

Internationalization Policy at the *Genba*:  
Exploring the Implementation of Social Science English-Taught Undergraduate Degree  
Programs in Three Japanese Universities

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## Abstract of Dissertation

### Internationalization Policy at the *Genba*: Exploring the Implementation of Social Science English-Taught Undergraduate Degree Programs in Three Japanese Universities

This study explored the implementation of social science English-taught undergraduate degree programs in Japanese universities and investigated the challenges they face. As higher education institutions in Japan seek to become more competitive, many institutions are introducing undergraduate degrees taught exclusively through the English language. Existing research in non-Anglophone countries has shown that programs differ in their rationales for implementation and in their design and characteristics, and therefore, experience different types of implementation challenges that inspire varied responses. However, in Japan, studies in the English language focusing on the implementation of English as a medium of instruction in higher education are few and concern only short-term and graduate programs. This study used a qualitative multiple-case study design to examine four-year social science undergraduate programs at three universities from the perspectives of those involved with the implementation process. Data were generated via 27 interviews with senior administrators, faculty members and international education support staff.

The results indicate that the rationales for implementing the programs at the case-study institutions are grounded in a desire to increase competitiveness, with a focus on developing the international competencies of domestic Japanese students. Program design is oriented towards international and Japanese students in the same classrooms and is

influenced by the understandings of key program implementers. Structural challenges were found to be the most significant obstacles to program implementation. In particular, institutions struggle with issues relating to program coherence and expansion, student recruitment and program identity. Structural challenges are so prominent that the study proposes a new typology of challenges facing the implementation of English-taught programs in Japan. This typology includes challenges related to the constructed understandings of the programs as institutions within the university. Practical responses to the challenges consist of discrete actions with little movement made that affects the university more broadly. Five salient elements that play an important role in the implementation of all of the case-study programs were also identified. These comprise the presence of committed leadership, implementer orientation regarding the English language, the position of the program within its institution, student recruitment, and the clarification of outcomes and goals.

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## **List of Abbreviations**

ACA	Academic Cooperation Association
AIU	Akita International University
ACE	American Council on Education
CLIL	content and language integrated learning
COMETT	European Community program on co-operation between universities and industry regarding training in the field of technology
EMI	English-medium instruction
ERASMUS	European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
ETP	English-taught program
HE	higher education
HEI	higher education institution
IB	International Baccalaureate
IT	information technology
JAFSA	Japan Network for International Education
JASSO	Japan Student Services Organization
JREC-IN	Japan Research Career Information Network
JTP	Japanese-taught program
MEXT	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology - Japan
NAFSA	Association of International Educators

OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SILS	School of International Liberal Studies (at Waseda Univeristy)
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEFL iBT	Test of English as a Foreign Language Internet-based TEST
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

Higher education (HE) is simultaneously an international and national endeavor. Since the establishment of the first European universities in medieval times, with their wandering scholars and commitment to furthering universal knowledge, universities have been perceived as highly international institutions. They have also played a central role in nation-building, educating citizens to become productive members of national societies (Enders & Fulton, 2002; Kerr, 1990). In the knowledge economy of today's globalizing world, the pressure to balance international and national needs is even more apparent (Altbach, 2006; Arimoto, 2010). Universities throughout the world are seeking to become more domestically and internationally competitive in an increasingly fierce global HE market and so over the past two and a half decades they have increased the number, scope and complexity of international activities in which they are engaged (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

Japanese universities are no exception. Domestic competition between higher education institutions (HEIs) in Japan has been increasing due to a low domestic birth rate and quasi-market HE reforms in recent years (Goodman, 2005; Kinmonth, 2005; Kitamura, 1997; Tsuruta, 2006). In terms of international competition, Japanese universities are striving to become 'world-class'<sup>1</sup> and secure top places in the international ranking schemes by enhancing the quality of their research and teaching

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<sup>1</sup> Altbach (2003) points out that "everyone wants a world-class university. No country feels it can do without one. The problem is that no one knows what a world-class university is, and no one has figured out how to get one" (p. 5). He maintains that striving to become world-class focuses attention on "academic standards and improvement", "the roles of universities in society", and on how academic institutions can fit into a national and global higher education system (Altbach, 2003 p. 8).

(Ishikawa, 2009; Lassegard, 2006; Yonezawa, 2011). It is therefore becoming crucial for Japan to take advantage of international student, faculty member and researcher mobility, both to compensate for the shrinking market of domestic students and to sustain research capacities (Burgess, Gibson, Klaphake & Selzer, 2010; Ishikawa, 2011; Tsuruta, 2006; Yonezawa, 2011). In order to do this, Japanese HEIs are increasing and strengthening their international activities, one of which is the provision of academic degree programs with content taught exclusively through the English language. By encouraging HEIs to offer English-taught programs (ETPs), the Japanese government hopes to attract more international students to Japan (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology – Japan [MEXT], 2009a).

ETPs are defined as “programmes taught in English in non-English speaking countries” (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, p. 9), and lead to full degrees. In this study, ETPs are contrasted with English-medium instruction (EMI), which refers to classroom instruction of any duration carried out through the medium of English. ETPs have had, until recently, only a minimal presence in mainstream Japanese universities, and have been mostly concentrated at the graduate level. The Japanese government reported the presence of undergraduate ETPs at only five universities and graduate degrees at 68 HEIs in 2007 (Cabinet Office et al., 2009).<sup>2</sup> In the 2014 academic year, these numbers had risen to approximately 23 HEIs offering undergraduate ETPs and 74 HEIs offering graduate ETPs (Japan Student Services Organization [JASSO], 2014a; MEXT, 2012a).

There are concerns that the introduction of ETPs has been undertaken with insufficient careful deliberation of the difficulties in their implementation. Analysis

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<sup>2</sup> However, these figures included specialized HEIs such as the entirely-English speaking Akita International University and the United Nations University.

regarding ETPs in Japan suggests that these difficulties may include ensuring that students have the requisite skills to study in English, securing support from existing faculty members, and fostering sufficient Japanese language abilities in the international students who wish to join the Japanese workforce (Burgess et al., 2010; Ishikawa, 2011; Lim, 2008; Rivers, 2010, 2011). However, there has been little research focused on the implementation of ETPs and the challenges HEIs face worldwide. In Japan, the English-language studies that have been carried out focus on short-term study abroad and graduate programs (e.g. Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Manakul, 2007a). This dissertation seeks to address this gap in the research and explore concerns regarding the introduction of degree programs delivered in English by examining the implementation of new undergraduate ETPs in Japan.

This dissertation is a qualitative case study of social science undergraduate ETPs in three Japanese universities that have recently introduced these programs. It rests on the premise that a phenomenon like ETPs cannot be fully understood without analysis of what is actually occurring at the *genba*, or chalk-face (Aspinall, 2013). Knowledge of ETPs cannot be acquired without gaining insight into the practices of those working with students and teaching in English. Therefore, this study explores how the universities are implementing ETPs and investigates the challenges they face in doing so from the perspectives of different program implementers within the universities. Administrators, faculty members and international education staff all bring varying background knowledge and experience to the study. The study seeks to understand how the program implementers make sense of the ETPs and how their perceptions compare to official ETP documentation to highlight any unintended consequences of program implementation.

The study focuses on undergraduate ETPs as these are a new phenomenon in mainstream Japanese universities. It looks at degree programs that have a social science rather than natural science foundation because the social sciences have a shorter history of interaction with the English language in Japan, especially at the undergraduate level. This focus gives the study practical significance, as HEIs adopting undergraduate ETPs in these fields are at an earlier stage of thinking about EMI and are eager to better understand how to implement them.

This chapter frames the research problem explored in this study. It outlines the context of the problem and details the problem of practice, problem of research, purpose of the study and research questions. Then, the study's significance, its conceptual foundations, delimitations, limitations, assumptions, and key definitions are presented.

## **The Context of the Problem**

### **The Growth of English as a Medium of Instruction**

The global spread of English is a well-documented phenomenon (see for example Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 1997, 2006) and its use as a global lingua franca is widely acknowledged, if not always accepted (see Phillipson, 1992; Pennycook, 1994; Tsuda, 1986). English has become the language of science<sup>3</sup> (Ammon, 2001), and with that the, perhaps unintended, main foreign language of education, and international cooperation and competition (Brumfit, 2004). When two speakers of different native languages meet, they will most likely communicate in English (Brumfit, 2004). Globalization has consolidated the dominance of English, so much so that English has been described as a "near-essential tool of a flexible, mobile labour force" (Enever, 2009, p.79). In this

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<sup>3</sup> In part, due to the destruction that the Second World War inflicted on the scientific communities of Germany and France, and due to the stimulus of Cold-War US scientific research (Ammon, 2001).

context, a global expansion of ETPs seems to be expected, even perhaps inevitable (Coleman, 2013).

EMI has existed outside of Anglophone states for quite some time. For example, the Netherlands established a number of international HEIs in the 1950s to provide training for students from developing countries (de Wit, 2005), and France's INSEAD graduate business school has taught in English since it was founded in 1957. However, the use of EMI at the tertiary level has greatly expanded over the past two and a half decades. The introduction of the European Commission's Erasmus (European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) mobility program in 1987 brought EMI into the European mainstream. It created the need for HEIs to compete for students with other institutions across Europe and so many, most notably those in the Netherlands and Scandinavia, started to develop EMI courses and ETPs (de Wit, 2005; Lehikoinen, 2004; Observatory on Borderless Higher Education, 2007; Ritzen, 2004). With the Bologna Declaration of 1999 and the creation of a European Higher Education Area with its standardized three-cycle system (bachelor, master, doctorate)<sup>4</sup>, the number of ETPs in non-English speaking Europe has grown dramatically and now ETPs are offered throughout Europe (Björkman, 2010; Brocke-Utne, 2007; Coleman, 2006; Graddol, 2006; Hellekjær, 2010; Redden, 2007).

Data reported by the Institute of International Education counted 560 master's programs in Europe taught entirely in English in 2002, 1,500 in 2008 and 3,701 in 2011, with an additional 963 programs including English as one of their languages of

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<sup>4</sup> After the Bologna Declaration, in most continental European countries the traditional first degree was divided into two phases: the bachelor's (three-four years) followed by the master's (one-two years). Many of the newly-created master's level programs are conducted in English (Brenn-White & van Rest, 2012).

instruction (Brenn-White & van Rest, 2012). In the Benelux countries and in Scandinavia, master's education is now almost entirely conducted in English (Brenn-White & van Rest, 2012). At the undergraduate level, the number of entirely English-taught degrees is growing less quickly, but is nevertheless increasing. The Netherlands alone reported over 200 programs to the [bachelorsportal.eu](http://bachelorsportal.eu) database in June 2012 (StudyPortals, 2012).

In more recent years, East Asian universities have also begun to rapidly expand their offerings in English. With the launch of the government's Study Korea Project in 2004 and the subsequent large financial incentives for expanding the number of courses taught in English, South Korea has embraced EMI (Lee, 2005; Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2006). In 2006, the Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST) announced that all lectures would be carried out in English (Cho, 2012) and in 2011, the National Institute for International Education reported that "a large number" of South Korea's 411 universities were conducting about 30% of their classes in English (National Institute for International Education, 2011).<sup>5</sup> In Taiwan, the government's 2004 'Aim for the Top University Plan' (see Lawson, 2008) has helped to encourage the development of at least 170 ETPs at various levels (Chuang, 2012). While in mainland China, prompted by the Ministry of Education, Chinese universities teach a growing range of professional subjects entirely in English, including information science, biotechnology, new materials, engineering, international trade, finance and law (Gill & Kirkpatrick, 2013; Huang, 2006). Japan's Global 30 Project (see

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<sup>5</sup> Although these developments have not been unproblematic for South Korea, with student and professor suicides at KAIST in 2011 leading to a questioning of South Korea's EMI policies (McDonald, 2011; Kang, 2012)

section below) government push to introduce more ETPs to Japanese universities had targets of at least 157 programs in 13 specially-funded institutions alone by 2014 (MEXT, 2009a).

English is perhaps the most dominant foreign language used as a means of instruction in HE worldwide and its use in non-Anglophone countries has increased substantially over the past two and a half decades (Ammon & McConnell, 2002). In the late 1980s, the Erasmus program first brought EMI into the mainstream and the Bologna Declaration of 1999 created conditions for a remarkable growth in the number of ETPs across Europe. The trend for EMI can also be observed in East Asia, with government policies promoting EMI in South Korean, Taiwanese, Chinese and Japanese universities.

### **The Japanese Context for English-Medium Instruction**

The growth patterns of tertiary education delivered through the English language in Japan generally follow those of the rest of the world, yet EMI, and ETPs in particular, remain on the periphery of Japanese HE, concentrated in only a few locations. Until very recently, EMI courses outside of English language and linguistics departments were mostly isolated to classes for study-abroad and graduate students. Government effort in the mid-1990s established short-term EMI courses for international exchange students at national universities nationwide (Kamibeppu, 2012; Tsuneyoshi, 2005), and MEXT reports that by the year 2000, 41 universities (both national and private) offered such programs (MEXT, 2001). By 2006, this number had risen to 66 HEIs (MEXT, 2007).<sup>6</sup> Government data for 2006 pertaining to all EMI courses offered in Japan lists 185 HEIs offering at least one EMI course at the undergraduate level and 158 HEIs offering

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<sup>6</sup> The number of HEIs that offer short-term EMI courses for international students reported by MEXT remained at 66 in 2009, the most recent year for which data are available (MEXT, 2010).

graduate EMI courses (MEXT, 2009b). These figures rose to 222 HEIs offering undergraduate EMI courses, and 182 HEIs offering graduate EMI courses in 2011 (MEXT, 2013). Recent research suggests that the number of institutions providing at least one undergraduate course in English may have risen to 270 in the 2014 academic year (Brown & Iyobe, 2014). Despite this growth in EMI, the peripheral presence of EMI is highlighted when viewed in the national context. There are approximately 1,200 HEIs in Japan.

The number of ETPs in Japan is also growing, however the opportunities to undertake a full English-taught undergraduate degree are still limited. The first undergraduate ETP was established in 1949 at Sophia University's International Division. In 1953 International Christian University opened. This HEI is well-known for its programs in English, however, its undergraduate programs are all bilingual rather than English-only. Later, in 1994 the small liberal arts institution, Miyazaki International College was established to provide an English-only education in the Humanities and the Social Sciences. In the early 2000s, the numbers of programs offering a substantial English-taught component started to grow more rapidly. Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University opened in 2000, although again this HEI offers bilingual rather than English-taught degree programs. Full ETPs can be found at the single-faculty Akita International University (AIU) which has provided an English-language international liberal arts education since its opening in 2004, and at Waseda University's School of International Liberal Studies (SILS), also established in 2004.

The Japanese government reports that by 2007 it had become possible to obtain undergraduate ETP degrees at six departments of five universities (Cabinet Office et al.,

2009). Growth has increased in recent years and by the 2014 academic year, undergraduate students could study a full degree in English in at least 24<sup>7</sup> universities<sup>8</sup> (Japan Student Services Organization [JASSO]<sup>9</sup>, 2014a; MEXT, 2012a). The majority of the undergraduate programs at these universities focus on international social and political science subjects.

For graduate students, ETP opportunities are more widespread. The Japanese government reports 124 English-taught graduate courses in 68 universities in 2007 (Cabinet Office et al., 2009), while by 2014, masters, doctoral and professional degrees in English were available in at least 74 HEIs (JASSO, 2014b; MEXT, 2012a). These include a programs in a number of specialized graduate schools, such as the United Nations University (established in 1973), the International University of Japan (established in 1982), and the Okinawa Institute of Science and Technology Graduate University (established in 2005). At the graduate level, ETPs cover a range of subjects with a large number of them focusing on science and engineering.

Data on the intensity of ETPs also highlight the marginal presence of English content courses on Japanese campuses. The programs mentioned above enroll relatively small numbers of students. For example, AIU hosts a total of approximately 800 undergraduate students and 120 short-term exchange students (Akita International University, 2013); SILS enrolls 600 undergraduate degree-seeking students and 200 one-

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<sup>7</sup> This number is based on JASSO and MEXT reports, and upon researcher knowledge of specific ETPs. There may be other programs available that are unknown to the researcher.

<sup>8</sup> Although two of the universities reported here require a certain level of Japanese language ability in order to apply to the ETP, one university recommends a working knowledge of Japanese upon enrollment, and one requires a substantial field study component to be undertaken using the Japanese language.

<sup>9</sup> JASSO reports bachelor-level ETPs at five additional HEIs. However, these programs in fact require some study of content in the Japanese language or require the students to major in English, and so do not fit the criteria of an ETP as defined in this study.

year exchange students per year to study in English (Waseda University, 2013); and Sophia's International Division's successor, the Faculty of Liberal Arts, currently hosts approximately 750 undergraduate degree-seeking and 170 exchange students studying in the English language (Sophia University, 2013). This small volume of students is almost invisible among the nearly three million tertiary students in Japan (MEXT, 2012b).

### **The Global 30 Project.**

As part of a 2008 strategy to “make Japan more open to the world” (Fukuda, 2008), the Japanese government introduced a new political commitment to make universities more internationally competitive. The government referred to the achievements of Europe's Bologna Process when announcing the mainstay of this commitment, which was the creation of new ETPs (Ishikawa, 2011; MEXT, 2009a). MEXT's ‘Project for Establishing Core Universities for Internationalization (Global 30)’ (renamed as the ‘Global 30 Project – Establishing University Network for Internationalization’ in 2011, and commonly known as the Global 30 or G30 Project) allocated funding for the creation of new ETPs at select universities to attract international students. Under the initial conceptualization of the project, 30 universities were to be selected.

In the first year of operation, the G30 Project was targeted towards large universities with a minimum of 300 international students enrolled in 2008 (Ishikawa, 2011), and 13 universities, seven national and six private, were designated as pilot universities for the project. These were the national public universities of Kyoto, Kyushu, Nagoya, Osaka, Tohoku, Tokyo and Tsukuba and the private universities of Doshisha, Keio, Meiji, Ritsumeikan, Sophia and Waseda. All 13 of the G30 institutions are among

Japan's most prestigious HEIs (Ishikawa, 2011). With the change of government in 2009, the budget for this project was cut, and the 13 universities remain the only universities to receive direct G30 funding (Ishikawa, 2011; Mori, 2011). Although the return of the Liberal Democratic Party to government in 2012 was accompanied by new policies focused on the internationalization of HEIs, G30 funding was not restored (Bradford, 2013).

Each of the 13 universities received between 200 and 400 million yen per year over five years in order to implement the project's four 'action plans' to, according to the MEXT English language press release of August 2009, "create an attractive educational and research environment for international students" (MEXT, 2009a).<sup>10</sup> The action plans can be summarized as: 1) increasing the number of English-medium courses so that students can obtain entire academic degrees in English; 2) enhancing the support and services for international students in the universities; 3) providing high-quality instruction in the Japanese language and culture; and 4) promoting strategic international cooperation by establishing overseas offices to facilitate student recruitment and boost the number of Japanese students studying abroad (MEXT, 2009a).

From the beginning of the Global 30 Project, the government emphasized the importance of creating ETPs (Ishikawa, 2011), and in 2009, the G30 universities together committed themselves to launching at least 33 new undergraduate and 124 new graduate ETPs by 2014 (MEXT, 2009a). HEIs have successfully reached this goal. As shown in

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<sup>10</sup> Ishikawa (2011) points out that the English language press release was clearly intended for external overseas audiences, and therefore its nuance is somewhat different than that communicated to the 13 G30 universities. The universities are also required to use the G30 funds to enhance administrative functions, and undertake comprehensive planning and overall internationalization efforts beyond the scope of the G30.

Table 1, in the academic year 2013/2014, the final year of the G30 funding cycle, the G30 universities had 33 new undergraduate and 153 new graduate ETPs as reported by MEXT. As yet, many of the new ETPs remain small. Only Kyoto, Meiji, Waseda, Doshisha, and Ritsumeikan universities report student enrollments greater than 20 in any one of their new undergraduate ETPs and many universities report only “few”, “limited” or “a select number” of undergraduate students (MEXT, 2012a) (see Table 2). However, the Global 30 Project and the competitive nature of the Japanese HE market appear to be catalyzing universities which do not usually teach in English and are not receiving G30 funding to also expand their EMI courses and ETPs (Kuwamura, 2009; Yaguchi & Seaton, 2014). This is exemplified by institutions such as Meiji Gakuin University which opened its new Department of Global and Transcultural Studies with content courses in English in April 2011 (Meiji Gakuin, 2013) and Yokohama City University which has recently been recruiting faculty members to teach in newly established ETPs (JREC-IN, 2013).

Table 1

*Number of ETPs in the 13 G30 Universities in 2009 and 2013*

University		Number of ETPs in 2009			Number of ETPs in 2013		
		bachelor's	master's	doctoral	bachelor's	master's	doctoral
National	Kyoto	0	1	2	1	13	11
	Kyushu	0	5	5	5	31	27
	Nagoya	0	4	4	5	9	8
	Osaka	0	3	3	2	5	5
	Tohoku	0	3	4	3	10	9
	Tokyo	0	8	10	2	19	16
	Tsukuba	0	10	1	3	17	6
Private	Doshisha	0	1	0	1	5	4
	Keio	0	5	3	1	6	4
	Meiji	0	0	1	1	3	1
	Ritsumeikan	0	4	2	2	6	6
	Sophia	1	2	1	3	3	2
	Waseda	1	7	6	6 <sup>a</sup>	15	7
	<b>Total number of ETPs</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>142</b>	<b>106</b>

<sup>a</sup>MEXT counts six undergraduate ETPs at Waseda University. However, three of these programs are actually sub-programs with shared courses in one faculty.  
sources: MEXT, 2012a; Kyoto University, 2010

Table 2

*G30 University New ETP Total Student Intake 2013*

University		Student intake 2013		
		bachelor's	master's	doctoral
National	Kyoto	30	approx. 60	approx. 30
	Kyushu	few	approx. 40	approx. 30
	Nagoya	limited	limited	limited
	Osaka	limited	approx. 10	approx. 12
	Tohoku	30	88	75
	Tokyo	select number	149	10
	Tsukuba	few	approx. 60	29
Private	Doshisha	50	45	28
	Keio	15	25	15
	Meiji	20	approx. 35	5
	Ritsumeikan	80	few	few
	Sophia	30	15	10
	Waseda	100	55	3
	<b>Student total</b>	<b>approx. 370</b>	<b>approx. 600</b>	<b>approx. 260</b>

*Note.* This table shows the total student intake for all ETPs established under the G30 Project  
source: MEXT, 2012a

### **Japan's 300,000 International Students Plan.**

The increase in ETPs is designed to help Japan meet its policy goal of hosting 300,000 international students by 2020. The Global 30 Project is a central plank of the larger 300,000 International Students Plan (*Ryūgakusei Sanjūman-nin Keikaku*) announced by then Prime Minister Yasuo Fukuda in 2008 in order to boost Japan's international competitiveness (Fukuda, 2008). 300,000 international students represents an ambitious goal as in 2008 the total number of international students in Japan stood at only 123,829 (MEXT, 2009c).<sup>11</sup> This increase would make about 10% of the total body of university students in Japan international, a percentage comparable to that of France, which MEXT has designated as an appropriate international benchmark (MEXT, 2006). It would also enable Japan to maintain its world international student market share of 5% in the current era of rapidly increasing numbers of mobile students (Kuwamura, 2009). By 2013, the number of international students in Japan had stood at 135,519 (JASSO, 2014c).

The six government ministries that negotiated the details of the 300,000 Students Plan<sup>12</sup> stated that efforts would be made to strategically recruit excellent international students, giving “due consideration to the balance of countries, regions and fields of study” (MEXT, 2008 p. 3). Provision in the Global 30 Project enabling the establishment

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<sup>11</sup> Under the 300,000 International Students Plan, the Japanese government's definition of *international student* has been widened. The term *Ryūgakusei* (international student) now includes non-university students (such as Japanese language school students), foreign students without official study abroad visas (such as those on spouse visas or short-term students on exchange programs without visas). This widening of definition resulted in an immediate increase in the number of international students being counted (Ishikawa, 2011).

<sup>12</sup> MEXT, Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA); Ministry of Justice (MOJ); Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (MHLW); Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI); and Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (MLIT).

of overseas offices to provide comprehensive information on Japanese universities shows some progress in this regard. This is because the majority of the new overseas offices have been established in non-traditional student source countries. MEXT figures from 2008 show that the overall international student population in Japan was at that time 92% Asian, with most students coming from China (59%), South Korea (15%), Taiwan (4%), and Vietnam (2%) (MEXT, 2009c), however, the new offices are located in Tunisia, Egypt, Germany, Russia, India, Uzbekistan, and Vietnam (MEXT, 2009a). These new offices are starting to result in perceptible shifts in the numbers of international students arriving from these countries. Whereas 2013 data show that China, South Korea, Taiwan and Vietnam remain the top senders of students to Japan,<sup>13</sup> Germany, India, Russia, Egypt and Uzbekistan rank 15<sup>th</sup>, 16<sup>th</sup>, 20<sup>th</sup>, 26<sup>th</sup>, and 27<sup>th</sup> respectively, with Russia, Egypt and Uzbekistan each ranking higher than the previous year.<sup>14</sup> Tunisia does not rank among the top thirty countries sending students to Japan (JASSO, 2014c). It is noticeable that efforts to recruit international students to participate in ETPs focus on non-native English speakers.

The five central measures that form the 300,000 Students Plan can be summarized as: 1) inviting international students to Japan through providing information about Japan and promoting Japanese language training overseas; 2) streamlining entrance examinations, enrollment and immigrant procedures for international students; 3) enhancing the ‘globalization’ of Japanese HEIs (The G30 Project spearheads this measure); 4) improving housing, financial and counseling support for international

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<sup>13</sup> However, Taiwan has slipped into fourth position, one place behind Vietnam, in the number of students it sends to study in Japan.

<sup>14</sup> 2008 data is unavailable.

students and 5) providing support for graduates to live and work in Japan (Kamibeppu, 2012; MEXT et al., 2008; MEXT, 2010a).

This section has explained that, as in many non-Anglophone countries, the use of EMI and the number of ETPs in Japan is growing. In order to boost Japan's international competitiveness in the globalizing world, the government introduced a plan in 2008 to host 300,000 international students by the year 2020. Referencing European developments after the Bologna Declaration, the Japanese government allocated funding to internationalize Japanese HEIs through the creation of new ETPs. Thirteen universities received this funding via the Global 30 Project over the five academic years from 2009 until 2014. The project has been successful in meeting its goals as by the final year of the funding cycle, the 13 universities had surpassed their targets and launched 186 new ETPs. Other institutions throughout Japan are also increasing EMI and ETPs. However, despite this growth, many of the EMI courses and ETPs enroll low numbers of students and the use of English as a language of instruction in Japan remains peripheral to Japanese HE.

## **Problem Statement**

### **Problem of Practice**

EMI is spreading rapidly throughout the non-Anglophone academic world. With an increasingly mobile student, faculty and researcher population, English fulfills the need for an international language of communication to such an extent that it has been called "the academic lingua franca" (van Leeuwen, 2003: 20) and can be seen as an indispensable tool for any education system or HEI that wants to remain globally competitive. However, the adoption of EMI in HEIs is not a matter of simply switching

the vehicle of communication and then continuing as usual. There are many different ways of shaping a multilingual educational environment and HEIs may employ varying practices (van Leeuwen, 2004). For example, program implementers must make decisions regarding when and in what scope English is employed. Questions they must ask themselves include: Does the HEI aim to develop multilingual competence in students by expecting international students to learn the native language of the HEI? In the case of ETPs where both instructors and students share the same non-English native language, is code-switching permissible? Will English be the language of the university administration and environment? (van Leeuwen, 2004). There is concern that the enthusiasm and trend for EMI in HE leads to unrealistic expectations of only positive outcomes from EMI and a less than vigorous deliberation of the implementation processes and potential side effects involved (Byun, Chu, Kim, Park, Kim & Jung, 2011; de Wit, 2013a; Shohamy, 2013).

Many researchers, especially those in Europe and in particular those in Scandinavia and the Netherlands, have investigated the effects of EMI on student learning outcomes and instructor performance. These studies have raised concerns that the quality of education is compromised when English is a foreign language for the students and/or instructor. For example, students need more time to process and understand the language (Hellekjær, 2010; Wilkinson, 2005), and instructors lose the ability to improvise and clearly express their subject matter (Airey, 2011; Vinke, Snippe & Jochems, 1998; Wilkinson, 2005). In addition, instructors often do not possess the specialized skills needed to assist students with language-related issues (Hartman, Lavelle & Wistedt, 2004).

EMI concerns do not only relate to language however, but also to culture. When an HEI adopts EMI it opens itself up to diverse student and teacher populations which have different academic cultural norms and expectations. This can create dilemmas for both students and faculty who lack the intercultural knowledge important for adopting more inclusive practices and promoting reciprocal cultural understanding (Whitsed & Volet, 2010; Wong & Wu, 2011). In addition, the English language, even if only used as a language for effective communication, is not value-free and often veils American academic discourse and models of teaching (Block & Cameron, 2002; Hashimoto, 2005). Acceptance of, or resistance to, these practices can serve to either promote or impede the successful adoption of EMI depending on the context (Wong & Wu, 2011).

These concerns lead to challenges in implementing EMI. Challenges lie in ensuring that students are up to the task of studying in English, and in finding faculty with the requisite skills who are willing to teach EMI courses, especially as these courses routinely increase the faculty workload (Klaassen, 2008; Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Vinke, 1995). In fact, faculty buy-in has been described by leading international educationalists as consistently one of the biggest obstacles to any activities that contribute to the internationalization of HE (Harari, 1981; Ritzen, 2004). Difficulties also arise in expanding administration and support services to cater to the increasingly heterogeneous student and faculty body, and especially in finding international education professionals who can cope with the pressures of adopting English and working with a diverse student and faculty population (Tsuneyoshi, 2005).

Given the widespread concern over the linguistic and cultural difficulties that affect the implementation of EMI, it is likely that implementers in Japan, a country that is

not known for its foreign language skills (Loveday, 1996), but is known for being fiercely proud of its unique culture (Kubota, 2002), will experience many of the same challenges that have beset implementers in nations elsewhere. In addition, university administrators and faculty at Japanese universities widely acknowledge that structural intransigence often problematizes the implementation of new initiatives (Fitzpatrick, 2008, 2010; Ishikawa, 2011; Lim, 2008; Masters, 2008; Nakagami, n.d), and therefore it is expected that the national push for ETPs will encounter similar challenges in implementation at the institutional level. In her 2011 discussion of the making of global universities in Japan, Ishikawa talks about the challenges of securing internal support for the introduction of ETPs and even goes so far as to state that "for national universities, by far the biggest challenge is to create English-language degree courses at the undergraduate level" (p. 200).

This study therefore addresses the problem that, despite positive rhetoric concerning the necessity for EMI and ETPs in today's global HE environment, difficulties exist in their implementation. Given Japan's notable history as a nation proud of its unique language and culture, and of its historic reluctance to open up to the wider world (Hall, 1998; Kubota, 2002; Loveday, 1996), it is likely that Japan will face challenges in the national push for ETPs and crucial that the implementation of these program be investigated.

### **Problem of Research**

Much of the discussion about the use of English in HE has been published in language and linguistic journals and has focused on the impacts of EMI on student learning outcomes and instructor performance, particularly in Scandinavia and the

Netherlands (e.g., Airey, 2010, 2011; Björkman, 2010; Hellekjær, 2010; Smit, 2010; Tatzl, 2011; Vinke, Snippe & Jochems, 1998). Yet, despite the growing trend for EMI and ETPs in tertiary institutions throughout the world, there have been fewer research studies about the practices of those implementing EMI and ETPs and the challenges that are experienced in those endeavors. In Japan, research that has been carried out to date paints only a partial picture of the use of EMI, generally focusing on short-term EMI courses and graduate education. This study seeks to bridge this research gap by providing in-depth data-driven analysis focused on the undergraduate level.

A small body of research seeks to understand the overall implementation picture of EMI and ETPs. Of significant note are the large-scale surveys conducted in Europe by the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) (Maiworm & Wächter, 2002; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008) and Ammon and McConnell (2002). These studies surveyed 19, 27 and 22 European countries respectively to describe the scale and nature of EMI and ETPs in Europe. Research on EMI implementation patterns in Asia tends to focus on the tensions surrounding language policies in post-colonial states (e.g., Tollefson & Tsui, 2004; Tsui & Tollefson, 2007). However, these studies have limited applicability in East Asia, where China, Korea and Japan were never fully colonized by Anglophone states.

There is growing interest in the challenges of implementing EMI and ETPs at institutions in national contexts. Northern Europe is again the focus of much of the research, for example, Maastricht University is at the center of Robert Wilkinson's studies (2004, 2013), and a number of studies have been conducted in Germany (e.g. Ammon & McConnell, 2002; Erling & Hilgendorf, 2006; McCallum Beatty, 2010). A recently published volume widens this focus, and in addition to including chapters on the

Netherlands and Finland, provides detailed studies from Spain, South Africa, Hong Kong, Israel and the USA (Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013). The rapid growth of EMI in South Korea has been also gaining attention in recent years and researchers are beginning to write about the problems of implementing EMI in the South Korean context (e.g., Byun et al., 2011; Cho, 2012; Jon & Kim, 2011; Kim & Sohn, 2009; MacDonald, 2009). Published research literature about EMI and ETPs in other non-Anglophone East Asian contexts is more scarce, but increasing numbers of conference presentations about these contexts demonstrate that research is being carried out (e.g. Chuang, 2012; Lei & Hu, 2013).

In Japan, research studies frequently mention EMI and ETPs as a strategy for internationalizing and increasing the competitiveness of the nation's HE system (e.g. Brown, 2014; Hashimoto, 2005; Jon & Kim, 2011; Lassegard, 2006; Manakul, 2007b, 2007b; Mori, 2011; Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Watabe, 2010), but there is limited evidence of the challenges involved in implementation. In 2005, both Tsuneyoshi and Hashimoto detailed many of the dilemmas involved in implementing short-term EMI programs; in 2006, Lassegard interviewed international students, some of whom were taking some of their courses in English; and in 2007, Manakul (2007a) examined professor and student perceptions of ETPs in a graduate school of engineering. More recently, Watabe (2010) referred to EMI in her examination of internationalization processes at Japanese universities; Jon and Kim (2011) explored the use of EMI to recruit international students in South Korea and Japan; and Brown (2014) surveyed the contextual factors driving EMI growth in Japan.

These studies paint only a partial picture of the realities that Japanese universities face in introducing and expanding their use of EMI to extend to full degree programs. Tsuneyoshi (2005) investigated short-term, mostly one-semester, study abroad courses, likewise, Brown (2014) primarily studied short EMI courses and did not address implementation experiences; Lassegard (2006) presented a very brief description of only a few students; Manakul (2007a) examined only graduate engineering education; Watabe (2010) focused on overall university internationalization; and Jon and Kim (2011) drew their conclusions based on a review of the literature only, relying heavily on the Tsuneyoshi study. As the number of full degree-length ETPs in Japan grows, there is a need for more in-depth data-driven research, especially at the undergraduate level. This study seeks to address this problem.

### **Purpose of Study and Research Questions**

The purpose of this study is to better understand how and why ETPs are being implemented at Japanese HEIs. In other words, it seeks to explore the ways that ETPs are implemented, the challenges encountered in implementation, and why they are being implemented in the ways that they are. Specifically, this study focuses on liberal-arts-based undergraduate ETPs, programs taught entirely through the medium of English that lead to a full undergraduate degree, as these are a new phenomenon in mainstream Japanese universities (see Table 1). Because the challenges faced in the implementation of these programs have not yet been investigated, a noteworthy research gap exists. This study seeks to fill that gap in the research concerning the use of English in Japanese HE so that as the numbers of undergraduate ETPs in Japan rise, those involved in the

resourcing, planning, development and execution of the programs may be able to better accomplish their goals.

The study examines how three Japanese universities are implementing undergraduate ETPs from the perspectives of different groups of program implementers. It explores the factors which shaped the implementation of these programs, and it compares the understandings of these implementers with publically available information about the programs. Three universities were chosen for this study as the results from multiple cases give strength to the study and provide a more representative picture of the use of English in Japanese HE than would one single case study. Similarly, the study examines ETPs from the perspectives of three groups of people involved in the programs' implementation in order to gain a holistic picture of these programs at the programmatic level. Program implementers working in different capacities will bring varying background knowledge and views to the study. Finally, the study compares the understandings of these implementers with documentation about the programs so that any unintended consequences of program implementation can be identified.

This is an exploratory study which seeks to make a practical contribution to building knowledge, and from which recommendations to inform better practice in the implementation of ETPs will be drawn. The study is driven by the following research questions:

1. What do program implementers (senior administrators, faculty members and international education support staff) see as the characteristics of, rationales for, implementation challenges, and practical responses to the undergraduate English-taught degree programs at their institutions?

2. How do program implementers (senior administrators, faculty members and international education support staff) explain and make sense of the characteristics of, rationales for, implementation challenges, and practical responses to the undergraduate English-taught degree programs at their institutions?
3. How do these characteristics, rationales, implementation challenges, and practical responses compare with official undergraduate English-taught degree program documentation from the Ministry of Education, Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, and the higher education institutions where the undergraduate English-taught degree programs are situated, and why might any differences exist?

Question one first asks undergraduate ETP implementers to describe the undergraduate ETPs at their institutions to get an understanding of the ETPs' realities. The programs cannot be thoroughly understood without description of what is actually taking place at the *genba*, or site of implementation, and program implementers are well-situated to provide this information. Three types of program implementers - senior administrators, faculty members and international education support staff - were chosen for this study in order to gain a holistic picture of the ETPs. Each of the three groups are likely to have different perspectives concerning the programs and the synergy of these views enables a more complete understanding. The administrators are more likely to have policy-informed views of the ETPs whereas the faculty members and international education support staff may be more inclined to have views informed by the educational value and practicalities of program implementation respectively.

Question two explores the implementers' understandings of why ETPs are being implemented at the institutions in which they work. These understandings frame the choices that each implementer makes during the entire process of program implementation and are influenced by the implementers' past interactions with the world and conditioned by their cultural perspectives. They may ultimately affect the final characteristics of the ETP that are put in place. Analysis of program implementers' understandings will help paint a picture of how different cultural perspectives and past experiences affect ETPs and provide for a rich picture of the programs.

ETPs can differ in such characteristics as the provision of host-nation language instruction in the curricula, the make-up of the faculty (e.g. Japanese or non-Japanese, English-language or content specialist instructors), the nationalities of the students enrolled in the programs, and the amount and type of academic support offered to students. Factors which may influence the implementers' perspectives could include: the implementers' educational backgrounds, previous interactions with the English language or international students, and the culture of the institution within which they work. For example, faculty members with experience working in the United Kingdom may have had training in diverse teaching methods through the Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education that is now mandatory at many U.K. HEIs. Similarly, those educated in English-speaking countries may be more likely to teach their ETP classes in a more interactive and communicative manner replete with anecdotes because of higher comfort-levels in communicating in English, than those with less experience of English-language education.

Understanding what the implementers believe to be the rationales for implementing ETPs (in other words, why the implementers believe they are carrying out the programs) will help to provide clarification of why the ETPs have taken on the characteristics that they have, and offer perspectives on challenges that have been encountered during their implementation. Rationales for implementing ETPs could include to attract foreign students, to provide international experiences for domestic students, to improve the international reputation of the HEI, or to obtain government funding. As an example, an implementer who believes that ETPs have been adopted to provide international experiences for domestic students, may make efforts to integrate international and domestic students in the same classroom, whereas an educator who believes that ETPs exist only to attract foreign students may make no provisions in the ETP for domestic students.

An understanding of the challenges that program implementers have encountered in implementing the ETPs is also important for this study, as existing studies of EMI implementation in Japan have only examined short-term and graduate programs. Challenges that program implementers may encounter include insufficient English language ability on the part of instructors and students, and difficulties in managing the cultural expectations of members of heterogeneous classrooms. How implementers perceive challenges is affected by their rationales, past experiences and values. For example, a professor that has experience of working on international collaborative research projects is likely to have had experience in managing cultural expectations and may not perceive this to be a problem in the ETP classroom.

By exploring the actions that program implementers are taking in order to overcome challenges they face, this study provides perspectives on why programs may have developed certain characteristics. The practical responses to challenges might include such actions as teaching in a mix of English and Japanese, or capitalizing on the heterogeneous make-up of the ETP classroom by using it as a forum for intercultural exchange.

Question three compares the program implementers' understandings of the ETPs with the ETPs as formally described in publically available documents. By comparing how those at the *genba* make sense of the programs relative to the published rationales for and characteristics of the ETPs, this study will be able to draw attention to any unintended consequences with regard to the programs' characteristics. Furthermore, analysis focused on the perceptions of the implementers will reveal whether any differences are based on practical concerns (such as a shortfall in resources that makes implementation of the policy intent impractical) or as a result of differences in understandings of the ETPs between those who set the policies and those performing the implementation.

These research questions provide a framework for finding out what is actually occurring at the site of ETP implementation. They will give insight into program implementers' understandings of why ETPs are being implemented, and will draw attention to any unintended outcomes of the programs. They questions are addressed through a multiple-case study design which employs in-depth semi-structured interviews and document analysis. The research strategy is discussed further in Chapter III.

### **Potential Significance of Study**

A study of ETPs in Japan is important for several reasons. First, this study will help administrators and policy makers to understand the values and mindsets of program implementers in Japan. This provides information on what might and might not work when considering policy initiatives that focus on ETPs or other internationally-focused education activities.

Second, the results of this study will be of practical value to institutions that intend to embark upon or expand their English-language programming. A more systematic cataloguing of the rationales for, characteristics of, challenges in implementing, and practical responses to the new ETPs will enable administrators and faculty members to make informed decisions about how to improve and develop existing and future ETPs.

Third, the study will contribute to the body of knowledge in the field of HE internationalization policy implementation in Japan. The perceived benefits of EMI, for both the Japanese government and HEIs, are encouraging the introduction of ETPs with perhaps little careful deliberation of the difficulties in implementing such programs. Considering that these programs require the investment of significant resources, it is necessary that Japanese policy makers and HE leaders understand the realities of how ETPs are actually implemented at the programmatic level, and understand the experiences of faculty members and staff involved in these programs. In doing so, they can better determine appropriate policies.

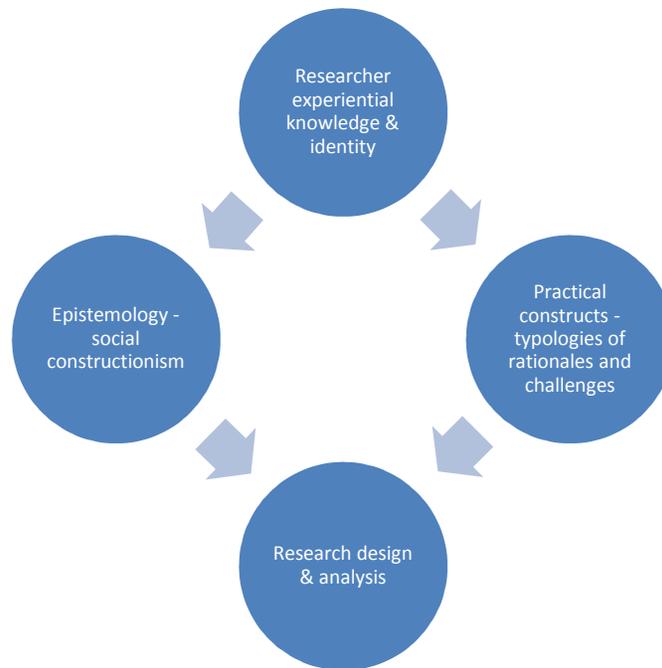
Fourth, since ETPs are considered to be a major component of the internationalization of HE in non-Anglophone countries, it is hoped that this study will

add to the broader literature on the internationalization of HE, particularly as it relates to Japan, but also as a foundation for future study in other non-Anglophone countries.

The results of this study may also be of use to those involved in academic exchange in countries which have an interest in sending students to Japan to study, as well as to the students themselves. By understanding the realities of ETPs in Japan these stakeholders will be able to make informed decisions about Japan as a study destination.

### **Conceptual Framework**

A conceptual framework is a “system of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs and theories” (Maxwell, 2013 p. 39) that supports and informs the research endeavor. It constitutes an orienting lens through which the researcher approaches the study. It focuses the research, informs the research questions, aids data generation, and provides structure for analysis. The conceptual underpinnings for this study are two-fold: epistemological and practical, and are informed by the researcher’s experiential knowledge and identity. Researcher knowledge and identity give support to decisions made at all stages of the design process of this dissertation. They inform the epistemological stance and the decision to use practical constructs to sensitize the researcher to concepts which will aid data generation and interpretation. The epistemological stance guiding the research is social constructionism. The two practical constructs are Knight and de Wit’s rationales for internationalization (1995) and a typology of implementation challenges facing EMI derived from Tsuneyoshi’s 2005 study. The conceptual framework is illustrated in Figure 1.



*Figure 1. Conceptual Framework*

The researcher is the primary data-gathering instrument and analyst in qualitative research (Maxwell, 2013). Therefore, researcher experiential knowledge and identity underpin the decisions made at all stages of the design process of this dissertation, and they must be reflected upon as forming the basis of the conceptual framework guiding the study. My experiences living overseas and studying and working in various international academic programs for a number of years inform my belief that the skills international experience promotes (raising the awareness of one's own cultural values and those of others, learning to communicate cross-culturally, and the ability to problem solve) are of critical importance. I am therefore a strong advocate of international and global education and a supporter of initiatives that promote comprehensive internationalization.

Social constructionism was felt to be the most appropriate epistemological stance to guide the research design and analysis as I believe that the actions individuals take are

a result of their past interactions with the world and are conditioned through their cultural perspectives. Social constructionism also provides guidelines for the practical execution of this study. It encourages the use of open-ended questions to allow participants to construct the meaning of phenomena, and it enables the researcher to focus on the contexts, backgrounds and social interactions that shape both their interpretations and those of the study participants (Creswell, 2007).

The two practical constructs, Knight and de Wits' rationales for internationalization (1995) and a typology of implementation challenges derived from Tsuneyoshi's 2005 study also guide this study. Knight and de Wit (1995; Knight, 1999) put forward four, now widely recognized, rationales for why HEIs internationalize - political, economic, social-cultural, and academic. Tsuneyoshi (2005) writes about linguistic, cultural and structural challenges which face HEIs adopting EMI. These two constructs sensitize the researcher to concepts which will aid the data generation and interpretation.

As will be described in Chapter II, in addition to affecting the decisions regarding the choice of internationalization activities that a HEI undertakes, rationales for why HEIs internationalize can affect the way that internationally-orientated activities are implemented. This is exemplified if, for example, the case of Finnish national HE internationalization policy, which aims to enhance the quality of Finnish education by offering ETPs, is contrasted with Slovenian policy, which uses ETPs as a means to increase international contacts. Finland's rationales are more academically inclined, whereas those of Slovenia could be categorized as political/economic (Ammon & McConnell, 2002). The four rationales - political, economic, social-cultural, and

academic have become the most widely recognized in the literature describing the internationalization activities of HE, and are used in this dissertation to sensitize the researcher to the data generated and guide the analysis of the reasons why key implementers in ETPs believe they are carrying out the ETPs, and experiencing and overcoming the challenges associated with ETP implementation in the ways that they are.

Tsuneyoshi (2005) described the consequences that arise alongside the adoption of EMI in Japan. In doing so, she identified three types of challenge - linguistic, cultural and structural - that program implementers may face when implementing ETPs. These categories were found to be a useful construct for organizing the literature review for this dissertation. Although there is overlap between these categories, and they do not serve as a definitive typology, they will be continued to be used throughout this study as a construct through which to generate data and a platform from which to build further analysis.

This study seeks to be perceptive to the experiential and cultural influences that impact the rationales for and challenges that face the implementation of ETPs and thereby shape the programs. Through its use of social constructionism, attention will be given to how the past experiences of all of the actors involved in the study, including the researcher, may influence the interpretation of the rationales for and challenges faced in implementing the new programs.

The conceptual framework has guided the focus of the research questions and aided in the development interview guide in that it directed attention to rationales and challenges and encouraged the use of open-ended questions that highlight the backgrounds and experiences of the participants. Finally, the conceptual framework was

instrumental during the data management and analysis stages of this dissertation, serving to sensitize the researcher to constructs and concepts that were expanded upon as analysis progressed.

### **Researcher Subjectivity**

In qualitative research studies, all observations and analyses are filtered through the researcher's lens, and are affected by their worldviews, values and prior experiences (Merriam, 2009; Schram, 2006). It is therefore essential that researchers understand, reflect upon, and monitor their personal subjectivities related to the topic under study and notice how these impact data generation, analysis and interpretation. Peshkin (1988) notes, "When their [the researchers'] subjectivity remains unconscious, they insinuate rather than knowingly clarify their personal stakes... These qualities have the capacity to filter, skew, shape, block, transform, construe, and misconstrue what transpires" (p. 17). In order to gain awareness of the filters that will influence my understanding of the implementation of ETPs in Japanese universities, I will reflect upon my values and past experiences in the following subjectivity statement, and continually throughout the study through the use of memos and a reflective journal.

Having lived, studied and worked internationally for a number of years, I embarked on this study with a belief that internationally-oriented activities within HE are extremely important. I believe that exposure to different ways of thinking and knowing is necessary for young people as they learn to become responsible citizens in today's interconnected world. Yet, as a native English speaker educated in Great Britain and the United States, I am aware of the hegemony of the English language and the prominence of Anglo-American academic traditions in many internationalization activities. I hope to

be mindful of my background and sensitive to the traditions of others during the research process. I do not believe that there is one correct way of learning, speaking, or thinking, or of introducing international activities to an institution. I hope that my international experiences have fostered in me the patience to understand and listen to others.

My personal experiences in Japan began in 1998 as a new graduate and freshly qualified teacher of English as a foreign language. During eight years in Japan, I have taught English, academic skills and international studies at a number of different institutions at various levels. I have worked with Japanese students preparing to transition to English-medium programs in inner-circle (Kachru, 1985) native English-speaking countries, as well those learning English for leisure, for professional reasons and as part of required undergraduate classes. I have also developed cultural and academic exchange programs as an International Affairs Fellow and researcher in Japan. I currently teach EMI courses at a Japanese university and accompany students to the United States for study abroad experience. I have worked with international and domestic Japanese instructors and professors teaching through the medium of English.

In the United States I taught students from a diverse range of countries enrolled in English programs and mainstream university courses, including those preparing to become English teachers in their native countries and American teachers who teach students from different language backgrounds in the United States and abroad. My colleagues have been both native and non-native speakers of English. I have also taught in Indonesia, Hong Kong and Germany. These experiences have led me to anticipate that participants in this study will have disparate viewpoints and suggestions regarding the

implementation of ETP, some mediated by culture, others as a product of their own international experiences and position towards the English language.

### **Delimitations of the Study**

Delimitations set boundaries to narrow the scope of a study (Creswell, 2003). This study is bound by several delimiting factors: (a) its focus on three universities which all receive funding from the G30 Project and are launching new ETPs with that funding; (b) the decision to limit the programs under study to undergraduate bachelor's degree level ETPs, and thereby excluding master's and doctoral programs; (c) the decision to explore only social science-based ETPs to limit the effects of the inevitable internationalization that occurs in scientific fields (e.g. more frequent international research collaboration and publication in the English language); and (d) the decision to include only ETPs which culminate in a bachelor's degree obtained entirely through the medium of English in Japan, thereby excluding short-term study abroad programs and degrees obtained through a mix of English and other languages.

### **Limitations of the Study**

Limitations recognize potential weaknesses in a study (Creswell, 2003). This study has several limitations in the purposeful sampling procedure and case study strategy used that will affect the analysis and generalizability of the results. As EMI is not mainstream in Japanese universities and the G30 Project is a relatively new initiative, the program implementers have likely had limited experience with EMI and ETPs and so interpretation of the ways they view and make sense of the ETPs must bear that in mind. In addition, although different groups of program implementers were selected for interview to represent diverse institutional viewpoints, the interviews were conducted

with only a select number of participants at each case-study institution. Furthermore, upon embarking on the interviews, it was discovered that the boundaries between the groups of program implementers are very blurred. Senior administrator positions are often held by faculty members at Japanese universities, and therefore senior administrators also often have significant teaching responsibilities. Consequently, representation of diverse implementer perspectives is limited.

The limitations are similar at the institutional level. All of the case-study HEIs in this study are experiencing undergraduate ETPs for the first time and have very few programs, and so the results may reflect more challenges in ETP implementation than would be the case if the ETPs had a longer history. In addition, the decision to focus on only three HEIs, while necessary in order to retain depth of analysis and provide timely results, limits the diversity and robustness of the results.

An additional limitation exists with regard to the discipline of the ETP to be studied at each institution. The programs under study all fall into the broad category of social science. However, the subject content of each ETP varies. This may result in differences in the ways their implementation are viewed. The study is not intended to be generalizable to the implementation of ETPs in all disciplines, nor to all universities implementing ETPs.

There are also possible limitations in the interview process that may affect the interpretation and application of the research findings. First, it is possible that the participant responses are subject to pressures of social and political desirability. Participants may want to portray their institutions in a favorable light, and may therefore be reluctant to speak openly or honestly. Second, as a non-Japanese researcher with no

affiliation to the institutions, I am an outsider. This may have either positive or negative effects on the openness of the participants. On the one hand I may be viewed as ‘outside of the system’ and therefore as unthreatening, allowing participants to feel that they could speak openly. On the other hand, my otherness could lead to lack of rapport, especially with administrators and staff, leading to a reluctance to speak openly. A third limitation is the choice of English as the language of the interviews. The participants in this study are using English in their jobs, however, they may or may not be native English speakers, and non-native English proficiency may limit participants’ understanding of some of the interview questions or otherwise influence the nature of their answer. This limitation was minimized by piloting the interview guide in advance. Fourth, the administrators, faculty members and staff participating in this study are all involved in the ETPs. It is assumed that many of these program implementers are voluntarily involved in the programs and are therefore positively oriented to the idea of ETPs. This may positively influence the findings and minimize the perceived severity of the implementation challenges encountered.

### **Assumptions**

This study assumes that culture, values and the rationales for adopting ETPs influence the practices undertaken in their implementation and therefore the characteristics of the program. With that, it assumes that there is more than one way to implement an ETP and that the practices chosen reflect the context of the institutions and personal beliefs of those involved.

## **Definitions of Key Terms**

### English-Medium Instruction (EMI)

EMI refers to classroom instruction carried out through the medium of the English language. In this study it is often used when talking about short-term courses. It does not refer to an entire degree program that is carried out in English.

### English-Taught Programs (ETPs)

ETPs are HE programs which use English exclusively as the language of instruction in countries where English is not the usual language of instruction in HE. This study focuses on undergraduate Bachelor ETPs only, defined in accordance with European Bologna requirements as a first-cycle program of at least three years' duration. Following Wächter and Maiworm (2008), programs in which the content is taught predominantly, but not entirely in English, i.e. in a mix of English and the domestic (or other) language, are excluded from the focus of this study (the program may comprise some domestic language instruction). Programs in which English is the object of study, e.g. English language or American studies programs are also excluded from the study.

### Non-Anglophone Countries

Countries where English is not the domestic language or primary language of instruction in the education system (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008).

### Class

In this study, the term class refers to one classroom period. It is not used synonymously with course.

### Course

Course refers to a series of classes on a particular subject that usually lasts a term or semester.

### Program

In the context of this study, a program consists of a series of courses which lead to a specific outcome, usually an academic degree.

### Globalization

Globalization is “the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, ideas...across borders. Globalization affects each country in a different way due to a nation’s individual history, traditions, culture and priorities” (Knight, 1997, p.

6). Globalization's transnational flows and networks between states, non-governmental organizations, communities, international institutions, and multinational corporations break down physical and temporal borders, reduce government power, disrupt national structures, and blur the differences between societies (Urry 1998; Yoder, 2010).

### Internationalization

Internationalization is a comprehensive “commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education” (Hudzik, 2011 p. 6).

### International Students

In accordance with the definition by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2012), students in this study are classified as international students if “they left their country of origin and moved to another country for the purpose of study” (p. 371). International students are contrasted to foreign students.

### Foreign Students

Foreign students are students who “are not citizens of the country in which the data are collected” (OECD, 2012 p. 371). In the context of this study, foreign students are citizens of countries other than Japan who did not expressly move to Japan to study. This category includes permanent residents and minority groups such as the *zainichi*, Japan's ethnic Korean residents.

### Challenge

In this study, this term is used to reflect the barriers, hesitations, difficulties, and concerns that program implementers may or may not experience in implementing EMI and ETPs.

## **Overview of the Dissertation**

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter I has provided the context for the study by giving background on EMI and ETPs. It then discussed the problems of practice and research, the purpose of the study, research questions and significance of the study. The conceptual framework was presented, followed by a discussion of researcher subjectivity. In addition, delimitations, limitations and assumptions were outlined and key terms were defined.

Chapter II situates the study within the significant literature on internationalization, student mobility and English-taught programs. It then synthesizes the empirical literature on ETPs, exploring the rationales for implementing and characteristics of ETPs. It discusses challenges that HEIs have faced, and ways that these challenges may be overcome. The chapter ends with a short summary.

Chapter III presents the study's research design. It offers an explanation of the paradigm of inquiry, research strategy, participant selection, data generation methods,

and analysis. It also reflects on the study's trustworthiness and consideration of human participants.

Chapter IV presents an analysis of the data generated. It begins by describing general information about the study participants and then goes on to present individual case studies of the ETPs investigated at each of the HEIs. It then offers a cross-case analysis which reports on themes that have emerged as salient across all programs.

Chapter V reflects on the results presented in the previous chapter with regard to the overarching research focus of the study and in relation to previous research. Attention is drawn to issues that are crucial in the consideration of ETP implementation. The chapter then offers implications for theory and practice, presents key insights and makes recommendations for further research before providing concluding remarks. References and appendices close the dissertation.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter synthesizes the literature relevant to this study. As ETPs are part of the larger phenomenon of the internationalization of HE, it is useful to first situate the study within this literature and then discuss ETPs and the issues that arise in introducing EMI into non-Anglophone universities. This chapter is divided into four main sections. The first section provides background for understanding the internationalization of HE, describing the definition of and rationales for internationalization. It includes sub-sections on student mobility as the competition for international students is regarded as an important aspect of HE internationalization, and a driving force behind many ETPs. The second section examines internationalization initiatives in Japanese HE, including the rationales for their development. Section three explores the literature relating to the introduction and characteristics of ETPs in non-Anglophone countries. Finally, section four highlights the challenges facing HEIs in implementing ETPs.

#### **Internationalization of Higher Education**

Over the last two decades the concept of *internationalization* in HE has gained in popularity, moving from the periphery to the core of interest in HE systems, and becoming embedded in national policy frameworks as well as in institutional mission statements, policies and strategies (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011; de Wit, 2013b; Knight, 2011a). In order to provide a foundation for understanding the implementation of ETPs in HE, this section provides an overview of the evolution of the concept of internationalization and clarifies some of its complexities. Next, various rationales for internationalization are discussed as they are important for understanding why certain

activities and processes, including ETPs, are chosen to enable the internationalization of HEIs. This is followed by sub-sections on the subject of international student mobility, both worldwide and in Japan, in order to explain one of the main driving forces behind the implementation of ETPs.

### **Definition of the Internationalization of Higher Education**

The definition of internationalization in HE has evolved over time to symbolize the growing number of activities and practices that the concept encompasses. Early conceptualizations of internationalization define it as a series of individual international components or activities carried out by HEIs. The definitions given by Harari (1972) and Arum and van der Water (1992) provide good examples of the early activities-based approach. Harari (1972) writes about “an all-inclusive term encompassing three major strands: (a) international content of curricula, (b) international movement of scholars and students concerned with training and research, and (c) arrangements engaging U.S. education abroad in technical assistance and educational cooperation programs” (p. 3), and Arum and van der Water (1992) describe “multiple activities, programs and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation” (p. 202). These two definitions, in fact, better describe *international education*, a term used in the U.S. in the period between World War II and the end of the Cold War to describe the international elements of HEIs. This term was used interchangeably with internationalization by Harari and others until European, Australian and Canadian researchers popularized the term *internationalization* as incorporating the notion of process (de Wit, 2002; 2013b).

In current research literature, the most widely cited definition for internationalization in HE is that proposed by Jane Knight in 2003. She stresses an organizational or *process* approach, emphasizing that internationalization is an ongoing process that must be infused throughout policies and programs in order to remain central and sustainable. Knight (2003; 2004) defines internationalization thus: “Internationalization at the national, sector, and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education.” (2003, p. 2). This is an update to Knight’s (1994) earlier definition which was limited to the institutional level. The newer definition reflects the importance of the larger national and sector levels in internationalization decisions. Also, it does not specify the rationales, benefits, outcomes, actors, activities, and stakeholders of internationalization, and therefore is generic enough to apply to many different countries and education systems (Knight, 2003; 2004).

Discussion on the meanings of internationalization (see de Wit (2002) for a thorough review), has yielded a newer definition that is more specific in naming the actors of HE internationalization, yet also seeks to recognize the diverse sets of people and objectives involved in internationalization in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Hudzik, 2011). The term *comprehensive internationalization* was put forward by The American Council on Education (ACE) in many of its works (e.g. Engberg & Green, 2002; Olsen, Green & Hill, 2005, 2006) and has been elaborated on by the Association of International Educators (NAFSA) (Hudzik, 2011). This definition seeks to accommodate all of the possible dimensions of internationalization taking account of the fact that the scale and

scope of internationalization has increased dramatically in recent years. NAFSA defines comprehensive internationalization as:

Comprehensive internationalization is a commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education. It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire higher education enterprise. It is essential that it be embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty, students, and all academic service and support units. It is an institutional imperative, not just a desirable possibility.

Comprehensive internationalization not only impacts all of campus life but the institution's external frames of reference, partnerships, and relations. The global reconfiguration of economies, systems of trade, research, and communication, and the impact of global forces on local life, dramatically expand the need for comprehensive internationalization and the motivations and purposes driving it (Hudzik, 2011, p. 6).

Of note in this lengthy definition is the fact that NAFSA (Hudzik, 2011) builds upon Knight's process approach by emphasizing the long-term commitment to internationalization which must be embraced by all members of the HEI community. This demonstrates the centrality that internationalization has in the HE of today.

Hudzik (2011), in his description of comprehensive internationalization, was careful to document that it has numerous possible operational meanings that vary depending on the context and rationales for internationalization. These operational meanings, as well as concepts associated with internationalization were summarized and presented in terms of their evolutionary timeframe by Knight in 2011 and are presented in Table 3 below. Hudzik (2011) states that many HEIs currently focus on just one or some of the activities associated with internationalization as outlined in Table 3 and that only a few HEIs integrate activities into "a systematic commitment to comprehensive internationalization" (p. 8-9).

Table 3

*The Evolution of the Language, Components and Activities Associated with Internationalization*

Timeframe	Language, Components and Activities
40-50 years ago	International education, comparative education, international development co-operation, cultural agreements, area studies (term from the U.S.), language study, foreign students
20-30 years ago	Internationalization, globalization, multicultural education, intercultural education, trade agreements, study abroad, international students
15-20 years ago	Cross-border education (transnational education, off-shore education), internationalization at home, regionalization, branch campuses, knowledge economy, networks, brain drain/gain, global citizenship
5-10 years ago	Global rankings, visa factories, education hubs, joint/double/consecutive degree programs, diploma/accreditation mills, outcomes, competencies, brain train/circulation, planetization
Next 10 years	Virtual internationalization, open educational resources, education clusters/cities/zones/hubs, inclusive internationalization, soft or smart power

*Note.* Adapted from Knight (2011b).

Although internationalization leaders have advanced this new broad, comprehensive definition, there is still some confusion as to the meaning of internationalization when it is operationalized. Hans de Wit and Jane Knight, respected scholars in the field of HE internationalization, have both remarked that in practice, internationalization is a “catchall phrase” (de Wit, 2002, p. 114; Knight, 2011a, p. 14) used to describe anything and everything that is the slightest bit international,

intercultural or global. They, along with Uwe Brandenburg, have lamented that the means and end goal of internationalization are often conflated and that this leads to major misconceptions about the concept of internationalization (Brandenburg, 2011a; de Wit, 2011, 2013b, 2014; Knight, 2011a). All too often, specific activities and strategies which contribute to the process of internationalization, such as the presence of international students on a campus, or the introduction of a university global branding campaign, are seen as successful quantitative measures of internationalization without regard to the perhaps intangible shifts in perceptions, values or actions of individual students, faculty or researchers that are promoted by comprehensive internationalization (de Wit, 2011, 2013b; Knight, 2011a).

The definition of internationalization also becomes confused when it is used interchangeably with *globalization*. Globalization and internationalization are most sensibly viewed as connected and complementary concepts, with globalization regarded as an external force to which HEIs are responding by voluntarily internationalizing - adapting while simultaneously respecting the individuality of nations (Knight, 2004; Altbach & Knight, 2007). In some literature their relationship is viewed as antagonistic. According to this viewpoint, globalization is a negative, 'black knight' forcing national cultures to homogenize in a predominantly Western manner (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011; Sanderson, 2010). In contrast, internationalization is a 'white knight', a response to the dark forces of globalization that is perceived as doing good, regardless of the actual substance of the internationalizing activities. Using the concepts of globalization and internationalization interchangeably risks devaluing the positive aspects of internationalization because synonymous use can place activities more related to

globalization, for example HE as a tradable commodity, under the umbrella of internationalization. Similarly, an overtly antagonistic use can mask the increasing number of globalization-activities carried out in the name of internationalization (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011).

The lack of clarity in the operationalization of the concept of internationalization has led to a call for *The End of Internationalization* (Brandenburg, 2011a; Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011; de Wit, 2011; Knight, 2011b) and a move to a “fresh unbiased paradigm” (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011, p. 17). Brandenburg (2011b) has suggested that Hudzik’s (2011) comprehensive internationalization definition presents an opportunity for practitioners to rethink their own confused definitions. However, clear effort needs to be made by HEIs to reorient their internationalization efforts towards outcomes and impacts to prevent the term comprehensive internationalization from becoming a mere re-labeling of old definitions (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2012; de Wit, 2014).

This study draws upon Hudzik’s (2011) definition of comprehensive internationalization in its discussion of the implementation of ETPs in Japanese universities. It views ETPs as an activity that education systems and HEIs may choose to employ in order to help them internationalize. However the presence of ETPs alone does not indicate that an education system or institution is international or internationalized.

### **Rationales for the Internationalization of Higher Education**

There are many reasons why an HEI may seek to internationalize. These rationales will affect the decisions regarding the choice of internationalization activities that an institution undertakes, as well as the way that these activities are implemented (Knight, 2004a). Knight (1997 p. 12) and de Wit (2002 p. 84) have both succinctly stated

that different rationales “imply different means and ends to internationalization”. It is therefore necessary to examine the different rationales for internationalization as a way to understand why internationalization efforts have taken the form that they have in different contexts. The question of “why” institutions seek to internationalize started to receive structured attention in the 1990s (de Wit, 2002), and the rationales proposed by Knight and de Wit (1995; Knight, 1999) have become the most widely recognized set of motivations for the internationalization of HE. These rationales are grouped into four, not necessarily clear and distinctively different, categories – academic, social-cultural, political, and economic - which provide a useful framework upon which to base discussion and analysis.

The academic rationale for internationalization assumes that adding an international dimension to teaching, research and service will enhance the quality of HE (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 1999; Lim, 2003). This assumption is argued by many as being a fundamental element of the concept of HE: the modern university was founded by mobile scholars searching for universal knowledge, even the name *university*, embodies the notion of *universal* knowledge (Altbach, 2006; de Wit, 1999, 2002; Knight, 1999). The academic rationale leads to the promotion of activities designed to enhance students’ critical thinking skills and intercultural awareness (de Wit, 2002). These activities include the internationalization of curricula, study abroad programs, foreign language study, and international research activities (de Wit, 2002, Harari, 1981). Internationalizing HE can also help nations and institutions to meet international academic standards for teaching and research (Knight, 1999). This aspect is important for nations and institutions that seek to be competitive and enhance their reputations.

The socio-cultural rationale recognizes cultural and ethnic diversity within and between countries and promotes the development of intercultural understanding both in order to counter the homogenizing effects of globalization and to develop individual citizens with strong intercultural skills (Knight, 1999; Lim, 1995). This rationale is supported by many smaller countries. For example, Sweden has long been concerned with its position in the cultural sphere, and has prioritized the English language competence of its students in order to remain visible in the global arena (Callan, 1998). However, the socio-cultural rationale is rarely cited as a major motivation for internationalization in larger countries, particularly in native English-speaking countries. Deardorff (2006, 2011), for example, notes that few U.S. universities focus on the development of intercultural competence in students as an outcome of internationalization.

A political rationale for internationalization has historically been very important and can be seen in the actions of the United States and other industrialized nations in the mid-twentieth century, particularly after World War II and during the cold war. During this time, for example, international affairs became a major funding area for the U.S. government (Hayward, 2000) and the United States established various agencies and programs, such as the Office of International Information and Cultural Affairs and the Fulbright Program to promote cultural exchange and U.S. national interests (Scott-Smith, 2008). Australia, Canada, The Netherlands, The United Kingdom and Japan have all in the past used technical assistance to developing countries as an important part of their foreign policy (de Wit, 2002; Kogan & Kogan, 1983; Ninomiya, Knight, & Watanabe, 2009). More recently, the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks have renewed political

interest in internationalization, particularly in the United States (Alliance for International Education and Cultural Exchange & NAFSA, 2007; Cummings, 2001).

Since the end of the Cold War, an economic rationale for internationalization has become increasingly relevant as nations and institutions seek to improve their competitiveness in the global economy (de Wit, 1999; Knight, 1999). These rationales can lead to efforts to develop a highly skilled workforce with the competencies to compete with people from other countries; or investments in research and development projects to enable nations to remain technologically competitive, both of which contribute to the international dimension of scholarship and research. The early European Union programs COMETT (European Community program on co-operation between universities and industry regarding training in the field of technology) and ERASMUS (European Community Action Scheme for the mobility of University Students) provide good examples of projects driven by the economic rationale (de Wit, 1999). However, these rationales can also lead to activities that are purely financial in nature, such as the recruitment of foreign students to generate national or institutional revenue. For example, Australia has the second highest proportion of international students of all OECD countries (21.2%)<sup>15</sup> (OECD, 2012), and these full-fee paying students provide a particularly important national revenue source (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011). In fact, international education is the nation's third- or fourth- largest export (Marginson, 2012). Knight (1999, 2004b) warns that the rationale to undertake internationalization to generate income is a complicated issue and that if internationalization is to add an

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<sup>15</sup> Luxembourg has the highest proportion of international students of all OECD countries at 41.4%. This high mobility is due to strong integration with neighboring countries (OECD, 2012).

international dimension to education, a balance must be found between economic motives and academic benefits.

Since the codification of rationales for internationalization into these four groups, the evolving political and economic landscape has triggered discussion about how the rationales might have changed (de Wit, 1999; de Wit, 2002, van Vught, van der Wende & Westerheijden, 2002) and so Knight (2004a, 2004b) articulated new national- and institutional-level rationales. They include: human resources development; strategic alliances; commercial trade; nation building; social and cultural development; international profile and reputation; student and staff development; income generation; and research and knowledge production (Knight, 2004a, 2004b). These newer rationales that are driving post-secondary internationalization cut-across the blurred lines of the traditional four categories, for example strategic alliances may serve to advance both geopolitical ties and economic relationships.

In discussing rationales, it is important to note that different HE stakeholders, both at the sector level (government, education, and private) and within each sector all have differing and perhaps competing rationales driving their internationalization efforts (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 1999, 2004a, 2004b). Knight (1999, 2004a, 2004b) stresses the necessity of each stakeholder clearly articulating their rationale, or combination of rationales, as different rationales can imply different internationalization policies, programs, strategies, activities and outcomes. An understanding of rationales is important for this dissertation, as these motivations shape the way that any international activity is implemented. This study will examine the rationales for implementing ETPs from the point of view of the HEI, staff, and faculty members through document analysis and

interview in order to determine why the programs have been implemented in the manner that they have.

### **Worldwide Mobility of Students**

Student mobility is a major aspect of HE internationalization, and a driving force behind many of the ETPs in non-Anglophone countries (Wilkinson, 2013). The most recent International Association of Universities Global Survey Report, a survey of 745 HEIs in 115 countries, found that the promotion of student mobility is “seen as a central reason for pursuing internationalization and as a priority activity in the institutional strategy plan” of the institutions surveyed (Hudson, 2011, p. 131). OECD and UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) data (OECD, 2013) show that in 2011, nearly 4.3 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship<sup>16</sup>. This figure represents a dramatic growth in international student mobility over the past several decades, rising from 0.8 million in 1975, 1.7 million in 1995 and 3 million in 2005 (OECD, 2013). This tremendous growth had been expected to continue to increase with some reports in the mid-2000s predicting that the numbers of overseas students would grow to 5.8 or even 8 million by 2020 (Altbach, 2006; Böhm, et al., 2004). However more recent estimates state that the number of internationally mobile students will grow at a much slower rate in the next decade, due to factors such as low birth rates, a slowdown in overall tertiary participation, and improved tertiary standards in the developing world (British Council, 2012).

Many researchers have noted a shift over the past decade in the destinations in which students choose to study (Bhandari, 2011; OECD, 2013; Verbik & Lasanowski,

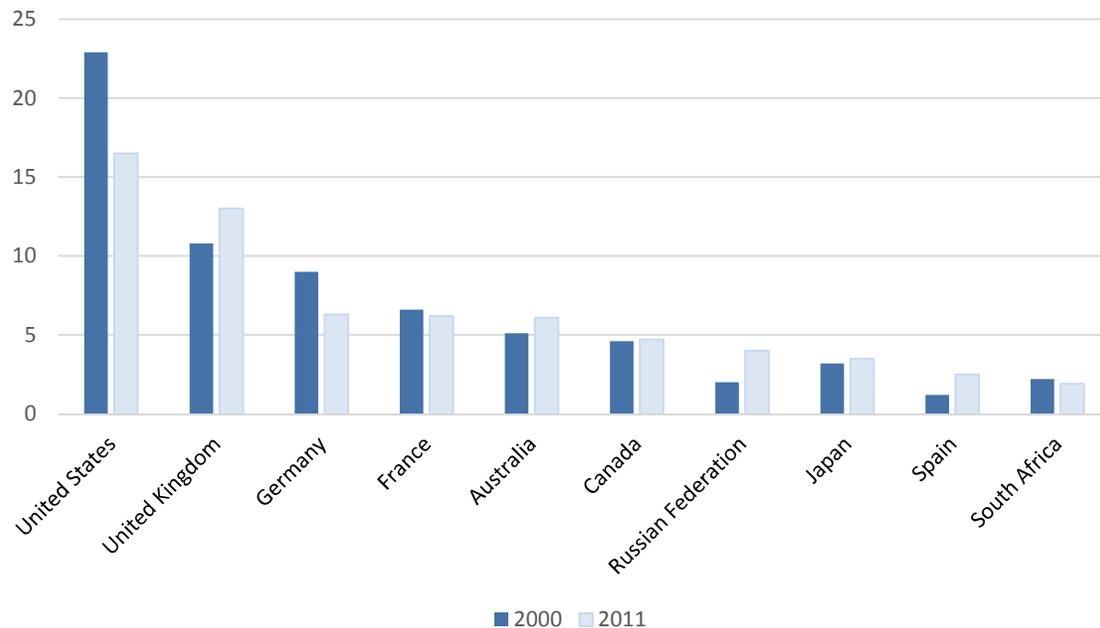
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<sup>16</sup> This figure includes foreign students who are residents of the country in which the data were collected (OECD, 2012). Therefore the total number of international students may be lower.

2007). Historically, Anglophone and Western European countries have attracted the greatest number of international students. The OECD reported that in 2000, the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, France and Australia hosted 70% of all foreign students studying abroad (OECD, 2002). The latest figures show that while these countries remain the top receivers of foreign students, accounting for over half of all tertiary students studying overseas, other countries are emerging as players in the international student market (see Figure 2). Canada, the Russia Federation, Japan, and Spain all enroll noteworthy numbers of foreign students. Canada now has a 4.7% share of foreign students, the Russian Federation 4%, Japan 3.5% and Spain 2.5% (OECD, 2013). Efforts to boost international student numbers have particularly intensified in Asia and the Middle-East where nation have been moving forward with plans to become education hubs<sup>17</sup> (Dessoff, 2012; Knight, 2011c; Mok, 2007; Mok & Tan, 2004).

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<sup>17</sup> Knight (2011c) defines an education hub as “a planned effort to build a critical mass of local and international actors strategically engaged in education, training, knowledge production, and innovation initiatives” (p. 233).



*Note.* 2000 and 2011 market shares.

Year of reference of data for Canada and the Russian Federation is 2010, not 2011.

Data relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of residence. For the United Kingdom, data for 2011 is based on citizenship.

Source: Table C4.7, OECD, 2013

*Figure 2.* Percentage of all Foreign Tertiary Students Enrolled, by Destination, in the Top-Ten Receiving Countries of 2011

### **International Students in Japan**

Japan has been categorized as a country with a low intake of foreign students (Tremblay, 2001). This is changing and, more recently, it has been described as an “evolving destination” for international students (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 2). Of the approximately three million tertiary students in Japan (MEXT, 2012b), there were 135,519 international students in Japan as of May 2013 (JASSO, 2014c). This number is down from a peak of nearly 142,000 students in 2010, perhaps due in part to the Great East Japan Earthquake of March, 2011 (JASSO, 2014c; Maruyama, 2011). However, it

represents an almost 24% increase in international student numbers from 2003 until 2013, and a 1200% increase since 1983, when the Japanese government first committed to increasing international student numbers in Japan (JASSO, 2014c).

Asian nations provide Japan with an overwhelming number of its international students. China, South Korea and Taiwan have been top-source countries for a number of years and in 2013 supplied Japan with almost 75% of its international students (China, 60%; South Korea, 11%; Taiwan, 3.5%). However, the numbers of students from these countries has been declining over recent years, and Vietnam has overtaken Taiwan as the 3<sup>rd</sup> largest supplier of international students to Japan (see Table 4). Of the top-ten sending countries, Malaysia has been the most consistent, with per year student numbers changing very little over the ten years from 2004 to 2013. In 2004, for example, 2,010 Malaysian students were recorded as enrolled at Japanese HEIs, with 2,465 at their peak in 2010 (Table 4). Verbik and Lasanowski (2007) note that Japan depends on familiar markets for its international students and thus is particularly vulnerable to declines in outgoing student mobility within these markets and therefore not very secure in terms of its overall competitiveness in international recruitment. However, sharp increases in student numbers from countries such as Vietnam and Nepal, together with the recent establishment of international offices to communicate information to potential students in non-traditional source countries such as Russia, Uzbekistan and Egypt (MEXT, 2009a) suggest that Japan is becoming more adventurous in pursuing new markets and seeks to secure its competitiveness. Japan's international student recruitment strategies will be documented in the next section.

Table 4

*Number of International Students in Japan by Nationality*

Country <sup>a</sup>	Number of Incoming International students by country/region									
	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
China	77,713	80,592	74,292	71,277	72,766	79,082	86,173	87,533	86,324	81,884
ROK	15,533	15,606	15,974	17,274	18,862	19,605	20,202	17,640	16,651	15,304
Taiwan	4,096	4,134	4,211	4,686	5,082	5,332	5,297	4,571	4,617	4,719
Malaysia	2,010	2,114	2,156	2,146	2,271	2,395	2,465	2,417	2,319	2,293
Thailand	1,665	1,734	1,734	2,090	2,203	2,360	2,429	2,396	2,167	2,383
Vietnam	1,570	1,745	2,119	2,582	2,873	3,199	3,597	4,033	4,373	6,290
USA	1,456	1,646	1,790	1,805	2,024	2,230	2,348	1,456	2,133	2,083
Indonesia	1,451	1,488	1,553	1,596	1,791	1,996	2,190	2,162	2,276	2,410
Bangladesh	1,126	1,331	1,456	1,508	1,686	1,683	1,540	1,322	1,052	875
Mongolia	806	924	1,006	1,110	1,145	1,215	1,282	1,170	1,114	1,138
Sri Lanka	764	907	1,143	1,181	1,097	934	777	737	670	794
Myanmar	591	651	736	849	922	1,012	1,093	1,118	1,151	1,193
Nepal	462	617	998	1,309	1,476	1,628	1,829	2,016	2,451	3,188
Others	8,059	8,323	8,759	9,085	9,631	10,049	10,552	9,504	10,458	10,965
Total	117,302	121,812	117,927	118,498	123,829	132,720	141,774	138,075	137,756	135,519

<sup>a</sup>Countries/regions which have appeared in the top ten over recent years. Countries are ranked in descending order of 2004 statistics.

Sources: JASSO, 2012, 2013a, 2013b, 2014c; MEXT, 2004, 2006, 2010

## Summary

In recent decades, the concept of internationalization in HE has become commonplace in discussions about HE and it currently forms an integral part of many national and institutional policies. Internationalization is now seen as an “institutional imperative” (Hudzik, 2011, p. 7) in today’s global environment, to be infused into all areas and embraced by all members of the HEI community (Hudzik, 2011). However, in

practical application, the means and end goals of HE internationalization are often conflated and the terms internationalization and globalization used synonymously. Therefore, scholars suggest that national governments, HEIs, and program implementers should shift the focus of their efforts onto the outcomes and impacts of HE internationalization (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2012; de Wit, 2014).

An understanding of the rationales for why an HEI may seek to internationalize helps those involved understand both the outcomes sought from, and the activities undertaken in, the process of internationalization. The four most widely recognized categories of rationales for the internationalization of HE are those proposed by Jane Knight and Hans de Wit (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Knight, 1999) and consist of academic, social-cultural, political, and economic motivations. Different HE stakeholders may have competing rationales driving their internationalization efforts and therefore it is important that rationales are clearly articulated to ensure successful implementation of any international activities (Knight, 1999; 2004a, 2004b).

A major driving force behind many internationalization efforts, in particular the implementation of ETPs, is the movement of students across national borders. Nations and HEIs seeking to attract excellent students are looking outside of their national borders to entice some of the world's 4.3 million mobile students and are using ETPs to do so (Hudson, 2011; Wilkinson, 2013). Japan is emerging as a player in this international student market and has increased the number of international students on its shores by 24% over the last decade, with recent increases in the numbers of students from non-traditional sending countries have aided Japan in strengthening its international competitiveness. The insights about international student mobility patterns, the concept of

internationalization of HE and the reasons why HEIs might seek to internationalize presented in this section form a foundation for learning why Japan is currently internationalizing its HEIs and implementing ETPs.

### **A Japanese View of Higher Education Internationalization**

In order to understand the current push for ETPs in Japanese HEIs, it is important to review the larger picture of the internationalization of HE in Japan. Although Japan's status as a player in the international student market is only emerging, the Japanese government has long viewed international students as their prime internationalization strategy, and so these students have been the focus of many government-led initiatives and have impacted the internationalization activities of many HEIs (Ninomiya et al., 2009). This section reviews internationalization in Japan with an emphasis on initiatives involving international students. It then outlines Japan's rationales for looking internationally. It situates these rationales in the ongoing debate over the meaning of internationalization in Japan and discusses what this might mean for the Global 30 Project and Japan's ETPs. The section concludes with a commentary about how different rationales may effect different approaches to internationalization in Japanese HEIs.

#### **Internationalization Initiatives in Japan**

Higher education in Japan has long been influenced by other countries. With the Meiji Restoration in 1868, Japan began to import Western knowledge and ideas to assist in the nation's modernization by inviting foreign faculty, instructors and engineers to Japan and sending Japanese bureaucrats, academics and students to Europe and North America. The national universities that were established in the late nineteenth century were created by the government by adopting elements of HE from a variety of Western

countries that were deemed to be the most successful. In addition, foreign teachers were hired to provide instruction in Western disciplines (Nakayama, 1989). In parallel to this effort, government-sponsored students were sent abroad to bring back Western knowledge, and upon their return, they replaced the foreign faculty (Nakayama, 1989). Nakayama (1989) identifies this stage in the development of Japan's HE as one of two phases involving the import of Western knowledge and ideas. He describes it as a period of *window shopping* where Western models were explored and some partially adopted.

Nakayama (1989) terms the next phase of HE development, in the immediate aftermath of World War Two, as a period of *involvement*. A US-led comprehensive educational reform in this period resulted in the adoption of more specific US models, and ties between Western nations and Japan became closer through the exchange of faculty and students. Ninomiya et al. (2009) see this phase as "the first stage of international academic relations in Japan" (p. 119). They state that at this time, Japan did not have any national policy regarding foreign and international students. Instead of inviting students to Japan, Japan sent students to the United States through scholarship programs such as Fulbright (1946-present) to learn about democracy with a view to contributing to the reconstruction of Japan. As this period of involvement progressed, the rationales for looking internationally began to shift from a desire to learn from the West, to promoting mutual understanding and friendship, and providing technical aid to developing countries, with a particular focus on South East Asia. This focus was intended to eradicate the prewar militaristic image of Japan in these countries (Ninomiya et al., 2009). To these ends, the Japanese government set up both the Japanese Government

(Monbukagakusho) Scholarship Program and their Overseas Development Office (ODA) in 1954. Both brought Asian students to study in Japan.

In the next stage of Japan's international academic relations, from the early 1980s until early 2000s, Japan became more focused on attracting students from abroad to study in Japanese universities. Prime Minister Nakasone's 1983 initiative to recruit 100,000 international students to Japanese HEIs by the year 2000 (*Ryugakusei 10 man nin keikaku*) is often the point of departure in discussions of current internationalization efforts (cf. Horie, 2002; Huang, 2007; Kameoka, 1996; Kamibeppu, 2012; Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Umakoshi, 1997). This initiative was described by MEXT as a vehicle for "intellectual cooperation" (Monbusho, 1983 cited in Horie, 2002). It was supported by the expansion of overseas development assistance in the 1980s, and the development of short-term student exchange programs resulting from the 1993 United States-Japan Conference on Cultural and Educational Interchange (CULCON) recommendation that student exchange between Japan and the US be enhanced (Furuoka, Oishi & Kato, 2010; Kamibeppu, 2012; Ninomiya et al., 2009; Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Zhou, 1991). It was during this period that EMI began to appear in national universities, first at the PhD level, and then in the short-term exchange programs (Kamibeppu, 2012; Ninomiya et al., 2009; Tsuneyoshi, 2005).

As the 100,000 international student target was met, slightly behind schedule, in 2003 (MEXT, 2004), Japan entered into its present phase of HE internationalization. Ninomiya et al. (2009) described this phase as one where the *quality*, in addition to the *quantity* of international students has become a focal point. Whereas Ministry of Justice changes to student visas in the 1980s and again in the early 2000s enabled the 100,000

international student target to be reached, they also raised concerns over increases in overstays, illegal labor and the quality of students admitted to Japan (Breaden, 2013; Kamibeppu, 2012). Therefore, under the guidance of a report prepared by the Central Council for Education in 2003, a review of the criteria and methods for selecting students for Japanese government scholarship programs and entrance into universities was undertaken (MEXT, 2004; Ninomiya et al., 2009). This focus on quality marks a shift in MEXT's rationale for its international student policy – moving from international understanding and foreign aid to a more strategic emphasis on recruiting high-quality international students who could contribute to the research agendas and overall competitiveness of Japanese universities and the Japanese economy (Kamibeppu, 2012; Ninomiya et al., 2009).

The 300,000 International Students plan is a key initiative in this phase of internationalization for increasing international competitiveness, yet it is only part the current trend. Other initiatives focused on utilizing international students as a means of increasing Japan's competitiveness include the Career Development Program for foreign Students in Japan (*Ajia jinzai shikin koso*) (2007), the Asia Gateway Initiative (2007), and CAMPUS Asia (2010). The Career Development Program for Foreign Students in Japan helps international students to find employment in Japan after their academic studies, the Asia Gateway Initiative calls for a restructuring of foreign student policies so that Japan can serve as a human resource network hub in Asia, and CAMPUS Asia promotes Japan-China-South Korea student mobility (Career Development Program for Foreign Students in Japan, n.d.; Council for the Asian Gateway Initiative, 2007; MEXT, 2010b). These initiatives highlight Japan's continuing reliance on international students

as an internationalization strategy and belief that global competitiveness cannot be attained without engaging students from overseas.

### **Rationales, Definitions and Approaches**

The above discussion of internationalization initiatives involving international students in Japan illustrates changes in Japan's rationales for looking internationally. Reasons for internationalization have evolved from desiring to learn from the West, to promoting mutual understanding and friendship, to developing the capacities of other countries through ODA, to positioning for global competitiveness. Elements of all four of the rationales for internationalization proposed by Knight and de Wit (1995; Knight 1999) can be discerned in Japan's rationales, and in recent years, an economic rationale appears to have become increasingly important. The fact that the policy to accept 100,000 international students by the year 2000 was conceived as part of the official ODA policy and the 300,000 International Students Plan was announced under the joint signatures of six government ministries, including the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry<sup>18</sup> demonstrates the increasing emphasis on an economic rationale (Kudo & Hashimoto, 2011; MEXT et al., 2008; Walker, 2005; Watabe, 2010). However some argue that in Japan there are two distinct discourses surrounding the notion of internationalization (Burgess et al., 2010; Goodman, 2007). Critiques state that the Japanese rationales for internationalizing are dichotomized between, on the one hand, a global concept that transcends national identity, much akin to Knight's (2003, 2004) holistic process approach, and on the other, a nationalism, based on the idea of 'Japaneseness' (Burgess et al., 2010; Goodman, 2007; Hashimoto, 2000; McVeigh, 2002; Rivers, 2010; Sato, 2004).

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<sup>18</sup> The others are: MEXT, Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA); Ministry of Justice (MOJ); Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (MHLW); and Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (MLIT).

The Japanese term *kokusaika*, which is often translated into English as *internationalization*, is the focal point of much of the discussion surrounding this dichotomy. With reference to Ebuchi's (1989) analysis of the concept of *kokusaika*, Watabe (2010) points to a dictionary definition of *kokusaika* that emphasizes the notion of 'becoming international'. She makes clear that when Japanese people discuss *kokusaika*, and therefore *internationalization*, "they are discussing themselves, and the perspective of discussion is essentially what they should do to make Japan accepted internationally" (p. 36). *Kokusaika* was popularized in Japan in the 1980s following the establishment of the Nakasone cabinet in 1982 (Burgess et al, 2010; Goodman, 2007). Prime Minister Nakasone is widely credited with leading Japan's drive for internationalization, yet he is also well-known for helping to revitalize Japanese nationalism (Hood, 2001). Thus, Burgess et al. (2010) maintain that *kokusaika* as a government policy was a way of promoting a "correct understanding of Japan abroad", (p. 463). More critically, Ishii, quoted in Whitsed and Volet (2010), argued that Nakasone's *kokusaika* plan was not concerned with improving understandings of other countries, but rather the "revival of traditional Japanese values and the development of pride in Japanese culture through moral education" (p. 7). *Kokusaika* has also been described as a way of 'boundary-strengthening' and reinforcing the idea of the Japanese being different to others (Goodman, 2007; McVeigh, 2002).

Examples of this understanding of internationalization are seen in the HE internationalization literature. Burgess et al. (2010) highlight the detachment and isolation of international students in Japanese universities. Among their references is a discussion of Zoppeti's novel *Ichigensan*, which is based on Zoppeti's experiences as a

foreign university student in Japan. In this story, the foreign student lounge is nicknamed *Dejima* in reference to the island in the bay of Nagasaki which was the only place of direct trade between Japan and the outside world during the isolationist Edo period. Similarly, Whitsed and Volet (2010) use the common Japanese cultural metaphors of *soto/uchi* (inside/outside) and *omote/ura* (front/back) (De Mente, 2004) to describe the experiences of foreign English language teachers in Japanese universities stating that internationalization “does not afford them social inclusion”, and that they are “automatically perceived as outsiders” (p. 14). In part of the same study, Whitsed and Wright (2011) report that there is “a discontinuity between the governmental rhetoric of internationalization...and how it is enacted at the institutional level” (p. 28).

In the context of the Global 30 Project, Burgess et al. (2010) liken the rationales for the implementation of internationalization activities to the isolation, yet appropriation, of foreign goods and knowledge on the island of Dejima. With reference to the low numbers of Japanese students skilled enough in English to study in classes with international students, Burgess et al. talk of a ‘Dejima-isation’ within the university, where international students are isolated from their peers. They state that the present-day activities reflect “a desire to protect and strengthen Japanese national identity in the face of foreign pressure while at the same [time] acknowledging the necessity of embracing global trends, currents and standards” (p. 471). Rather more disapprovingly, Rivers (2010) asserts that “nationalism will once again be able to masquerade as internationalism” (p. 447) in the Global 30 Project. He references taglines from G30 university websites, such as “‘The Global 30 Project – Bringing Nagoya University to the World’” (Nagoya University, cited in Rivers, 2010 p. 448) to argue that a prominent

rationale behind the Global 30 Project is to promote Japanese customs to the world under the label of internationalization.

It is evident that within Japan internationalization means different things to different people, and that despite an increasing focus on the economic importance of internationalization, there may be a latent holistic/nationalistic dichotomous undercurrent (Kudo & Hashimoto, 2011). In this light, Goodman (2007) describes *kokusaika* as a ‘multivocal symbol’, and argues that a close description of the actual “processes, instruments and actors” (p. 75) behind the rhetoric of internationalization in Japan is needed to explain the approaches undertaken. Kudo and Hashimoto’s (2011) categorical model of university internationalization responds to this call in its examination of institutional approaches to internationalization.

Based on an analysis of documents representing universities of different types from throughout the Japanese HE system, Kudo and Hashimoto’s (2011) model identifies five main approaches to international engagement: global, innovative, ad hoc, pseudo-international, and no-international approaches (Appendix A summarizes these approaches). Each approach is based on a different institutional rationale for internationalizing, and results in various types of activities being implemented under the banner of internationalization. Institutions that are categorized as global-minded or innovative and niche-conscious infuse international elements into many areas of their practice. These universities tend to be elite institutions that are better able to compete for government funding, or small, well-funded nimble HEIs. Ad hoc, pseudo-international, and no-international HEIs, on the other hand, tend towards what Kudo and Hashimoto (2011) call ‘domestic-centered internationalisation’. These institutions are concerned

with filling student-quotas and promoting themselves as ‘international’ for the domestic market. The majority of Japanese universities fall into these latter categories. Kudo and Hashimoto’s model demonstrates that internationalization motivations, dynamics and activities at the institutional level are diverse and complex; however, it also underscores earlier conceptualizations of Japanese approaches to internationalization which suggest that the majority of universities tend to be somewhat passive and only reactive to government-led initiatives (Kuwamura, 2009; Yonezawa et al., 2009).

### **Summary**

Japan has had a long history of engaging with international students and scholars and they have been the focus of many government-led initiatives. These initiatives have been motivated by desires to learn from the West, promote mutual understanding, aid the development of other nations and to position Japan for greater global competitiveness. Recent HE policy initiatives, including the 300,000 International Students Plan and Global 30 Project are underpinned by an increasingly economic rationale for HE internationalization.

Discussion exists about what internationalization *actually* means in the Japanese national context. Scholars have argued that in Japan activities that occur in the name of internationalization, or *kokusaika*, are essentially a mechanism to emphasize the uniqueness of Japan (e.g. Goodman, 2007). In this conceptualization of internationalization, the G30 Project and the ETPs it promotes can be viewed as an attempt to outwardly acknowledge a global necessity, but in fact promote Japan and Japanese national identity in a way that could actually foster division between Japanese and international students. Furthermore, a recent study (Kudo & Hashimoto, 2011) of

Japanese HEI approaches to internationalization suggested that many Japanese institutions may be merely reactive to government-led initiatives and promote themselves as ‘international’ rather than actually integrate international elements into their practice. The elite universities that have received G30 funding are not likely to be in this category, however close examination of the actors and process involved in implementing the ETPs is necessary to understand the approaches taken (cf. Goodman, 2007; Kudo & Hashimoto, 2011).

### **English-Taught Programs**

This study investigates the implementation of ETPs in Japanese universities so that implementers and policy makers may be better informed of current practices and better able to accomplish their goals of developing programs. Therefore, it is essential to review the current body of knowledge about ETPs. This section examines the empirical research related to rationales for introducing ETPs and looks at the structures and characteristics that these types of programs may embody. As ETPs are new to Japanese HEIs, it is necessary to look to other countries with longer histories of implementing such programs. Therefore, the section first reviews rationales for the introduction of EMI in Europe and countries in East Asia before describing the rationale for ETPs put forward by the Japanese government at the outset of the Global 30 Project. The differing characteristics of ETPs are then reviewed with an examination of programs in Europe and before a discussion of the literature about ETPs in Japan that was published soon after the G30 Project was announced.

## **Rationales for Introducing English-Taught Programs**

There is little empirical research about the rationales for the introduction of EMI in non-Anglophone countries. In fact, the large pan-European surveys by Maiworm and Wächter (2002), its update Wächter and Maiworm (2008), and Ammon and McConnell (2002) appear to be the only studies which take a comprehensive look at the motivations for introducing ETPs. The surveys conducted by the ACA (Maiworm & Wächter, 2002; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008) attempted to describe the “scale” and “nature” of ETPs in Europe (Maiworm & Wächter, 2002, p. 17; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, p. 16). The first of these studies examined degree programs which offered “at least part of the study courses in English” (Maiworm & Wächter, 2002, p. 63) and gathered data from 821 HEIs in 19 countries. Wächter and Maiworm (2008) redefined the term ETP to include programs in which English was the exclusive language of instruction. It gathered data from 851 HEIs in 27 countries. Both surveys found that the push to attract international students is the driving force behind the introduction of ETPs in many institutions.

In 2002, the researchers saw that HEIs categorized several expectations under the heading ‘to attract foreign students’. They found that many of the motives for attracting international students were in fact economically motivated, for example to prevent institutional closure due to a lack of domestic students or to strengthen the research and grant-procuring capabilities of the institution (Wächter, 2005). In the 2008 study, these motives for attracting international students were divided into different survey items, and participants were asked to state the relative importance of nine rationales for the introduction of ETPs. The researchers found that the more general rationale ‘to attract international students who would not enroll in a programme taught in the domestic

language’, ranked in first place, and the more overtly economically motivated rationales of ‘securing the research base by attracting future PhD students’, ‘attracting foreign students as a future work force for own country’, and counterbalancing a lack of enrollment of domestic students’ ranking in fourth, sixth, and seventh places respectively (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008).

The second most oft-stated rationale for introducing ETPs into European HEIs listed by both of the Maiworm and Wächter studies concerns the internationalization of the education of domestic students. Wächter and Maiworm (2008) report that they were surprised at the high rank of this rationale, as only 35% of all students enrolled in ETPs in their study are of domestic origin. The researchers were also surprised by the strong role of fifth-ranked rationale ‘provision of high level education for students from the Third World’ (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008). They do not state why this altruistic rationale might be surprising; presumably they expected an economic rationale to be the overriding motivation for EMI. Another strong rationale is ‘to sharpen the profile of the institution in comparison to others in the country’. This motive was placed third in the 2008 study, but interestingly did not appear in the 2002 study. Other motives play a lesser role: to enable specialized courses to run despite insufficient numbers of domestic students, ranked eighth; and to improve the income base of the HEI, ranked ninth. One rationale reported in 2002, but not in 2008 was the development of new degree programs.

An important limitation with the data on the rationales for ETPs reported in the Maiworm and Wächter studies is that they are aggregated across Europe. More detail on the rationales for adopting EMI in specific European countries can be found in the 22-country study by Ammon and McConnell (2002). This detail is illustrated in Appendix B.

Although the types of students enrolled in, and the long-term development goals of the ETPs have surely evolved since the collection of this data in 1999 and 2000, the data still provides useful contextual background as the rationales for first adopting these programs remain the same.

In Ammon and McConnell's data, it is noticeable that the Netherlands and the Nordic countries place more emphasis on raising the international awareness and skills of their own students than do other Western European countries (Appendix B). These countries have felt added pressure to react to their linguistic disadvantage. For example, Dutch, and to a greater extent, Finnish and Icelandic are rarely spoken outside of their nations, and so to attract international students and to enhance the quality of their education systems by providing their domestic students with an internationalized curriculum, these countries began to provide substantial ETPs from an early date (Ammon & McConnell, 2002; Wächter, 2005). Germany and France felt no such linguistic disadvantage and have been slower to introduce ETPs. In fact, Germany has adopted EMI mostly only at the graduate level, and has taken measures to ensure that international students in ETPs continue to study the host nation language (Ammon & McConnell, 2002; Nastansky, 2004; Wächter, 2005).

Eastern and Southern Europe show different trends in their rationales for ETPs (Appendix B). Eastern European countries were quick to introduce ETPs after the fall of the Soviet Union because they saw EMI as a way to increase international ties and to strengthen their education systems (Ammon & McConnell, 2002). Concerns over the loss of linguistic and cultural heritage do not appear to be an issue. In contrast, Southern European countries seem more reluctant to introduce ETPs, despite participating in the

Bologna Process. In fact, Ammon and McConnell (2002) found no full ETPs in Croatia, Greece Italy, Portugal or Spain. Since then, the numbers of programs have been increasing in these countries, but they remain low in comparison to Northern Europe (Aittola, et al., 2009; Cots, 2013; OECD, 2012). Rationales for introducing ETPs given by institutions in southern Europe include: alignment with Bologna policies, to attract foreign students, to allow students greater access to academic source materials in their subjects, to offer continuity for students who had already had CLIL (content and language integrated learning) experiences, and to increase future job-market possibilities (Aittola, et al., 2009; Ball & Lindsay, 2013).

There are no multi-country surveys akin to the ACA (Maiworm & Wächter, 2002; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008), or Ammon and McConnell (2002) surveys in East Asia, and so researchers seeking to understand the common rationales for introducing ETPs in this region must rely on studies conducted at intuitions in national contexts. A number of studies have looked at EMI in South Korea. In this country, EMI is a top-down, state-initiated policy that is central to recent HE developments (Byun et al, 2011; Kim & Choi, 2010). Research has noted that the implementation of EMI has been motivated by desires to improve the English language proficiency and therefore career readiness of domestic students, improve the mobility of South Korean professors in order to increase idea exchange, and to attract international students to compensate for a declining domestic student population (Byun et al., 2011) However, the most common rationale for implementing ETPs in South Korea cited in the literature is the national push to increase international competitiveness, spurred by pervasive international ranking schemes<sup>19</sup>

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<sup>19</sup> International university ranking schemes are based on such indicators as the volume, income, reputation and influence of research, number of faculty and alumni winning Nobel prizes, and proportions of

(Byun et al, 2011; Cho, 2012; MacDonald, 2009). Similarly, in Taiwan, EMI has been introduced as part of efforts to elevate universities to ‘world-class’ status in addition to attracting both domestic and international students to counter a declining national birth rate (Chang, 2010; Roberts & Ching, 2011).

Wilkinson (2013) states that the motives for establishing ETPs reflect the time period during which they were established. The differences in the results between the two administrations of the ACA surveys, and the rationales for ETPs in the East Asian contexts support this assertion. Over the last decade, international academic ranking schemes have grown in number and scope, and so the profiling and positioning of HEIs vis-à-vis others has grown in importance as a rationale for ETP introduction: appearing in the 2008 Wächter and Maiworm study, but not in the 2002 study, and emerging as a strong rationale in East Asia.

In Japan, the rationale cited by MEXT for implementing the Global 30 Project, and by extension, increasing the number of ETPs, is “to strengthen the international competitiveness of Japanese higher education and to offer attractive and high-quality education for international students” (MEXT, n.d., p. 15) by “selecting universities that will function as core schools for receiving and educating international students” (MEXT, 2009a p. 1). Ishikawa (2011) notes that in a briefing to prospective applicants to the project, a senior MEXT official explained that the main aims of the G30 Project were “to make these 30 HEIs globally competitive, to spearhead internationalization efforts, and to provide the driving force for realization of the 300,000 International Students Plan”

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international students and faculty (QS, 2011; ShanghaiRanking Consultancy, 2011; Times Higher Education, 2011).

(p. 199). MEXT requested HEIs to submit application proposals which included details on how the applicant HEI proposed to:

1. develop a system which enables students to obtain academic degrees entirely in English.
2. recruit international teaching staff to conduct lectures in English.
3. recruit specialist support staff for international students and international faculty members who cannot speak Japanese.
4. implement a system which enables international students to apply for university admission without visiting Japan.
5. establish overseas centers for the recruitment of international students.

(Mori, 2011 p. 64)

An understanding of the rationale and guidelines outlined by MEXT are of critical importance in appreciating how the ETPs are subsequently implemented at the selected institutions.

### **The Characteristics of English-Taught Programs**

The motivations for introducing an ETP into a HEI will affect the specific structure and characteristics of the program. National, institutional and even individual rationales for and orientations towards EMI can affect the way that an ETP is implemented and consequently programs can differ in such things as their student make-up, subjects taught, and policies about host-nation language provision. For example, Finnish national HE internationalization policy aims to enhance the quality of Finnish education by offering ETPs, and as a result of European integration it has been decided that Finnish graduates should have the competence to work in international environments. Therefore, ETPs in Finland are designed for both international and domestic students (Lehikoinen, 2004). In other contexts, take Slovenia for example, ETPs have been

established in order to increase international contacts and are targeted mainly towards foreign students (Ammon & McConnell, 2002). Doiz et al., (2013) describe an interesting case at the University of the Basque Country (UBC) in Spain, where ‘internationalization at home’ efforts include the creation of a multilingual program on campus. Core subjects are offered in parallel official language (Spanish and Basque) and English language courses and students can choose the language in which they wish to take a specific subject.

Germany provides another example. In the discussion above, it was noted that Germany has taken measures to ensure that international students in ETPs study German throughout their program (Ammon & McConnell, 2002; Nastansky, 2004). This should be understood in the context of the German rationales for the adoption of EMI: Germany first adopted EMI primarily as a reaction to the numbers of international students that it was losing to English-speaking countries and not because of a desire to internationalize its own students (Ammon & McConnell, 2002). It is believed that German-speaking students will continue to keep up relations with Germany after their period of study is over (Ammon & McConnell, 2002). Nastansky (2004) explains that ETPs in Germany often follow a model which involves a decreasing volume of English-taught courses during the program. He contrasts this ETP model with two others. The first is a model adopted primarily in Finland and the Netherlands where all of the content courses are taught in English, and the other, a model which has been adopted in Poland and in nations where the level of secondary English language education is not strong, in which EMI increases as the program progresses.

As the ETPs implemented in Japan under the G30 Project are very new, there has not yet been any published research literature in English about the specific structures and characteristics of the programs. However, analysis published soon after the announcement of the project was somewhat critical of the shape that the ETPs were expected to take. Rivers (2010) and Burgess et al. (2010) each warn of a segregation between international and domestic students that the G30 ETPs may promote. Rivers (2010) contends that entry to the G30 ETPs is prohibited for Japanese nationals, and so students will not be provided with “a distinctively multicultural environment” (p. 449). In contrast, Burgess et al. (2010) maintain that the Japanese government has made it clear that a secondary goal of the Global 30 Project is for Japanese students to participate in the ETPs, yet it is likely that without extra language support, Japanese students will not have sufficient English-language skills to be able to participate alongside the international students.

It is clear that confusion exists as to the exact shape of the ETPs and that the programs are viewed in a negative light whether they be designed for both domestic and international students, or international students only. However, despite the assertions by Rivers (2010) and Burgess et al. (2010), MEXT’s Global 30 Project rationale and guidelines do not state anything about the ETPs providing a multicultural environment, nor do they mention the participation of Japanese students (Ishikawa, 2011; MEXT, n.d.; MEXT, 2009a; Mori, 2011). If MEXT guidelines require HEIs to implement ETPs in order to educate international students, but the HEIs are not required to integrate these programs or the international students into the main structure of the university, it is likely that the international and domestic students will remain separate, and that this will not be

viewed as negative from the point of view of the government or the implementing institutions.

An important point to note is that whatever the ultimate shape of the G30 ETPs, Japanese students will not be left out of internationalization projects. The Global 30 Project is not an isolated initiative. For example, MEXT is focusing on developing the global skills of domestic Japanese students through its Project for Promotion of Global Human Resource Development (Global 30 Plus, also known as Go Global Japan), which was announced in 2012 (Japan Society for the Promotion of Science [JSPS], 2010). This project is part of the Japanese government's 2010 New Growth Strategy which puts increasing importance on developing the international skills of Japanese students (Prime Minister of Japan and his Cabinet, 2010).

Another criticism of the G30 Project and ETPs that has been raised concerns the employability of students who graduate from the ETPs. Scholars have suggested that if students are able to graduate from Japanese universities without ever having taken any content classes in Japanese, their employment prospects in Japan will be limited (Burgess et al., 2010; Lim, 2008). Yet, their employment in Japan is a central element of the 300,000 Students Plan (Kamibeppu, 2012; MEXT, n.d.). Despite a growing recognition of the importance of English language skills in the Japanese workplace (Maehara, 2013; McNeill, 2011), Japanese is still the main working language of most companies in Japan, and Japanese language proficiency in foreign employees is valued, as evidenced by the ongoing existence of the Career Development Program for Foreign Students in Japan. Notwithstanding the criticism, the G30 Project does not neglect the Japanese language. The third action plan outlined by the project entails the provision of opportunities for

international students to learn about the Japanese language and culture (MEXT, 2009a). As yet it is unclear how this attention to Japanese will be reconciled with the introduction of ETPs.

### **Summary**

Japan shares its major rationale for implementing ETPs, attracting foreign students, with many nations. Given this shared rationale, the global pressures to adopt EMI, and Japan's relatively late start in implementing ETPs, it appears that Japan may simply be following in the footsteps of Europe, and even other Asian nations, and may be just one stage behind in the process of implementing ETPs. However, the policy motivations for attracting foreign students differ slightly between nations, and indicate that ETPs in Japan should not simply replicate the practices reported in Europe or other nations without thought to the Japanese context. For example, European countries appear to be slightly more focused on knowledge flow into and out of national education markets, and Europe and South Korea place greater weight on increasing the abilities of their domestic students (Appendix B), whereas Japanese EMI policies concentrate more on simply bringing students to Japan (MEXT, 2009a). However, this does not mean that it is not useful to look to other countries to identify areas of best practice and challenge in implementing ETPs.

The review of program characteristics demonstrated that ETPs can differ in their student make-up, subjects taught, and policies about host-nation language provision, and that these differences in characteristics depend somewhat on the rationales for adopting the programs. Analyses of the policy motivations and anticipated characteristics of Japan's Global 30 Project were critical of the project and ETPs, arguing that nationalism

and simple lack of language skill on the part of Japanese students will effectively create a two-track system whereby international students will study in English and Japanese students will continue to study in Japanese. Attention has also been drawn to the contradictions apparent in the government's desire that international students gain employment in Japan after completion of their studies and the fact that an ETP does not equip students with the language and cultural skills to do so (e.g. Burgess et al., 2010; Lim, 2008; Rivers, 2010). One of the goals of this study is to clarify these points of contention by finding out what is happening in HEI classrooms and examining the characteristics of the ETPs.

### **Challenges in Implementing English-Taught Programs**

Numerous studies have documented the impact of EMI on student learning outcomes and instructor performance (e.g., Airey, 2010, 2011; Björkman, 2010; Cho, 2012; Hellekjær, 2010; Smit, 2010; Tatzl, 2011; Vinke, Snippe & Jochems, 1998), and a smaller, but growing body of research addresses the challenges facing individual institutions or nations in the implementation of ETPs (e.g. Doiz et al., 2013; Erling & Hilgendorf, 2006; McCallum Beatty, 2010). Many of the studies report on Scandinavia and Northern Europe as countries in these areas have the most experience with EMI and ETPs. However, research referring to the challenges encountered by EMI and ETPS in East Asia is beginning to appear (e.g. Byun et al., 2011; Jon & Kim, 2011; Lei & Hu, 2013; MacDonald, 2009). Unfortunately, while documenting the impacts and challenges clearly, studies rarely report successes in overcoming them. This next section synthesizes these literatures and identifies challenges which may affect Japanese HEIs in

implementing their new undergraduate ETPs. It also looks for evidence of ways to overcome these challenges.

Appendix C summarizes challenges that various countries have faced when adopting EMI, as described in the literature. It lists the countries where these challenges have been reported. It also highlights the challenges and perceived challenges that the literature discusses about Japan. The challenges are based on a review of the findings reported in Ammon and McConnell (2002), Askew (2011), Ball and Lindsay (2013), Björkman (2010), Burgess et al., (2010), Byun et al. (2011), Coleman (2006), Hashimoto (2005), Jon and Kim (2011), Kim and Choi (2010), Kurtán (2004), Lei and Hu (2013), Lim (2008), MacDonald (2009), Palmer and Cho (2011), Rivers (2010), Smit (2010), Smith (2004), Tange (2010), Tatzl (2011), Tsuneyoshi (2005) and Van Leeuwen (2006). They are divided into three categories, linguistic, cultural, and structural, to correspond with the types of dilemmas that Tsuneyoshi (2005) found arose alongside the adoption of EMI in short-term study abroad programs in Japan. The categories do not represent definitive demarcations between types of challenges, but provide useful headings for comparative discussion and analysis. There is overlap among these categories, and many linguistic and cultural challenges lead to structural challenges for HEIs. The assessment of whether each challenge is to be of likely concern to Japan is based on a review of the literature below.

### **Linguistic Challenges**

The challenges for ETPs that are most immediately apparent are also those most often discussed in research studies: linguistic challenges. There are concerns that the quality of education is compromised when English is a foreign instructional language for

both the students and teacher. Among these concerns is the fact that non-native English speaking students have difficulty in coping with content presented in English. For example, in a study of ETPs in Norway and Germany, Hellekjær (2010) found that a considerable number of students had difficulties with unfamiliar vocabulary, and they also had trouble taking notes while listening in class. Similarly, Wilkinson (2005) found that students in Dutch universities could not handle the density of information presented in English. These students also needed more time to complete tasks, and were not able to intervene spontaneously in lectures or discussions. Consequently, teachers had to make constant adaptations to their lectures, which affected the quality and quantity of content that could be taught over the semester.

Limitations in professors' linguistic competencies also pose challenges for program quality. In their in-depth study of two German universities, Ammon and McConnell (2002) found that almost 83% of the 70 students surveyed identified some degree of inadequacy in the oral skills of their professors. A similar picture has been reported in the Netherlands, where 62% of 500 students reported that the English-language skills of their lecturers were insufficient (Klaassen, 2003 cited in Tatzl, 2011). Dissatisfaction with linguistic skills can lead to a loss of student confidence in the professor's instructional quality (Vinke, 1995), even though student dissatisfaction with professor linguistic abilities may or may not be a true reflection of a professor's actual abilities (van Leeuwen, 2006). Rubin and Smith's (1990) matched guise study of North American undergraduate students' attitudes towards nonnative English speaking teaching assistants is well-known in intercultural communication circles. They found that instructor ethnicity and lecture topic, rather than actual linguistic ability, tended to be

stronger determinants of undergraduate attitudes towards and comprehension of nonnative English speakers.

Professors themselves have reported feeling frustrated when teaching in English as a foreign language. They sometimes feel limited in the quality of their lectures (Byun et al., 2011; Labi, 2011; Sullivan & Enever, 2009), and have said that they can use sophisticated English terminology in relation to their academic discipline, but lack the language to respond to unusual requests or to explain scientific theory in a manner accessible to students (Tange, 2010). In qualitative interviews about their perspectives on internationalization, professors have commented that classes can become "dry", "technical" (Wilkinson, 2005 p. 3), "formal" and "task-orientated" (Tange, 2010 p. 143) when their language abilities prevent them from recounting anecdotes or using colloquial language. Of note is the fact that these comments come from professors in Northern European contexts. Some studies in East Asia have reported that professors feel confident in their language skills as a result of completing their own postgraduate study in English-speaking countries, or experiences with international research collaboration and international conferences (Lei & Hu, 2013; MacDonald, 2009). This may reflect a difference in professor expectations regarding teaching styles across cultures.

Attention has also been drawn to additional language-related skills that professors' need when teaching in a language that is not shared by both parties (Hartman, et al., 2004; Räsänen & Klaassen, 2006). Writing about university teachers in Swedish professional education, Hartman et al. stated that few are "likely to possess the linguistic and meta-linguistic competencies to address language-related issues (including possible language-learning issues)" (2004, p. 143). Conversely, language teachers and other

specialists who could help with these difficulties are unlikely to possess adequate discipline-related knowledge to combine content into their language classes (Hartman et al., 2004). Teaching in English also increases a content professor's workload in that EMI classes require more preparation time and mental energy (Paseka, 2000; Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Vinke, 1995).

In contrast to many studies which focus on the problems associated with teaching through English, some studies give recommendations and describe practices employed to overcome those challenges. In her study of the effects of EMI in Dutch engineering education, Vinke (1995) recommends measures to reduce the negative effects on quality associated with switching to EMI. She suggested screening both students and professors for English proficiency before entry to the EMI program, encouraging academic experiences abroad for faculty (e.g. conferences, research projects), permitting professors temporary exemption from other duties (e.g. committee work) when they are conducting classes in English for the first time, extending the number of class contact hours, and focusing on student-centered instruction. Close collaboration among content and English teachers has also been documented to successfully help to overcome linguistic challenges in EMI classes. Wilkinson (2013) describes courses in Maastricht where content teachers sought the advice of English teachers when preparing their materials, and English teachers observed content tutorials in order to give advice tailored to specific disciplines to students. Similarly, Ball and Lindsay (2013) give an account of an intensive support course for content faculty given by English teachers in the Basque Country which prioritizes language needs related to giving oral presentations.

MacDonald (2009) provides analysis on how professors at one South Korean university attempt to overcome the challenges posed by low student English skills. Commonly, almost all of the students enrolled in ETPs at South Korean institutions are South Korean domestic students, taught by South Korean professors. MacDonald explains that a higher level of learning would take place if the classes were taught in Korean. The professors are faced with a challenge, and adopt one of four methods that MacDonald terms as coping strategies, depending on their personal orientation towards EMI: English only instruction, Korean only instruction, bilingual instruction, or triage instruction.

When the professors in MacDonald's (2009) study chose to teach only in English, they were aware that they were perhaps not maintaining the same quantity and quality of content as if the lesson were in Korean, but they felt beholden to the top-down EMI policy. Professors who chose to teach only in Korean felt that their students would learn more than they would in English. They were concerned about the possibility of receiving poor student evaluations due to the lack of EMI, but were prepared to take the risks associated with violating policy for the sake of increased learning. The professors preferred to deal with non-Korean speaking international students in these classes by providing one-on-one instruction at an alternative time. Some professors opted for some sort of bilingual instruction. For example, they provided handouts or slide presentations in one language, but lectured in the other. This was the approach used most often by professors in the study – the majority found a middle ground by lecturing in English, but providing support for those with weak English proficiency in the form of visual aids. The fourth approach that MacDonald (2009) noted was one that she termed “triage”.

Professors treated each class on a case-by-case basis, adjusting their teaching in response to the students that were present each week, in order to maximize their learning.

MacDonald noted that professors who used this approach were, despite their own sufficient English abilities, likely to be those who felt unprepared to transition their courses into English and those who were unsure of how to support students with low English abilities.

### **Cultural Challenges**

When an HEI adopts EMI, it opens itself up to diverse student and teacher populations which have different academic cultural norms and expectations. These differences permeate all levels of an ETP because academic culture, encompassing such things as classroom behavior, forms of assessment, the use of a syllabus and teacher evaluation, varies from one country to another (Bollag, 2000; Labi, 2011; Smith, 2004). This presents challenges for educators accustomed to teaching a relatively homogenous body of students as they may lack the intercultural knowledge and competencies important for developing internationalized curricula, adopting more inclusive practices and promoting reciprocal cultural understanding in the classroom (Whitsed & Volet, 2010).

In her study of Danish lecturers' experiences with internationalization, Tange (2010) found that many of her participants commented on the different behaviors and learning traditions of the students in their EMI courses. They noted a contrast between those students who took a passive role in the classroom and wanted to merely reproduce the knowledge presented to them, as is more typical with Asian students (Eaves, 2009; Crose, 2011), and those who wanted to interact with the professor and take a typically

more Western problem-based approach to learning. The Danish professors interpreted the behavior of the first type of student as demonstrating a lack of initiative and independence, and felt that they were responsible for teaching international students about problem-based learning and introducing them to the traditions of the Danish university. Likewise, those in non-Western contexts have too remarked on the differences in academic cultures. For example, international students in Taiwan have reported making adjustments to their study habits due to disparities in the philosophy and purpose of education, and expected learning styles between visiting student and host nation norms (Roberts & Ching, 2011). The most positive experiences with international classrooms are reported by professors who use them as a forum for intercultural exchange, and incorporate different styles and cultural frames into their teaching (Tange, 2010).

Despite the fact that the need to adjust to foreign academic cultures has been reported in both Western and non-Western contexts, many observers have commented on the “Englishization” or “Americanization” of HE and the promotion of an American-centered “global-standard” in EMI courses (Coleman, 2006; Hashimoto, 2005; Palmer & Cho, 2011; Tam, 2009; Tsuneyoshi, 2005) referring to the western practices that educators either voluntary or involuntary adopt when teaching in English. It is lamented that distinct cultural approaches to teaching and learning are being lost, as is one of the most essential elements of the study abroad experience – exposure to the relativity of cultural norms (Coleman, 2006).

In the conclusion to a book on the internationalization of East Asian HE, Wong and Wu (2011) go as far as to state that HEIs in East Asia equate internationalization with Westernization, noting that Western-style instructional and university organizational

practices which can conflict with Asian student and faculty values, creating problems for both groups. Illustrating this point, Jon and Kim (2011) in the same volume explain that some South Korean faculty members refuse financial incentives for teaching courses in English and resist distributing course evaluations because differentiated salary among professors of the same level and experience, and evaluations that privilege students as clients violate Korean organizational culture and the traditional hierarchical teacher-student relationship.

Intercultural communicative competence is defined as “a complex set of abilities needed to *effectively* and *appropriately* interact with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself” (Fantini, 2008 p. 21). A number of studies have reported limitations in the pedagogical skills of teachers in this area (Appendix C). For example, in a study at a Swedish technical university, Björkman (2010) found that professors did not make use of effective communication strategies, such as signaling important topics and concepts or utilizing repetition, in their lectures. She concluded that such pragmatic ability was of more importance than language proficiency when conducting English-medium classes. In addition, Tange (2010) drew attention the difficulties that Danish professors encounter when trying to make narratives and explanations relevant to students from other parts of the world. Professors in this study noted that because they had very different backgrounds to their students, they had to avoid referring to current trends in Danish politics or using cultural-centric metaphors and learn to present things in different ways. One professor even mentioned turning to Wikipedia to learn about the countries of his international students in order to bring relevant examples into the classroom. These studies point to the central role that effective

pedagogical skills play in ETPs. Solutions for overcoming cultural challenges include establishing pragmatic and intercultural training courses for students and faculty that raise awareness of the problems. The Classroom Practice and English-Medium Pedagogy course offered to teachers already teaching through the medium of English at The University of the Basque Country is an example of one such program (Ball & Lindsay, 2013).

### **Structural Challenges**

The linguistic and cultural difficulties that arise when teaching through a foreign language are also likely to lead to various structural problems. Structural challenges are those challenges related to the administration and management of the ETP. One such challenge involves introducing sound language assessment policies. Wilkinson and Zegers (2006) point out that a crucial issue concerning EMI is that graduates of ETPs are expected to be as skilled and knowledgeable in their respective disciplines as they would have been if the education had been in the students' mother tongue. Ensuring this quality implies that some measures of assessment are needed.

Studies have shown that universities which have introduced EMI struggle with the issue of suitable English language assessment for students at the outset and end of programs, and for staff at the time of appointment to EMI positions. Hellekjær (2006) reported that students in Norway enter ETPs after having completed the upper-secondary school humanities track, which includes English language instruction. However, the students in his study did not possess the academic competencies required to study in English. He argued the need to screen students for competencies that are broader than just English language. Wilkinson and Zegers (2006) note that many universities simply

assume that the English language skills of students will naturally improve during the course of an ETP. Therefore, they do not consider a test of exit competencies as necessary. Yet, anecdotal evidence points to the contrary. Van Leeuwen (2006) tells the story of a multinational company that sent a graduate of an ETP back to university on the grounds that she could not even write a simple report in English. Another major dilemma faced by HEIs in the area assessment is highlighted by Klaasen and Räsänen (2006). They discuss faculty assessment and remind us that EMI in Europe is often carried out by non-native English-speaking faculty members who have been working at their institutions for some time. They cannot be dismissed from their positions on the basis of failing a language test, only encouraged to take on extra training, but students often demand to be taught by ‘qualified’ personnel.

The evidence presented by Hellekjær (2006), Klaasen and Räsänen (2006), van Leeuwen (2006) and Wilkinson and Zegers (2006) points to the importance of language testing in ETPs, yet, there are many questions as to how tests should be implemented. Van Leeuwen (2006) highlights various reasons why the realization of language assessment is difficult: Should screening tests be implemented by universities, or are they the responsibility of secondary schools, or should transitional institutions which can offer bridging courses to prepare students for ETPs be involved?; How will universities finance large-scale assessments?; And when can overburdened staff find the time to devote to assessment? Van Leeuwen (2006) also points out that “Legal constraints and market considerations turn out to be at least as important as didactic desiderata and considerations for quality assurance” (p. 16) when considering the challenges surrounding assessment. He describes the situation in the Netherlands where Dutch law

does not allow any additional entry criteria to university for students with a Dutch secondary school diploma. He also describes how HEIs in the Netherlands have been obliged to lower the language proficiency standards for accepting international students in order not to lose them to foreign institutions in this era of global competition.

Another structural challenge for HEIs lies in recruiting local faculty members to teach in the ETPs. A study in Finland that evaluated 15 programs found teaching personnel to be not particularly willing to teach in foreign-medium programs. Issues the researchers found that could have resulted in this unwillingness to teach include lack of capacity on the part of the faculty, lack of skills and self-confidence on the part of the students (therefore making them less desirable to teach), and lack of availability of teaching materials in the English language (Tella, Räsänen & Vähäpassi, 1999). Callan (1998) states the ETPs in Europe are also sometimes met by resistance from faculty as they perceive a risk of ghettoization of the international students. These issues all result in extra work for the instructor. Solving them by providing support courses in teaching through English, allowing course release, exempting faculty members from other duties or giving extra compensation (Kurtán, 2004; Paseka, 2000; Tatzl, 2011; Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Vinke, 1995), create additional, costly challenges for the HEI.

Furthermore, it has been pointed out that domestic faculty members are often not treated as *international* by their governments, institutions or students, despite having international educational and work experiences, and teaching and publishing in both the native language and English (Palmer & Cho, 2011). Palmer and Cho (2011) felt that the South Korean scholars in their study had to prove themselves as international scholars, while their foreign counterparts were bestowed the status based solely on their

citizenship. It is not surprising that South Korean faculty responses to internationalization and ETPs are reported to be often “lukewarm” (Kim & Choi, 2010 p. 224), resistant (Byun et al., 2011) and “negative” (MacDonald, 2009 p. 51).

Many ETPs employ native-English speakers in addition to local faculty members. Doing so can alleviate some of the challenges associated with non-native-English-speaker capability and the increased workload placed on these instructors. It can also add an ‘international dimension’ to the program. However, problems exist in recruiting and retaining these faculty members, as extra compensation may be required to make employment attractive, and they are not always available for long-term teaching contracts (Altbach, 2002; Ammon & McConnell, 2002). In their study in South Korea, where foreign faculty members are a central focus of major universities’ internationalization policies, Palmer and Cho (2011) found that foreign faculty members felt somewhat isolated on campus. These faculty members were rarely asked to participate in committee meetings since the meetings were conducted in Korean, and there was little incentive for them to collaborate with Koreans on research projects.

Challenges also exist in finding international education professionals who can cope with the pressures of adopting English and working with a diverse population (Kim & Choi, 2010; Tsuneyoshi, 2005). ETPs do not simply take place within the classroom. In addition to employing faculty members to teach in the ETPs, HEIs must also extend their administration and support services to cater to a new heterogeneous student and faculty body (Arimoto, 2002). Students enrolled in ETPs typically need more administrative and academic support than local students, in particular they require help with housing, transferring foreign credentials to the host nation, and extra counseling

(Ammon & McConnell, 2002; Lim, 2008). Highlighting an example, Kim and Choi (2010) report that South Korean universities usually rotate staff members from one position to another after a few years. 80% of their survey respondents from 23 South Korean universities stated that their university rotated even the director of their office of international affairs on a regular basis (Kim & Choi, 2010). This can create a vacuum of staff who possess the skills to work in an international environment. Kim and Choi (2010) observed however, that Korean universities are increasingly recognizing the importance of administrative staff with international skills, and have begun recruiting people accordingly. But, they noted that as yet, it is only elite HEIs that can afford to recruit people with the necessary professional skills, or to provide training for existing staff.

### **Challenges Facing Japan**

Given that concern over the linguistic capabilities of both students and professors participating in ETPs is so widespread (see Appendix C), it is likely that Japan, a country not known for its foreign language skills (Loveday, 1996), will experience similar challenges. Furthermore, it is expected that the majority of the international students will be non-native English speakers (this is evidenced by the locations of the new student recruitment centers, cf. MEXT, 2009a). Admissions criteria outlined on university websites show that students in Japan are typically screened for English ability upon entry to ETPs (Meiji University, 2013; The University of Tokyo, 2013; University of Tsukuba, 2011), although this in itself is not a guarantee that the students possess the necessary English skills to be successful (Roemer, 2002). Students in these programs may need to receive additional language and academic skills support.

Studies which describe issues surrounding EMI in graduate and short-term undergraduate courses at Japanese HEIs provide some indication of the challenges that Japanese institutions may face when expanding EMI to full undergraduate ETPs. Research has shown that most of the Japanese professors teaching on these courses have conducted research, earned degrees, or have teaching experience abroad - in many cases, from the United States, and that their English-language abilities do not pose problems of understanding in the classroom (Hashimoto, 2005; Lassegard, 2006; Manakul, 2007a). The international experience of these professors contrasts with that of the general Japanese academic profession, where faculty are regarded as having low international exposure (Arimoto, 1996), with most (96% according to 2007 figures) receiving their highest degrees from a Japanese institution (Daizen & Yamamoi, 2008 p. 303). However, despite sufficient ability, Tsuneyoshi (2005) reports that Japanese faculty teaching in short-term EMI programs feel over-burdened working in a foreign language. In fact, it has been estimated that it takes four to five times more effort for Japanese professors to teach in English rather than in Japanese (Tsuneyoshi, 2005 p.80). One way that some Japanese universities have sought to reduce the linguistic challenges inherent in EMI classrooms is to employ native-English speakers to teach in the programs (Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Hashimoto, 2005). However, this brings with it a set of problems of its own, many of them creating structural challenges for the EMI programs.

Japan is likely to face many cultural challenges in the implementation of its undergraduate ETPs. International student enrollment figures show that the introduction of EMI is obliging Japanese universities to become more heterogeneous. The international students enrolled in existing short-term EMI programs are far more

nationally diverse than the larger international student body. MEXT figures from 2009 show that in contrast to the overall international student population in Japan which was at that time 92% Asian, international students in the EMI programs nationwide were approximately 28% western and 57% Asian (MEXT, 2010a). With the introduction of undergraduate ETPs, it is likely that this diversification will continue and the cultural expectations of the international students will become more varied.

Describing cultural challenges in short-term EMI programs in Japan, Tsuneyoshi (2005) remarked that the EMI programs have become American in nature, with professors adopting American classroom techniques and accountability practices, partly due to the difficulty of separating English from its dominant culture, and partly due to the need for international transparency in the programs. In most cases, the degree-length ETPs already established in Japan follow an American/international model with, for example, a social science or liberal arts base and interactive, seminar-style classes (The University of Tokyo, 2011; Waseda University, 2011). A growth in these types of programs necessitates the need for more members of faculty equipped and willing to teach in this manner.

Perhaps the biggest challenges to the implementation of ETPs in Japan are the structural challenges, those related to the administration and management of ETPs. The oft-criticized quality of education offered by Japanese HEIs, poses an immediate structural challenge (see Askew, 2011; McVeigh, 2002; Arimoto, 2002). Goodman (2005) notes that there has long been a perception that the education offered by Japanese HEIs does not meet the needs of the Japanese economy, despite the fact, Goodman goes on to say, that “the top Japanese universities do not perform badly in comparison with

other non-Anglophone countries in international rankings based on research” (p. 8). However, it is the Japanese professor’s predilection towards research over teaching (Daizen & Yamamoi, 2008) that is often identified as contributing to the low quality of education for the students (Arimoto, 2002). There also exists concern that the quality of Japanese education is being further degraded as Japan’s changing demography means that more students can get into their university of choice without spending a year at a cram school in order to prepare for the entrance exam (Askew, 2011; Goodman, 2005). In a discussion of the G30 Project, Askew (2011 p. 100) concludes that a “massive restructuring of the tertiary sector in Japan”, in which HEIs change their practices to align with global standards in teaching and research, is needed if large numbers of international students are to be recruited to Japan. If ETPs are to be implemented successfully, the quality of the education they offer must be attractive to quality international students.

As discussed with regard to European experiences with EMI, sound assessment policies are required if quality is to be maintained in ETPs. This is especially important for Japanese HEIs if they wish to counter the negative perceptions of Japanese tertiary education. Rivers (2010, 2011) notes that in the early stages of the G30 Project it remained unclear as to how the English abilities of the prospective G30 students and academic staff responsible for delivering the ETPs would be assessed, and by whom. However, admissions guidelines to existing G30 ETPs outlined on HEI websites state that students must submit proof of English ability via the reporting of standardized test scores (Meiji University, 2013; The University of Tokyo, 2013). There has been no mention of the assessment of English-language exit competencies in the English-language research literature, but recent recommendations suggesting that all university

students should be assessed via the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) upon enrollment in and graduation from Japanese HEIs (“LDP urges TOEFL scores,” 2013) suggest that ETPs may employ exit language assessments in coming years.

As is the case in South Korea, Japan also faces challenges in dealing with the linguistic and cultural skills of the administrative staff charged with working with international students. Administrative staff at Japanese universities, both national and private, have traditionally been employed on a rotating basis, changing jobs every few years (Tsuneyoshi, 2005). If this type of job rotation continues to exist, a large number of international education professionals will need to be trained. The G30 Project includes provision for enhancing the services for hosting international students, including strengthening academic support and providing help with housing (Lim, 2008; MEXT, 2009c), therefore improvement in these areas can be expected, but as yet is not documented.

The recruitment and retention of faculty members, both local and foreign, to teach in Japanese EMI programs has been difficult (Lassegard, 2006; Tsuneyoshi, 2005). EMI programs have not been coupled with extra compensation for local instructors, and due to their (up until now) short-term nature they have often not carried with them sufficient credit-weight to exempt faculty members from other duties (Tsuneyoshi, 2005). In her study of EMI in a short-term student exchange program at Japanese universities Hashimoto (2005) found that many of her interviewees, the coordinators of the programs, talked about resistance to the program from their colleagues. Faculty members complained that conducting the classes in English required too much effort for a group of students who were coming to Japan only to “have a good time” (p. 14) and that this was

unfair to other students. Hashimoto even found that when coordinators ask faculty members to teach on the program “they all run away” (p. 14).

Foreign faculty members are not necessarily easier to recruit and retain. In Japan, it is standard practice to employ foreigners on limited-term contracts, thus they are often forced to leave an institution after three or four years (Burrows, 2007; Fitzpatrick, 2010; Johnston, 2004; McCrostie & Spiri, 2008). Thus teaching positions in Japan may not be very attractive to many foreign professors, and ETPs are likely to be shortchanged as experienced instructors are replaced by new recruits (McCrostie & Spiri, 2008). Another challenge to retaining faculty members, both local and foreign, is faculty development. Mandatory faculty development is a new phenomenon in Japanese HEIs (Arimoto, 2008; Matsushita, 2011), and so, as ETPs expand, it is perhaps unlikely that faculty will receive support in their transition to teaching in ETPs. Under all of these conditions combined, it is difficult to envisage Japan attracting faculty of the caliber it would like to order to establish ETPs on par with top universities in other nations and to compete with those top institutions in the global competition (Altbach, 2006).

Perhaps the biggest structural challenge to the implementation of ETPs in Japan is that of structural intransigence. It is well-documented that academic institutions are slow to change and that the institutionalization of reforms and innovations is problematic (e.g. Altbach, 2012; Wildavsky, Kelly & Carey, 2011). In a 2011 publication that discusses this issue thoroughly and examines the potential for innovation in U.S. higher education, Brewer and Tierney note that public and private nonprofit HEIs where funding is not dependable on student enrollment or even learning outcomes have little incentive to innovate. They conclude that “the solution to increasing innovation in higher education is

not to abandon public funding [but]...to redefine the state's role in a way that is much more purposeful" by, for example, providing "systematic incentives for existing institutions to reduce costs and devise high-quality-at-scale solutions" (p. 40). However, this conclusion does not address the process of institutionalization, the embedding of the innovation "into the academic fabric" of the HEI and HE system (Altbach, 2012, p. 265). Faculty members, boards and administrators can all aid or stifle change (Brewer & Tierney, 2011, p. 22).

Talking specifically about the obstacles in the path of internationally-focused HE innovations, in his plenary address at the 2003 *Integrating Content and Language: Meeting the challenge of a multilingual higher education* conference, former Dutch Minister of Education and President of Maastricht University, Dr. Jo Ritzen described how the Bologna Declaration and faculty buy-in have helped to institutionalize internationalization initiatives. The Bologna Declaration has removed European national-level obstacles and the Bologna Process has helped to solve issues of non-equivalence in such measures as national bursary, and quality assurance systems. He described how he overcame obstacles at Maastricht University by ensuring that individual faculties could decide their own priorities for internationalization (Ritzen, 2004). However, these obstacles may not be easily overcome in the Japanese context.

The Japanese government G30 Project policy push for ETP development provided incentives to innovate and removed some national-level obstacles for Japan, but obstacles still remain at the institutional level. Japanese national universities in particular are slow moving bureaucracies. Anthropologist Brian McVeigh has often noted how administrative immobilism hinders attempts to improve Japanese HE (1997, 2002), and a

more recent (2009) OECD study has also highlighted the over-bureaucratization of HE in Japan. It stated that despite a rapid rate of change in the Japanese HE sector over recent years, HEIs “appear keen to operate as they long have done, holding fast to the Humboldtian vision of the university and to long-standing institutional practices” (Newby, Weko, Breneman, Johanneson & Maassen, 2009 p. 100).

Newby et al. (2009) specifically referred to the 2004 transformation of national universities into independent trusts, which created a new, more nimble, top-down university leadership structure in which the university president presides over affiliated faculties and administration (Goodman, 2005; Ishikawa, 2011, p. 200; Newby et al., 2009, p. 17). They noted that in practice however, the traditional form of governance, the professors’ council, still holds considerable power and that significant decisions are made only after consensus has been reached, and often in a reactive, negative way (p. 32). Ishikawa (2011) explains that consensus in support of ETPs is difficult to reach because of the lack of international experience and language capacity of many faculty members, along with the increased workload that such a reform would demand. Without incentives to encourage buy-in from institutional stakeholders such as the professors' council, ETPs are unlikely to be implemented successfully (Ishikawa, 2011; Watabe, 2010).

This concern over structural intransigence regarding internationalization and EMI echoes that expressed in the 1990s when Japan promoted information technology (IT) in education. At that time, scholars highlighted contradictions between the need for employees with specialist technical skills and the traditional Japanese lifetime employment model with its need for generalists, and between the flexible, individual nature of the internet and the over-bureaucratization of Japanese HE (Bachnik, 2003). In

an introduction to her volume focusing on the lagging implementation of IT in education, Bachnik (2003) stated that a major symptom of these contradictions was “an overwhelming focus on promoting IT, with very little attention paid to implementing the plans” (p. 2). Those implementing Japan’s current internationalization policies may have a lot to learn from the IT experience.

### **Summary**

Challenges that HEIs experience in implementing EMI and ETPs can be divided into three categories based on those identified by Tsuneyoshi (2005) in her study of short-term EMI programs in Japan. These categories comprise linguistic, cultural and structural challenges. Linguistic challenges are those that relate to the English proficiency of the students and instructor and the concern that less-than-native-speaker proficiency can lead to reduced quality of education in the EMI classroom. For example, research has shown that less content may be covered per semester in an EMI course as students need more time to process information and complete tasks (e.g. Hellekjær, 2010; Wilkinson, 2005). Cultural challenges occur when students, faculty members and staff with diverse backgrounds work together in the same program. Academic cultures and learning traditions vary widely and create differences in expectations for such practices as classroom behavior and styles of teaching (e.g. Tange, 2010). Scholars have observed that EMI often leads to a Western or American standard in classrooms which may lead to a loss of cultural texture in teaching and learning and can also conflict with traditional values held by nationals of the country in which EMI occurs (e.g. Coleman, 2006; Wong & Wu, 2011). Finally, structural challenges that relate to the administration and management of programs may also be experienced by HEIs implementing EMI and

ETPs. These challenges include difficulties involved in setting assessment standards and practices for entry into and graduation from ETPs, and difficulties in recruiting faculty members and staff to work with the programs (e.g. Wilkinson & Zegers, 2006; Tella et al., 1999).

While research often documents the challenges faced in EMI classrooms, it rarely reports on how practitioners should or do tackle and overcome these challenges. Studies that have commented on this topic have recommended that students and faculty members should be screened for their language ability to cope with EMI, and that faculty members should be given incentives to teach and more opportunity to spend time in English-speaking countries. Student-centered instruction, collaboration between content and language instructors and intercultural training courses have also been advocated (e.g. Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Vinke, 1995). There have also been reports that faculty members teaching in their non-native language do not always adhere strictly to EMI policies, preferring instead to tailor their lessons to the specific students they are teaching (e.g. MacDonald, 2009).

Japan is expected to encounter all three types of challenge in the implementation of new undergraduate ETPs. Contributing to the linguistic and cultural challenges are the points that the majority of students studying in ETPs are likely to be non-native speakers of English, and that these students are expected to come from a more diverse mix of countries than Japan's traditionally Asian international student body. However, structural challenges are likely to be those most keenly felt by HEIs in Japan. Scholars note that Japan's reputation of having a less-than-rigorous HE system, a lack of clear governmental or institutional guidelines for assessing the language abilities of those in

the ETP classrooms, the low English and cultural skills of administrative staff, difficulties in attracting faculty members to teach in the programs and the overall slow bureaucratic pace of Japanese universities all create challenge in implementing EMI or educational change (e.g. Askew, 2011; Bachnik, 2003; Newby et al., 2009; Rivers 2010, 2011; Tsuneyoshi, 2005). This dissertation seeks to explore which challenges are currently facing new undergraduate ETPs and document the actions that program implementers are taking to overcome them.

### **Chapter Summary**

This chapter began by providing a backdrop to the topic under study. It first situated the study within the larger phenomenon of the internationalization of HE and examined the definitions of internationalization. It demonstrated that ETPs are an activity that education systems and HEIs may choose to undertake in order to help them become more international, but that presence of ETPs within an institution does not mean that the institution is internationalized. In order to provide background into the reasons why the HEIs in the current study may be implementing ETPs in the manner that they are, the chapter then proceeded to discuss the reasons why HEIs may seek to internationalize. Four major rationales were identified: academic, social-cultural, political and economic. The desire to attract international students is a driving force behind many ETPs in non-Anglophone countries (Ammon & McConnell, 2002; Maiworm & Wächter, 2002; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008; Wilkinson, 2013) and so the next section gave an overview of worldwide and Japan student mobility numbers, showing that many of Japan's international students come from elsewhere in Asia.

Next, the chapter presented background on internationalization initiatives in Japan, and discussed the rationales for, definitions of and approaches to those initiatives. It noted that the recruitment of international students to Japan has long been viewed as a prime internationalization strategy, but that the rationales for recruiting these students have evolved over time, from a desire to learn from the West, to the promotion of mutual understanding, capacity building in developing countries and finally to positioning for global competitiveness. The review of Japan's HE internationalization initiatives found that many academics believe there to be a latent dichotomous tension between the desire to become international, and a desire to remain Japanese (Burgess et al., 2010; Goodman, 2007; Hashimoto, 2000; Kudo & Hashimoto, 2011; Rivers, 2010), and that many HEIs tend to be somewhat passive and only reactive to government-led initiatives in their efforts to become international (Kudo & Hashimoto, 2011; Kuwamura, 2009; Yonezawa et al., 2009).

The second half of the chapter focused in on the study's research problem. It presented a synthesis of the empirical literature on existing ETPs, exploring the rationales for implementing and characteristics of ETPs and discussing challenges that HEIs face in implementing them. The literature reviewed showed that even though many nations introduce ETPs out of a desire to attract international students, the rationales behind this desire lead to different conceptualizations of the programs and to different challenges in their implementation. The review documented various linguistic, cultural and structural challenges that different nations and institutions have experienced in implementing EMI and ETPs and suggested ways that some of these challenges may be overcome. Research describing issues surrounding EMI in graduate and short-term undergraduate courses in

Japan has given some indication of the challenges that Japanese HEIs may face as they introduce full undergraduate ETPs, highlighting the institutional-level obstacles that may hinder their successful implementation. However, as the number of full-length undergraduate ETPs in Japan grows, there is a need for more in-depth data-driven research.

## Chapter III

### RESEARCH DESIGN

The main objective of this study is to explore how Japanese universities are implementing undergraduate ETPs. It investigates the challenges that universities face in implementing these programs from the perspectives of different groups of program implementers within the institutions. The problem of practice explained that despite positive rhetoric concerning the need for EMI in HE, difficulties exist in the implementation of ETPs. The problem of research discussed that there is a shortage of literature related to the implementation of ETPs in general, and research related to EMI in Japan has largely only looked at short-term and graduate programs. The following research questions will be addressed:

1. What do program implementers (senior administrators, faculty members and international education support staff) see as the characteristics of, rationales for, implementation challenges, and practical responses to the undergraduate English-taught degree programs at their institutions?
2. How do program implementers (senior administrators, faculty members and international education support staff) explain and make sense of the characteristics of, rationales for, implementation challenges, and practical responses to the undergraduate English-taught degree programs at their institutions?
3. How do these characteristics, rationales, implementation challenges, and practical responses compare with official undergraduate English-taught degree program documentation from the Ministry of Education, Japan Society for the Promotion

of Science, and the higher education institutions where the undergraduate English-taught degree programs are situated, and why might any differences exist?

This chapter presents the paradigm of inquiry and research strategy driving this study. It discusses the study's participants, data generation, and analysis. It also reflects on the study's trustworthiness and ethical considerations for the human participants.

### **Paradigm of Inquiry**

Social science research is guided by philosophical assumptions about the nature of the world, and how one understands and interprets it (Creswell, 2007; Crotty, 1998; Maxwell, 2013). The epistemological stance guiding the research design and analysis of this study is social constructionism. Social constructionism posits that knowledge is not exclusive of human experience, it emphasizes interaction and discourse within society as the vehicles through which self and the world are articulated (Creswell, 2007; Crotty, 1998; Patton, 2002; Schwandt, 2000). Constructionism asserts that meanings “are constructed by human beings as they engage in the world they are interpreting” (Crotty, 1998, p. 43). Furthermore, social constructionism emphasizes the hold that culture has on individuals: culture “shapes the way in which we see things” (Crotty, 1998, p. 58), advocating that ways of understanding are culturally and historically relative (Creswell, 2007).

The literature on research paradigms sometimes conflates social constructionism with constructivism (see for example, Creswell, 2007; 2009). However, constructivism differs from social constructionism in that constructivism focuses on the individual, proposing that each individual “engages with objects in the world and makes sense of

them” (Crotty, 1998, p. 79; Patton, 2002). Social constructionism’s emphasis on collective meaning-making through social interaction and on the impacts of cultures to which we belong has particular resonance for this study, especially given Japan’s reputation as a high-context, collectivist culture (Hall, 1977; Hofstede, 2001). Social constructionism is also appropriate because the use of the English language in non-Anglophone environments is rarely viewed as culturally-neutral (Block & Cameron, 2002).

Social constructionism was felt to be the most appropriate paradigm for this study as I believe that the actions individuals take are a result of their past interactions with the world and are conditioned through their cultural perspectives. I believe that the choices that the individuals involved in implementing undergraduate ETPs in Japan make are influenced by their previous interactions with the English language, international students, study abroad programs, other international experiences, and by the culture of the institution in which they work. In addition, the rationales for adopting ETPs, decisions regarding the ways in which ETPs are implemented, and the perceptions of challenges and how they are acted upon, are mediated by the cultures within which the decision maker is embedded and identifies with, and the values that these cultures bestow upon the English language and international activities. This is evidenced by the fact that discussions of HE and internationalization processes propose three main levels of cultural influence which impact those involved: individual cultural identity, university institutional identity, and national identity (Bess & Dee, 2008; Hashimoto, 2003; Knight, 1997).

As a paradigm of inquiry, social constructionism provides guidelines for the practical execution of this study. It encourages the use of open-ended questions to allow participants to construct the meaning of phenomena, and it enables me, the researcher, to focus on the global, national and local contexts, backgrounds and social interactions that shape both the interpretations of the study participants and those of the researcher (Creswell, 2007). This paradigm empowers the researcher to make sense of the meanings that others have about the world.

## **Research Strategy**

### **Case Study**

This study employed a case study research strategy. Case study research is a "qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system or multiple bounded systems over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information, and reports a case description and case-based themes" (Creswell, 2007, p. 73). The unique contribution of this approach is that it allows the researcher to examine complex social phenomena intensely and holistically in their own social contexts (Denscombe, 2010; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2010; Merriam, 2009; Stake, 1995, 2005; Yin, 2009). It was selected as the research strategy for this study for five reasons.

First, case study has a distinct advantage over other research strategies when "a *how* and *why* question is being asked about a contemporary set of events over which the investigator has little or no control" (Yin, 2009, p. 13). Denscombe (2003) emphasizes that case study "offers the opportunity to explain *why* certain outcomes might happen - more than just find out what those outcomes are" (p. 53). This study seeks to understand how and why ETPs, a contemporary phenomenon, are being implemented at Japanese

HEIs. The researcher did not seek to intervene, but to gain insight into the processes that are happening at these institutions.

Second, case study is particularly useful when the context of a real-life phenomenon is central to its processes (Yin, 2009). In this study, the contextual components of each HEI and the country in which they are situated are considered to be very pertinent to way that ETPs are being implemented and must be taken into account to achieve a full understanding of the phenomenon.

Third, the "thick description" (Stake, 1995) that case study produces is obtained by investigation of the "relationships and processes" (Denscombe, 2010, p. 53) of each case and enables the researcher to "unravel the complexities" (Denscombe, 2010, p. 53) of the phenomenon under study. The phenomenon of ETPs at Japanese universities is a product of many different forces and has taken different forms at different institutions; these complexities cannot be easily examined through other methodologies.

Fourth, case studies investigate a phenomenon from many different angles (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2010). They allow the researcher to capture the reality of the phenomenon from the perspectives of multiple stakeholders (Stake, 1995). This study seeks to understand how undergraduate ETPs have been implemented from the perspectives of senior administrators, faculty and international education support staff who have been involved in the decision-making processes surrounding the implementation, and the actual implementation of the ETPs.

Fifth, case study allows for parallel use of multiple data collection methods. This strength allows the researcher to develop a robust holistic understanding of the phenomenon as triangulation of the multiple sources will corroborate findings and lead to

more convincing results (Yin, 2009). In this study, information gathered from multiple stakeholders, and from institutional and governmental documents as well as those from other organizations allowed the researcher to use "converging lines of inquiry" (Yin, 2009, p. 115) to deeply understand ETPs at Japanese HEIs.

### **Multiple-Case Study**

In order to strengthen the findings of this study, multiple-case design was used. Stake (2005) notes that multiple-case study is particularly useful when there is more interest in a "phenomenon, population, or general condition" (p. 445) than in a specific case. Thus, it is a common design for studying school innovations, processes and problems (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009) and has, in recent years, often been used to conduct studies on the different aspects of HE internationalization (e.g. Byun et al., 2011; Childress, 2010; Watabe, 2010). This study seeks to investigate ETPs in three Japanese universities in the hope that understanding these cases will lead to a better understanding of the phenomenon (Stake, 2005).

Multiple-case studies are considered in research design literature as more robust than single-case case studies as analytic findings that arise independently from multiple cases are more powerful than those coming from a single case (Herriott & Firestone, 1983; Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009). Any conclusions from a single-case study may be considered as idiosyncratic and require clear justification (Yin, 2009). Careful description of ETPs in the contexts of several universities provide what Stake (2005) terms as "valued and trustworthy knowledge" (p. 459), and allow for "cross-site comparison without necessarily sacrificing within-site understanding" (Herriott & Firestone, 1983, p. 14).

Despite the strengths of multiple-case study design, limitations exist. Merriam (1998; 2009) identifies three main limitations. First, the rich description required of case studies takes time and money. Even with sufficient resources available to the researcher to produce a valuable study, the final product “may be too lengthy, too detailed, or too involved for busy policymakers and practitioners to read and use” (Merriam, 2009, p. 51-52). Second, in spite of the charge that a case study may become too detailed, this research strategy has also been criticized for its lack of representativeness and oversimplifying a situation. Guba and Lincoln (1981) counter this criticism succinctly when they caution us to remember that case studies are “in fact...a slice of life” (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, cited in Merriam, 1998, p. 42). Finally, as the researcher is the primary instrument of data generation and analysis, qualitative case studies are subject to issues of researcher integrity. An unethical case study researcher could choose which elements of the case she wishes to report, and which she does not. Similarly, a researcher’s close involvement with the participants during the research process could bias her study.

Steps were taken during the research process to overcome these limitations. The study investigates ETPs at three HEIs – sufficient cases to increase the strength of the study (Yin, 2009), but not so many cases as to become too lengthy and of limited use to policy makers and educators. During the data analysis, conscious effort was made not to oversimplify and gloss over the uniqueness or complexities of each case for the sake of comparison (Stake, 2005). In addition, sensitivity to the research participants was maintained. Further issues of researcher subjectivity are discussed below.

## Participant Selection

Participant selection for this study was a three-phase process: selection of institutions, programs, and individuals. A purposeful sampling strategy (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2002) was adopted for all phases in order to obtain "information-rich cases...from which we can learn a great deal about matters of importance" (Patton, 2002, p. 242) so that an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of ETPs in Japanese universities could be gained.

The first phase of participant selection involved criterion-based selection (Creswell, 2007; LeCompte & Preissle, 1993) to identify institutions that are participating in the Global 30 Project and have begun to implement undergraduate ETPs. The names of these institutions and the dates that they introduced undergraduate ETPs can be found in the literature compiled by MEXT (MEXT, 2012a). All 13 universities participating in the Global 30 Project have at least one undergraduate ETP. Sophia and Waseda universities were excluded from the consideration as they were carrying out undergraduate ETPs before the Global 30 Project was established.

Patton (2002) explains that findings from a small sample of diverse cases can produce "important shared patterns that cut across cases and derive their significance from having emerged out of heterogeneity" (p. 233), and so the next criterion used for selecting the case-study institutions was one of difference. On March 9, 2012, MEXT reported the results of an interim evaluation of the Global 30 Project that covers the activities of the G30 HEIs in fiscal years 2009 and 2010 (MEXT, 2012c). Each participating HEI received a letter grade from 'S' (highest) to 'D' (lowest), where 'S' means 'Outstanding, the achievement of objectives can be expected', and 'D' means 'In

view of the efforts taken so far, the achievement of objectives are considered to be extremely difficult, and the discontinuation of financial support is appropriate' (MEXT, 2012c, p. 3). Only one institution of the 13 received the grade of 'S', ten institutions received an 'A', and two received a 'B'. The three universities initially selected for this study were chosen based on the grade they received in the interim report. By selecting one institution that received a high grade, one with a middle grade and one with a lower grade, it was hoped that any similarities in findings will have greater significance.

During the data collection process, however, one of the case-study institutions had to be dropped from the study and replaced by another. After in-depth interviews with two senior administrators at one of the case-study HEIs, one senior administrator in the faculty which administered the ETP ceased email communication with the researcher, and effectively reneged on an offer to help facilitate contact with faculty members in the school of study. An alternate institution was selected after discussion of and interest in the research project by a senior administrator at this HEI.

The HEIs that were ultimately part of the study had received grades of 'A' and 'B' in the interim evaluation and so display some variation in their potential to successfully implement ETPs. They demonstrate additional diversity in that two of the institutions are private, and one is national. Table 5 presents basic enrollment and ETP information about each of the case-study HEIs. The names of each university remain anonymous and numbers are rounded to protect the individuals participating in this study.

Table 5

*Basic Information About the Case-study Institutions*

Basic information	University A	University B	University C
Type of institution	Private	Private	National
Approx. # of undergraduate students <sup>a</sup>	30,000	29,000	16,000
Approx. # int'l undergraduate students <sup>a</sup>	1000	400	300
Int'l undergraduate students as % of total undergraduate students <sup>a</sup>	3%	2%	2%
Approx. total # of int'l students <sup>a</sup>	1,300	900	1,300
Approx. total # of students <sup>a</sup>	33,000	34,000	24,000
Int'l students as % of total students <sup>a</sup>	4%	3%	6%
# of undergraduate ETPs <sup>b</sup>	1	1	2
Academic area of undergraduate ETPs <sup>b</sup>	Japanese Studies	Information and Policy Studies	Physical/Natural Science Human Science
Month/year undergraduate ETPs established	4/2011	9/2011	10/2010 10/2011
Grade awarded in interim evaluation of the G30 Project	A	B	A

*Note.* Data compiled from MEXT and university websites, they do not correspond with those reported by JASSO

<sup>a</sup> As of May 1, 2011. <sup>b</sup>As of April, 2013

The second phase of participant selection was to choose the programs to be studied within each institution. It is noted that different academic disciplines have different histories with the English language in Japan. For example, the natural and physical sciences and engineering graduate programs have a stronger EMI presence in

Japanese HEIs than social science programs. This is a result of wanting to strengthen the research productivity of Japanese HEIs in these areas. Consequently, professors teaching in hard science and engineering subjects may be more comfortable with English (Manakul, 2007a). Two of the HEIs in this study have only one ETP, and so no choice had to be made. The third HEI administers two ETPs, one in the natural/physical science field, and one in the human science field. Based on the reasoning above, the human science program was chosen. The three ETPs taught in the case-study institutions are: Japanese studies, information and governance studies, and human science. The Japanese studies and human science programs are similar in their focus on contemporary issues either in or affecting Japan. The information and governance studies program also looks at contemporary issues, but has an information studies focus. This presents a limitation for this study as the disciplines may experience some differences in their ease of implementation. However in contrast to the disparate nature of the ETPs across the G30 Project (see MEXT, 2012a), the relative similarity of these programs allows for greater focus on the findings resulting from other differences between the programs.

The third phase of participant selection was to identify individual participants from the chosen programs at each case-study institution. This study seeks to build a comprehensive picture of ETP implementation from the perspectives of senior administrators, faculty and international education support staff who have been involved in the decision-making processes and implementation of undergraduate ETPs under the Global 30 Project. It was originally intended that the senior administrators would be either members of committees in charge of internationalization efforts at the case-study institutions, directors of university-wide international education research centers, and/or

deans of the schools in which the Global 30 ETPs are housed. The faculty members would be employed on a full-time basis and would all be, at the time of the interview, teaching at least one course on a Global 30 undergraduate ETP. The international education support staff would typically hold managerial positions in international student offices, or would be employed directly by the schools implementing the ETPs in administrative or academic support roles. However, upon gaining entry to the case-study institutions it was discovered that categorizing program implementers into these three groups was less straightforward than originally envisaged. This is described in more detail below.

As an outsider, it was difficult for the researcher to determine who would be the most appropriate individuals within each HEI to interview. A search of each case-study institution's website provided an initial list of potential participants. The next stage of the selection process involved asking an intermediary to make introductions to these potential participants. It has been noted that "gaining the access, cooperation, and assistance needed to carry out a successful project in Japan often requires a delicate balancing and matching act...of...status-related issues" (Culter, 2003) and so initial contact with the HEIs was made with the help of Japanese academics known to the researcher. Then, a letter of research invitation was sent out to the most senior administrator involved in the implementation of ETPs at each institution. Upon obtaining research approval from each institution, additional individuals were formally invited to participate using a combination of purposeful and snowball sampling techniques, whereby some participants were identified via institutional websites, and others were referred to the researcher by current participants (Patton, 2002).

In order to gain a holistic picture of each ETP, the researcher sought to interview program implementers who played different roles in its implementation. As mentioned above, it proved a little awkward to categorize the study participants into neat groupings based on their job functions. For example, many senior administrators also teach on the ETPs, or teach EMI courses in other departments of the university, and so their experience of classroom practices relating to ETPs overlaps with that of the faculty members. Likewise, some faculty members have more administrative and course management responsibilities than others, and some international education support staff are not employed on staff, but rather on professorial contracts, but nevertheless play more administratively supportive roles in relation to the ETPs under study. Categorization of the participant program implementers was thus carried out based on their primary job function in relation to the ETP under study, with the caveat that the boundaries are blurred.

### **Sample Size**

Patton (2002) asserts that “there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry” (p. 244). He explains that “sample size depends on what you want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what’s at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with available time and resources” (p. 244). Three case-study institutions are sufficient to meet these criteria. More than three could endanger the rich understanding of the implementation of ETPs in Japanese HEIs, and introduce risks that the results may not be timely enough to be of practical use to policy makers. Within each case, senior administrators, faculty and international education support staff were asked to participate.

The heterogeneity of the participants interviewed in terms of how long they have been in their positions, nationality and international experience may affect the outcomes of this study as these factors may affect attitudes towards teaching in English. This is particularly true where the faculty members are concerned. For example in his study of institutional change in Chilean HEIs, Bernasconi (2006) notes that the speed of institutional adaptation to new environments in universities can be correlated to the cultural make-up of their faculties, with older faculty members being resistant to change. Similarly, in her study of short-term ETPs in Japan, Hashimoto (2005) found that faculty who had significant international and/or non-academic experiences were critical of the Japanese university and often shared more values with their international students than their Japanese colleagues. She also found female faculty members to be more critical of the traditional Japanese university than male faculty members.

For the reasons cited above, the researcher planned to increase the diversity of the faculty members interviewed and aimed to interview 20% of the full-time faculty members teaching on the selected ETP at each institution. In its published brochure advertising the ETP to students, University A lists 16 full-time faculty members and one deputy dean teaching English-medium content courses in the program. University B shows 41 faculty members and three deans on its ETP website, however consultation with a professor and Global 30 committee member revealed that this list was out of date. Further discussion and careful examination of the institution's online syllabus system showed that there are currently 34 full-time faculty members teaching at least one course on the ETP. The employment structure for the faculty members teaching on the ETP at University C is different to the other institutions in this study, and so the university has

only five full-time faculty members (and one Associate Director) directly involved. Faculty interviews continued until no new information was forthcoming and a point of saturation was reached (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), with the effect that 31% of the full-time faculty members involved in the ETP were interviewed at University A, 18% were interviewed at University B, and 40% were interviewed at University C.

It was originally thought that the number of senior administrators involved with the ETPs would be very small, and the researcher planned to include only one person from this category at each institution in the study. However, there are more people with largely administrative roles involved with the ETPs than first imagined, and the numbers interviewed at each institution were three, one, and four. Contrary to initial expectations, the deans of the faculties where the ETPs are housed were not directly involved with the day to day implementation of the ETPs and were not available for interview. The number of international education support staff directly involved with the ETPs at the case-study HEIs is relatively small, and therefore only one, three and two educational support staff members respectively at each institution were interviewed. The overall total number of interviews was 27. Information about the type and number of participants is displayed in Table 6 and more information about the final study participants is presented in Chapter IV.

Table 6

*Types and Numbers of Participants*

Type of participant	Number of participants		
	University A	University B	University C
Senior administrators	3	1	4
Faculty	5	6	2
International education support staff	1	3	2
Institutional total	9	10	8

**Data Generation**

**Methods**

This study employed two methods to generate data: analysis of documents pertaining to the implementation of ETPs at the selected universities, and semi-structured interviews with senior administrators, faculty and international education support staff.

**Documentation.**

Yin (2009) states that documentary information is “likely to be relevant for every case study topic” (p. 101). Documents as a source of evidence have a number of strengths for qualitative case study research (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009). First, they are stable and can be reviewed repeatedly to corroborate new information that arises during interviews. Second, they are unobtrusive and not produced for the specific instance of case study research, so the presence of the researcher does not alter the data generated. Third, they contain exact names, references and details of events. Finally, they provide contextual evidence that is grounded in the real-world.

In this study, MEXT Global 30 Project websites, university websites, and university recruitment literature, as well as other MEXT, JSPS and JASSO publications referring to the Global 30 Project provided information relating to the characteristics of the ETPs at each institution, including information about the curriculum, and the students, faculty, and international education support staff involved in the programs. The documents provided insights into the formal, published rationales for the adoption of ETPs at the case-study institutions. In addition to the formal information provided by these documents, another important use was to provide evidence which could be followed up on in the interviews (Yin, 2009). Contradictory data generated was especially useful in identifying challenges faced by the institutions and staff therein in implementing the ETPs.

Despite the strengths of data generated in this manner, there are limitations which must be taken into account when analyzing documents. Specifically, when reviewing documents, it is important to understand that they were written for specific purposes and audiences other than the case study being carried out, and therefore may reflect those biases (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009). Of particular significance to the current study are the differences in the information about the Global 30 Project that are transmitted via the English and Japanese languages. Ishikawa (2011) points to differences concerning the roles of Japanese language and culture, and of university commitment to comprehensive planning and enhancement of administrative functions in G30 materials prepared for external and domestic audiences. The documents analyzed in this study are predominantly in the English language. This is deemed appropriate as the study explores programs taught in English intended for international students and therefore, there are

many materials about the Global 30 Project and the ETPs published in English. However, Ishikawa's (2011) observation serves as a warning, and the potential biases of the English documents were discussed with interview participants. In cases when pertinent documents were published in Japanese only, the researcher examined them with the help of translation software. A full list of documents analyzed for each university is included in the appendix.

### **Interviews.**

Qualitative interviewing (Mason, 2002; Patton, 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 2012) consists of in-depth, semi-structured and loosely structured forms of interviewing (Mason, 2002, p. 62). It is a process whereby the interviewer and the respondent build a trusting relationship in which information can be freely exchanged, and it generates rich, detailed information about how people view their worlds (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Patton, 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 2012). This form of interviewing is considered to be appropriate and practicable when the researcher is interested in understanding the perceptions of participants and learning how they attach meaning to certain phenomena, and has been referred to as the "gold standard of qualitative research" (Mason, 2002; Silverman, 2000) and an essential source of case study information (Yin, 2009). For this study, qualitative interviewing provided insights into the perspectives of the key actors involved in the ETPs. It also allowed the researcher to investigate the meanings of data generated from document analysis, and find out about other sources of evidence to further develop the case study (Yin, 2009).

In-depth semi-structured interviews, based on Patton's (2002) general interview guide approach, in combination with elements of the informal, conversational interview

(Patton, 2002), are well-suited for this study. The interview guide approach ensures that the same basic lines of inquiry on key aspects of concern are pursued with each participant, while affording the researcher room to probe for additional information and seek elucidation of issues (Patton, 2002; Schensul, Schensul & LeCompte, 1999; Yin, 2009). However, in order to allow for maximum flexibility to pursue emerging information in this exploratory study, elements of the informal, conversational interview were incorporated into the interviewing technique. The flexibility of the researcher to “go with the flow” (Patton, 2002) and spontaneously create questions on topics perhaps not previously envisaged is important to construct a comprehensive picture of each case.

One interview guide was developed for the interviews with the senior administrators, faculty and international education support staff as the same basic lines of inquiry were followed for each participant (Appendix D). However, additional specific information related to each participants’ position was elicited during the interview. The interview guide was developed based on the research questions and the conceptual framework guiding the study and refined based on advice from HE specialists. It is structured according to Rubin and Rubin’s (2012) recommendations and so includes three types of prompts: main, probing, and follow-up.

The main prompts in the interview guide were used to address the research problem. They correlate with the study’s research questions (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). One main prompt may provide answers to several research questions (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The probes encourage the participant to provide depth and detail. For one main prompt in this study, a prompt which focuses on institutional rationales for adopting ETPs, the participants were asked to rank a list of probes. This ensured that important

possible rationales are not overlooked by the participants. Participants were also probed to provide reasons for their answers in order to understand as fully as possible how they make sense of the ETPs. Follow-up questions enabled greater understanding of an idea, concept or theme suggested by the participant (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

As indicated above, the interview guide was not intended to be used as a script assuring adherence to a questioning format or sequence. Instead, the wording and sequencing were adjusted during the course of the interview to maintain a conversational style (Patton, 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 2012; Yin, 2009). However, Schensul et al.'s (1999) recommendations for developing semi-structured interview questions were used in the development of the interview guide to ensure clarity, appropriate terminology, and suitable length of each question, and these recommendations were taken into account during the reformulation of questions during the interview process. In addition, care was taken to ask leading questions only when appropriate to gain worthwhile knowledge or to verify the interviewer's interpretations (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Furthermore, double-barreled questions, and those thought to elicit yes-or-no responses were avoided (Merriam, 2009; Weiss, 1998). This last point is especially appropriate for the interviews in this study which were often conducted across cultures with native and non-native English speakers (Bradford & Bradford, 2008; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). All of the interviews in this study were conducted in English, as is appropriate with faculty members and staff who are involved in ETPs and work with international students. The interview questions were refined and piloted in collaboration with former faculty colleagues of the researcher employed at Japanese HEIs.

## **Procedures**

Documentation pertaining to the implementation of ETPs at each of the case study institutions was examined before visiting each of the institutions for interviews. Data generated thus was used to provide contextual information about the undergraduate ETPs at the case-study institutions and enabled the researcher to tailor interview questions specifically to each institution. Additional documents were collected during the campus visits.

The interviews were conducted in-person, usually in the participant's place of work, and ranged from 36 to 93 minutes in length. Those with university leaders and faculty members generally lasted for approximately one hour, while interviews with the support staff were generally briefer. Face-to-face interviewing was preferred because of the richness of the data that can be generated. This type of interviewing allows aspects of setting and non-verbal cues to be included in the interaction and analysis. Before beginning the interviews, the researcher ensured that research consent forms were signed. The interviews then commenced with the researcher asking participants for descriptive information about the ETPs in order to reduce the anxiety that may be associated with interviews (Merriam, 2009). At the end of the interview, participants were invited to share any additional information related to the topics discussed, and were asked if they had any questions about the study. All interviews except for one were digitally recorded so that the participants' perspectives were captured as fully and fairly as possible (Patton, 2002). The recordings were subsequently assigned a code and uploaded to the researcher's personal computer for later transcription. Upon request for anonymity from

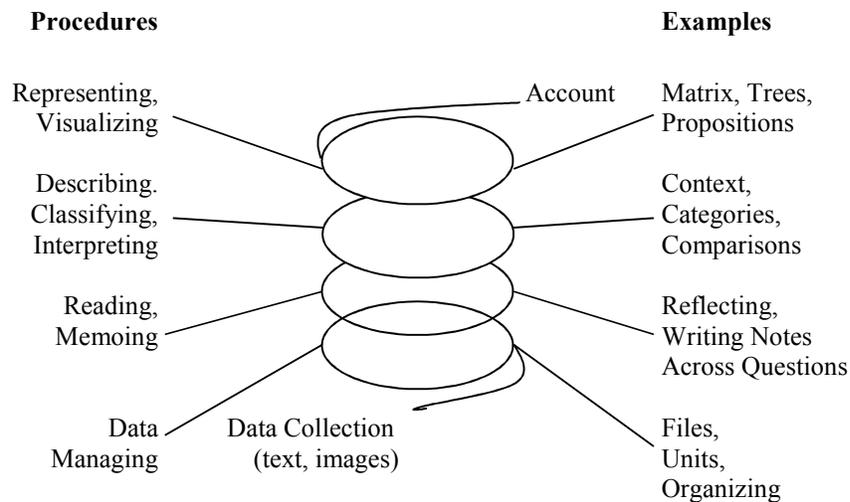
one participant, one interview was not recorded. Instead, the researcher took detailed notes during the interview.

During the interviews, writing was minimized in order to maintain the natural flow of the conversation and to allow for a focus on active listening (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). However, notes were taken as necessary to highlight topics important to the participants, to record contextual information, and to flag ideas for follow-up (Patton, 2002). In addition, the researcher kept a reflective journal and took time immediately after each interview to note down personal memos - reflections, thoughts and feelings - regarding the interview and to detail anything that could provide insight in addressing the research questions (Langton & Kammerer, 2005). These memos generated ideas and questions which could be explored later, and also enabled the researcher to reflect on her biases and subjectivities.

Literature about conducting field research in Japan has suggested that physical appearance, gender, age and social status all affect the research process in different ways than might be expected in the United States, particularly when conducting qualitative interviews (Culter, 2003). Having worked in Japanese HEIs for a number of years, the researcher was aware of the dress-code norms and therefore this did not present any problems during the interviews. Gender, age, and social status are personal factors over which the researcher has less control. However, despite the hierarchical nature of the Japanese university (Culter, 2003; McVeigh, 2002, Poole, 2010), this female, 30-something, doctoral researcher did not perceive any difficulties when conducting interviews. In fact, the researcher felt part of the “in-group” of scholars interested in Japanese HE internationalization and was welcomed with open and honest conversations.

## **Data Analysis**

This study provided meaning to the data generated from documents and interviews by “describing, classifying and connecting” (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 8) to portray a comprehensive picture of the implementation of ETPs at the case-study institutions. Data generation and analysis are considered part of an iterative process (Bogden & Biklen, 2007; Creswell, 2007; Maxwell, 2013; Merriam, 2009) and are treated in this study as a continuous, repetitive, and often simultaneous flow of gathering, focusing, and analyzing data. The study follows Creswell’s (2007) data analysis spiral (Figure 3), where the researcher moves “in analytic circles rather than using a fixed linear approach” (Creswell, 2007, p. 150) and spirals upwards and downwards as new data provides insights into existing interpretations. As is typical with multiple-case study research design, two stages of data analysis were undertaken in this study: within-case and cross-case analysis, treating each case first comprehensively, before seeking to build abstractions across cases (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009). The computer-aided qualitative data analysis software program, ATLAS.ti, was used to support the analysis.



*Figure 3. Creswell's Data Analysis Spiral*

## **Memos**

Memos were written during the initial reading of the documents, and throughout the entire process of analyzing data generated from both the documents and interviews. The memos were personal, methodological, or substantive (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Personal memos captured the researcher's feelings during interviews, readings, and subsequent analysis. They highlighted my subjectivities and helped to bring issues that were simmering in the background to the forefront. They were also a useful indication of how my interpretations evolved over the course of the research. Methodological memos noted anything that happened during the data generation and analysis that affected the way it was conducted or the quality of the data. For example, they noted when subsequent interviews needed to delve into a certain topic with more depth. Finally, substantive memos helped me to connect concepts to the research. In these memos I also commented on how participants' experiences are similar or different from participants

already interviewed in order to recognize emerging patterns. These substantive memos were particularly useful in developing codes when interpreting and reducing the data.

### **Within-case Analysis**

#### **Initial document analysis.**

Initial document analysis was conducted before visiting the case-study institutions in order to provide background and contextual information and establish a foundation for the interviews. The first step in the analysis process was data management. Documents were organized according to the HEI that they represent and following Richards' (2009) typology of qualitative codes, *descriptive* codes consisting of type of document, source and university to which it is relevant were applied in order to simplify storage and retrieval.

Then, the documents were read closely, and *topic* codes were applied. These topic codes described what is being discussed in segments of the documents, and in this initial analysis, emphasis on official evidence relating to the characteristics of, rationales for, implementation challenges, and practical responses to the ETPs were sought. Data was tabulated according to topic code so that contextual evidence pertaining to the characteristics of, rationales for, challenges facing, and responses to ETPs at each of the case-study institutions could be easily used to inform the interview questions. Data from documents collected during the site visits was added to the tables later to compile a more complete picture of the ETPs. This documentary evidence was later used to address research question three.

### **Interpreting and reducing data.**

Each interview was transcribed shortly after taking place. The transcripts were read while listening to the interviews to check the accuracy of the transcriptions, get an overall sense of the information, and to reflect on the participants' ideas, tones, and perspectives. They were also coded descriptively and topically, in the same way as with the documents in their initial analysis. Next, both the interview and document data was interpreted and reduced using *analytical* coding (Richards, 2009), a process whereby key meanings from the transcripts and documents are sorted into categories that express new ideas about the data (Richards, 2009).

The analytical coding took two forms. In the first form, *open* or *emic* codes which were derived from the language and concepts found in the transcripts and documents were applied to segments of the data (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Maxwell, 2013). The second form of analytical coding is known as *theoretical* or *etic* coding (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Maxwell, 2013). Here, codes based on the concepts in the study's conceptual framework and research questions were applied to the data. The emic codes were applied first to ensure that the source data, the documents and participants' perspectives, set the tone for the analysis, rather than allowing the conceptual framework to drive the analysis. This method ensures that concepts that the researcher does not overlook concepts that are not related to the conceptual framework.

After completing the initial coding process, the coded data was reviewed and coded segments that reflected similar concepts were grouped into larger categories (Maxwell, 2013; Richards, 2009). As new transcripts were added to the database, new concepts were added to the coded categories. Multiple readings of the data and codes

allowed the researcher to think about the data in different ways and discover the complexity within the data. The code names were refined, reflecting all the dimensions of a category (Richards, 2009). When all coded data had been categorized, the categories were examined for “recurring regularities and patterns” (Merriam, 2009, p. 180), to identify major themes that run through much of the data. I sought to identify themes that developed within the documents and within the participant interviews for each ETP, as well as themes that developed across both sources of data in order to identify convergent and divergent themes.

### **Cross-Case Analysis**

After the individual cases had been analyzed, the major themes were further analyzed to discover similarities and differences that exist among themes across cases. Following Miles and Huberman (1994), data from each case-study institution was compiled into a *meta-matrix* so that similarities and differences could be easily identified. Themes from each case were divided in new ways and clustered together so that themes that cut across the cases could be observed (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

### **Design Issues**

#### **Trustworthiness**

Trustworthiness is critical in in educational research. Merriam (2009) states that “the applied nature of most social science inquiry thus makes it imperative that researchers and others have confidence in the conduct of the investigation and in the results of any particular study” (p. 210). In other words: why are the findings of a study worth paying attention to? (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Accordingly, the study must employ strategies to rule out threats to the credibility of the research (Maxwell, 2013) and

provide the reader with enough detail of the context, data generation, and analysis to ensure that the researcher's conclusions make sense and can be applied to other situations (Firestone, 1987; Merriam, 2009). This study uses the concepts of credibility, dependability and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) to establish its trustworthiness.

### **Credibility.**

Credibility refers to the match between the research findings and reality. It addresses the question “do the findings capture what is really there?” (Merriam, 2009, p. 213). This study uses four strategies to enhance its credibility: triangulation, prolonged engagement, member checks, and researcher reflexivity, these are explained below. Appendix E, a credibility matrix, elucidates specific credibility threats to this study and shows the strategies that were used to overcome them.

Triangulation is the process of generating evidence from multiple sources using a variety of methods to provide a multi-faceted, holistic understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Mason, 2002; Maxwell, 2013; Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2002; Yin, 2009). The current study generates data from multiple sources – documents, administrators, faculty members and staff – using document analysis and semi-structured interviews. This enhances the credibility of the study as the different sources and methods allow the study to approach the phenomenon of ETPs from more than one dimension (Mason, 2002). The interviews provide in-depth insights into the perspectives of key actors in the implementation of ETPs and complement the details of the published documents. This strategy also reduces chance associations and systematic biases that may arise due to reliance upon any single method (Maxwell, 2013).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) discuss prolonged engagement with study participants as a strategy to build credibility through trust and rapport. If participants trust that their interests will be honored, then they will be more willing to talk freely with the researcher. Time constraints will prevent the researcher from spending an extended period with each individual participant. However, prolonged engagement with the research topic through the researcher's work and study experience has enhanced the researcher's familiarity with the study topic. This enabled the researcher to build rapport with the participants in this study and facilitate open conversation about the ETPs.

The third strategy that this study uses to enhance credibility is that of member checking - presenting interview transcripts and preliminary interpretations back to the original participants for correction, verification and/or challenge (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Maxwell, 2013; Merriam, 2009. Maxwell (2013) contends that "this is the single most important way of ruling out the possibility of misinterpreting the meaning of what participants say and do and the perspective they have" (p. 126). For this study, in instances where interview comments were inaudible or unclear, the researcher was prepared to ask participants to read through the transcribed version of their interview to clarify that their intent was correctly portrayed, however, no such clarification was needed. Interested participants were sent a preliminary analysis memo a few months after the interviews and were invited to share their feedback with the researcher. Member checking in this manner minimized the effect that the researcher's bias has on data generation and interpretation.

Finally, the study paid attention to researcher integrity by reflecting on the researcher's position. While it is not possible, or desirable, to eliminate the researcher's

perceptual lens from the study, it is possible to understand how a researcher's values and beliefs influence the conduct and conclusions of the inquiry (Maxwell, 2013). I believe that my experiences working with a diverse set of colleagues, teaching students from multiple countries and living and studying outside of my home country provided me with empathy for the program implementers I interviewed. However, I was mindful of sharing my experiences with my participants and sought to maintain what Patton (2002) terms 'empathic neutrality', thereby creating a connection with my interviewees, while at the same time remaining neutral to their experiences. My personal subjectivities will be continually reflected upon and explained through the use of a reflective journal. This journal will identify themes and biases that influence each stage of the study. Such explicit recognition of the researcher's position enhances credibility by allowing the reader to better understand how the data has been interpreted in the study (Merriam, 2009).

### **Dependability.**

Dependability refers to the consistency of the results of the analysis with the data collected. That is, "a researcher wishes outsiders to concur that given the data collected, the results make sense" (Merriam, 2009, p. 221). Dependability was established in this study through the creation of an audit trail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009). The study describes in detail how data was generated, how themes were developed in the analysis, and how decisions were made throughout. The researcher's reflective journal enabled the development of this trail. The audit trail shows readers how the researcher arrived at the study conclusions.

### **Transferability.**

Transferability refers to “the possibility of the results of a qualitative study “transferring” to another setting” (Merriam, 2009, p. 227), it enhances the applicability of the study results to other situations. Lincoln and Guba (2000) suggest that the extrapolations, or *working hypotheses* (Cronbach, 1975), produced out of one case study can be used to understand other cases based on the similarity, or *fittingness*, between the two contexts. If the working hypothesis developed in one context is to be applicable to another context, then the reader must know enough information about the first context in order to make judgments about fittingness and transferability. Accordingly, Lincoln and Guba (1985, 2000) encourage the use of thick description “to enable someone interested in making a transfer to reach a conclusion about whether transfer can be contemplated as a possibility” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 316). Therefore this study describes in detail the institutions and participants in the study, and presents the results with quotes from documents and participants to provide adequate contextual information for the reader to determine how closely their own institutional contexts match the case-study institutions.

### **Issue of Translation**

As mentioned in the data generation methods section, initial document review and all interviews were conducted in English. Only the review of the Global 30 Project interim reports was conducted in Japanese. These documents were seen as essential to the study, but were only published in Japanese. The researcher used translation software to examine these documents and enlisted the help of a bilingual native-Japanese speaker to check the interpretation.

## **Ethical Considerations**

Researchers have an obligation to respect the privacy and safety of participants, therefore several measures were taken in order to ensure ethical conduct following the human subjects procedures outlined by The George Washington University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) and Creswell's (2009) ethical issues in data collection, analysis and interpretation. First, the study proposal was submitted to the IRB of The George Washington University for approval. Following consultation with the Office of Human Research on the George Washington University campus, it was determined that as this research was to be conducted in established educational settings involving normal education practices, it should fall into the “exempt” category for review. The paperwork for exempt studies was submitted. Second, representatives from the case-study institutions were invited to take part in the study. They were informed of the research objective and purpose of the study. Third, individual interview participants were formally invited to take part in the research, and they were provided with information about their rights and confidentiality issues. They were asked to sign a letter of agreement in order to ensure their informed consent before data generation began (Appendix F).

Although the researcher did not foresee any potential risks or harm for the participants, the researcher is aware that interviewing as a research method may invade the participants' privacy by asking potentially revealing or embarrassing questions (Merriam, 2009). Therefore, the interview questions refrained from broaching controversial issues, and participants were reminded that they could refuse to answer any questions and could end the interview at any time. In addition, all interview transcripts and reports have been made available to participants upon request. In order to protect the

anonymity of institutions and individual participants, they were given pseudonyms such as *FM<sub>a1</sub>*, to denote faculty member one from University A, for data handling and reporting. Finally, all consent forms and digital interviews have been stored as password-protected files to ensure that only the researcher has access.

### **Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented and discussed the research design of the study. A multiple-case study strategy was selected as the most appropriate to generate rich descriptions of the implementation of ETPs at the HEIs under study. Approaching the study through a paradigm of social constructionism allowed for a focus on the ways that individuals construct their realities, mediated by their past experiences and cultural perspectives. The chapter elucidated the participant selection process, and then described the document and interview data generation methods and qualitative analysis techniques. Next followed a discussion of the study's trustworthiness established through its credibility, dependability and transferability. The chapter concluded with reflection on the ethical considerations of human participants.

## **Chapter IV**

### **PRESENTATION OF RESULTS**

This chapter presents analysis of the data generated through document review and semi-structured interviews to explore how and why ETPs are being implemented at Japanese universities. The chapter begins by describing general information about the study participants and then goes on to present individual case studies of the ETPs investigated at each of the three universities that constitute part of this study. Each case study provides context for understanding the ETP by introducing the university where the ETP is situated and outlining internationalization activities taking place at that institution. This information is followed by a summarized analysis of the results of the study for each institution. Detailed descriptions of the results for each case study are presented in appendices H, I and J. The case studies are followed by a cross-case analysis which reports on themes that have emerged as salient across the programs.

Throughout the chapter, examples of the participants' ideas are presented in their own words through the use of direct quotes from their conversations with the researcher. Participants have been assigned codes which allow them to remain anonymous, but enable their institutional affiliation and job categorization to be identified. For example, SAA<sub>1</sub> denotes senior administrator number one from University A, FMB<sub>2</sub> denotes faculty member number two from University B, and IESc<sub>3</sub> denotes international education support staff member number three from University C. Any direct quotes from participants used to support the results of this study will be followed by their functional code.

## Overview of the Participants

Participants in the study consist of 27 members of three universities who are involved in the implementation of an undergraduate ETP at their institution. Together these 27 individuals are referred to as program implementers. The participants have been categorized into three broad groups that describe their role at their university. Of the 27 participants, eight are described as senior administrators, 13 are full-time faculty members who teach at least one course on the ETP, and six are employed as international education support staff<sup>20</sup>. Figure 4 below illustrates this participant breakdown by job categorization. As mentioned in Chapter III, the boundaries between the job categories are not clear. In fact, five of the eight senior administrators were, at the time of the study, also teaching on the ETPs under study, and one senior administrator has taught in other EMI programs. These administrators were therefore able to contribute a comprehensive administrative and classroom view of the ETPs.

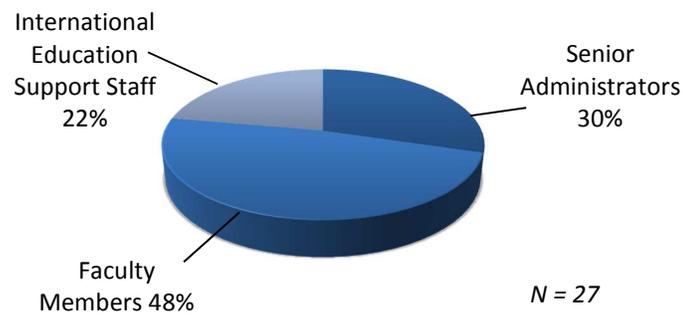


Figure 4. Participants by Job Categorization

<sup>20</sup> Of the six participants categorized into this group, one in fact holds a full professorship. However, in the context of this study, their administrative role dealing with international student exchange is more relevant and the interview was conducted in this capacity.

For the sake of anonymity, references to the participants' job title and academic field of study have been omitted from this study. However, other personal information (i.e. gender, general age, area of origin and native English-speaking status, the language of instruction of their highest degree, and study, research and/or work experience abroad) is presented below, as research shows that these criteria may have an effect on participant attitudes towards and methods concerning EMI (Bernasconi, 2006; Hashimoto, 2005; Roberts & Ching, 2011; Tange, 2010). In addition, information about whether the participants view themselves as an internationally-orientated person is provided. This descriptive information about the participants is presented in aggregate to give a broad picture of the composition of the participant pool, and to also protect the participants' anonymity.

Of the 27 participants, 17 (62%) are male, and 10 (37%) are female. Figure 5 illustrates the gender composition of participants in this study. Eleven (64%) of the male participants are faculty members, five (29%) are senior administrators, and one (6%) is employed as an international education support staff member. Fewer female participants in this study are employed as faculty members (20%). However, a greater percentage of females are senior administrators (30%) and international education support staff (30%).

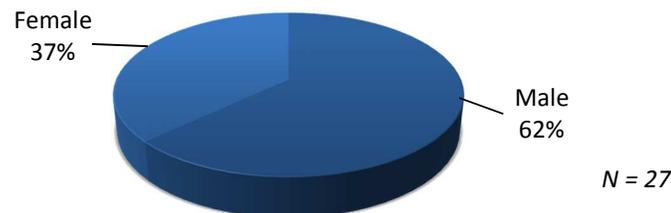


Figure 5. Participants by Gender

The majority of the participants (66%) are aged between 40 and 60, with only one senior administrator aged over 60, and five faculty members and three international education support staff aged under 40 years old (see Figure 6).

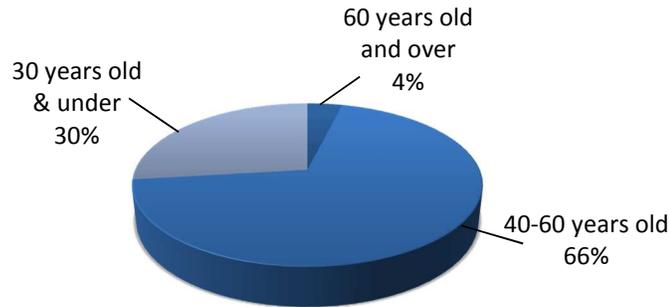


Figure 6. Participants by Age

N = 27

Twenty participants (74%) are Japanese nationals and non-native speakers of English, one participant is a non-Japanese non-native speaker of English, and six participants are non-Japanese native English speakers (see Figure 7).

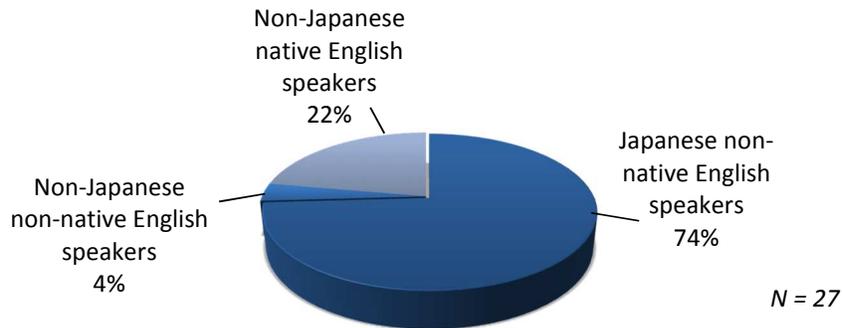


Figure 7. Participants by Area of Origin and Native Language

Of the 21 non-native English speakers, 11 obtained their highest degree outside of their country of origin, in English, and one non-native English speaker obtained their degree from a bilingual Japanese-English university in Japan. Only one participant stated

that he had never spent time abroad either studying, researching or working. He has attended some conferences overseas, but stated that they were “not really international” (FMb<sub>4</sub>). During interviews 17 participants referred to their own international outlook, and 13 of them stated that they would consider themselves an ‘international person’, or as somewhat ‘different’ to most Japanese people. One participant even went so far as to describe himself as “...a pandemic or something”, saying that he was “all over the place” (FMa<sub>4</sub>).

In sum, this information shows the participants to be relatively young and internationally-orientated. They are a mixed gender group who fall primarily into the 40-60 year old age category. Almost three-quarters of the implementers in this study are Japanese nationals, with the remaining implementers being predominantly from native-English speaking countries. Almost half have obtained their highest degree outside of their native country, and all but one have spent time abroad either studying, researching or working. However, despite this international focus, not all referred to themselves as having an international outlook.

## **Case Study of the English-Taught Program at University A**

### **The Context for the Program**

Located in the center of a large metropolitan city, University A is one of the most prominent private universities in Japan. It ranks highly in Nikkei Business Publications’ Brand Rankings of Japanese Universities (*Daigaku Burando Ranking*) and has received the largest number of regular high school applicants for admission of any university in Japan for four years running (University A Guidebook, 2013). It was established as a private law school at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century and has expanded to encompass 10

undergraduate schools, 11 graduate schools, and four professional graduate schools spread over four campuses. The university places emphasis on undergraduate education, with 92% of its almost 33,000 students (as of May, 2012) enrolled in undergraduate programs (University A Guidebook, 2013).

**Internationalization activities.**

University A is currently prioritizing internationalization. Per its international strategy, the university sees it as a matter of urgency “to produce graduates who can be active in the world stage” (University A Guidebook, 2013). To help accomplish this objective, the university established a new internationally-orientated school of study (which is now home to the ETP examined in this study) in 2008. In its Global 30 Project proposal summary, the university stated that it aims to accept 4,000 international students and send 1,500 of its own students overseas by the academic year 2020. It also stated that it will raise the ratio of English native-speaker lecturers from 5.2% (in 2008) to 10% in 2032. Latest figures show that the university is moving towards these goals. In 2013, there were 1,089 international students at the university (up from 674 in 2008), and 764 domestic students were studying overseas (JASSO, 2013b; University A Guidebook, 2013). University A currently has 229 international partner institutions spanning 40 countries. It has also opened two international offices, one in Beijing, China (est. 2011) and one in Bangkok, Thailand (est. 2013). The Bangkok office serves as a base for a new collaborative project with ASEAN universities.

These international activities are in part a result of more integrated efforts to promote internationalization. After being selected for the G30 Project in 2009, University A established the Organization for International Collaboration to encourage integrated,

systematic internationalization activities. The Organization for International Collaboration is directed by the university president and oversees the Headquarters of International Collaboration, the International Student Exchange Center (first established in 1989), and the Japanese Language Education Center. The Headquarters of International Collaboration builds links with HE bodies in other countries through forming partnerships, promoting student and researcher mobility and organizing conferences. The International Student Exchange Center provides academic and organizational support to both inbound and outbound students, and the Japanese Language Education Center offers short-term language programs for exchange students and language support for international students studying in English at the university.

One outcome of this integrated effort is that in recent years University A has shed its old-fashioned, conservative, male-oriented image. One senior administrator commented that University A, “was one of the most traditional non-internationalized universities before G30, G30 had a great impact on University A” (SAa<sub>1</sub>). Another said “...before the Global 30 project, University A was not necessarily the most advanced university in terms of internationalization” (SAa<sub>2</sub>), he went on to explain how EMI played a role in this transformation:

University A used to be really a backward university like kind of very conservative, male-orientated university. But when we started to emphasize English Education...we started to attract more and more female students, which is one of the reasons we became number one school in terms of high school applicants so internationalization with, in combination with English-taught classes which is very attractive, especially for female students. (SAa<sub>2</sub>)

## **The English-Taught Program at University A**

The ETP at University A is housed in an internationally-oriented school of study that is physically located on a campus away from where the majority of students at this university attend classes. From the perspective of fostering an internationalized university, this location can be viewed in both positive and negative lights, and prompts comments to both effects from program implementers. On the one hand, they note that the campus and school are more international than other areas of the university. The signs and menus throughout the building are written in Japanese and English, and a higher concentration of international students leads to more spoken English in the corridors. On the other hand, the isolation from other schools of study results in fewer students from other schools taking the EMI classes and fewer chances of casual interaction with students from other schools. This in turn means that the chances of the ETP impacting the wider university are limited. Implementers remarked that since the school moved from a much larger campus to its current location, two years after the establishment of the ETP, the number of students enrolled in certain EMI courses has dropped. Similarly, courses taught in English in the main undergraduate campus now also have fewer participants. The school has earned the nickname “alien” because of its different approaches and student body, and it is likely that the school’s location plays a contributing factor to the attribution of the moniker.

The curriculum of University A’s ETP has a broad-Japanese studies focus and has been integrated into the Japanese-taught program (JTP) in the same school, so much so that both ETP students and regularly enrolled students take an introductory liberal arts course of the same title (albeit in a different language) and can choose courses from the

same specialty-areas, many of which are offered in both Japanese and English. In addition, students from the JTP must enroll in some EMI courses, and ETP students can earn more than half of their credits in Japanese-taught courses. Students enrolled on the Japanese program also have the option of taking quasi English-taught courses designed for students with lower-level English abilities which are not available to ETP students. In these classes, only the written materials are in English and the professor uses Japanese. Practically speaking, aside from the greater number of required EMI courses, the 35 ETP students (across all years of study) are enrolled in the same program as the regular students.

The ETP is in effect an alternative method of entry into the school of study and ETP students study together in classes with regularly enrolled domestic Japanese, Japanese returnee, international and international exchange students. One senior administrator described the make-up of her courses as an interesting mix:

...in that class...about 5 or 6 students belong to English-track. Then again 5 or 6 students are exchange students, and also there are international students who belong to the Japanese track, about 10 students are international students from the Japanese track, so Japanese students who live only in Japan are maybe, out of 60, maybe 40 or 35, or something like that. Also in my seminar, I teach again [the same subject] and for example for sophomores, I have 20 students, and one of them belongs to English-track. That's interesting, right? So kind of mix. (SAa<sub>3</sub>)

Similarly, one faculty member remarked that in a class of 43 students, he teaches 10 international students, one of whom is enrolled on the ETP, and one who is an exchange student. Another faculty member added that in the EMI classes there are also Japanese

returnee students who speak very good English,<sup>21</sup> and students who like English and have studied abroad.

However, the ETP falls short of being fully integrated into the regular program in that the ETP and the students enrolled in it are routinely referred to as ‘English Track’ by faculty members, administrators and staff, and in university publications. Despite the merits of advertising an ‘English Track’ to attract potential students to the school, the implicit acknowledgement of difference could possibly contribute to students in the school experiencing a sense of otherness, giving rise to divisions between those enrolled and those not enrolled on the ETP where essentially none exists. One of the challenges the school is experiencing is that of a lack of interaction between international and Japanese students, a more integrated way of conceptualizing the ETP may help to overcome that challenge.

Program implementers describe a top-down approach to implementation of the ETP and the now former president of the university is seen as a major force in implementing and shaping the ETP. Implementers explain that the university president was reacting to the outside forces of globalization and competition in his desire to internationalize University A. Administrators describe the president’s opinion that globalization is “a kind of pressing need for Japan” (SAa<sub>2</sub>), while faculty members more skeptically feel that University A “is always really concerned with the ‘others’ [other universities]” (FMa<sub>1</sub>). Nevertheless, the president had already decided to introduce ETPs before the opportunity for government funding came along.

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<sup>21</sup> Japanese returnee students are those of Japanese citizenship who have spent a large part of their lives living and attending school overseas.

The former president selected a small group of staff who shared his vision to write the proposal for G30 project funding. After receiving the funding, the top-down approach continued with university board members requesting that the ETP be situated within its current school of study and an executive committee making decisions about who should teach in the program. The top-down approach was indirectly referred to when program implementers discussed the rationales for program implementation. Rather than discuss reasons why the program was initiated, implementers focused more closely on the reasons they chose to remain involved with the ETP. Many spoke of the personal benefits they receive from the program. These benefits range from having the opportunity to keep up their own English, to being trained in different teaching methods through “learning by doing” (FMa<sub>3</sub>), and to learning new ways of thinking from the international students. For example, one faculty member explained:

Japanese students have somewhat almost the same direction of thinking, the way of thinking. But if their [international students] background is different, their way of thinking is different, it quite varies. So that’s quite interesting to me. That’s a kind of mutual benefit, otherwise I would have quit! (FMa<sub>2</sub>)

Another theme that emerged as to why the implementers remain involved with the ETP is one of benefit to Japanese students. One faculty member remarked that his major reason for teaching on the ETP is that he is:

...very sympathetic with the students, the Japanese students who would like to study in English, but it is very tough for them just to go to the United States. First of all, many of them should [*sic*] not be accepted by the American universities. And University A is a sort of middle-rank university...so the normal standard student of this university would not have the chance to get any lecture in English. (FMa<sub>1</sub>)

Implementers want the domestic Japanese students to have the opportunity to take courses in English, or simply have the chance to mix with people from overseas. They reflected upon their own backgrounds studying internationally when they spoke of the intercultural skills and friendships that are gained through studying alongside students from other nations. Moreover, they expressed their hopes that the Japanese students would go on to study in the United States or Europe at the graduate level. One senior administrator said that through involvement with the ETP he hoped to change attitudes, to become a ‘change agent’ to internationalize the Japanese university system (SAA<sub>1</sub>). Fewer participants spoke of the benefits to the international students when discussing their personal reasons for working on the ETP. Those who did spoke of a desire to teach international students about Japan and Japanese culture so that the students could go back to their home countries and explain Japan.

Many of the students enrolled on the ETP are from countries in Asia. However, these students show less interest in the Japan-focused ETP curriculum than do the small number of North Americans and Europeans in the program. Implementers surmise that the Asian students want to go overseas and complete a degree in English, but don’t have the necessary skills to go to the United States or Australia, for example, and are left with the choice of staying at home, or going to a non-native English speaking country like Japan. Implementers observe that the students from the United States or Western Europe tend to have more of an interest in Japanese popular culture. These students correspond more closely with the image of an ETP student as originally conceptualized by the program designers at University A. This is evidenced by the rationales for the ETP as discussed by implementers and in university publications.

Rationales for the implementation of the ETP at University A, or perhaps more accurately, establishing an ETP that focuses on Japan as the main subject of study, are to bring in international students to internationalize the university and to circulate knowledge and information about Japan in the rest of the world. One senior administrator described international students as “the key persons who start change in Japanese universities” (SAa<sub>1</sub>). Implementers commented that without the presence of international students at the university, Japanese students would not be able to develop international skills. They also view the presence of international students, and the ETP designed for them, as catalysts for attracting Japanese students who want to study in an international environment. This is corroborated by, as another senior administrator explained, the fact that when the university started to emphasize education in English, it started to attract more female students. The outcome was not unexpected as Japanese women in Japan are enthusiastic consumers of English and international study (Takahashi, 2013).

The rationale of imparting knowledge about Japan to others is cited in university publications and iterated by program implementers, particularly by those involved in designing the curriculum. The rationale echoes academic discussions of the concept of *kokusaika* that argue that internationalization from a Japanese perspective often amounts to improving the understanding of Japan abroad (Burgess et al., 2010; Watabe, 2010). It raises the question as to whether there is lost opportunity for university internationalization in terms of fostering international knowledge and competencies in domestic Japanese students.

Despite a focus which could be described as reinforcing the idea of Japan’s uniqueness in the world and thereby strengthening Japan’s national boundaries, program

implementers are generally positively oriented toward the program. They view the ETP as beneficial to themselves, to the Japanese students enrolled in the school of study, and to Japanese HE. Implementers state that the program enables faculty members to keep up their English language skills and to broaden their international competencies. For the Japanese students, the ETP affords opportunity to study in an international environment and implementers hope to foster in them international perspectives through the exchange of ideas with international students. Implementers see the presence of international students in the school of study as key for enabling change in Japanese HE and believe that in addition to the desire to teach about Japan, the university has implemented the ETP as a mechanism to give momentum to the internationalization of the university.

However, if the ETP is to give momentum for internationalization, it seems as though more strategic intervention is needed to promote interaction between the ETP and domestic students both inside and outside of the classroom. Implementers note that international students have expressed desires to mix more with the Japanese students. They also state that many of the Japanese are keen to interact with the international students. However, interaction is not happening naturally and ETP students tell faculty members that they have been refused entry into Japanese student activity clubs because of their lack of Japanese. The ETP appears to be placing a lot of faith in the idea that the presence of international students in the school of study will catalyze internationalization and is at present relying on classroom professors alone to notice a need for and encourage international interaction. The location of the program on a campus away from the campus where the majority of the first and second year courses are taught also creates a barrier to

broader internationalization as the potential for ETP students to mix with other students is limited.

Interestingly, program implementers hardly mention the benefits of the ETP to the actual ETP students. In fact, they express concern about the nature of the degree that ETP students will eventually receive and lament that there are not enough classes taught in English for ETP students to obtain a degree that focuses on a coherent specialism. This lack of coherence is perhaps the most keenly felt challenge facing the program. It arises from less-than-clear program objectives, gaps in communication and insufficient resources. As one faculty member noted, at the outset of the program, many faculty members were recruited to the program simply because they were able to teach in English, regardless of their area of specialism (FMa4). Implementers maintain that more thought and effective communication about the reasons why international students might want to come to Japan to study on the program must be given, and attention should be paid to what students are expected to do once they have graduated. The same faculty member pointed out the irony of completing a Japanese humanities degree without a requirement to study Japanese:

...for a program like this you would think that they had [sic] some Japanese language requirement before you get here, because the students who have some Japanese language ability, they spend four years here and they'll start taking courses in Japanese and they'll really get some sort of a job using their Japanese. The ones who don't, aren't qualified for anything... They need real Japanese support, and Japanese support doesn't just mean up to intermediate Japanese... (FMa4)

Actions to overcome the challenges in ETP implementation have so far primarily occurred at the individual faculty member level, with faculty members trying to facilitate and improve interaction between the international and Japanese students and adjusting

the English-language level of their classes in order to more effectively accommodate all students. Individual faculty members, unfortunately, have little power to affect the coherence of the overall program. If anything, the steps taken to simplify the level of English in some courses may have the opposite affect and reduce the number of courses available ETP students, thereby restricting student choice and opportunity to specialize in a particular area.

In sum, the ETP at University A is a program where the curriculum is integrated with the existing JTP in the same school of study, although interaction between ETP and domestic students is somewhat lacking. The university promotes the program as one which aims to improve the understanding of Japan in the wider world, although implementers show a stronger desire to nurture international perspectives in their Japanese students. However, there is concern that the program does not offer much in terms of substance to the international students enrolled on the ETP. In addition, the program exhibits a tendency to conflate the tools of internationalization with the end goals, in other words, the presence of international students on campus and the availability of courses in English sufficient to complete an entire degree are being regarded as enhancing the quality of education and the international outlook of the university without much foresight as to how these tools will achieve these aims. In terms of program outcomes, implementers state that it is too early to assess if the program has been successful, but that small changes in the international orientations of the students, staff and university can be detected.

This summary case study of the ETP at University A has synthesized the full analysis of the results which can be found in Appendix H. Table 7 below outlines these

detailed results by summarizing the descriptive characteristics of the ETP and highlighting significant themes that emerge in implementer explanations for the characteristics, and in implementer description and explanations for the rationales, challenges and practical responses to challenges experienced by the ETP.

Table 7

*Summary of Case Study of the English-Taught Program at University A*

Description of ETP Characteristics	<p>Located on a campus away from main undergraduate campus</p> <p>Integrated into JTP</p> <p>60 credit English-content requirement for ETP students</p> <p>JTP students must take minimum 12 credits English-content</p> <p>No foreign language requirement</p> <p>Minimum TOEFL iBT score of 71 for entry</p> <p>Classrooms are mixed</p> <p>Majority of students from Asia – Japanese citizens not permitted to enroll</p> <p>Full-time faculty members teach on both ETP and JTPs</p> <p>One staff member</p>
Explaining ETP Characteristics	<p>Top-down directed implementation</p> <p>Implementers value the ETP for domestic students and derive personal benefit from the program</p> <p>Students seeking surest path to a valued degree</p> <p>ETP students supportive in mixed classrooms</p>
Description of Rationales	<p>ETP to create an international environment</p> <p>To impart knowledge about Japan to others</p> <p>To sharpen the profile of the university in comparison to others in the country through making domestic students ‘fit’ for the global labor market</p>
Explaining ETP Rationales	<p>Leadership reacting to external forces</p>
Description of Challenges	<p>Curricular coherence</p> <p>Branding of the ETP</p> <p>Teaching in heterogeneous classrooms</p> <p>ETP and non-ETP student interaction</p> <p>Insufficient scholarships</p> <p>Provision of accommodation</p> <p>Insufficient English language material &amp; career support</p>
Explaining the Implementation Challenges	<p>Lack of clear objectives</p> <p>Gaps in communication</p> <p>Insufficient resources</p> <p>Program evolution</p>
Practical Responses taken to Challenges Experienced	<p>Actions taken by individuals:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Changes to teaching methods</li> <li>• Language exchange</li> <li>• Adjustments to language level of classes</li> <li>• Faculty development</li> </ul> <p>Actions taken by program/university:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adjustments to application requirements</li> <li>• Opening up of courses</li> <li>• Language requirement for new faculty</li> </ul> <p>Desired action: Structured activities for student interaction</p>
Explaining the Practical Responses	<p>Tension between program quality and accessibility</p> <p>Differing conceptualizations of faculty development</p>
Implementer Perspectives vs. Official Documentation	<p>Implementer and document focus on long-term goals</p> <p>Disagreement over the preparedness of graduates for careers in Japan</p> <p>ETP is not meeting the goals of its <i>Total Solution System</i></p> <p>Disagreement over achievements of faculty and staff development</p>

## **Case Study of the English-Taught Program at University B**

### **The Context for the Program**

University B is one of Japan's top-ranked private universities (QS Top Universities, 2013). It was founded in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century as a school for Dutch studies and began to offer university education at the end of the century. It now has 10 faculties and 14 graduate schools in six campuses spanning two large metropolitan cities. The university takes pride in developing business and political leaders and boasts one of the most influential alumni networks of any university, ranking in the top ten in the Times Higher Education's Alma Mater Index 2013. It has a large undergraduate student population, with 86% of its almost 34,000 students (as of May 2013) studying at this level (University Website, 2014). In 2012, the university conferred 85 undergraduate bachelor's degrees to international students (University Website, 2014).

### **Internationalization activities.**

University B publicizes that it has valued an international perspective in education since its foundation more than 150 years ago and that it has had an international center to help coordinate programs since the 1960s. In today's era of increased university competition, the university has identified a need to separate the strategic management and daily operation of international initiatives and in 2005 it established the Organization for Global Initiatives to oversee the strategic advancement of the university's international academic exchange and collaboration activities. In the same year, the university was awarded competitive government funding for the establishment of an international headquarters. The Organization for Global Initiatives' specific duties include drawing up university-wide memorandums of understandings with overseas institutions, coordinating

activities related to international networks of which the university is a member, and managing the administrative work related to the Global 30 Project.

In its Global 30 Project proposal summary, University B stated that it planned to accept a total of 2050 international students (of which 550 were to be undergraduate students) by the end of 2013 and increase the number to 4000 (10.4% of the total student body) by 2020. These goals were to be reached from a base of 933 international students in 2008 (JASSO, 2013b). The university also aimed to increase the number of international faculty members to 650 (9.6% of the total faculty population) by 2013, and to 800 (11.7% of the total faculty body) by the end of 2020. By May 2012, the university had almost met its 2013 undergraduate student goal, with the annual university fact book reporting 541 undergraduate students<sup>22</sup>. However, the university appeared unlikely to meet its goals for the total number of international students. In May 2012, there were only 1,203 international students. International faculty member numbers also appeared unlikely to reach the 2013 goal. There were only 546 international faculty members in May 2012. University B currently has 262 international partner institutions, and offices in the UK, USA, China, Korea and Singapore.

### **The English-Taught Program at University B**

The ETP at University B is situated on a campus that was built over 20 years ago to be a center for international, future-orientated and experimental programs. As this campus has a well-established international outlook, it is regarded as the natural place to house the undergraduate ETP. There was some infrastructure for international students on the campus prior to the creation of the ETP and also a ready population of students that

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<sup>22</sup> 50 of these students were non-degree seeking, and perhaps should not have been included in this number.

might be interested in taking content courses in English. Despite these merits, the campus is located far from the university's main campus, limiting the ETP's ability to impact students from other faculties.

The ETP is interdisciplinary and covers a broad information studies and policy area. It is integrated into the existing JTP within its home faculty, and the same set of courses is available to both ETP and JTP students. The 39 ETP students have a minimum EMI course requirement, regularly enrolled students do not. However, with the introduction of the ETP, some courses which were previously taught in Japanese are now only taught in English and so students in the Japanese program must study in English if they want to access certain topics. One distinct feature of the ETP at University B is that students enroll in a professor's research group early on in their academic career and work together with the professor and non-ETP students for multiple semesters. This is encouraging creative use of both English and Japanese.

The ETP students are encouraged to identify as ETP students, and are socialized as a group via a welcome barbeque and overnight orientation camp. In addition, the EMI courses carry a designator that identifies them as part of the ETP. However, despite these indicators of difference, implementers state that once the students are in the classroom they cannot ascertain which students are enrolled on the ETP and which are not. This could possibly be due to the fact that, at present, the majority of ETP students are Japanese nationals. Implementers report no interaction difficulties between the ETP and JTP students.

The now former university president played the central role in deciding that the university would apply for the funding to create the ETP. However, University B's fairly

decentralized organizational system meant that the program needed strong support from others in the university in order to be successfully implemented. The importance of achieving buy-in from faculty deans and faculty members and their enthusiasm for the program emerged as a strong theme among program implementers at University B when they discussed ETP implementation and the characteristics of the program. One international education support staff member highlighted how decisions about new programs at University B are often left to the individual faculties:

University B is very cautious about starting that kind of new initiative. I think some other universities are more top-down approach [*sic*], but I think here, because each school wanted to be quite independent, and also because they are located in different places, scattered around, we don't meet each other so much so I think usually the top management are very careful about starting something new if it's creating a lot of burden to individual faculties. (IESb<sub>3</sub>)

Enthusiasm from the deans of faculties was an important determiner of the location and subject of the program, and this enthusiasm helped to mobilize faculty members to teach in the program. The deans and professors in charge of individual course sections were, however, not successful in mobilizing all faculty members and not all professors asked to teach in English were willing to do so. Those that do teach in the program cite the benefits it brings to Japanese students as a reason for becoming and remaining involved with the program. They hope that the ETP will create an international environment that will expose Japanese students to the heterogeneity of society and encourage them to communicate and think in English. One professor said that he would like all incoming Japanese students

...to come in with the working assumption that sooner or later during their four years as an undergrad they're going to wind up taking at least one class in English just because that's when the class they want is offered, or the topic is only available in English. (FMb<sub>2</sub>)

The main rationale for implementing the ETP at University B is to provide a quality education to prepare students for future employment in the global marketplace. University publications describe the ETP as a device to make the university more accessible to international students, this might be expected given the English-language literature's primary function of marketing to international students. However, implementers emphasize a university and implementer rationale much more focused on the domestic students. One senior international education staff member stressed the university's emphasis on internationalizing the domestic students. She lamented that the Japanese students are at present not really willing to internationalize just yet, but that the ETP is intended to a kind of "*kibakuzai*" – a detonator – that "would sort of change the rest of the group" (IESb<sub>2</sub>). The desire to prepare Japanese students for the future can be seen in the establishment of the certificate awarded to JTP program students if they achieve 80 credits of EMI courses, and in the faculty members' disappointment when Japanese students drop out of EMI courses. However, despite aspirations of providing a quality international education to domestic students, program implementers and those faculty members who have decided not to teach in English recognize that many of their domestic students are not yet ready to take on the challenge of EMI courses.

Improvement is needed in this area.

Prominent challenges which characterize discussion of the ETP at University B comprise recruitment of both students and faculty members to the ETP, and the provision of a sufficiently broad base of EMI courses for program expansion. The faculty is new to active student recruitment, having always been oversubscribed in the past because of the strong reputation of the university. Implementers pin some of the difficulties down to a

lack of scholarships and student accommodation but emphasize the difficulties of branding and marketing of Japan as a place to gain a high quality education and of the subject matter of the ETP. One faculty member explained that convincing people that there are high quality educational programs across a broad area of academic interests in Japan is very difficult. He stated that “[Japan] is just not on the radar of a typical person outside of Japan, even people who are considering sending their children abroad for an education experience” (FMB<sub>2</sub>). The program’s information technology focus is appealing as students can study with Japan’s leading internet scholars, however, implementers worry that this does not appeal broadly and question if more specifically-Japan-focused courses are needed. University B also has difficulties in expanding their programming on the social science side as faculty members in language-intensive courses are more reluctant to teach in English, citing the inefficiencies of teaching courses where the majority of participants are using their second language. In addition, there are still questions surrounding the utility of studying in English in Japan.

The organizational structure and culture of the university’s administrative units have also created challenges for the ETP, specifically for the services provided to international students. In recent years, as part of its strategy to be a more internationalized university in all areas, University B decided that every unit in the university should be able to carry out international work. This has created an additional burden on already overworked staff and results in international students receiving less support than staff would like.

In sum, the ETP at University B is well-integrated into the existing JTP taught in the same faculty. The overall aim of the program is to enable students to apply

information technology to wider society and program implementers have a sense of where they would like to be with the ETP, but at present feel stymied in their attempts to get there. They place value on the program for both domestic and international students, and they would like to see it grow to include more social science courses to provide depth of content and to attract international students who may prefer to study more Japan-related topics. However, there are currently difficulties in finding the staff to teach these courses and sufficient numbers of students to enroll in them. Attempts to overcome program expansion and recruitment challenges have thus far been rather limited. They tend towards discrete activities that only minimally affect existing practices with the prevailing approach to expanding the number of English-taught courses being one of waiting until for new faculty to be hired. In terms of program outcomes and effects across the university, implementers believe that, despite difficulties in balancing the supply of and demand for EMI courses, the program has started well and has provided faculty members and staff with important experience in international programming which will enable them to continue to develop internationalization projects.

This summary case study of the ETP at University B has synthesized the full analysis of the results which can be found in Appendix I. Table 8 below outlines these detailed results by summarizing the descriptive characteristics of the ETP and highlighting significant themes that emerge in implementer explanations for the characteristics, and in implementer description and explanations for the rationales, challenges and practical responses to challenges experienced by the ETP.

Table 8

*Summary of Case Study of the English-Taught Program at University B*

Description of ETP Characteristics	<p>Located on a campus away from main undergraduate campus</p> <p>Integrated into JTP</p> <p>80 credit English-content requirement for ETP students</p> <p>No English-content course requirement for JTP students</p> <p>8 credit foreign language requirement</p> <p>No minimum TOEFL score for entry</p> <p>Classrooms are mixed – majority Japanese nationals</p> <p>Majority of students are Japanese from outside of the Japanese system</p> <p>Full-time faculty members teach on both ETP and JTPs</p> <p>Two staff members</p>
Explaining ETP Characteristics	<p>Top-down solicited implementation</p> <p>Implementers value the ETP for domestic students</p> <p>Students seeking high quality education in specific field</p> <p>ETP students active in the classroom</p>
Description of Rationales	<p>ETP to create an international environment</p> <p>University's position necessitates application for government funding initiatives</p> <p>To make domestic students 'fit' for the global labor market</p>
Explaining ETP Rationales	<p>Leadership reacting to external forces</p>
Description of Challenges	<p>Course provision/program expansion</p> <p>Student recruitment</p> <p>Insufficient scholarships</p> <p>Provision of accommodation</p> <p>Finding faculty members to teach in the ETP and provision of faculty development</p> <p>Insufficient English language material &amp; technical support</p>
Explaining the Implementation Challenges	<p>Branding and marketing</p> <p>Supply and demand</p> <p>Organizational structure and culture of university administrative offices</p>
Practical Responses taken to Challenges Experienced	<p>Actions taken by program/university:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adjustments to application requirements</li> <li>• Addition of language requirement</li> <li>• Summer camp for high school students</li> <li>• Welcome activities</li> <li>• Document translation project</li> <li>• International student website</li> <li>• Plans for new dormitory</li> <li>• Staff development</li> <li>• Language requirement for new faculty</li> </ul> <p>Desired action: Improved marketing strategy/recruitment management system</p>
Explaining the Practical Responses	<p>System-wide integration struggles</p>
Implementer Perspectives vs. Official Documentation	<p>Implementer focus on long-term goals. Document focus on program outcomes</p> <p>Disagreement over the adequacy of administrative support for international students</p> <p>Disagreement over the locations from which ETP students are recruited</p>

## **Case Study of the English-Taught Program at University C**

### **The Context for the Program**

After beginnings as a medical school in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, University C was established in the 20<sup>th</sup> century as one of the seven imperial universities in Japan. In 2004, in accordance with the National University Corporation Law, it was incorporated and gained more autonomy from the government in its operations. Incorporation placed the president at the center of the decision-making processes at the university. Today, it ranks as one of the top 20 universities in Asia (QS Top Universities, 2013). It is a research-orientated comprehensive university which encompasses 11 undergraduate schools, 16 graduate schools, and 29 institutes for research across four campuses in a large metropolitan city. The university has a large graduate student population with undergraduate and graduate students comprising 66% and 34% of its almost 24,000 students in May 2013 (University Website, 2014).

### **Internationalization activities.**

University C has voiced its commitment to internationalization and the fostering of “outstanding internationally-minded graduates” in its plan of University Academic Initiatives for 2012-2015. The plan states that the university’s liberal arts center will play a central role in carrying out the internationalization of education at the university, and calls for the development of an international strategy. More concretely, the International Student Center was reorganized and expanded in 2010 to create the Center for International Education and Exchange which conducts research on and plans the university’s international education and exchange activities. This center also directs the

Support Office for International Students and Scholars which provides assistance with visa applications and housing.

In 2010, after receiving the Global 30 Project funding, International College was established in order to oversee the Global 30 Project ETPs at University C. The college handles some of the student recruitment and applications to the ETPs. University C aims to increase the number of international students studying at the institution to 3,000 by 2020, up from 1,509 in 2008 (JASSO, 2013b). As of May 2013, the university enrolled 1,985 international students, of which 323 were undergraduates, 1,123 graduates, and 539 research students (University Website, 2014). As of May 2013, University C had 99 inter-university agreements and 402 inter-faculty agreements (University Website, 2014). It has overseas centers in the USA, the Netherlands, Thailand and China.

### **The English-Taught Program at University C**

The ETP at University C is situated in a well-established school of study and classes are taken at the university's two largest campuses. The interdisciplinary social science program runs alongside the JTP in the same school of study. These two programs can be described as running in parallel as all students enrolled in the school are awarded the same degree, but the ETP and JTPs have different majors and are structured differently, with the ETP having more required courses. In addition, the programs have different standards for homework and assessment.

The ETP's structure affects the identities and cohesion of the 26 students enrolled in the program. The program requirements encourage ETP students to take many classes together particularly during their first two years of study when many courses are mandatory. This, along with student orientation, on-going student cohort advising and

home room sessions, results in ETP students readily identifying as members of the program. They are also readily identifiable as ETP students in the classroom, in part because of their high expectations of content delivery. This identity as an ETP student endures despite the fact that most of the students enrolled on the ETP are Japanese nationals. However, program implementers report that by the third year of study, the ETP students become more independent of one another, having made other Japanese or international friends. Another factor which contributes to the increasing independence of the ETP students is the fact that many participate in exchange programs to other countries during their third year of study.

Program implementers refer to what could be termed as a top-down solicited approach to the implementation of the ETP, whereby external and internal bureaucratic considerations alongside consultation with the faculty involved resulted in the ultimate location and subject of the program. The associate director of the ETP had much responsibility for creating the program and employing faculty members to teach on the program. With the exception of the associate director, the full-time faculty members working on the ETP were all employed especially to teach on the program. These faculty members and other implementers working with the program emphasize the significance of the ETP to Japanese HE when they explain their reasons for participating in the ETP. They believe that the ETP, with its emphasis on creating a coherent program with detailed curriculum documents and explicit graduate attributes, has potential to influence other programs first in the school of study and then across the university more broadly. This belief is especially relevant as new government instructions highlight the importance of accountability measures. Implementers also express their desires to enable both

domestic and international students to learn new ways of thinking and learning through interaction with those of different backgrounds.

The main rationales for implementing this ETP at University C are, at the university level, to improve the global prominence of the university and, at the implementer level, to contribute to the development of HE in Japan. Implementers explain how increasing the number of international students on campus in order to enhance the quantity and level of English spoken at the university facilitates international access to university produced research and therefore boosts the prestige of the university in university ranking systems. They also comment on the university's desire to nurture Japanese students for the global marketplace. For those involved in designing and teaching in the ETP, the program has more far-reaching goals to influence the entire university and Japanese HE system:

...the more we do this, if our courses become more popular,...we start getting word about, we get very good student evaluations, people think our program is very good, we start graduating our students, we build up networks etc. this might have implications more broadly within the institution. (FMc<sub>2</sub>)

...not only for me, but for many people who are doing the job for internationalization of higher education, have the objective in mind to change or reform the Japanese way of teaching in the university. Internationalization is one of the best steps, first step, to do that...just by having the beginning of a new good system and G30 then we can expect that the existing system of Japanese higher education could be reformed or influenced in a better way I think. (Sac<sub>3</sub>)

The ETP seeks to incite change throughout the university and beyond by raising the levels of educational accountability and quality assurance to compete with education systems internationally.

Despite enthusiasm for these goals, there is some skepticism that that the program can achieve them as long as the university restricts the number of entrants into the program. One faculty member expressed their doubts thus:

...I think is it all window dressing? Does anyone really care? Our program is very small. Sometimes I think this is just a joke – we're allowed to accept 10 students a year, what, that to me when I'm being cynical, sounds like "let's set up our program, let's get the MEXT funding, but we need to keep it under a tight rein, we need to control this, because if it's good or bad, we don't care, we don't want this impacting on how we do things here." (FMc<sub>2</sub>)

There is also frustration that the present university governance structure hinders many attempts to reform and improve teaching and research practices at the university. One senior administrator explained:

Japanese higher education badly needs innovative teaching now, but for that to happen, the biggest problem in my view is the lack of internal governance of the university. That means if the top of the university makes decision in that direction, and the rest of the organization of the university does not follow, there's no way for us to implement every reform, every step for innovative teaching, every change, it's impossible. (SAC<sub>3</sub>)

The ETP's structure as a parallel, rather than integrated, program with different outcomes standards to the JTP within the same school of study has created perhaps the biggest challenges for the program. Despite taking time during the program development phase to establish strong academic foundations for the program, the ETP, faculty members teaching in the program, and enrolled students are all struggling with finding their place, or situatedness, and identity within local frameworks and the university. The program values internal consistency and course coherence, but finds these difficult to achieve to the desired standard within the framework of the standard Japanese undergraduate degree with its reliance on two-credit courses. Furthermore, buy-in for a program that breaks with existing practices and increases workloads meets with some resistance. Implementers note that faculty members who do not have a background in education or do not have experience working on a program that emphasizes quality

assurance question what they are being asked to do. In addition, faculty members teaching on the ETP who have different backgrounds and training from many other faculty members in the school of study are conscious of dual-academic cultures emerging and are mindful of imposing western educational practices. Finally, the ETP students are finding it difficult to identify as students of University C, and request more interaction with regularly enrolled Japanese students.

In seeking to overcome the challenges related to the situatedness and identity of the ETP, program implementers emphasize the importance of being open about the program and collaborating with non-full-time ETP faculty members. They discuss the re-framing of the ETP to focus on its academics and structure rather than on the fact that it is taught in English and talk about providing individual and small-group support to Japanese faculty members to create acceptance for the ETP.

In sum, the ETP at University C is not simply an English-medium extension or replication of an existing program, but a program that seeks to impact the wider university and ultimately affect the Japanese HE system through raising levels of educational accountability and quality assurance to internationally compatible standards. A theme of difference runs through the case study of this program. For example, the ETP has a different structure and different learning outcomes to the JTP, the syllabi must be written to different standards, the core faculty teaching on the program were hired specifically for that purpose, and the academic advising and support systems are different for ETP-enrolled students than for other students in the school of study. These differences have created challenges for this ETP in the areas of situatedness and identity. Program implementers however highlight the strengths of the program as worth the obstacles they

must overcome and point out the importance of adhering to internationally-recognized practices and standards in HE in order to further the internationalization of the university and compete successfully on the world stage.

This summary case study of the ETP at University C has synthesized the full analysis of the results which can be found in Appendix J. Table 9 outlines these detailed results by summarizing the descriptive characteristics of the ETP and highlighting significant themes that emerge in implementer explanations for the characteristics, and in implementer description and explanations for the rationales, challenges and practical responses to challenges experienced by the ETP.

Table 9

*Summary of Case Study of the English-Taught Program at University C*

Description of ETP Characteristics	Classes held on the university's two largest campuses Parallel to JTP ETP students may take up to 10 credits in Japanese No English-content course requirement for JTP students 6 credit Japanese language requirement for ETP students Minimum TOEFL iBT score of 85 for entry Some classrooms are mixed Majority of students are Japanese from outside of the Japanese system New full-time faculty members specially appointed to teach on the ETP One staff member
Explaining ETP Characteristics	Negotiated response to external pressures Implementers value the ETP for domestic and international students and its contribution to Japanese HE Students seeking international-standard degree ETP students are critical in the classroom
Description of Rationales	University's position necessitates application for government funding initiatives To sharpen the profile of the university in comparison to others in the world
Explaining ETP Rationales	Leadership reacting to external forces Prestige – well-ranked national university
Description of Challenges	Situatedness and identity Teaching in heterogeneous classrooms ETP and non-ETP student interaction Provision of accommodation Heavy faculty member workloads Insufficient career and counselling support
Explaining the Implementation Challenges	Structure of the ETP University governance structure
Practical Responses taken to Challenges Experienced	Pre-emptive actions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Time taken to build strong program foundations</li> <li>• Strong academic &amp; pastoral support</li> <li>• Classroom support mechanisms</li> </ul> Actions taken by individuals: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Informal advice to Japanese professors</li> </ul> Actions taken by program/university: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adjustments to application requirements</li> <li>• Opening up of courses</li> <li>• Adjustments to residential orientation</li> <li>• Faculty &amp; staff development</li> <li>• Language requirement for new faculty</li> <li>• University collaboration for recruitment</li> </ul> Desired Actions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Even workload distribution</li> </ul>
Explaining the Practical Responses	Shift away from the centrality of the English language Core program people
Implementer Perspectives vs. Official Documentation	Implementer focus on long-term goals. Document focus on program outcomes Disagreement over student accommodation needs

## **Cross-Case Analysis**

This section synthesizes the results of the individual university case studies and presents themes that have emerged as salient across all three of the ETPs. The three case studies presented the characteristics of, rationales for, implementation challenges facing and practical responses to the undergraduate ETPs as described by program implementers working within the unique context of each of the universities (see appendices H, I and J for detailed presentations of the individual case studies). Each case study went on to illustrate how the implementers explained and made sense of the ETPs at their institutions, in other words, why implementers believed the characteristics, rationales, challenges and responses transpired at their institutions. The case studies also compared the program implementers' understandings of the ETPs with the formal descriptions of the programs in publically available documents. Now, this cross-case analysis brings together the cases and analyzes them through the lens of the conceptual framework before presenting significant elements of ETP implementation that cut across the cases. As with the individual case studies, the cross-case analysis is organized according to the characteristics of, rationales for, implementation challenges facing and practical responses to the ETPs. It also compares program implementer perspectives with official documentation about the ETPs.

### **Characteristics of the English-Taught Programs**

Table 10 below summarizes the characteristics of the ETPs across the three case study universities. It shows that although no two undergraduate ETPs in this study share the same set of characteristics, there are two discernable approaches to program design: both University A and University B have integrated the new ETP into an existing JTP,

whereas University C has created a new program that runs in parallel to the existing JTP in the same faculty. All three programs award the same degree to the students enrolled in the ETP or JTP within the faculties which administer the ETP. However, at University C the ETP and JTP have different majors and different core requirements, homework, and assessment standards. At universities A and B, the only difference between the ETPs and JTPs is the minimum number of credits via English-content courses that the ETP and non-ETP students are required to take. In fact, both of these ETPs have core course requirements that are the same for students enrolled in the English-taught and Japanese-taught versions of the degree offered (albeit in different languages). It is noticeable that, in contrast to University C, the programs at University A and B also allow the ETP students to earn a considerable number of their 124 undergraduate credits via Japanese content courses should the students have the requisite Japanese language skills. Implementers at both of these institutions have expressed their concerns over the small number of English content courses available to ETP students to gain a depth of knowledge in specialized areas. The provision of Japanese content courses to ETP students helps to alleviate this challenge.

Table 10

*Cross-Case Presentation of the English-Taught Programs' Characteristics*

University A	University B Description of the Characteristics	University C
Integrated into JTP	Integrated into JTP	Parallel to JTP
Located on a campus away from main undergraduate campus	Located on a campus away from main undergraduate campus	Classes held on the university's two largest campuses
Majority of students from Asia – Japanese citizens not permitted to enroll	Majority of students are Japanese from outside of the Japanese system	Majority of students are Japanese from outside of the Japanese system
Minimum TOEFL iBT score of 71 for entry	No minimum TOEFL score for entry	Minimum TOEFL iBT score of 85 for entry
60 credit English-content requirement	80 credit English-content requirement	May take up to 10 credits in Japanese
No foreign language requirement	8 credit foreign language requirement	6 credit Japanese language requirement
JTP students must take minimum 12 credits English-content	No English-content course requirement for JTP students	No English-content course requirement for JTP students
Classrooms are mixed	Classrooms are mixed – majority Japanese nationals	Some classrooms are mixed
Full-time faculty members teach on both ETP and JTPs	Full-time faculty members teach on both ETP and JTPs	New full-time faculty members specially appointed to teach on the ETP
One staff member	Two staff members	One staff member
Explaining the Program Characteristics		
Top-down directed implementation	Top-down solicited implementation	Negotiated response to external pressures
Implementers value the ETP for domestic students and derive personal benefit from the program	Implementers value the ETP for domestic students	Implementers value the ETP for domestic and international students and its contribution to Japanese HE
Students seeking surest path to a valued degree	Students seeking high quality education in specific field	Students seeking international-standard degree
ETP students supportive in mixed classrooms	ETP students active in the classroom	ETP students are critical in the classroom

Universities A and B differ, however, in the way that they have created their English content classes and in the ways non-ETP and ETP students study together. University A is providing a number of its classes in both English and Japanese, and requires its non-ETP students to take a minimum number of credits in English. Therefore non-ETP students are very likely to study with ETP students at some point in their university careers. University B, on the other hand, has switched some of its existing courses into English only and does not have a requirement that JTP students study in English. So, while these students are encouraged to study in English, they are primarily motivated to study with ETP students only if they want to access certain topics. This is reflected in the classroom student make-up reported by implementers in this study. University A sees a greater mix of ETP, Japanese, Japanese returnee and international exchange students and University B experiences a majority mix of ETP and Japanese returnee students.

As noted above, University C created a new program that runs in parallel to the existing JTP. As a result, the classrooms look different to the classrooms in the ETPs at universities A and B. As with University B, there is not a requirement that JTP students enroll in English content classes. However, in contrast to the other institutions, JTP students at University C are only permitted to enroll in general education and basic subjects, and therefore there are many classrooms in which only ETP students are present. These different models create different challenges concerning issues of student interaction and classroom level-setting for the programs.

A contrast can also be seen in the way that universities A and B and University C have recruited faculty members to teach on the ETP. Both universities A and B rely

largely on faculty members employed in the relevant departments before the introduction of the ETP. Many of the faculty members were asked to simply convert one or more of their existing courses into the English language. University C, on the other hand, employed a new cohort of teaching staff specifically to handle the core teaching and advising elements of the ETP. It is notable that of these four (originally six) specially appointed professors only one is a Japanese national, and only one obtained their doctorate from a Japanese institution. In contrast, the majority of the faculty members teaching on the ETPs in universities A and B are Japanese. However, all participants in this study have spent considerable time outside of Japan and most consider themselves to have an international outlook.

In explaining why the ETPs have taken on the characteristics they have, program implementers referenced varied approaches to initial ETP implementation. The individual university faculties were either directed to implement the ETP, asked to do so via personal networks, or volunteered to through an open call. Each faculty that ultimately took on the ETP did so because it was deemed to be the best fit for the program, with regard to a combination of the discipline and international outlook of the faculty and disposition and capabilities of existing faculty members. However, the results of this study show that these initial approaches to implementation are not significant determiners of the ultimate characteristics of the programs. The structure of the ETPs more closely reflects the understandings of the curriculum designers: their previous experiences with undergraduate programs internationally and their personal ideas of what an ETP should achieve. These understandings have attributed greatly to the differences in program design observed between universities A and B and University C.

At all three case study institutions, the bulk of the decisions surrounding the design of the curriculum were the responsibility of one implementer. All three of these implementers have international study experience and completed their PhD's outside of Japan. However, the curriculum designers at universities A and B are both of Japanese nationality and don't consider themselves to be very international. Aside from research assistantships, they have not worked in universities overseas. One of these implementers stated that they have not had much opportunity to work with international students before and that this ETP has provided the first opportunity to teach a course in English. The curriculum designer at University C has a very different background and experiences. This implementer is a native-English speaker, and has experience in designing programs in universities overseas. The implementer drew heavily on that experience in designing the current ETP, setting educational standards similar to those that would be expected overseas. This implementer also recruited to the program teaching staff who have taught in universities outside of Japan, including one who has experience in curriculum development. In fact, all of the specially appointed faculty members had little experience of teaching in the Japanese education system.

In terms of personal rationales and goals for ETP, the curriculum designer at University A is focused on enabling international students to learn about Japan, and on the benefits that international students can bring to the university with regard to challenging existing practices in order to strengthen the international outlook of the university. At University B, the curriculum designer desires to encourage domestic Japanese students to become more international by taking courses in English. At University C, the curriculum designer sees Japan's future survival tied to its ability to

engage globally through research published in English and feels that the ETP can contribute to meeting this goal. This implementer is also focused on providing a quality, coherent degree to international students who wish to study in Japan. The consequences of these viewpoints can be seen in the structure of the ETPs at each of the universities, particularly in the subject matter of the ETP courses at University A, the way that that courses previously taught in Japanese are now taught in English at University B, and in the international educational standards exemplified by University C.

The students enrolled on the ETPs at each of the three universities exhibit different traits and desires that reflect and reinforce the different structures and characteristics of the programs. At University A, the Japan-focused curriculum attracts some students. However many students tend to place little value in the subject of the program, and are more likely enrolled in the program because they value a degree taught in English, or from a Japanese institution. This is perhaps a consequence of the difficulties the program is experiencing in terms of providing sufficient content in English. In contrast, students at University B are more likely attracted to the program because of the subject matter and opportunity to study with prize-winning professors in the program. Whereas students at University C are those who are seeking an international-standard degree in Japan. The student behaviors in the classrooms, however, are forcing reassessment and change within in the ETPs. Students active in discussions, supportive of their weaker peers, and those critical of teacher centered-classrooms in all three of the universities are forcing the adoption of more participatory teaching methods and conversations about ETP and domestic Japanese student interaction.

## Rationales for the English-Taught Programs

Table 11 shows the rationales for the ETPs across the three case study universities. At all three universities there is a recognition that the Japanese HE system operates within an international context and can no longer remain domestically focused. Implementers at all of the universities explain that in choosing to introduce ETPs the university leadership was reacting to external forces and the need to become competitive in the globalized world. The implementers at universities A and B stress that the leadership at their institutions was very aware of a necessity to internationalize and was embarking on the implementation of ETPs before the Global 30 Project funding became available. Implementers at University C described the external pressure as more closely linked to government policy and their status as a national university.

Table 11

### *Cross-Case Presentation of the Rationales for the English-Taught Programs*

University A	University B Description of the Rationales	University C
ETP to create an international environment	ETP to create an international environment	
	University's position necessitates application for government funding initiatives	University's position necessitates application for government funding initiatives
To impart knowledge about Japan to others		
To sharpen the profile of the university in comparison to others in the country through making domestic students 'fit' for the global labor market	To make domestic students 'fit' for the global labor market	To sharpen the profile of the university in comparison to others in the world
Explaining the Program Rationales		
Leadership reacting to external forces	Leadership reacting to external forces	Leadership reacting to external forces
		Prestige – well-ranked national university

Viewed through the lens of the conceptual framework, it is apparent that the rationales for introducing the ETPs at these institutions are clearly multifaceted and resist neat categorization into any of the four rationales for HEI internationalization proposed by Knight and de Wit (1995). Both universities A and B desire to create an international environment within their faculties. This desire is grounded in the belief that the presence of international students will encourage and enable domestic Japanese students to develop the skills required to work in the globalized world. The acquisition of these language and intercultural skills is simultaneously academically, socio-culturally, economically and politically motivated. When implementers describe the universities' rationales for introducing ETPs, they describe a desire initiated by university presidents to provide an education of the quality that students need in order to be successful, but they also state that the universities are implementing ETPs out of necessity to become more international in order to compete with others. University A is also motivated to teach others about Japan. These latter rationales have both economic and political undertones.

University C appears to be more economically and politically motivated to introduce ETPs, with greater emphasis placed on international competitiveness and the position of the university in world ranking systems. The university's profile as a national university placed well in national and regional rankings underscores these rationales. As a national university, the institution must follow the government policy of simultaneously attracting international students and preparing domestic students for the international workplace in addition to raising the profile of Japanese universities worldwide. At the implementer-level, the rationales are more academically motivated. Implementers stress

the importance of raising the level of education to international standards, first and foremost for the international students enrolled in the ETP, but with the long-term goal of impacting the wider university and the Japanese education system more broadly. They also describe the need to create the means to circulate the substantial scholarship that the university produces.

### **Challenges in Implementing English-Taught Programs**

Table 12 below summarizes the challenges in implementing the ETPs in the three case study universities. When the typology of challenges as described in the conceptual framework and literature review of this study is applied to the individual case studies, it is apparent that each of the universities face linguistic, cultural and structural challenges, yet structural challenges are the ones most readily felt.

All three types of challenge emerge inside the ETP classroom simultaneously at universities A and C. Linguistic challenges result in professors experiencing difficulties in aligning the level of classes to embrace mixed-ability students. They also prompt students to drop EMI courses when the language-level of the course is too high, and they create complications when professors themselves feel that they are unable to carry a lesson in the English language for a full 90 minutes. Program implementers also report cultural challenge inside the classroom, stating that it is difficult to teach content, especially content pertaining to Japan, to students with different contextual backgrounds. Furthermore, differences in academic cultural experience lead to some students having mismatched expectations regarding the style and type of work required in EMI courses. Structural challenges are reflected at the classroom level in the form of two-credit courses

which do not give professors sufficient time to allow topics to be explored in depth; and in situations where faculty members do not know the enrollment status of their students.

Table 12

*Cross-Case Presentation of the Challenges in Implementing the English-Taught Programs*

University A	University B Description of the Challenges	University C
Curricular coherence	Course provision/program expansion	
Branding of the ETP	Student recruitment	Situatedness and identity
Teaching in heterogeneous classrooms		Teaching in heterogeneous classrooms
ETP and non-ETP student interaction		ETP and non-ETP student interaction
Insufficient scholarships	Insufficient scholarships	
Provision of accommodation	Provision of accommodation	Provision of accommodation
	Finding faculty members to teach in the ETP and provision of faculty development	Heavy faculty member workloads
Insufficient English language material & career support	Insufficient English language material & technical support	Insufficient career and counselling support
Explaining the Challenges facing Program Implementation		
Lack of clear objectives	Branding and marketing	Structure of the ETP
Gaps in communication	Supply and demand	University governance structure
Insufficient resources	Organizational structure and culture of university administrative offices	
Program evolution		

Implementers at University B did not cite in-classroom difficulties as a challenge for the implementation of the ETP at their institution. Students enrolled in the ETP at this institution are predominantly Japanese nationals, and thus classroom challenges relating

cultural background and knowledge are small. In addition, without a requirement for non-ETP students to take English content classes, there is little chance of students with widely-differing English abilities taking the course together. Indeed, faculty members at this institution remarked that Japanese students who cannot keep up with the level of English in the classroom are quick to drop out. This illustrates that the types of challenge faced by each HEI are influenced strongly by the structure of each program. It can be seen again in the way that University C does not report challenges related to course coherence. This ETP is planned with core courses that build upon each other, and faculty members are hired to teach these specific core subjects. Therefore, this program does not experience the difficulties faced by other institutions that have developed their courses in a more Japanese academic style where professors have relatively more autonomy over the content of the courses they teach.

The most prominent challenges at each case study institution are structural, related to the administration and management of the ETP. Universities A and B are both challenged by a limited range of courses taught in English, leading to what implementers at University A feel is a degree program which lacks a coherent specialism, and causing constraints on plans for program expansion at University B. In addition, University B, having always been popular with domestic students, is finding that its biggest challenge is the recruitment of international students. The institution is trying to determine how best to brand their program to do that; an issue with which University A is also struggling. At University C, the most prominent challenge is both structural and cultural and is related to program, faculty member and student identity and place within local frameworks. Program implementers feel constrained by the standard Japanese undergraduate degree

framework and sometimes arbitrary administrative criteria, yet are also conscious of the emergence of dual academic cultures in the faculty. This challenge hinders the program's efforts to fulfil its far-reaching goals of bringing about educational change in line with international standards.

Most interesting in the analysis of challenges across all three cases is the fact that when program implementers make sense of the challenges at their institutions, they all refer to structural difficulties. Implementers at universities A and B in particular explain that their challenges in ETP implementation arise because of what could be termed a lack of clarity on the fundamental issue of what the ETP ultimately hopes to achieve and how it is to do this. Implementers at both universities state that they would like to create an environment which would foster new international skills in their students, but by simply assuming the presence of international students in their faculties will create this environment, they are struggling to meet their goals. At University A, one senior administrator explained that “we have to rethink the meaning of international students, why we would like to accept international students” (SAa<sub>1</sub>). Similarly, a faculty member stated that “if University A tries to keep this program for the time being, they have to sharpen up a little bit in terms of direction or character or definition of the program” (FMa<sub>2</sub>). Likewise, a senior administrator at University B, which is struggling to recruit quality students to the ETP, explained that any university which is about to embark on an ETP must “Secure the plan to get the students first. So make the program attractive. Somehow focus on the certain areas which are attractive to the Asian students” (FMb<sub>1</sub>).

In contrast, University C spent more time clearly defining the outcomes of the ETP, concentrating on ensuring that the program fulfills its mission to the ETP students.

However, in doing so, implementers have created a program design that creates challenges relating to the ETP's position within its faculty and the university. This is exemplified by the following comments from faculty members:

I don't want the students to think we speak English, and that's better than others [sic]. That's absolutely not the way I want them to think. But because the university or government is trying to move that way, internationalization is good, there are some things that we do better. (FMc<sub>1</sub>)

It turned out what they [the ETP students] actually wanted, they wanted to be with more regular Japanese students, they had a real identity problem which was that people kept treating them..., they felt like short term exchange students. They wanted to say "We're not. We're full time. We live here. We're doing four year degrees here." (FMc<sub>2</sub>)

Those interviewed at all three of the universities also made reference to constraints felt by the ETPs due to a lack of resources. This is especially true at University A where resource shortfalls emerged as an understood reason for many of the challenges. Despite government funding to initially set up and operate the ETPs at the three HEIs, the programs do not have the resources to run efficiently. Each program has a small number of students. Student numbers are capped to, among other things, ensure quality, safeguard university places for domestic students, and ease the burden of implementation. Yet, it is inefficient to channel too many resources, whether financial, human, or material to such a small number of students. Yet again without more resources, the programs cannot grow to overcome challenges such as the limited number of courses taught in English. Implementers note that the programs are still in their early phases, and with time, and small successes, student numbers will grow and challenges will be overcome.

## **Practical Responses to the Challenges Experienced**

Table 13 presents the practical responses to the challenges faced by the three case-study universities in the implementation of the ETPs. The responses can be sorted into those actions taken before the actual implementation of the ETP in a pre-emptive attempt to minimize potential challenges; those actions that have been taken in response to the challenges, either by individuals involved in the ETPs or at the program or university level; and those actions that implementers desire to see carried out.

In examination of the practical responses taken at each institution, University C is again different from universities A and B, exhibiting greater emphasis on pre-implementation planning to allay potential challenges. Implementers at University C were deliberate to mention that they took a longer period of time than other programs between the announcement of the G30 funding and the launch of their ETP. They explained how they used this time to plan the program thoroughly and observe how other ETPs were operating in order to minimize potential challenges in their own program. When discussing this program lead-time, implementers referred to the other undergraduate ETP in their university which was launched a whole year before the program under study. However, the ETPs in this study were all launched in the same year, with University B launching in the same semester as University C, and University A launching just one semester earlier, and so all institutions had a comparable time for planning their programs. Nevertheless, University C does demonstrate greater up-front planning, which has resulted in greater course coherence and extra support for international students.

Table 13

*Cross-Case Presentation of the Practical Responses to the Challenges Experienced*

University A	University B	University C
Description of the Practical Responses		
<p>Actions taken by individuals:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Changes to teaching methods</li> <li>• Language exchange</li> <li>• Adjustments to language level of classes</li> <li>• Faculty development</li> </ul> <p>Actions taken by program/university:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adjustments to application requirements</li> <li>• Opening up of courses</li> <li>• Language requirement for new faculty</li> </ul> <p>Desired actions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Structured activities for student interaction</li> </ul>	<p>Actions taken by program/university:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adjustments to application requirements</li> <li>• Addition of language requirement</li> <li>• Summer camp for high school students</li> <li>• Welcome activities</li> <li>• Document translation project</li> <li>• International student website</li> <li>• Plans for new dormitory</li> <li>• Staff development</li> <li>• Language requirement for new faculty</li> </ul> <p>Desired actions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improved marketing strategy/recruitment management system</li> </ul>	<p>Pre-emptive actions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Foundations built without haste</li> <li>• Strong academic &amp; pastoral support</li> <li>• Classroom support mechanisms</li> </ul> <p>Actions taken by individuals:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Informal advice to Japanese professors</li> </ul> <p>Actions taken by program/university:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adjustments to application requirements</li> <li>• Opening up of courses</li> <li>• Adjustments to residential orientation</li> <li>• Faculty &amp; staff development</li> <li>• Language requirement for new faculty</li> </ul> <p>Desired actions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Even workload distribution</li> <li>• University collaboration for recruitment</li> </ul>
Explaining the Practical Responses to Program Challenges		
Tension between program quality and accessibility	System-wide integration struggles	
Differing conceptualizations of faculty development		Shift away from the centrality of the English language Core program people

Actions that have been taken in response to challenges that have arisen since the ETPs were launched include those taken by individuals and those taken at the university and program levels. Individual actions are most widespread at University A, where implementers are responding to the difficulties of teaching mixed-level classrooms. With fewer challenges related to mixed-level classrooms at universities B and C, implementers are taking fewer individual actions. At University B, no individual responses were discussed, and at University C, implementers are assisting professors from the JTP who are now teaching courses in English by offering informal advice.

At the program and university levels, all three universities have adjusted, or plan to adjust, their application requirements. These changes either allow students to consider applying to the Japanese university alongside U.S. institutions, enable students from a wider variety of countries to apply, or permit Japanese nationals into the programs. They open up the programs to enable a greater number of applicants with the intention of improving quality. Universities A and C have also opened up their EMI courses to more students. They have both integrated their program's two majors to allow greater flexibility of course choice to ETP students, and, University C has allowed non-ETP students to enroll in certain ETP courses in order to improve interaction between ETP and non-ETP students. Both of these universities have also strengthened their EMI offerings to non-ETP Japanese students by creating and expanding English content courses taught specifically for these students. Other actions that have taken place in more than one institution include the modification of student orientation to better fit the needs of ETP students, the introduction of faculty member and/or staff development and updated hiring

practices that require newly employed faculty members to be able and willing to teach at least one course in English.

Implementers at each of the universities also highlighted actions that they would like to see taken to improve the ETPs. A desire for improved recruitment mechanisms was expressed by either international education support staff, faculty members or senior administrators at all of the universities. The implementers felt that inter-university collaboration could help with this difficult issue, and that on a more technical level, the introduction of recruitment management systems would organize the process and increase efficiency.

### **Comparison of Program Implementer Perspectives and Official Documentation**

Table 14 presents a summary of the comparison between implementer perspectives and official documentation published about the ETPs. There are some incongruences between the implementers' perspectives from within the programs and the published information about the ETPs, particularly concerning the intended outcomes of the programs and the student services designed to support ETP students.

Table 14

*Cross-Case Presentation of the Comparison between Implementer Perspectives and Official Documentation*

University A	University B	University C
Implementer and document focus on long-term goals	Implementer focus on long-term goals. Document focus on program outcomes	Implementer focus on long-term goals. Document focus on program outcomes
Disagreement over the preparedness of graduates for careers in Japan	Disagreement over the adequacy of administrative support for international students  Disagreement over the locations from which ETP students are recruited	Disagreement over student accommodation needs
ETP is not meeting the goals of its <i>Total Solution System</i>		
Disagreement over achievements of faculty and staff development		

Perhaps predictably in materials written in English and designed to attract international students to the ETPs, the rationales for the programs published in promotional brochures and websites for universities B and C focus on the program outcomes for ETP students. University B promotes the provision of an accessible learning environment for students from overseas, and University C aims to nurture internationally aware individuals. However, at both of these universities, implementers focus more on the long-term program goals when describing the universities' rationales for establishing the programs. They state that the goals are ultimately to improve the international outlook of the university, through, in the case of University B, improving the international skills of domestic students, and in the case of University C, increasing the prestige of the university. At University A, both documents and implementers focus on the long-term goals, describing a desire to disseminate knowledge about Japan and to

produce graduates capable of acting in the global community. However, at this institution there is disagreement over the immediate outcomes of the program. Published documents state that graduates of the ETP will be prepared for a career in Japan, whereas implementers express skepticism, referring to the lack of Japanese language ability of graduates and inadequate resources offered by the university careers service.

Differences between the published aims and actual achievements in the area of student services provided to ETP students at all three universities show that in some cases, the ETPs have not yet reached their goals, and in other cases, there are discrepancies between the stated goals and the actual needs of the students. For example, University A's failure to meet the goals of its *Total Solution System* and infrequent faculty and staff development opportunities, and University B's insufficient administrative support for international students and difficulties in recruiting students from target countries, highlight the fact that that the universities are still in the process of ETP implementation. However, other differences, such as University A's stated goal of enabling ETP graduates to pursue careers in Japan, yet lack of required Japanese language classes in the program, and University C's provision of accommodation solely for international students instead of housing these students with their Japanese peers, show that the institutions should pay more attention to aligning resources and program structure with desired outcomes and goals.

### **Summary of the Cross-Case Analysis**

The cross-case analysis shows that in choosing to implement their undergraduate ETPs, the leadership at all three universities was reacting to the outside pressures of globalization, although the universities' rationales for establishing their undergraduate

ETPs appear to differ according to the universities' status as private or national university. The national university in this study more economically and politically inclined; placing more emphasis on international competitiveness and its position in world ranking systems and adhering closely to government policy. However, the structure and characteristics of the programs are not strongly influenced by the universities' rationales for implementation, but are largely the product of one implementer at each institution, the implementer charged with designing the curriculum. The programs are based on this implementer's ideas and understandings of what an ETP should achieve, and on their prior experiences with international students and working on program development in international contexts.

There are two discernable ETP designs in this study. The programs are either integrated with the existing JTPs or running in parallel to the existing JTP within the same faculty. These two designs affect the challenges encountered and the way that the implementers approach the challenges. However despite the different program designs, the challenges that the ETPs face are predominately structural in nature, with linguistic and cultural challenges being of secondary concern. Responses intended to overcome the challenges therefore tend to focus first on in-classroom practices, and then on discrete actions that affect specific elements of the ETP implementation but do not seek to affect wider structural change.

Implementer perspectives differ from published documentation about the ETPs in that implementers tend to focus more on the longer-term goals of the ETPs when they describe their universities' rationales for establishing the programs whereas documents tend to focus on the short-term outcomes for the ETP students. There are also differences

in the published aims and actual achievements of the ETPs in the area of student services for ETP students which are due in part to the fledgling nature of the programs, and in part due to discrepancies in the stated goals and actual needs of the students.

### **Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented analysis of the data generated to explore the implementation of ETPs at three Japanese universities. First, it established background information about the study participants. They comprised an internationally-orientated group of program implementers involved with the ETPs as either senior administrators, faculty members or international education staff members. Later, the chapter presented summary case studies of the ETPs at the three institutions before analyzing the results in a cross-case comparison.

Analysis indicated that University A has an integrated ETP designed to promote Japan to the wider world. However, program implementers at this HEI are generally more engaged in nurturing international perspectives in their Japanese students than promoting Japan to others. Among implementers, there are concerns that the program lacks coherence and that more courses should be made available in English. There is a tendency for the ETP to assume that presence of international students will enhance the quality of education in the department without extra pedagogical or curricular effort. Like at University A, the ETP at University B is also integrated into the JTP within the same faculty. The program at University B aims to enable students to apply their learning to resolve modern problems and in order to better cover social science problems, implementers would like to grow the program. However, there are difficulties in finding faculty members to join the program. The ETP at University C is somewhat different to

the other two programs, it is not an English-medium extension an existing program, but a program that has its own structure and standards. It seeks to impact the wider university and ultimately affect the Japanese HE system through meeting internationally compatible standards. The structural differences have, however, created challenges for the ETP and those involved are making every effort to reconcile the goals of the program with local frameworks.

The cross-case analysis highlighted that the desire to be competitive in today's globalizing world was apparent as an underlying institutional rationale for implementing the ETPs in all case-study universities. Among implementers this manifested less in desires to attract international students to raise the status of their institution, but more in their desires to develop the international skills of Japanese students. The biggest challenges experienced in implementing the programs were structural in nature, relating to management and administrative difficulties, rather than to linguistic and cultural concerns. Linguistic and cultural difficulties were easier to handle at the individual and programmatic levels, whereas structural difficulties remain more problematic to overcome. Examination of official documents pertaining to the ETPs highlighted some differences between the aims and achievements of the ETPs and in their focus on the short-term versus long-term outcomes and goals of the programs. These results will be reflected upon and discussed in relation to previous research in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter reflects on the results presented in Chapter IV with regard to the overarching research focus of the study and in relation to previous research. To situate this analysis, the chapter begins by restating the research problem and summarizing the key results of this multiple-case study. Next, there follows a discussion of the results with respect to previous literature which highlights 12 specific findings. After that, attention is drawn to five issues that are crucial in the consideration of ETP implementation. Then, implications of the results for theory and practice are considered and recommendations for further research. Finally, concluding remarks are offered.

#### **The Research Problem and Overview of the Results**

The overarching focus of this exploratory study is to develop an understanding of how and why Japanese HEIs are implementing undergraduate ETPs. It seeks to find out what is happening at the *genba* in these institutions.

In order to increase their international outlook and in response to a 2009 government commitment to make Japanese universities more internationally competitive, many Japanese HEIs are currently introducing undergraduate degree programs with content taught exclusively through the English language. However, difficulties exist in implementing ETPs in non-Anglophone countries (e.g. Airey, 2011; Hellekjær, 2010; Tange, 2010; Tatzl, 2011). As undergraduate ETPs are a relatively new phenomenon at mainstream Japanese universities, and as it is widely acknowledged that structural intransigence often problematizes the introduction of new initiatives in Japanese HE

(Fitzpatrick, 2008, 2010; Ishikawa, 2011), there is a need for more data-driven research about undergraduate ETPs in Japan.

Research has shown that that ETPs differ in their characteristics (e.g. Lehtikoinen, 2004), rationales for implementation (e.g. Wächter & Maiworm, 2008) and in the implementation challenges they face (e.g. Airey, 2011; Hellekjær, 2010). Program implementers respond to those challenges in different ways. It is important to understand the unique context of an ETP in order to facilitate its implementation. However, research in the English language related to EMI in Japan has focused on short-term and graduate programs (e.g. Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Manakul, 2007a).

The study takes the form of a multiple-case study that explores the implementation of social science undergraduate ETPs in three Japanese universities and investigates the challenges they face in in doing so from the perspectives of program implementers at the *genba*. It seeks to understand how the program implementers make sense of the ETPs and how their perceptions compare to official ETP documentation. Analysis of the data showed two types of ETP program design at the case-study universities. These designs are informed chiefly by the understandings of one key implementer at each institution, more so than by the university's motivations for adopting the program. The institutional rationales for implementing the ETPs are complex, but are grounded in a desire to be competitive, with the national university in this study placing more emphasis on its global profile than the private universities. ETP implementation at the case-study institutions is challenged predominantly by structural impediments which are difficult to overcome at the individual faculty member or programmatic level and therefore many of the practical responses to challenges faced consist of discrete actions

focusing on smaller issues that do not affect the wider university. Comparison of program implementer views with official documents published by the universities and MEXT shows that implementers are more likely focused on the long-term goals of the programs rather than on intermediary outcomes. It also draws attention to some discrepancies with stated program goals and the needs of students and highlights the fact that the ETPs have not yet achieved all that they set out to do, especially in the area of student services.

## **Discussion of Results**

### **Rationales for Implementing English-Taught Programs**

The motivations of the three HEIs for implementing their ETPs are not fully aligned with the policy statements put forth by the Japanese government when establishing the Global 30 Project in 2009. Whereas MEXT's policy statements were criticized for exclusively focusing on attracting international students (see Burgess et al., 2010; Rivers, 2010), the case-study HEIs were motivated not just to attract students but to provide more international experiences for their domestic students. Since 2010, Japanese government HE policy and initiatives have been more closely aligned with the ETPs' rationales as they have increased emphasis on developing domestic students as global human resources. While HEIs adhere to government directives in order to receive funding, they are clearly not constrained by them and will take a broader view that supports the interests of their Japanese students. In fact their motivations are much broader than merely economic and contain elements of academic, cultural, political and economic rationales for implementing the ETPs. While the relatively frequent observation that there is a tendency for Japanese internationalization efforts to focus on the strengthening of Japanese identity within an international context rather than on

international integration could be seen in this study, it was not a dominant rationale across the case studies. The Global 30 Project as a whole does not promote the strengthening of Japanese identity. Analysis shows that those working within HEIs are sensitive to the needs of domestic Japanese students. Those working in the HE policy arena should take notice of this when planning future Japanese HE internationalization initiatives.

*Finding 1: The case-study HEIs' attention to fostering international competencies in domestic students does not reflect early policy statements regarding the establishment of ETPs, but aligns with current government focus.*

The ETPs in this study were implemented as part of the Japanese government's Global 30 Project, which has the stated rationale of strengthening "the international competitiveness of Japanese higher education" and offering "attractive and high-quality education for international students" (MEXT, n.d. p. 15). This project has been criticized for its economically-focused motivations (Burgess et al., 2010; Rivers, 2010). However, the results of this study show that while the universities were reacting to outside pressures and the need to become competitive in their decisions to introduce the programs, these motivations are not in conflict with a desire to improve the educational opportunities of domestic Japanese students. The universities do not want to attract international students just for the sake of increasing the number of international students on campus, but would like to enhance their international competitiveness by providing opportunity for their domestic students to develop international and intercultural skills.

The case-study Japanese HEIs are slightly more focused on their domestic students than the European HEIs in Wächter and Maiworm's 2008 study. The European

institutions ranked the general rationale of “attracting international students who would not enroll in a program taught in the domestic language” above a rationale concerning the internationalization of the education of domestic students. The rationale of increasing competitiveness by improving the skills of domestic students which emerges in the current study aligns with the Japanese government’s 2010 New Growth Strategy. That year, the government shifted its focus away from inbound international students and started to place more emphasis on developing domestic students as *global human resources* (Prime Minister of Japan and his Cabinet, 2010). This emphasis has continued under the Abe administration where national policy is committed to fostering in Japanese students broad international knowledge and the skills to interact with people from other countries (see the third proposal from the Education Rebuilding Implementation Council [2013] and Senior Vice Minister Nishikawa’s presentation at Going Global 2014, [Nishikawa, 2014]). Despite this alignment, the inclusion of domestic students in the rationale for implementing the ETPs is most likely an effect of the program implementers’ aspirations to take care of their Japanese students, rather than simply following government directive. Implementers who work at Japanese institutions naturally have loyalties to their own domestic students and are interested in enabling them to develop their international knowledge and intercultural skills.

*Finding 2: The rationales for the introduction of ETPs are multifaceted and are not driven by economic or nationalist agendas.*

The rationales for introducing ETPs to the case-study HEIs are clearly multifaceted and contain elements of all four of Knight and de Wit’s rationales for internationalization put forward in this study’s conceptual framework. Japan’s

implementation of ETPs is based on an academic rationale (a desire to meet international standards), a socio-cultural rationale (the development of intercultural skills in domestic students so that they are able to compete), a political rationale (the desire to make Japan more visible internationally), and an economic rationale (training global human resources, both domestic and international students, to help boost Japan's economy). The rationale for implementing ETPs in this study more closely reflects Knight's (2004b) Human Resources Development national-level rationale and student and staff development institutional-level rationale. The push to attract international students to these HEIs is not based on a financial motivation to protect Japan's economic interests in the face of its demographic problems, as has been suggested in the literature (Rivers, 2010).

Early literature about the G30 Project assessed from university publications regarding the ETPs that these programs would promote Japanese nationalist agendas under the guise of internationalization (Rivers, 2010). In this study, one HEI did display an example of a rationale that could fit into the category of "boundary-strengthening" and national identity building. University A intends for its ETP students to learn about Japan and then return to their home countries to spread knowledge about Japan. The disciplinary focus of the program also intends for the domestic students to learn about their own country in English, so that they can better explain it to others. However, this agenda was not found in the other two case-study HEIs. Given that this "boundary-strengthening" rationale was not found at all of the case-study HEIs, and given the fact that only five out of the 33 new undergraduate ETPs counted by MEXT at the G30

institutions focus on Japan (see MEXT, 2012a), it can be argued that the G30 Project does not promote a nationalist agenda.

As a final note, it should be pointed out that the disciplines of the programs examined at the HEIs in this study may influence the implementers' perceptions of rationales for ETP introduction. Program implementers in the social sciences may be more focused on the development of international competencies in their students than would those in the hard sciences who may be more interested in scientific and economic competition. Further research in this area is needed. It is also worth remembering that the HEIs in this study are all elite institutions with healthy domestic student enrollment figures that were awarded the G30 Project funding. According to Kudo and Hashimoto's 2011 model of approaches to international engagement, they would all be classified as 'global'. Therefore, their reasons for introducing ETPs may not reflect the rationales of other universities in Japan.

### **English-Taught Program Characteristics**

The three case-study universities had two different program designs, one where ETP and JTP are integrated into the same department, and one where the ETP operates in parallel to a JTP. In all three case-study HEIs, a single implementer made most of the design and curriculum decisions. The previous experiences of this implementer and their personal conceptions of what an ETP should achieve were very important in determining the characteristics of the program. Whereas initial communication from MEXT to the programs focused on attracting and educating international students, the program implementers elected to integrate domestic students into the ETPs in order to provide direct benefit to Japanese students and ensure program sustainability. Early assertions

that the programs would segregate international and Japanese students have largely been disproven by this study, and in cases where language ability is preventing students from enrolling in EMI courses, the HEIs are taking steps to remedy the problem. However, the charge that ETPs do not prepare students to take up employment in Japan after graduation is upheld, with concerns about the Japanese ability of international students, the English ability of Japanese students and the skill sets of students graduating from programs with a Japanese studies focus. Despite desires for integration and success in enabling students to study together, clear articulation of the methods for establishing good interaction and the nurturing of international skills in all students is insufficient. Finding a balance between content in English and language skills instruction would be easier if HEIs gave more upfront consideration to the relationship between the process, outcomes and end goals of implementing the ETPs. This is an area in which all three case-study HEIs could do more work, and starts with a careful examination of the rationales for ETP implementation.

*Finding 3: The previous experiences and outlook of one key program implementer greatly influence the characteristics of ETPs.*

The implementers in the three case-study HEIs described two distinct program designs, one that integrates the ETP into the JTP that is taught in the same department, and one that operates in parallel to the existing JTP. The integrated programs expect the same standards and outcomes from their ETP and JTP students, whereas the parallel program expects ETP students to complete a more structured program with differently defined outcomes and graduate attributes than the JTP.

The literature reviewed for this study suggested that national, institutional and individual rationales for and orientations towards EMI can affect the way that an ETP is

implemented. Analysis of the study's results showed that the characteristics of the ETPs at the case-study universities align with government views regarding the development of international skills in domestic students, but that this compliance to national priorities in the design of the ETPs appears to be somewhat secondary to the program implementers' own understandings of how such a program should be constructed. The boundary between institutional and implementer rationales is almost impossible to delineate as the universities have delegated program design and development to the same individuals who implement the ETPs and it is these individuals who greatly influence the structure and characteristics of each ETP. Results suggest that the program implementer responsible for the program design should be someone who buys into the government rationales and can communicate their vision for the ETP clearly to other program implementers if there is to be alignment between government, institutional, and implementer rationales as this key program implementer greatly shapes the ETP.

Similar to the findings of Hashimoto (2005) that suggest the international experiences of faculty members influence their opinions of the teaching at Japanese universities, it was evident in this study that international experiences influenced the decisions of the implementers and design of the programs. The key curriculum designer at each case-study HEI has significant international experience and holds a non-Japanese PhD. However, the two designers who developed the programs that are integrated with the JTP are Japanese, do not self-identify as having an international outlook, and have no prior experience designing programs overseas. In contrast, the designer who developed the program that operates in parallel to the existing JTP is not Japanese, identifies as having an international outlook and has considerable experience developing programs

internationally. Any HEI seeking to develop an ETP should consider the effects that this key program implementer will have on the shape and characteristics of the program.

*Finding 4: ETPs in Japanese HEIs seek to integrate international and domestic students and in the most integrated programs, the ETP is essentially merely an alternative route of entry into the faculty of study.*

Initial communication from MEXT to potential Global 30 Project applicant HEIs emphasized the development of programs through which international students could gain an academic degree in English and did not mention the involvement of domestic students (see Mori, 2011). However, it has never been the intention of the HEIs or program implementers in this study to provide ETPs solely for the benefit of the ETP students. Each program implementer talked about the ETP in the context of other students at the university, and those at the universities where the ETP is integrated into the existing JTP are very focused on the benefits of the program for their domestic Japanese students. The provision for domestic students in the design of the ETPs aligns with the 2010 global human resources strategy (Prime Minister of Japan and his Cabinet, 2010). Integrating domestic students into the ETP is also a way for the universities to ensure that the program can remain sustainable and grow at the end of special project funding.

Analysis published soon after the announcement of the G30 Project was critical of the ETPs, suggesting that the programs would be designed in such a way so as to promote a segregation between international and domestic students (Burgess et al., 2010; Rivers, 2010). While some segregation can be observed in this study, implementers at all of the case-study HEIs have taken steps to increase student interaction. In fact, contrary to assertions in the early literature, classrooms in the integrated programs are very mixed,

with ETP, international exchange and domestic students studying together. These programs do not include any formal barriers that preclude domestic students from taking English content courses as the courses are open to any student in the faculty. The ETP at these institutions is in essence just an alternative route of entry into the faculty of study. Nevertheless, some students are unable to enroll in EMI courses because of their low English language abilities. HEIs are addressing this issue by increasing the number of required language courses for JTP students and/or providing EMI courses outside of the ETP which are especially scaffolded for students with lower English abilities. The parallel program in this study does have courses at higher levels which are only open to ETP students, however, it is the implementers' hope to change this coming years after non-ETP students become more experienced with EMI.

*Finding 5: Clear strategies as to how ETPs will achieve goals of fostering skills for international success in all of their students are lacking.*

Despite some success in integrating ETP and domestic students at the curricular level, this study identified a lack of clear strategy as to how the ETP characteristics have been developed to enable the programs to achieve their goals as stated by program implementers. The characteristics of the programs do not completely support the fostering of international skills in all of their students. Instead, they rely largely on the assumption that the presence of international students on campus and in classrooms will create international environments that will stimulate these skills without further intervention. Furthermore, the programs in this study demonstrate some isolation, both physical and conceptual, between those involved with the ETPs and other programs, faculty members and students at the universities. Clearly, program implementers should

give more thought at both the development and implementation stages as to how the ETPs will achieve their goals and also fit in with existing frameworks.

Furthermore, literature criticized the G30 Project on the assumption that the ETPs would not be designed in such a way as to cultivate the language skills necessary for international students to take up employment in Japan after graduation. The results of this study support this concern. Only one of the case study ETPs requires ETP students to enroll in Japanese classes (one other has a language requirement, but this language does not have to be Japanese), and this six-credit requirement is likely not enough to enable students to work in Japanese. In addition, program implementers in this study, specifically those at University A, have questioned the utility of the program's disciplinary focus on broad Japanese studies for securing future employment. Without a specific skill set or Japanese language ability, the students are not competitive in the job market. Underdeveloped career services support for international students adds to the difficulties in finding employment. ETPs in Japan must appropriately balance English content and Japanese language skills instruction if the students are to work in Japan upon graduation.

### **Challenges Facing English-Taught Programs**

The typology categorizing challenges as either linguistic, cultural or structural derived from Tsuneyoshi (2005) provides a useful framework for this study. Each of the case-study institutions in this study face linguistic, cultural, and structural challenges as they implement their ETPs. Although linguistic and cultural challenges were less acutely felt by program implementers in this study, they were not inconsequential as implementers noted many of the difficulties predicted in existing literature. However, in

comparison to the structural challenges, the linguistic and cultural challenges were easier to overcome and posed less prominent obstacles. In fact, the linguistic challenges were not of particular concern to the participants, even to faculty members. Most faculty members in this study felt that their English skills were sufficient to teach in the ETPs. To this point it is noteworthy to mention that the design of this study is such that it reflects the reported concerns of the program implementers only. Implementers may not be in a position to acknowledge their own linguistic shortcomings and their concerns may or may not align with those of the students within the ETPs. Also, it is possible that the aggregation of administrators, faculty members and staff in this study may have deemphasized linguistic challenges actually experienced in ETP classrooms because of the administrators' and staff members' frequent contact with structural obstacles.

The greatest range of challenges experienced at the case-study HEIs are structural in nature. Given the acute nature of the structural challenges and the scope of issues involved, it is useful to discuss them into two groups. The first group is related to the previously defined structural challenges regarding the administration and management of ETPs and their resources. Some of these challenges are predicted in the literature and others were unexpected. The second group of structural challenges are related to the constructed understandings of the ETP as an institution, i.e. how it is perceived, how it relates to the rest of the university, and how it maintains its own standards. These challenges are especially significant because many of them, such as marketing and branding challenges, the situatedness and identity of the ETP, communication gaps, and lack of clarity surrounding program goals were identified strongly by the participants, but had not been noted in existing literature about EMI in Japan. However, the existence of

these challenges in association with EMI is not particularly surprising as similar challenges have been well-documented in association with other innovative activities in Japanese education, such as the implementation of IT (Bachnik, 2003). The prevalence of structural challenges among the case-study HEIs signifies how important it is for the HEI and program implementers to deliberately construct the program's identity and decide how the program should be situated within the university and other local frameworks in order to fulfil its goals.

*Finding 6: Linguistic challenges are experienced within the ETPs, but are of lesser concern to implementers.*

Much previous EMI research discusses the linguistic difficulties that arise in the English-taught classroom and these difficulties were expected to surface in the current study. Indeed, challenges concerning reduced content quality and quantity (e.g. Wilkinson, 2005), student dissatisfaction with professors' linguistic skills (e.g. Ammon & McConnell, 2002), increased workload because of the language change (e.g. Tsuneyoshi, 2005), and faculty members' own perceived limitations with using English (e.g. Tange, 2010) are all documented in this study. However, these linguistic challenges were not voiced strongly by participants in this study. In fact, consistent with other studies in East Asia (Lei & Hu, 2013; MacDonald, 2009), most participants did not feel that their own English abilities created challenges in the classroom. When lack of English skill was mentioned, program implementers were usually referring to other professors teaching in the program, or to the low abilities of students. Without direct observation of these professors' classrooms, it is impossible to discern if these implementers possess greater

English skills than others. However, almost all of the faculty members teaching on an ETP in this study have received their terminal degree in an English-speaking country.

The lack of immediate concern given to linguistic challenges by implementers in this study could be a function of the stage of ETP implementation. Given the fact that Japanese HEIs are at the beginning stages of ETP implementation, structural challenges are likely to be bigger obstacles. As Japan moves into a more established phase of program implementation, linguistic challenges may become more prominent. This would be an interesting avenue for future research.

*Finding 7: Exposure and adjustment to cultural challenges are part of the skill set that ETPs hope to develop in students.*

Research literature has also discussed cultural challenges that arise when an HEI adopts EMI, stating that difficulties can occur when classroom participants have different backgrounds and hail from different academic traditions (e.g. Roberts & Ching, 2011; Tange, 2010). Implementers in this study noted that variations in the level of cultural knowledge created difficulties in teaching non-Japanese students when the subject matter focused on Japan, especially when Japanese students were present in the same classroom. The issues of culturally-conditioned classroom behavior and academic expectations also emerged in this study. However, although at times challenging to manage, the presence of students with different backgrounds, and mixed passive and participatory behaviors in the same classroom was not viewed negatively by implementers in this study. In fact, they see student exposure and adjustment to different learning styles as part of the 21<sup>st</sup> century skill set that students in ETP classrooms should be developing. Diverse student expectations regarding the type and load of academic work required of them in ETP

courses, coupled with the burden of completing tasks in a second language, have led to some domestic students falling behind in and dropping out of ETP courses.

*Finding 8: ETP implementers have practical rather than ideological concerns regarding the differences between Western and Japanese academic practices.*

The cultural challenge that was most apparent in this study is the tension created by differences between the Western-centric practices of the ETP and local academic practices. By design, the parallel program in this study espouses Western educational practices, adopting such elements as an aligned curriculum, detailed syllabi, moderated assessments and interactive classroom procedures in order to promote a global standard for internationalizing the university. The integrated programs have also taken on Western classroom practices, not because the ETP directed them to do so, but because faculty members either voluntarily or involuntarily opted to do so. Reasons given for the adoption of Western practices include faculty member inability to lecture for a full class period in English and student request.

Contrary to suggestions in the literature, implementers do not lament the involuntary loss of a distinct Japanese way of teaching or learning (see Coleman, 2006), nor find that Western practices conflict with Asian values (see Wong & Wu, 2011). Indeed, they state that if a faculty member prefers to, it is possible to separate EMI from its dominant cultures and teach in English using a Japanese style. The faculty members in this study also had no problem accepting financial incentives for teaching in English and therefore violating what has been described as an Asian value of parity among colleagues of equal status (see Jon & Kim, 2011). Instead, rather than worrying about a loss of Japanese practices, implementers in this study are concerned that students and faculty

members from both within and outside of the ETP may regard Western-centric practices as *better* than rather than *different* to the more usual teaching style in Japanese HEIs, or that those who speak English well might be seen as superior to those who only speak Japanese. Furthermore, the implementers in this study are rather more practical in their concerns about cultural tensions. They are aware of the extra work that adjusting to new practices and standards could entail and believe that this work deters other faculty members from participating in the ETPs.

*Finding 9: The administration and management challenges predicted in the literature were not the same as the set observed, and those not previously reported are more logistical in nature.*

The challenges related to the administration and management of the ETP that existing literature suggests might likely be problematic for the implementation of ETPs in Japan include those associated with English language assessment policies (Rivers, 2010; 2011), the job rotation system of administrative staff (Tsuneyoshi, 2005), and the recruitment and retention of teaching faculty (Lassegard, 2006; Tsuneyoshi, 2005). Literature states that ETPs struggle with finding suitable language assessment for students at the outset and end of the programs and for staff at the time of appointment (e.g. Wilkinson & Zegers, 2006; Klaasen & Räsänen, 2006). However, language assessment was not mentioned as an issue by any of the implementers in the current study. All three of the ETPs examined screen students via standardized English tests prior to admittance. There are currently no exit tests. Presumably, assessment was not mentioned as an issue not because there are no issues with assessment, but because there are bigger challenges at the forefront of the implementers' minds. In addition, the case-

study ETPs had yet to graduate students, so impacts of assessment shortfalls may not yet be visible. As Hellekjær (2006) noted, if students are to study successfully in a non-native language, there is a need to screen them for competencies broader than just language skills for entry into ETPs. Students' academic suitability for the HEIs in this study is screened via high school transcripts. Yet, it is difficult for the international education staff to gauge the equivalency of high school certificates. This is further described below as an issue in the recruiting process. Furthermore, all case-study universities are now hiring faculty members who can speak English, however, there is no formal assessment of their language skills.

The employment status of international education staff was mentioned by implementers in this study, but not as a challenge of great concern. The results reported in this study show that at the case-study institutions, it is not job-rotation that creates difficulties for ETPs, but rather the short-term specially funded contracts on which the international education staff are employed. With job rotation, the international skills acquired by staff members would aid in the internationalization of other parts of the university as the staff members change positions, but with the current limited-term employment system, the ETPs risk losing the considerable skills and institutional knowledge that the international education staff members have acquired during the initial implementation phase of the ETPs. Despite this, more immediate as a challenge in this study was the insufficient international skills of career services staff.

More challenging for the case-study ETPs is the recruitment and retention of teaching faculty. Contrary to suggestions in the literature (e.g. Kurtán, 2004; Vinke, 1995), additional compensation for non-native English speakers to teach in English,

while welcomed, did not incentivize faculty members to become involved with the ETPs. Program implementers in this study commented that this incentive was too negligible to have meaningful impact. Instead they listed other motives, related to the benefits the ETP brings to Japanese students and to their own personal development, as motivators for working on the program. Consistent with the faculty members in Hashimoto's (2005) study, those who chose not to be involved with the programs had concerns about program efficiency. In addition, there were workload and linguistic concerns. Implementers did not draw attention to concerns about the limited-term contracts offered to foreign professors (see for example Burrows, 2007; McCrostie & Spiri, 2008). However, the faculty members specially appointed to work on ETPs in this study are employed on short-term contracts, and so this is expected to be problematic for the programs when these contracts expire. This is an especially relevant issue for the ETP at University C as its core ETP faculty member team is comprised of specially appointed professors, some of whom were hired in the same year.

A number of challenges related to the administration and management of the ETPs that have not previously been reported in the literature about EMI in Japan were prominent in this study. These challenges relate more to the logistical side of implementing a full undergraduate program, and so are not likely to be issues for the short-term and graduate programs examined previously in Japan. However, these challenges were keenly felt by program implementers in this study and include those related to resources, such as scholarships, accommodation, university materials in the English language and career and counseling support.

*Finding 10: Institutional challenges are more prominent than predicted in the literature.*

Any new program at an HEI faces challenges establishing itself as an institution, but the experiences of the implementers involved with the ETPs studied demonstrate that this is especially relevant for them. Given the “otherness” associated with being international that is intrinsic to the social construction of ETPs as institutions on traditionally insular Japanese campuses, it is unsurprising that these institutional issues were highlighted by the results.

Existing literature suggests that structural intransigence will be a significant challenge to the implementation of ETPs in Japan (see for example McVeigh, 2002; Newby et al., 2009). However, it was mentioned most obviously by only one university in this study. This is likely because the ETP at the HEI where implementers saw structural intransigence is making significant strides to form its own institution and use that institution to lead change in the wider university. The other ETPs in this study had more modest institutional goals and were satisfied with operating within the frameworks of existing JTPs. The university’s status as a national university is also likely a contributing factor to the structural intransigence at this HEI.

Another institutional challenge discussed in the literature is the challenge Japanese universities face because they are perceived as being of relatively low quality (see Askew, 2011; McVeigh, 2002; Arimoto, 2002). Indeed, the problem about the low quality of Japanese education as discussed in the literature review is affecting all of the ETPs in this study. Program implementers referenced either the number of international students dropping out of the ETP, difficulties in recruiting the students of the quality

desired, or the cultural and institutional challenges encountered when a program that tries to embody international standards is implemented. This is simultaneously a question of actual quality and standards and of branding and marketing.

Branding and marketing were not directly cited as challenges for Japanese universities in the literature, but were highlighted by implementers in the current study as reasons for the challenges experienced relating to the recruitment of students. Other institutional challenges emerging in this study, but not brought to attention in existing literature about EMI in Japan include those relating to the situatedness and identity of the ETP and those involved, gaps in communication concerning the ETP, and a lack of clarity surrounding the goals of the programs. These points are pervasive throughout the ETPs in this study and further discussed as part of the salient issues.

### **Practical Responses to the Challenges**

In the short time since the undergraduate ETPs have been established, the program implementers have been continually adjusting and improving them. Linguistic and cultural challenges have been addressed at the individual faculty member level in classrooms and administrative and logistical changes have been made at the programmatic level. Despite these changes, the ETPs still face challenges and more could be done to improve their implementation. In particular, the ETPs would benefit from pedagogical training for those teaching on the programs. The fact that the larger structural challenges that require effort and coordination from those outside of the ETP have had little action taken to solve them highlights the difficulties that Japanese HEIs have in effecting change across different areas of the institution. It suggests that while ETPs in Japan may be able to meet their goals of creating an international environment on

campus, preparing students for the global labor market, educating people about Japan and even sharpening the profile of the HEI through increasing international student numbers and raising the quality of education for students on the ETPs, they may have difficulties in attaining any larger goals related to effecting change throughout the university or Japanese HE system.

*Finding 11: Practical responses to the challenges faced in ETP implementation consist of discrete actions at the individual or programmatic level.*

The case-study HEIs have not taken action at the level such that they affect the university more broadly. The discrete practical responses tend to focus on linguistic and cultural challenges in the classroom, and structural challenges that affect only those involved in the program. Naturally, these discrete responses are easier to make and address immediate challenges. The larger structural challenges require effort and coordination from actors outside of the ETP and so are more difficult to overcome.

Individual-level responses to ETP challenges that have been made in this study include changes to teaching methods to encompass more student-centered instruction and adjustments to the language level of classes. At the programmatic level, the ETPs have adjusted their application requirements to attract more quality students, introduced more flexibility in course choice for both ETP and domestic students, and strengthened EMI offerings for non-ETP students by creating and expanding EMI courses taught specifically for those students. Since the introduction of the ETPs the two integrated programs have also increased the required language skills courses for JTP students in effort to improve the abilities of the students to enroll in EMI courses.

The discrete nature of the practical responses highlights larger system-wide integration struggles encountered by the ETPs and demonstrates the difficulties that Japanese HEIs have in effecting change across different areas of the institution. This is in part due to the legacy of the decentralized governance system and small pool of academic administrators enabled to tackle strategic management issues in Japanese HEIs (Goodman, 2005; Newby et al., 2009). The discrete nature of the responses also exemplifies the struggles that institutions in other areas of the world face when attempting to innovate. Brewer and Tierney (2011) note, with reference to the United States, that “discrete internal changes and a competitive environment on their own will not bring about wholesale reform of the postsecondary industry” (p. 40). Despite the increasingly competitive environment that Japanese HEIs find themselves in regarding the internationalization of HE and the pursuit of international student enrollment, ETPs are still difficult to institutionalize.

*Finding 12: Faculty development and financial incentives are not perceived as valuable by those teaching on ETPs.*

Existing research literature about the effects of EMI in HE has highlighted the central role that effective pedagogical skills play in ETPs (e.g. Björkman, 2010; Tange, 2010) and suggested that faculty member training sessions in this area or collaboration between English language teachers and EMI content teachers may help the implementation of ETPs (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Wilkinson, 2013). As anticipated in the literature review to this study, faculty development has not been an integral part of the ETPs in this Japanese context. Faculty development is available at all of the case-study universities, but there is very little especially tailored to helping faculty members

transition to teaching in the ETPs. In fact in this study, only one HEI offers such training. Faculty development is available at the other institutions, but is not made use of by many professors as they assume it to be centered on English language training, and English language training is not attractive to those faculty members who believe that they already possess sufficient language ability to teach in the ETPs. The fact that multiple professors in this study mentioned that Japanese students often drop out of EMI courses because of linguistic or cultural difficulties suggests that either more faculty member training focusing on intercultural pedagogic practices and coping with mixed-ability classrooms or more English language and academic skills training for students would be helpful for the ETPs in this study to achieve greater success. Furthermore, program implementers in this study refer to ETP student complaints about the linguistic abilities and teaching styles of faculty members teaching in the ETPs. There have been reports of faculty members using both English and Japanese in their EMI classrooms, similar to those professors using bilingual and triage techniques in MacDonald's 2009 study in Korea. Faculty development focusing on pedagogical training or regular faculty meetings where these issues are discussed could help to alleviate these complaints.

Previous literature has also suggested that financial incentives and exemption from non-teaching duties may persuade and enable professors to become involved with ETPs (Jon & Kim, 2011; Vinke, 1995). This study has found limited instances of these practices, but did not find that they incentivize faculty members to teach on the programs. Program implementers commented that the existing incentives were of too negligible value to make a difference and that they chose to become and remain involved with the ETPs because of the benefits to the students and opportunities for personal growth. This

indicates that ETPs in Japan which are having difficulty recruiting faculty members might consider increasing the level of incentive. Alternatively, they might consider placing emphasis on the opportunities for self-development that these new programs can provide.

### **Salient Issues**

The results of this study have led to the identification of five elements that play an important role in the implementation of all three of the ETPs at the case-study institutions. These elements influence all areas of the implementation process and contribute significant contextual understanding to the development of undergraduate ETPs in Japan. They provide useful insights to understand the beliefs and mindsets of program implementers in Japan and are of value to practitioners making decisions about how to improve and develop existing and future ETPs. These issues have not been previously elucidated in the literature focusing on EMI and ETPs in Japan. The salient issues are: a) the presence of committed leadership; b) implementer orientation towards the English language; c) the location of and attitudes towards the program; d) student recruitment; and e) the clarification of program outcomes and goals

### **Committed Leadership**

ETP implementation benefited from the presence of committed leadership at all three HEIs in this study. Enthusiastic actors at the university leadership, senior administrator and senior faculty member levels have influenced the establishment and the shape of the programs. At the private institutions, personal action by the university presidents was central to the establishment of the programs. In both of these cases, the president was highly committed to promoting the internationalization of their university

and decided that they would like to establish degree programs in English before the opportunity for the G30 Project funding was announced. The funding was, as one administrator put it, “icing on the cake” (SAA<sub>1</sub>). At University A, the president continued to firmly shape the program by handpicking a committee to work on its initial development. The decision to develop the program in this way runs counter to the more traditional decision-making practices at Japanese universities where committee members would be selected by individual faculties in order to build consensus on university-level issues (Newby et al., 2009; Osaki, 1997). At University B, the faculties are relatively more autonomous, and the central leadership solicited cooperation from the faculty deans in order to initially conceptualize the program.

Support from the very top is valuable, especially, as in the case of the Global 30 Project, when outside funding for projects ends and finances for maintaining the programs must be found from special funds. However, it is at the senior administrator and senior faculty level that strong, committed leadership and support for ETPs is perhaps most instrumental. Implementers at this level appear vital to actually shaping the programs and ensuring their success. All three case-study institutions have experienced a change in president since the initial plans to implement the ETPs were drawn up, and at one of the three top-down support for internationalization has weakened. This has made maintaining the ETP more challenging as implementers grapple with internal politics, however with strong support at the senior administrator level, the program has persisted and grown. Implementers at one HEI noted that at their national institution, if faculty members do not agree with the university president’s policies, they are able to simply

vote him out of office at the next election cycle. Clearly, buy-in at this level is vital for the sustainability of the ETPs.

At this senior administrator/senior faculty level, the ETPs have been well received by the deans of the faculties, but at each institution, the actual development of the programs has largely fallen upon the one implementer who was asked to design the curriculum. The curriculum designers' personal views about who an ETP should serve, how it should be organized, and about what the outcomes of such a program should be along with their past experiences with regard to program development and involvement with international students are the major driving force behind the structure of the program.

The extent to which the curriculum designers' understandings then influence the implementation of the ETP depends somewhat on how the faculty members teaching on the program are recruited and how the vision for the program is communicated to those teaching staff. At University C, for example, the curriculum designer was charged with recruiting faculty members to teach on the program. This implementer built a core team of teaching staff who are passionate about the ETP and willing to spend time on its development. Furthermore, frequent core team meetings reinforce the curriculum designer's vision about the program. At the other universities, faculty members recruited to the ETP were approached by deans or professors in charge of the course, not by the curriculum designer, and so the vision for the ETP became less tightly controlled. In addition, the majority of the faculty members involved with the programs held positions in the faculty before the introduction of the ETP and therefore already had research and

committee responsibilities, resulting in them having less time available to devote to any ETP specific activities.

### **“It’s not about the Language”**

Many faculty members who have come into contact with one of the case-study ETPs, either because they teach or have been approached to teach on the program, foreground the role of the English language when they conceptualize and talk about the ETP. They are preoccupied with thoughts about the linguistic abilities of the students enrolled in the EMI courses and about the own English language skills of faculty teaching in the programs. They refer to faculty members who are deterred from becoming involved with the ETPs because of their perceptions about language, they cite satisfaction with their own linguistic abilities, and they note student frustrations which they assume arise because of language issues. This preoccupation is in some cases preventing engagement with the ETP, or with training that could improve the program. Faculty members are not focusing on the actual concerns that ETP students have with the programs and are not concentrating on the cultural and pedagogical aspects of the programs that could enable smoother implementation.

The weight given to the English language by these faculty members creates challenges in various areas of program implementation, from recruiting faculty members to teach on the ETPs, to creating coherent curricula, and to implementing faculty development programs. For example, universities have experienced some reluctance from faculty members to teaching in English because of the faculty members’ insecurities about their own linguistic abilities, their worries about the abilities of students and because of the inefficiencies of teaching in a second language when both professor and

student share a native language. This reluctance creates problems for curriculum designers who would like to develop programs with a greater number of EMI courses to provide sufficient choice and depth for students, but cannot recruit sufficient personnel to teach them.

Moreover, when faculty training that could help to improve the ETPs is provided, it is often not taken advantage of because of the general perception among faculty members that faculty development equals English language training. Faculty members in this study dismiss faculty development. They state that they feel comfortable with their English and so do not need to attend any training sessions. When informed of the fact that faculty development could involve training about how to deal with teaching mixed-ability classes, improving intercultural communication skills, or creating active classrooms, some faculty members in this study expressed surprise and acknowledged that it could be of benefit to them. Only native English speaking faculty members and those with backgrounds in linguistics and international student affairs recognized without prompting that faculty development could be a tool to build pedagogical skills.

In contrast to the faculty members, international education staff members are more open to the idea of development sessions. Although enthusiastic about chances to improve their English skills, they also understand, without prompting, that there is need for intercultural training. They cite a lack of time and opportunity as the main barriers to completing training. These staff members often have interactive relationships with international students, as the first point of contact when problems arise, and so are likely very aware of the importance of intercultural competence when dealing with students from other nations.

When ETP students take issue with their professors in the classrooms, most of the complaints concern the style of teaching and the structure of the lesson and course. Students complain about lessons that do not engage them because the professor is reading from a pre-written script, a newspaper or PowerPoint slides, or even simply displaying the information for students to read themselves. They are also frustrated when professors are not clear about the assignments and assessment policies for the course. While some of these problematic behaviors are no doubt grounded in the professors' worries about their own English abilities, they could all be somewhat resolved with attention to pedagogical and intercultural skills development. Previous research literature has concluded that pragmatic ability is of more importance than language proficiency when teaching EMI courses (see Tange, 2010).

In short, although the ETPs are taught in English, English is not the main focus of the programs. The focus is not on language ability, but on the delivery of content and the fostering of global competencies. Much of the content could be delivered successfully if there were shift in focus from concerns about English to concerns about the structural and cultural elements of the program. A focus on elements such as organized course outlines with syllabi and clear assessment policies, and pedagogic practices that take the emphasis away from the lecture skills of faculty members and listening skills of students to concentrate more on interactive discussion could set the programs up for success. It may be that linguistic deficiencies result in less content covered during a course, however the skills gained through the adoption of varied classroom approaches add value that complements the ETPs' goals.

## **Island Programs**

Another issue that affects the implementation of an ETP is its position, both physically and conceptually, within the university. The ETPs in the case-study institutions all experience some sort of isolation from other parts of the university and this creates various challenges. Physically, the programs at universities A and B are located on internationally-orientated campuses, away from the main undergraduate campuses. These locations have both advantages and disadvantages for the programs. The campuses are the ideal places to foster an international atmosphere that may more easily take root in a smaller environment. They attract domestic Japanese students who would like to study with international students, and high concentrations of international students can lead to the use of foreign languages in the corridors and student lounges. Furthermore, the campuses are self-contained with almost all necessary services, such as libraries and counseling centers available to students in one place, and infrastructure can easily be developed to cater for international students. For example, signs and menus are already provided in English at these campuses, and materials such as foreign language books can be housed easily in the libraries.

However, holding classes away from the central campus can also be problematic for the ETPs. When the faculties housing the ETP are located away from the campuses where the majority of undergraduate students take their classes, it is unlikely that students from other faculties will sign up for the EMI courses or have any casual interaction with ETP students. In addition, separate campuses mean that there are fewer possible EMI courses available to the ETP students. Various faculties throughout the universities run courses in English that would be available to ETP students as elective courses, but

students are unlikely to travel far to take them. Moreover, at satellite campuses there is also likely only a limited variety of student clubs that the ETP students would have easy access to. Student clubs are an important part of the university experience in Japan and limiting opportunities to access them creates a barrier to fulfilling interactions with students from different faculties.

The conceptual position of the ETP refers to the way that ETP implementers and others at the university perceive the program and the students and faculty members involved within it. University C suffers from what can be termed conceptual isolation. Despite being physically located in the same faculty as its counterpart JTP, and despite the classes being held in the same buildings as undergraduate classes from throughout the university, the ETP is different from and separate to other programs. Specifically, the core course structure and defined graduate attributes of the ETP set it apart from its counterpart JTP. Faculty members are conscious of the emergence of two academic cultures within their faculty and concerned about imposing different educational practices on the department. The core ETP faculty members thus feel different from others teaching in the same faculty. ETP program students are physically separated from JTP students in some classes, and many JTP students view them as outsiders, akin to visiting exchange students.

The ETP at University A also experiences some conceptual isolation. The students in this program are often referred to as ‘English Track’ students by faculty members, administrators and staff despite taking classes with JTP students. In contrast, program implementers at University B refer to the students all being the same, as students belonging to the faculty. This occurs despite the fact that University A’s ETP requires the

JTP students to study with the ETP students and therefore is arguably more integrated than the ETP at University B. This ‘othering’ of students possibly creates a division between students were essentially none exists, and may contribute towards feelings of segregation among students who would like to be thought of as regular University A students. In addition, the entire school of study in which the ETP at University A is located is viewed differently by people from other areas of the university. The school has been given the nickname “alien”, presumably due to its concentration of foreign students and number of courses taught in English. This moniker could be applied to the school wherever it were located, but it is surely reinforced because of the distant location of the campus.

All three of the universities are also implicitly promoting an islanding of their ETP through the ways they conceptualize and actualize accommodation for their students. Implementers at all universities referred to accommodation for their ETP students, either the existing accommodation, or the need for more accommodation, as *international student accommodation*. Only one implementer, an international education staff member, mentioned a need for more mixed international/domestic student housing. It runs contrary to expectation that programs designed to promote intercultural skills in their students would assume that international students should live apart from Japanese students. The ETP students have expressed their desires to live with their Japanese peers.

The isolation that the ETPs are experiencing at different levels and to different extents hampers the fulfilment of desires that program implementers may have for future expansion of the programs or for effecting wider change across the university. The ETPs in this study can be described as akin to the *innovative enclave* type of organization

innovation as described by Levine (1980). New HE programs and institutions are innovative enclaves when they are “separate from the mainstream of traditional campus activities” (Levine, 1980, p. 5). This type of innovation can constitute a laboratory for change if its practices are adopted throughout the HEI or involve a substantial number of people who participate in both the new enclave and the mainstream institutions of the university. However, as appears to be happening with the case-study ETPs, innovative enclaves can become isolated from the rest of the HEI, allowing an innovation to occur, without forcing organizational change throughout the rest of the HEI.

The isolation experienced by the case-study ETPs also echoes the concept of ‘Dejima-isation’ that was posited in early research literature about the G30 Project (Burgess et al., 2010). Specifically, Burgess et al. (2010, p. 470) stated that the ETPs were likely to isolate international students from their Japanese peers because EMI courses would likely prove too difficult for Japanese students. This is happening to some extent at the HEIs in this study, however, the type of Dejima-isation apparent in these case studies is much more structural and goes beyond classroom-level challenges. In this study, the Dejima-isation experienced also encompasses the ideas expressed by Whitsed and Volet (2010) and Whitsed and Wright (2011) relating to the outsider identities of adjunct foreign English-language teachers in Japanese universities.

### **Learning how to Recruit**

Student recruitment is another issue that affects multiple facets of the ETP implementation process. It creates challenges for program design, branding and marketing, and burdens untrained implementers, taking them away from their responsibilities to current ETP students. In this study, implementers at University B feel

that recruiting students to their ETP is particularly difficult, however all three HEIs are experiencing some challenges related to the issue. The universities in this study are top-tier institutions that, even in the face of Japan's declining population, remain oversubscribed at the undergraduate level and have never before had to actively recruit students. The ETPs are currently very small and all of the programs in this study are receiving sufficient applications to fulfil their quotas, however, universities A and B in particular are struggling to attract applicants of consistent quality, and all of the universities are seeking ways to enroll quality students when their top candidates turn them down – a new phenomenon for these elite universities. The universities would like to be able to choose from a deeper applicant pool.

As Japanese universities are relatively unknown overseas and the undergraduate ETPs have not yet graduated any students who could give testimony of the programs, the universities are finding that they have to actively recruit to attract students of the quality they would like. The implementers involved with the ETPs are trying to work out how to brand their programs in order to make them stand out from other ETPs in Japan and, simultaneously, they are thinking about why students should come to Japan to study in English rather than enrolling in a program in a native English-speaking country. Implementers with no branding or marketing experience are challenged to navigate this process.

As no student recruitment offices for the ETPs exist, this important task has become the responsibility of one or two implementers involved with the programs, usually those international education staff members on short-term contracts. These implementers are reaching out to their university alumni associations for introductions

and taking time to learn about high schools all over the world as possible sources of applicants. They are also responsible for finding out if the schools that applicants come from are reputable and for carrying out credential evaluation. The implementers have no formal training in how to do this and are working it out on the job. Implementers also make recruiting trips and take part in international recruitment fairs organized by JASSO or MEXT. They are often accompanied on these trips by faculty members who are able to explain the academics of the ETPs to potential applicants. These trips are valuable, but place a strain on ETPs that must balance the recruitment needs of the program with the needs of currently enrolled students as staff and faculty member absences during the semester are not ideal.

In addition to the more practical aspects of the recruitment process such as marketing and making connections with potential applicants, implementers feel that there are other recruitment barriers that are hindering the ETPs from growing. For example, a lack of accommodation and scholarships for ETP students prevents some from applying. Furthermore, some implementers are concerned that recruitment quotas may even be being used as an isolating tactic by the higher levels of the university. Small student quotas contain the program and prevent it from developing sufficient significance to impact the wider university. The complexities of developing a successful recruitment program is a significant barrier challenging the smooth implementation of the ETP.

### **The Means and the Ends**

Perhaps the most fundamental issue that affects the implementation of the ETPs is the clarification of outcomes and goals and a successful strategy for achieving those short- and long-term objectives. Since 2011, scholars of internationalization in HE have

lamented the conflation of the means and end goals of internationalization, stating that all too often specific activities such as more teaching in English and more international students on campus are carried out with little thought to their impact and outcomes (Brandenburg, 2011a; de Wit, 2011, 2013b, 2014; Knight, 2011a). This can be seen in the HEIs in this study. Implementers at these HEIs are able to articulate long-term goals for their ETPs, but have difficulties articulating clear strategies for achieving them.

Implementers at universities A and B explain that their institutions would like to create international environments within their faculties to help foster 21<sup>st</sup> century skills in students. However, the challenges which they describe as facing their ETPs result from a lack of clear strategy for the fostering of these skills in both the domestic Japanese and ETP students. The challenges they are experiencing uncover an assumption that the presence of international students on campus will internationalize both domestic students and ETP students without further intervention. This assumption affects the way that faculty members are recruited to the programs, the ways that students study together, the curricular coherence, the branding and marketing of the program, and creates supply and demand issues.

University C places more emphasis on the learning outcomes for its ETP students than do the other programs. However, in doing so has created challenges related to the program's position within its faculty and the university which are not compatible with the long-term goals of the program. If the program is to influence other programs to raise levels of educational accountability and quality assurance, and to contribute to an increase in scholars able to engage globally through research published in English as

would be expected given the program's rationales, then barriers which isolate the ETP from domestic students and non-ETP faculty members must be broken down.

Implementers at all three universities describe what is in effect a two-stage process for the implementation of their ETPs. The first stage, for universities A and B, involves the successful recruitment of quality ETP students to the programs, and in the case of University C, the achievement of ETP student learning outcomes. The second stage for universities A and B involves the creation of a study environment that nurtures in the students international skills, and for University C, involves the reform of standards in other areas of the university. Currently, the HEIs are all in stage one. However, implementers did not articulate the process through which they hope to reach stage two, and it is unclear as to whether strategies for achieving stage two are in place, or have even been considered.

An underlying theme that hinders the ETPs from moving from stage one to stage two in the process of implementation is that of communication, or rather lapses in communication. Knight (1999, 2004a, 2004b) notes that clear articulation of stakeholder rationales is important to ensure collaboration for successful implementation of any HE internationalization effort. In this study, implementers have been able to describe their personal rationales for their involvement with the ETP, and describe what they believe their universities' overall rationales for implementing the program are. However, a lack of communication between implementers prevents understanding of the 'why' of specific program elements. Specifically, this study has found instances when faculty members without pedagogical training question the use of syllabi or the presentation of learning objectives for a course, and those with no background in linguistics or language teaching

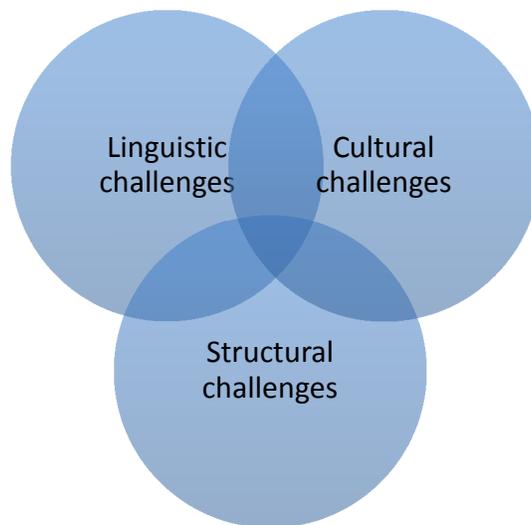
view faculty development for EMI courses as synonymous with English language training. Without smooth lines of communication between all those involved with the ETPs implementation, it is hardly surprising that the means and the ends of ETP implementation become blurred.

### **Implications for Theory**

Through its exploration of undergraduate ETPs, a new phenomenon in mainstream Japanese universities, this multiple-case study builds upon existing knowledge about ETPs and EMI more broadly and is able to offer new insights in the conceptualization of ETPs and EMI. Specifically it offers perspectives for the expansion of one of the practical constructs used in the conceptual framework of this study.

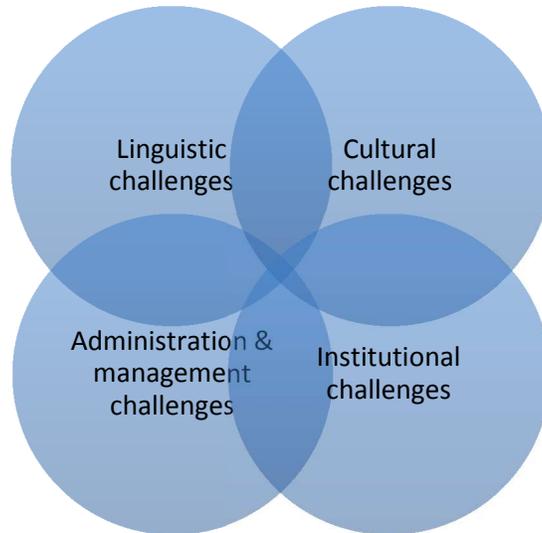
In a 2005 study detailing the dilemmas of short-term study abroad ETPs in Japan, Tsuneyoshi identified three types of challenges - linguistic, cultural, and structural challenges - that program implementers may face when implementing EMI. Linguistic challenges refer to the difficulties experienced when English is a foreign language for either and/or both the faculty members teaching on the programs and students enrolled in them. They include such things as student inability to take notes from academic texts (Hellekjær, 2010) and professors' reduced ability to use colloquial or accessible language in the classroom (Tange, 2010) and can result in reduced program quality and loss of confidence in faculty members' instructional abilities (Vinke, 2005). These challenges are perhaps the most immediately apparent and also those most often discussed in research studies about EMI. Cultural challenges are those related to the diverse student and teacher populations in the ETP which have different academic and social cultural norms. They include such things as difficulties arising from differences in contextual

background knowledge (Tange, 2010) and different learning traditions (Eaves, 2009). They can result in a loss of cultural texture in classroom lessons and student resistance to completing homework and assessment tasks. Finally, structural challenges are those related to the administration and management of the ETP. They include such things as the recruitment of teaching and administrative staff to the programs (e.g. Tella et al., 1999) and issues relating to assessment policies for entry into the programs (e.g. Hellekjær, 2010). They can result in reduced program coherence and ETP students unable to cope with the linguistic demands of the program. Figure 8 illustrates the typology of challenges facing ETPs as derived from Tsuneyohi's (2005) study and used in the analysis of data for this study. There is overlap among the three categories as they do not represent definitive demarcations between types of challenges.



*Figure 8.* Typology of Challenges Facing the Implementation of English-Taught Programs

The typology of linguistic, cultural and structural challenges derived from Tsuneyoshi's (2005) study was used as a framework for organizing the literature review and managing and analyzing the data in the current study. However, the data analysis revealed that the structural challenges were much more significant than the others in the case-study HEIs and covered a much broader range of issues than previously suggested. As a result, it was analytically helpful to divide structural challenges into two-subcategories: administration and management challenges and institutional challenges. Administration and management challenges include elements that are logistical in nature, including the provision of facilities and services. For example, challenges related to student recruitment and the provision of accommodation for ETP students are administration and management challenges. Institutional challenges relate to the constructed understandings of the ETP as an institution within the university, i.e. how it is perceived, how it relates organizationally to the rest of the university, and how it maintains its own standards. These challenges are less physical and pertain more to the way people, both those inside and outside of the ETP perceive the program. Challenges relating to the ETP's branding, its position within the university and faculty buy-in to the program are institutional challenges. The two subcategories carry so much weight for this study, that in the context of the three case-study HEIs and the undergraduate ETPs examined in this study, they should be considered on the same analytical level as linguistic and cultural challenges. The typology of challenges facing the implementation of ETPs is therefore better conceived with four elements. Figure 9 illustrates the typology of challenges facing undergraduate ETPs as reconceptualized by the current study.



*Figure 9. Reconceptualized Typology of Challenges Facing the Implementation of English-Taught Programs*

The reconceptualized typology of challenges facing the implementation of ETPs applies to the HEIs and programs in the context of this study. However, it could be an effective tool for exploring the implementation of ETPs in other contexts and should be validated through application to additional case-studies, both in the Japanese and non-Japanese contexts. Through developing a better understanding of the types of challenges that HEIs face when implementing new or improving existing ETPs, targeted improvements can be made to the programs in terms of practical application and also at the policy level.

### **Implications for Practice**

The results of this study also have practical implications for those involved with resourcing, planning, developing and implementing ETPs and EMI courses at HEIs in Japan. The thick description of the ETPs and their institutional contexts in this study provides opportunity for education practitioners to learn from the experiences of others,

determine the applicability of the results to their own institutional contexts and adapt and apply them as necessary. It may also enable practitioners in other national contexts to draw useful information from the results. The results highlighted several salient issues that are crucial for practitioners to consider in the implementation of undergraduate ETPs. It is from these that recommendations to inform better practice in the implementation of ETPs and EMI courses at HEIs in Japan are drawn.

This study has highlighted the necessity of outcomes and goals clarification in the implementation of ETPs, and of the articulation of the strategies which will enable the HEIs and ETPs to achieve those goals. Just as literature on HE internationalization has drawn attention to the conflation of the processes and end goals of internationalization (e.g. Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011), the approaches to and outcomes and goals of the ETPs have become confused in the programs in this study. It is unrealistic for HEIs to assume that the mere existence of an ETP and the presence of international students on campus will create the desired effects associated with the ETP rationales, i.e. establish an international environment, foster global skills in students, increase the prestige of the university, as are some of the rationales for ETP implementation in this study. Instead, HEIs must consider *how* the ETPs are going to achieve those goals. In other words, *what* learning outcomes do students need to achieve to enable the ETPs to reach those goals? And *how* will the conditions be set such that the goals are achieved?

The strategies chosen to realize outcomes and goals have implications for the design of the ETPs. Those involved with planning, developing and implementing ETPs should consider the level of integration that the ETP is expected to have with the existing program or programs in the same faculty and how it will fit in with other local

frameworks. This study has highlighted issues associated with physical and conceptual isolation, suggesting that ETPs may more successfully achieve their goals if the programs are located to allow ETP students to participate fully in university life, and that ETPs with greatly different identities from existing programs may experience cultural and institutional challenges. The study has also drawn attention to the central role that the curriculum designer plays in shaping the overall identity of the ETP, especially if this person also has the authority to recruit faculty members to the program. Therefore carefully selection of a curriculum designer with a vision closely aligned with the desired goals of the ETP is essential.

Consideration of strategies, outcomes and goals also has implications for the quantity of language and academic skills training offered to students. For example, if the ETP wishes to create an international environment and foster global skills in all of its students, as do programs in this study, then those enrolled in the existing domestic-language programs must be given sufficient English and academic skills support to enable them to participate in the EMI courses. Similarly, if the ETP expects its graduates to take up employment in the host nation, provision for sufficient host-nation language training must be made.

The results of this study have implications for the way that faculty members are supported to teach in the programs. ETPs may have more success in recruiting faculty members to their programs if they are able to offer faculty development sessions that focus on raising awareness of the pedagogical approaches appropriate to dealing with the diverse needs of students in EMI courses, and more importantly, if they are able to market the training in ways that shift emphasis and perception away from the English

language. The results found that ETPs encounter challenges regarding the recruitment of faculty members to teach on the programs and student complaints about professors teaching styles. They found that these challenges are often perceived as being linguistic, related to concerns about the English abilities of faculty members and students, and to the increased workload that teaching in a foreign language creates. In fact, these challenges are often cultural and institutional in nature and perhaps could be resolved through pedagogical and intercultural skills development training (e.g. Ball & Lindsay, 2013). Faculty members in the current study too often perceive the faculty development offered by their HEIs as English language training and so do not look upon it favorably, especially when they already feel comfortable with their own linguistic abilities.

It is noted that faculty development sessions are time-consuming and not always welcomed by faculty members who would rather be spending time on their research rather than teaching (as do many professors in Japan, see Daizen & Yamamoi, 2008), and so future faculty development sessions could be framed with an emphasis on the personal benefits they bring to the participants. This study found that faculty members teaching in the ETPs are often doing so because of the personal benefit they can derive from the programs. If training sessions can also offer participants opportunity to present and share their research and prepare them for participation in international conferences, they may be able to garner support from faculty members and at the same contribute to increasing the international outlook of the faculty.

The results of this study also have implications for the student recruitment process and the professionalization of international education administration at Japanese universities. The elite universities in this study are all very popular among domestic

students and are oversubscribed at the undergraduate level, therefore they do not have experience of actively recruiting students. Thus, the ETPs present a new challenge for these HEIs as they seek to brand themselves effectively and market their programs to international students. This study found that many of the student recruitment procedures often become the task of international education staff members on short-term contracts who have no prior training or experience in student recruitment, not to mention international student recruitment.

There is a need for more organized and professionalized student recruitment, and with increasing numbers of Japanese HEIs implementing ETPs, both those which received and those which did not receive Global 30 Project funding, this need will continue to grow. Program implementers in this study suggested provision for more inter-university collaboration on issues of recruitment. Presently, the G30 HEIs have opportunities to attend Global 30 education fairs organized by MEXT and G30 partner universities, in addition to other international education fairs organized by JAFSA and JASSO. Program implementers use these occasions to informally share ideas about best practices. There are also professional development workshops and seminars organized by JAFSA for staff dealing with international issues at their HEIs. However, as noted in an earlier study (Watabe, 2010), Japan trails other nations in the development of the professional field of HE international education and exchange. Therefore, more must be done by the Japanese government, HEIs and professional organizations in the field of international education (such as JAFSA in Japan, NAFSA in the U.S. and EAIE in Europe) to share expertise and promote the professionalization of the field in Japan, if ETPs and the overall internationalization effort is going to be successful.

Related to the issue of the student recruitment is the issue of infrastructure for ETP students. Student scholarships and accommodation in particular are of great concern to students from overseas and are enquired about often at student recruitment fairs. Program implementers in this study state that they have lost potential students because they cannot offer sufficient scholarships or provide accommodation. Indeed, student services is an area where all of the ETPs in this study have not met their published aims. This is particularly worrying as “enhancing the support and services for international students in the universities” is listed as the second action plan (after “increasing the number of English-medium courses”) of MEXT’s Global 30 Project (MEXT, 2009a) and is therefore integral to its successful completion. Given these concerns, it is important to ensure that ETPs receive all necessary resources if they are to reach their optimal performance.

### **Key Insights and Recommendations for Policy and Practice**

Although the ETPs in this study are in their early stages of implementation and the institutions in which they are situated are not representative of all Japanese HEIs, several key insights and recommendations can be drawn from this study. These insights provide policy makers, administrators, faculty members and international education professionals involved in the internationalization of HE with information useful for planning future internationalization policy initiatives and international programs in Japan.

*Key insight 1: Program implementer rationales for implementing ETPs are focused on developing the international competencies of and raising educational quality for domestic Japanese students.*

This study shows that ETP program implementer rationales are grounded in increasing the competitiveness of Japanese HE for the benefit of domestic Japanese students and focus on the development of their international competencies. This contrasts with the criticism that Japanese government policy has received for simply focusing on increasing the number of international students in Japan to boost economic competitiveness and to strengthen Japanese identity under the guise of internationalization efforts. The implementer rationales in these social science programs align with current national HE policies, but have roots in an intrinsic desire to prioritize the needs of domestic students. They suggest that as Japanese HEIs continue to internationalize, the institutions appear unlikely to forego the needs of domestic students.

*Key insight 2: ETPs may be more effective if implementers are able to clearly state the programs' outcomes and goals and articulate strategies for achieving them.*

ETP implementers at the case-study HEIs are able to articulate long-term goals for their ETPs, but have difficulties articulating clear strategies for achieving them. HEIs and program implementers should consider *how* the ETPs are going to achieve the desired effects associated with ETP rationales. In other words, *what* learning outcomes do students need to achieve to enable ETPs to reach those goals? And *how* will the conditions be set such that the goals are achieved? These considerations have implications for program design, including the for the level of integration the ETP is

expected to have with existing programs and for the quantity of language and academic skills training offered to students.

*Key insight 3: Committed leadership aids the smooth implementation of ETPs and influences program characteristics.*

ETP implementation benefited from the presence of strong university leadership at all three HEIs in this study. Support from the very top of the HEI is valuable for the initial development of ETPs. However, program implementers at the senior administrator/senior faculty level are instrumental in shaping the programs and communicating a vision for the ETP to others at the university. Careful selection of a key program implementer with a vision aligned with the desired goals of the ETP is crucial as ETP characteristics are strongly influenced by the understandings and prior experiences of the key program implementer responsible for curriculum design.

*Key insight 4: ETPs should carefully consider the level of integration they wish to achieve with existing programs at their HEI.*

The case-study HEIs demonstrated two distinct program designs, one that integrates the ETP into an existing JTP and expects the same standards and outcomes, and one that runs in parallel to an existing JTP and sets its own standards and outcomes. Both designs have pros and cons for the implementation of the ETP. Integrated programs are more easily accepted by others at the HEI and they experience fewer institutional challenges.

However, in integrated programs, program coherence surfaces as an issue. Parallel programs, on the other hand, have more freedom to create a structured program where

courses build upon each other to promote desired outcomes. However, their differences with existing programs may promote dual cultures within academic departments.

*Key insight 5: Structural challenges are the most significant obstacles to program implementation.*

Although linguistic and cultural challenges were experienced by program implementers in the case-study HEIs, structural challenges were the most prevalent and most difficult to overcome in these newly developed programs. In particular, HEIs struggle with challenges related to program coherence and expansion, student recruitment, and program identity. Overcoming structural challenges often requires cooperation from others outside of the ETP and therefore requires effort and investment from those who may not understand the program goals and may be resistant to change.

*Key insight 6: When conceptualizing ETPs and EMI, structural challenges should be thought of in terms of two categories: administration and management challenges, and institutional challenges.*

The prominence and diversity of structural challenges affecting ETPs in this study has led to the re-conceptualization of this group of challenges. *Administration and management* challenges refer to difficulties related to logistical elements of the ETPs such as the provision of facilities and services. *Institutional* challenges refer to those related to the constructed understandings of the ETP as an institution within the university. This has implications for targeting improvements to ETPs and for anticipating difficulties in the development of future programs.

*Key insight 7: ETPs may be better able to achieve their goals if they are physically located to allow ETP students to participate fully in university life.*

If ETPs are located where the majority of students study, a greater number of EMI courses will be available to the ETP students as students will be able to take courses in various co-located faculties. In addition, there will be more non-ETP students likely to take advantage of ETP courses. Furthermore, when ETP and non-ETP students study together on the same campus, there is more opportunity for casual interaction, student club participation, and increased exposure to international environments. When physically isolated, the value of the ETP as a force for internationalization is greatly reduced.

*Key insight 8: ETPs with different identities from existing programs may experience conceptual isolation and institutional challenges.*

ETPs that are perceived as being different from existing programs at the university, especially in terms of academic culture and course structure, may experience difficulties in facilitating interaction between those involved and not involved in the ETP because of the extra effort and cultural understanding involved. This could affect the success of achieving program goals such as future program expansion and effecting wider change across the university.

*Key insight 9: The perceived centrality of the English language to the ETPs creates challenges for the programs.*

Although ETPs are taught in English, English is not the main focus of the programs. ETPs focus on the delivery of content and on the fostering of international and global competencies. Challenges to program implementation are often perceived as being related to the poor English linguistic abilities of students or faculty members, when in fact they may be better overcome with attention paid to the cultural and structural elements of the program, such as a focus on organized course outlines or pedagogic practices that cater to diverse learners. This insight has implications for the way that faculty members are supported to teach on the programs.

*Key insight 10: ETPs present new challenges to Japanese universities with regard to student recruitment.*

ETPs attract students who have a choice of degree programs worldwide, and are discerning when it comes to choosing a program of best fit for themselves. However, elite Japanese universities are not experienced in recruiting undergraduate students to their institutions. Japanese HEIs with ETPs must therefore carefully brand and market themselves to attract the most able students. Appropriate marketing includes the provision of adequate infrastructure to meet ETP students' needs. This insight has implications for the organization and professionalization of international education administration at Japanese universities and for funding for the provision of student services.

Based on these key insights, recommendations for policy makers, administrators, faculty members and international education professionals involved in the internationalization of HE are provided:

*Recommendations for policy makers*

Policy makers seeking to establish new initiatives focusing on improving the international outlook of Japanese HE should take note of fact that implementers in Japanese HEIs involved with ETPs focus on developing the competencies of and educational quality for their domestic students. This indicates that funding targeted towards domestic students would be well-received by HEIs and that future policy initiatives focusing on improving the international outlook of universities will find the greatest buy-in when they include provisions for these students.

*Recommendations for administrators and faculty members*

Those at HEIs which intend to embark upon or expand their EMI programming should consider how they will involve both international and domestic students in their plans. They should also pay significant attention to the exact nature of the outcomes for their students and overall goals of their initiatives and draw up clear strategies of how to achieve them. The program implementer responsible for the design and oversight of the program should be selected based on their prior experiences with international programming and visions for the program. Furthermore, it would be appropriate for this implementer to have both the tenacity and flexibility to deal with institutional challenges that require the communication of a clear vision for the program and cooperation from others outside of the program. Finally, faculty members may be better able to teach on

ETPs of they are supported through advice and training regarding the cultural and structural rather than linguistic elements of the programs.

#### *Recommendations for international education staff*

International education staff within Japanese HEIs should take note of not only the administration and management challenges, but also the institutional challenges that international programs face. These staff members hold positions which enable them to contribute to the breaking down of institutional barriers as they communicate with other administrative offices within the HEIs and can relay the program's vision to those unsure of its aims. These staff members should also pay attention to the particular difficulties involved in recruiting international students to Japanese HEIs and marketing Japan as an international study destination as addressing these challenges requires specialized skills training not currently in great supply.

#### **Recommendations for Future Research**

This study sought to provide insights into how and why social science undergraduate ETPs are being implemented at mainstream Japanese universities. These insights could be of practical use for other institutions as they also seek to implement or improve ETPs or EMI courses. They may also be of value for policymakers seeking to understand how their initiatives are being implemented in HEIs. For academics, the study has implications for the theoretical understanding of internationalization in higher education contexts. However, the data analysis and results of this study also lead to several recommendations for future research.

The study purposefully selected cases that had received a large government grant for the implementation of ETPs and therefore fulfilled the selection criteria for this funding. This resulted in case-study HEIs comprising three elite universities with healthy domestic student populations which, according to Kudo and Hashimoto's 2011 model of approaches to international engagement, would all be classified as 'global' universities. Therefore, future studies should conduct research with different types of universities in Japan in order to determine the transferability of the results to institutions of different sizes with different funding sources, different student populations and different outlooks towards internationalization. Non-G30, non-elite HEIs may demonstrate different, more financially motivated rationales for implementing ETPs, as suggested in the literature (e.g. Rivers, 2010), and develop different characteristics and may therefore experience different challenges.

Similarly, the ETPs selected for exploration all had a social science disciplinary focus. This delimitation was set to limit the effects of the inevitable internationalization that occurs in scientific fields. In other words, scholars in these fields have historically had more opportunity for international research collaboration and publish more frequently in the English language. Those in the social sciences in Japan are more recently encountering these opportunities, and therefore, may be experiencing greater challenges transitioning to ETPs. This may be particularly visible where concerns regarding finding sufficient teaching staff to ensure program coherence and expansion arise. The discipline of the ETP also has implications for the rationales for program introduction. It may be that the implementer desire to foster international competencies in their students found in this study is a function of the subject of the ETP and that those

involved with hard science programs are more interested in scientific and economic competition and innovation. Future studies should examine these possibilities.

Some of the most striking differences between ETPs in this study, including the distinctions between program designs, occurred between Universities A and B, and University C. Universities A and B are both private institutions, and University C is national. This study assumes that the differences in design are influenced more strongly by the understandings and experiences of the implementer with the greatest responsibility for developing the curriculum, rather than by the status of the university. However, the study does not provide enough information to make that assumption with certainty. Therefore it is necessary to examine more universities, both private and national to assess if these differences were a product of the HEI's status or due to other idiosyncrasies. This may be especially helpful as national institutions are more conservative and less nimble than private institutions (Yaguchi & Seaton, 2014). The inclusion of more universities with ETPs of varying disciplines in future studies about ETPs in Japan would provide a more robust picture of the implementation of the programs.

Other suggestions for future research are based on the fact that the results of this study are focused on the perspectives of program implementers within the ETPs. The focus on program implementers in aggregate may have led to an over-emphasis on structural challenges in this study. A future study with a larger participant pool and results segregated by job-type may yield more nuanced results. The implementers in the current study provided viewpoints about why they and others choose or do not choose to become involved with the ETPs and about their behaviors inside the classroom. Future studies should examine the views of those who chose not to be involved in the programs.

In studies involving international education, it is often more difficult to obtain the perspectives of those not involved or unenthusiastic about international practices as they are less inclined to agree to participate in the studies. However, including the views of those people less passionate about international educational practices strengthens the accuracy of results and provides information about what would encourage more people to participate. The inclusion of perspectives from a wider range of people at HEIs which are implementing ETPs would also overcome the limitations related to the diversity and positive orientations of participants towards ETPs reported in this study. In addition, future studies should adopt a study design that includes direct classroom observation in order to achieve a better understanding of actual classroom behaviors rather than relying on implementer accounts of their behaviors.

Program implementers in this study also offered information about student attitudes towards the ETPs. Although this information is valuable to understand why implementers might experience and respond to certain challenges, logically, student attitudes should be analyzed after asking the students themselves. Future research regarding the implementation of and the challenges faced by ETPs in Japan should also focus on the perspectives of the students enrolled on the programs and on the perspectives of those studying on the JTP within the same faculty.

This exploratory qualitative study centered on the ETPs at only three HEIs, yet was broad in its content focus. With that, it provides a jumping off point for further exploration of the many issues raised by ETP implementers. For example, a qualitative or quantitative survey design could be used to examine the applicability of the current results to other universities in Japan. This study draws attention to two different program

designs and a survey could investigate whether these two design are indicative of other ETP designs in Japan.

This study also found that institutional challenges play a large role in affecting the implementation of ETPs. Future studies could delve further into the issue of institutional challenges to find out why, for example, Japanese HEIs may experience difficulties in adopting programs that embody international academic standards. A deeper understanding of institutional challenges would also aid understanding of program sustainability, an issue not addressed by the current study. In addition, as the ETPs mature, it is possible that the challenges they face will evolve and perhaps mirror the challenges discussed in Northern Europe with more concern directed to linguistic abilities and issues surrounding program entry and exit competencies. Future research may seek to explore how implementation challenges evolve over time. A further avenue of research could focus on the learning outcomes of the ETPs for both ETP and JTP students and examine the utility of the ETPs for gaining employment in Japan or internationally.

### **English-taught Programs and Internationalization Policy at the *Genba***

As Japanese HEIs seek to become more domestically and internationally competitive in today's global HE market, they are expanding and strengthening their international activities. As part of this trend, many institutions are currently introducing undergraduate degrees taught exclusively through the English language. Research has shown that difficulties exist in implementing ETPs in non-Anglophone countries, yet in Japan, studies in the English language focusing on the implementation of EMI are few and concern only short-term and graduate programs. In order to better understand how and why ETPs are being implemented at Japanese universities, this multiple-case study

explored undergraduate ETPs, specifically four-year social science programs funded as part of the 2009 Global 30 Project, in three Japanese universities and investigated the challenges faced at the *genba* in implementing the programs. In other words, it analyzed new ETP implementation from the perspectives of those involved with the process within the institutions.

The literature about ETPs and EMI demonstrated that ETPs can differ in their rationales for implementation and in their design and characteristics, and so, experience different types of challenges and inspire varied responses to those challenges. Therefore, to understand the context of ETPs in Japan, a multiple-case study design was used to examine and provide thick description of the ETPs at the universities in this study. The study suggested a more positive picture of undergraduate ETP implementation than early literature about Japan's Global 30 Project conveyed. The rationales for implementing ETPs at the case-study HEIs are in line with current Japanese national policy and grounded in a desire to increase competitiveness. Furthermore, this desire is focused more on developing the international competencies of domestic Japanese students than suggested in previous literature about Japan's ETPs. The study identified two program designs and analysis indicated that these designs are influenced more by the understandings and prior experiences of key program implementers than by specific program rationales. The designs are oriented towards a mix of international and Japanese students in the same classrooms, creating a more inclusive learning environment than earlier analysis feared. However, the articulation of a clear strategy for achieving program goals of fostering international skills in all students is yet to be realized by the

programs in this study, and concerns about the suitability of the ETPs for promoting the eventual employment of international students in Japan exist.

Structural challenges were found to be the most significant obstacles to program implementation at the case-study institutions. In particular, the HEIs in this study struggle with issues relating to program coherence and expansion, student recruitment and program identity. In fact, the structural challenges are so prominent that the typology proposed in the conceptual framework was insufficient for fully describing them and the study put forward a revised typology that included challenges related to the constructed understandings of the ETPs as an institution within the university. The actions that program implementers have taken in responses to challenges have largely consisted of those tackling linguistic and cultural difficulties in the classroom, and smaller programmatic structural challenges, with little movement made on those challenges that affect the university more broadly.

Five salient elements that play an important role in the implementation of all of the case-study ETPs were also identified by the study. These comprise the presence of committed leadership, implementer orientation regarding the English language, the position of the program within its HEI, student recruitment, and the clarification of outcomes and goals. Consideration of these elements in the resourcing, planning and development of undergraduate ETPs could enable smoother implementation in the Japanese context. However, it must be recognized that the ETPs are still in the early stages of development, and the issues facing their implementation are likely to evolve as they mature.

Although the Global 30 Project exceeded its goals in terms of the number of new ETPs and in the catalyst effect that it has had on other non-G30 institutions implementing ETPs and EMI, the undergraduate ETPs remain small. Given the prevalence of structural challenges, both administration and management, and institutional, in these early stages of implementation, it appears unlikely that the ETPs will be able to expand rapidly enough for them to have a great impact on fulfilling the Global 30 Project's mission of enabling Japan to meet its international student goal as outlined by MEXT in 2009. Specifically, Japan is unlikely to host 300,000 international students by 2020. Six years, after the announcement of the 300,000 International Students Plan in 2008, the number of international students in Japan has only grown to 135,519 (JASSO, 2014c).

Despite the small immediate impact of the ETPs, funding and effort focused on ETPs and internationalization is still ongoing in Japan. The most recent government initiative focused on the internationalization of Japanese HE, the Top Global University Project (*Sūpā Gurōbaru Daigaku Sōsei Shien*), funds 13 universities to seek top positions in world university rankings and 24 HEIs to continue to improve their current internationalization efforts (MEXT, 2014). In addition to public funding for internationalization, there is also private sector support, including a working group established by the Japan Business Federation (*Keidanren*). This working group advocates the nurturing of globally-competent individuals through HE reforms. As HEIs continue to strengthen their ETPs and EMI courses, the results of this study will provide valuable direction for policy makers and implementers at the *genba* responsible for ensuring the success of this critical line of effort to secure Japan's position as a top-tier global education destination.

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Appendix A: Kudo and Hashimoto's Categorical Model of University Internationalization

	Rationales for international engagement	Missions/visions for intl'tion	Special funds for intl'tion available	Concern with global ranking	Use of EMI	Engagement in transnational programs	Priority in accepting international students
Global	Research/entrepreneurship	o	o	o	o	≥	PG>UG
Innovative	(Niche strategies)						
a) Field-specific	Uniqueness	o	o	x	≥	≥	≥
b) Intercultural	Intl'ism	o	o	x	o	x	PG<UG
Ad-hoc	Unclear	≥	x	x	≥	x	PG<UG
Pseudo-international	Fulfilling quota	x	x	x	x	x	PG<UG
No international	Unnecessary	x	x	x	x	x	Almost nil

o: Yes, x: No, ≥: Depends on faculties/institutions, PG: Postgraduate, UG: Undergraduate  
 Source: Adapted from Kudo and Hashimoto, 2011 p. 350

## Appendix B: Overview of EMI Program Rationales, Students and Long-term Goals for Certain European Countries in 1999/2000

Country	Rationale for implementation	Type of student enrolled	Long-term goal
Austria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To gain a greater share in the international academic market (attracting international students)</li> <li>• To increase the international competence of domestic students and faculty</li> </ul>	Mainly international, but domestic students are able to participate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To attract more international students</li> <li>• To raise the international competence of domestic students and faculty</li> </ul>
Belgium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Trend of internationalization (attracting international students)</li> <li>• To broaden the cultural horizons of domestic students (the two rationales usually function separately)</li> </ul>	Mostly international. Some programs target domestic students specifically	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To integrate the two streams</li> </ul>
Bulgaria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The need to go international, both individually and institutionally</li> </ul>	Mostly domestic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To establish better standards of education</li> </ul>
Czech Republic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To attract fee-paying foreign students</li> <li>• (Implicit) To forge contacts with developing countries</li> </ul>	International	
Denmark	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To attract international students to enrich the lives of domestic students</li> <li>• To create international links to enhance the reputation of domestic HEIs</li> </ul>	International and domestic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To increase international links and scholarship</li> </ul>
Estonia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To strengthen ties with the West</li> <li>• To open up internationally</li> <li>• To promote educational services worldwide</li> </ul>	International and domestic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To increase international contacts</li> <li>• To increase the linguistic competencies of domestic faculty and students for globalization</li> </ul>
Finland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To influence domestic students' attitudes, capabilities and skills to prepare them for the international society and workplace</li> <li>• To improve the quality and effectiveness of education and to diversify the supply</li> <li>• To increase international students to strengthen Finland's contacts</li> </ul>	International and domestic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To make Finland a fully capable player in the "Global Village"</li> </ul>
France	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The ERASMUS program</li> </ul>	Mostly international. Some programs target domestic students specifically	

Country	Rationale for Implementation	Type of student enrolled	Long-term goal
Germany	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To make German universities accessible as Germany is losing its share of international students to English speaking countries</li> <li>To give domestic students the opportunity to improve their English</li> </ul>	Mostly domestic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To increase the visibility of German universities</li> <li>To stress the importance of the German language for international relations through its incorporation into EMI programs</li> </ul>
Hungary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To intensify its international scientific and scholarly contacts</li> <li>To strengthen economic contacts</li> <li>To prevent linguistic isolation</li> </ul>	Mostly domestic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To increase international contacts in science, scholarship and to promote economic exchanges</li> </ul>
The Netherlands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Economic survival</li> </ul>	International and domestic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>More international cooperation with foreign HEIs</li> </ul>
Norway	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Economic (attracting international students)</li> <li>To improve the variety and quality of programs</li> </ul>	Mostly international but also many domestic students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To make programs more appealing to domestic students</li> </ul>
Poland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To strengthen ties with the West, and also Asia</li> <li>To attract international students</li> <li>To prepare domestic students and faculty for globalization</li> </ul>	Mostly domestic	
Slovakia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To establish international links</li> <li>To increase standards in education</li> <li>To increase mobility of students</li> <li>To increase outside funding</li> </ul>	International. Some programs target domestic students specifically	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To establish more programs</li> </ul>
Slovenia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To intensify student exchanges</li> <li>To increase international contacts</li> </ul>	International	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To facilitate the countries integration into the EU</li> </ul>
Sweden	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To avoid academic isolation</li> <li>To increase the international outlook of domestic students</li> </ul>	International and domestic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To attract more international contacts</li> </ul>

Countries which were included in the study, but had no full EMI programs were Croatia, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain and Switzerland.

Source: compiled from information in Ammon & McConnell, 2002

## Appendix C: Challenges in Implementing EMI

Challenge	Challenge reported in?	In Japan?
<b>LINGUISTIC CHALLENGES</b>		
Inadequate language skills of domestic faculty	Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, China, The Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Hungary, South Korea, The Netherlands, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden	Yes
Inadequate language skills of domestic students	Belgium, Bulgaria, China, The Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, South Korea, The Netherlands, Norway, Sweden	Yes
Inadequate proficiency of international students in host language	*	Yes
Inadequate English proficiency of international students	*	Yes
Loss of confidence in teaching staff among local students	The Netherlands	No
Lack of interaction between professors and students	South Korea	No
<b>CULTURAL CHALLENGES</b>		
Ideological objections arising from a perceived threat to cultural identity and the status of the native language	Austria, Denmark, Finland, Germany, South Korea, The Netherlands, Poland, Sweden	No
Failure of international students to adapt to new academic culture	Denmark	Yes
Inability of foreign English-speaker faculty to adapt to non-native English speaking students	*	Yes
Failure to adapt among local students	*	No
Lack of cultural integration of international students	Belgium	Yes
Inadequate pedagogical skills of faculty	Denmark, Finland, France, Hungary, Spain, Sweden	Yes
<b>STRUCTURAL CHALLENGES</b>		
Problems introducing assessments for native and/or non-native English speakers	Norway, The Netherlands	Yes
Unwillingness of local faculty to teach through English	Finland, South Korea	Yes
Rising teacher workload	Austria, The Netherlands	Yes
Uniformity and availability of teaching materials	Austria, Finland, The Netherlands, Slovakia	No
Motivating faculty to attend support classes	Sweden	Yes
Lack of supply and trouble retaining foreign faculty	Bulgaria, France, Estonia, Slovakia	Yes
Organizational problems and administrative infrastructure	Belgium, South Korea	Yes
Lack of interest from local students	The Czech Republic, Norway	No
Lack of critical mass of international students	Finland, The Netherlands, Slovakia	Yes
Financing international students where no fees exist	Norway	No
Financing international students from poorer countries where fees do exist	*	No
Ghettoization of students	*	Yes

\* Challenge has been reported in the literature, but no information corresponding to the countries experiencing this problem has been found.

## Appendix D: Interview Guide

I will begin the meeting by introducing myself, presenting my business card, and making the participant feel comfortable. I will give some background information about myself, and will then explain the purpose of the research and how I came to be interested in the topic. Next, I will review the consent form with the participant and ask them to sign it. I will also ask their permission to record the interview and assure the participant of anonymity.

I will thank the participant for taking part in the study and will explain how the interview will proceed. A statement to this effect will be used: “I have prepared some questions to guide our conversation today, however, I don’t intend for our meeting to be a traditional interview in the sense that I ask a series of questions for you to respond to with short answers. I am most interested in learning about your experiences with and perspectives about the English-taught programs (ETPs) at your institution. I’ll ask you for as much detail as you are comfortable with and I may at times ask you for clarification. Please feel free to ask any questions of me as we go along.”

### Personal Background:

1. May I ask you where you are from?  
Possible probes: length of time in Japan/Tokyo
2. Can you tell me about your international experiences?  
Possible probes: living abroad, studying abroad, country where degrees were awarded, involvement with international students
3. Would you describe yourself as an internationally orientated person?  
Possible probes: in what way
4. Can you tell me about your role at the university?  
Possible probes: involvement with the undergraduate ETPs, employment before involvement with ETPs, involvement with other programs, length of time at this university, background preparation for involvement in ETP, comfort in working in English, requisite language skills

Characteristics of the ETP:

5. Can you tell me about the ETP that you work in?  
Possible probes relating to curriculum: required classes, number of koma (classes) per week, types and number of electives, language requirements in the program, entry requirements, requisite English level of students, provisions to learn about Japanese culture  
Possible probes relating to other aspects of the structure: campus location of ETP, opportunities for domestic and international students to mix, plans to change the program in the future
6. Who teaches in the ETP?  
Possible probes: Japanese/foreign faculty, new hires/long-time faculty, people with an interest in international education
7. Can you tell me about the students enrolled on the ETP?  
Possible probes: international/domestic, number in a class, English level, behavior, successes/difficulties in teaching them
8. I'd like to get your thoughts on the student services offered to the students enrolled on the ETPs.  
Possible probes: services offered, sufficient, student use, staff problems

Rationales for the ETP:

9. Were you involved in any of the decision making processes that resulted in the adoption of ETPs at this institution? Can you tell me about those discussions?  
Possible probes: rationales that were discussed by planning committee or in focus groups, contact with MEXT
10. What objectives do you have in working in/with this ETP?  
Possible probes: to help improve English skills of domestic students, to provide an international environment to international/domestic students, to help improve international outlook of your HEI, to attract international students, to generate income for your institution
11. What does the implementation of ETPs mean for your institution?  
Possible probes: increase in domestic/international rankings, increased income, more internationalized domestic students

12. What do you see as your institution's reasons for adopting ETPs? - please rank the following rationales in order of relative importance to your institution:
- a. To secure the research base of your institution by attracting future PhD students
  - b. To counterbalance a lack of enrollment of domestic students
  - c. To attract international students who would not enroll in a program taught in Japanese
  - d. To attract foreign students as a future highly qualified work force for Japan
  - e. To make domestic students 'fit' for global or international labor markets
  - f. To provide high level education for students from the Third World as a possible means of development aid
  - g. To sharpen the profile of your institution in comparison to others in the country
  - h. To enable specialized courses to run despite insufficient numbers of domestic students
  - i. To improve the income base of your institution through revenue from tuition fees paid by foreign students

(source: Wächter & Maiworm, 2008)

#### Implementation Challenges:

13. How would you describe the progress of the implementation of ETPs at your university?  
Possible probes: excellent/good/satisfactory/not so good, specific examples
14. What personal frustrations or challenges associated with the ETPs have you experienced?  
Possible probes: Change in teaching practices, intercultural communication problems/linguistic difficulties, increase in workload
15. What would you say has been the most difficult aspect of working in this ETP?  
Possible probes: linguistics challenges, cultural challenges, structural challenges, outside pressures
16. What would you say has been the easiest aspect of working in this ETP?  
Possible probes: characteristics of the program, types of students

17. If a colleague from another university that was interested in setting up or working on an ETP, how would you advise them?  
Possible probes: how would you describe the experience of working in an ETP

Practical responses to the ETP:

18. Has any type of training or adjustment to your schedule been offered to you to help you work successfully in the ETP?  
Possible probes: language, intercultural communication, pedagogical, assessment, course release, exemption from duties
19. If extra training were to be offered, what type of training would you like to receive?  
Possible probes: language, intercultural communication, pedagogical, assessment
20. How have you sought to overcome obstacles in the ETP?  
Possible probes: employ native English speakers, teach in a mix of languages, group students in class based on ability

Comparisons with official documentation:

21. How do you think the ETPs fit with your university/department's officially defined mission?  
Possible probes: outline the mission for the participants
22. Do you think your university has an international outlook?  
Possible probes: please explain

Concluding questions:

23. Do you have anything else that you would like to add or clarify?
24. Are there any questions that you would like to ask me?
25. Can I contact you again if I need more information or need to clarify anything from your interview?

Appendix E: Credibility Matrix

What do I need to know? (Research Questions)	Why do I need to know this? (Goals)	What kind of data will answer the questions? (Methods)	Analysis Plans	Threats to credibility	Strategies for dealing with credibility threats	Rationale for strategies
RQ 1: What do program implementers see as the characteristics of, rationales for, implementation challenges, and practical responses to the undergraduate English-taught degree programs at their institutions?	As undergraduate ETPs are a new phenomenon in mainstream Japanese universities and the challenges faced in their implementation have not been investigated. The perspectives of three groups of implementers help to gain a holistic picture of the implementation of ETPs	Semi-structured interviews with senior administrators, faculty and international education support staff	Descriptive, topic and analytical coding, identify individual and cross-case themes, develop matrices	<p>Researcher bias influencing the direction of the interview</p> <p>Researcher bias influencing the interpretation of interviews</p> <p>Reactivity – the participants may feel obligated to repeat government or institutional rationales, or provide evidence of challenges were none exist</p> <p>Reactivity – participants may not want to</p>	<p>Reflective journal</p> <p>Member checks</p> <p>Use of an open-ended interview guide</p> <p>Researcher familiarity with the topic</p>	<p>Enables researcher to engage with and monitor subjectivities</p> <p>Respondent validation rules out misinterpretation of participant views</p> <p>Open-ended, non-leading questions may minimize indications of researcher bias and expectations and enable personal perspectives of participants to emerge</p> <p>Rapport created through familiarity may</p>

				describe challenges to an outsider, or may feel obligated to provide evidence of proactive responses where none exist		make participants feel comfortable talking about challenges and their responses to them
RQ 2: How do program implementers explain and make sense of the characteristics of, rationales for, implementation challenges, and practical responses to the undergraduate English-taught degree programs at their institutions?	An understanding of how program implementers explain and make sense of the ETPs will offer perspectives on why programs may have developed certain characteristics	Semi-structured interviews with senior administrators, faculty and international education support staff	Descriptive, topic and analytical coding, identify individual and cross-case themes, develop matrices	<p>Researcher bias influencing the direction of the interview</p> <p>Researcher bias influencing the interpretation of interviews</p> <p>Reactivity – the participants may feel obligated to repeat government or institutional rationales, or provide evidence of challenges were none exist</p>	<p>Reflective journal</p> <p>Member checks</p> <p>Use of an open-ended interview guide</p>	<p>Enables researcher to engage with and monitor subjectivities</p> <p>Respondent validation rules out misinterpretation of participant views</p> <p>Open-ended, non-leading questions may minimize indications of researcher bias and expectations and enable personal perspectives of participants to emerge</p>

				Reactivity – participants may not want to describe challenges to an outsider, or may feel obligated to provide evidence of proactive responses where none exist	Researcher familiarity with the topic	Rapport created through familiarity may make participants feel comfortable talking about challenges and their responses to them
RQ 3: How do these characteristics, rationales, implementation challenges, and practical responses compare with official undergraduate English-taught degree program documentation from the Ministry of Education, JSPS and the higher education institutions where the undergraduate English-taught degree programs	By comparing how those implementing the ETPs understand them relative to published rationales for and characteristics of the ETPs, the study will identify if ETPs take on characteristics different than intended	MEXT, G30, JASSO and university documents  Semi-structured interviews with senior administrators, faculty and international education support staff	Descriptive, topic and analytical coding, identify individual and cross-case themes, develop matrices  Triangulation of documentary and interview evidence  Descriptive, topic and analytical coding, identify individual and cross-case themes, develop matrices	Researcher bias influencing the selection and interpretation of documents  Documents are biased towards their audience  Documents in Japanese cannot be easily read by the researcher	Reflective journal  Variety of sources examined, inc. those in Japanese if necessary  Triangulation with interview participant perspectives  Documents that are translated into English will be back-translated by someone	Enables researcher to engage with and monitor subjectivities  Multiple sources and methods reduce the risk that conclusions will reflect only the biases of a specific source or method (Maxwell, 2013)  Enables verification of translation

<p>are situated, and why might any differences exist?</p>				<p>Researcher bias influencing the direction of the interview</p> <p>Researcher bias influencing the interpretation of interviews</p> <p>Reactivity – the participants may feel obligated to agree with institutional rhetoric</p>	<p>unrelated to the study</p> <p>Reflective journal</p> <p>Member checks</p> <p>Use of an open-ended interview guide</p>	<p>Enables researcher to engage with and monitor subjectivities</p> <p>Respondent validation rules out misinterpretation of participant views</p> <p>Open-ended, non-leading questions may minimize indications of institutional thinking and researcher expectations and enable personal perspectives of participants to emerge</p>
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## Appendix F: Informed Consent Document

### **Implementing English-taught Undergraduate Degree Programs in Japanese Universities**

GW IRB reference number: # 091351

Principal Investigator: James H Williams, Ed.D  
XXXX

Telephone Number: +1 (202) XXX-XXXX

Sub-Investigator: Annette Bradford  
XXXX

Telephone Number: 090 XXXX

Sponsor: N/A

---

#### **1) Introduction**

You are invited to take part in a research study being conducted under the direction of Dr. James H. Williams Ed.D of the Department of Educational Leadership, at the graduate School of Education and Human Development of The George Washington University. This is an unfunded study. You are being asked to take part in this study because you are working with the English-taught program at your institution. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You may choose not to take part, or you may withdraw from the study at any time. In either case, you will not lose any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

#### **2) Why is this study being done?**

The purpose of this study is to investigate how English-taught undergraduate degree programs are being implemented in three Japanese universities from the perspectives of program implementers. Undergraduate English-taught degree programs are defined as programs that are taught entirely in the English language and lead to a full undergraduate degree. Since there are no empirical studies related to this topic, your insight can add to the current professional body of knowledge in the fields of English-medium instruction and higher education internationalization.

#### **3) What is involved in this study?**

If you choose to take part in this study:

- a) You will be asked to meet with the researcher for an interview that will last approximately 60 to 90 minutes. The interview will take place at a location that is convenient to you. It will be recorded. The questions will focus on the English-taught degree program at the institution where you work.
- b) The interview will be transcribed by the researcher and the transcript will be analyzed in light of the research questions posed. All identifying markers will be removed.
- c) Within two weeks after the interview, the researcher will contact you via email to share with you a memorandum that contains preliminary findings and analysis for your review.
- d) Final analysis will be conducted and the results and findings will be formally written into the dissertation.
- e) If requested, the researcher will send you a copy of the results and findings after the dissertation has been concluded.

- f) It is possible that the data obtained through your transcribed interview will be used in a future study related to English-taught programs. In that case, no further participation from you will be necessary or requested.

The total amount of time you will spend in connection with this study is approximately two hours.

**4) What are the risks of participating in this study?**

This study is designed to minimize possible risks and discomforts to participants and is expected to cause you no harm whatsoever. However, if the questions that are being asked as part of this study make you feel uncomfortable, you may refuse to answer, you may take a break at any time during the interview, or you may stop the interview and/or your participation in the study at any time.

There is a small chance that someone not involved in the research could find out that you took part in the study or somehow connect your name with the information I collect about you. However the following is being done to reduce this risk:

- Your name and job title will not be connected to the research findings. A code linking your name to the data will be stored in a password protected file on the researcher's computer (not a laptop or tablet). This file will be destroyed after the completion of the study. In addition, any emails from you will be deleted.

**5) How will my privacy be protected?**

Pseudonyms (e.g. faculty member VI at institution A) will be used as identifiers to protect your identity and personal information during data analysis as well as in writing and discussing the final results of this study. In any published articles or presentations, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you as a subject.

**6) Are there any benefits to taking part in this study?**

The benefit to you that might result from your participation in this study is:

- the opportunity to reflect intentionally on your experiences working with the English-taught program.

The benefit to your institution that might result from this study is:

- increased understanding of the successes and challenges that institutions and implementers experience when implementing English-taught degree programs so that they can better develop and improve these programs.

The benefits to the research and practice of the internationalization of higher education that might result from this study are:

- increased understanding of English-taught undergraduate degree programs in Japan

**7) Will I receive payment for being in this study?**

You will not be paid for taking part in this study.

**8) What are my options?**

You do not have to take part in this study if you do not want to. Should you decide to participate and later change your mind, you can do so at any time.

**9) Problems or Questions**

The Office of Human Research at The George Washington University can provide additional information about your rights as a research participant. Should you choose to contact them, they can be reached at +1 202-994-2715.

Further information regarding this study may be obtained by contacting the Principal Investigator listed on the front of this form, Dr. James Williams, at +1 202 XXX-XXXX, or the researcher (Sub-Investigator), Annette Bradford, at 090 XXXX XXXX.

*\* Please keep a copy of this document in case you want to read it again.*

**10) Documentation of Informed Consent**

If you agree to participate in this study, please sign below:

\_\_\_\_\_  
*Participants Name (printed) and Signature*

\_\_\_\_\_  
*Date*

## Appendix G: List of Documents Concerning English-Taught Degree Programs

The documents collected for and analyzed in this study are listed below. Specific websites and the exact names of documents are not revealed to protect the confidentiality of the universities in this study.

### University A

#### University Brochures:

1. University A Guidebook 2013
2. Guide for International Students 2013
3. Degree Programs for International Students, n.d.
4. University A, ETP, ver.3.0, 2013
5. Academic year 2013, ETP Syllabus
6. University A Facts and Figures Book, n.d.

#### University Webpages:

1. University A, Main English-language webpage, 2014
2. ETP webpage, 2014
3. University A, International Strategy and G30 webpage, 2014

#### University Presentation Slides:

1. Global 30 Project Follow-up FY 2012

#### Documents on JSPS Website:

1. Global 30 Project Proposal Summary, n.d.

#### MEXT

1. University A, Global 30 Activities, MEXT Global 30 website, 2014
2. University A, Project for Establishing University Network for Internationalization Interim Report (in Japanese: 「大学の国際化のためのネットワーク形成推進事業」中間評価について)

### University B

#### University Brochures:

1. University B 2010 (general information brochure)
2. University B General Information, 2013
3. Guide for International Students, 2012
4. University B, XX Campus, n.d.
5. University B, XX Campus, ETP, n.d.
6. Application Outline for the ETP, n.d.
7. Costs and Financial Aid at University B, XX Campus, n.d.
8. ETP Faculty Profiles, n.d.
9. Courses of the ETP, n.d.
10. Factbook, University B, 2013

University Webpages:

1. University B, Main English-language webpage, 2014
2. University B Global 30 webpage, 2014
3. Office for Global Initiatives webpage, 2014
4. ETP webpage, 2014

University Presentation Slides:

1. Global 30 Project Follow-up FY 2012
2. Introduction to ETP, 2013
3. University B ETP Administration, 2014

Documents on JSPS Website:

1. Global 30 Project Proposal Summary, n.d.

MEXT

3. University B, Global 30 Activities, MEXT Global 30 website, 2014
4. University B, Project for Establishing University Network for Internationalization Interim Report (in Japanese: 「大学の国際化のためのネットワーク形成推進事業」 中間評価 について)

University C

University Brochures:

1. University C Admission Guide 2013
2. G30 International Programs, 2014
3. Student Manual Academic Year 2011-2012
4. Student Manual Academic Year 2013-2014
5. ETP Curriculum Outline, n.d.
6. Frequently Asked Questions, Global 30 Undergraduate Degree Programs in English, 2012
7. Study ETP at University C, n.d.
8. University C prospectus, 2013

University Webpages:

1. University C, Main English-language webpage, 2014
2. University C Global 30 webpage, 2014
3. ETP webpage, 2013
4. ETP webpage, 2014
5. Institute for Academic Initiatives webpage, 2014

University Presentation Slides:

1. Project for Establishing University Network for Internationalization Follow-up for FY 2012
2. G30 undergraduate ETP at University C, 2014

Documents on JSPS Website:

1. Global 30 Project Proposal Summary, n.d.

MEXT

1. University C, Global 30 Activities, MEXT Global 30 website, 2014
2. University C, Project for Establishing University Network for Internationalization Interim Report (in Japanese: 「大学の国際化のためのネットワーク形成推進事業」 中間評価について)

## Appendix H: Detailed Presentation of the English-Taught Program at University A

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## **Characteristics of the English-Taught Program**

The ETP under study at this institution began in April 2011 and admits students in both the April and September semesters<sup>23</sup>. Therefore, at the time of research the first cohort of students to enter the program were in their third year of study. In 2013, the ETP relocated away from the main undergraduate campus to a new internationally and community-orientated campus which houses two undergraduate schools, four graduate programs and a research institute. The program has a broad Japanese studies focus taught alongside international studies courses. Students entering the program before 2013 had to major in one of two strands which focus on different areas of Japanese society. During their first two years, students could take subjects from either strand, but had to specialize in their third and fourth years. For students entering in 2013 and later, this requirement no longer exists, and they can choose subjects from throughout the school of study. Students must obtain 124 credits in order to graduate: each course is usually worth 2 credits. Sixty of these credits must be taken in English, but the remainder can be taken in either English or Japanese should the students have the necessary Japanese language ability. The ETP students are not required to study any Japanese language to in order to graduate from the program.

The school of study in which the ETP is situated also has a Japanese-taught program (JTP) that has a very similar curriculum and leads to the same degree. Students enrolled in the Japanese program must enroll in intensive English language courses in their first two years, and study a minimum of 12 credits in English during their degree. Consequently, courses taught in English contain a mix of students enrolled in the

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<sup>23</sup> The traditional Japanese academic year begins in April.

English- and Japanese-taught programs. In addition, international exchange students who are enrolled at the university for only one or two semesters may also be present in the English-taught courses. Students enrolled on the Japanese program also have the option of taking quasi English-taught courses designed for students with lower-level English abilities which are not available to ETP students. In these classes, only the materials are in English and the professor uses Japanese. Many of the courses offered in the school are taught in both Japanese and English, in some cases these courses are taught by the same professor, and in other cases, they are taught by different professors. Students are not permitted to take both English and Japanese versions of courses that have the same title, even if they are taught by different professors and cover different content.

The ETP is small, with only 35 students enrolled in total. The maximum number of students accepted into the ETP has risen from 12 in 2011, to 14 in 2012, and to 20 in 2013 and 2014. The program has, however, never enrolled the maximum number of students permitted. At present, only students of non-Japanese citizenship can be accepted on the ETP (Japanese dual citizens are accepted). Japanese citizens cannot enroll, even if they have never attended school in Japan and speak no Japanese. The university is planning to change this admission requirement in response to requests from potential applicants, and to enable the program to grow. The number of applicants to the program is currently large, but students are selected carefully in order to maintain program quality. The university has also demonstrated its commitment to quality through recently raising the English requirements for entry into the ETP from a TOEFL iBT (internet-based test) score of 62 to a score of 71<sup>24</sup>.

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<sup>24</sup> This places the English language admissions requirement between the generally accepted scores for admission into U.S. community colleges and U.S. universities.

Many of the students enrolled in the ETP come from Asia, with Korean students far outnumbering others. There are a handful of North Americans and Europeans in the program. When professors talk about their ETP classrooms, they describe an amalgam of students that varies widely between courses. For example, one senior administrator described the make-up of her courses as an interesting mix:

...in that class...about 5 or 6 students belong to English-track. Then again 5 or 6 students are exchange students, and also there are international students who belong to the Japanese track, about 10 students are international students from the Japanese track, so Japanese students who live only in Japan are maybe, out of 60, maybe 40 or 35, or something like that. Also in my seminar, I teach again [the same subject] and for example for sophomores, I have 20 students, and one of them belongs to English-track. That's interesting, right? So kind of mix. (SAA<sub>3</sub>)

Similarly, one faculty member remarked that in a class of 43 students, he teaches 10 international students, one of whom is enrolled on the ETP, and one who is an exchange student. Another faculty member added that in the EMI classes there are also Japanese returnee students who speak very good English,<sup>25</sup> and students who like English and have studied abroad.

There are 20 full-time faculty members who teach at least one course on the ETP, this equates to approximately half of the school's full-time faculty members. Any shortfall is made up by part-time teaching staff. Some of the faculty moved to this school from other departments in the university when it was established and others were hired from outside. After the introduction of the ETP, a few additional faculty members were hired specially for the program. Those who were teaching in the school before the ETP was established were not informed of the possibility that they might be asked to teach in

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<sup>25</sup> Japanese returnee students are those of Japanese citizenship who have spent a large part of their lives living and attending school overseas.

English, even though they were aware that the school had an international focus. Consequently, Japanese professors who were not hired specifically to teach in English, but now do, receive a financial incentive every month for each course they teach on the ETP. However, faculty members state that this does not incentivize them to teach in English.

The ETP has one international education support staff member working for the international student office who was employed using G30 Project funding to work full time with the program. In other areas of the university there are various administrators connected with the Organization for International Collaboration who do not work solely for the program, but are currently, or were previously, involved with some aspect of the program implementation and planning.

#### **Explaining the program characteristics.**

In explaining the factors that have shaped the ETP, program implementers described a top-down approach to implementation of the ETP and stated that the program was situated within its current school of study at the request of the university board members. However, the ETP was welcome in the school, as the school was established with the purpose of being internationally-focused with an emphasis on study abroad and the receiving of international students. Implementers went on to explain how an executive committee in the school of study designed the curriculum and decided which of the existing faculty members were to teach on the ETP. To illustrate the top-down control of the program and the lack of input that faculty members who were not part of the executive committee had into the ETP, one faculty member described the process of implementation as a “very destiny-like concept” (FMa<sub>3</sub>).

Administrators, faculty member and staff attitudes towards the program affect the way it is implemented. The majority of program implementers are involved with the ETP because they were either employed to work directly with the program, or because they were instructed to by their superiors, others volunteered to do so. When discussing the reasons they chose to remain involved, many spoke of the personal benefits they receive from the program. These benefits range from having the opportunity to keep up their own English, to being trained in different teaching methods through “learning by doing” (FMa<sub>3</sub>), and to learning new ways of thinking from the international students. One professor explained:

Japanese students have somewhat almost the same direction of thinking, the way of thinking. But if their [international students] background is different, their way of thinking is different, it quite varies. So that’s quite interesting to me. That’s a kind of mutual benefit, otherwise I would have quit! (FMa<sub>2</sub>)

Faculty members did not place importance on the small financial incentive they receive for teaching a course in English, mentioning it with a laugh, or stating that they know it exists, but cannot recall how much they receive.

Another theme that emerged as to why the implementers remain involved with the ETP is one of benefit to Japanese students. They want the domestic Japanese students to have the opportunity to take courses in English, or simply have the chance to mix with people from overseas. This is something that the students have very little chance to do in their everyday lives. One professor remarked that his major reason for teaching on the ETP is that he is:

...very sympathetic with the students, the Japanese students who would like to study in English, but it is very tough for them just to go to the United States. First of all, many of them should [*sic*] not be accepted by the American universities. And University A is a sort of middle-rank university...so the normal standard

student of this university would not have the chance to get any lecture in English. (FMa<sub>1</sub>)

He went on to say that he wants to provide those students with “a chance to study this strange and unusual lecture” and that he feels “a sort of sense of mission” (FMa<sub>1</sub>) to provide these courses. Other participants said that they wanted to “make Japanese students global” (SAa<sub>1</sub>). Implementers drew upon their own backgrounds studying internationally when they spoke of the intercultural skills and friendships that are gained through studying alongside students from other nations. Moreover, they expressed their hopes that the Japanese students would go on to study in the United States or Europe at the graduate level. One senior administrator said that through involvement with the ETP he hoped to change attitudes, to become a ‘change agent’ to internationalize the Japanese university system (SAa<sub>1</sub>). Fewer participants spoke of the benefits to the international students when discussing their personal reasons for working on the ETP. Those who did spoke of a desire to teach international students about Japan and Japanese culture so that the students could go back to their home countries and explain Japan.

The types of students taking part in the ETP and their behaviors in the program also help to shape the characteristics of the program. Program implementers explain that the Japan-focused curriculum attracts some students to the ETP, but for many the subject of the program is of minor importance. The implementers observe that students from Western Europe or the United States tend to have a stronger interest in Japanese popular culture, than those from Asia. The students from Asia, who make up the bulk of the students enrolled in the program, show less interest in the subject of the ETP. Implementers surmise that these students want to go overseas and complete a degree in English, but don’t have the necessary skills to go to the United States or Australia, for

example, and are left with the choice of staying at home, or going to a non-native English speaking country like Japan. Japan is an attractive option as implementers believe that a Japanese degree may hold more weight in Asian nations than a degree from other Asian countries. Some Asian students in the ETP have very good Japanese language skills after having completed a number of years at a Japanese language school prior to entering University A. However, they chose to enroll in the ETP rather than the JTP. Program implementers believe that these students joined the ETP as the entry requirements were much easier for them than sitting for the standard Japanese university entrance exams.

Inside the classroom, the international students enrolled in the ETP usually speak out and are helpful to other less-able students, but implementers comment the Asian students tend to be less spontaneous than the European and American students. The Japanese students taking the EMI courses seem to be a diverse group. Program implementers comment that many of the Japanese students are quiet and shy in the classroom, but that others try to emulate what they perceive to be an ‘American style’ and as one faculty member put it “try to be aggressive” (FMa<sub>2</sub>). These students tend to be ambitious and seek out opportunities to speak English in the corridors because they are interested in communicating with the international students. There seems to be a consensus that the Japanese students in the school of study with the ETP are generally better English speakers than in other parts of the university, but that they are still not quite skilled enough to cope with EMI.

### **Rationales for the English-Taught Program**

Program implementers at University A describe two main reasons as to why the ETP has been implemented at their institution: to bring in international students to

internationalize the university, and to impart knowledge about Japan to others. They believe University A regards international students as an integral, but not end, point of internationalization. They commented that the university wants to become international and that without the presence of international students at the university, Japanese students would not be able to develop the skills to become internationally-minded and work in the global market. One senior administrator described international students as “the key persons who start change in Japanese universities” (SAa<sub>1</sub>). Implementers view the presence of international students, and the English-medium classes and courses that are designed for them, as catalysts for attracting Japanese students who want to study in an international environment. This is corroborated by, as another senior administrator explained, the fact that when the university started to emphasize education in English, it started to attract more female students. The outcome was not unexpected as Japanese women in Japan are enthusiastic consumers of English and international study (Takahashi, 2013).

The program implementers also talked about a rationale of imparting knowledge about Japan to others as a reason for introducing the ETP at their university. The idea that people in other countries don't understand Japan featured prominently in interviews. Implementers talked about the university's rationale and their own desires to introduce Japan's culture and social systems to others through education. The ETP can achieve this in two ways. A faculty member stated that he knew “this program's [idea] was also to have non-Japanese students come to Japan to learn about Japan and then supposedly disseminate it across the world” (FMa<sub>4</sub>), and a senior administrator involved in designing the program explicated this:

I wanted them [international students] to know Japan, and if they stay in Japan for four years, maybe they can get to know Japan quite deeply, then when they go back to their countries...it's good to imagine that there are some people who know a lot about Japan. (SAa<sub>3</sub>)

Another implementer stated that he believes “the purpose especially for that English class is to make Japanese students [learn about] their own system in English to explain to other people when they are abroad (FMa<sub>1</sub>).

When asked to more narrowly focus their beliefs about what they saw as their university's reasons for adopting an ETP by ranking the nine rationales for introducing ETPs that were put forward by Wächter and Maiworm (2008) in their 2007 European study, the program implementers again emphasized their institution's wish to make University A more international. They ranked “to sharpen the profile of your institution in comparison to others in the country” the highest and this was followed closely by the desire to make domestic students ‘fit’ for global or international labor markets. The rationale of providing high level education to students from the third world was ranked the lowest.

Interestingly, the senior administrators that answered this question did not share the faculty members' impressions that the university was primarily interested boosting its image. Instead, they saw the rationales relating to attracting international students who could not study in Japanese, and preparing Japanese students for the global market as more important rationales. The senior administrators and international education staff member also held different opinions to the faculty members on the point of university revenue. The latter group maintained more strongly that ETPs improve the income base of the institution through revenue from tuition fees, yet the international education

support staff member pointed out that the university has spent so much money on recruiting students for the ETP, yet “only 10 to 20 students come every year” (IESa<sub>1</sub>).

**Explaining the program rationales.**

Two strong and complementary underlying themes emerged from the interviews when participants explained the rationales for the ETP at University A: the presence of a strong actor, and reaction to outside pressures.

*Presence of a strong actor.* The former president of the university is seen as a major force in implementing and shaping the ETP. He was eager to internationalize the university and had already decided to introduce programs taught in English before the opportunity for government funding came along. He selected a small group of staff who shared his vision to write the proposal for G30 project funding. One administrator described him as an “aggressive person”, “a kind of top-down president [who] took very strong initiative” (SAa<sub>2</sub>).

*Reaction to outside pressures.* Administrators explain that the university president was reacting to the outside forces of globalization in his desire to internationalize University A. They describe the president’s opinion that globalization is “a kind of pressing need for Japan” (SAa<sub>2</sub>) and that if Japanese universities want to survive, they can’t remain focused only on the domestic market, not only in terms of recruiting international students, but also in terms of educating Japanese students to work in international business, export and technology markets. They also discussed that fact that the president was very aware of the international activities of other private universities in Japan that are perceived to be of a higher caliber than University A, and strove to keep up with and overtake those institutions.

Faculty members share the administrators' opinion that the university president was reacting to outside forces. However, their comments take on a slightly more skeptical tone, they state, for example, that University A "is always really concerned with the 'others'" (FMa<sub>1</sub>), but mention that University A always follows without taking the first step. A few faculty members went on to explain how the university always does as the Ministry of Education asks. They stated that the main rationale for introducing the ETP is because there was government funding available and that members of the university board believe that the reputation of the university is defined by how much money they receive from MEXT. They added that there hasn't been a lot of fore- or hindsight in the implementation of the ETP, and that the university has rather hoped that simply bringing in more international students would lead to the creation an international atmosphere.

### **Challenges in Implementing the English-Taught Program**

Program implementers describe an array of challenges that they and their institution face in implementing the ETP. They describe concerns related to the curriculum and the coherence of the degree that students enrolled in the ETP will eventually earn. A recurring theme was one of a lack of classes available in English. Participants noted that students can take a sufficient number of general classes, but if they decide to specialize in a topic of interest, they have a difficult time building a coherent degree program and have to take classes in subjects as distinct as Japanese pop culture and Latin American studies. Faculty are also uneasy about the students' prospects after they graduate. One faculty member expressed his opinion that the university must "figure out what's going to happen to these students when they finish....if you're in science or business, it's a lot clearer, but humanities, what can these students do?" (FMa<sub>4</sub>). He

maintains that a degree in Japanese humanities without a Japanese language component doesn't seem to have much worth. He went on stress the fact that so many of the non-Japanese students enrolled in Japanese-taught university programs spend several years at Japanese language schools in addition to studying English and consequently, when they enter the workforce they are almost trilingual and companies want them. ETP students with no or few Japanese skills cannot compete.

A broad set of challenges to ETP implementation at University A occur within the English-medium classroom. Some faculty members report not knowing who is in their classrooms. Their classrooms may consist of domestic Japanese students, international students enrolled in the JTP and short-term international exchange students in addition to ETP students, and these students are of different ages and employment backgrounds and come from different academic traditions. It is challenging to plan effective courses without knowledge of the students' enrollment status or background, and this lack of knowledge becomes problematic when faculty members are asked to monitor and evaluate the progress of ETP students but are unable to do so.

A more pressing challenge regarding this mix of students is the wide range of abilities and backgrounds that they possess, which results in professors having difficulty in pitching their class. A number of study participants spoke of alienating the students with, for example, more advanced English skills if they teach to the lower-level group. They feel frustrated trying to get everyone involved and report that if they use English 100% of the time, the content they can deliver to students is probably as much as 50% less than it would be if the lecture were given in Japanese to Japanese students. This dilemma also surfaces in classes where specific cultural knowledge is required. Given

University A's concentration on Japanese studies, this is not a small issue. In addition to varied abilities and knowledge, implementers commented on the participation levels of the students, remarking that many of the Japanese students in their classes simply sit there and it is difficult, even for native Japanese professors, to gauge if they are uninterested, do not understand the content or language, or are merely choosing to stay quiet. This inaction sometimes rubs off onto the usually more responsive international students as they come to believe that they should just sit quietly in the Japanese classroom. Professors noted how it takes hours to prepare a *good* lecture that can satisfy these varied groups of students.

Faculty members briefly describe insecurities about their own abilities when teaching on the ETP, citing a lack of confidence in their linguistic abilities to lecture in English for a whole class period, and difficulties in organizing an active, discussion-based classroom. Far more visible, however, was the theme relating to student complaints about the linguistic and teaching abilities of Japanese professors. International students on the ETP complain to faculty members and administrators, both Japanese and non-Japanese, about the abilities of other professors. They complain of uninteresting classes where professors merely translate everything from their Japanese language lecture into English and put it on to a PowerPoint presentation for students to read, or even lecture in Japanese against a backdrop of English slides. Other professors, not comfortable with impromptu speech, simply read their pre-written English notes out loud. Students also complain that too much Japanese is used in class because professors feel forced to explain content to Japanese students who would otherwise not take anything away from

the class. Written student evaluations also demonstrate that students' are dissatisfied at the level of their professors' English.

International and Japanese student interaction was cited as a challenge that takes place both inside and outside of the classroom. Faculty members describe classes where students sit together in groups of people of the same nationality, and note that ETP students have their own network and so tend to cluster together. International students have complained that they would like to mix more with the Japanese students, and faculty members say that many of the Japanese are keen to interact with the international students, but it is not happening naturally. Some faculty members say that they believe the students have plenty of opportunities to mix informally outside of the classroom, but others report international students have been refused entry into Japanese student activity clubs because of their lack of Japanese. Despite these challenges in fostering real interaction, all of the program implementers were positive about the intercultural communication effects of having international students study together with Japanese students in the same classroom. They say that the international students are very patient with the Japanese students and help them to improve their English, and that they are encouraging Japanese students to speak out more in the classroom.

Other challenges exist in the area of services and support offered to students enrolled on the ETP. Implementers describe difficulties in providing accommodation for international students. In Japan it is not as common as it is in the United States or the United Kingdom, for example, for students to live in university-owned housing. Most students have to find their own accommodation, although universities will help by giving advice about housing companies. This is a daunting prospect for many new

undergraduates, not least for those arriving in an unfamiliar country without the necessary language skills, and is a possible barrier to application for the ETP. University A has one dormitory that is designated for international students, but this is used by short-term exchange students and is located on a different campus from the school that is home to the ETP.

Program implementers are also worried about the lack of scholarships available to international students. This is one of the most-oft asked questions at international student recruitment fairs. The university does offer a GPA-based (grade point average) scholarship to students that have clear future plans, and there are also opportunities for tuition reduction. However, many implementers stated that these are not enough, and that certain financial aid may only be announced after students have arrived in Japan. Without the guarantee of support, students are reluctant to apply to the program. The university is aware of the implementers concerns over accommodation and scholarships, but no action has yet been taken to improve the situation.

Other student services difficulties are related to material support to students and include the availability of printed documents and signs in English. While the school housing the ETP now publishes most of its documents in both Japanese and English, and the building is signposted throughout in English, many university-wide documents of concern to ETP students are still published only in Japanese. Little provision on this front has been made for non-Japanese speaking members of the faculty who are working on the program and receive department-related notices in Japanese. In addition, the university library does not have many books in English.

The career services offered at University A present a further services and support challenge. As the first cohort of ETP students is now approaching graduation, they are starting to think about life after university and are visiting the university careers center. However, the jobs advertised there are intended for people who are able to work in Japanese in Japan. ETP students that entered the program with no prior knowledge of Japanese, even if they studied some language during their tenure at University A, are unlikely to meet the minimum linguistic requirements for full-time employment. In addition, ETP program implementers believe that the staff at the careers center do not have the English language skills and knowledge of the international market to fully support the ETP students. This is contrasted with staff in the international student office whose English levels and willingness to communicate in English have been rising over recent years.

Program implementers also talked about the branding of the ETP. University A has an existing brand that appeals to Japanese students (as evidenced by its status as the top ranked university in Japan for undergraduate applicant numbers over recent years), but has had to seek another way to market itself to international applicants. Its focus on Japanese studies has been accompanied by glossy brochures and images depicting the uniqueness of Japan in the hope that this will attract students from overseas. Implementers described this focus as a draw to those interested in Japan, but also called attention to the fact that Japan itself does not hold much interest to international scholars these days. They stated that if students do not have an intrinsic interest in learning about Japan, there is no motivation to enroll on a degree program in English in this non-English speaking country when opportunities are available in Western Europe, the United States

and Australia. The international education staff member from University A participating in this study suggested that inter-university collaboration on matters concerning ETP implementation could help to alleviate this challenge. At present, there is limited communication between institutions that are embarking upon the establishment of these new programs.

Some of the challenges outlined above are seen as being barriers to student recruitment and retention. Limited provision of accommodation and scholarships was cited by program implementers as deterring students from applying to the ETP, and the Japanese studies focus of the program is seen as an attraction for some, but not for many. In addition, University A has experienced some student attrition, with a handful of students leaving the program to move to an ETP elsewhere in Japan, or return to their home countries.

**Explaining the challenges facing program implementation.**

Program implementers explained why challenges occurred in the implementation of the ETP at University A, and four overarching themes emerged from the data: a lack of clear objectives, gaps in communication, insufficient resources, and program evolution.

*Lack of clear objectives.* Many of the challenges described by the program implementers relate to a lack of clear objectives at the university and program level. Implementers do not see a clear strategy as to why and how the university is carrying out an ETP or what the program hopes to achieve, i.e. what should the specific learning outcomes of the students be? The implementers feel that the university is operating in the same manner as Japan has done for decades when it comes to internationalization and that it is simply inviting international students without much foresight as to what will

happen when they arrive, beyond the vague notion that they will somehow make the university and domestic students international. One senior administrator explained that “we have to rethink the meaning of international students, why we would like to accept international students” (SAa<sub>1</sub>). Without clarity on this fundamental issue, challenges in the branding and coherence of the ETP arise. As one faculty member put it, “if University A tries to keep this program for the time being, they have to sharpen up a little bit in terms of direction or character or definition of the program” (FMa<sub>2</sub>). It also has repercussions for the way that teaching faculty are brought into the program, which can lead to coherence issues or result in student complaints about professors’ abilities. One administrator lamented that “English courses are not necessarily organized sufficiently enough. Sometimes we pick up instructors who can teach in English, that’s the primary reason, not necessarily [because they teach] the most *needed* courses” (SAa<sub>2</sub>). A faculty member discussed the opposite problem, highlighting an example of how less-than-able professors might be hired into the ETP:

Sometimes we don’t have anybody in our department who can do that so then they’ll find somebody else sometimes from outside just part time, but sometimes from another department and I think that’s where you start to run into problems...people from other departments seem to be problematic. (FMa<sub>4</sub>)

***Gaps in communication.*** Some of the implementation challenges occur because of insufficient communication and information sharing within the university. For example, faculty members are frustrated when they are not well informed about the students in their classes as they feel that they are not able to give their best to the program. In addition, non-Japanese-speaking faculty are discouraged when all departmental literature about the ETP and faculty development opportunities is relayed to

them only in Japanese. Program implementers also feel frustrated when they identify improvements that could be made to the program, for example in the areas of accommodation and scholarships, but after repeated conversations with the university administrators, do not see any movement on the issues. Implementers also experience inadequate communication concerning student evaluations. Students are required to evaluate their professors at the end of each course in the hope that improvements can be made to future courses. However, implementers give accounts of cases where professors do not pay any attention to the evaluation results or simply do not distribute the evaluation form to the students. In cases where evaluation results are discussed in faculty meetings, negative findings have a tendency to be glossed over.

***Insufficient resources.*** Many of the implementation challenges occur because of a shortage of resources. The small number of English-medium classes available for ETP students to choose from is largely due to costs involved. The ETP at University A is extremely small, with only a total of 35 students enrolled, and increasing the number of classes for such a small number of students, is as one administrator puts it “neither realistic or practical” (SAa3). Lack of physical space is another factor which has caused difficulties the ETP. The ETP recently moved to new campus, which in effect reduced the number of English taught courses available to the ETP students, as travel time has made access the English-taught electives on the other campuses more difficult.

***Program evolution.*** A final theme that emerged as program implementers made sense of the challenges at University A was the fact that the ETP is still a new program, and that the challenges of ETP implementation will, in time, be overcome. One faculty member summarized this idea: “we are still in the process of evolution about

internationalization and English taught courses, so today we might have some problems of organization, or core classes, but hopefully in the near future we will have more organized ETPs” (SAa<sub>2</sub>).

### **Practical Responses to the Challenges Experienced**

When talking about responses to the challenges of ETP implementation, program implementers describe the actions that they have taken as individuals and actions that the university has taken. Implementers have taken action in the classroom to improve the effectiveness of the EMI courses. They have adjusted their teaching approaches and methods to involve students of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and to encourage interaction between different groups of students. They are incorporating more group discussion and presentation activities into their classes, and are finding that in these situations stronger students help out the weaker students and encourage the shy students to speak up. However professors tend to over-rely on the students with strong English capabilities, and have to be cautious not to cause resentment among these students.

One technique that has been used to encourage participation from all students is a “participation checksheet” which is used during group work and filled out by a group secretary who makes a note of each contribution to the group. When group work is not possible, faculty members are intentionally trying to involve students and check comprehension by asking questions to individuals. In order to stretch the students with stronger English abilities in their mixed ETP classes, one technique used at University A is to encourage outside reading and journal writing relating to the lesson topics for extra credit.

Many professors state that intentionally mixing the students through group work encourages interaction, but that this interaction feels forced and at the beginning of each lesson the students are sitting back in their original separated places. At the request of ETP students, one professor facilitated language exchange partnerships, and in this structured, but more natural setting, intercultural friendships have been developing. This professor would like the university to take on the role of providing structured activities and social events to encourage greater student interaction. The university does have a mentoring system which pairs international with Japanese students so that they may tackle together obstacles such as visiting housing agencies, but given faculty member and student comments regarding the desire for more opportunities to interact, it is unclear as to how successful this system has been at University A.

In order to teach most effectively, faculty members have also made adjustments to the structure and level of language used in their courses. One professor noted that in the first two years of his EMI course he translated his usual Japanese material into English, but finding that exhausting, he now uses English materials. He even uses the English language materials in his Japanese-taught course of the same subject, and has re-categorized this course as quasi English-Taught for Japanese students.<sup>26</sup> Another professor reported doing the opposite. After finding that he had to revert to Japanese to explain complicated concepts in his EMI lessons, and then finding that he often did not swap back into English, he has re-designated his EMI course to quasi English-taught. Other implementers described entertaining the possibility of setting a minimum TOEFL score for entry into EMI courses, or teaching multiple courses of the same subject

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<sup>26</sup> Quasi English-taught courses use English language materials, but are taught in Japanese. They are not open to ETP students.

entirely in English, but specifically targeted towards students of different language ability.

Faculty development to help professors transition to teaching content through English is available at University A. Each year, faculty members from across the entire university may apply to take part in a two-week long training course led by instructors of communication studies at a university in the United States. Approximately 10 faculty members participate in the course each March. Interestingly, those who attend are often U.S. natives or Japanese faculty members who have lived and completed higher degrees in the U.S. Presumably, the draw of visiting the U.S. is strong for these professors. Or, they see the value of learning new pedagogical skills despite their English language skills. Only one participant in this current study has applied to attend the training.

The university and ETP program directors have taken some measures to overcome the ETP implementation challenges discussed by the program implementers. In order to open up the number of courses available to ETP students, students now entering the program are no longer required to specialize in one stream of study during their third and fourth years. This may adversely affect the coherence of the program of study, but allows the students choice. A planned effort to change the entry requirements to the program and allow Japanese nationals to apply may also result in a greater number of courses being offered. Even if more courses are not offered, this change in entry requirements should at least result in fewer student complaints relating to course availability as these students may be more able to access Japanese-taught courses. Two senior administrators also spoke of plans to start ETPs in other schools of study. They hope that in the future, the ETPs will be able to share their English-taught courses. To

ease classroom challenges, the ETP program directors have recently increased the number of required English language skills courses for Japanese students in the hope that Japanese students will be better able to participate in the English-taught courses.

**Explaining the practical responses to program challenges.**

When program implementers explain the practical responses to the challenges in implementing the ETP at University A, themes related to a tension between program quality and accessibility and differing conceptualizations of faculty development emerged.

*Tension between program quality and accessibility.* Implementers talk about the problems that accompany attempts to change the lesson structure and level of language used in their courses. Adjusting courses down a level so only the materials remain in English and they become quasi English-taught, necessarily reduces the number of courses available to ETP students, creating more difficulties for a program that is already suffering from a shortage of English-taught courses. Similarly, restricting entry to courses by asking for a minimum TOEFL score may improve the classroom dynamics, but may mean that Japanese students are not able to take sufficient courses to graduate. Moreover, if differing levels of the same subject were offered, implementers worry that capable, but less-than-diligent students would opt for the lower-level course.

*Differing conceptualizations of faculty development.* Many program implementers equated faculty development for ETPs with English language training. They explained that they and others in their department had sufficient experience abroad and felt comfortable with their English abilities, and so felt no need to apply for the faculty development program. There was a sentiment among non-native English speakers

that if a faculty member felt they needed help to improve their English, then they should not be teaching in English, and that if someone is competent in English, then they are able to teach in English. Only those implementers with experience in linguistics and international student affairs seemed to recognize that faculty development would also help them to improve their pedagogical skills, and those implementers expressed more interest in the training.

### **Program Outcomes**

In summarizing the progress of the ETP so far, program implementers say that it is too soon to say whether the program has been successful. They mention that they are not sure if the program is having an effect on as many students as they want, and point out that the program has experienced attrition. The students enrolled seem to be having fun, but are perhaps not entirely satisfied with the program. However, implementers do refer to many positive changes that have been occurring in their school of study. They say that despite its small size, the program has increased the diversity of students in the school, enabling more students from outside of Asia to enter. The presence of these international students is slowly encouraging the domestic students to become more open-minded, and the school is seeing a new caliber of internationally-curious Japanese student enroll. Furthermore, more Japanese students are deciding to study abroad. Program implementers have noticed an increase in the English abilities of international education staff members, stating it's not just in the international student center that more English is spoken, but also in other administrative departments within the school.

In terms of change across the university more broadly, senior administrators describe the ETP and the Global 30 Project as having a positive impact on University A,

stating that the university is now regarded as less conservative, and much more international. However, faculty members are more skeptical, stating that there have been no fundamental changes in the school of study in terms of bureaucratic structure, let alone in the university as a whole. They also refer to the popular nickname “alien” that others in the university have bestowed on the school that houses the ETP, saying that the school is regarded as being quite different.

### **Comparison of Program Implementer Perspectives and Official Documentation**

The mission statement for the school of study which implements the undergraduate ETP at University A states that it “aims to promote international education and to train students who can contribute to the global community, based on their thorough knowledge of Japanese and international studies, as well as international academic exchange” (School Mission Statement, April 28, 2014 University A webpage). This sentiment is of course reaffirmed in the ETP’s promotional brochures and webpages where the educational objectives of the ETP are described. However, these documents also provide a deeper insight into the universities rationales for the ETP. The documents communicate a desire to convey knowledge about Japan to the world. This is illustrated in such statements as the dean’s message to potential students when he states that the school of studies “aims to educate students from all over the world about Japanese culture, both old and new” and “prepares its students to perform the challenging role of discovering Japan’s ‘soft power’” (Dean’s Message, University A, ETP, ver.3.0, 2013 p. 2). It is also illustrated in the written educational and curricula objectives of the ETP which state that the program is “intended to enable students to...become aware of Japan’s place in the world, and actively share their knowledge about Japan with others” and

involves “analysis of Japanese culture, industry and social systems to promote international exchange” (University A, ETP, ver.3.0, 2013 p. 5).

This rationale of imparting knowledge about Japan to others meshes with the published rationales for the University’s broader G30 Project vision. In the initial G30 Project proposal summary, University A stated that it intended to “form a foundation for transmitting Japanese culture, technology and intellectual property to the world” (Global 30 Project Proposal Summary, n.d). In the university guidebook, the university states that as part of its internationalization strategy it “will serve as a hub of internationalization, communication the attractive qualities of japan and the unique character of [University A] to the world” (University A University Guidebook, 2013). This rationale also agrees with program implementers understandings of one of the reasons why their institution established the ETP, specifically an ETP that focuses on Japanese studies.

Although less prominent in documents relating directly to the ETP, the other major rationale that implementers believe University A has for establishing an undergraduate ETP - to internationalize the university by bringing in international students - is also mentioned in university literature. Implementers believe that the presence of international students will prepare Japanese students for the global labor market. University literature states that the university’s overall internationalization strategy focuses on fostering internationally-capable individuals who can “be active on the world stage” and that the school which houses the ETP is the flagship initiative of the university’s large-scale program of internationalization (Degree Programs for International Students, n.d.; University A Guidebook, 2013; University A, Main English-

language webpage, 2014). Clearly, the ETP implementers and the university are in agreement on the overall goals of university internationalization.

While many of the documents describe the ETP as being designed to create opportunities for students to learn about Japan, to develop appreciation for Japan's qualities, and take those views back to their home countries after graduation, other documents suggest an alternate course for graduates that highlights a discord between the published goals of the program. These documents state that upon graduation, ETP students will be "capable of pursuing careers in Japan" (Degree Programs for International Students, n.d.; University A, Main English-language webpage, 2014). Program implementers express concern about the students' prospects for pursuing a career in Japan due to the students' low Japanese language skills (the ETP does not require that students study Japanese) and the inadequacies of the university career services. This mismatch of outcomes is unfortunate considering the attention that University A has given to their discourse about career services. The university's commitment to career support for international students was one element of its *Total Solution System* which University A advertised as an integral part of its G30 Project.

Documents produced at the outset of the Global 30 Project and promotional brochures make reference to the university's *Total Solution System* (University A, Global 30 Activities, MEXT Global 30 Website, 2014; Global 30 Project Proposal Summary, n.d.). In addition to career support, University A pledged to provide comprehensive care to international students with the provision of housing. The program is struggling to meet this promise. University A's own presentation about the interim status of the ETP at the mid-point of the G30 Project funding cycle recognized that students wanted dormitories

on campus (Global 30 Project Follow-up FY 2012), and implementers note that it is still the case that housing for international students is inadequate and preventing the university from recruiting potential students to the ETP.

Faculty and staff development are other areas which the university promoted at the beginning of the Global 30 Project and then listed as achievements at the mid-point of the project (University A, Global 30 Activities, MEXT Global 30 Website; Global 30 Project Follow-up FY 2012). However, while developments opportunities are available, implementers find it difficult to make use of them and state that they do not occur frequently.

## Appendix I: Detailed Presentation of the English-Taught Program at University B

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## **Characteristics of the English-Taught Program**

The ETP at University B is situated on a campus which was at its establishment in 1990 designed to be forward-looking and international. It has consequently been home to many international students over the past few decades. Currently, the ratio of international undergraduates on this campus is 2.5%, compared to 1.9% in the university as a whole (Campus Guidebook 2013). The ETP was launched in September 2011 and admits students each September. Therefore at the time of research the first cohort of students were in their third year of study on this four year program. The program is interdisciplinary. Although the degree is conferred by one faculty, two faculties work closely together to provide courses in English that integrate information technology with governance skills to enable students to understand and resolve modern problems.

Students enrolled in University B's ETP take foundational courses in their first year of the program, then move on to more rigorous courses and seminars where they participate in research projects alongside faculty members. All students are required to complete a graduation project and thesis. The program requires 124 credits, which is the equivalent of 62 semester-length courses. ETP students must take at least 80 credits in English, the remainder can be taken in either English or Japanese. ETP students entering before 2014 were not required to study any Japanese language in order to graduate, however students entering in 2014 and later must take 8 credits of language classes, although this does not necessarily all have to be Japanese (the faculty offers a variety of languages). The ETP is integrated into an existing JTP, and so the same set of courses are available to both ETP and the JTP students. The only difference being that students enrolled via the usual Japanese admissions system do not have the English content course

requirement. However, if they choose to take 80 credits in English, they are eligible to receive a certificate testifying to their achievement.

The ETP serves a total of 39 students. In the first two years of the program, only nine students (out of a maximum of 15) were admitted each year. Admission increased to 21 students in 2013. That year, the admissions requirement that previously asked for the submission of standardized university entrance exam results was relaxed to allow a greater number of people to apply from countries where taking these tests may be difficult. The subsequent applicant pool was much larger and deeper and allowed for the selection of a greater number of qualified candidates. Non-native English speaking applicants are required to submit an official English-language test score when applying to this program, although no specific minimum score is required. Japanese citizens who have studied in a non-Japanese education system are eligible to apply for this program. The program enrolls a mix of Asian, European and American students, however, the largest group of students in the ETP are of Japanese nationality. Professors report having perhaps up to 50% ETP students in their EMI courses, with other students often being Japanese returnee students. However, they say that it is difficult to discern if a student is enrolled in the English-taught or regular program as once admitted to the university, the ETP students are integrated into the overall program. The ETP students do nonetheless have a social identity as an ETP student. This is fostered through the provision of support activities such as a welcome barbeque and overnight orientation to help students adjust to their lives and studies in Japan.

One distinct feature of the ETP at University B is that students enroll in a professor's research group, typically during their second year. In this group, students

work together with the professor on a project that lasts multiple semesters. The language of these research groups is typically Japanese, but with the introduction of the ETP and the enrollment of students who cannot speak Japanese the groups are finding different ways to integrate the students. For example, one professor noted that their group has “switched to a sort of mixture of Japanese and English. The Japanese students are doing their best at speaking English and they seem to be doing reasonably well, but it’s still difficult for them”, the professor said that “it takes a bit of encouraging and cajoling, but most of them [the Japanese students] get used to it [English]” (FMb<sub>2</sub>). The students can choose to submit their homework in either Japanese or English. Another group has two separate sections, one of which is run in English, and the other in Japanese. Yet another group uses materials in Japanese for the Japanese students, and parallel materials in English for the ETP students.

There are 34 full-time faculty members who teach at least one course on the ETP. This corresponds to approximately 30% of the full-time faculty members employed in the two schools involved in the ETP. University B hired two new faculty members specifically to teach on the ETP, with other courses being taught by existing faculty members who were asked by the deans or professors in charge of the courses to switch one or more of their courses into English. It is mandatory that all new hires since 2011 are willing and able to teach at least one course in English. Faculty members who are involved in the G30 Project working group are also required to go on recruiting trips abroad. During these trips they present the content of the ETP to potential students. Program implementers see this as especially important for this university, given its somewhat unique interdisciplinary nature.

There are two full time administrative staff members who were employed with G30 Project funding to work directly with the program. One is primarily responsible for recruiting quality students from around the world. In this capacity, the staff member researches potential high schools that may be interested in sending their students to the ETP, visits those high schools, and attends Global 30 education fairs. The other member of staff works on the management of the G30 funding. Administrators involved in the planning and management of the ETP include the faculty deans and those who work for the Organization for Global Initiatives.

### **Explaining the program characteristics.**

When making sense of the characteristics of the ETP at University B, program implementers understand that buy-in from the deans of faculties was a big determiner of the location and subject of the program. The program was initiated by the university president, and subsequently the individual faculties were asked if they wanted to design and house the program. The deans of the faculties which now run the program were very interested because an English-taught program fits well with the international outlook of the campus where they are situated and aligns with the goals of their existing programs. In addition, this campus was the ideal location as it is compact and all students study the entire four years of their program at the same location. Departments in other parts of the university share their first and second year classes, and so implementation on other campuses would involve obtaining buy-in across a wider range of faculties. One international education support staff member explained the process of starting new initiatives at University B:

University B is very cautious about starting that kind of new initiative. I think some other universities are more top-down approach [*sic*], but I think here,

because each school wanted to be quite independent, and also because they are located in different places, scattered around, we don't meet each other so much so I think usually the top management are very careful about starting something new if it's creating a lot of burden to individual faculties. (IESb<sub>3</sub>)

Interestingly, both the international education staff member quoted above, and a senior administrator, both of whom are extremely enthusiastic and supportive of the ETP, referred to the program as a burden. They explain that the task of implementing the program is great, requiring the mobilization of many faculty members. The job of mobilizing the faculty members was left to the faculty deans and professors in charge of individual course sections. Not all professors asked to teach in English agreed to do so. This is an example of the importance that University B places on faculty buy-in to achieve successful program implementation. Program implementers explain that the curriculum for the ETP was designed by the G30 working group committee.

When explaining their personal reasons for teaching on the ETP, program implementers at University B overwhelmingly speak of the benefits it brings to the Japanese students. They strongly believe that Japanese students should be prepared to deal with the global world, and they believe that the presence of international students will help to achieve this. They hope that the ETP students will create an international environment that will expose Japanese students to the heterogeneity of society and encourage them to communicate and think in English. One professor said that he would like all incoming Japanese students

...to come in with the working assumption that sooner or later during their four years as an undergrad they're going to wind up taking at least one class in English just because that's when the class they want is offered, or the topic is only available in English. (FMb<sub>2</sub>)

The professor went on to explain that at the graduate level, it is often the case that until the presence of an international student in a course is confirmed, students do not know if that course will be taught in English or Japanese. When a course is consequently taught in English, instead of feeling resentment towards that international student, the majority of the Japanese students recognize that studying in English will be better for them in the long run and that “it will help their careers in one way or another” (FMb<sub>2</sub>). This professor would like to see a similar situation at the undergraduate level.

Fewer program implementers speak of being involved in the ETP in order to help international students. One international education support staff member said that her own experiences abroad prompted her to want to work with international students, and other implementers mentioned the vital importance of studying abroad. However, this did not emerge as a strong theme for implementers’ involvement in the program. The idea that the ETP is of personal benefit to the program implementers also did not arise as a reason for being engaged in the program. Only one faculty member mentioned personal benefits, stating that working on this international program is résumé boost.

The students taking the EMI courses at University B are also shaping the program and influencing the types of challenges that implementers are facing. Many of the students enrolled in the ETP are second or third generation Japanese emigrants, returnee students, or those who otherwise have some connection to Japan. Consequently, the level of Japanese language ability among the ETP students is generally fairly high and program implementers state that the ETP students have needed less student services support than expected in matters such as finding accommodation. International education support staff also remark that they can usually communicate with the ETP students in Japanese.

However, with the intake of more students in 2013 the ETP students became more diverse, and the ETP implementers are having to adjust accordingly. Program implementers state that one draw of the ETP is the subject matter and faculty members as the program enables students to work closely with professors well-known in their field.

Implementers explain that inside the classroom the ETP students are generally active participants in discussions. One faculty member noted that his ETP students are motivated by outside influences such as online TED talks and are asking for more of what he terms as an ‘international standard’ participatory classroom model. This professor feels as though he has to adjust his teaching style to meet his students’ needs. The domestic Japanese students in the EMI classrooms who have no prior overseas experiences are typically quiet, and implementers report that several of these students tend to drop out of the EMI courses as the semester progresses.

### **Rationales for the English-Taught Program**

Program implementers at University B describe one overarching reason as to why the ETP has been implemented at their institution: the desire to internationalize the university. They state that the university president that initiated the implementation of the ETP and the faculty deans involved all appreciate how internationalizing is important for the survival of Japanese universities, not in terms of attracting sufficient students to keep the university doors open, but in terms of providing a quality education that will ready students for the future. One senior international education staff member stressed the university’s emphasis on internationalizing the domestic students. She lamented that the Japanese students are at present not really willing to internationalize just yet, but that the ETP is intended to a kind of “*kibakuzai*” – a detonator – that “would sort of change the

rest of the group” (IESb<sub>2</sub>). Implementers describe that University B was in the process of internationalizing before the undergraduate ETP began and already had a number of international graduate programs in place. The G30 funding came along at an opportune moment, and made a big difference in the university’s ability to do something they had already wanted to do. To a lesser extent, program implementers also described University B’s rationale for implementing the ETP as based on the fact that University B is a top university and so must be at the head of every trend. They emphasized that in order to maintain their position, it is highly unlikely that the university headquarters would turn down any government call for funding applications.

The implementers’ more narrowly focused beliefs as to what they saw as their university’s reasons for adopting the ETP closely reflected the rationales they talked about during the interviews. When ranking the nine rationales for introducing ETPs that were put forward by Wächter and Maiworm (2008), the program implementers ranked “to make domestic students ‘fit’ for global or international labor markets” as number one. This was closely followed by the rationales of “to attract international students who would not enroll in a program taught in Japanese, and “to sharpen the profile of your institution in comparison with others on the country” in joint second place. Program implementers ranked the two rationales referring to insufficient numbers of domestic students at the bottom. All three groups of implementers held very similar opinions about the rationales.

### **Explaining the program rationales.**

Implementers elucidated two themes when they talked about the rationales for the adoption of the ETP at their university. They detailed the importance of enthusiastic university leadership, and the influence of external forces.

***Enthusiastic leadership.*** The former university president played the central role in deciding that the university would apply for the funding to create the ETP. However, University B's fairly decentralized organizational system meant that the program needed strong support from faculty deans in order to be successfully implemented. The dean of the faculty that responded to the president's call to house the program, and the successive deans of the additional faculty involved in its implementation have been very enthusiastic.

***External forces.*** Program implementers identify a range of external forces that affected the decision to implement an undergraduate ETP at University B. The most prevalent force is globalization and the need to be competitive in today's world. Implementers stated that the university council members feel increasingly pressured by the university ranking systems, and so seek to increase the number of international students, foreign faculty members, and English-language research citations. They also noted that Japanese companies are starting to become globally-focused and that students need to acquire the competencies to work in those environments. Complementary to this is the reality of Japan's ageing society. One faculty member explained:

...we are an aging society, our productivity has to be in line with our interaction with other people because our consuming power will be dropping within a very limited timeframe, so that in order to be really competitive, not only in the business but also the academics, you really have to expose yourself to the outside world. You really have to get the vision and persuade those incoming students

that this should be the institution that really will provide those opportunities and also educations for the future. (FMb<sub>5</sub>)

### **Challenges in Implementing the English-Taught Program**

University B is experiencing a number of interrelated challenges in implementing the ETP. The biggest challenge that the program implementers feel is facing the university, relates to student recruitment activities. Program implementers say that it is very difficult to attract enough quality students to the program. They state that they have never had to recruit students before as University B is well known in Japan and there is no shortage of student applications. Therefore, they do not do any domestic recruitment. As the recruitment process is so new to the university, there is no office on campus that specifically deals with student recruitment, and so international education support staff and faculty work together to plan a recruiting strategy and attend university fairs. The overseas recruiting trips take considerable time and effort. Faculty members are not sure how effective these trips are because they have to miss classes in order to just spend five minutes presenting to potential high school students overseas.

One professor commented that it is much easier to recruit at the graduate level because the university has partnerships with overseas universities who would like to send their students abroad. However, at the undergraduate level the professor senses that they are competing with their partners for the same students, and doesn't feel comfortable. Many of the students that they have succeeding in enrolling in the ETP were recruited through personal relationships that professors had with certain governments or schools. Staff also make use of the university's alumni network to find out which specific areas and high schools to target. Implementers state that they also have difficulties in knowing how many students to offer admission to as they are not sure how many will accept. With

domestic students, there is a very high acceptance rate, but with the ETP students it is lower. As the program becomes more established, it is becoming easier to predict the acceptance rates.

The issue of student scholarships relates to recruitment. International applicants to the ETP are eligible to apply for three scholarships that comprise either the waiving of academic fees or an annual stipend. Applicants of Japanese nationality are not eligible for these awards, however, other university-wide and government scholarships are available to all applicants. Despite this availability of funding, implementers feel that there should be more financial aid, and that this should be organized in a more comprehensive manner, perhaps with one central organization that can provide support services to all international students. This issue is very salient for University B as they have specific ambitions to increase the number of students from the United States, and students from the United States are particularly attuned to the issue of financial aid.

Another main challenge concerns course provision and program expansion. Program implementers describe challenges in providing a sufficient number of courses in English in order to provide the depth of content that they would like for the students. At present many of the English-taught courses are concentrated in the information technology side of the program. However, the overall aim of the program is to enable students to apply information technology to the wider society and implementers feel that more social science classes need to be offered in English. There are difficulties in expanding the program to cover more social science areas as faculty, especially those who teach language-rich social science subjects, have been reluctant to join the ETP and teach in English.

There is a general feeling among implementers that faculty members are in favor of an international program, but that there is resistance to teaching in English primarily because the majority of the students enrolled in the faculty are Japanese and the ETP serves only a small number of international students. Many professors do not see the utility of teaching in English when content can be delivered more successfully in the native language of both the professor and student. Some faculty members have even commented that Japanese students do not yet possess college-level Japanese, and that that should be improved upon before they receive tuition in English. Other faculty members are concerned about their own language abilities, and those teaching in English are finding that they have to trim the content of their courses. There are particular difficulties in finding faculty members to teach freshman and sophomore courses. Certain courses at this level are required and in order to provide sufficient English-taught courses one senior administrator commented that the university sometimes has to “almost force certain faculty members to do it in English” (SAb<sub>1</sub>). In consequence, some faculty members are teaching courses that they feel they do not quite have the content-knowledge to teach.

Faculty members have not been provided with specific support in order to transition successfully into teaching in English. There is discussion about introducing some kind of faculty development, perhaps relating to intercultural communication training, to professors working in the ETP. However, no one has found the time to follow up with the idea, and at present the only support offered to faculty is a fund for the translation of materials, and the existing mentorship system for assistant professors who join the research groups of senior professors.

In the area of student services, implementers note that international students are having difficulties in locating the office on campus which they visit should they need assistance. They also state that paperwork that students have to sign and information technology services are still often only provided in Japanese with only the most important items provided in English. The online registration system is dual-language, but updates might only be made to the Japanese site, as the staff do not regularly interact with the English site. In addition, the university does not have a dormitory on campus, and does not provide a lot of information about housing available to students. The university is managing these issues at present, in part because as many of the students enrolled on the ETP are of Japanese nationality and the faculty members teaching in English also have Japanese language abilities. However, implementers are concerned that as the program grows, these services need to be improved.

**Explaining the challenges facing program implementation.**

When program implementers sought to explain the challenges in the implementation of the ETP at University B, three themes emerged: issues with branding and marketing, supply and demand, and the organizational structure and culture of the university administrative offices.

***Branding and marketing.*** Many of the difficulties that University B has experienced relating to student recruitment for the ETP have foundation in issues of the branding and marketing of Japan as a destination for education, and of the ETP itself. One faculty member explained that convincing people that there are high quality educational programs across a broad area of academic interests in Japan is very difficult. He stated that “[Japan] is just not on the radar of a typical person outside of Japan, even

people who are considering sending their children abroad for an education experience” (FMb<sub>2</sub>). At present, there are still questions surrounding the utility of studying in English in Japan, and program implementers believe that more cooperation between the universities that are participating in the G30 project is needed to foster a vision of Japan as a quality, interesting study location. At the programmatic level, implementers note that when they visit Asia, prospective students inquire about programs focusing on Japanese business or popular culture. Implementers at university B worry that the focus of their ETP is not appealing to international students and are concerned that, at the moment, the program does not differentiate itself from programs that could be studied elsewhere in the world.

***Supply and demand.*** Program implementers attribute the challenges of course provision and expansion to what they term as supply and demand. They state that faculty members are resisting teaching in English because there are insufficient non-Japanese speakers to make teaching in English efficient. Very often, only a few students enroll in the English-taught courses, and faculty members report difficulties teaching classes which rely on student group work with only four or five students enrolled. Domestic Japanese students try to avoid English-taught courses as, understandably, they do not want to risk their grade by taking a course which is more difficult for them. Implementers are sensitive that this dynamic means that moving faculty members to new courses to expand EMI programming equates to increased burden on the faculty members teaching Japanese medium courses. They further observe that simply increasing the number of teaching staff does not resolve the dilemma because there are insufficient classroom and other resources to support a greater number of EMI courses.

Implementers would like some sort of mechanism to encourage Japanese students to take courses in English, but as a senior international education staff member remarked, University B has a good reputation of providing an outstanding education in Japanese and so many of the Japanese students enrolling in the faculty still expect that to be the case and are not interested in studying in English. Other, more international, universities recruit Japanese students who want to gain an internationalized education. However, at University B the English-taught courses are new and, from the students' point of view, unexpected.

Faculty members are also reluctant to teach in English because when non-returnee Japanese students do enroll in the English-taught courses, there are challenges with course content and quality due to linguistic difficulties. Implementers commented that they are only now realizing how unprepared their Japanese students are for English-taught programs. University B is limited in the number of required English language courses it can oblige students to take in order to ready them for EMI, as the campus has a policy promoting the teaching of multiple languages and the prioritization of English above the other languages offered is politically sensitive.

***Organizational structure and culture.*** Problems encountered with student services can be attributed to the organizational structure of the university's administrative units. University B used to have an international student center that could deal with everything international, including the problems that individual international students were facing. However, in recent years, as part of its strategy to be a more internationalized university in all areas, University B decided that every unit in the university should be able to carry out international work and therefore disbanded the

international student center. Now, every department within the office of academic affairs is expected to deal with international activities and queries from international students. Therefore, if a student has questions about academics for example, they should go to one department and if they have questions about scholarships, they should go to another, just as Japanese students do. There is an international division, but this unit does not have the directive to step into the territories covered by the other units, even if international students or faculty members are involved.

The international education support staff maintain that this organizational structure does not mean that the administrative staff are unable to work with international students, but rather international students do not get served well because the staff are overworked. A senior staff member stated that the staff members have full schedules dealing with domestic student needs, but the small number of international students on campus need more support and therefore staff have to try to balance their time and effort accordingly, this often results in international students receiving less support than staff would like. The senior staff member also remarked that the organizational culture of the administrative offices works against the international students, in that younger members of staff who are able to work effectively in English often do not do so because of hierarchical pressure from others who are not able, or do not want to, work in English. In order to fill shortfalls in the service to international students, the international division has in fact become a de facto international office.

### **Practical Responses to the Challenges Experienced**

Program implementers described practical responses that they and the university have taken to overcome some of the challenges they have faced in the implementation of

the ETP. They also discussed future directions for the program. Student recruitment has emerged as one of the biggest challenges to implementation of the ETP at University B. To help improve the recruitment process, the university introduced a summer camp for high school students and potential applicants to the program in 2012. Each summer, a group of high school students from around the world visit the campus for a four-day program of workshops and activities. The students meet the faculty members and current ETP program students, learn about the program and experience life in Japan.

The program implementers have modified the applicant eligibility criteria to allow a greater number of students to apply to the ETP, and have also adjusted the dates for ETP application submission and decision notification. Acceptance notices are now given to potential students at the same time as the delivery of US notifications so that students who are considering universities in both countries are better informed of their options. Further improvements that could be made to the recruiting process were also discussed. Implementers suggested that the university needs a more aggressive marketing strategy in addition to a recruitment management system which would keep track of potential applicants and would enable targeted recruitment.

Responses to challenges with course provision and program expansion include the implementation of a new regulation that states that any new faculty members hired in either of the two faculties involved with the ETP must be prepared to teach one course of a full-time workload in English. Implementers hope that as faculty members leave and new ones are employed the resistance to teaching in English that is currently being experienced will subside. Recent changes to the curriculum will also help to alleviate course provision challenges. Both ETP and non-ETP students entering the program from

2014 onwards are required to study at least one language. With a stronger foundation in the English language, it is hoped that more domestic Japanese students will be willing and prepared to study in English. In addition, the faculties involved in the ETP implementation are discussing the development of a wider-based Japanese studies program across the two faculties.

In order to ease the ETP students' transition to studying in Japan and to allay student services challenges, the program implementers, guided primarily by faculty members working with the program have instituted a student orientation program. This overnight 'camp' takes place near to the campus. At the orientation, there are presentations by the deans, faculty members and current ETP students. Students learn about the academics of the program, the history of the university and about life on campus and in Japan. As university regulations do not permit official campus events to take place before the admissions ceremony, the orientation happens after the students have been living in Japan for several weeks. Faculty members realize that international students may need support before the official this orientation and so also hold a welcome barbeque before the start of classes.

The university has taken other university-wide measures which they hope will improve the student services for ETP students. For example, in the past year the university established a new website which provides information and news for current and potential international students; a new dormitory is being constructed on the campus; and the Office for Global Initiatives is carrying out a project to translate university documents into English. Administrative staff members working in academic affairs also have opportunities to attend training sessions organized specifically for University B by

the British Council. These sessions are focused on English-language email skills to prepare them to deal with international students and faculty members. Furthermore, staff working in the international division are eligible to attend training offered by the Japan Network for International Education (JAFSA). A senior international education support staff member remarked that the university's system of job rotation for tenured administrative staff is helping to internationalize the entire university as when staff who receive internationally-focused training in one position move to another department, they bring their skills and knowledge with them.

### **Explaining the practical responses to program challenges.**

When program implementers explain the practical responses to the challenges of implementing the ETP a theme concerning the difficulty of achieving system-wide integration emerges.

*System-wide integration struggles.* The practical responses to the challenges of recruitment, course provision and expansion in particular, and to some extent the responses to student services challenges highlight the struggles that University B is experiencing in integrating the ETP into the main structure of the university. The university has a tradition of individual faculty autonomy, and, as international education support staff and senior administrators explain, the university is cautious of top-down approaches that place unnecessary burden on faculties, departments or faculty members. Thus, responses to the challenges of ETP implementation have tended to be discrete, self-contained activities that do not effect change across the entire faculty. For example, in response to recruitment issues, there has been the establishment of the summer camp, and the dates of application submission have been changed, but these involve only a small

number of interested faculty members. Calls for an overhaul of the marketing and recruitment strategy and management process have thus far been overlooked.

Similarly, the approach to increasing the number of courses taught in English is one that only minimally affects existing practices. Professors teaching in the faculties implementing the ETP have resisted teaching in English and the response has largely been to wait until new faculty members are employed rather than providing faculty development to aid transition to EMI. Student services have succeeded in integrating an international element across a wider range of their services, but this is due to the existing organizational structure of administrative units. International training for the administrative staff, although provided, is not mandatory.

### **Program Outcomes**

In summarizing the progress of the ETP, program implementers describe it as good, perhaps better than some implementers expected in that the program does have sufficient courses offered in English. However, implementers acknowledge that they would like to see more courses offered in English. They feel that the ETP and the presence of more international students is gradually changing the international perspectives of the domestic Japanese students on campus. The campus certainly feels different, it is becoming more diverse in that there are more people who look physically dissimilar, and more people from different backgrounds sharing the same space. Although likely not directly related to the ETP, given the number of other initiatives related to study abroad currently taking place in Japanese universities, implementers have seen an increase in the number of Japanese students expressing interest in studying abroad. With regard to the students actually enrolled in the ETP, implementers remark

that they are pleased with the quality of the students they are receiving and happy that the students are getting involved in the campus' research groups.

In terms of change across the university more broadly, senior administrators and international education support staff believe that the ETP has changed the attitudes of faculty members and staff, giving them experience in running an international program so they are better prepared to expand international programming over the next five to ten years. As a result of the experiences with the G30 Project, departments in other faculties have created new international programs. These programs were initially at the graduate level, but there is also a new undergraduate double degree program in cooperation with a European institution. The ETP is also gradually effecting a cultural change in University B. One faculty member referred to the new recruitment policies which demand English teaching ability, and remarked that they disrupt the traditional old boy network whereby professors often recommend their friends to be recruited to positions at the university.

### **Comparison of Program Implementer Perspectives and Official Documentation**

In official documentation about the ETPs (both undergraduate and graduate) at University B published by the university in promotional brochures and on its own websites<sup>27</sup>, the recurring rationale for establishing ETPs is one of enabling international students to study easily at the university. The ETPs are described as providing “an accessible learning environment for overseas students” (University B, 2010; Guide for International Students, 2012; University B General Information, 2013), making “it easy for students from other countries to study in Japan” (University B's Global 30 webpage,

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<sup>27</sup> See Appendix F for a list of the documents reviewed for each institution.

2014), and making “the university more accessible to students from abroad” (Office for Global Initiatives webpage, 2014).

This rationale is mentioned by the program implementers at University B. However, the implementers provide further insight by describing why they feel the university wants to make the institution more accessible to international students. They believe that attracting international students is the first step of a grander plan and they explain that the university hopes that the presence of English-speaking international students will improve the international skills of domestic students. University publications only make brief reference to the ETPs adding value to the existing student body. In fact, just the Office for Global Initiatives webpage mentions any rationale beyond improving the accessibility for international students. This webpage states that the EMI courses also foster “an atmosphere of global awareness and sensitivity among Japanese students” (Office for Global Initiatives webpage, 2014).

Documents produced at the outset of the Global 30 Project and published on MEXT and JSPS websites outline a number of measures that the university intended to take in implementing the project. In both its project proposal summary and description of Global 30 activities on the MEXT Global 30 website, University B described plans to increase the intake of international students from areas where it already had a strong record of recruiting students (Europe and the United States), and from other areas such as China, Southeast Asia, the UAE and Brazil. According to implementers and to a presentation given by the university as the Global 30 Project reached the end of its funding cycle (University B ETP Administration, 2014), the undergraduate ETP has had difficulties in doing this. The greatest number of applicants to the program each year, and

also the largest group of students enrolled on the program are of Japanese nationality. Very few students from Europe and the United States have applied to the program, and there has been no interest from students from the Middle East or South America. One implementer explained that the program has made no efforts to recruit in South America. Specifically, the decision to include Brazil as a target country for recruitment in the initial proposal was based on faculty members' personal relationships with Brazilian universities and has not been followed up on since the ETP was implemented. In fact, implementers describe student recruitment as University B's biggest challenge.

Early project documents and the current university Global 30 webpage also state that the university planned on improving the administrative support for international students. They highlight the university's efforts to implement a bilingual application and course registration system, to translate into English documents affecting international students and faculty, and to provide career development opportunities for administrative staff. While implementers acknowledge that steps have been made in these directions, they specifically state that challenges concerning paperwork and information technology services for international students enrolled on the ETP still exist. In fact, some feel that the reforms made by the university in shifting international student services away from an international student center to a decentralized system are, at least in the short-term, reducing the accessibility of services for international students. With regard to staff development opportunities, some have been provided, but implementers believe that these are insufficient and the planned training programs with American universities that were written about in the MEXT website have not occurred.

## Appendix J: Detailed Presentation of the English-Taught Program at University C

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## **Characteristics of the English-Taught Program**

The ETP studied at University C began in October 2011 and admits students each fall. At the time of research, the first cohort of students to enroll on the program were in their third year of study of the four year program. The program is held in one school of study, but classes are taken at two campuses. The program is interdisciplinary, comprising themes from sociology, anthropology, psychology, gender studies, education, and peace and conflict studies. It offers two integrated majors which focus on globalization and contemporary social science. Students choose a major in their fourth semester, after completing a foundational liberal arts curriculum. They are required to obtain 124 credits, of which 10 are earned through the submission of an undergraduate thesis. They can take up to a maximum 10 credits of Japanese content courses. ETP students must study a minimum of six credits of Japanese language, but are encouraged to take more. If the students already have a high level of Japanese, other language options are available. One distinct feature of the program is that students with the necessary grades can choose to fast-track their degree to complete the program in three-and-half years. This enables students who hope to work in Japan or enroll in a Japanese graduate program to graduate in March along with the majority of students in Japan.

The students enrolled in the ETP are awarded the same degree as the students enrolled in the JTP program in the same school of study. However the two programs are distinct in that their majors are different, and in that the ETP is more rigidly structured with defined benchmarking of attributes and capabilities that students should possess when they graduate from the program. In addition, each ETP course syllabus specifies the learning outcomes of that course. The professors in the ETP work together to ensure that

the program offers a coherent degree with core subjects that build upon each other. The JTP is more free-form, with fewer mandatory requirements for students and more professor autonomy in the level-setting and design of the courses. Students enrolled in the JTP are able to take some English-medium courses, and there are a small number of EMI courses taught at a lower level (with less stringent homework and assessment requirements than the ETP courses) especially designed for these students. There is no requirement that students enrolled in the JTP study any content in English, but English language classes are mandatory for these students.

The ETP has admitted 26 students to the program, out of a maximum quota of 10 per year. The ETP students are currently from Asia, North America and Europe. Students of Japanese nationality who completed their secondary education in a non-Japanese system are eligible to apply, and a minimum English language test score of TOEFL 85 or IELTS 6.5 is required of non-native English speakers for entry into the program. Program implementers have noticed an increase in the number of European applicants and enrollees as the program has matured, although the largest nationality group enrolled in the program is Japanese. In the first semester of the ETP, non-ETP students were not permitted to enroll in ETP courses, but in order to enhance the academic and intercultural benefits of the courses to the wider campus community and to ease tensions among ETP students, non-ETP students have been able to take the ETP courses for the last two years. Professors state that about 90 non-ETP students have joined the ETP courses each semester, and that in the classrooms, there may be a combination of ETP, non-ETP domestic and international, and international exchange students as well as domestic and international graduate students.

University C has four specially appointed full-time professors who teach the bulk of the ETP courses in the first three semesters of the program. These faculty members were hired with G30 Project funding specifically to teach on the ETP. They all have international experience, only one of these professors is of Japanese nationality, and only one completed their doctorate degree at a Japanese university. Many of the ETP courses from the fourth semester upwards are taught by professors who were employed by University C before the establishment of the ETP, and accordingly were not hired to specifically teach in English. With the ETP being new, and half of the first cohort of ETP students studying abroad at the time of research, these non-ETP professors are just beginning to become involved with the program. They were usually asked to teach in English by the dean of the school or vice president of the university, and the courses that they teach are based on the strengths of those who agreed to teach in English, rather than on strict requirements of the ETP. Newly employed professors in the school of study that houses the ETP are now required to state that they have the ability to teach in English.

The ETP has one specially appointed administrator who is also financed with G30 Project funding. This staff member is responsible for all administrative operations of the program, including tasks dealing directly with the international students and tasks concerning paperwork for international students relating to the wider university. She also attends international student recruitment fairs and acts as a first point of contact for ETP students experiencing difficulties. Another staff member working the academic affairs office for the school of study deals with other tasks related to the ETP such as the timetabling of courses. Initial planning for the ETP at University C was carried out by faculty members at the University Headquarters. Currently, those implementers remain

minimally involved. Administrators at International College, the unit established in 2010 to oversee the ETPs at University C, deal with student recruitment, including the handling of initial student inquiries and participation in student recruitment fairs. However, the bulk of the program implementation, including the designing of the curriculum, recruitment of faculty members, and day to day management of the ETP is the responsibility of the program's associate director.

### **Explaining the program characteristics.**

In explaining why the ETP is situated in the school of study, program implementers refer to external pressures and internal politics. They state that the university had to offer a program in the humanities/social sciences field to sit alongside the planned natural sciences ETP in order to be competitive for the G30 Project funding. With this decision made, the university headquarters searched for a suitable faculty to house the program. Personal relationships played a part in the selection of the school of study which ultimately housed the program, along with the feasibility of the school being able to implement the ETP. This particular school was already teaching some courses in English, and had a number of faculty members who had received their doctoral training overseas. The two majors were chosen they aligned with the existing focus of the school of study and the research interests of the directors of the program. The curriculum designers also took into consideration the reasons why international students might want to study in Japan.

Most of the students enrolled on the ETP are Japanese nationals educated overseas in international schools or in International Baccalaureate programs. They are attracted to University C by the structure of the program and educational standards it

upholds. Program implementers say that these students are used to studying in English, and expect to be challenged by their university program. Implementers state that these students do not want to enroll in a standard Japanese undergraduate degree program, because they believe that these programs are not sufficiently rigorous. They say that the students that apply to their program have a lot of choice about where they will ultimately enroll and will be critical when choosing their program. One faculty member summarized this when he stated that:

the international students who have a lot of choice about where they go will be critical. Regular Japanese students might not be because they go “I passed the entrance exam, I got in to one of the best universities in the country”. They’ll just accept anything. They don’t care. International students have put a big investment in, it’s a big risk for them. They expect certain things. (FMc<sub>2</sub>)

It is challenging for University C to enrol the maximum quota of ten students per year, as the students applying to the ETP usually have offers from other universities in Japan and abroad. This faculty member believes that internationalized university programs are necessarily consumer-driven.

Once enrolled in the ETP, the students can be very vocal and critical about the EMI courses they take, especially about those that are taught by non-core ETP professors when they feel that they are not getting the education experience they would like.

Implementers explain that inside the classroom, the ETP classes tend to be dynamic. However, it is not necessarily the ETP students that are leading the classroom interaction. Faculty members teaching the EMI courses report that on some occasions the ETP students become more stereotypically ‘Japanese’ and sit quietly, while the Japanese students enrolled in the JTP drive the interaction.

When explaining their personal reasons for working on the ETP, program implementers at University C talk about the significance of the program to Japanese HE as a whole, and their interest in making a meaningful contribution to Japan's ability to engage globally. They believe that the ETP, with its emphasis on creating a coherent program with detailed curriculum documents and explicit graduate attributes, has potential to influence other programs first in the school of study and then across the university more broadly. This belief is especially relevant as new government instructions highlight the importance of accountability measures. Implementers feel that if Japanese HE is to survive and thrive, it must be able to communicate internationally, and that enabling scholars to circulate their work in English is one way to do that. The program implementers at University C feel privileged to be part of this effort.

Implementers expressed their desires to help students, both domestic and international, to learn new ways of thinking and learning through interacting with those of different backgrounds. They want to expose students to new things and also help international students navigate their international education experience to obtain a fulfilling degree. Program implementers discussed how their own backgrounds have influenced their decisions to work with the ETP. Many have had overseas educational experiences and want to enable others to have similar experiences. Those who held senior administrative and staff positions at the university prior to the implementation of the ETP are less likely to have become involved with the program voluntarily. They spoke of the superior-junior relationships within the Japanese university work environment and their obligations to accommodate their superior's requests.

## **Rationales for the English-Taught Program**

Program implementers at University C describe three interlinked reasons as to why the university implemented ETPs: its status as a national university, a desire to increase the English-language research output of the university, and an aspiration to raise the university's position in world university rankings. First and foremost, University C is a national university, and so it is out of the question for the university not to apply for (and receive) government funding. Consequently the university implemented undergraduate ETPs because of what essentially amounted to government mandate to do so. However, implementers at this university also discuss how ETPs are a way to leverage the considerable strengths of the university. They emphasize the quality of research that the university produces and express regret that most of this research is currently published only in Japanese. For this this knowledge to be accessible overseas, they believe it must be produced and disseminated in English. English-medium teaching is seen as a way to achieve this. As one senior administrator explained, the university is trying “to nurture younger researchers, young PhD students, to produce more English papers” (SAc4).

The university's position in the world university rankings is a third rationale given for implementing ETPs at this university. Implementers say that the university is pushing for international relevance and a growth in the number of internationally-published research articles (one desired outcome of the introduction of ETPs) will contribute to this. A large proportion of the criteria used to assess universities for the popular Times Higher Education World University Rankings, QS World University Rankings and the Academic Ranking of World Universities produced by Shanghai Jiao Tong University is based on

the number of cited works produced by members of the university. Implementers also report that the university has publically stated it will increase the number of international students and faculty in order to increase the international outlook of the university - another assessment criteria of the both the Times Higher Education and QS World University Rankings.

When program implementers ranked the rationales for implementing ETPs proposed by Wächter and Maiworm (2008), their rankings reflected the opinions they expressed during the interviews in that they ranked “to sharpen the profile of your institution in comparison to others in the country” as University C’s most important rationale. This was followed very closely by “to attract international students who would not enroll in a program taught in Japanese”. Motivations for ETP implementation relating to insufficient numbers of Japanese students were ranked near to the bottom, and the rationale “to improve the income base of your institution through revenue form tuition fees paid by foreign students” placed as the least important reason for introducing ETPs to University C.

As implementers discussed their reasons for these rankings, they remarked that many of the rationales in the Wächter and Maiworm (2008) study did not apply to Japanese universities. They stated that it is very important for the university to sharpen its profile, but that this is not in comparison to others in the country. As a national university, University C is already in high standing in Japan, but now desires to strengthen its profile in the world. Therefore, the high ranking given to this rationale reflects a need to improve the university’s global rather than national profile. The implementers noted that since the G30 Project funding was first awarded, the university’s

reasons for wanting ETPs have evolved in line with a 2010 government policy shift. The reasons have changed from a desire to simply attract international students who cannot enroll in JTPs in order to strengthen the research base of the university and to increase the supply of qualified workers to the Japanese market, to focusing on preparing Japanese students for the international workplace. However, the senior administrators, more so than the faculty members, feel that the university continues to place some weight on the need to bring international students into Japan as a future workforce because this remains of concern to the government.

Implementers stated that providing education to third world students as a means of development aid used to be a reason for providing graduate programs in English, but although older professors may still believe this to be the case, it is no longer a reason for providing EMI. Implementers almost unanimously agreed that the desire to generate revenue for the institution from the tuition fees of international students was irrelevant for their university, and for universities across East Asia in general. This is because low university fees and the high costs of educating international students due to the specialist services they require, result in international students not contributing to the university's budget.

#### **Explaining the program rationales.**

A theme of prestige underpinned the implementers' discussion of the university's rationales for implementing the ETP.

***Prestige.*** As a national university already well-placed in domestic and international university rankings, University C values the prestige of that position and prioritizes its retainment and improvement. Program implementers worry that the

university-level discourse surrounding ETPs and internationalization could be one of “buzzwords and jargon” (FMc<sub>2</sub>). They worry that there may not be a coherent vision to the university’s internationalization efforts, especially given the small size of the ETP and therefore its limited ability to bring benefit to more than a few people and incite wider change in the university. Despite this concern, they recognize that academic prestige and university ranking schemes are taken seriously by many people, and therefore there is utility in attending to them in order to promote the university.

Regardless of their cynicism about the rankings, implementers note that the presence of international students and faculty on campus and the emphasis on teaching domestic students to compete academically in the English language are healthy traits for the university.

### **Challenges in Implementing the English-Taught Program**

The biggest challenge that faces the ETP at University C is one that relates to situatedness and identity - of the program, of the faculty members involved with the program, and of the students studying on the program. The ETP is still finding its place within local frameworks. For example, there have been challenges in designing a structured program which delivers coherent outcomes within the standard Japanese undergraduate degree framework. A standard Japanese undergraduate degree must include certain mandatory subjects, and consists largely of two-credit courses which meet once a week. These requirements have been met by the ETP, however implementers are concerned that classes held just once a week do not give students opportunity to delve deeply into a subject area and as a consequence students become frustrated. Also, the significant number of different courses that must necessarily be provided under this

system create difficulties in finding sufficient teaching staff. For the courses that are not taught by the specially appointed professors, the ETP has to work within the contexts of what current faculty members are willing and able to teach.

The ETP implementers are also having to work within what they regard as somewhat restrictive and arbitrary program guidelines. University C has imposed a small quota on the number of students to be admitted to the ETP so as not to take away places from domestic students who wish to enroll at this competitive institution. This makes ETP implementation challenging because the small quota creates tensions among students who spend much of their time in the program together and could potentially lead to problems with under-enrolled courses. Implementers are concerned that the small quota is the university's way of showing compliance with the government's initiative, yet, at the same time a way of keeping the program from impacting the wider university. Implementers believe that the admissions guidelines for the ETP are arbitrary in nature and restrict the number of quality applicants that are eligible to apply. For example, applicants who completed their entire education overseas may enroll in the ETP before they are 18 years of age. However, the Ministry of Education imposes minimum age restrictions on Japan-based applicants.

Although program implementers state that it was not difficult to convince university administrators and faculty to accept the overall concept of a program taught in English - because of the status that an ETP brings to the university - the ETP struggles with obtaining buy-in on a more practical level. There are those at the university who are not exactly sure what the program is trying to achieve. The ETP at University C is not simply an English-medium extension or replication of an existing program, but a program

that ultimately seeks to make change in the wider university through raising levels of educational accountability and quality assurance. Program implementers report that resistance to the program comes not only from older Japanese professors and administrators that might be expected to be guarded when it comes to change, but also from international faculty members, even those employed specifically to teach on the ETP. Implementers note that international faculty members who do not have a background in education or do not have experience working on a program that emphasizes quality assurance question what they are being asked to do.

Faculty members working on the program are examining their own identities and place within the school of study. They are conscious of the emergence of two academic cultures within the school of study and wary of potential tensions that could develop. The ETP professors comment that they have different backgrounds and training from many of the other faculty members in the school and they are mindful of being perceived as outsiders imposing some kind of Western “culturally sanctioned practices of education” (FMc<sub>2</sub>). This issue is particularly delicate because professors teaching courses for the ETP are encouraged to get their syllabi checked by ETP program advisors. The core ETP faculty members do not want to be seen as providing courses which students regard as better than others offered in the school. Neither do they want students to expect that what is done in the ETP courses is standard practice, nor that the ability to speak native-like English makes one faculty member better than another.

ETP implementers are finding that they have to manage student expectations with regards to program delivery. They report receiving comments from their students regarding mismatched expectations and say that ETP students complain that some

professors merely stand and deliver pre-written notes, while others are unclear about their assessment criteria. When managing student expectations, program implementers emphasize a desire to adapt and integrate ETP students into the Japanese academic environment and the need to promote the mutual understanding of different academic cultures. Yet, at the same time they want to encourage best practices in teaching and promote standards that are recognized internationally in both academia and the global marketplace.

The students enrolled in the ETP also experience struggles with their identities as students of University C. The size and structure of the program results in the ETP students spending a lot of time in classes together, not very well integrated with the regularly enrolled students. This has led to conventional students seeing the ETP students as different, and treating them in ways that make them feel as though they are short-term exchange students. The ETP students have to remind others that they are full students of the university and are at the university for four years. Consequently, one of the complaints that the program implementers receive from the ETP students is that they would like to have more interaction with Japanese students. As the ETP has evolved, the situation has eased. After the first semester, ETP courses were opened up to domestic students, and each year more of these students have enrolled in the courses. However, implementers state that there is still insufficient interaction, and that the ETP students continue to feel somewhat isolated.

The program is also experiencing challenges related to the academic abilities of the students in the EMI classrooms. Those teaching on the program say that the courses specially designed for the ETP are delivered to meet the academic level and expectations

of the ETP students. This creates a challenge for faculty members managing both ETP and non-ETP students in their classes. They state that the regularly enrolled students are capable students with good English comprehension, however they find the reading loads difficult and often do not have the basic academic skills to keep up. Domestic Japanese students feel the pressure of workloads heavier than they might experience in a Japanese-taught course. Consequently, many fall behind and drop out of the ETP courses. Program implementers state that the ETP is, in that sense, not a very efficient program.

Program implementers at University C describe challenges related to the workload of implementing the ETP. Administrators, faculty members and staff who were working at the institution before the introduction of the ETP stress that they have their regular teaching, research and general responsibilities in addition to working on this program. As the ETP follows different standards to the usual program in the school of study where it is housed, there has been a considerable amount of work involved in getting the program running. Implementers state that achieving balance between the different responsibilities is challenging. Those specially appointed to work on the program also describe heavy workloads. The faculty members who teach the bulk of the ETP courses have a lot of subjects to cover, this is exacerbated by the fact that the courses must be delivered in two-credit modules. There are also translation, interpretation and faculty development tasks that they have become responsible for. Implementers also state that for Japanese professors it is a time-consuming exercise to prepare materials for an EMI course, even for those who completed their graduate education overseas. Furthermore, it is particularly difficult to find English-language teaching materials that are suitable for their classrooms which comprise many East-Asian students.

One senior administrator commented that internationalizing the university is seen by many at the university as an additional task on top of full agendas, and that this is a stumbling block for those charged with overseeing the implementation of internationalization activities. Moreover, implementers note that the limited shelf-life of government policies such as the G30 Project due to regular changes in the emphasis of national HE policy from within the Ministry of Education does not foster positive dispositions towards internationalization initiatives. The ETP has come at a time when faculty workloads have been increasing in areas related to the strengthening of quality assurance measures, and increasing study abroad numbers. There have been few measures taken to ease these burdens and consequently it has been difficult to draft Japanese professors to teach courses in English. Faculty members teaching in English are not provided with extra compensation for transitioning into EMI, although in some cases a course load reduction has been granted and additional part-time professors hired to cover the Japanese-taught courses. In others cases promotions have been awarded for contributions to the program.

Program implementers have mixed opinions about the services and support offered by University C to the ETP students. The university has accommodated international students for many years and therefore some implementers believe the services to be more than adequate. Others, however, believe there to be deficiencies. They reference on-campus accommodation, stating that the lack of mixed Japanese-international student accommodation on campus is a barrier to recruiting overseas students. Implementers also report that little attention has been paid to the career services offered to non-Japanese speaking students at the university, however, as the first intake of

ETP students entered their third year, the university began cooperating with the local economic federation to provide career advice to international students.

According to the implementers, counselling centers could also be improved. They have limited English language services and implementers report that when international students encounter mental health issues, the university does not seem able to resolve them. The ETP has experienced some student attrition in this regard. Implementers report that it is a challenge to maintain a base of qualified English speaking staff in student support service units. They state that to attend to the growing numbers of international students, new staff with good English skills have been employed. However, these staff members are usually employed on part-time and/or short term contracts. Their job security is uncertain and English-speaking staff that develop knowledge of international education matters are obliged to move on after only a few years, especially when a project such as the G30 comes to the end of its funding cycle.

### **Explaining the challenges facing program implementation.**

When program implementers explain why challenges occur in the implementation of the ETP at University C, two major themes emerge: the structure of the ETP and the governance structure of the university.

*Structure of the English-taught program.* Many of the challenges described by the program implementers are the result of the way that the ETP designers chose to structure the program. The challenges related to situatedness, identity, and student and faculty workloads are perhaps all more significant at University C than they otherwise might because the ETP does not simply mirror or add EMI courses to an existing program. However, implementers believe that the strengths of their program make it

worth overcoming these hurdles. They explain that the ETP has been designed with clear learning objectives and outcomes because it is no longer enough for students to just simply enroll in a collection of courses that do not build toward coherent learning outcomes. Employers and graduate school administrators want to know exactly what skills students have gained and how they have been assessed. In addition, a program that can be recognized as having standards of education equivalent to programs in Europe that have undergone the Bologna Process reforms allows for easy credit transfer and facilitates student and scholar mobility. Furthermore, implementers explain that if the ETP shares a common infrastructure with programs internationally, it enables Japan to more widely publish its own scholarship

***University governance structure.*** Program implementers express frustration with the governance structure of the university and state that it hinders many attempts to reform and improve teaching and research practices at the university, not just those related to internationalization. Despite the 2004 national university reforms which gave more decision-making power to the university president, program implementers argue that it is still the case that unless there is consensus agreement within the university, there is little chance of a reform being implemented. One senior administrator explained:

Japanese higher education badly needs innovative teaching now, but for that to happen, the biggest problem in my view is the lack of internal governance of the university. That means if the top of the university makes decision in that direction, and the rest of the organization of the university does not follow, there's no way for us to implement every reform, every step for innovative teaching, every change, it's impossible. (SAC<sub>3</sub>)

Moreover, the election system of the university president further impedes the adoption of new practices at the university. If faculty members are reluctant to adopt new policies endorsed by the university president, they simply vote him out of office at the next

election and select a leader with divergent views. The senior administrator described this as the “stop and go of politics in the Japanese university” (SAC<sub>3</sub>).

### **Practical Responses to the Challenges Experienced**

When discussing practical responses to the challenges of ETP implementation at University C, program implementers describe specific actions that were taken during the design phase to allay potential challenges, actions that were taken in response to problems that have arisen since the program began, and actions that they would like to see taken in the future. In the initial planning stages, there was discussion of creating a program where ETP students would begin their program taking classes in English and then transition to Japanese. This would ensure that students would gain the language skills necessary for future employment in Japan, however, in line with the government mandate, the program had to allow students to graduate after only taking courses in English.

Implementers at University C state that the school of study purposefully took time between receiving G30 Project funding and accepting its first cohort of ETP students so that strong foundations for the program could be established. During that time, implementers found out about how to recruit students to an ETP, designed the curriculum, and recruited and trained faculty members to teach on the program. Specifically, implementers traveled overseas to visit high schools to find out what might work best for student recruitment in terms of academic calendar scheduling and program offerings. They defined the knowledge, skills and abilities that they expected the ETP students to gain, and new teaching staff were hired to help develop the program. In

addition, implementers wrote a handbook for academic staff to introduce them to the pedagogical approach adopted by the ETP.

The program was designed with a strong eye toward ETP student academic and pastoral support. Each year, at the beginning of the semester there is a new student orientation session where in addition to learning about the ETP, students are given guidance on about living in Japan and receive help with filling in required Japanese paperwork. They also have the opportunity to interact with students already enrolled in the program. The orientation has been adjusted to better suit student needs as the ETP has matured. During the first year of program implementation, the student orientation took place over two days with the students staying overnight. However, implementers found it to be too intensive for the students and removed the residential component in subsequent years. Students receive ongoing support during the academic year. Each intake of ETP students is assigned to an academic cohort advisor who assists students with academic matters such as course enrollment and registration. The ETP has also established weekly home room sessions for its students. These sessions are informal meetings with a professor where students can discuss academic and student-life concerns.

University C also has support mechanisms that directly affect classroom teaching practices and ensure that program quality is upheld. These mechanisms support both the ETP students inside the classroom and the faculty members teaching EMI courses. They include activities such as classroom evaluations, core academic staff meetings, and guidance on syllabus and assessment design. Feedback from teaching assistants working in the ETP classrooms, along with student evaluations, is used by the associate director to monitor the program. The core ETP faculty members meet every other week to discuss

issues such as the challenges relating to teaching students of different abilities in the same classroom and the moderation of classroom grades. In addition, the teaching handbook and syllabus templates created by the ETP faculty members serve as forms of faculty development for those teaching on the program.

Additional faculty development is carried out by core ETP faculty members in the form of workshops to Japanese professors teaching on the ETP. These workshops focus on teaching methodologies. Since 2012, one of the specially appointed faculty members has also been offering faculty development workshops in Japanese. The core ETP implementers say that they also talk informally with Japanese professors teaching EMI courses on the program to give advice and encouragement about ETP teaching practices. They hope that working with their Japanese colleagues to minimize concerns about teaching on the ETP and to discuss interesting teaching experiences will lessen the fears that the ETP professors are simply imposing different, Western, educational practices on their colleagues.

The frequent communication among ETP program implementers and others involved has resulted in changes and improvements to the program. For example, application submission period deadlines have been adjusted in order to allow decision notifications to be made in the same time frame as the universities in the United States that potential ETP students might also have applied to. Other examples include the removal of the residential component of the new student orientation to ease student stress at the beginning of the semester, and integrating the two program majors to allow greater flexibility of course choice to students. The program has also opened up the ETP courses

to non-ETP students in response to student requests to have more interaction and to bring the ETP to the wider campus community.

In response to challenges related to the presence of students of different linguistic and academic abilities in the classroom and to encourage more Japanese students to enroll in EMI courses, some of the ETP core professors are also now teaching courses in English to non-ETP students. These courses contain the same content as the ETP courses, but are delivered at a slower pace with fewer reading and assessment requirements. These EMI courses create some challenges for the teaching staff as they work to reduce the scope of the course without sacrificing the standard of learning outcomes. However, the courses have been successful in that they act as showcases of different styles of teaching and ways of looking at things and they have, as one faculty member explained, functioned “as a gateway drug to other [ETP] courses” (FMc<sub>2</sub>).

Program implementers described the development opportunities available to staff working with the ETP and international students. When the ETP was first introduced, the university contracted an independent organization to deliver an English language skills course. This course was well attended by administrators and staff. Staff from University C have also been able to attend intensive English courses and workshops organized by one of the other universities involved in the G30 Project. International education support staff observe that although English language skills training is very important, they would like to receive more education about intercultural communication skills.

Administrators and staff described other measures that they would like to see taken at the university to overcome the challenges of ETP implementation. They said that a more even distribution of the work involved in implementing the program, including

the recruitment process, the designing of the program and the teaching of the courses is needed to ease the burden of implementing a new program. Staff also remarked that the recruitment process and would be much easier if all universities were embarking on the ETP journey collaborated to share information about things such as the verification and evaluation of international student academic transcripts.

**Explaining the practical responses to program challenges.**

When program implementers explain why University C has responded to challenges in the ways that it has, two themes emerge: the centrality of the English language to the ETP, and the people at the core of the program.

*Stance towards the English language.* The practical responses that the ETP has taken to the challenges of obtaining buy-in for the program do not focus on the English language. This is despite the fact that discussion of the ETP outside of the core program implementers often focuses on the language of instruction. For example, faculty members teaching or those who could potentially teach on the ETP express concern about conducting courses in English. However, the core implementers regard the framework rather than the language of the program as the more important aspect of the ETP. They believe that establishing a strong foundation for the program by creating such things as clear course structures and well-defined assessment policies will enable the program to run more successfully than will concentrating on the English language abilities of teaching staff. Therefore, faculty development opportunities and other support mechanisms focus on course design and teaching methodologies rather than language.

*Core program people.* ETP program implementers at University C see the presence of a group of motivated people at the center of the program as an essential

element to the successful implementation of the ETP. They explain that in their program there is a core group that believes in the program and is willing to take on the work of putting it together and finding ways to overcome hurdles. They talked about how the backgrounds and research interests of these core people have shaped the program and guided the ways that they are responding to challenges. The program has been influenced strongly by both non-Japanese and Japanese implementers who have experiences in developing and working in programs at universities overseas. Some of these implementers have worked in institutions which have been subjected to the rigors of the Bologna Process quality assurance reforms. These overseas institutional contexts also promote the implementation of faculty development and course moderation. In addition, the ETP has benefitted from the directorship of faculty members and a dean who have backgrounds in education and educational affairs procedures and so have been in agreement with the key program designers and able to deal with the bureaucratic structure of the university administration and make things happen.

### **Program Outcomes**

In summarizing the progress of the ETP at University C, program implementers state that they are still very much in the middle of the implementation process, and only when ETP students graduate and move into employment will they be able to determine what the program has achieved. However, implementers have been paying attention to ETP student concerns, and the students enrolled in the program seem much happier than in the earlier years. Implementers have also noticed increased interaction between domestic Japanese and international students. In addition, they explain that they fully expect the presence of the ETP to increase short-term exchange of both incoming and

outgoing students. The increase in the number of undergraduate EMI courses is attractive to incoming short-term exchange students, and an increase in the number of incoming students allows for an increase in the number of Japanese students sent overseas.

Universities require a balance in the number of inbound and outbound students in order to make exchange programs cost-effective. Although likely not directly related to the presence of the ETP as the program is still only very small, University C has experienced an increase in the number of Japanese students applying to study abroad in the past year, and ETP implementers expect this trend to continue as more internationalization activities take place on campus.

The ETP has led to some interesting opportunities for program implementers. University C was the first national university to accept students from International Baccalaureate programs onto its ETP. As a result of the program's engagement with these students and schools, implementers from University C now advise on International Baccalaureate student recruitment and one senior administrator has been asked to stand on the advisory committee to the government's new initiative to increase the number of International Baccalaureate schools in Japan.

In terms of change across the university more broadly, implementers feel as though the school which houses the ETP is now more prepared to meet the new guidelines relating to assessment and quality assurance set out by the ministry of education<sup>28</sup>. Future funding for the program is dependent on the ETP serving the university community beyond the school where it is situated and implementers are confident that the program will survive. However, some believe that its survival depends

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<sup>28</sup> See for example, the new National University Reform Plan, available at: [http://www.mext.go.jp/english/topics/\\_icsFiles/afieldfile/2014/03/13/1345139\\_1.pdf](http://www.mext.go.jp/english/topics/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2014/03/13/1345139_1.pdf)

more on the fact that it brings prestige to the university and are skeptical of the beneficial influences that the ETP will have on the wider university.

### **Comparison of Program Implementer Perspectives and Official Documentation**

Documents published in the early stages of the G30 Project make little reference to the undergraduate ETP under study at University C, stating only that the program will be established (MEXT Global 30 website) and offering a vague aim that says that the program will have “a practical approach to exploring and understanding pressing social and human issues” (G30 Project Proposal Summary). In more recent promotional brochures published by the university, and on its own websites<sup>29</sup>, the university states that the purpose of the ETP is to nurture “internationally aware individuals who can think and act both locally and globally” (G30 International Programs, 2014; ETP website, 2013) and that the ETP aims to “cultivate self-motivated students with a sophisticated knowledge base and the necessary practical skills to meet the challenges of our fast-changing globalized world” (ETP Curriculum Outline, n.d.; Study ETP at University C, n.d). University documents emphasize the learning outcomes for the students and the quality of the education provided by the ETP. They mention no specific rationales for implementing a program in English.

Program implementer’s personal rationales for working on the ETP closely reflect the published aims of the program. They work to provide a quality education for students that encourages them to learn in new ways and gain new perspectives and intend the ETP to influence other programs across the university. In addition to their own rationales for working on the ETP, implementers also provide understandings of the university’s

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<sup>29</sup> See Appendix F for a list of the documents reviewed for each institution.

rationales for the ETP, describing institutional motivations to enhance the university's prestige. They state that the program will help the university to be able to disseminate its research outputs internationally and enable the university to rise in international university ranking systems.

In addition to the academic goals of the ETP, university promotional documents also describe the types of support services offered to international students. It is quite prominently stated that ETP students are given priority access to university dormitories. This is an area of concern to both program implementers and students because the priority access is for international student accommodation. Students would prefer to live alongside Japanese students. This desire for integration is seen again in the points for improvement made by students that were presented at the MEXT symposium on the status of the G30 Project in 2013 (Project for Establishing University Network for Internationalization Follow-up for FY 2012). Here, ETP students indicated that they would like more opportunities to interact with Japanese students. Implementers explain that since 2012, ETP courses are open to Japanese students and this has increased interaction among ETP and Japanese students. However, implementers note that ETP students still feel that this is insufficient.