
Overseas Programs at NUCB-Challenges and Tasks for the Future

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Abstract

The present paper discusses the attitude discrepancies between the students who participate in overseas programs and those without such experience, and also offers insight into the possible long-term influence of short overseas programs in changing students' attitudes and behaviors. As Perry pointed out, mental development during the college years is a lengthy and complex process, which unfolds progressively in nine stages, although it may or may not achieve full completion by the end of the four-year period. The progress may also be reversed, deflected or delayed by a number of factors (Perry 1970). In our study we assume that overseas experience continues to contribute to students' affective and cognitive development even after its conclusion. Our findings reveal a low motivation of non-English majors to enroll in overseas programs, as well as little knowledge of, and interest in international matters in general. The results also suggest that, in order to increase the number of participants, it is necessary to stimulate the curiosity and cultural awareness of students and further develop the skills acquired during their overseas stay.

1. Introduction

There are a number of rationales for internationalization in higher education, which supposes the integration of "an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions" of institutions of higher education (Knight 1993 p.21). As Knight pointed out,

Internationalization of higher education is one of the ways a country responds to the impact of globalization yet, at the same time respects the individuality of the nation (Knight 1997 p.6).

The reasons for internationalization may be political, economic, academic, cultural or social (Qiang 2003). In Japan, preserving the national culture and identity, and sustaining and enhancing the country's competitiveness have been the country's most important strategies for coping with the challenges of globalization. Moreover, the decreasing student population has thrown Japanese universities in a heated competition for survival, and forced them to start considering changing their curricula to cater to the specific needs and requirements of internationalization and quality assurance. We can therefore talk about something which Teichler calls 'internationalization for survival' (Teichler 1999).

Qiang distinguishes a number of elements that are conducive to internationalization in higher education, among which student exchange programs and work and study abroad programs are two important ele-

ments of the internationalization of academic programs (Qiang 2003, p.258). They are thought to contribute to developing students' intercultural competence, which includes, according to Deardorff, respect for cultural differences, experience of other cultures and awareness of one's own culture (Deardorff 2006), and also entails the "ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations" (Deardorff 2004, p.194).

With a rapidly decreasing youth population, Japan is currently facing the dilemma of having to revitalize its economy or give way to more competitive rivals such as China and South Korea. The country needs so-called "global people" (*global jinzai*), people with global competence, who possess the skills and an open mindset, which would enable them to function effectively in a multicultural environment. Education should emphasize more the role of international exchanges in raising the global leaders of tomorrow. Unfortunately, little has been done in terms of encouraging younger generations to adopt a more positive attitude towards the world. The problem lays in the inner-looking stance of the Japanese Ministry of Education (MEXT), which reflects the two-faceted attitude of the Japanese leaders regarding internationalization, which, on the one hand, regards it as a necessity to master English and cope with the complex challenges of an increasingly interdependent world (Lincicome 2009), and on the other, continues to view Japan as a completely separate entity from the rest of the world, due to the uniqueness of its traditional culture (Kubota 1999, Hinenoya & Gatbonton 2000). MEXT's initiatives of attracting foreign students to Japan may have an economic rationale of securing cheap qualified labor (Johnston 2011); however, the efforts towards sending more Japanese students abroad have been less substantial and convincing. As a result, the numbers of Japanese students studying at universities abroad has dropped to the lowest in Asia, below China, India and South Korea (OECD, cited in MEXT 2010). Asaoka and Yano (2009) identify several causes for the low participation of students in international exchange programs. One of these is the Japanese university system, which fails to recognize the credits obtained abroad, and makes it difficult for students to spend time abroad because of the pressure of job search, which oftentimes begins at the end of the third year. Another cause is the insufficient support system offered by universities. Teachers and administrative staff do not motivate their students enough so that they want to go abroad, or universities lack the qualified support for those who are willing. Next, there is little governmental support or recognition from Japanese industries for those with a history of study abroad. Finally, the specific traits of Japanese students of being easily discouraged by the language barrier, or being reluctant to get out of their comfort zone and take up new challenges may also negatively influence their participation in overseas programs.

2. The case of the 'thirstless horse' - participants vs. non-participants.

Overseas programs are thought to benefit their participants from personal and professional standpoints. Students who went abroad to study or travel during their university years were found to be more mature and better rounded individuals, with a broader understanding of the world in general and more open attitude towards other cultures (Van Hoof & Verbeeten 2005). Overseas programs may also "foster self-learning and self awareness among participants" (Dirkx, Jessup Anger et al. 2006 p.3). Moreover, students get to be more aware of their own cultural identity, and of the image of their country in the world (Dolby 2004 p.150). Some authors suggest that overseas programs and international exchanges may even contribute to a qualitative improvement of university education, by promoting diversity among students and professors and helping reform an education system based on heredity or a high degree of homogeneity, like the Japanese one (Kida 1981). As shown in Table 1, outgoing opportunities for students is the second priority that higher education institutions need to consider for internationalization.

Table 1. Ranking of elements for internationalization in higher education.

Ordinate ranking	Element of Internationalization Policy/Strategy
1	International institutional agreements/networks
2	Outgoing mobility opportunities for students
3	International research collaboration
4	Outgoing mobility opportunities for faculty/staff
5	Visiting international scholars
6	International dimension of curriculum
7	Area studies, foreign language, internationally focused courses
8	International development projects
9	Recruitment of fee-paying foreign students
10	Joint/double/dual degrees
11	Recruitment of foreign faculty/researchers
12	International/inter-cultural extra curricular activities
13	Recruitment of non-fee paying foreign students
14	Liaison with community based cultural and international groups
15	Distance education
16	Delivery of education programs abroad
17	Establishment of branch campuses abroad

Source: Knight, J. *Internationalization of Higher Education: New Directions, New Challenges*. 2005 IAU Global Survey Report, International Association of Universities, IAU, 2006.

On the other hand, some critics of overseas programs in general, and those in Japanese higher education point out that, besides their marketing value of attracting prospective students, their positive effects fade away with the passing of time (Paige et al. 2009, Walker 2005). In addition, other authors suggest that, in addition to prolonging the time students have to spend in university, overseas experiences do not necessarily guarantee a higher paid job after graduation (Messer & Wolter 2007). The latter may be one of the reasons why, in recent years, the numbers of Japanese students studying abroad have decreased considerably (Nae & Fraysse-Kim 2012a and 2012b, Yoshikata 2011, Ikeda 2011, Tanikawa 2011). Others include personal (lack of language skills, costs, failure to secure a job on time, lack of interest), as well as institutional motives (lack of encouragement from teachers and administration, no clear objectives or lack of clear outcomes and advantages for job seekers) (Asaoka & Yano 2009, Tabuchi 2012).

2.1. Hypotheses

The present study aims at identifying the differences of attitude regarding the students' own selves, their country and other countries, and people, among three groups: the participants of NUCB overseas programs (the "before" cohort), the participants of NUCB overseas programs (the "after" cohort) and the non-participants (the NPs). We assumed that the effectiveness of overseas programs should result in a change in the participants' attitudes. Again, given the relative homogeneity of our student body at NUCB, we aimed to gauge the similarities and discrepancies in the attitudes of the participants (before departure) and those of the non-participants. Finally, assuming that our results showed a significant change of the students' views after their overseas experience, we wanted to measure the extent of change in the returnees' attitudes and

compare it to their non-participant peers. We formulated the following hypotheses:

H1: $B \neq A$

H2: $B \cong NP$

H3: $A \neq NP$

Hypothesis 1: $B \neq A$ - The responses of the “before” (B) cohort differ from those of the “after cohort” (A).

Hypothesis 2: $B \cong NP$ - The responses of the “before” cohort (B) are almost similar to those of the “non-participant” cohort (N).

Hypothesis 3: $A \neq NP$ - The responses of the “after” cohort (A) differ from those of the “non-participant” cohort (NP).

2.2. Methodology

We used a paper questionnaire aimed at identifying the changes that occurred in the students’ views of themselves, their native country and foreign countries and people (Nae & Fraysse Kim 2012a). The survey was organized around four main sections: demographics, self-perception, national, and international perception. The questionnaire contains forty questions, which are Likert-scale, multiple choice and open-ended types. The questionnaire was administered one time each for every cohort.

2.3. Participants

As seen in Table 2 below, we compared the results obtained from the three cohorts. Most of the participants were students from the Department of Communication (English majors), whereas more than half of the non-participants were from the Department of Management. Also, almost half of the participants chose to go abroad during their second year (48%) as opposed to only 4% in the fourth year, which is decisive for earning credits and job seeking. More than half of the non-participants did not have previous overseas experience.

Table 2. Demographics, academic and program characteristics of the sample (n=366, %=student percentage)

		Participants (n=217: Before=108 After=109)	Non-Participants (n=149)
1. Department	Management	14%	56%
	Economics	4%	17%
	Commerce	13%	22%
	Communication	69%	5%
2. Grade	1 st	22%	30%
	2 nd	48%	20%
	3 rd	26%	42%
	4 th	4%	8%
3. Gender	Male	45%	83%
	Female	55%	17%
4. Overseas experience	Yes	100%	38%
	No	0%	62%

2.4. Data collection

We compared the three independent data sets comprised of the students' responses before and after the completion of their overseas program, and the non-participant students' responses. We obtained a total of 217 responses from the participants (108 before and 109 after), and 149 responses from non-participants.

2.5. Analysis and statistical outcomes

In our analysis we used statistical methods to gauge the students' responses to the Likert-scale items corresponding to the respondents' self, national, and international perception scale. The scale ranges in value from 1 to 5, with scores under 3 representing increasing favorable perception. The scale ranges are (1) Strongly agree, (2) Agree, (3) Neutral, (4) Disagree, and (5) Strongly disagree.

According to the type of question, two kinds of statistical means were employed to compare the effects of the overseas experiences upon the participants' attitudes before and after the program, as well as the attitudes of the non-participant cohort. The result presentations are thus divided into two sections.

1. Questions of interval variable using the 5-point Likert scale data, and those with multiple-choice items (questions 17 and 18)¹ were subjected to a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to identify whether the average values differ significantly across the three groups. When the difference between means was significant, post-hoc multiple comparisons using the Scheffe post hoc criterion were conducted, in order to identify the group that makes the difference (marked with "!"). A table of means, standard deviations, F values and levels of significance was produced (see Appendix).
2. Questions with categorical variables were subjected to a chi-square test of independence per each item to verify whether there was a statistically significant association between the choices (preferences) of response and cohorts. When a chi-square value was significant, residual analysis and Cramer's contingency coefficient² were performed in order to determine the strength of association. The results of the adjusted standardized residuals analysis of each item are tabled (see Appendix).

2.6. Discussion of results

In our previous papers (Nae & Fraysse Kim 2011a and 2012a), in which we analyzed the responses of the "before" and "after" cohorts only, we found that, out of the total of 40 questions, there was only one statistically significant difference between the two cohorts, suggesting that the effectiveness of overseas programs was limited, due to low participation and brevity. A comparison between participants and non-participants, however, yielded a number of significant results (see Appendix Table 1), which we will discuss according to their specific sections in the survey.

I. The perception of self

60% of the total number of ten questions in this section yielded significantly different responses from the non-participants (NPs). Compared to the other cohorts, the NPs tend to see themselves as less assertive,

¹ In these items, the students were asked to choose as many responses as possible from the ones provided, and the number of responses was counted.

² Chi-square indicates that there is a significant relationship between variables, but it does not say just how significant and important this is. Cramer's V (Cr) is a post-test to give this additional information. The value varies between 0 and 1. Close to 0 means that it shows little association between variables. Close to 1 indicates a strong association. (http://changingminds.org/explanations/research/analysis/cramers_v.htm), retrieved 2012/10/02. The Chi-square test results produced here were analyzed by js-STAR 2012 (<http://www.kisnet.or.jp/nappa/software/star/>).

more introverted, and with no clear future goal. Most of their responses situate themselves around the “Neutral” point (value “3” on our scale), which may point to their relative lack of self-reflective skills and self-confidence. On the other hand, their pronounced introverted and collectivistic attitudes may be typical for the average Japanese student. A comparison between the “before” cohort and the NPs did not yield similar results, suggesting that, contrary to our expectations, in this section the participants start out with a more positive outlook of themselves, whereas the non-participants appear as indecisive, with low self-reflective skills and little confidence to take up new challenges and venture out of their comfort zone.

II. The perception of native country

In this section, 64% of the total number of eleven questions in this section showed significant differences between participants and non-participants. The overall attitude across the three cohorts is one of general appreciation of their own country and culture. Most of the respondents admit to their lack of knowledge regarding their country’s culture, history, politics and society, and, to a certain extent, they feel ashamed of their ignorance. Moreover, the students’ responses reflect their intention to live in Japan in the future. As shown in our previous papers, there is no significant gap between the responses of the “before” and “after” cohorts; however, the NPs show notably different attitudes regarding some of the issues in this section. First, regarding question 11 (Appendix Table 2), which asked the students to select the item they valued the most from a list including honor, power, money, social contribution, family, health, and pleasure, although most of the students chose ‘family’ as their most valuable item, a significant number of NPs chose ‘money’, which is significantly infrequent in the responses of the “after” cohort. On the other hand, fewer NPs selected ‘pleasure’ as their most valued item. The correlation between the high frequency of ‘money’ and the low frequency of ‘pleasure’ may point to one of the NPs’ main causes for non-participation in overseas programs, the financial aspect. Overseas programs tend to be costly, and tend to be looked down upon as lacking in practical utility by prospective employers (Tabuchi 2012). With respect to the other questions in this section (Appendix Table 1, Section 2), the responses of the NPs indicate clearly their intention to continue to live in Japan long term. This may also suggest that the NPs are content with their life in Japan and do not envisage a future abroad. In the same vein, their opinions regarding English and its introduction as an official language in Japan reflect a lack of interest in the issue or perhaps a lack of awareness regarding the importance of English as the lingua franca of business (Aoki 2011). In summary, the responses in this section reflect that, unlike the participants, who have more positive attitudes of pride and love regarding their native country, the NPs appear to be neither exceedingly proud of Japan, nor particularly ashamed at their lack of knowledge about its culture, history, politics and society. Their relatively neutral responses reflect the NPs’ tendency to regard Japan as the place where they want to live in the future not necessarily because it is better, but because it is familiar and comfortable.

III. The international perception

This section revealed the most numerous discrepancies between participants and non-participants. Out of 17 questions, 13 (76%) yielded responses that showed significant differences between the views of the two cohorts. With several exceptions, the responses of the NPs situate them around the “neutral” value of our Likert scale, suggesting a lack of interest or low awareness regarding international affairs (questions 22, 25, 26, 31, 35, 39). A number of interesting attitudes can be observed here. In regards to question 27 (Appendix Table 3), asking the students to choose one attribute that would best define their image of foreign countries, a significant number of students from the “after” cohort found foreign countries ‘interesting’, whereas for the NPs the most representative attribute was ‘different’, which may indicate a deeply rooted ethnocentric view of the latter cohort (Reischauer 1995, Sugimoto 2010, Hinenoya & Gathbonton 2000). Moreover, when asked to select the possible origin of a foreigner who was witnessed committing a certain

criminal act (question 29, Appendix Table 4), the three cohorts showed interesting attitudes. First, most of the students of the “before” cohort chose “South America”, probably due to the negative image in Japan of Brazilians of Japanese descent. The “after” cohort chose “Middle East”, possibly under the influence of their overseas experience in Europe with its negative stereotypes associated to this particular ethnic group. However, “Middle East” was significantly low in the responses of the NPs, where “South America”, “Europe” and “North America” appeared with significantly higher frequency, compared with their participant peers. Thus, besides their “domestic” stereotypes related to Brazilians in Japan, the NPs tended to regard Europe and North America as possibly dangerous zones.

Regarding the question about the possible origin of a foreign guest visiting the university campus for international exchange (question 30, Appendix Table 5), a higher number of NPs considered that Asia or Middle East were the most probable areas, possibly based on their own contact with Asian or Middle-Eastern exchange students on or outside the NUCB campus. In contrast, more of the students in the overseas cohorts, who have more exchanges with predominantly European students, chose Europe as the possible origin of the foreigner engaged in international exchange. Therefore, the students’ responses appear to be influenced by their contact with and exposure to the foreigners enrolled in their departments. The participant cohorts, mostly English majors, with a fair command of English, have more opportunities to meet and talk with European exchange students, and through their programs, with people from the countries of their programs, whereas the NPs, many of whom are business majors with little or no command of English, have exchanges with mainly Japanese-speaking exchange students or foreigners living in Japan.

The responses to question 32, asking the students to choose their preferred length of an overseas stay (Appendix Table 6), situate the overseas cohorts and the NPs at two opposite poles. On one hand, the frequency of the “after” students who chose ‘forever’, or ‘2-3 years’ is significantly higher than the “before” cohort. On the other, the frequency of the NPs who chose ‘short trip’ is significantly higher than that of the participants who selected the same category. This reinforces the idea that, while the participant cohorts may be interested in more long-term stays (including living and working) abroad, the NPs have little interest in going abroad, except for a short time. As a matter of fact, the students’ choices of the definitions of the term “internationally-minded person” appear to reflect their own interests and aspirations (question 33, Appendix Table 7). A significantly high frequency can be observed among the overseas cohort regarding the response ‘is familiar with foreign cultures and people’. On the other hand, the NPs selected ‘can communicate in a foreign language’, and ‘is familiar with international situation’, both of which reflect the greater emphasis placed on the cognitive aspect, and little concern for, or awareness of the experiential or affective aspect.

The students’ attitudes regarding internationalization in Japan also showed significant discrepancies between the choices of “before” cohort (‘accept immigrants’), “after” cohort (‘make English a common/official language’), and NPs (‘put effort into international volunteer programs’). It can be observed from Table 8 (Appendix) that, regarding the issue of tolerance towards immigrants there are significant differences between the overseas cohorts and NPs, possibly as an after-effect of the direct contact of the former with European societies confronted with the issue of integrating immigrants into their social and educational systems.

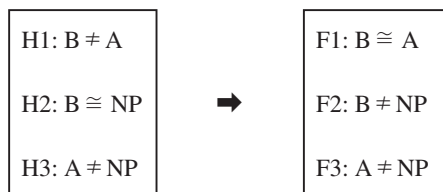
Regarding question 40 of the survey, asking the students which was, in their opinion, the most international country, most students (including NPs) considered the United States the most international country, due to its racial, cultural and ethnic diversity (Appendix Table 9). The second most international country

was China, the students motivating their choice by the country's economic audacity rather than its diversity. The other most international countries that were found in the answers of all the three cohorts were UK, Germany, South Korea and Switzerland. However, the students did not consider Japan an international country, possibly due to the stereotype that Japan is an ethnically, racially and culturally homogeneous nation.

To summarize the findings in this section, compared to the participant cohorts, the NPs' attitudes regarding international issues reflect an inward-looking, self-sufficient tendency, as well as a lack of interest about other countries and foreign people.

Conclusion

From the analysis of our findings, we can conclude that there is a gap between the mindsets of the overseas cohorts on the one hand, and the NPs on the other. Therefore, our findings contradict two of our initial hypotheses as follows:



Finding 1: $B \cong A$ - We have found no significant differences between the attitudes of the "before" and "after" cohorts, which suggests that the overseas experience had no major (immediate) influence on the students' perceptions of themselves, their country, and other countries and people. Our returnees do not appear more introspective or more interested in the international situation than before departure; however, their responses reflect a more positive view of their native country, and a slight shift in their cultural stereotypes regarding other countries and people.

Finding 2: $B \neq NP$ - Although we expected similar or close attitudes from the "before" and NP cohorts, their significant discrepancies suggest that there are important differences of attitudes between them, which may not be directly related to their participation (or lack of participation) to overseas programs. The distinct attitudes of the two sets situate them at different poles: one relatively positive, outgoing, open-minded (overseas cohorts), and the other, relatively neutral, introverted and narrow-minded (NPs). Moreover, there seems to be a significant difference of attitude between English majors (participants) and non-English majors (non-participants). One of the key findings highlights the relatively neutral mindset of the NPs, and reveals that these students not only lack interest and knowledge about the domestic and international situation in general, but they also display relatively low self-reflective skills compared to their peers.

Finding 3: $A \neq NP$ - As expected, we have found significant differences between the attitudes of the "after" cohort and those of NPs, although they may not be necessarily due to the effectiveness of the programs, but rather to the participants' relatively positive outlook before departure.

In the case of the NPs, we can therefore talk about a "thirstless horse" syndrome (Yoneoka 2000), which appears to affect many young Japanese, being characterized by a relative immobility, self-sufficiency, and lack of interest and confidence in dealing with the growing challenges of a multi-cultural, interdependent environment. The great emphasis placed on the cognitive aspect (English language skills, knowledge of international affairs) is depriving the students of a number of advantages, among which, a better adaptability in an ever-shifting world, increased chances to work and gain wider experience in a mul-

tinational workplace, and a broader understanding of the mutual benefits of international cooperation and exchange. A further study will focus on other possible causes behind the discrepancy between the attitudes of the participants to overseas programs and their non-participant peers.

3. DIS overseas program - follow-up study

3.1. Aims

The aim of our longitudinal study is to identify any progress in the Department of International Studies (DIS) students' attitude, by observing their progress on a period of one year after the conclusion of their study abroad program.

In our previous papers we stressed that the positive effects of short-term overseas programs (up to one semester) were limited by their scope and brevity (Nae, Fraysse-Kim, Ishii and Tangsirithongchai 2010, Nae and Fraysse-Kim 2011a, 2011b, 2012a, 2012b). However, as White pointed out in his preface to Perry's book about the intellectual development of college students, despite the idea that four years of university studies produce little or no effect on the already fully developed intellectual capacities of students, the time spent in university is of major importance for their "inner personal growth" (White in Perry 1968). Students' road to intellectual maturity unfolds along nine main stages, and can sometimes be deflected by a number of factors, like temporizing, escape and retreat, which may sometimes reverse the effects of their progress (Perry 1968). Therefore it can be said that the effects of this "inner growth" may take time to appear or may not appear at all.

3.2. Methodology

The attitude survey used for the all the participants in overseas programs at NUCB was administered before and after the program, then six months later and again one year after the conclusion of the program. A major limitation of this study is the small number of participants.

3.3. Participants

Responses to the attitude survey (Nae & Fraysse-Kim 2011a and 2012a) were collected from a total number of 71 students belonging to the Department of International Studies (DIS) who participated to semester-long study abroad programs in Canada, Hong Kong and Korea in their second year.

Table 3. DIS follow-up study demographic.

Survey	Student Numbers	Gender	
		M	F
Before	15	8	7
After	18	11	7
6 months later	20	10	10
1 year later	18	9	9

3.4. Results and discussion

The findings reveal no statistically significant short-term or long-term changes in the students' attitudes regarding their own selves, native country and other countries and people. However, at a closer examination, their responses tend to fall into two categories: responses that show little or no change compared

to the pre-departure attitude (figures 1 and 2 below), and those which show an interesting pattern of progression and regression. As seen in the charts below, there is no significant change in the students' perceptions regarding their own selves over the examined period, the progress being almost linear and, according to our response scale, neutral.

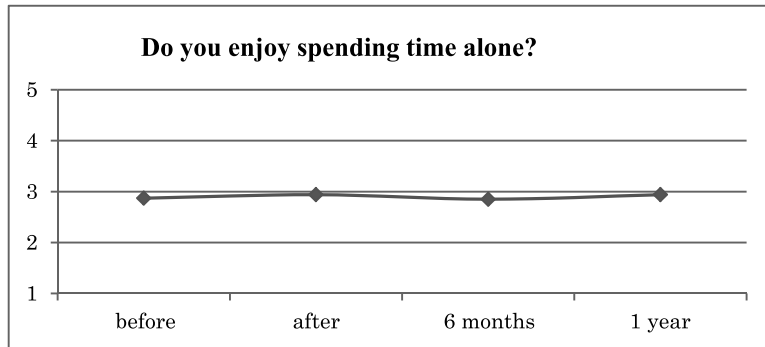


Figure 1. Responses to Question 1.

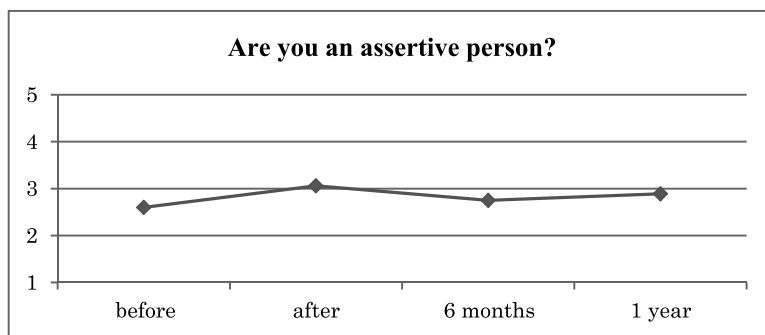


Figure 2. Responses to Question 3.

These results suggest that, even after one year from the program, their perception of self did not undergo substantial transformations. Moreover, as shown in Figures 2 to 6, in some cases the students tend to return to the pre-program attitude six months after their re-immersion in their familiar environment. Especially, as seen in Figure 3, the changes in their country perceptions appear to peak after six months, only to return to the initial level after one year.

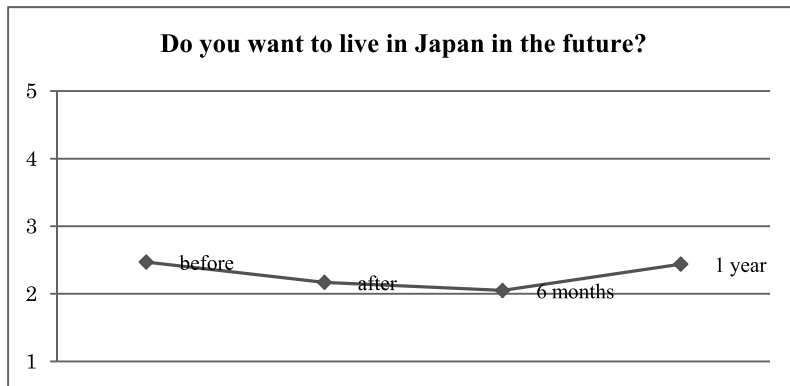


Figure 3. Responses to Question 14.

Figure 3 shows that, compared to the pre-departure results, after 6 months the students appear more willing than ever to live in Japan in the future, suggesting a positive re-appraisal of their country; however, one year later, this attitude changes slightly and returns to the pre-departure level, indicating that after one year they may re-consider their choice and may wish to go abroad again.

A similar tendency can be observed in Figures 4, 5 and 6 below, where, despite the positive attitude change which reached a peak either after return or 6 months later, the values tend to return to the pre-departure levels after one year from the conclusion of the program.

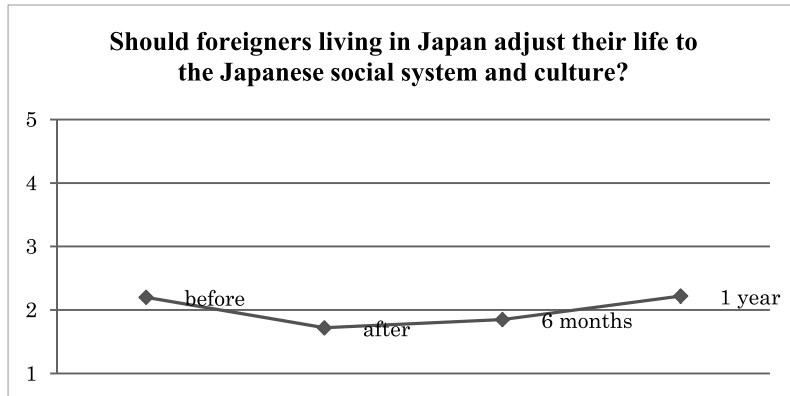


Figure 4. Responses to Question 38.

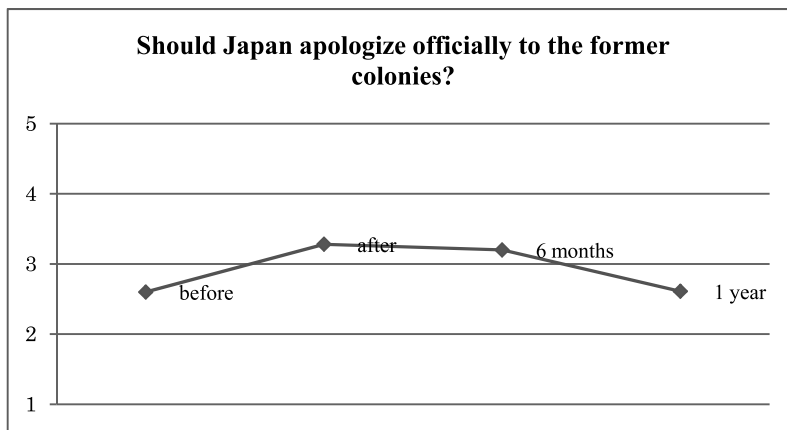


Figure 5. Responses to Question 22.

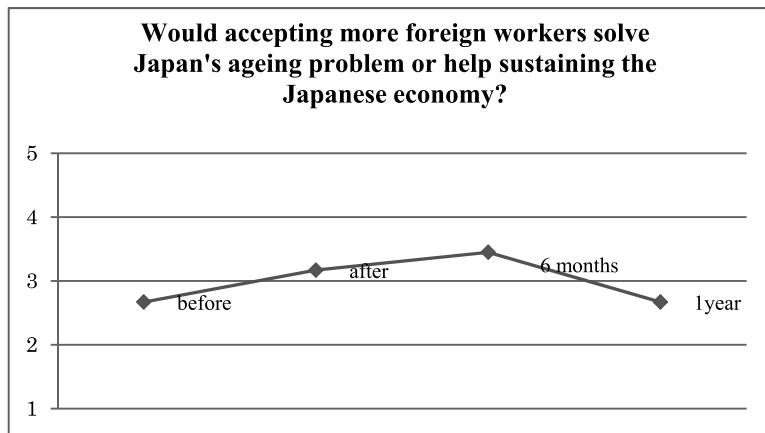


Figure 6. Responses to Question 26.

In summary, our findings reveal that, despite slight changes in the participants' attitudes, no significant progress was seen in their views of themselves, their attitudes regarding the native country and their perceptions of foreign people. A high degree of group cohesiveness may be responsible for the lack of substantial changes after the completion of the program, due to a tendency of Japanese students abroad to stay together and interact little with other international students. In addition, the lack of any progress during the lengthier span of one year may suggest that a return to the familiar milieu caused a resetting of values and stereotypes and prompted a drop in their level of cultural awareness.

Conclusions and recommendations

Overseas programs as such were shown to have little influence in students' intellectual development, due to their brevity, limited scope and cultural background. However, as has been pointed out, they cannot be effective in an administrative and educational void, or when employed for marketing purposes such as

increasing the number of prospective students. A curriculum centered on internationalism, which would cater specifically to the needs of study abroad students and which would cover other areas than overseas programs is necessary. Moreover, in order to ensure a smooth and effective transition to and back from the overseas programs, pre-departure preparation programs, as well as post-program maintenance courses may be necessary. In addition, universities should continue their efforts to maximize the exposure of the returnees to an internationalized environment (through curricular and extra-curricular activities, exchanges with foreign staff and students, etc.), so that their growth should be continued even after the completion of their programs. Last but not least, although years spent in tertiary education are decisive for the full maturation of the intellectual and cognitive processes, a more open-minded approach at the primary and secondary levels would inspire and encourage students to be less insular in their thinking, less afraid of foreign languages and foreign people, more curious about the world and more ambitious regarding their future careers. Further investigation is thus necessary into the causes of discrepancy between students with a relatively more positive mindset, willing to take up the challenge of going abroad to travel or study, and students who, despite their business-oriented majors, are reluctant to do so, almost perfectly mirroring the official attitude of the Japanese government and businesses at large.

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Appendix

Table 1. Result of ANOVA comparison of the students' self, country and international view (each group's Mean, SD and result of Multiple comparisons)

	Before M (SD)	After M (SD)	Non- participant M (SD)	F value
Section 1: Self-Perception				
Q 1. Do you enjoy spending time alone?	2.71 (1.11)	2.67 (1.25)	2.66 (1.06)	.083
Q 2. Do you consider yourself self-centered?	2.71 (1.08)	2.70 (1.08)	2.80 (1.13)	.316
Q 3. Are you an assertive person?	2.58 (1.19)	2.51 (1.14)	3.11 (1.08)!	10.861***
Q 4. Do you think you have a strong personality?	2.31 (1.19)	2.15 (.980)	2.54 (1.07)!	4.352**
Q 5. Are you an opinionated person?	1.85 (.873)	2.04 (1.09)	2.43 (1.03)!	11.274***
Q 6. Do you like communication with people?	1.70 (.930)	1.68 (.990)	2.23 (1.07)!	12.857***
Q 7. Do you value your family?	1.20 (.560)	1.24 (.679)	1.34 (.674)	1.473
Q 8. Do you make friends easily?	2.00 (1.14)	1.99 (1.08)	2.47 (1.11)!	8.055***
Q 9. Do you like doing things in a group?	2.46 (1.15)	2.70 (1.18)	2.59 (1.11)	1.149
Q 10. Do you have a future career goal?	2.05 (1.08)	2.20 (1.20)	2.78 (1.30)!	13.527***
Section 2: Country perception				
Q 12. Do you like Japan?	1.45 (.802)	1.37 (.603)	1.50 (.835)	1.010
Q 13. Are you proud to be Japanese (to have been born in Japan)?	1.54 (.869)	1.49 (.823)	1.78 (.999)!	3.872*
Q 14. Would you like to continue to live in Japan in the future?	2.61 (1.12)	2.67 (1.29)	1.89 (1.20)!	17.396***
Q 15. Do you know much about Japan's culture, history, politics, society, etc.?	3.21 (.907)	3.49 (1.10)	3.36 (1.04)	1.941
Q 16. Do you feel ashamed at your lack of knowledge about Japanese?	1.57 (.764)	1.68 (.990)	2.58 (1.23)!	36.995***

Q 17#. Choose the things that make you proud of Japan (multiple answers)	3.20 (1.85)	3.39 (1.76)	2.76 (1.95)!	3.901*
Q 18#. Choose the things that make you ashamed of Japan (multiple answers)	1.76 (1.10)	2.01 (1.57)	1.74 (1.16)	1.611
Q 19. Do you think English should become the official language of Japan?	2.55 (1.43)	2.58 (1.42)	3.32 (1.36)!	12.822***
Q 20. Do you think legal immigrants should have the same rights and duties as Japanese citizens?	1.96 (.956)	1.84 (1.06)	2.27 (1.20)!	5.296**
Q 21. Would you like to see more Japanese movies, anime, music on TV?	2.70 (1.12)	2.95 (1.15)	2.91 (1.24)	1.440
Section 3: International Perception				
Q 22. Do you think the Japanese government should apologize officially to the former Japanese colonies?	2.46 (1.17)	2.79 (1.29)	2.99 (1.34)!	5.377**
Q 23. Would you like to see Japan acting more confidently on the international stage?	1.89 (.980)	1.61 (.933)	2.07 (1.05)!	6.749***
Q 24. Do you think Japan is currently a multi-cultural, multi-ethnic nation?	2.87 (1.15)	2.86 (1.36)	2.74 (1.14)	.444
Q 25. Do you think foreigners are responsible for the increasing crime rate in Japan?	4.03 (1.05)	3.99 (1.05)	3.72 (1.26)!	2.907*
Q 26. Do you think accepting more foreign workers would solve Japan's ageing problem or help sustaining the Japanese economy?	2.64 (1.02)!	3.05 (1.19)	3.02 (1.19)	4.511**
Q 31. Would you be please to find out that your new neighbors were foreign?	2.11 (1.13)	1.89 (1.03)	2.85 (1.08)!	28.126***
Q 35. Do you know much about the international situation?	3.39 (.965)	3.56 (.995)	3.83 (1.16)!	5.568**
Q 38. Do you think foreigners living in Japan should adjust their life to Japanese social system and culture?	2.08 (1.02)	1.83 (.877)	2.03 (1.05)	1.918
Q 39. Do you think it is shameful as a student to not be well informed about world affairs?	2.42 (1.01)	2.52 (1.34)	2.91 (1.29)!	5.803**

(3 groups: n=366) * Significant at the .05 level, ** at the .01, *** at the .001

Q 11. Choose one thing you value the most in life (x2 (12)=30.163, p<.01, Cr=.203)

Table 2. Observed frequencies and results of the adjusted standardized residuals analysis

Groups	Responses						
	Honor	Power	Money	Social Contribution	Family	Health	Pleasure
Before	3	1	12	6	50	21	15
After	2	2	8▽	-5	45	28	19
Non-Participant	5	5	41▲	5	53	28	11▽

▲ significantly high frequency, ▽ significantly low frequency, p<.05

Q 27. Choose one attribute that best represents your image of foreign countries (x2 (8)=15.999, p<.05, Cr=.148)

Table 3. Observed frequencies and results of the adjusted standardized residuals analysis

Groups	Responses				
	Strange/Unfamiliar	Interesting	Free	Tough	Different
Before	13	31	28	5	31
After	10	35▲	30	2	32
Non-Participant	25	21▽	45	5	53

▲ significantly high frequency, ▽ significantly low frequency, $p < .05$

Q 28. Choose one attribute that best represents your image of a typical foreigner ($\chi^2(8) = 9.137$, ns)

Q 29. A Japanese newscaster announces on TV that somewhere in Japan three foreigners were witnessed committing a certain incident. What region in the world are the foreigners likely to be from? ($\chi^2(8) = 29.524$, $p < .01$, $C_r = .201$)

Table 4. Observed frequencies and results of the adjusted standardized residuals analysis

Groups	Responses				
	South America	Europe	Asia	Middle East	North America
Before	56	2	20	28	2
After	44	2	24	37▲	2
Non-Participant	62	13▲	34	25▽	14▲

▲ significantly high frequency, ▽ significantly low frequency, $p < .05$

Q 30. A foreigner comes to visit your school for an international exchange program. What region in the world is the foreigner likely to be from? ($\chi^2(8) = 33.006$, $p < .01$, $C_r = .227$)

Table 5. Observed frequencies and results of the adjusted standardized residuals analysis

Groups	Responses				
	South America	Europe	Asia	Middle East	North America
Before	6	75	14	1	13
After	2	89▲	11▽	1	7
Non-Participant	6	77▽	45▲	6▲	15

▲ significantly high frequency, ▽ significantly low frequency, $p < .05$

Q 32. If you live abroad how long would you want to stay? ($\chi^2(8) = 133.503$, $p < .01$, $C_r = 0.427$)

Table 6. Observed frequencies and results of the adjusted standardized residuals analysis

Groups	Length				
	Forever	+10 years	2~3 years	2~3 months	Short trip
Before	16	16	52▲	18	6▽
After	18▲	13	49▲	22	7▽
Non-Participant	7▽	13	21▽	19	89▲

▲ significantly high frequency, ▽ significantly low frequency, $p < .05$

Q 33. In your opinion, an internationally-minded person... ($\chi^2(14)=31.093$, $p < .01$, $Cr=0.206$)

Table 7 .Observed frequencies and results of the adjusted standardized residuals analysis

Groups	Responses							
	Can communicate in a foreign language	Foreign spouse	Does business in a foreign language	Travels extensively abroad	Many foreign friends	Is familiar with international situation	Is familiar with foreign cultures and people	Lives abroad
Before	37	2	30	0	9	1	27	2
After	37	2	19▽	1	12	0	35▲	3
Non-Participant	59	3	42	3	12	5▲	15▽	9

▲ significantly high frequency, ▽ significantly low frequency, $p < .05$

Q 34. In your opinion, what should Japan do in order to promote internationalization? ($\chi^2(10)=17.810$, $.05 < p < .10$, $Cr=.156$)

Table 8. Observed frequencies and results of the adjusted standardized residuals analysis

Groups	Responses					
	Put effort into international volunteer programs	Extend financial assistance to developing countries	Accept immigrants	Promote international cultural exchanges	Organize international events	Make English a common (official) language
Before	14	11	15▲	31	23	14
After	19	10	5▽	39	13	23▲
Non-Participant	37▲	12	14	45	22	19

▲ significantly high frequency, ▽ significantly low frequency, $p < .05$

Q 36. What should one do to become an internationally-minded person? ($\chi^2(8)=10.535$, ns)

Q 37. In your opinion, what is the best evidence that show Japanese society is internationalized? ($\chi^2(8)=5.110$, ns)

Table 9. Question 40. Which is, in your opinion, the most internationalized country and why do you think so?

	Before (n=108)	After (n=109)	NPs (n=149)
USA	68 (63%)	56 (51%)	79 (53%)
China	18 (17%)	12 (11%)	13 (16%)
UK	5	7	4
Germany	1	3	2
Korea	1	1	3
Switzerland	2	1	1
Australia	1	1	
Canada	2	3	
UAE	1		
Russia	1	1	
Japan	1		1
S. Africa	1		
Belgium		1	1
EU		2	3
France		5	
India		1	2
Saudi Arabia		1	
Singapore		2	2
Vietnam		1	
N. Korea			1
Poland			1
Spain			1
No response	6	11	35
Total	12 countries	16 countries	14 countries

