has helped to collect valuable information for the researcher's area of study. After the data collection at the UH, the researcher returned to APU.

Prior to the fieldwork at UBC, the researcher met Mr. Nakamura Nobuhiro (APU coordinator) who provided vital information with regards to the visit to UBC campus. He had spent two years as coordinator of Japanese exchange student at the Ritsumeikan House (hostel) for Japanese students at UBC. He also gave an interview which was of the essence to the researcher's fieldwork at UBC. With his help, the researcher was able to contact Ms Sheri Wenman (Program Manager), Ms. Kanako

Maruyama (Rits Coordinator) and Professor Ken Reeder (Academic Director of Language and Literacy) in charge of the Ritsumeikan AEP at that point of time. This enabled the researcher to get in touch with all the Japanese students on exchange programs at UBC. The researcher left Japan on the 28th of October 2011; she had three weeks to complete her fieldwork at Vancouver before the University students went for their break. After the weekend, the researcher went to meet Professor Reeder and Ms. Sheri at the Ritsumeikan House with regards to the research at UBC.

The researcher discussed with both academics about her research and the essential support she needed to conduct the interviews and collect the digital data at UBC. After the discussion, the researcher and Ms. Sheri went about planning the schedule for the interviews. At that point, Kanako Maruyama (Rits Coordinator) joined the discussion. Both Ms Sheri and Ms. Kanako helped the researcher to draw interview plans to meet up with academics, directors, coordinators and students. During their discussion, Dr. Bill McMichael (Rits Coordinator) at that point of time joined the discussion. Dr. Bill had organized a dinner gathering for his Japanese students two days later. The researcher was kindly invited by Dr. Bill to join the dinner at one of the Chinese restaurants in Chinatown; as an opening introduction to the Japanese students

so that the researcher could meet some of the Japanese students and talk about her study at UBC and get the students to participate in the interviews. This gave the researcher a golden opportunity to meet Dr. Bill's class students. The researcher gladly agreed to attend the dinner gathering.

At the dinner, the researcher met with a former APU English language academic, Professor Berwick, who helped with the research by providing articles related to the researcher's area of study. At the dinner, the researcher met about twenty-five Japanese students who were on exchange program at UBC. The researcher introduced herself, gave a brief introduction about her research and asked the Japanese students for their participation and cooperation with her fieldwork. Most of the Japanese students agreed to participate in the interviews while some of them said that they have to complete their assignments and could decide after checking their schedule to give a date for the interviews. The following day, with the permission of Dr. Bill, the researcher met the students in the class and got interview appointments from all of them. Ms Sheri helped the researcher to fix the interview appointments with the academic staff, teaching assistants and others who were involved in the exchange program while Kanako San helped the researcher with the interview appointments of Japanese students.

The researcher was given a comfortable room that was fully equipped with all the facilities necessary to do her research and interviews. With the advice and guidance of the Ritsumeikan team, the researcher was able to complete all the interviews successfully. Since the libraries were far away from the Rits House, the researcher was given a temporary username and password to access the library websites. The digital data collection essential for her research was successfully completed by the researcher with the help and support of the Teaching Assistants at the Rits House at UBC. It helped the researcher save her travel time and increase efficiency of the data collection at UBC.

At the UBC, thirty-three participants participated including academics, students and host family personnel. The researcher conducted in-depth interviews with thirteen individuals and two focus group interviews with five Japanese students in each group. Ten interviews were conducted which included academics, program managers, coordinators, counselors, teaching assistant and a host family agent. Ritsumeikan House can accommodate about two hundred UBC students; Rits House is an appealing and sociable and comfortable home. Vivacious and vibrant with friendly students, living in Rits House makes it easy for the Japanese exchange students to expand their learning

beyond their classroom experiences. Ritsumeikan House was established in 1990 as a symbol of UBC's academic partnership with RU in Japan.

Most of the Japanese exchange students stay in the Rits House which is very convenient for them. Some of the students apply for host family programs, to experience the Canadian culture. Prior to her visit to Vancouver, the researcher sought the advice of Mr. Nakamura with regards to her accommodation at Vancouver. Mr. Nakamura advised the researcher to get a housing agent for locating an accommodation or home-stay near the campus. Mr. Nakamura helped the researcher to get in touch with Mr. Moto Mukai, General Manager of MYK Enterprises. Mr. Moto helped to facilitate the researcher's stay at Vancouver. Meanwhile, the researcher was also searching for an accommodation in the website. By the time, Mr. Moto came back with the confirmation that he had found a host family for the researcher; the researcher had confirmed her stay at the YWCA at Vancouver. The YWCA was in downtown of Vancouver; the travel time took about one to one and half hours by bus and train from the YWCA to the UBC campus. Although it was time consuming for the researcher to travel long distance from the YMCA hostel to the UBC campus, field research itself was an enjoyable experience with an economical accommodation at Vancouver. The YWCA hotel at Vancouver was

a comfortable and pleasant experience of the fieldwork. The YWCA hotel provided a perfect environment for the researcher to rest, write her field notes and transcribe her interviews. The researcher contacted the General Manager of the MKY Enterprises Ltd., Mr. Moto, and conducted a face-to-face interview. The researcher got vital information essential for her study, through the interview with Mr. Moto. Both the Japanese student group and the academic and administration staff of Ritsumeikan House gave full support to make this research a great success for the researcher.

The researcher was able to get permission from Professor Isabelle Malique-Park (Head of International Relations in charge of the International Relations Office) with which the interviews were conducted at SMU in Singapore. This enabled the meetings with the Japanese students on exchange programs at SMU. The researcher left Japan on 21st of November 2011. Since the researcher was born and raised in Singapore, accommodation was not a problem for her as her family was residing in Singapore. The researcher contacted Professor Isabelle via email. The researcher received the name list of the ten Japanese students who were on exchange at that point of time and was advised to contact them via email by Ms. Rehju Mohamed (International Programs Advisor). After the Christmas and New Year holidays, the

researcher went to meet Professor Isabelle and Ms. Rehju at the SMU campus and discussed with them about her research and the imperative support she needed for her to conduct the interviews with the Japanese students.

The researcher contacted the Japanese exchange students but she was not successful. Two weeks later, the researcher received an email from one of the female Japanese exchange students. In the email, the student agreed to come for the interview. The day, place and time were agreed in the email. The researcher went to meet the student at the Lee Kong Chian School of Business. After waiting for an hour, the researcher returned home and immediately contacted the student. One hour later, the student contacted her by the mobile phone and told the researcher that she had a group meeting. The student also told the researcher that she will contact her soon. Four days later, the researcher received two emails from two male students. Finally, three weeks later, the researcher conducted her first interview with the male student who later helped the researcher to network with the other Japanese exchange students to participate in the interview. He contacted the other students through emails and cell phone.

Two days later, the female student who did not turn up for her earlier interview appointment sent an email to the researcher. She wrote that she will be coming with five

other students to participate in the group interview. The researcher conducted in-depth interviews with two individuals and one focus group interview with six Japanese students in the group. In the interim, the researcher conducted interviews with Professor Isabelle and Ms. Rehju. The researcher successfully completed a total of ten interviews at the SMU with students and academics before her departure from Singapore.

As the Singapore National Library was only about fifteen minutes away from the SMU, it was convenient for the researcher to visit the library frequently to collect the required published materials for her area of study. SMU did not have a host family program. During the interview, the researcher managed to get some information with regards to the host family arrangements from the Japanese exchange students. At each research site, the researcher noted down the exchange students contacts so that they can be reached upon their return to Japan. In this study, the physical presence of the researcher was only a month in each of the three sites. It is notable that the researcher's pre-sojourn phase was a reflection of the respondents at the point of their sojourning phase where the researcher met them personally to conduct the interview and the post-sojourn phase was completed by using a software. The individual interviewee's were contacted via emails and the group interview participants were contacted through

email to log on to Skype at a particular time most convenient to them and recording was down via Skype. With the transcribed interviews, the researcher began to generate categories, themes, and patterns of the data collected. Reading through the transcribed responses of the interviewees helped the researcher to identify the answers to the research questions by comparing and contrasting each individual's response with the other participants. Each participant's self reflection(s) enabled the researcher to observe a host of emotional and physiological changes in the body language of the students during the face-to-face interviews during the pre-sojourning to post-sojourning questioning phases. The learning experiences observed in the three phases taken up for observation and comment in this study.

3.3.5 Methodological Limitations

- A. The interviews with the Japanese participants were conducted in English language using only basic spoken Japanese language to facilitate the communication between the researcher and the respondents. The respondents also used their electronic dictionary to read the consent form and the interview guide to understand the study undertaken by the researcher in their host

university. Some of the Japanese sojourners especially the Japanese male exchange students did not volunteer to participate in the interview because the interview was conducted in English language. As a result, there were more Japanese female participants in this study than Japanese male participants.

B. The research was conducted on the voluntary basis of the interviewees, the post-sojourning phase of the study received limited information to the questions raised by the researcher because of the participants busy with their assignment deadlines. As a result the focus group interviews could not be compared across the three research institutions.

C. Although the researcher managed to obtain a five-year data set on students who enrolled in the MIX program at UH and AEP program at UBC programs from 2006 to 2011, her efforts were in vain with regards to the five-year data collection in the IE program at SMU. As an aspiring global education hub, Singapore has welcomed many international students. Singapore being a democratic country has strict regulations with regards to private and confidential data with relations to student's academic performance, personal information and issues relating to the institutions. Even though the researcher assured that the sensitive details will be kept confidential, she was unable to

overcome the administrative restrictions due to the reason that much of the data was the property of Ministry of Education. As a result of this, using the five years data collection of student's performance and gender, age statistical could not be evaluated in this study by the researcher. This constrained the researcher from obtaining valued information relevant for future study. Based only on her observations and rich source of information collected from her in-depth interviews, the researcher completed her study.

3.4 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the methodological research approach relevant to the thesis. The study chose the qualitative methodological design for observing the study abroad experiences of Japanese students in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore. Proper site selection led to the opening of doors in the right direction towards meeting the right choice of respondents essential for this kind of study. In-depth interviews were accomplished with a rational selection of participants which presented an insight into this study.

The final section provided a review of the related studies relevant to the research. This chapter has laid the foundations for the following chapters on the analysis of data the discussing and findings. The review of the studies indicated in this chapter has helped to establish not only the research instruments to be used but also the analytical strategies undertaken in the thesis.

Chapter four on findings and discussion will elaborate on the participant's background and previous learning experiences, participant's perception of pre-departure orientation, participant's perception on exchange programs: (a) motivations and motivating factors; and (b) personal and career goal, participant's in country

experiences: Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore, research question and the sub-questions, host cultural acquisition, host family, participant's perspective and post-sojourning (future plans) They also relate to the concluding chapter in pointing out the need to highlight the relevance of the study's findings to existing research.

Chapter 4

Findings and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study in three phases: pre-sojourning, sojourning and post-sojourning with respect to the study abroad exchange programs. The researcher focuses on the three aspects mentioned above in terms of allowing the participants perspective to evolve from pre-sojourning phase to post-sojourning, reflecting on the participants' involvement in the exchange programs observed by the researcher in real time during the field trip at MIX at UH, AEP at UBC and IE at SMU (this can be verified from the Appendix A and B). Before face-to-face interviews were completed, the researcher had presumed 'a happy environment' of the Japanese embarking on these exchange programs. After data collection, the researcher was able to observe and understand some of the Japanese students' perceptions towards the challenges, difficulties and real life scenarios faced by them as mentioned in the interviews. The first section provides the background to the respondents including their

previous learning experiences in Japan and their perceptions about the pre-departure orientation session held in their home universities. The results of the participant's experiences are categorized according to the subject matter as discussed in this chapter. Next, a discussion of their decisions to leave Japan for Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore independently while reflecting on the Japanese respondents' experiences in their present learning environment and learning incidents are evaluated. This includes some of the in-depth interviews conducted with the Professors who are involved in the exchange programs with a good knowledge of the exchange programs at MIX at UH, AEP at UBC and IE at SMU. The next section provides an analysis of their reflection of learning by examining their experiences and the future plans based on their exchange program experiences. The final section of the analysis reports on their learning experiences, perceptions of their sojourning sites, cultural perceptions, motivations, benefits of their exchange programs, their observations of the student body at UH, UBC and SMU in the classrooms and outside of the classrooms in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore. A summary at the end recounts the major arguments of the chapter in the context of the research.

4.1.1 Participant's Background and Previous Learning Experiences

At the point of their visits to all the three exchange sites, the researcher gathered data from the participants during the interview sessions by asking them questions to obtain information about their family background and themselves reflecting on their previous learning experiences through the Japanese education system. The students in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore (as observed in Table 4.3 and 4.4), were asked to give a brief introduction about them, which included their gender, current age, family background, the educational background, age at which they began learning English and English language proficiency before entering this exchange program. These variables had been considered significant by the researcher to understand the socio-background, education, and language background of the respondents on study abroad programs.

These undergraduate students who participated in this study ranged in age from nineteen to twenty-three during the sojourning period of their respective programs at their study abroad locations averaging 19 to 23 years of age (as observed in Table 4.2). These Japanese students from all the three research sites are between their second to eight semesters of their Bachelors degree programs in their respective home universities.

The universities from which these Japanese students come from have exchange agreement and their TOEFL, TOFIC and TOEFL: iBT scores determine their entry to these exchange programs. They also need go through interviews and in some cases get recommendation letters from their Professors. Most of the time, sojourners, for any kind (e.g. education, career, retirement or leisure) prefer to travel to Europe than East Asia, Southeast Asia and South Asia regardless of length of period. All the Japanese students who participated in this study were born in Japan except for one Japanese student. Y(d) San was born in Singapore.

Table 4.1: Japan vs. the Study Abroad Sites (Frequency Distribution)

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
19	13	28.3	28.3	28.3
20	18	39.1	39.1	67.4
21	10	21.7	21.7	89.1
22	4	8.7	8.7	97.8
23	1	2.2	2.2	100.0
Total	46	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.2: Mean Age of Japanese Participants in Study Abroad Sites

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18-20	14	30.4	30.4	30.4
21-23	32	69.6	69.6	100.0
Total	46	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.3: Mean Age of Japanese Participants in the 3 Sites

Host Universities	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
University of Hawaii	13	28.3	28.3	28.3
University of British Columbia	23	50.0	50.0	78.3
Singapore Management University	10	21.7	21.7	100.0
Total	46	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.4: Mean and SD of Male and Female at the 3 sites

Gender	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Male/Female	46	1	2	1.70	.465
Site	46	1	3	1.93	.712
Age	46	19	23	20.17	1.018
Valid N (list wise)	46				

Table 4.5: Male/Female * Site * Age Cross tabulation

			Site			Total
			University of Hawaii	University of British Columbia	Singapore Management University	
19	Male/Female	18-20	0	1	1	2
		21-23	1	7	3	11
	Total		1	8	4	13
20	Male/Female	18-20	2	3	0	5
		21-23	0	10	3	13
	Total		2	13	3	18
21	Male/Female	18-20	2	0	1	3
		21-23	5	2	0	7
	Total		7	2	1	10
22	Male/Female	18-20	1		2	3
		21-23	1		0	1
	Total		2		2	4
23	Male/Female	18-20	1			1
	Total		1			1
Total	Male/Female	18-20	6	4	4	14
		21-23	7	19	6	32
	Total		13	23	10	46

The data collection principles were based on the theoretical foundations involving the collection of data in the form of individual and focus group interviews which were coded in SPSS 17.0 as shown in the Descriptive and Frequency Tables 4.1 to 4.5. These Japanese students come from middle class income earning families. Most of them came on scholarship and grants from their home universities (as observed in

Table 4.5). A few came using their family saving, and their own *arubaito* (part-time job) savings. Z1(b) San reported that, “My parents gave me money....[sic] ahhaa....[sic] maybe 90% my cousins, grandmother and neighbors, gave me 10% [sic] money to go shopping and go somewhere in Vancouver...[sic] so.” Z1(e) San mentioned that, “My parents and aunt paid me about 60% and my grandmother paid me about 40%”. They come from backgrounds where their parents and siblings are working as Professor, journalist, businessman, school teacher, English translators, engineer, consultant, housing agent, office worker, banker, architect, housewife and retirees.

Before joining the respective programs at their study abroad locations, most of these Japanese exchange students have visited an English-speaking country on school trips, went on family trips and short exchange programs ranging from a few days to a few weeks. Some Japanese respondents have stayed for a few years out of Japan with their family because one of the parents was posted by the Japanese company located abroad. For most, personal contacts with non-native speakers of English and even native speakers of English had been very limited.

Most of the Japanese respondents who participated in this study have elementary level of some languages such as Mandarin, Spanish, Bahasa Indonesia and

Korean. Many of them have visited many countries prior to their exchange at UH, UBC and SMU. These Japanese students have made short school trips; family relocation and travel, spending three days to one week, while others have spent up to two months, one semester, ten months and even seven years outside of Japan. These Japanese students who participated in this study have traveled to countries such as Australia, Korea, Indonesia, Taiwan, Singapore, Thailand, China, Canada and New Zealand widely while other did not go out of Japan. One of the Japanese exchange respondents said, “My parents travel a lot. When I was a little girl, they took me to lot of places. I have been to Hawaii many times. I have been to twelve countries this summer. First, I went to the mainland of U.S.A. Next, I went to Canada, Europe, Hungary, Czech Republic, Austria, Germany, Swiss land, Netherlands, Norway and the U.K. I went to Korea.”

The Japanese respondents were from multi-disciplinary backgrounds such as Business, Global Business, Tourism, International Liberal Arts, Sociology, English Education, English Literature, Anthropology, Marketing, Finance, Economics, Law, Sociolinguistic, International Relations and English Literature, International Business at their home universities, (Waseda University, Sophia University, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Kwansei Gakuin University, Keio University, Rikkyo University, Doshisha University, Kyoto University, Hakuoh University, Ryukoku University,

Rikkyo university, Osaka Furitsu University, Akita International University, and Ritsumeikan University). Their previous learning experiences prior to their undergraduate studies were different from their sojourning environments.

Japanese students do not interact with their peers in English outside of their classrooms in Japan. Japan being a mono-cultural and mono-linguistic and mono-ethnic society, Japanese students in most cases, have absolutely no opportunity to communicate with anyone in English. The most significant factor is when students describe their English learning experiences in Japan at their high school. The reflection of B San interview below is evident of the actual situation in Japanese schools:

“I am the first person ... [*sic*] no one in my family is learning English. Basically, there are only Japanese students in the high school and middle school. Actually, in this study, we don't have any opportunity to speak [*sic*] English. We just do reading some materials, some writing, study some grammar or word, [*sic*] that's it. I never speak in English. Yeah, I do a lot of homework. Boring. We never talk to others in English [*sic*] so boring. Outside the class we don't have any interaction until I went for this exchange program.”

[B San, 22 years old male]

Similar reflections were shared by G San as shown below:

“Actually in Japan, we have to study English skills from junior high school. It's mandatory. I was 14 or 13 years old when I started studying. We just focus on grammar and reading. Boring. Not speaking or listening. We don't have much [*sic*] opportunity to

speaking or listen in Japan. Japan is a mono-lingual country so we don't [sic] need to speak English in Japan". Actually my mom is learning English but she cannot speak well ... [sic] I have never seen my dad speaking in English."

[G San, 22 years old female]

Likewise, I San's reflection about his schools days in Japan:

"I started to study English when I was in the junior high school. That was like almost focus [sic] only on grammar. I did not speak English in class. I was twelve years old when I started English [sic] in my junior high. Eight or nine years since [sic] I started speaking English. At first, we learn about [sic] alphabet like A, B, C, D ... [sic] not so much homework. Tiring. Learn just daily conversation. No speak English [sic] in my family."

[I San, 21 years old female]

The respondents' interviews mentioned above depicts how the targeted language (English) is taught in a typical Japanese school environment where Japanese students lack the adequate exposure to master the English language due to the minimal learning capacity offered at domestic schools. Outside the classrooms of the Japanese school, every student converse only in *Nihongo* (Japanese language). Similarly, at home, most of the Japanese student's parents do not talk to their children in English because they have not learnt the English language themselves too. According to the respondents, at school, if a student tries to use one or two vocabulary in English, their peers laugh at them causing emotional discomfort to them. It was also discovered that

enthusiastic emotions in Japanese students are being destroyed by the environment and their peers due to peer pressure. The researcher understood the respondents' family backgrounds and previous learning experiences clearly from their interviews and continued to ask further questions to get information about their pre-departure orientations and their perspectives of their home university's role in organizing the pre-departure orientations for the exchange program.

4.1.2 Participant's Pre-Sojourning Experiences

The Japanese sojourners were asked about their pre-sojourning experiences in Japan. From the in-depth interviews, it is evident that these Japanese students were feeling very happy about go into a new environment to experiences new contacts, new culture and improve their language abilities through these exchange programs. The reflection of L San interview below on his pre-departure preparation:

“I was excited”

[L San, 22 years old female]

C San said,

“I was very anxious and also [*sic*] excited”

[C San, 21 years old female]

X4 San said that,

“I was very happy and [*sic*] a little sad to leave my friends”

[X4 San, 20 years old male]

J San said,

“ Nervous and curious”

[J San, 22 years old male]

Z1 (d) San, reflected on her sojourning preparation,

“I and my family were happy ... [*sic*] I a little nervous”

[Z1(d) San, focus group, 20 years old female]

Questions about the pre-departure orientations helped the researcher to understand their feeling about the preparations prior to their study abroad. The Japanese respondents mentioned that the pre-departure orientation did not provide them with lots of information with regards to their accommodation, places to avoid, home stay programs, etc. These Japanese respondents had sometimes more than one orientation which only highlighted on basic information such as VISA, insurance, credits, cultural shocks, weather and places of interest. The Japanese respondents clearly said that the pre-orientations did not help them in any way during their study abroad and that the information given during the orientation was available on the internet itself.

Researchers like (Burn, 1991; Carlson *et al.*, 1990; Citron and Kline, 2001; de Nooy and Hanna, 2003; Furnham, 1993; Jurasek, 1991; Kitao, 1993; Levy, 2000; Lutterman-Aguilar and Gingerich, 2002; Miller, 1993; Weinmann and Bragg, 1993) have contributed to the research on rigorous pre-departure “training” to minimize student anxiety and culture shock abroad. This provided the researcher with some insights about the pre-orientations sessions held in universities. The researcher realizes that although respondents were self-motivated and independent to do some research by themselves about their exchange program sites they did experience culture shock during their sojourning as a result of the lack of “training” as asserted by the researchers mentioned in this paragraph.

4.1.3 Motivations of exchange program(s)

In this study, the Japanese participants perceptions of the exchange programs at the three locations will include their motivations (attain better qualification, language acquisition, and job prospects) and motivating factors (scholarships, make more friends and travel) which influenced them to go on study abroad.

(a) *Motivations and motivating factors*

During the interview, when asked about their motivation for studying abroad, most participants mentioned their desire to see Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore for improving their English language proficiency; specialization in specific field of study and scholarships.

F San's motivation was clear:

“In my field, my major is linguistics and second language acquisition. This university is famous for second language learning studies so I decided to come here and the other reason is the topical weather. Be Professor [*sic*] in a university. I am confident”

[F San, 21 years old male]

G San showed similar views and her main motivations:

“Actually I have two purposes to come here. The biggest one [*sic*] is to learn English ... [*sic*] to improve my skills and the second one is [*sic*] learn Second Language Studies because UH is really famous for that and I am also interested in this topic.”

[G San, 22 years old female]

L San also mentioned his motivation on his exchange:

“In Japanese university if I find it difficult to join the class there is no [*sic*] encouragement. I have interest to learn about financing. I got my knowledge from books but here there are so many new areas of financing. I am taking the ‘Behavior of Finance’. There is nothing in

Japan. There is no such [*sic*] class in Japan. Just ‘Micro Financing’ and [*sic*] ‘Macro Financing’. Boring. Last semester, I took ‘Risk Management’ it was a popular class because of the way the class was conducted. It was very different very [*sic*] pragmatic and interesting because here because teacher focuses on group work. The course content was about how they transport and refine sugar from the sugar cane and sell at a low value. Here in SMU, we can learn how to apply knowledge at the workplace but in Japan we just earn only the salary.”

[L San, 22 years old male]

Each university studied in this research is famous for its own unique specializations. For example, the UH is famous for its Second Language Studies (SLS) and Travel Industry Management (TIM) while UBC is famous for its Language and Literature Education and SMU is famous for its Management Studies such as Economics, Finance, Marketing and Accounting.

Another motivating factor for the Japanese students going to UH, UBC and SMU on exchange programs are the scholarships provided by foundations. The Japanese students feel that it would not have been possible without the help of the scholarship granted by the Japanese government and their host country government in some cases. Many of them said that their friends at their home university and other universities are reluctant to join exchange programs because of their financial situations.

According to one of the respondents the TOEFL: iBT test is very expensive. Some of them even said that the Japanese government should provide them with more scholarship so that many of them who are keen on going for these exchange programs can benefit from it. They feel that bringing ideas and innovations back to Japan can bring about many changes to Japan's economic future. The voice of K San reports his motivation:

“It is not impossible to come for the study abroad trip without scholarship. Actually, I got two kinds of scholarship which helped me a lot ... [*sic*] I am happy. I could have asked my parents for money but I did not want to ask because I am an adult in Japan. If I asked them, [*sic*] they will support me.”

[K San, 19 years old male]

L San also stated that:

“I got two [*sic*] scholarships. I feel happy. One is for all my campus life and one is only for my studying abroad [*sic*] so even if I could not get the scholarship for this program, I have the other scholarship so it is still possible to go for study abroad trip. My campus life scholarship is based on some entrance examination.”

[L San, 22 years old male]

A San also clearly expressed his motivation:

“I get this scholarship. All the Japanese students have to take college entrance exam. I was probably good [*sic*] so I was offered scholarship and then I got 40% discount [*sic*] from my university ... [*sic*] happy. Without the 40% I cannot go for the trip but I got two

other scholarships when I went to Singapore. I was proud and happy. One is from Singapore Temasek from the Asian ... [*sic*] for only one semester and the other one was from JASSO for one year and that's how I could manage financing my exchange and my parents was [*sic*] very happy."

[A San, 21 years old male]

C San voice also similar reflected her motivation:

"I got some scholarship which I don't have to return [*sic*] from some Japanese institution (Nihon Gakusei Senkiko) and my father paid for the program too. Without this money, it would have been impossible to go for the program. I am happy"

[C San, 21 years old female]

The extra scholarships obtained by some Japanese respondents were selectively given to them based on their academic performance. For example, the Temasek Foundation Scholarship, Nihon Gakusei Senkiko Scholarship and Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO) which covers up to 40% to 50% to finance their overall education including the exchange program. These helped the students with their basic expenditures at the exchange sites. Some significant motivation factors behind the travel of these Japanese students to all the three popular sites are mainly their family members, teachers and friends. Others factors are personal goals, job opportunities, cultural acquisition, and the desire to travel.

M San's motivating factor indicated:

“Mother is working in [*sic*] international bank. I started learning English at 8 or 9 years old [*sic*] but just hobby. My mother can speak in English well. When I was a child, my mother taught me some English words. My father also can speak in English. My brother too can speak in English. You go ... [*sic*] go ... [*sic*] go ... [*sic*] ... Father said ‘go’. My brother also said ‘go’. I want to speak in English. Good job and [*sic*] my mother. I am interested in Media International Journalism. One of the main reasons is [*sic*] I want to speak English. In the universities in Japan, the students don’t study hard but international university like UBC, most students study hard so I also want to study like international students ... [*sic*] so I went to exchange. Main reason for coming is get good job.”

[M San, 20 years old, female]

Similarly, P San motivating factor is:

“My major is International Business Administration. My specialization is in Business. I used to [*sic*] want to be a flight attendant but now I want to do something using English. My mother and grandmother [*sic*] supported me financially. My father is not living with us anymore. My teacher motivated me to join this program.”

[P San, 20 years old, female]

Likewise, I San stated his motivating factor clearly:

“I want to use [*sic*] English when I get a job but I am not sure what kind of job I will get.”

[I San, 21 years old, female]

X2 San reported that:

“My university ... [*sic*] there is an international office. They encourage all [*sic*] students to go abroad to study. There were some orientations held in my university for all the students where the key person who was a Japanese Professor from Kyoto University. He is teaching English education. He encouraged us to go for study abroad. I did not like him. He said, we (Japanese) should learn English... [*sic*] otherwise, China will take over Japan and the Japanese people cannot survive in the global economy.”

[X2 San, focus group, 21 years old, female]

Besides their significant motivations for the exchange programs, the Japanese respondents also had their personal goals in their mind. These goals are discussed below.

(b) Personal goals

The Japanese students going to these three popular exchange sites went with a few goals in mind. Although they faced many challenges and difficulties they were very happy to have decided to go on the exchange to their selective exchange sites. From the in-depth interviews, it is evident that these Japanese students feel that they are able to achieve their goals through these exchange programs. The interviews below are evident that the exchange program enables them to attain their targeted goals.

L San's personal goal was clear:

"I want to be a globalized person and that is why I am here (in the exchange program). I think [*sic*] is very important for the next two or three decades. My major is Economics and Finance. I want to work for a financial company in the future [*sic*] outside of Japan. I am confident that I can get a job. Globalization has led to the rise of Asian countries. It has also led to the demand for fluency in English and well-rounded attitude in Japan. Now, most of Japanese companies don't believe in the Japanese university's grading system. In Singapore, the GPA is very important to enter company but in Japan, it is not important because in Japan companies know that Japanese universities do not give importance to the GPA. Grades can be obtained easily so Japanese companies require activities like volunteer work and internships. In my university, there are many chances internship. Usually, Japanese students travel abroad for three months and the return to Japan in their final semester. They do an internship for one week or study abroad for one week and [*sic*] have a test. It's a win, win situation for Japanese students. Professors in the programs are easy going. Most of the undergraduate classes in my university is [*sic*] held by the Ph.D. person or [*sic*] very young person and they need to make their classes popular so that they can continue to work as a Professor in the university. They require students to do very easy test so that all the students can pass easily. Most of the Japanese companies know this so they does [*sic*] not require the grades."

[L San, 22 years old male]

Likewise, J San talked about his personal goal:

"I got a job this summer. I am very happy. I work at an advertising company in Japan from next Spring to get some work experience. In

the future, ... [sic] I want to own my [sic] company. I want to improve my English. so that I can influence other people in the service industry across the world to provide quality service. In the future, I want to work all over the world [sic] at an advertising company. It is an international company which joint-ventures with other Japanese companies to deal with all kinds of industry.”

[J San, 23 years old, male]

In addition to their desire of achieving their personal goals, the Japanese respondents also had the desire to achieve their career goals through the study abroad program.

(c) *Career goals*

The Japanese participants in this study expressed their ambitions during the interview.

Their interviews below are evident that the exchange program enables them to attain their targeted goals. K San career goal:

“After the exchange program, I am going to do some internship this September in Singapore. I am confident now. I plan to work in a Japanese company. I am going to experience how the working life is in Singapore so ... [sic]”

[K San, 19 years old male]

C San’s mentioned his career goal:

“I learn many things [sic] at UH. I am going to get a job in a company which deals with food products. Companies in Japan must produce goods that are similar to the American society. Before I went

to America, I did not have any interest in food products. In America, there are many people who consume fast food every day.”

[C San, 21 years old female]

F San also told his career goal:

“Be [*sic*] Professor in a university.”

[F San, 21 years old male]

E San also stated his career goal:

“It’s for personal goal for [*sic*] job opportunity. Be [*sic*] a global businessman. I already got a job in Japan. I am very proud. Our company’s main job is to sell plant. I want to help Singapore in [*sic*] water program. Our company’s name is Kobelco Eco Solutions Co. Ltd. We produce the plants to ... [*sic*] the place to burn garbage (landfill) so we produce those things like...[*sic*].the place to clean up the water, filter the water ... [*sic*] treatment the whole business ... [*sic*] so Japan and Singapore government are linked with [*sic*] this program. The Singapore government is our customer. We can sell those kind of stuff [*sic*] because Singapore is suffering from water problem ... [*sic*] so we can clean the water. The recycled water is called ‘New Water’. They want to buy the tools and equipments ... [*sic*] do the processing to recycling the water. Actually, I was so impressed by the ‘New Water’. I did not know that people are drinking recycled water which was actually dirty water. Japan has lots of water resources unlike Singapore which has no natural resources. I want to help resolve the water problems in Singapore. This company is now trying to internationalize branch out in Vietnam, India and Singapore. They have some branches in Vietnam, India and Germany.”

[E San, 22 years old, male]

The Japanese respondents' purpose of the exchange study travel was to get good jobs with higher salary and a good lifestyle. They mentioned in their interviews that there were more jobs available outside of Japan. These interviews provided by the participants helped the researcher to uncover the expectations of her Japanese respondents which included: job opportunities; improvement of language abilities; and obtain further educational qualifications.

4.1.4 Sojourning Experiences

Next, the researcher moved on to ask questions on their sojourning experiences in their exchange sites. The researcher questions with regards to the Japanese sojourners in country experiences during the interview with each participant and group about their respective exchange programs helped to gain information about their initial perceptions of the program, their experiences and adjustments to Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore. The researcher began by asking the respondents if they felt that they a hard time adjusting to any aspects of the Western and Asian culture or life in the MIX, AEP and IE programs. All participants felt that they had experienced a few episodes of cultural

“differences” but nothing that they would label as “shock” except (C San, G San and U San). They reported having to take some time to get adjusted to the small showers without a bath tub and the types of food that were served, which were only rich in wheat, potatoes, meat and cheese compared to Japanese rice, miso soup, and fish which were easily available. Participants mentioned that they were bored to eat Hamburgers, French Fries and have Coke which was easily available but not very healthy. C San and G San and U San have travelled widely experiencing many things; so they did not mind many of the issues raised by the other participants. As for Y(d) San, she was born in Singapore and later went to Malaysia to do her studies so she was used to the Asian culture and norms of the society. The study began with the following research questions to observe and examine the experiences of the Japanese students in their study abroad sites. The first research question reflects on the respondents recall on the many incidents incurred during their sojourning at the study abroad site as follows:

1. How do Japanese students negotiate/adjust with native speakers in their study abroad classroom and host setting?

With this research question in mind, the researcher asked the Japanese respondents about the adjustments they have to make with the native speakers in their

study abroad classroom and host country setting during their exchange programs. This question also brought out the perspectives of the respondents observations about the American, Canadian, Singaporean and other international students studying at UH, UBC and SMU and the Japanese students in Japan. To some extent it also reveals their impression and comparison about the Japanese education system and their host country's education system. The participants also discussed how they were motivated by the native speakers and adjusted with them in their study abroad classrooms. K San mentioned that:

“There is a lot of difference between the students in Singapore and Japan. They are crazy to study. I am confused. In Japan, many students are working and studying but in Singapore, the students tend to focus more on studying. Sometimes working, [*sic*] sometimes clubbing but in Japan for most people the first priority is clubbing, sports activity and part-time job. The Singaporean students in the university, study a lot to impress company with their good GPA because it's a requirement. It is very similar to the [*sic*] 1970s situation in Japan. The Japanese students want to go to a good university to study. After their graduation, they want to work in a good national company. Nowadays, the Japanese students need to do internships and exchange programs to upgrade themselves because Japan's poor economic situation. Some of the Japanese students are more motivated to study like me. After the class, they do not engage in any other activity like reading book ... [*sic*] I don't think it's good or bad in context. Considering the economy growth in Singapore, it is

good to get good GPA so that they can get into the national companies.”

[K San, 19 years old male]

X3 San said that:

“UH students study more [*sic*] seriously than Japanese students. In my university, the Japanese students are talking during the lecture, coming late for lecture ... [*sic*] UH students are seriously studying during lecture and they are never late for classes ... [*sic*] I am motivated to study more [*sic*] and I don’t come late.”

[X3 San, focus group, 20 years old, male]

X4 San shared her views:

“We never speak up in class ... [*sic*] I don’t know why I have also a little bit [*sic*] like when I ask questions in class to teachers I feel a [*sic*] kind of rude. Students in UH ask [*sic*] whenever they have a question. They are really [*sic*] inspired. The goal of the Japanese students is to enter the college. After I came here, I started to study a lot. It is difficult but I have to do it. Most of the Japanese students do not want to study so either they are always absent or they are late for class.”

[X4 San, focus group, 20 years old, male]

Z1(d) San also mentioned that:

“I am still struggling with [*sic*] taking class. I am taking political theory class at UBC. Every student seemed to know everything like [*sic*] they interact a lot and discuss a lot so [*sic*] tired. I felt as if I was left out because I did not know anything. Sometimes I feel lonely and very stressed. Every time I had to read many pages and write many of papers. I also had a couple of mid-terms so I had no free time.”

[Z1(d) San, focus group, 20 years old, female]

Z2(b) San also had similar experiences in her host classroom:

“The Japanese students are not studying [*sic*] anytime but here many, many students are studying every day. The Japanese students tend to skip many classes but in here is not ... [*sic*] It is because in Japan there is not so much [*sic*] assignment or mid-term, so we just study just before the final exam. We can get a lot of information about final exam from our peers so even if we attend a few classes in a one course, we can still pass it with a ‘C’ grade. The Japanese students in university are always taking class together with their friends. They get the notes and exam tips essential to ‘PASS’ the exam but the Canadian students in university study individually and learn what they want to learn ... [*sic*] I try to be like them.”

[Z2(b) San, focus group, 20 years old, female]

Upon the completion of sharing their experience in adjusting with the native speakers in their study abroad classroom setting in their host universities, the researcher continued to ask them about their adjustments with the native speakers in their host country setting. Similarly, the narrated experiences of the Japanese respondents mentioned below is evident of how they adjusted to their host country setting. N San shared views about her experiences in her host country setting:

“At the supermarket, I bought a hot pan cake mix. That was box [*sic*] so I did not know that it is opened already. It is direct box so I did not know that so ... [*sic*] ‘Can I change?’ but she does not tell me that it’s already opened ... [*sic*] she said, only I cannot change ... [*sic*] a little bit angry. I did not know that it was already opened. But that was not a hot pan cake mix t. I did not know that the box is sold in that kind of packing style. I was sad. Actually in Japan, the pan

cake mix is packed into a box. In the box, the pan cake flour and the syrup are packed into smaller individual packs with the recipe instructions. But in Canada, the pan cake mix was directly in box. I did not know about this so I told the cashier at the payment counter that it is already opened and asked her if I could change it? She only said that I cannot change it but she did not tell me the reason why the box was opened. After asking my Canadian friend, I understood that in Canada, food is packed in this way.”

[N San, 20 years old female]

Likewise, M San also stated same kind of experiences in her host setting:

“Starbucks, [*sic*] when I go to buy something the staff is rude ... [*sic*] especially when the shop is crowded ... [*sic*] She cannot understand my English. [*sic*] She said, “What ... [*sic*] what ... [*sic*] she shouted. I was embarrassed and angry”

[M San, 20 years old female]

P San’s experience in her host setting:

“I came on [*sic*] September 1. I need to go out and see my Professor [*sic*] September 6. But I had to go by [*sic*] own. I missed the UBC bus route [*sic*] and I am [*sic*] looking for other bus but [*sic*] one student, I feel lonely but [*sic*] I think he is Korean, he asked me, “What are you doing?”... [*sic*] I missing the bus so [*sic*] he told me which bus I can take to go to (name of place). I was happy. I followed his instructions to reach my destination. I met my Professor. After the meeting, I lost my way again back to Rits House. I approached a man to ask him, “Do you know how to go to UBC campus? He said, “Yes”. He walked me to the bus-stop and asked if there is anyone who is going to UBC campus. Two girls go to UBC [*sic*] so I followed them. I follow the Canadian man and the two Canadian girls ... [*sic*] I could go to UBC campus.”

[P San, 20 years old, female]

The Japanese students who participated in this study expressed how they adjusted with native speakers in their study abroad classroom and host country setting during their sojourning period at their study abroad sites. The researcher obtained the answers to her third research question as she discovered how these respondents have understood the expectations of their host classroom and native speakers; adjusting to fit into the society and environment with the purpose of achieving their targeted goals. Their adjustments include: being punctual for classes, preparing for lessons prior to the lectures, many assignments, regularly attending classes and participating in classroom discussions. The researcher also reflected on some of the answers given by the Japanese respondents earlier the formulated research questions discussed previously. Those interviews also explain the adjustment of the Japanese respondents (C San, L San and H San) and how they cope with the situation in their classroom environment due to the lack of English abilities. The interviews of the Japanese respondents (N San, M San and P San) describe how they adjust and learn the art of survival in their host country settings. In addition to these interviews provided by the respondents, an interview given by Professor Reeder strengthened the answer to the research question indicating that “the student exchange programs at AEP. The UBC Ritsumeikan AEP is twenty years old and it is the largest single study abroad program UBC holds and certainly it’s the

longest standing agreement for study abroad programs. In UBC there are approximately 300 Japanese exchange students and only 98 or 99 of those are in the UBC Rits AEP.

His perception of the Japanese students was:

“Our students particularly in our program tend to be weaker academically from the English proficiency standpoint. “Our students are quite conservative and don’t always like to take very many chances and risks. Their dream is to take classes with UBC students and although they want in their hearts to have a huge circle of international friends they are sometimes afraid to take that risk. We take many chances to show the rewards of taking a bit of chance and being a friend of a UBC student, that it is not that difficult and it is a very encouraging experience. The Ritsumeikan students have very little idea of how hard UBC students work and the expectations on them to succeed. Therefore every hour in class at UBC they will be required to spend another two hours of preparation and follow-up reading and writing from the classes, and now that seems to be a slightly foreign concept to most of our Ritsumeikan students. They come with very poor study skills. They have very weak computer skills. They have very poor library skills. They don’t tend to know very much about searching either the worldwide web or library resources. They tend not to ask questions of the librarians. For example they would rather ask their friends about how to use the library, so we are spending increasing amounts of time just introducing them to study skills that our Canadian students tend to get at high school and Ritsumeikan students somehow miss, so we have done recaps to compensate for it.”

The interview of Professor Reeder strengthened the answered to the third research question of the study. According to his interview, there are social activities

conducted at UBC by the AEP, insisting that the social activities be mixed with Rits students and UBC foreigner with the hope of providing the Japanese students with a great experience yet the Japanese students are still afraid of taking risk. Even though, the Japanese students go abroad for the exchange program at UBC with a mindset of taking classes with both the domestic and the international students of UBC, it seems rather impossible for them to blend into the host environment. They tend to befriend only the students from Ritsumeikan due to their lack of English language proficiency. The interviews of the Japanese respondents obviously reflected that the respondents experiences caused by their lack of English language abilities. Professor Reeder's interview helped the researcher understand the emotional factors contributing to the isolation of the Japanese exchange students. The researcher understood that although the Japanese exchange students desire to make friends at social activities and take classes with foreign students at their exchange program, they are reluctant to do so because they are afraid and shy to making mistakes in their English language conversations with international students; so as a result, they isolate themselves as a group in an international study body environment. The researcher's perceptions were supported by Professor Reeder interview of the Japanese students on exchange program. In his interview, he said that if the Japanese students are willing to take the risk by telling to

themselves, “I will speak (in English) to somebody whom I don’t know (a stranger) that is, to go a little bit beyond where I (the Japanese student) am comfortable” than the student will be able to improve their English proficiency level. Professor Reeder’s interview also contributed to the researcher’s understanding that the Japanese students can adjust with native speakers in their study abroad classroom and host country setting if they will take the “risk” as mentioned by Professor Reeder in his interview. The Japanese sojourners must be engage in a dialogue (process of communication with the native speakers) in order to improve their English language ability and exchange of ideas and knowledge to occur. Without ‘genuine interaction of consciousnesses’ (Jackson, 2008: 17) between the Japanese sojourner and the native speaker (e.g. teacher, peers and host country people), an academic sojourner cannot monopolizing a conversation: ‘one voice alone concludes nothing and decides nothing; two voices is the minimum for life, the minimum for existence’ (Bakhtin, 1984: 213). Next, the researcher tried to answer the second research question of the study.

2. How do Japanese students experience their learning environment (home and host universities and Japan and host country) and learning incidents (phenomenon)?

As the researcher started exploring deeper into the real life experiences of the Japanese respondents in the study abroad programs, she found that the experiences regardless of being positive or negative are mainly caused by the lack of language abilities. As mentioned in the earlier section in this chapter, due to the insufficient exposure to study English as a foreign language the Japanese students face severe problems during their stay abroad. In the exchange program sites, these Japanese students had challenges both in and out of the classroom environment. One of the major challenges encountered by these Japanese students is the group work (discussion in English) participation during their study abroad. R San's experiences on the in classroom is discussed as follows:

“I had to study many [*sic*] things before every class for the first time. At my university, we just do [*sic*] reaction paper after every lecture. So boring. It was very difficult but I know that I must work hard. Sometimes very [*sic*] stressed and tired. Prepare before for every discussion.”

[R San, 20 years old male]

“In my university, we do not have so much of homework. I feel stressed. Discussion and writing in English is [*sic*] difficult for me. I have to prepare many many [*sic*] hours for before every discussion.”

[S San, 19 years old female]

Another challenge faced by these Japanese students is the accommodation (with respect to hostels and home stay). They were also not aware of some of the dangers surrounding them. C San’s experience on the out-of-classroom experience is discussed as follows:

“I was living in Waikiki. The owner was [*sic*] Colombian, and other woman was there ... [*sic*] she was [*sic*] Mexican. The owner was a lesbian. She had a girlfriend. The girlfriend did not like me so I had to move to another place...and find another place so [*sic*] difficult to find. I very angry and confused why she asked me to leave?”

[C San, 21 years old female]

D San frightening experiences is recounted below:

“There are many criminals near my house. There was a gun fight and one time [*sic*] someone stole [*sic*] student’s car from UH and run away [*sic*] and the police cars chased them and get the car ... [*sic*] end up gun fight. One man died. Sometimes I feel lonely and scared. Other incidences happened and [*sic*] with homeless people ... [*sic*] In Japan, there is no super dangerous place such as ghetto. Of course, there in Hawaii, there are many ghetto places many homeless [*sic*] so mainly low wage people live in. I was told that kind of ghetto place, “never get into the place” but I got information from my Japanese friend ... [*sic*] some of my friends (Japanese) told me that I got into such a place, I was like, “Oh my God, that’s dangerous?”

[D San, 21 years old male]

Difficulties of getting an accommodation are mentioned below by K San:

“I was really looking forward to come [sic] here but even after [sic] in the beginning of Singapore ... [sic] when I first came to Singapore. I have no place to stay. I was almost [sic] homeless. I was feeling lonely. I was about to cry. I was angry and sad. Before I came to Singapore, I was really looking forward to it. I live near the Takka Market apartment. We are [sic] seven people in the apartment. I and my roommate [sic] stay in the living room. One Indian girl lives in the storeroom, three French girls live in one room and two more students in the other room. The first day in Singapore, I was trying to search a place to stay temporary like back packers hostel. When I was trying [sic] the reception in the hostel, I could not really understand the ‘Singlish’ (Singapore English). The receptionist [sic] to help me phone somebody in SMU but the receptionist was a very difficult [sic] person. I asked someone from SMU to help me find an accommodation. She said, “You can get a place to stay only for one night and we allow you to stay because we consider your case as an especial one. The next morning, I have to find for another place to stay. It was a bad experience for me. I negotiated and got 10 days of extension to stay. After that I have to find for a place to stay for the whole semester. I approached many students at the welcome party and student events held by SMU to enquire if there is any accommodation available so that I could move out from my current place within the 10 days. I was disappointed because I cannot get a place quickly. I also went to meet some of my friends who wanted to share their rooms in an apartment. Sharing rooms is a common phenomenon among SMU students especially when they come to staying in Singapore for the first time. I met a few friends who were willing to be my room-mates. Through an agency, I found a place to stay. After negotiating the cost involved, I finally got it. It was [sic] hardest thing I ever experience in Singapore because I don’t know much about Singapore. I was upset but finally got it. It was an unpleasant experience. For two weeks, I had to stay in several places before I could find an accommodation. I assumed that if I go on an

exchange program through the university, I will be given a room to stay in some dormitory. I had no idea about staying in Singapore or the lifestyle in Singapore. It seems as if it is easier for the students from the Western countries.”

[K San, 19 years old male]

During her stay at the YMCA at Hawaii, the researcher met an Afro-American female student who was doing her Bachelors at the Hawaiian Pacific University (HPU). The student shared her friend’s experience with the researcher. She said that, during the examination period sometime in 2011 prior to going for her friend’s examination, her friend was calling his girlfriend at a public phone booth not very far from the university campus (Hawaii). Someone (a homeless stranger) hit him hard on his head with something. When he turned around, he saw a man in shabby clothes standing in front of him. From his appearance, he knew immediately that he was being attacked by a homeless person. Before he could react, the man punched him on his face, snatched his school bag containing his wallet with some cash, books and other important items such as student ID card, card credit and library card. He tried to chase after the man which was futile. While running with the bag, the man took out the wallet from the schoolbag. He threw away the bag on the ground and fled away. The friend could not catch up with the speed of the man as he was already hurt and was bleeding from the mouth and

forehead. The friend went and reported this incident to the school and police but nothing much could be done about it.

All these narrations of the experiences of the Japanese participants made the researcher herself become cautious about her research environment although she did not witness any real life gang fights or gunshot scene (Hawaii). The researcher only had encountered situations where twice a homeless male came and uttered words which did not make any sense to her. Another incident occurred when she witnessed a homeless male running towards a couple at the traffic junction which startled the couple and they reacted by running away from the place (in Canada). The researcher understood that all these incidents are part of the daily life of her host environment and that she should be careful wherever she is out of her hostel. The experiences of R San and S San together with the other narrated experiences evaluated the research question on how the Japanese students experience their learning environment and learning incidents in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore indecently. The Japanese participants' poor English language proficiency and the lack of host cultural background were the cause of their experiences in their host country environment where they have to fit themselves into the 'already

prepared viewpoints and positions' (Bakhtin, 1986) setting in (Jackson, 2008: 207).

The next question evaluates the perception of the respondents as discussed below.

3. How do they respond/adjust to their perceptions of their learning environments (home and host universities and Japan and host country) and learning incidents (phenomenon)?

In order to answer the third research question, the researcher asked the respondents to share with her the strategies they used to adjust and respond to the learning incidents. During the interview, some Japanese participants were critical about these kinds of issues. Disappointed and de-motivating experiences of C San, L San and H San in the classroom environment as described below:

“During discussion the group member maybe [*sic*] did not like me because the discussion could not go smooth due to my English problem...[*sic*] so I had to try to [*sic*] talk and do my best. I was sad. They were not upset but [*sic*] a girl in my group was really mean to me. Maybe she did not like me. She was from [*sic*] mainland.”

[C San, 21 years old female]

“I ask so many questions [*sic*] how to do the things most of the times they don't answer my emails [*sic*] do their own job and just gather up [*sic*] and do the presentation, no cooperation. It's very difficult and disappointing [*sic*] even if I want to make it better.”

[L San, 22 years old male]

“I had this class which [*sic*] I dropped already. There was a group project. One of the guys in the group. He was a kind of [*sic*] looking down on me because of my English or something [*sic*] because it’s hard to communicate with non-native speaker especially when it comes to academic [*sic*] thing. It was really difficult for me to discuss in English. I was very sad because I was really trying hard to communicate with him but he could not except that so ... [*sic*] those kinds of problem are common. Everyone goes through that ... [*sic*] he was from the mainland.”

[H San, 21 years old female]

E San has also shared a similar experience:

“I got the scholarship from the Temasek Foundation in Singapore. The Foundation also provided me with an accommodation. When I got the scholarship, I have to join a volunteer group in Singapore called the ‘Revitalizing’. The members in the volunteer group go to clean up the local people’s (Singaporeans) houses. I went to a house with my volunteer group members. The people living in the house were very old. They cannot speak in English [*sic*] only Chinese. The room was very messy and dirty. I tried to do good to them by cleaning up their house. I am disappointed. The moment they knew that I am a Japanese, they recalled the history ... [*sic*] the Japanese Occupation in Singapore. They treat me [*sic*] not very good. That was a very sad moment for me. After the volunteer work, I went to visit the big white tower at Marina Bay. There was a Memorial Hall for Japanese Army soldiers. I felt very confused when I think of the many cruel things the Japanese soldiers did to the local people.”

[E San, 22 years old male]

All the three respondents, (C San, L San and H San), had similar experiences in their classroom environment due to the lack of English abilities. E San's experience on the out of classroom was also due to the lack of English abilities as he was not able to express his emotions in English to the volunteer group leader to convey the message to the old people in Mandarin. To help these students obtain an adequate grasp of English for use in study and work, factors that might contribute to their language anxiety and provide help that would facilitate them in acquiring proficiency should be consider by the persons involved in the program. This helped the researcher discover the positive and negative experiences of the Japanese respondents learning environment and learning incidents in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore in her study. Although the researcher only spent about one month in each of the three sites, she too had similar problems with her accommodation and safety during her data collection period eventually making the researcher a sojourner herself. The Japanese students who participated in this study expressed their challenges and difficulties which they encountered during their sojourning period at their study abroad sites due to their lack of language skills. This enabled the researcher to perceive the experiences of the respondents at the host environment settings first hand making this research a unique experience. The motivations of the Japanese participants in this study was to acquire the

'linguistics capital' (Boudieu, 1991) of English language fluency that was vital to secure access to 'symbolic and material resources' (status, enhance their knowledge and secure their financial situations through job prospects) in the Japanese society (Jackson, 2008: 203). The interviews contributed to answer the third research question by including not only the interviews of the respondents but also including an interview given by the International Exchange Coordinator at the MIX at UH supporting the research question. According to Professor Darrell Kicker, The Manoa International Exchange, or MIX program, handles about 100 international agreements, out of which about 60% probably involves student exchange. The primary role of MIX is to facilitate the student exchange program. His perception of the Japanese students was,

"I have no complaints about our Japanese students. I think the Japanese students are just used to lectures, just listening and absorbing knowledge but here there are expected to participate and ask questions and to lead discussions. I think that's difficult for them and I think it is an adjustment but I think you know over time they adjust and they do well. They are all bright students, smart students, and once they know what their expectations are I think they will be fine. They tend to have very good attitudes; they tend to be serious and hardworking. Over time they adjust well to the life here in Hawaii. It's sort of a "laid back," easy lifestyle for the most part and I think it's easy for the Japanese students to make the adjustment."

With the support of Professor Kicker's interview and the respondent's outlook, the researcher was able to link the current perceptions of the Japanese going overseas. This is further explored by the following research question.

4. Does the study abroad experience impact (positive or negative influence) participant's particular learning needs: foreign language learning; resume builder; job prospects; social status; travel; and widen their friendship circle?

In order to find if the respondents in this study experienced any impacts on their particular learning needs question were asked to them. K San reported that,

“In Japan, it's more [*sic*] the reaction style (after each lecture, the student is required to write a one or two page report called ‘Reaction Paper’ and submits it to the Professor). Teacher keep speaking ... [*sic*] and the student keep chatting or sleeping. The biggest course I have ever taken in Japan is [*sic*] about 800 students. It's a huge class. It seems to me impossible [*sic*] to ask question to the Professor [*sic*] even if I put up my hand You have 800 audiences ... [*sic*] I prefer the courses in Singapore (SMU). I am happy here”

[K San, 19 years old male]

B San had similar views:

“The classes in UH was [*sic*] more interactive with students. I am confident to speak in English”.

[B San, 22 years old male]

E San mentioned that,

“The biggest difference in my university and SMU is [*sic*] in one class in my university has more than 200 people but in SMU the maximum people [*sic*] in one class is 50 so chance of being [*sic*] closer between teachers and students is much better in SMU. Compared to before [*sic*] and now I think my English had a great improvement. The environment is the factor. I am happy”

[E San, 22 years old male]

The interviews above are evident that the Japanese respondents themselves prefer the exchange programs courses compared to their own home university courses. They also mentioned that they are able to interact and discussion by actively participating in class. From the responses provided by all the participants in the interview, the researcher found out that the study abroad experience does impact participant's particular learning needs. The respondents have also provided their perceptions on their home and host universities learning environment. In addition to these interviews, an interview given by the Head of International Relations of the International Exchange (IE) at SMU strengthened the answer to the fourth research. According to Professor Isabelle Malique-Park, the IE program has a very strong influence from Ministry of Education. Ministry of Education is requiring SMU to send 50% of its undergraduate overseas. She said that,

“This can be under student exchange program, internship overseas, community services overseas, faculty led program which is what we call business study missions. Part of this agenda we had to develop extensive network with partner institutions all around the world. We wanted to be global. We have ten to twelve partners in Japan. It took us a very long time to develop business partnerships in Japan. Hence my business trips were for three weeks five years ago because we were a new university and still are, and Japanese universities like to sign with very established institutions with accreditation and faculty, etc. We had to develop our network in an American way and so the Japanese network was not there to start with which included Japanese faculty. It was just to say that the process was a very lengthy process to partner with Japanese universities, so one was SMU was young; SMU has 20% international students which is also a government agenda, most of which is coming from China and India and other regions like Malaysia, Indonesia, Cambodia, Vietnam, Laos, Myanmar, Thailand. The scholarships are allocated by Temasek and twenty to twenty-five students get it.”

Professor Isabelle continued to say that,

“The exchange program has an impact on everybody for a lot of them, it’s the first time on their own very much on their own; they have maturity. Although there are a small number of students sent, it’s a very big growing experience and academically they are challenged and the other students are international. The Japanese are learning a lot from these students. Language is most important and they have to read the past student reports and the grading system used in this place, so that they understand better to participate and get better grades. They need to be successful to stay here, work etc. Work and culture...they are quite fine adapting to the system”.

The researcher's perceptions were, supported by Professor Isabelle's interview of the Japanese students on exchange program. In her interview, she said that, "The exchange program has an impact on everybody. It's a big growing experience. They need to be successful to stay and work etc." Professor Isabelle's interview also contributed to the researcher's understanding that the study abroad experiences do impact the participant's particular learning needs (academic development through challenges from international students, gain psychological maturity and career development). The worthiness of mastering of a targeted language (English) in a particular socio-cultural contexts (Jackson, 2008: 26) service as a form of 'embodied cultural capital' as defined by (Bourdieu, 1991). This vital information took the researcher to the part one of question four.

i Do different learning environments (institutional contexts: home and host universities) moderate the impact of study abroad on the learning strategies they use?

The different learning environment (institutional contexts: home and host universities) does moderate the impact of study abroad on the learning strategies the Japanese respondents use.

O San reported that,

“UBC classes are small, they have more discussions, more presentations ... [*sic*] more interactions”. But [*sic*] because there are so many Japanese students maybe 99 people ... [*sic*] or 98 people ... [*sic*] like that many [*sic*] times we talk in Nihongo (Japanese language) with our friends except when we go out buy something [*sic*] myself I speak to western people in English not so good English ... [*sic*] but they understand me. It is difficult”

[O San, 20 years old female]

Likewise, V San also told that,

“More interactive in SMU ... [*sic*] make me confident, independent also ... [*sic*] I like what I am doing here than [*sic*] my own university in Japan ... [*sic*] here. I learn many things because [*sic*] here I have few Japanese friends ... [*sic*] I have to talk in English and learn how to do my assignments. I can take more classes here in my major ... [*sic*] go out with American friends to improve my English.”

[V San, 21 years old male]

Like O San, all the other respondents from UBC mentioned that they speak most of the time in Japanese language and conversing English only when is required in class and when shopping. Although the Japanese respondents said that sometime it is good because there are so many of them together, at the same time they also stated that their English level is poor because of this situation at the Rits House. Professor Reeder's interview of the Japanese students on exchange program supported the evidences found in this study. In his interview, he gave an example

of the Ritsumeikan Japanese students at the library UBC. He said that, “They have poor library skills. They tend not to ask questions of the librarians. They would rather ask their friends about how to use the library.” The UBC participants realized the importance of possessing the ‘linguistic capital’ (Bourdieu, 1991) of the targeted language (English), however, they did not make many attempts to acquire fluency in English language, which was the key factor to secure their ‘symbolic and material resources’ in Japanese society. On the other hand, V San reported that he prefers the exchange programs because of the interactions (group discussion, interaction with Professors and peers) at SMU. He said that in his home university, he had less opportunity to converse in English but here he can improve his language skills. Like him, the other respondents believed that the exchange has provided them the chance to improvise the English language. They also mentioned that they are able to interact and discuss by asking more questions in class. The participants in SMU were focused on their purpose of study abroad and used the opportunity and the duration of study abroad to gain fluency in English so that they can enjoy the ‘symbolic and material resources’ (Bourdieu, 1991) in Japanese society through the possess the ‘linguistic capital’ of English (Jackson, 2008: 203). Professor Reeder’s interview and the interviews given by all the participants in this

study strengthened the evidences in the research determined that different learning environments (institutional contexts) did moderate the impact of study abroad on the learning strategies they use. The researcher moved on to the second part of question four.

ii Do individual characteristics (ambitious, sociable, pro-active, lazy, adventurous, unfriendly and clinging) moderate the impact of study abroad on the learning strategies they use?

The individual characteristics do moderate the impact of study abroad on the learning strategies these Japanese respondents use. Although there are many opportunities for the respondents to improve their English language skill, they moderate it by only being with their Japanese peers on exchange. Q San reported that,

“There are too many Japanese students so it’s kind of [*sic*] difficult to talk in English in Rits House because Japanese [*sic*] are always living in group.”

[Q San, 19 years old female]

C San mentioned that,

“In Hawaii, I try to avoid places where there are too many Japanese people. In [*sic*] campus, I try to talk with more American students so that my English improves but it’s kind of [*sic*] difficult because

sometimes we meet in [*sic*] Hawaiian classes so sometimes I have to talk in English.”

[C San, 21 years old female]

Like Q San, all the other respondents from UBC mentioned that it is difficult for them to overcome the temptation of conversing in their own mother tongue in Rits House. They said that they are very comfortable, confident and happy to talk in *Nihongo* (Japanese language). The researcher discovered that although the Japanese respondents knew that talking in their own language will not help them to improve their English skills, they still talk in Japanese because they are shy and lack of confidence in the English language abilities. C San reported that she has problem avoiding conversations with her fellow Japanese peers in her exchange program at UH. Like her, the other respondents expressed their experiences of having difficulties both on campus and outside of campus as there were too many Japanese people in Hawaii. According to (Jackson, 2008: 16) Bakhtin’s dialogue is the foundation of culture and human development: ‘to be means to communicate dialogically. When the dialogue is finished, all is finished’ (Bakhtin, 1984: 213). The Japanese participants reported that it was difficult for them to avoid speaking in *Nihongo* (Japanese language) constrain their self-development in terms of talking in English in their host environment. Jackson highlights that Bakhtin’s view of a dialogue is not merely communication between

people but the creative nature throughout the conversation that takes place among people (Jackson, 2008: 16) facilitating self-development. The researcher understood that individuals do impact the study abroad on the learning strategies that these Japanese respondents use because of situational conditions. The researcher finally went on to examine the last research question of this study.

- 5. What are their particular learning needs: foreign language learning; resume builder; job prospects; social status; travel; and widen their friendship circle, given their perception of their learning environment and how can these needs be best accommodated by both their home and host universities?**

The last question of this study tries to discover what the Japanese respondent's particular learning needs are, given their perception of their learning environment and how can these needs be best accommodated by both their home and host universities. Questions were imposed contributing to answers in this study.

W San expressed his learning needs that,

“I am here to learn English. I want to be a globalized person. I want to work for the financial company in the future outside of [*sic*] Japan. I want to be independent and confident about speaking in English”

[W San, 19 years old, female]

N San mentioned that,

“I want to learn English with real [*sic*] communication and I want to be independent.”

[N San, 22 years old, female]

A San said that,

“Now used to think [*sic*] I would work in Japan and someday [*sic*] I go abroad like my father did as a branch manager. Now [*sic*] I can feel the possibility to work abroad not as a member of Japanese company [*sic*] as a local (Hawaii) company’s member. I can get a job everywhere [*sic*] if I want. I can directly [*sic*] go any company to work. I am confident.”

[A San, 21 years old, male]

B San stated that,

“I just wanted [*sic*] to travel and study some [*sic*] language and some intercultural communication. I want to be independent”

[B San, 22 years old, male]

The interviews above clearly illustrate the Japanese respondents’ particular learning needs. The interviews mentioned earlier in this chapter on the findings actually helped to answer the research questions by explaining to the reader what are the perceptions of the Japanese students with regards to their learning environment both within their home and host universities. All these information helped the researcher to unveil the interest and the needs of the Japanese respondents in the study.

The researcher's perceptions on the answers to research questions were that the Japanese universities have large number of students in each class. According to the Japanese participants K San and E San, some of the classes in their home universities have more than two hundred students and in some cases like even eight hundred. The respondents themselves expressed that this does not allow for interaction between teacher and students. Coming from a Japanese university, with her personal experience in sitting in large classes during her undergraduate days, the researcher strongly agreed with the Japanese respondents on this issue. The researcher also feels that these needs can be best accommodated by both their home and host universities.

Likewise, the participants' perceptions of their host universities is that when these institutions organize welcome parties, some gathering, student activities, the Japanese exchange students benefit greatly. According to F San,

“There was a ‘Pizza Party’ in which the exchange students can talk with each other and such kind of [*sic*] place I can speak ... [*sic*] It was a party held by International Student Association (ISA) where I could talk [*sic*] with many exchange students ... happy [*sic*] they speak fast but I can listen to them and improve my English.”

[F San, 21 years old, male]

“I belong to the Lacrosse club. I met like [*sic*] from high school boys to [*sic*] forty to fifty year old guys. It is very interesting. That was really a good experience. They helped my English skills [*sic*]

improve. It [*sic*] not part of the exchange program. The university should organize something (activity) like this”

[D San, 23 years old, male]

In the case of F San, the ISA has opened doors for him to find for new international and Japanese friends creating an ambiance and the opportunity to interact with people in English to improve his English language. According to F San, the experience and networking at the ISA contributed to the development of his language skills. Similarly, D San also said that if their host university can have some attractive club activities which can draw the interest of Japanese exchange students it will be useful for their language enhancement. The researcher realized that the host universities can organize more parties and extra-curricular activities so that it helps the Japanese exchange students to meet more domestic students and even other exchange students for more interaction to take place. The interviews provided one significant aspect of the study abroad as (Bakhtin, 1984: 287) states that, ‘I am conscious of myself and become myself only while revealing myself for another, through another, and with the help of another’ (Jackson, 2008: 21). The Japanese participants have recognized that through study abroad they can possess the dual identities (local and global identity) and facilitate acquiring the ‘symbolic and material resources’ Bourdieu, (1991). The researcher also feels that these needs can be best accommodated by both their home and host

universities. Conducting the interviews helped the researcher to answer all the research questions. Although, the researcher's main aims were to answer the research questions, as she interviewed the respondents, she realized that there were other important aspects to this study about the phenomenon. As a result, she continued to ask other related questions inter-twinned with study abroad as cultural acquisition and sojourning (future directions).

4.1.5 Host Cultural Acquisition

Host cultural acquisition is a theme addressed by most researchers in the study abroad contexts. Jackson (2008) confirms that many of the inter-culturalists firmly believe that human beings cultivate their own cultural group membership through the guidance of their own family and friends as children and youths. Moreover, 'physical appearance, racial traits, skin color, language usage, self-appraisal and other perception factors all enter into the cultural identity construction equation' (Ting-Toomey and Chung, 2005: 93). All of them have learnt the local terms of the people. In Hawaii, these Japanese exchange students picked up some words such as Aloha, Taro, Mahalo. Many of the students took Hawaiian Studies at UH to learn more about the culture and

language. At Vancouver, the Japanese respondents learnt words like “Dude, Cool, and What’s Up? How is it? How’s your day going?” Sounds good and at Singapore, these Japanese sojourners discovered expressions such as “Ok...lah, Aiyoh, Alahmah, Kiyaso, Kanchong.” These group of Japanese sojourners who went to Singapore learnt ‘*Singlish*’ (Singapore English) which is Singapore English besides learning the British English used at academic and business sectors. ‘The more strongly our self-image is influenced by our larger cultural value patterns, the more we are likely to practice the norms and communication scripts of the dominant, mainstream culture’ (Ting-Toomey and Chung, 2005: 94). The developments of a global identity for selected Japanese students were, observed to be learning subjects in an international host environment using the English language. A San said that,

“People in Singapore are kind and friendly. They know [*sic*] I am Japanese but they are very helpful. I am happy and relaxed here”

[E San, 22years old, male]

G San had similar view:

“There are many Japanese people in Hawaii so I have no problem [*sic*] as a Japanese. I feel relaxed”

[G San, 21years old, female]

Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore being multi-cultural, multi-ethnic and multi-lingual societies welcomed these Japanese students. On one hand, each of the

respondents felt a pinch of racism, similar to the experiences of A San and G San and on the other hand, the majority of the respondents felt very contented being in their host environment settings. 'The more strongly our self-image is influenced by our larger cultural value patterns, the more we are likely to practice the norms and communication scripts of the dominant, mainstream culture' (Ting-Toomey and Chung, 2005: 94). According to the Japanese respondents, the exchange program has strengthened their cultural identity of being 'Japanese'. A San said that,

"I am proud of being [*sic*] Japanese because I realized I have some hospitality in [*sic*] mind like other Japanese. Some Singaporeans don't have such in mind."

[A San, 21 years old, male]

Similar to A San's views, the other respondents also said that they have started appreciating many cultural norms and practices of the Japanese society which they fail to do so prior to their exchange programs. National origin, race, religion and language which belongings to a particular ethnic group due to historical and emotional ties is termed as 'ethnicity According to Ting-Toomey and Chung (2005: 97), 'an inheritance wherein members perceive each other as emotionally bounded by a common set of traditions, worldviews, history, heritage and descent on a psychological and historical level' is called ethnicity. McNamara, (1997: 564) stressed that social identity is partially

dependent on ‘the particular intergroup setting in which one finds oneself’. An individual knowledge his or her own self-identity may develop as they grow up within a particular socio-cultural context (e.g. family, ethnic group) but possibly transform as a result of one’s own personal needs, or enthusiasm explore new environments, develop contacts with members of other ethnic group and accept and adapt to new ideas. Young people nowadays may develop both national and global identities that offer them ‘a sense of belonging to a worldwide culture’. The exchange program provided the exposure essential for knowledge enhancement and personal development. According to the Japanese respondents this exposure created by the exchange program links them to the world outside of Japan. They feel globalized through these experiences. The languages learnt and the experiences gained had given them the new identity initiating the process of globalization which is now playing in the reconstruction of identities. Arnett (2002: 32) has argued that young people today may develop both local and global identities that afford them ‘a sense of belonging to a worldwide culture’. According to Ryan, the global identity may ‘override other social identities, such as nationality and ethnicity’ and as such he stated that (Jackson, 2008: 33). “The task for individuals is to construct their own identity with reference to this ‘local manifestation of global values’” (Ryan, 2006: 33).

The interview collections on host cultural acquisition provided the answers and helped the researcher to understand the respondents' cultural acquisition on their exchange program. In addition, the researcher explored the contributions of other researchers like Ryan (2006), to enhance her knowledge on cultural acquisition of sojourners in study abroad contexts. The next section evaluated by the researcher was based on the host family experiences.

4.1.6 Host Family

Host family experiences of the Japanese respondents expressed with words like (“envious” “jealous” and “satisfied”) revealed their desire of experiencing the host family phenomenon. In addition, the research questions exposed their perceptions of their experiences with their host family setting. Few of the Japanese exchange students had host family experiences which they shared with the researcher. The Japanese students on the exchange program at UH felt that the home stay program was too expensive for them to afford. During the interview, X3 San and K San said that they were very jealous and envious when they came to know that their Japanese friends on exchange programs from other universities had host families to take care of them. At

UBC, Japanese students said that it was expensive for them to have a host family and at SMU, those who wanted to experience home stay programs had to find one by themselves and that their home universities do not arrange for such programs. Some of them got some information from their senior but gave up on having a host family because they cannot afford. These Japanese exchange students felt that requesting for a host family through an agent will be expensive and looking for one in a new environment on their own will be too difficult. All the Japanese exchange students from all the three sites wished that they had experienced the host family. Z1 (d) shared her host family experience:

“Yeah ... [*sic*] I stayed in Whistler. My host family is so kind and friendly. I like those (Canadians). Before I came here, I thought that I can't eat rice in host family's house because people here eat food made of wheat and flour but I had a good dinner. I was satisfied.”

[Z1 (d) San, focus group, 19 years old female]

D San said that,

“Like [*sic*] applying for a host family there is expensive. When I checked the price I was like, woo ... [*sic*] just for a while it's that much [*sic*] is expensive that's how I feel. I feel jealous and envious about [*sic*] my friends having a host family”

[D San, 21 years old male]

F San experience about his home stay program is that,

“I have a host family ... [*sic*] it was an old lady living by on her own. She took me too many places in south east coast of this island. I saw many sightseeing spots. She also helped me to find what bus to take to the university and taught me how to say, “Thank You” in Hawaiian language. She cooked me a simple meal but not the local (Hawaiian) food. Before I come to Hawaii, I sent application to the organization for the home stay program. They chose my host family for me. It is not so expensive \$100 or ... [*sic*]”

[F San, 21 years old male]

Y5 San mentioned that,

“I [*sic*] get the host family in Singapore ... [*sic*] a Chinese Singaporean. I had a Chinese New Year dinner with them. They took me out to the church. I could know how the church was and how they celebrate Chinese New Year with their whole family. They are really nice and kind so [*sic*] I like them.”

[Y5 San, focus group, 20 years old female]

The questions surrounding the host family experiences helped the researcher unfold the factors contributing to the decision making of the Japanese students to get a host family in their exchange sites. From the above interviews, the researcher understood that cost is one of the major factors which prevented the respondents from getting a host family. On the other hand, in Singapore, the respondents stated that, On the other hand, in Singapore, the respondents stated that, “There are not many rich people living in big Housing Development Board (HDB) flats so it’s difficult for them

to let in extra person accommodation”. After receiving the answers to the host family questions, the researcher finally proceeded to ask questions about their re-entry and post sojourning (future plans) experiences.

4.1.7 Post-sojourning Perceptions

The post-sojourning questions were asked to find out about their future plans of their life in terms of personal goals, further qualifications, achievements and career goals.

U San mentioned that,

“I want to work as an air stewardess so [*sic*] I want to improve my communication [*sic*] in English. I am confident to get a job”

[U San, 20 years old, female]

On the other hand the male Japanese respondents expressed their future plans to the researcher. A San said that,

“I can work abroad. I can get a job anywhere. I am confident.”

[A San, 21 years old, male]

Prior to her field work to Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore, the researcher’s original plan was to visit the Japanese respondents in the home university upon their return to Japan to complete her data collection on their post-sojourning and future plans.

Due to financial and time constraints, she had to change to conduct the interview via

emails with the Japanese respondents in her study. Although the financial constraint was caused by the airfares and accommodation, the time constraint was caused by personal reason owing to the lost of her loved ones at her point of data collection at Singapore. The researcher had to stay a little longer at the site to do the necessary ritual before she returned to Japan to continue research work. The Japanese participants responded to the researcher's questions about their future plans and reaction upon their return to Japan. K San stated that, "I have to start job-hunting and I want to apply what I learnt in Singapore in Japan" and J San mentioned that, "I want to pursue a MBA."

Like K San, other respondents also reported that they are doing job-hunting. One respondent mentioned that although he was only in his fifth semester he has already started exploring the job market. Although J San already got a job, he has plans to obtain further qualification. The researcher was curious to know if the Japanese respondents would want to work or migrate in the future to some foreign country. Japanese participants' are motivated to join the exchange programs which are varied in career goals, personal goals, linguistic achievements, travel and cultural acquisitions but their patriotism in wanting to apply what they have learnt in the exchange programs at their workplace was marvelous. From the above citation of K San, it is evident that he wants to contribute what he has learnt to his nation.

The researcher asked the same questions to the other respondents to find out what future plans they had after they return to Japan.

X5 San expressed that,

“No. I like Japan. I like Hawaii that’s enough for [*sic*] vacation. I like my hometown. I am happy to go home”

[X5 San, 19 years old, female]

X4 San stressed:

“I love my hometown. I want to relax”

[X4 San, 20 years old, male]

Z2(a) San emphasized that,

“I can live here (Vancouver) for three years on a business trip for [*sic*] and then go back to Japan. I am happy in Japan”

[Z2(a) San, 19 years old, female]

Similarly, Z2(d) San said that,

“I want to live in Japan during [*sic*] I work but after retirement I want to live in some [*sic*] foreign country relax.”

[Z2(d) San, 20 years old, male]

The interviews above were obvious enough to make the researcher realize the passion the Japanese respondents had for their mother nation. Like him, (X4 San, X5 San, [Z2(a) San and Z2(d) San), have also expressed their patriotism by saying that they want to return to their home country and share their knowledge which they have obtained through their Exchange Program.

4.2 Summary

This chapter has discussed the findings based on forty-six Japanese exchange students on study abroad programs at UH in Hawaii, UBC in Vancouver and SMU in Singapore. The first section of the chapter presented the background of the Japanese exchange students. The second section of the chapter presented the discussion of their pre-sojourning and previous learning experiences in Japan, while reflecting on the Japanese respondents' present learning experiences in their study abroad sites. This chapter also showed how the pre-sojourning expectations of students influence their experiences while experiencing the study-abroad contexts. These in turn are expected to shape the perceptions of learning in the post-sojourning aspects of study abroad student lives.

The third section provided an analysis of their reflection of learning by examining their experiences and the future plans based on their exchange program experiences. The final section of the analysis reported on their learning experiences, perceptions of their sojourning sites, cultural perceptions, motivations, benefits of their exchange programs, their observations of the student body at UH, UBC and SMU in the classrooms and outside of the classrooms in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore. The

next chapter would provide the concluding remarks of the thesis. It will also recommend some policies which may be stimulate the desire of Japanese study to go on study abroad programs and in turn may result in the increase of student number. The study will also be included in the conclusion chapter to give the reader reasons as to why and why not certain issues were not possible to be discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This concluding chapter provides a summary of the study and its significant findings, recommending policies to improve the present grey areas of study abroad, limitations to this research, implications for of this research and suggestions for future research. Creswell (2005) stressed that the goal of the final segment of qualitative research is to interpret and make sense of the findings; consisting of a review of how the research questions were answered, a summary of the discussions of the study's finding in regards to related literature, in addition to the research implications and suggestions for further inquiry. The questions that directed this study to explore this long-term study abroad exchange program in the three locations namely, Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore were asked in Chapter one. In chapter two, included a brief background of Japan's post war developments and swift successes; these were achieved by its triumph in the industrial and business sectors. Moreover, Japan's governance, social, economy and political stability paved the way to excellence. Furthermore, the researcher also

stated that Japan used education as a tool of progress to succeed further in the country's grey areas such as international relations, high technology, Pacific Rim trade and international business opportunities. Details about globalization being the cause of the internationalization of Japan's higher education in the current educational reform through its policies and projects at both the national level and within universities are also discussed. In addition, the interviews of Professors and coordinator's are included in order to inform the reader about the background of the three exchange programs studied in this research.

A number of questions were asked to discover the participant's motivations and goals for studying abroad, their perspectives and experiences on their learning such as positive effects of studying abroad, concerns of study abroad and their views on certain aspects of the exchange program (e.g. pre-departure orientations, explicit orientations, job-hunting orientations). This study has taken an exploratory approach using the interview guide questions during data collection and fieldwork investigation to unveil the participant perspectives. The data collected was presented using a descriptive approach to elucidate on the current experiences of the Japanese sojourners in a study abroad context. Consequently, new themes, and several answers to the research questions will evolve in this chapter wherein the researcher will present these emerging

themes and the participants' perspectives with respect to the research questions. The researcher has identified and interpreted the significant outcomes of this study and evaluated these outcomes with the support of previous research. The researcher has discussed the pedagogical implications on study abroad exchange experiences in an English language speaking environment amongst the Japanese students in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore.

5.2 Outcomes of the Research

The study began with the main research question to observe the experiences of Japanese students who went to Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore on an exchange program in English in their undergraduate curriculum followed by relevant sub questions as explored in Chapter four. The study took a holistic approach by observing the Japanese learners in the study abroad contexts. The following research question is enumerated in the thesis: *“How do Japanese students adjust with native speakers in their study abroad classroom and host country settings?”* In order to comprehend the student's learning experiences additional questions were asked which contributed to the major findings of this study that are listed in the section below.

5.2.1 Background and Previous Learning Experiences

The forty-six Japanese participants came from middle class families. They have received some English education during their high school. Global 30 project which was launched by the MEXT in 2009 for establishing the core universities for internationalization consisted of the (Uni International MEXT Go, 2013).

Table 5.1: Differences between Japan and the Study Abroad Sites

Japan	Study Abroad Sites
1. Big classes	1. Small classes.
2. Less interaction with Professor.	2. More interaction with Professor
3. Group oriented.	3. Individuality.
4. Less Assignments.	4. More Assignments.
5. Japanese Education System.	5. American, Canadian or British Education System.
6. Mono-cultural background.	6. Multi-cultural societies and multi-racial societies
7. Less Competitive.	7. Highly competitive.
8. “inward-looking”	8. “outward-looking”

Sojourners from various universities in Japan were interviewed during the overseas data collection (as observed in Table 5.1). This included both universities listed in the Global 30 and other institutions in Japan. Standing example of this includes Waseda University, Sophia University, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Kwansei Gakuin University, Keio University, Rikkyo University, Doshisha University, Kyoto University, Hakuoh University, Ryukoku University, Rikkyo university, Osaka Furitsu University, Akita International University, and Ritsumeikan University. Thirty-two participants out of forty-six respondents were from the Global 30 university list. As such their excellent university training at their home universities qualified (TOEFL, TOFIC and TOEFL: iBT) scores and determined their entry to these exchange programs at UH, UBC and SMU regardless of their high school training.

5.2.2 Pre-Sojourning Experiences

The Japanese students were (e.g. “happy”, “anxious”, “excited”, “curious”, “nervous” and “interested” to explore experience their new environment but they were “sad” to leave their family and friends in Japan for a year. Pre-departure orientations are essential to lessen participants’ anxiety provided some basic information about the

exchange program. The forty-six participants agreed that the pre-departure orientation was not of any use to them in any way during their exchange program as most of the general information provided at the orientation could be obtained from the internet. Next, each of them gave similar suggestions that such orientations should provide them with information relating to accommodations, cultural expressions of host countries and important words or terms used in the host country and safety measures. All the participants also firmly agreed that the preparation process for the study abroad experience was boring and time consuming. Finally, the participants declared that although pre-departure meetings are essential tools in preparing students for the exchange program, instead it became a waste of time which caused them disappointment. Although Japanese universities make it a point to invite experts or Professors to give pre-departure seminars and also recommend guidebooks for sojourner to read, these efforts does seemed not to be fruitful for the students. Additional research on pre-departure related issues such as the training and guidance sessions is required so that universities can improve their pre-departure orientations.

5.2.3 Motivations of exchange program(s)

The research provided by adding information about why the participants chose to study abroad (motivation) and why choose the MIX, AEP and IE programs in particular. The grades the Japanese respondents get from their home universities for courses they take in English range between B to A+. The Grade Point Average (GPA) scores of these respondents in this study were 3.0 and above. The Japanese respondents' academic performance (TOEFL, TOFIC and TOEFL: iBT and GPA) they obtain in their home university do determine their entry to the exchange programs. In some cases, recommendation letters from their Professors also play an important role in the Japanese student's entry into the study abroad programs. Although the exchange programs courses these Japanese students take are graded either "pass" or "fail", scholarships are given by host universities to these Japanese respondents were based on their academic performance (e.g. TOEFL, TOFIC and TOEFL: iBT and GPA from home university). These Japanese respondents were between their second and fourth year of their undergraduate degree program in their home universities; they have completed some language courses and subject courses in English in their home universities prior to their exchange programs. The Japanese respondents in this study are from middle-class

families. It is evident that the scholarships provided by some of the foundations mentioned in Chapter four have financially supported these students to successfully participate in this one year exchange program. Many of the respondents expressed that without the grants and scholarships it would be difficult for them to participate in the study abroad programs. These respondents are motivated by the scholarships to go on study abroad.

5.2.4 Personal Goals

This research has contributed to the understanding of what the participants hoped to accomplish during the program (personal and career goals). Most of the Japanese students going on these exchange programs are going with a goal in mind to become someone unique in the Japanese society. Learning and speaking in English is a kind of social status for them. The aims of the Japanese males students who went on these exchange program was to get a go to the graduate school either in their home university or in the UH, UBC and SMU, improve their English language skills, travel abroad and make more friends.

5.2.5 Career Goals

On the one hand, the Japanese male students who participated in the interview wanted to contribute to Japan and Japanese society when they return home either by working in some Japanese company located in Japan or its branch located overseas. On the other hand, the Japanese female students wanted to work, make more friends, travel, improve their communication skills in English and in some cases even get married to a *gaijin* (foreigner) and live abroad.

Although GPA and TOEFL, TOFIC and TOEFL: iBT scores are important for the students to make entry into the exchange programs at UH, UBC and SMU, the Japanese companies located in Japan and overseas seem to overlook these factors. They require the students to be exposed to international environment such as overseas internship, exchange programs, extra-curriculum activities. These Japanese respondents take part in exchange programs to build their resume for their future career academic purposes.

5.2.6 Evaluating the Research Questions

A. Evaluating Research Question 1

“How do Japanese students adjust with native speakers in their study abroad classroom and host country settings?”

The Japanese respondents also expressed their negotiations/adjustments about their host learning environment and learning incidents in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore during the interview. The Japanese participants gradually adjusted with the native speakers in their study abroad classroom and host setting over time through trial and error in their everyday life at their study abroad. Their adjustment becomes negotiation over time when they befriend native speakers. They learnt the importance of group discussions, group interactions and presentations, regular class attendance, assignments and teacher-students relationship and communications. They also learnt how to live amongst the host country people. As this study focused on how Japanese students and their native speaker interlocutors (classmates or host country people) engaged in negotiations/adjustments to deal with actual communication problems the term ‘negotiation’ means:

“the modification and restructuring of interaction that occurs when learners and their interlocutors anticipate, perceive or express difficulties in message comprehensibility”.

(Pica 1994: 494).

When Japanese students travel overseas, they enter a learning environment that has been constructed by a variety of locally negotiated social, cultural and political dimensions that affect their place in the host classroom and the degree to which they participate.

Although initially, N San, M San and P San had difficulty in their interviews, eventually they adjust to the circumstances whenever they encountered them. N San and M San said that whenever they went out to buy something, they pointed out what they wanted to buy or drink so that they can overcome their communication problem. These communication problems lessen as they improved their proficiency in English.

P San said that she started using the map and electronic dictionary to locate places and ask for things to the local people overcome her communication difficulties. Gradually she started memorizing more English vocabulary to improve the situation. Pica’s meaning of negotiation/adjust evaluates the main research question of this study.

B. Evaluating Research Question 2

*“How do Japanese students experience their learning environments
(home and host universities and Japan and host country) and learning
incidents (phenomenon)?”*

The Japanese respondents also expressed their positive and negative experiences about their host learning environment and learning incidents in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore during the interview. For example, at Hawaii, the Japanese students felt that lifestyle was very slow moving, bad bus schedule, accommodations with shared bathroom and washrooms, small and dirty kitchen, Most of them experienced the unfairness of cleaning up the dirty rooms, and kitchens at their accommodations. Some of them were critical about the water heaters not working properly at accommodations. Many of them also did not like the concept of not having a bathtub at their accommodation. They felt that they were not able to relax after a long day at school, less chances of communicating in English in the host country setting because there are too many Japanese people and even Hawaiians using *Nihongo* (Japanese language) and dangers of being attacked by the homeless people, bikers with tattoos all over their bodies, drug addicts, gangsters, gun shootings in public were some

of their concerns during their study abroad in Hawaii. In Vancouver, homeless people, drug addicts, notorious people hanging out after a certain time of the day, less chances of communicating in English because of too many Japanese students at Rits House and in Singapore, life was moving very fast and they had difficulties keeping up with the fast moving pace. The Japanese exchange students were worried if they do not keep up with the fast moving pace of the class curriculum they will be left out and will not perform well and may provide dissatisfactory results on their academic records. As this study focused on how the Japanese students experience their learning environments and learning incidents, Kolh's indicated that,

“Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experiences. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping experiences and transforming it”

(Kolb 1984: 41)

The Japanese sojourners leaving Japan for study abroad for the first time become organizers of their own life during the sojourn period of one year. They are placed in new environment wherein they have to take leadership in decision making which depends upon each individual situation encountered during their sojourn. A goal oriented academic sojourner will be able to adapt oneself taking leadership towards achieving their targeted goals. Goal setting, capacity to meet the requirements of their

host university, acquire knowledge, improve their English language abilities, and experience are main factors that make an academic sojourner successful.

C. Evaluating Research Question 3

“How do they respond/adjust to their perceptions of their learning environments (home and host universities and Japan and host country) and learning incidents (phenomenon)?”

The Japanese universities have large number of students in each class. These classes are having about hundred to two hundred and fifty students. This does not allow for interaction between teacher and students. Most of the time students sitting behind sleep, use their mobile, talk to their friends, walk in and out of the classroom, do assignments of other courses, browse the internet and in the case of the female Japanese students, touching up their make-up, go often to the restrooms, they are late for classes and they often eat and drink in class during lecture. The Professor is standing in front of the whiteboard reading from the PowerPoint slides, textbooks or printed materials. In some cases, the Japanese students sitting behind are not able to listen to the lectures. On the other hand, when these participants went on study abroad at UH, UBC and SMU

they had many challenges and difficulties which they encounter in smaller classes with more assignments, discussions and group presentations. Gradually, they adjusted to their perceptions of their learning environments and learning incidents by interacting with other international students and domestic students in their host university. They also learned strategies to cope with their academic pressure and requirements to successfully complete their exchange program.

This research question is evaluated based on the experiences of the field research data collected: C San talks about her experience in the host classroom environment in (p. 4-131) as Jackson (2008) describe this phenomenon as when people go into 'new' fields, they naturally bring with them sets of dispositions (*habitus*); these behaviors and worldviews may not be a comfortable fit within the new field. L San and H San experiences in (p.4-131, 4-132) were similar to C San. Base on the host country settings and the lack of adjustments in certain cases as observed by the research at the field sites, Jackson (2008) asserts that despite the sojourners efforts to adjust themselves to speak the targeted language using the correct accent and communication style they seek to transform themselves in their host environment setting which might not allow them to fully adopt a new persona or position in the field (adapted from Jackson, 2008:

24). The researcher strongly feels that situation will arise during exchange programs due to the dynamic nature of the habitus surrounding the sojourners in the context of not being accepted due to their physical, ethnographical and cultural background as denoted by Bourdieu (1977, 1991) and Jackson (2008). As previously transcribed on (p. 4-131) and (p. 4-132), C San expressed her struggles and challenging her experiences.

Although, C San tried her best to talk in English with her discussion group members,. The discussion could not go smoothly because of her poor language abilities. One of the group member was very mean to her. Despite the efforts made by C San to contribute her ideas with discussion group member, the female member's attitude towards C San, caused disappointment to her. L San felt that his group members were not helping and cooperative. They refused to answer any of his questions and emails which caused difficulties to prepare his part of the class presentation. Therefore, he was disappointed. According to H San, she had to quit of the classes her was attending because one of the discussion group member was mean to (insulting) her. Even though she tried her best to communicate her efforts were in vain due to her poor English abilities especially in terms of academic discussion. Therefore she was sad and de-motivated to continue attending that particular class.

D. Evaluating Research Question 4

“Does the study abroad experience impact (positive or negative influence) participant’s particular learning needs: foreign language learning; resume builder; job prospects; social status; travel; and widen their friendship circle?”

The Japanese participants realized that there were more assignments, peer interactions, group discussions and smaller learner orientated classrooms in their host university environments which contributed to their English language improvement. They understood that the domestic and international students in UH, UBC and SMU were very hardworking and pro-active in classroom activities. They also understood that their home universities environment did not provide them with any of these opportunities. The participants mentioned in their interviews that the study abroad experiences did impact their particular learning needs such as career and personal development. They learn strategies to cope up with the host university’s curriculum needs by making more international and domestic friends to succeed in the study abroad programs. Based on the experiences of the field research data collected, K San’s experiences both in his home and host university environment (p. 4-135) is what

Jackson describes as 'circumstance' in social contexts facilitating communication and understanding among people (adapted from Jackson, 2008: 16). B San and E San also share similar experiences as seen in (p. 4-136) wherein the inter-disciplinary approach draws on: socio-cultural notions of language; culture and identity; social cross-cultural psychology; and intercultural or international relations which are based on the premises that student sojourners, educators and indeed anyone who interacts along cross cultural lines (whether at home or abroad), could benefit from a heightened awareness of the language, identity and cultural factors that impact on the development of intercultural communicative competence (Bakhtin 1981; 1986; and Jackson 2008). As previously transcribed on (p. 4-135) and (p. 4-136), K San expressed uniquely his experiences In Japan, referring to 'Reaction Paper' where each student is required to write a report of either one or two pages and submit to their Professor.

The students are allowed to speak, chat or sleep while the lecture goes on. The class size of K San was large, comprising of 800 students whereby he felt it was impossible to ask questions as all heads will turn to look at him. Therefore, he prefers to study in Singapore (SMU) as the class size is smaller in comparison to Japan. B San felt that the classes in UH was mostly interactive and therefore, better. According to E

San, the vital difference between his University (comprises of 200 students in a class) in Japan and SMU (consists of 50 students) is the class size. Hence, teachers in SMU are closer to students and due to this reason his English proficiency had improved. He felt that the environment is the most important factor for a student's motivation to improve their skills in English language learning.

E. Evaluating Research Question 4 (i)

“Do different learning environments (institutional contexts: home and host universities) moderate the impact of study abroad on the learning strategies they use?”

The participants at UH and SMU stated that they were more confident, independent and improved their English language abilities. On the other hand, the UBC participants could only interact in English in the classroom environment because out of classroom all the exchange participants interacted only in *Nihongo* (the Japanese language) because there were about 98 to 99 exchange students in the program. During their interview, they Japanese participants at UBC also said that their friends on exchange programs in other universities have enhanced their English language abilities because of their opportunity to interact with non-Japanese students. They said that

different learning environments (institutional contexts) do moderate the impact of study abroad on the learning strategies they use. According to Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang (2006), the exchange students use their study abroad as an opportunity to learn a foreign language, seek personal change and improve their future careers. The interviews, fieldwork and observational method conducted in this study at UH and SMU were supported this statement. Whereas, the interviews, fieldwork and observational method conducted at UBC, contradicted the statement made by Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang (2006) because there were 99 exchange students in the program.

F. Evaluating Research Question 4 (ii)

“Do individual characteristics (ambitious, sociable, pro-active, lazy, adventurous, unfriendly and clinging) moderate the impact of study abroad on the learning strategies they use?”

The impact of study abroad on the learning strategies used by the respondents in study was moderated by two factors. One was their own individual characteristics and their other was the societal pressure. In Hawaii, B San and F San’s ambitious and enthusiastic characteristic persuaded them to attend these activities such as (e.g. Lacrosse club, Coffee Hour, Halloween parties, International Student Association,

International Friday night in university and welcome parties) facilitated them to improve their English language proficiency. In Singapore, K San and L San's sociable and pro-active characteristic influenced them to take participate these activities such as (e.g. outdoor activities, parties and soccer club) including their multi-ethnic accommodation made possible for them to improve their English language proficiency. In UBC, O San and Z2(b) San's clinging characteristics influenced them to be in groups with their Japanese peers and to talk in *Nihongo* (Japanese language) because they can discuss their assignments and presentations requirements without any language difficulty. Similarly, L San and the other respondents said that this study abroad program a resume builder which will create more job opportunities for them since the Japanese companies require an employee with international experience.

Professor Reeder in his interview said that, "The Ritsumeikan students have very little idea of how hard UBC students work and the expectations on them to succeed." Professor Reeder's interview and the interview of the respondents contribute to the understanding of the characteristics of the Japanese participants. Next, in Hawaii, the Japanese community pressure to speak in *Nihongo* (Japanese language) was felt by the Japanese participants because of the large Japanese community at their host country environment. Similarly, the Japanese participants in Singapore felt the Japanese

community pressure to speak in *Nihongo* (Japanese language) to some extent only as they were able to avoid places where the Japanese tourists gathered. Peer pressure to speak in *Nihongo* (Japanese language) was lesser due to the Japanese student number in MIX program at that point of time. Just like Hawaii, in Singapore, the Japanese participants did not feel so much of pressure to speak in *Nihongo* (Japanese language) because of the Japanese student number in IE program at that point of time. Unlike UH and SMU, the participants at UBC said that they faced the difficulty to overcome the temptation of conversing in their mother tongue in Rits House. They also said that they were comfortable and happy to talk in *Nihongo* (Japanese language) with the fellow Japanese peers. They also mentioned in their interviews that there were too many Japanese peers whom they met in their host university environment.

The Japanese participants at Hawaii stated that they could not improve the English language skills because they experienced the pressure of conversing with fellow Japanese (residences, tourists and peers) in *Nihongo* (Japanese language). As a result, their English language skills did not improve up to their expectations. During the interview, the Japanese participants said that they were very unhappy, disappointed and angry when they encountered inevitable situations such as these. The Japanese participants in Singapore mentioned that they have improved their English language by

trying to socialize with non-Japanese people. The individual characteristics of the Japanese participants who went to all these three locations did moderate the impact of study abroad on learning strategies they used due to their environment, opportunities and peer and community pressure.

On the one hand, the Japanese participants at UH, UBC and SMU stated in their interviews that their English language abilities have improved since they joined the exchange program when compared to their peers in their home university. Segalowitz and Freed (2004) affirmed that study abroad learners improved their communication skills more than the learners who remained at their country of origin. On the other hand, their expectations of (speaking like a native speaker of English) could not be met. This research question is evaluated by Lafford, (1995) and Lapkins *et al*, (1995) affirmation which states that the amount of contact with native speakers is an important factor in the acquisition of socio-linguistics and socio-cultural knowledge.

G. Evaluating Research Question 5

“What are their particular learning needs: foreign language learning; resume builder; job prospects; social status; travel; and widen their friendship circle, given their perception of their learning environment (home and host

universities and Japan and host country) and how can these need be best accommodated by both their home and host institutions?”

The Japanese participants at all the three locations had their particular needs such as to be a ‘globalized person’, improve the English, become independent, and confident. Their perceptions of their learning environment are that they can improve their English language proficiency and intercultural knowledge through student activities and host community activities. They stated in their interviews that host universities should accommodate their needs by organizing more extra-curriculum activities.

Through these activities, the Japanese students hope to gain also foreign language fluency other than English acquire knowledge that is useful for careers in international affairs, government service or international business, which can be multi-disciplinarily applicable, cross-cultural communication, analytical skills to interact in their host country settings, to analyze situations with more precision, appreciate and accept the importance of teamwork, become flexible and adapt to new circumstances, which may be critical when faced with challenges and difficulties, ability to manage finances and become independent. According to Yukari Kato,

executive vice-president of Ryugaku Journal, “The government is beginning to realize that they must globalize their human talent. Companies like Rakuten and Uniqlo (a major online retailer and an internationally known clothing chain were introducing in-house English language policies; and that employers were demanding solid foreign language skills and international experiences”(New York Times, 2013). Japanese employers are stepping up their efforts to recruit young Japanese with international skills who are still rare on the job market. This article is relevant to evaluate my last research question.

5.2.7 Host Cultural Acquisitions

The research supplied some information about the host culture acquisitions of the participants in this study. At UH, the female respondents said that she has no problem living in Hawaii as Japanese because of the multi-society and she enjoys the independence and freedom, feeling confident and happy to be amongst a multi-ethnic student body at UH. Although some of them do not enjoy the Hawaiian food and the casual conversations in *Nihongo* (Japanese language) with the Hawaiians and Japanese residence of Hawaii, Similar responses were, obtained from the Japanese respondents

on exchange at UBC. In Singapore, the Japanese exchange students were happy with the multi- racial society. On the one hand, the male Japanese respondents said that even though the Singaporeans had experienced hardships during the Japanese Occupation, they were very kind and helpful to him. On the other hand, another male Japanese respondent said that he was very proud to be Japanese because he realized that hospitality is important in the Japanese society unlike the multi-cultural society in Singapore. Further research on host cultural acquisition would be useful addition to study abroad research.

5.2.8 Host Family

The research found other insights on host family experiences of the Japanese sojourners. Although much data could not be collected due to various reasons (e.g. high cost and living conditions of their host country) listed by the participants; all the participants strongly stated that they desired to have host family experiences. Supplementary research needs to be conducted to research more concrete conclusions as to why host family programs are costly (Hawaii and Vancouver) and difficult for the Japanese to experience in Singapore and how this desires of the Japanese sojourners can

be accommodated by their home universities and partner universities.

5.2.9 Post-Sojourning Perceptions: Future directions

This research has provided the future directions which the Japanese participants plan to take up. Both the Japanese male and female participants declared that there were more job opportunities outside of Japan. The Japanese male participants said that Southeast Asia is growing and countries like Singapore, Malaysia and Indonesia have more job opportunities. Many of participants (both male and female) agreed that with their level of communication skills they can get jobs which require them to speak in English both in and out of Japan. They plan to travel around the world. Some of them said that they are planning to go to graduate school outside Japan. They also said that after learning English they are motivated to learn other foreign language like Mandarin, Korean, Spanish and Indonesian. As many of the returnees get busy with the studies after the exchange programs are over, research on these Japanese returnees and their success stories could be done. It will contribute to the understanding of how these returnees succeed in their life.

5.3 Implications of the Study

Japanese students studying English as a foreign language in Japan are faced with factors which de-motivate them from studying the English language.

- The Japanese students are faced with challenges when they go abroad for exchange because of the lack of training at the Japanese schools. Japanese students are taught English language mainly through songs, pictures and alphabetical cards at the nursery and kindergartens levels. Increasing the number of teaching hours and introducing more English based activities, (e.g. story books, games, art and crafts, dramas and dances) will help reinforce the English language and help the children to memorize new vocabulary words easily.
- At the junior high level, they strictly used textbooks. They mainly concentrated only on reading, listening and to some extent writing. They had some annual national examinations to meet the national requirements essential to meet progress score. Besides this examinations and textbooks, the Japanese students are not exposed to any English language based activities. Reinforcing the English language based activities and regular classes will help the students to

memorize new vocabulary words easily. Introducing interaction and encouraging students to speak in English will enhance their interest in learning the language.

5.3.1 Pedagogical Implications

Several implications for pedagogy might be suggested for this study:

- Firstly the Japanese students going to Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore destined students need to be clearly orientated at the beginning of their programs. The parents of Japanese students may be goal oriented in pushing their children to leave for study in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore; they may not be fully informed of the programs their children are immersed in the transnational locations. Likewise, the Japanese students may not be well informed about the exchange program. The explicit orientation would reduce the unnecessary anxieties that could arise because of their unfamiliarity with the learning environment and the learning context.
- Secondly, necessary skills for independent study need to be taught together with the language classes so that these Japanese students will understand the

meaning of being an independent/autonomous learner to encourage their language learning process.

- Thirdly, encouraging the Japanese students to adapt to the way of life in Hawaii, Vancouver and Singapore to get along with the non-Japanese students would help them to improve their English language and understand the various cultures of international study body at their host universities. The Japanese universities can conduct some special classes for exchange students prior to their exchange. This will help to lower their anxieties while on exchange. At UH, UBC and SMU, this process is possible given the multi-ethnic composition of students. In all the three localities, however, there is the possibility of students using more English or Japanese owing to the larger societal context.
- Fourthly, introducing teachers of different ethnic background in their home universities (e.g. APU) involving closer teacher-student contact can also be helpful. Teacher's active and friendly exchange with these students in their free time in the beginning of the programs might equally help these students have a better understanding of teacher diversity. This in turn may be an asset in helping these students reduce their unnecessary anxieties when they go on

exchange programs. For most Japanese students, their experience with teachers and peers of different ethnicity would have been limited except in those schools that employ some Caucasian as 'native speaker' of English. Especially in the case of Singapore, teachers of Malay, Indian, Chinese and non-Japanese (who do not speak Japanese) origins would be a cultural shock to first-time Japanese students migrants to Singapore. It will be sometime before the Japanese students realize that English is used predominantly by non- Caucasian looking people than Americans and British.

- Finally, besides explicit instruction on certain study skills such as advanced organizing and prioritizing daily learning tasks teaching students' language learning strategies that have been highlighted as effective in research would be useful. This can be compared to the instructions given to PRC (Peoples Republic of China) students can be learner-centred so that student's nascent language skills can be further enhanced (Oxford, 1993; Wenden 1991; Zhang, 2000). Similarly, in the Japanese universities context, instructions for Japanese students can also be learner-centred so that students developing language skills can be further enhanced so that when these student's go on exchange to host

universities where learner-centred instructions are prioritized, it will be easy for them to cope with their exchange experiences and academic training smoothly. Teaching Japanese students to become more independent and autonomous learners is important to their development towards becoming more proficient users of English language after they complete their training. Professors need to design and plan their lessons in such a manner that language learning is non-threatening. Language learning strategies that focus on a learner-centred environment can enhance student's language skills. Teacher-student interaction and peer conferencing are two of the many techniques to facilitate effective instruction (Amaldas, 2010). These activities would give the students more confidence and therefore reduce their anxieties in the process of learning English. The success of these activities can also be enhanced by teacher's conscientious efforts to change classroom activities with reference to student's affective welfare in mind (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993). This is a great challenge for classroom teachers in home universities which lack in learner-centred instructions.

- Finally, the psychological welfare of Japanese students is also another aspect of pedagogy planning that is needed to counsel them. As most migrant students, Japanese students too face such problems as loneliness and culture shock. A team of teachers, volunteers and those who have received training in educational counseling or clinical psychology would be appropriate to help Japanese students. Through services, the anxieties of Japanese students might be appropriately diagnosed and alleviated with remedial measures.

5.4 Recommended Policies

Since Japan wants to reform its educational system by internationalizing the curriculum at its universities, the following policies are recommended based on the major findings, other findings that emerged from the in-depth interviews observing the Japanese participants, digital research in this area of study and teaching experiences in Japan of the researcher:

- A. According to the Japan Prime Minister Abe Shinzo San, Japan is undergoing economic deflation. With the weakening of the yen, Abe Shinzo San claims that “Resuscitating the Japanese economy by overcoming deflation and correcting

the yen's strength is one of the most pressing issues," (*NewsBCC*, 03 January 2013) where young Japanese graduates are expected to acquire vast experience and knowledge from various disciplines which will enable them to contribute towards the revival of the Japanese economy. In order to do this, Japanese government, foundations and universities should enable the creation of better scholarships (as previously discussed in Chapter 4, section 4.1.3) for Japanese students to motivate them to gain experience through study abroad for the future of Japan. The Japanese government can allocate some funds to educational providers to send Japanese students on educational tours. Japan's investments towards the exchange and home stay programs abroad in the forthcoming years will make today's young Japanese sojourners into elites of the Japanese economy. The future contributions could be: stronger yen; political stability; new ideologies; better governance; and knowledge based societal benefits.

- B. Spencer and Hoffa, (2002); and Dwyer (2004a) affirmed that participants would prefer to go on short-term programs (low cost less time commitment) rather than long-term programs (high cost and more time commitment). The

three researchers' statements contradict the findings of this study. It is evident that the scholarship grants can motivate the Japanese students to go to the MIX, AEP and IE programs, which were long-term, traditional, time committed and costly investments for both the Japanese parents and students, still the students went willing for study abroad. Stronger support for study abroad research can also be encouraged by policymakers so that effective measures may be taken to solve the problem of Japanese student number declining in the study abroad phenomenon.

- C. According to the Japanese participants, the pre-departure orientations were inadequate. They felt that there was a need for Japanese universities and study abroad organizations to arrange more attractive and beneficial programs to facilitate the Japanese students' with a more informative orientations that will help them in their curriculum. The sojourners also wanted their home universities to invite professionals and academics across the globe to give seminars to Japanese students with regards to study abroad programs which will be a crucial platform for their pre-sojourning.

Table 5.2: Strategy Planning for Study Abroad

No.	Positive Aspects of Study Abroad	Concerns of Study Abroad			
		Japanese Government	Foundations	Home Universities	Host Universities
1.	Academic enhancement.	Funds	Scholarships	New Pedagogical practices	N.A.
2.	Development of English language skills.	N.A.	N.A.	Learning strategies	N.A.
3.	Paving their career paths.	Curriculum transformation	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
4.	Resume building.	N.A.	N.A.	Pre-departure Orientations	N.A.
5.	Personal goals.	N.A.	N.A.	Organize seminars	N.A.
6.	Enhancing their global awareness.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Safety Measures
7.	Developing an open mindedness.	N.A.	N.A.	Explicit orientations	N.A.
8.	Increasing their self confidence, sense of freedom and independent.	N.A.	N.A.	Job-hunting orientations.	N.A.
9.	Learn and develop strategies of problem-solving and independent decision making.	Recruitment timeline	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
10.	High desire and confidence to travel across the globe.	N.A.	N.A.	Organize educational trips and tour.	N.A.
11.	Multi-tasking, highly competitive, positive thinking.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Exchange Student Orientation.

Source: Formulated by the Author

- D. The Japanese government, foundations and universities can facilitate the link between the sponsoring companies and the returnees (post-sojourners) who will indirectly be of help with internships and job opportunities. This will enable the young Japanese returnees to avoid job-hunting pressure. Japanese companies can also become flexible with their recruitment period to assist exchange students.
- E. Special courses could be introduced and financed by the Japanese government to help the Japanese students' regardless of being an exchange or non-exchange student enabling them to take classes on study skills such as computer competency and library research. This will indirectly pave their study skills in their host university settings as perceived at UBC Rits previously.
- F. Home universities can build hostels (e.g. UBC Rits House) in the host universities campuses combining an international student body with native speakers and other national (e.g. AP House) to facilitate interaction in English so that they can build their proficiency and their future career prospects.
- G. The home universities can provide more information on safety measures pertaining to the host environment and cultural background. This is vital for the

pre-sojourners as any information concerning the host country settings will help them to settle down more easily and enable them to adequately prepare for their stay at the host country.

5.5 Conclusion

Study abroad programs have positive influence on Japanese participants' paving their career paths, enhancing their global awareness, developing an open mindedness, heightening their level of tolerance, appreciating cultural diversity, and increasing their self confidence. Table 5.1 shows the positive aspects of study abroad in the internationalization of Japan's higher education in the globalization era. The Japanese participants concluded that they are able to express confidently their worldview and are sensitive to other cultural values. Study abroad enhances their cultural awareness. These Japanese sojourners have realized for themselves the positive effects on their confidence, independence, self-esteem and maturity.

Study abroad programs acts as a tool, which brings about many changes in the life of the participants by broadening their knowledge to the world that exists outside of Japan. In general, study abroad programs are a kind of "study tours" that have recently

become the subject of research inquiry. In long-term programs, professors or study abroad directors do not accompany or lead a group of students abroad for educational purposes. The objective of study abroad programs can be either general studies or interdisciplinary, or it can be extremely specific and related to advanced studies in the student's major. Study abroad participants often go for short tours during their free time in their host country. Even though they had enough time, they feel that they should tour as many places of interest as they could while the opportunity allows. Undoubtedly, long-term study abroad programs give the participants more time to interact with the host culture providing them with greater benefits. All the Japanese participants in this study said that short tours during their long-term study abroad programs did contribute to students' learning in terms of improving their communication skills. These Japanese students become enormously successful achieving positive results and effects were reflected in their overall academic college experiences and influencing their personal, social and intercultural development outcomes.

Although long-term study abroad programs were less accessible to students due to high, program costs and time commitment. Students are to deal with inflexible curriculum requirements at their home institutions, family obligations, or the need for full- or part-time employment, longer programs require to some extent sacrifice of one's

happiness to have a taste of the abroad experience. These Japanese participants in this study gained in the areas of personal, academic, linguistic, and career development. It is essential that educational providers understand the need of pre-departure orientations. Educational institutions should have seminars for study abroad participants and ensure that they receive sufficient and appropriate pre-departure training for their abroad experience. In this manner, the participants will have less or no trouble coping with the host culture. It will help the participants avoid feelings of anxiety. According to scholars like De Ley, (1975); Herman and Schild, (1961); Nash and Tarr, (1976); and Wilkinson, (1998a, 1998b), found that study abroad participants seek out a “stranger group”. (e.g. Professor Reeder’s interview stated that the Japanese students do not ask the librarians for any assistance in searching for materials instead they ask their Japanese peers how to use the library). De Ley (1975) and Wilkinson (1998a; 1998b), describe this “stranger group” phenomenon as a natural coping mechanism when culture shock is experienced by students studying abroad so they seek out members of their own culture or language. This phenomenon of relying on one’s home culture or the program group is further explained by De Ley (1975) as “stranger theory.”

Among the three universities, studied in this research, Japanese exchange respondents at UBC expressed this phenomenon obvious in their in-depth interviews by

saying that they are in large number in Rits House at UBC so they can depend on each other in times of crisis in classroom and out-of-classroom environment whereas, the situation faced by the Japanese exchange respondents in UH and SMU were completely different compared to UBC. The Japanese exchange respondents felt very comfortable to be amongst a group of 99 Japanese students. The Japanese exchange respondents in the UH expressed their discomfort more out-of classroom environment than in the classroom environment as they were able to avoid talking with Japanese students in the university easily but they are faced with the pressure to converse in *Nihongo* (Japanese language) during shopping even with Hawaiian sales person. The SMU Japanese exchange respondents described their dislikes that during some parties or events held both in and out of the campus vicinity; it is inevitable talking in Japanese language to Japanese students.

Most of the Japanese exchange respondents in UH and SMU felt that avoiding other Japanese students is the best way to improve their communication skills. Even though they experienced culture shock during the exchange program strongly in some incidents, they did not mind or seek out and cling on to other Japanese students. Most of the Japanese respondents expressed their emotional enjoyment of freedom and independence from the usual mono-cultural and monolingual society. According to

Nash and Tarr (1976); and Herman and Schild (1961) the power of the stranger group, which could negatively influence the attitudes of each member and in turn develop a negative attitude towards the host culture of the stranger group, which will be followed by all members of the group. Even though the topic on culture shock has researched, further, studies on the “stranger group” will provide a concrete understanding of this “stranger group” phenomenon from the student’s perspective. The Japanese participants in this study did not express such negative attitude towards their host cultures however, further research on Japanese exchange students may reveal such “stranger group” phenomenon.

Study abroad programs have shown positive influence on students, to a certain level of degree. Many studies in the past few decades, have analyzed the effects that study abroad has on its participants. Most of the studies concluded that when language development and acquisition are concerned, there have been positive gains that participants make while studying abroad. During their study abroad programs, most of the students have shown great improvement (e.g. E San and O San reported that their institutional environments have contributed to their English language improvement) at a much higher rate in listening and speaking compared with reading and writing. Additional research on reading and writing strategies, several implications for course

design during the abroad experience have been suggested by Davie (1996) and Meara (1994) after their studies showed unimpressive improvement of reading and writing of semester and year-long study abroad students.

The major purpose of most the Japanese students going on a study abroad program are to improve their communication skills. During the in-depth interviews, all of them said that they joined this program with the one common goal that is to enhance their speaking and listening apart from career and academic achievements. Most of them also disclosed their disappointment during the interview concerning their fluency progress.

Most of them came with the assumption that joining the study abroad program would show immediate development in all the four language skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. Many of them expressed their dissatisfaction and to some extent their frustration during the interview. Wilkinson (1998a; 1998b) confirms this in her study that questioned the guarantee of “fluency” as a product of study abroad. Her results point out those students who entered a study abroad program with the goal of “fluency,” and showed the typical emotion of disappointment when they realized that it was a long process requiring lots of effort on their part, rather than a guaranteed product of a package deal on a designated study abroad program.

The research works of Dwyer and Peters (2004), Ruhter McMillian and Opem (2004), and Orahood, Kruze, and Pearson (2004) affirmed that the participants have an increased aspiration to consider work in an internationally oriented companies have produced result of the positive influence on career goals, problem-solving and communication skills due to the experience abroad. Although some of them felt that this program was much longer than may have shown positive results in the language development supported the findings of this study on Japanese exchange students in abroad contexts. Many researchers like Mendelson (2004) and Freed (1998) agreed that many participants had misconception about the study abroad program concerning the duration and its relation to an individual's fluency development.

During the in-depth interviews, many of the Japanese respondents also revealed that another vital reason for them to reach out to other international students particularly native speakers of English is to be able to enhance their English. This becomes possible through friendship with speakers of English language and participation in various activities where native speakers are present. According to the Japanese respondents, interaction with the host nationals and immersion into their committee produced great impact on their language development. These respondents also disclosed that the language development boosted their keenness to speak and their commitment to learn

the target language heightens. In this process, they also learnt some local languages. Mendelson (2004) agreed that the participants in study abroad program would need to make efforts to interact with host nationals and the host culture, since language was, not learned through osmosis. These Japanese respondents said that they developed their interest in inter-cultural, international affairs and cross-cultural understanding. They firmly articulated that, before coming on the study abroad program they had limited knowledge regarding global issues. However, the study abroad has increased their global awareness and increased self-confidence in their intercultural awareness and functional knowledge compared with their peers who remained in their home university at the same time to complete the academic require necessary to obtain a basic degree.

Positive effects of the study abroad experience was, expressed and reflected on the facial expressions and interviews of the Japanese participants regarding their increase in academic, personal, professional and social development. The Japanese respondents said that their inner ability of making the right decisions has made them feel confident and independent without discussing with their parents, siblings and other Japanese friends in Japan, which was a norm before the study abroad. They also said that they have learnt the importance of sharing and caring for fellow human being. Study abroad had positive effects on these Japanese exchange student's maturity,

improved their self-esteem and increased job prospects. During the interviews conducted at all the three popular research sites, the Japanese exchange respondents revealed that they learned more about the host culture outside the classroom environment than in classroom environment in the study abroad programs and in coursework. Although at UH they had classes such as the Hawaiian Studies and other activities like “Coffee Hour” gathering, these Japanese still felt that going out with their American and Hawaiian friends was the best cultural tour through which they gained vast cultural knowledge. Likewise, at UBC, the Japanese exchange respondents disclosed that they received meaningful learning experiences through visits to the place where the homeless people were and these Japanese respondents got an opportunity to render some help together with their Professor. Jackson, 2008 stated that,

“Study abroad, when well planned and prepared for, can alter students’ lives...”

(Jackson, 2008: 240)

Although it was voluntary, the Japanese respondents said that because of Dr. Bill they got an opportunity to observe the host surrounding from a different angle. Similarly at SMU, the Japanese respondents who got the Temasek Foundation Scholarship joined the “Revitalizing” activity which made it possible for more exposure to observations of host nationals and opened doors to historical memories and

reflections. As an alternative of learning solely at the surface level about the host culture through books and media at the university, these Japanese participants through their observations of host nationals got a chance to connect themselves with the host culture and nationals.

The historical trends of the Japanese student exchange obviously shows the effects of a rapidly aging Japanese population and other factors including the global economy and the recruiting cycle of Japanese companies (Open Door Fact Sheet: Japan, 2013). The current trends indicate that there is a major drop in Japanese students going abroad. This is also reported by the (*Japan Times*, November 18, 2012) in their article on ‘*Students staying in Japan*’ where the trends of Japanese students studying abroad are observable from the fact that between 2011 and 2012, 19,900 students went abroad which confirms the claims of the researcher.

Although Japan has enacted policies and provided grants to promote study abroad amongst Japanese youths, the future of its education system is still gloomy. Since the Japanese government and the Japanese universities continue to put more emphasis on the discussion of study abroad, it deserves a more rigorous research agenda from the academic scholars. Study abroad programs are becoming less popular amongst

Japanese youths. Since the number of Japanese students, study abroad is showing continuous decline it explains that the Japanese youths are not keen to include study abroad as part of their academic careers. Japanese educational providers need to enrich their exchange programs and Japanese student access to such opportunities. The Japanese companies can work in parallel with the Japanese universities to help the Japanese exchange students with their job-hunting task upon their return home (Japan). Achieving these tasks will not be easy; the trends of study abroad in Japan has changed drastically since its peak in 1977 and continues to decline. In contrast, the researcher was able to make the observations of increasing student numbers from the field research depicting increasing number of sojourner in the future. However, the policies recommended by the researcher in this study may take some time to show positive results in the Japanese education system. In addition, more research, support from the Japanese government, Japanese educators and institutions providers; and Japanese company, Japan can continue to further develop study abroad opportunities for future Japanese students.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Altbach P.G. and Knight, J. (2007). "The Internationalization of Higher Education: Motivations and Realities", *Journal of Studies in International Education*, vol. 11, (3-4), pp. 290-305. Retrieved on December 10 2012 from <http://jsi.sagepub.com/content/11/3-4/290.short>
- Amaldas et al., (2012). "Japanese Sojourners in Higher Education Reform for Internationalization in Contemporary Japan", *The Frontiers in Education: Computer Science and Computer Engineering (FECS'12)*, Vol. II, pp. 632-637.
- Amaldas, et al., (2013a). "The Learning Experiences of Japanese Sojourners in Study Abroad Contexts", *The International Journal of Ethics, Leadership and Business Management*, Vol. 8, pp. 8-24.
- Amaldas, et al., (2013b). "Understanding the English Language Learning Experiences of Chinese Students in China, Japan and Singapore", *The International Journal of Creative Thinking and Educational Research*, Vol. 10, pp. 1-12.
- Amaldas, M. (2010). *English Language Learning amongst students from China: Comparing their experiences in Japan and Singapore*, Master Thesis submitted to the Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, September 2010.
- Anderson, L.E. (1994). "A new look at an old construct: Cross-culture adaptation". *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 18(3), pp. 293-328.
- Arnett, J. J. (2002). The psychology of globalization. *American psychology*, 57(10), pp. 774-83.
- Asaoka and Yano, (2009). "The Contribution of "Study Abroad" Programs to Japanese Internationalization", *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13(2), pp. 174-188.
- Ayano, M., (2006). "Japanese students in Britain". In Michael Byram and Anwei Feng (Eds), *Living and Studying Abroad: Research and Practice*, pp. 11-37. Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

- Baker, S.E. and Edwards, R. (2012) How many qualitative interviews is enough. Discussion Paper. Retrieved from <http://eprints.ncrm.ac.uk/2273/> on 01 May 2013.
- Bakhtin, M. M. (1981). *The Dialogic Imagination: Four Essays* (C. Emerson and M. Holquist, trans.) Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.
- Bakhtin, M. M. (1984). *Problems of Dostoevsky's Poetics* (C. Emerson, ed. and trans.) Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.
- Bakhtin, M. M. (1986). *Speech Genres and Other Late Essays* (V. McGee, trans.) Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.
- Ballard, B. (1987). "Academic adjustment: The other side of the export dollars". *Higher Education Research and Development*, 6(2), pp. 109-119.
- Barker, M., Chiled, C., Gallois, C. Jones and V. Callan, (1991). "Difficulties of international students in social and academic situation". *Australia Journal of Psychology*, 43(2), pp. 79-84.
- Berry, H. A. (2002). The Global voices: Is U.S. higher education listening? *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, Winter, 8, pp. 231-237. Retrieved from <http://www.frontiersjournal.com/issues/vol8/index.htm> on December 04, 2012.
- Berry, J. W. (1990). Psychology of acculturation: Understanding individuals moving between cultures. In R. Brislin (Ed.), *Applied Cross-Cultural Psychology*, pp. 232-253. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Biggs, J.B. (1991). "Approaches to learning in secondary and tertiary students in Hong Kong: Some comparative Studies". *Educational Research Journal*, 6, pp. 27-39.
- Bourdieu, P. (1977). The economics of linguistic exchange. *Social Science Information*, 16(6), pp. 645-68.
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and Symbolic Power*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bradley, W.S. (2003). The Dialectic of Internationalization and Globalization in Japanese Universities, pp. 2-4 Retrieved from

- http://citation.allacademic.com/meta/p_mla_apa_research_citation/1/0/9/2/3/pages109233/p109233-20.php on 2 April, 2013.
- Brein, M., and David, K. H. (1971). Intercultural communication and the adjustment of the sojourner. *Psychological Bulletin*, 76(3), pp. 215-230.
- Brockington, J. L., Hoffa, W. W., and Martin, P. C. (eds.) (2005) *NAFSA's Guide to Education Abroad for Advisors and Administrators* (3rd ed). Washington, DC: NAFSA Association of International Educators.
- Burn, B.B. (Ed.) (1991). *Integrating study abroad into the undergraduate liberal arts curriculum: Eight institutional case studies*. New York: Greenwood Press.
- Carlson, J., Burn, B.B., Useem, J., and Yachimowicz, D. (1990). *Study Abroad: The experience of American undergraduates*. New York: Greenwood Press.
- Church, A., T. (1982). Sojourner adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 91(3), pp. 540-572.
- Citron, J., and Kline, R. (2001). From experience to experiential education. *International Educator*, Fall 10(4), pp. 18-26.
- Coleman, J.A. (1998). "Language learning and study abroad: the European perspective". *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, IV, 167-203. Retrieved from http://www.frontiersjournal.com/issues/vol4/vol4-07_Coleman.pdf on December 10, 2012.
- Collentine, J. and Freed, B.F. (2004). "Learning context and its effects on second language acquisition". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26 (2), pp. 153-71.
- Cortazzi, M and L. Jin, (1997). "Communication for learning across cultures". In McNamara, D. and R. Harris (Eds.), *Overseas Students in Higher Education*, pp. 76-90. London: Routledge.
- Creswell, J. (2005). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*, (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Davie, J. (1996). "Language skills, course development, and the year abroad". *Language Learning Journal*, 13, pp. 73-76.

- Davis, T. M. (2003). *Atlas of Student Mobility*. New York: Institution of International Education.
- De Ley, H. (1975). Organized programs of study in France: Some contributions of stranger theory. *The French Review*, April, 48(5), pp. 836-847.
- de Nooy, J., and Hanna, B.E. (2003). Cultural information gathering by Australian students in France. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 3(1), pp. 64-80.
- Denzin, N. K., and Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (1998). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and Education*. New York: Macmillan.
- Dwyer, M. M. (2004a). Charting the impact of study abroad. *International Educator*, 13(1), pp. 14-20.
- Dwyer, M. M., and Peters, C. K. (2004). "The benefits of study abroad". *Transitions Abroad*, 27(5), pp. 56-67. Retrieved from http://www.transitionsabroad.com/publications/magazine/0403/benefits_study_abroad.shtml on December 12, 2012.
- Eide, I. (Ed.) (1970). *Students as links between cultures*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Freed, B.F. (1998). "An overview of issues and research in language learning in a study abroad setting". *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 4, pp. 31-60, Retrieved from http://www.frontiersjournal.com/issues/vol4/vol4-02_Freed.pdf on December 10, 2012.
- Freed, B.F. (Ed.). (1995). "Language learning and study abroad": In B.F. Freed (ed.), *Second Language Acquisition in a Study Abroad Context*, pp. 3-33. Amsterdam: John Benjamins
- Furnham, A. (1988). The adjustment of sojourners. In Y. Y. Kim and W. B. Gudykunst(Eds.), *Cross-cultural adaptation. Current Approaches*, pp. 42-61. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Furnham, A. (1993). Communicating in foreign lands: The cause, consequences and cures of culture shock. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 6(1), pp. 91-109.

- Furnham, A. (1997). "The experience of being an overseas student". In McNamara, D. and R. Harris (Eds.), *Overseas Students in Higher Education*, pp. 13-29. London: Routledge.
- Furnham, A., and Bochner, S. (1986). *Culture shock. Psychological reactions to unfamiliar environments*. New York: Routledge.
- Gardner, R.C. and MacIntyre, P.D. (1993). 'A student's contribution to second language learning, part II: Affective variables. *Language Teaching*, 26(1), pp. 1-11.
- Guide to Transcribing, 2013, Retrieved from http://www.google.co.jp/#rlz=1R2SMSN_enSG360&q=sic+and+transcription&spell=1&sa=X&ei=g8-UUZzLJ8nJkQXkvIGQBA&ved=0CCYQvwUoAA&bav=on.2,or.&bvm=bv.46471029,d.dGI&fp=d7df493ff14106da&biw=1117&bih=491on 16 May 2013.
- Habu, T., (2000). The irony of globalization: The experience of Japanese women in British higher education, January, 39(1), pp 43-66. Retrieved from <http://link.springer.com/article/10.1023%2FA%3A1003807009463?LI=true> on February 24, 2013.
- Harris, R. (1997). "Overseas students in the United Kingdom University System: A perspective from social work". In McNamara, D. and R. Harris (Eds.), *Overseas Students in Higher Education*, pp. 30-45. London: Routledge.
- Hatch, A. J. (2002). *Doing qualitative research in education setting*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Hayashi, S. (2000). "Study abroad and change of self: An interview study of vocational school students". *Jinbun Ronso*: Bulletin of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Mie University of Japan, 17, pp. 59-83.
- Herman, S. N., and Schild, E. O. (1961). "The Stranger-group in a cross-cultural situation". *Sociometry*, 24(2), pp. 165-176.
- Ichimoto T. (2000). *Globalization, Higher Education, and the Re-creation of Japanese Femininity*. Paper presented at The Australian Association for Research in Education (AARE) - Sydney: at The University of Sydney, Australia, from 4th - 7th

- December, 2000. Retrieved from <http://www.aare.edu.au/00pap/ich00042.htm> on December 04, 2012.
- Jackson, J., (2008). Language, Identity and Study Abroad: Social Perspectives. Studies in Applied Linguistics, pp. 1, 10, 11, 15-16, 19-20, 22-25, 32-33. UK: Equinox Publishing Ltd., London.
- Japan Trends and Developments, 2013. Retrieved from http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/forum2010/documents/JAPAN_recent_trends_and_developments.pdf on December 2012.
- Japan Times, OPINION, A world beyond the United States of America now beckons Japanese youth, January 03, 2010. Retrieved from [japantimes.co.jp](http://www.japantimes.co.jp), Japan Times, (2010). January 03, 2010. Retrieved from <http://www.japantimes.co.jp/opinion/2010/01/03/commentary/a-world-beyond-the-united-states-now-beckons-japanese-youth/#.UVkh21cf4eN> on 1 April, 2013.
- Japan Times, OPINION, Students Staying in Japan, Retrieved from [japantimes.co.jp](http://www.japantimes.co.jp), Japan Times, (2012). November 18, 2012 <http://www.japantimes.co.jp/opinion/2012/11/18/editorials/students-staying-in-japan/#.UVrB9qV0xmng> on 2 April, 2013.
- Japan Today, Number of Japanese studying abroad down; foreign students in Japan rising. Retrieved from japantoday.com, Japan Today, (2010), December 29, 2010 http://jalthokkaido.net/pdf/No_of_Japanese_studying_abroad_down.pdf and <http://www.japantoday.com/category/national/view/no-of-japanese-studying-abroad-down-foreign-students-in-japan-rising> on 29 March 2013.
- Jolley, A. (1997). Exporting Education to Asia. Melbourne: Victoria University Press.
- Jurasek, R. T. (1991). Earlham College: Connecting off-campus and on-campus learning. In B. Burn (Ed.), Integrating Study Abroad into the Undergraduate Liberal Arts Curriculum, pp. 7-29. New York: Greenwood Press.
- Kitao, S. K. (1993). Preparation for and results of a short-term overseas study program in the United States of America. Bulletin of the Institute of Interdisciplinary Studies of Culture, March, 10, pp. 107-118.

- Kolb D.A. (1984) 'Experiential Learning experience as a source of learning and development', New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Lafford, B.A. (1995). "Getting into, through and out of a survival situation: A comparison of communicative strategies used by students studying Spanish abroad and 'at home'". In B.F. Freed (ed.), *Second Language Acquisition in a Study Abroad Context*, pp. 97-121. Philadelphia: John Benjamins
- Lapkins, S., Hart, D. and Swain, M. (1995). "A Canadian interprovincial exchange: Evaluating the linguistic impact of a three-month stay in Quebec". In B.F. Freed (ed.), *Second Language Acquisition in a Study Abroad Context*, pp. 67-94. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Layder, D. (1997). *Modern Social Theory: Key Debates and New Directions*. London: UCL Press.
- Levy, D. (2000). The Shock of the strange, the shock of the familiar: Learning from study abroad. *Journal for the National Collegiate Honors Council*, Spring-Summer, 1(1), pp. 75-83.
- Lincicome, M. (1999). "Nationalism, imperialism, and the international education movement in early twentieth-century Japan". *The Journal of Asian Studies*, 58(2), PP. 338-360.
- Luke, A., and Luke, C. (2000). A Situated Perspective on Cultural Globalization. In Burbules, N.
- Lutterman-Aguilar, A., and Gingerich, O. (2002). Experiential pedagogy for study abroad: Educating for global citizenship. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, Winter, 8, pp. 41-82. Retrieved from <http://www.frontiersjournal.com/issues/vol8/index.htm> on December 03, 2012.
- Marshall, C., and Rossman, G. B. (2006). *Designing qualitative research* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Mary M. K., (2006). *Globalization and Internationalization of Tertiary Education*. Final Report submitted to the United Nations Population Division, Population and Development Program and Polson Institute for Global Development. Cornell

- University, Ithaca, New York, August 21, 2006. Retrieved from http://www.un.org/esa/population/migration/turin/Symposium_Turin_files/P02KRI_TZ_Rev3_Augst21.pdf on February 24, 2013.
- McConnell, D.L. (2000). "Importing Diversity: Inside Japan's JET Program". Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- McLeod M. and Wainwright P., (2009). "Researching the Study Abroad Experience": *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13(1), pp. 66-71.
- McNamara, T. (1997). Theorizing social identity: what do we mean by social identity? Competing frameworks, competing discourses. *TESOL Quarterly* 31(3), pp. 561-76.
- Meara, P. (1994). "The year abroad and its effects". *Language Learning Journal*, 10, pp. 32-38.
- Melton, M.D. (1990). 'Bridging the cultural gap: A study of Chinese student's learning style preferences'. *RELC Journal*, 21(1), pp. 29-54.
- Mendelson, V. G. (2004). "Hindsight is 20/20:' Student perceptions of language learning and the study abroad experience". *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, Fall, 10, pp. 44-63. Retrieved from <http://www.frontiersjournal.com/issues/vol10/index.htm> on 23 December 2012.
- Miller, E. J. (1993) Culture shock: A student's perspective of study abroad and the important of promoting study abroad programs. Presented at the 10th Annual Intercultural and International Communication Conference, Miami, FL. February, pp. 25-27.
- Nash, D., and Tarr, R. (1976). "The stranger group in an overseas study". *The French Review*, February, 49(3), pp. 366-373.
- Oberg, K (1960). "Culture shock: Adjustment to new cultural environment". *Practical Anthropology*, 7, pp. 177-182.
- OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) (2007). *Education at a Glance*. Paris: OECD Centre for Educational Research and Innovation. Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/4/55/39313286.pdf> on 03 December 2012.

- Open Door Fact Sheet: Japan, 2013, Retrieved from <http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/Fact-Sheets-by-Country/2012> on 29 March 2013.
- Orahood, T., Kruze, L., and Pearson, D. E. (2004). "The Impact of study abroad on business students' career goals". *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, Fall, 10, pp. 117-130. Retrieved from <http://www.frontiersjournal.com/issues/vol10/index.htm> on November 14, 2012.
- Oxford, R.L. (1993). 'Research on second language learning strategies'. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistic*, 13, pp. 175-183.
- Paige, M. (1990). International students. Cross-cultural psychological perspectives. In R. Brislin (Ed.), *Applied cross-cultural psychology*. Newbury Park, California: Sage.
- Patron, Marie-Claire. (2007). Culture and Identity in Study Abroad Context: after Australia, French without France, pp. 16-18, 20-21. Peter Lang.
- Pedersen, P. (1995). *The five stages of culture shock: Critical incidents around the world*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Pica, T. (1994). "Review article: Research on negotiation: What does it reveal about second language learning conditions, processes and outcomes?". *Language Learning* 44(3), pp. 493-527.
- Pratt, M. G., Rockmann, K., & Kaufmann, J. 2006. Constructing professional identity: The role of work and identity learning cycles in the customization of identity among medical residents. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49, pp. 235–262.
- Pratt, M.G. (2009) From the Editors. For the lack of a boilerplate: Tips on writing up (and reviewing) qualitative research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(5), pp. 856–862. Retrieved from http://journals.aomonline.org/amj/editorials/Pratt_Oct%202009.PDF on 01 May 2013.
- Rhoades, G. and Smart, D. (1996). The Political Economy of Entrepreneurial Culture in Higher Education: Policies toward Foreign Students in Australia and the United States of America. In Kempner and Tierney (Eds.), *The Social Role of Higher*

- Education: Comparative Perspectives, pp.125-159. New York and London: Garland Publishing, Inc.
- Ruhter McMillian, A., and Opem, G. (2004). "Study abroad: A lifetime of benefits". *Abroad View Magazine*, 6(2), pp. 58, 60-61. Retrieved from http://www.abroadviewmagazine.com/archives/spring_04/study.html on October 01, 2012.
- Ryan, S. (2006). Language learning motivations within the contexts of globalization: an L2 self within an imagined global community. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies: An International Journal* 3(1), pp. 23-45.
- Sanchez, C. M., Fornerin, M., and Zhang, M. (2006). Motivation and the intent to study abroad among U.S., French and Chinese students. *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, 18(1), 27-52.
- Segalowitz, N. and Freed B.F. (2004). "Context, contact and cognition in oral fluency acquisition: Learning Spanish at home" and "study abroad" context". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26(2), pp. 173-199.
- Smith, B., (1956). Attitudes and adjustment in cross-cultural contact: Recent studies of foreign students. *The Journal of Social Issues*, 12 (1).
- Spencer, S.E., and Hoffa, B. (2002). Duration of the study abroad sojourn. Retrieved from <http://opendoors.iienetwork.org/?p=25198> on March 10, 2005.
- Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Stevens, M. (1998). Theorizing Gender, Power and Modernity in Affluent Asia. In Sen, K., and Steven, M. (Eds.), *Gender and Power in Affluent Asia*, pp.1-34, London and New York: Routledge.
- Sugiyama, Y., (1992). "Internal and external aspects of internationalization". In G.D. Hook and M.A Weiner (Eds.), *The Internationalization of Japan*. London: Routledge.
- The Daily Yomiuri, Number of overseas students hits 109,500. Retrieved from citation.allacademic.com, The Daily Yomiuri. November. 12, 2003. In Bradley, W.S. (2003). *The Dialectic of Internationalization and Globalization in Japanese Universities*, pp. 2-4 Retrieved from

- http://citation.allacademic.com/meta/p_mla_apa_research_citation/1/0/9/2/3/pages109233/p109233-20.php on 2 April, 2013.
- The Ministry of Justice*, Immigration Control Office, (2001)
- Ting-Toomey and Chung, (2005). *Understanding Intercultural Communication*. Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury Publishing Co.
- Tomich P. J.J. McWhirter and W.E. King, (2000). "International student adaptation: critical variables". *International Education* 29(2), pp. 37-46
- Tsang, E.W.K. (2001). "Adjustment of mainland Chinese academics and students to Singapore". *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 25, pp. 347-372.
- UNESCO (1996). *Statistical Yearbook*. Paris: UNESCO Publishing and Bernan Press.
- Valentine, S., and Mosley, G. (2000). Acculturation and sex-role attitudes among Mexican Americans: A longitudinal analysis. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 22(1), pp. 104-113.
- Volet, S. and P. Renshaw, (1996). "Chinese Students at an Australian university: Adaptability and continuity". In Watkins, D. A. and J. B. Biggs (Eds.), *The Chinese Learner: Cultural psychology and contextual influences*, Hong Kong and Melbourne: Comparative Education Research Center and the Australian Council for Education Research, pp. 205-220.
- Ward, C., Bochner, S and Furnham, A. (2001). *The Psychology of Culture Shock*. London: Routledge.
- Ward, C. and A. Kennedy, (1993). "Psychological and socio-cultural adjustment during cross-cultural transitions: A comparison of secondary students overseas and at home". *International Journal of Psychology*, 28(2), pp. 129-140.
- Webster, 2013. Retrieved from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/sojourners> on 10 April 2013.
- Weinmann, S., and Bragg, J. M. B. (1993). Optimizing the international experience through a pre-departure orientation and a re-entry workshop. Paper presented at the 12th Annual Eastern Michigan University Conference on Language and Communication for World Business and the Professions, Ypsilanti, MI, from, 1st

- 3rd April 1993. Retrieved on December 20, 2012 from http://etd.lsu.edu/docs/available/etd-03232010-164719/unrestricted/Schroth_diss.pdf.
- Wenden, A.L. (1991). *Learner Strategies for language learning*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Wilkinson, S. (1998a). "Study abroad from the participants' perspective: A challenge to common beliefs". *Foreign Language Annals*, Spring 31(1), pp. 23-39.
- Wilkinson, S. (1998b). "On the nature of immersion during study abroad: Some participant perspectives". *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, Fall 4, pp. 121-138. Retrieved from http://www.frontiersjournal.com/issues/vol4/vol4-05_Wilkinson.pdf on December 10, 2012.
- Wood, P. (1986). *Inside schools: Ethnography in educational research*. New York: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Wright, C. (1997). "Gender matters, access, welfare, teaching and learning". In McNamara, D. and R. Harris (Eds.), *Overseas Student in Higher Education*, pp. 91-107. London: Routledge.
- Yonezawa A. (2009). "The Internationalization of Japanese Higher Education: Policy Debates and Realities", Center for the Advancement of Higher Education, Tohoku University, .9, pp. 199-219. Retrieved from <http://www.cshe.nagoya-u.ac.jp/publications/journal/no9/13.pdf> on March 04 2013.
- Yonezawa A., Hiroko A. and Daisuke H., (2009). "Japanese University Leader's Perceptions of Internationalization: The Role of Government in Review and Support". *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13(2), pp. 125-142.
- Zhang, L.J., (2000). 'Uncovering Chinese ESL students', reading anxiety in a study-abroad context, *Asia Pacific Journal of Language Education*, 3(2).

WEBSITES, NEWSPAPERS & DISSERTATIONS

UH, 2013

Retrieved from, <http://www.uhm.hawaii.edu/about/> on June 15 2013

UBC, 2013

Retrieved from, <http://www.ubc.ca/> on June 15 2013

SMU, 2013

Retrieved from, <http://smu.edu.sg/smu/about/university-information/history> and <http://smu.edu.sg/smu/about/university-information/quick-facts> on June 15 2013

Fullbright, 2004, Retrieved from, <http://www.fulbright.jp> on March 29 2013.

Fullbright, 2004a, Retrieved from, <http://www.fulbright.jp/pub/ar2004.swf> on March 29 2013.

NewsBCC, Abe vows to rebuild economy. Retrieved from newsbcc.com, The NewsBCC. January 3, 2013. Retrieved from http://www.newsbcc.com/Israel/Business/Abe_vows_to_rebuild_economy/333862/ on 2 April, 2013.

Nippon, Your Doorway to Japan, Japanese Society Needs a Truly Global Approach. Inward-looking Young People Are Not the Problem. Retrieved from, nippon.com The Nippon (2012), July 17, 2012 <http://www.nippon.com/en/genre/society/100028/>, on 29 March 2013.

The New York Times, More Young Japanese Heading Abroad to Study. Retrieved from nytimes.com, The New York Times (2013), March 24, 2013 <http://www.nytimes.com/2013/03/25/world/asia/25iht-educside25.html?pagewanted=all> on 24 May 2013.

The Urban Dictionary, 2013. Retrieved from urbandictionary.com, <http://www.urbandictionary.com/define.php?term=sic> on 16 May 2013.

The Uni International. MEXT Go, 2013. Retrieved from <http://www.uni.international.mext.go.jp/event/20110903/> on December 2012.

The Universities News, Japan: 40 universities could receive 5-year grants. Retrieved from universitiesnews.com, The Universities News., March 26, 2012. Retrieved from <http://www.universitiesnews.com/2012/03/26/japan-40-universities-could-receive-5-year-grants/> on June 8 2013.

APPENDIX A

The learning of Japanese students in study abroad contexts

Dear Student,

I am studying about Japanese students going to the University of Hawaii at Manoa, University of British Columbia and Singapore Management University on study abroad programs. I am learn about study abroad impacts on Japanese students. I am learn about all the things Japanese students learn both within the class and outside the class.

This study is done as part of my Doctoral degree research at the Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan. When you answer the questions, please remember that there is no right or wrong answers. Please answer according to what you feel.

I will not use your name in my final research. I will be only using the combined information from all the Japanese students I am planning to interview in Singapore, Hawaii, Canada and Japan.

Your kind help and cooperation will be useful to complete the study. The study will help understand the benefits that Japanese students gain when they go abroad study English or other subjects at English using countries.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Marystella Amaldas,
Doctoral Student
Graduate School of Asia Pacific Studies,
Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan.
Marystella Amaldas
E-mail: doma10@apu.ac.jp

The learning of Japanese students in study abroad contexts

CONSENT FORM

Dear Marystella,

I agree to participate in the interview for the above study.

Name: _____

University:

(Please Sign)

Date: _____

Interview Guide Questions for In-depth Interviews

Individual Japanese Sojourners (UH, UBC and SMU)

Pre- Sojourning Experiences

1. Tell me something about yourself.
2. What was your English language background before go for this exchange program?
3. What Home University Experience, English Education Background at Home University and Career Goals did you have prior to your exchange?
4. What were your motivations and expectations on this exchange program
5. What were your foreign interest and prior abroad experience
6. What Pre-Departure Orientation did you have at Home University?
7. Sojourner Preparation (Motivation, Choice and Preparation for Study Abroad).

Sojourning Experiences

1. What was your impression about your host country?
2. What were your cultural perceptions about your host country?
3. What cultural adjustment had you to do to fit yourself into the host society?
4. Tell me about your exchange experience.
 - Personal Experience
 - Self-Assessment of Learning
 - Expectation for Future
5. What personal activities and development did you have while you were studying abroad?
6. What are your experiences with your host family?

Post Sojourning Experiences

1. What are your post-sojourning perceptions?
2. What were your overall reactions to the program?
3. Has your life perceptions changed after having been abroad?
4. What are your future directions and goals?

Thank you for your participation and cooperation.

APPENDIX B

Consent to Participate in the Focus Group Discussion

The learning of Japanese students in study abroad contexts

Investigator

This study will be conducted by Marystella Amaldas, a Doctoral Student at the College of Asia Pacific Studies at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University.

Invitation to Participate and Purpose

You are invited to kindly participate in the group discussion and contribute your views. Thank you for taking time out of your busy schedule to consider participation.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this discussion is completely voluntary and you may withdraw any time during the process. If you choose to do so, any information from your participation will not be used.

Methods/Procedures

The methods of data collection used in this study will be group discussion. The sessions will be audio-taped, and the audio-tapes transcribed, to ensure accurate reporting. Transcribers will sign a form stating that they will not discuss any item on the tape with anyone other than the researchers. No one's name will be asked or revealed during the focus groups or individual interviews. However, should another participant call you by name, the transcriber will be instructed to remove all names from the transcription. The audio-tapes will be stored in locked files before and after being transcribed. Tapes will be destroyed within 2 weeks of completing the transcriptions and the transcriptions will be destroyed 3 years after the completion of this evaluation.

Confidentiality

If you choose to participate, you will not be asked your name at the focus group or individual interview. You will not need to use your name in the focus groups or individual interviews. If by chance, you or someone you know addresses you by name in the sessions, the transcriber will be instructed to delete all names from the transcription.

You will be asked at the end of the interview or focus group if there is anything you said which you do not want included as a quote, and we will ensure that they are not used.

Risks and Inconveniences

There are no anticipated physical risks to participants. Focus group members will be asked to keep the information provided in the groups confidential.

Benefits

A potential benefit of participating in this research for you could be having an opportunity to describe your experience with this Project with others who have shared the experience. The study will be useful to future students who go abroad for their study as well as for the universities that send them and host them.

Questions

If you have any questions about this study at any time, you may contact Marystella Amaldas a Doctoral Student in the College of Asia Pacific Studies at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University or you may contact her through e-mail address doma@apu.ac.jp

She will be happy to answer any of your questions.

Authorization

You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep for your records.

Once again, we thank you for taking time out of your busy schedule to participate in this research.

Printed Name of the Participant _____

Signature of the Participant _____

Date _____

Printed Name of the Investigator _____

Signature of the Investigator _____

Interview Guide Questions for Focus Group Interview

Japanese Sojourners (UH, UBC and SMU)

Pre- Sojourning Experiences

1. Background

- How old are you?
- Gender.
- Languages Spoken.
- Which part of Japan do you come from?
- Tell me something about your family, friends and hobbies?

2. Pre-Departure Preparation

- How did you prepare for the exchange program?
- In what ways did your family and friends help with the preparation?

3. Home University Orientation

- How did your home university prepare you for your exchange program?
- What kind of information was given to you?
- How useful was the information for your exchange program?

4. Motivation for Study Abroad

- What were your motivations to go on this exchange program?

Sojourning Experiences

5. Host Country

- What were your impressions, challenges and adjustments you had to make in order to fit into the new environment?

6. Learning

- In what ways, were the classes in your home university different from the host university?
- How did you contact your family and friends outside of your host country?

7. Host Family

- How were your experiences with your host family?

8. Language

- What strategies did you use to improve your English language abilities?
- What other local languages, culture (people, food and festivals and fashion) and identity did you learn on your host country setting?

Post Sojourning Experiences

9. Others

- What are your perceptions about the exchange program upon completion?
- What are your plans for your future?

Thank you for your participation and cooperation.