THE SUPER GLOBAL UNIVERSITY FUNDING PROJECT: CASE STUDY AT AN ELITE JAPANESE UNIVERSITY

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by

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Abstract

Using a critical realist approach to case study research, the thesis explores how education reform policy is translated into practice. The thesis looks at a single institution to investigate the complex structures at work in the translation of policy in situ. Specifically it analyses the translation of policy funded by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) under the Super Global University Project (SGUP) at an elite Japanese university, the University of Tsukuba, a national university located one hour east of Tokyo.

The case study is an exemplifying case with elements of being a revelatory case for internationalisation-focused education reform policy in Japan. The methodology employs mixed methods for an educational-management, critical realist-type case study. The research brings to light previously obscure theoretical relationships from the vantage point of an embedded researcher engaged on-site with reform target implementation and translation all throughout the initial adoption phase of the Super Global project.

The thesis focuses on policy translation in a specific university setting; however, this process does not happen in isolation. It is important to place the university in Japan in a global context of relations to networks for university reform, the labour market and the youth-to-work transition.

One core theory to emerge is that on the macro level of policy there is a globalising process to university reform; relatedly, on the micro level of the department, organisational management is the essential operative variable at the intersection of university reform, the changing needs of the labour market, and increased risk in the youth-to-work transition. Elias’ figurational sociology is applied as an heuristic to extend this theory.

In combination, the theories to emerge from the case study serve to inform the judgements and decisions of practitioners or policy-makers in this area and have implications on the levels of policy, institution, department, and student.
Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my advisor Dr. John Goodwin for his good-heartedness and the best confidence boosting sushi lunch in Yokohama; a special thank you to Prof. Jun Ikeda, Yuki Yanagishi, and the staff of the Career Guidance office at the University of Tsukuba for their generous support, and to my research assistants Yuki, Sae, Ryosuke, Naoko, and Shoko; special thanks also to Dean Tomiji Kitamura who adjured me to pursue doctoral research; a nod to my former colleague Michael Thomas who brought to my attention the University of Leicester; gashō to my dear friends and best cheerleaders Joe Haldane, Gabi Schmidt, & especially Johnny George who championed getting it done; when you see it you can’t miss it; and finally, big love to my family who bring it all to life.

Some elements of the thesis were previously published in part, in different versions or formats, in the following articles for which I am the sole author:


For Bernard and Edna who planted in me the seed of higher education.

Forward

At the time of this writing, my daily work is at the frontline of issues discussed in this thesis: global skills, global teams, and academic organisational management. With my itinerant upbringing and interdisciplinary education, I found a happy home working on this research. As is often the case, in retrospect it appears by design. It was not; I fell into it. For that fall, I am truly grateful.
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## List of Abbreviations

ACE = American Council on Education  
ASEAN = Association of South East Asian Nations  
MEXT = Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology, Japan  
CEGLOC = Center for the Education of Global Communication  
EFL = English as a Foreign Language  
FLC = Foreign Language Center  
GHRM = Global Human Resources Management  
GPA = Grade Point Average  
HE = Higher Education  
ILO = International Labour Organization  
MNC = Multi National Corporation  
NIAD-UE = National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Education  
NIDL = New International Division of Labour  
NIE = Newly Industrialising Economy  
OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development  
PPGHRD = Project for the Promotion of Global Human Resources Development  
SGUP = Super Global University Project  
SIHRM = Strategic International Human Resource Management  
SME = Small and Medium-sized enterprise
TCK = Third Culture Kid
TGUP = Top Global University Project
TMC = Toyota Motor Corporation
TNC = Trans National Corporation
TOEFL = Test of English as a Foreign Language
Chapter 1—Introduction: Setting the scene for Super Global
Introduction

The purpose of this case study is to explore how education reform policy is translated into practice. Specifically it analyses the translation of policy funded by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) under the Super Global University Project at the University of Tsukuba.

The different components of the research are integrated in the four levels of analysis: the macro level of policy, the organisation level of the university, the departmental level of the English Section, and the individual level of the student. The different sources of data map on to different aspects of the research problem as discernible events in the translation of policy at the University of Tsukuba. The components of the research and the different sources of data look at internal structures of the organisation and try to understand what are the mechanisms of policy translation operative in the integrated and overlapping complexity of the four levels of analysis. At the core of the research is the objective of understanding why things are as they are.

The core theories to emerge from the case study serve to inform the judgements and decisions of practitioners or policy-makers in this area and have implications on the levels of policy, institution, department, and student. My role as an embedded researcher operating on the frontlines of reform target implementation and translation throughout the initial adoption phase of the Super Global project enabled me to bring to light previously obscure theoretical relationships. This study is a telling case for internationalisation-focused education reform policy in Japan.

a. Japan

At the time of this writing, the 2016 G7 summit at Ise-Shima has just taken place. This recent event represents several decades of on-going tariff and trade negotiations between the US and Europe and demonstrates Japan’s Westward leaning political posture. Japan’s historical engagement in the G7 evidences
Japan’s economic integration with the Western economies. For a time, Japan has been an economic envy of the world: touted for managerial efficiency in lean production; admired for the worldwide reputation of quality denoted by “Made in Japan”; celebrated for bringing to market innovative products, such as the Sony Walkman. Japanese industry and innovation captured the world’s imagination and fuelled decades-long economic growth from the post-war period to the 1980s. On the power of the tremendous successes of a relatively small number of mega corporations, Japan established its place as a leading world economy. Government policy has often aligned with the interests of such corporations, and in turn, these corporations have tended to engage in practices for the national good, such as hiring by quota rather than explicitly for business necessity. Despite its share of challenges, on the global stage today Japan can be described overall as a politically stable, low-crime, high-earning, high-functioning society.

While in Japanese mythology the islands were formed by the procreation of the gods Izanami and Izanagi, today procreation is a hot topic as the current population of 127 million is in annual decline. Japan is one of the first countries to experience simultaneously an aging population of boomers along with a declining birth rate. Currently, more than 25% of the population is over 65. Japan is at crossroads in time where there are just about twice as many old people as there are young people. Perhaps assisted by the declining population, unemployment has been relatively low for several decades, even for the youth population. But challenges Japan does have. Here are four key areas of concern for today’s Japan. Gender equality: Optimistically, shortages in the labour market may be made up for by increased participation of women, because women rate high for education achievement in OECD averages but comparatively low for almost every category of working life, including especially life-time earnings, and executive attainment. Debt: Although Japan has long held some of the largest concentrations of savings in the world, this is paired with one of the highest levels of public debt today heading upwards of 170% of
GDP. Trade: For an export dependent country, economic balance requires a Japan that can compete in the global economy. Although exports and industrial production are in a period of relative strength, Japan is still recovering from the lasting effects of the Lost Decade after the collapse of the economic bubble of the 1980s. Education: Increasingly, the government has been seeking to alleviate the burden on business by raising expectations for the contribution of Japan’s elite institutions of tertiary education. The reformist charge is to help the national economy by transforming universities into centres of innovation and producers of global human resources.

As a case study of university reform at an elite Japanese university, it is the latter key challenge—education—that is the primary concern of this thesis. Stresses on the labour market resulting from population decline and the shift to a services economy have prompted the Japanese government to pursue an aggressive strategy to reorganise tertiary education. The 2012 University Reform Action Plan from MEXT states that “universities will play an extremely important and diverse role in developing our nation into a knowledge center by: establishing a knowledge base, fostering innovation, and nurturing future leaders capable of coping with an ever-changing society. Under Japan’s existing circumstances, the reform of universities requires immediate attention and action” (MEXT, 2012). In accordance with these MEXT targets university reform has been a policy focus of the Abe government in three areas: innovation, business development, and global human resource skills training. Historically, achievement in these areas in Japan has been almost exclusively the domain of industry. Reform policies that seek to promote innovation, development, and global skills in the university setting represent a transfer of responsibility from industry to education and thereby a re-envisioning of the function of the university in Japanese society. The demands on the university to cater to divergent customers are greatly at odds: the university is called upon to prepare students for the domestic workforce, accommodate government aspirations for internationalisation, become a centre for innovation and research excellence,
and simultaneously be a positive force in the local community, all the while restructuring organisational operations to accommodate harmonization with elite international networks.

**b. Research question and aims**

My aim with writing this thesis was to describe, understand and interpret education reform, the function of the university in Japanese society, and student perspectives of global human resource development. I wanted to get an insight into the significance and purpose of education reform policies as well as to better understand the processes of education at the university. The main research question is as follows:

→ How is the super-global university project policy translated into practice by an elite Japanese university?

This is undergirded by four sub questions:

Q1. What is the super global university project and, as a recipient of this government project funding, what are the specific goals of the University of Tsukuba’s super global project plan?

Q2: For implementation of super global university reform policies, what is the academic management model for governance of the University of Tsukuba?

Q3: In relation to super global plan educational targets, what are the processes for quality assurance in education at the University of Tsukuba?

Q4: With respect to the super global student targets, what are student perceptions of the university for skills training and transition to work?

In order to answer the research questions, the thesis analyses the translation of policies developed for the super global university funding project at the University of Tsukuba in the first phase of development from early 2013 to late 2015.

**c. The University of Tsukuba wins Super Global funding**
This section is in three parts. First, it will introduce separately the setting of the University of Tsukuba, followed by the overall program for the Super Global University Project. Finally, it will put these two together to introduce specifically the University of Tsukuba’s winning project for which it receives funding from the Super Global University Project.

i. The University of Tsukuba

The University of Tsukuba, although a relatively new institution, was established as a second reimagining and relocating of the Tokyo Higher Normal School (THNS), which was founded as the first teachers’ college in Japan in 1872 during the Meiji Era. In 1947 the THNS became the Tokyo University of Education (TUE), but lasted in this incarnation only until 1973 when it was moved to the east of Tokyo and renamed the University of Tsukuba.

The city of Tsukuba is about one hour outside of Tokyo by train. Tsukuba is home to 30% of Japan’s national research institutes, such as JAXA (Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency), AIST (National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology), NIMS (National Institute of Material Science) and the JMA (Japan Meteorological Agency). The Tsukuba City Science Network has 90 member organisations, and there are more than 300 public and private research institutions in the city.

Long recognised as a top-ten university in Japan, the University of Tsukuba is one of Japan’s elite national universities in terms of history and academic ranking. The University of Tsukuba’s elite status is further evidenced by it being one of the thirteen universities selected in the government’s Global 30 initiative, an RU11 designated research university (the government designated ‘Research University’ eleven top research universities in Japan), a winner of competitive funding from the Project for the Promotion of Global Human Resources, and one of the 13 recipients of the exclusive Type A funding for the Super Global University Project. The university hosts approximately 10,000 undergraduate and 7,000 graduate students and is the largest campus on the mainland island of Japan.
Figure 1. University summary. http://www.tsukuba.ac.jp/en/about-university
ii. The Super Global University Project

The Japanese government Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) has set a defining goal of achieving world rankings in the top 100 for ten Japanese universities over the next ten years. Toward this end a new funding project, Super Global University Project, was launched in 2014 and proposed at its top tier to provide additional educational funding support up to ¥5 billion to ten selected elite private and national universities.

Before explaining the Super Global project, first a note on translation of the name of the project. In the original Japanese this project is named スーパーグローバル大学創成支援 (sūpāgurōbaru daigaku sōsei shien). Following the original word order this could be translated as “Super global university creation funding” or, for clarity, to reverse the word order, “Funding to help create a super global university”. Note that the Japanese naming of the funding project uses two English words at the very beginning “super” and “global” and these are written in the katakana script used to render foreign words into Japanese. Since “super global” is in the Japanese name, the project has generally been referred to as “Super Global” in either language. Nevertheless, official MEXT documents (see below, Figure 4) translate the name of the project as “Top Global University Project”. The English word “super” used in the Japanese name in the Japanese script for foreign words is officially re-translated back into English not as “super” but as “top”. As is common practice on campus at the university, I will refer to the project in this thesis as “Super Global University Project”. To support this choice of wording, refer back to Figure 1 above from the university website and see at the bottom of the page where it states “Top Global University Project (known as super global university project)”. As noted, however, the officially translated documents from MEXT which are shown heretofore do use MEXT official English language nomenclature of “Top Global University Project”.

To continue with the explanation of the project itself then, this kind of global project is by no means unique. University reform and global human resources
development have been the target of multiple national initiatives, including Global 30 (2010), and the Project for the Promotion of Global Human Resource Development (PPGHRD) (2012). The drive for the Super Global project is two-fold. On the one hand there is a concern for sustaining Japan’s economic competitiveness by establishing Japanese universities as competitive centers of research and innovation capable of producing global-skills-ready graduates, while on the other hand there is a desire to assert Japan’s presence in the world education market. From the perspective of international politics, the importance of education as a soft-power influence is well understood. Akihiko Kawaguchi, as vice-president of the National Institution for Academic degrees and University Evaluation (NIAD-UE), noted that “[n]o country can win hearts and minds with superior economic or military power alone anymore” (p. 77).

With these considerations in mind, the Super Global University project provides incentive funding to help achieve the goals of the 2012 National University Reform Plan. In the National University Reform Plan, MEXT focused broadly on internationalisation of the university in Japan at multiple levels, including the following: Japanese students studying overseas; foreign students studying in Japan; increasing full-time foreign faculty; reforming the wage system; placing at least 10 Japanese universities in the world rankings of top 100 universities within 10 years; strengthening governance; and strengthening the assessment system.
These Reform Plan targets form the founding rationale for the Super Global University Project. MEXT states that the Super Global University Funding Project is “a funding project that aims to advance the international compatibility and competitiveness of higher education in Japan... Selected universities are expected to press forward with comprehensive internationalisation and university reform”.

Figure 2: National University Reform Policy 2013-2015
The Super Global University Project offers two tiers of support, Type A and Type B with different scope for the targets.

Type A (Top Type) Project aims: to be classified in the top 100 world ranking within 10 years. Funding: ¥500 million per year for up to 10 years

Type B (Global Type) Project aims: to help gain traction supporting globalization in society. Funding: ¥300 million per year for institutions with >1000 students; ¥200 million per year for institutions with <1000 students; ¥7.7 billion yen for ten consecutive years.
The Type A funding was to be awarded to ten universities, while Type B was to go to twenty different tertiary education institutions. More specifically, Super Global University target plans include reforms in four main categories with various sub-points.

1) Globalization: a. Diversity (Faculty, Staff, Gender, Student), b. International Exchange, c. Study abroad support system, d. Language skills (foreign language instruction, English-language degrees), e. International standards (Grade Point Average (GPA) system, Assurance of Learning (AOL), harmonization), f. Level of internationalization.

2) Governance reform: Personnel, Governance


4) Others: Disclosure of education outcomes (graduation rate, dropout rate, employment rate, etc.)
Although the Super Global University document itself purveys relatively directed targets, these are still generally in an outline form.

In September 2014 the winners of the Super Global University funding were announced.

![Table of Applications and Selections]

Figure 5: Top Global University Project applicants summary
Divergent from the advertised allocation of 10 Type A and 20 Type B, in fact Type A funding was awarded to 13 of the 16 applicants, while Type B was awarded to 24 of 93 applicants. In effect, the Type B funding turned out to be the more competitive of the two given the ratio of applicants to recipients. On closer inspection, the applicants for Type A who were not successful are worth noting. Of the 16 applicants for Type A the three not given were for 1) Kumamoto University, 2) Tokyo Metropolitan University and 3) Tokyo University of Agriculture and Technology. Given that the primary descriptor for the target of the funding is to help the recipients raise their world university ranking level to the top 100 it would have come as no surprise to observers of the process that this would have been a strikingly lofty goal for these three candidates. This is not to say that the other 13 are assured of success.

The Type B universities have a less specific remit. Type B is the “Global Traction Type” and with this recipients are called upon to “lead the internationalization of Japanese society based on continuous improvements. Details as to how this is to be achieved are omitted. Each institution has set its own program targets and aspirations as part of the proposal.
# List of Selected Plans

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<td>National</td>
<td>Tohoku University Global Initiative</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>University of Tsukuba</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>Transforming Higher Education for a Brighter Future through Transborder Initiatives</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>The University of Tokyo</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>Designing a Global Campus Model by The University of Tokyo</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Tokyo Medical and Dental University</td>
<td>National</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Tokyo Institute of Technology</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>Enhancing Tokyo Tech Education and Research Quality through Administrative Reforms for Internationalization</td>
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<td>National</td>
<td>Asian Hub University contributing to a sustainable society in the 21st century</td>
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<td>Japan Gateway: Kyoto University Top Global Program</td>
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<td>National</td>
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<td>10</td>
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<td>National</td>
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<td>Private</td>
<td>Enhancing Sustainability of Global Society through Jitsugaku (Science)</td>
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<td>Waseda University</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Waseda Goes Global: A Plan to Build a Worldwide Academic Network that is Open, Dynamic and Diverse</td>
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Figure 6: Type A selected plans
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<th>Name of Plan</th>
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<td>Chiba University</td>
<td>National</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Tokyo University of Foreign Studies</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>TUFS CONNECTS resources worldwide</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Tokyo University of the Arts</td>
<td>National</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>National</td>
<td>The Education Program for Innovative Global Engineers ~ Toward development of an integrated global campus with collaboration between industry, academia, and government ~</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Kanazawa University</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>Developing Human Resources to Lead the Global Society and Establishing the Kanazawa University Brand by Thorough Internationalization</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Toyohashi University of Technology</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>Creative Campus for Nurturing Global Technology Architects</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Kyoto Institute of Technology</td>
<td>National</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Nara Institute of Science and Technology</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>NAIST Global7: cultivating Global leaders through Global standard graduate education on a Global campus</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Okayama University</td>
<td>National</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Kumamoto University</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>A Leading University Cultivating Global Leaders from Kumamoto</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Akita International University</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>AIU-Living Up to It’s Promise: Japan’s First World Class Liberal Arts University</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>The University of Aizu</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Fostering Global ICT Innovators through the Combined Effects of Spirit, Technology, and Adaptability</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>International Christian University</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Creating Responsible Global Citizens through a Global Liberal Arts Education</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Shibaura Institute of Technology</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Design and Implementation of a Human Resource Development Model for Engineering and Sciences focusing on Value Co-Creative Education — Contribution to Global Sustainability</td>
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<td>Sophia University</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Hosei University</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Creating the Global University: Toward a sustainable society from pioneering Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Meiji University</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Going Global Meiji 8000! — Developing Students with a Frontier Spirit for the Future, by Encouraging Students’ Proactive Learning —</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Rikkyo University</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Global Liberal Arts Education x Leadership Education x Self-Transformation — The Evolution of Rikkyo as a World-Class University —</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Soka University</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Global Initiative for Humanistic Education: Fostering Global Citizens for Building Peace and Sustainable Prosperity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>International University of Japan</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Establishing a New Global Standard from Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Ritsumeikan University</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Bridging the World and Asia Human development to collaborate across cultures and contribute globally to Asian communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Kwansei Gakuin University</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Establishing the Global Academic Port, an international hub for academic exchange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Global Learning: Towards New Horizons in University Education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7: Type B selected plans
iii. The University of Tsukuba’s Super Global Project

The University of Tsukuba was one of thirteen universities to receive the award of funding for the Super Global University project. Tsukuba’s proposal was entitled “Transforming higher education for a brighter future through transborder university initiatives”. The core of the plan is to deepen the relationship with several partner universities to allow for greater collaboration and interaction at the student, faculty and research levels. The “course jukebox” system proposes a type of harmonization of course correspondence allowing students from affiliated universities to enrol in courses of these partner institutions whereby courses with similar titles may be accepted to correspond for credit at the partner institution. Further, the plan targets three principal points of reform in education, research and governance.
Figure 9: Summary of The University of Tsukuba’s winning plan

d. Analytical framework

Via a case study, the thesis explores the translation of policy in education reform at the University of Tsukuba with its winning proposal for Super Global University project funding. The University of Tsukuba is a top national university in Japan. The case study uses ethnographic field notes with a combination of student surveys, observations, and university data. I situate my theoretical thinking within the literature on HE in Japan, policy translation, globalisation, and the field of labour market studies, but I also point out what I thought was missing in the literature on HE in Japan namely a theoretical framework to help understand the function of the university in society, and the relationship of organisational management to university reform.
As a case study, it is within the tradition of inductive research. The thesis is an intensive analysis of a single case from which new theoretical arguments are generated (Bryman: 57). The result is to develop theory regarding the centrality of organisation management for policy translation in HE in Japan. This case study is a form of ethnography using fieldwork notes for ethnographic observation of operations and management practices with detailed notes of meetings, agendas, minutes, emails and planning documents.

The research studies the translation of policies with reference to four analytic levels: the macro level of national HE policy; the institutional level of education reform policy at the University of Tsukuba; the departmental level of management practices in the English Section at the Center for Education of Global Communication (CEGLOC) in the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at the University of Tsukuba; and the individual level of student perception of the university for skills training and the student transition from youth to work.

This is an exemplifying case with elements of being a revelatory case. It is exemplifying “because it exemplifies a broader category of which it is a member” (Bryman: 56). It has elements of revelatory because the “investigator has an opportunity to observe and analyse a phenomenon previously inaccessible to scientific investigation” (Yin 2003:42; quoted in Bryman: 56).

The thesis incorporates as an heuristic concepts from Norbert Elias' figurational sociology. Following from Elias, looking at these various pieces—the university as an institution, tertiary education, the labour market—like static structures in comparisons across societies can make them appear partly or wholly equivalent. Placing the student perspectives and the university function in the context of societal processes seeks to yield an integratable view of the dynamics at play.
This thesis seeks to contextualize the processes on the ground at a national university in Japan. The purpose is to begin to give a picture of the experience of university operations placed in the context of broader social developments.

At various levels of social processes ranging from the policy directives of the Abe government, to MEXT funding projects, or even university promotional materials, the language of internationalization and reform do not necessarily reflect the operational functioning and everyday life realities of university institutions. For Japanese university faculty, administration staff, and students, far removed government-level reform policy discourse struggles to gain attention from their immediate needs and concerns. Yet, of course, the parties engaged at the university are connected to interdependencies relationally and socially in Japan, as well as historically and globally. By exploring these patterns taking place in time and recognizing multi-level complex relationships, this thesis seeks to investigate how best to give meaning to these processes in a way that is 'reality congruent' at both macro and micro levels.

‘Translation’ as a concept is central to the narrative of this thesis. A basic dictionary definition of translation is “a rendering from one language into another” (Merriam-Webster). This basic level applies to various documents in the case study translated from Japanese to English. There is also the notion of ‘policy translation’ that in the thesis refers to reading the way in which education policies adopted by the university are rendered into practice at a departmental and classroom level. A further point is that policy translation in this thesis also relates to the importing of concepts and practices in tertiary education from the international setting (primarily from the UK and US) into Japanese higher education. This is informed by Dolowitz and Marsh’s term ‘policy transfer’ which has developed from its political science roots to a multidisciplinary discussion of policy assemblages, mobilities and mutations (McCann and Ward, 2012).
e. Background and rationale

This thesis project brings together various aspects of my professional life in global management, international business development, and teaching in HE. My career focus has been as a global manager and intercultural consultant with 10 years experience developing and integrating international operations for small & medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), and over 15 years experience in EFL and intercultural consulting. In my intercultural consulting work with SMEs in Aichi, Japan (home to Toyota Motor Corporation (TMC) and a centre of the automotive industry in Japan), I was surprised to note time after time different enterprises’ dependence on domestic sales; however, this directly corresponded to the relatively low skills of their key staff in global marketing and international business development. Subsequently, as a lecturer at a private business-focused university in Aichi, I became interested in the dissonance between the university education on offer and the requirements of employability in the region for young workers. By extension, it was striking how the curriculum diverged yet further still from the business development needs of local SMEs. I began this project with a view to highlighting the student experience and student perspective of their university education. I was especially interested in how the student would view their own processes toward developing global human resource skills.

The working title of the thesis had been “Identity, individualisation, and internationalisation: employability skills for the youth-to-work transition of Japanese university students”. This title reflected the early focus on student experience; however, looking deeper it became clear that to best understand those processes a broader view was needed. In so doing, the focus ultimately shifted from the students to the translation of education reform policies. What has emerged is a multi-layered analysis that tries to capture the relevant overlaps and integrated realities often treated independently but which are after all processes integral to just the one venue, the university.
I perceived a need from the start to adopt an integrative, interdisciplinary approach that could incorporate perspectives from divergent fields. What I did not anticipate in the early stage of research was the extent to which organisational management, and analysis of management practices at the university, would come to figure in the thesis. Initially, the project was rooted in a global human resources survey to assess student perspectives on the university education process and the transition from university to work. One of the operative assumptions of the research had been that achievement in global skills with access to global-oriented career roles was an elite pathway dependent on social capital—this in spite of wide-reaching seemingly universal educational goals being driven through university reform policies and large-scale funding projects. Being embedded as an associate professor working at the institution of focus, I had an up close look at how the reform policies were being translated into practice. Eventually the complex multi-level issues of policy translation came to take centre stage in the research.

**f. Research contribution**

The thesis is a case study of policy translation at an elite Japanese university. The study seeks to investigate the processes of the overlapping functions of the university for its role in society, for the pathway from university education to work, and in the systems of organisational management operative at the university.

As an overall research contribution, the thesis presents a rich picture of the university at various levels and dimensions with contextual discussions of the Japanese labour market for university graduates, the function of university education in Japanese society, and the characteristics of the University of Tsukuba (the focus university in the study) in terms of structure, standing, and governance. Further, it considers the voice of students in reflecting on their perception of university studies, career planning, and internationalization.
The key findings from the case study have implications on the levels of policy, institution, department, and student.

A core theory to emerge is that on the macro level of policy there is a globalising process to university reform; relatedly, on the micro level of the department, organisational management is the essential operative variable at the intersection of university reform, the changing needs of the labour market, and increased risk in the youth-to-work transition. Elias’ figurational sociology is applied as an heuristic to extend this theory.

Also on a policy level, the globalising process of university education in Japan means, in part, shifting the function of the university in Japanese society toward the global model of a knowledge-producing centre of innovation. There are four key global issues in the societal function of a national university: Global recognition, Global integration, Global challenges to society, and Global soft power.

On the institutional level a framework is proposed for organisational management at the university which illustrates the contrast between a Groupist civil-servant type model vs. an Individual corporate type management model while helping to illuminate the processes that result in factionalised operations and a stance I describe as “Protect the past, maintain the village.”

For the department and student levels, emerges a theory of Output vs Outcome which illustrates a paradigm-level contrast in approaches to recording and evaluating both educational and operational processes. This theory has implications for understanding the core challenges of policy translation at the university, as well as for understanding what I call a “funding-the-crowd” approach to resource distribution. Current education and management systems at the University of Tsukuba (and widely seen in Japanese HE) are based on an output model which has as its focus recording that something happened: output.
Follow-up action or measurement of the results of the action are ignored or not pursued. The globalising process leads to a tension between current output strategies in contrast with a shift to a quality assurance model which seeks to emphasize systematic follow-up actions and measurement of performance results.

Because funding in education is based on output in the groupist civil servant model, individual accountability is low. Funding is widely dispersed shotgun style with an acceptance of low rates of overall project success. Projects are measured by output not outcome. Inclusively, many are allowed to participate all the while knowing that few will come to realisation of successful measurable outcomes. This practice incentivises gaming the system to procure funds and de-incentivises productivity and integration of achievements.

On the institutional level, Elisian We-I drift theory is used to extend the analysis of nation-state based we-identity in management and operations with the benefit of pointing to latent institutional strengths and opportunities to highlight successful practices at the university. The group’s nation-state based we-identity is perceived to be under threat from the globalising process. There is a gap between what high-level operatives in government and education recognise as possible and necessary with that which the majority are able to process and reproduce in management and operations.

On the student level the survey results confirm perceptions of increased risk in the transition to the labour market with the demarcations of gendered trajectories. Additionally, the 2014 Gallup-Purdue Index report “Great Jobs, Great Lives” is used to extend analysis of student perceptions and the learning environment of the university. This application reveals that it is not that nothing happens at the University of Tsukuba; it is that nothing is required to happen. In other words, real achievements and considerable successes are
everywhere to be found. For the institutional level, this means there are opportunities to better articulate, honour and promote these achievements.

The academic issues raised relate to the function of the university in society, best practices in academic governance, and student perceptions of the university for skills training and career. It is important academically to study these research questions in order to help develop policy recommendations for best practices in organisational management at the university, and to support collaboration among parties vested in the overlapping interests of tertiary education, youth-to-work transitions, and international business growth. Further, it is academically important contribute to the international record of such comparative analyses.

I locate the thesis at the intersection of debates concerning HE reform in Japan, policy translation, and globalisation (including for the neo-liberal university, GHRM, global teams, intercultural communication, and I-we identity).

**g. Thesis roadmap**

Chapter one has introduced the three core elements of the thesis: the University of Tsukuba, the Super Global University Funding Project, and the Transborder University Initiative—the winning Super Global University project for the University of Tsukuba.

Chapter two addresses the application of neoliberal ideas to university reform and analyses the joint issues of how policy is translated into practice and translation in the intercultural setting for global teams. The chapter concludes with the use of an heuristic from the figurational sociology of Elias.

Chapter three concerns the methodology of the case study. Following a discussion of some of the issues in case study methodology, this chapter gives an
account of what research was undertaken, how the different components are integrated, ethical issues, plus limitations of the research.

Chapter four presents the findings of the case study and looks at three levels of analysis: the policy level, the institutional level, and the student level.

The final chapter, five, presents the discussion and conclusion which integrates the preceding chapters and presents suggestions for future research.
Chapter 2—Translating Super Global
Introduction

The work of Ramirez is essential for placing Japanese education reform practice in context. Through a decade of research, his work serves to outline and define the rationale driving the reform movement under investigation in this thesis. As a first point, we must note Ramirez argued that universities present themselves as “formal organizational actors, reflecting generic global processes that affect both public and private organizations” (Ramirez 2006, 2013b). Further, Ramirez and Meyer argue that studies on the world of HE show there is a “remarkably high level of convergence” (2014). Most importantly, Ramirez has noted an increase in concept of a “world-class university” and the global recognition and global significance this implies (2014).

While he acknowledges he is “simplifying enormously” Ramirez summarizes three assumptions that influence HE policy discussions in Europe and throughout the world:

1. Universities can become engines of national progress.
2. Better-organized and more-well managed universities lead to better engines of national progress.
3. Universities can learn from each other and from organizational experts because organizational best practices are portable.

Ramirez and Tiplic argue that:

“However begrudgingly, many [European universities] also proclaim their transparency and their willingness to be assessed, often with world standards that respect no borders. These standards invariably call for more relevance and relevance is itself increasingly imagined as positive technical and economic outputs brought about by new learning to learn competencies and skills (Bleikie, 2005). From a neo-institutional perspective these shifts in university foci are important enactments of
transnational cultural models that emphasize world-class universities and higher education and development” (2013a: 451-452).

These “enactments of transnational cultural models” are the focus of this case study. The purpose of this chapter is to provide sufficient background data to explore the significant features of the case. The aim of thesis is to describe, understand and interpret education reform, student perspectives of global human resource development, and the function of the university in Japanese society. The thesis provides insight into the significance and purpose of education reform policies, as well as the processes of education at the university in Japan. The main research question is as follows:

→ How is the super-global university project policy translated into practice by an elite Japanese university?

This case study centres on the Super Global project at the University of Tsukuba. The research studies the translation of policies with reference to four analytic levels: the macro level of national education policy; the institutional level of reform policy at the University of Tsukuba; the departmental level of management practices in the English Section of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences; and the individual level of student perception of the university for skills training and the student transition from youth to work.

A core theory to emerge from the thesis is that there is a globalising process for education reform, and that organisational management is the essential operative variable at the intersection of university reform, changing needs of the labour market, and increased risk in the youth-to-work transition in Japan.

This chapter gives a context to these overlapping concerns. First, in order to investigate the fundamental issues involved in translating Super Global at this elite Japanese university, it is necessary to look at some of the debates around globalisation and convergence.
a. Globalisation and convergence

The Super Global project is in name and first order about globalisation. It is a policy initiative to increase globalisation processes and meet targets with the purpose of raising the global profile of Japanese universities. To better understand the context and implications in translating Super Global, it is important to consider the debate on globalisation versus convergence. Further, reflecting on issues for globalisation and convergence will help identify the way the concept of a globalising process is being used in this thesis.

Globalisation and convergence are not synonymous concepts. Though the term ‘convergence’ has a historical context in its use originating from the work of Kerr et al. (1960), today convergence is best viewed as one concept to be critiqued in the broader field of research and theories about globalisation. This section will first present a brief explanation concepts and theories associated with i) globalisation and ii) convergence, then compare and contrast these in a discussion of iii) emergent global culture.

i. Competing interpretations of globalisation

Although initially used as a term to describe emerging relationships between societies around the globe, a precise definition of ‘globalisation’ is difficult to establish today because it has come to be used for differing meanings and contexts such as culture, economy or society.

Definitions of globalisation:

‘Globalisation’ was first used in the 1970s as a way of describing the increasing network ties linking various societies. One way of thinking of globalisation has been to emphasize the shrinking quality of time and space relations. Technological improvements have increasingly shortened the amount of time needed to traverse great distances whether in logistics or financial transactions. That sounds like a positive outcome, but as Harvey points out
“Many people misinterpreted these shifts [in how capital was working] as emancipatory when flexible accumulation, deindustrialisation, the growing power of international finance, globalisation and strong currents of what I called time-space compression were all being mobilised to destroy the power of working-class institutions and cultures” (Harvey, 2016: 132).

When we consider that the International Labour Organization (ILO) gives a dense industrial definition of globalisation that hinges on “the premise of a homogenous world market” (Harbridge & Walsh, 1995: 424), we can see from Harvey and other critics of global institutions like the ILO, the World Bank, or the OECD that homogeneity and time-space compression usually also mean a loss of power and culture for the working class.

Globalisation, then, can refer to industry and global systems of production that emerged following the highpoint of Fordism between the 1920s to 1960s, through post- and/or neo-Fordism in contemporary industrial society. Some portray on-going development as driving toward the transnational corporations superseding the power and influence of the nation-state, or relatedly, in the ramifications of a new international division of labour (Sklair 1991, 1993, 2002).

One tension present in this part of the discussion of globalisation is whether or not it is antithetical to the nation state and if so, to what degree. Fulcher explains that

“[t]he first five centuries of globalisation were associated with the rise of the nation-state. It is important to emphasize, however, that this meant the rise of one particular group of nation-states, which established the nation-state form but expanded at the expense of other political units. It was only during the last half-century of globalisation that it became associated with the global diffusion of the nation-state...” (2000: 527).
According to Fulcher’s position, we can see then that a small group of states competed for international position and control of resources in ways that encouraged increasing bureaucratic sophistication at home and abroad to run the international operations. On this point, some, like Sklair (1991), agree that the force of the nation state is waning with increased globalisation, while others, like Kleinecht and Wengel (1998) question whether or not there are in fact changes to societal relationships that truly are global in nature.

Sklair offers four categories to consider as approaches scholars take to globalisation research: a) the world-systems approach; b) the global culture approach; c) the global polity and society approach; d) the global capitalism approach. The first, world-systems, is more of a historical approach, rooted in the work of Wallerstein from the 1970s. This style focuses on the economics of globalisation, minimizing political and cultural concerns. The global culture approach emphasizes the issue of local and national autonomy. The diversity of smaller-scale networks is seen as being impinged upon by a homogenizing global culture driven especially by mass media. This second approach focuses on cultural concerns, minimizing economic ones. The third type, the global polity and society approach, concerns the idea of global consciousness, looking toward the possibility for a unified world of global institutions to enact global governance through a global civil society. This notion is compelling because a “democratic and just human society on the global level, however utopian, seems to be the best long-term guarantee of the continued survival of humanity” (Sklair, 1993: 45). The fourth type, global capitalism emphasizes national economies competing against each other as the main influencing force of globalisation. In his negative critique of globalisation, this fourth type is primary, Sklair argues, because “[a]s capitalism globalizes, its crises intensify...[:]class polarization and the crisis of ecological unsustainability” (Sklair, 1993: 48).

Alternatively, Weiss (1999: 169-70) lays out four possibilities within these disparate views of globalisation and its effect on state power: a) strong
globalisation; state power erosion; b) strong globalisation; state power unchanged; c) weak globalisation (strong internationalisation); state power reduced in scope; d) weak globalisation (strong internationalisation); state power ability and differentiation emphasized. Weiss disavows strong globalisation and therefore rejects the first two while favouring the fourth which argues for a world in which the influence of globalisation is limited in influence over the powerful interests of diverse and distinct nation states. However, demonstrating the complex variety of perspectives present in addressing what is globalisation, it is possible to imagine examples and contexts that could seem to support each of the four hypotheses. Yet, none of these hypotheses represent carefully drawn positions or anything like the definitive viewpoint of one school over another.

It should be clear that at present the complexity of social interactions on the national, international and global scales defies conforming to an acceptable definition. What is certain is that technological developments have increased the speed and intensity of the interactions for social networks around the globe (Harvey’s time-space compression) and this trend seems set to continue. Globalisation can be viewed from different angles either in the way we evaluate its influence or in the way we emphasize its impact on society and the world.

ii. Kerr et al. on convergence and management styles
Convergence theory is based on the work of Kerr et al. in *Industrialism and Industrial Man* (1960). Only later referred to as convergence theory, the concept has its origins in this text. After studying different societies to compare the different processes of industrialisation in each, Kerr et al. began to focus rather on similarities in the process. Ultimately, Kerr et al. determined that converging uniformity was centred around the influence of technological developments. Because the workforce must continually adapt to new skills needed to match the ever-developing technologies, the division of labour in advanced societies becomes increasingly complex. They argued that the science of technology in
world-wide industrial society was not based on national boundaries but rather on a universal and unifying language and culture (Kerr et al., 1960: 10). Increasingly then, according to this view, the individual national cultures become ever-more alike, converging to the similar cultural attributes of industrial society (Kerr et al., 1960: 34). Kerr et al. envisioned that the role of national governments would further develop; importantly, the state would be essential to guiding and monitoring the technological support needed to maintain and control the infrastructure needed for industrial society (Kerr et al., 1960: 36–7).

Alongside convergence theory, a lasting corollary concept from Industrialism and Industrial Man has been Kerr et al.’s three evolving styles of management: paternalistic, constitutional, and participative (1960: 150). In the paternalistic style of management, management takes a dominant caretaker position over the workforce. This can be seen as an extension of earlier master-servant strata. In paternalistic management the workforce receives in return for its subordinate and loyal service welfare care and support above and beyond the financial security. Further, the latter reward is likely to come in the form of lifetime employment. The constitutional style of management is brought about by changes in society and the education levels of the workforce. Kerr et al. argue that the state and other external agencies like unions gain leverage negotiating working conditions and forming worker agreements that establish a working ‘constitution’ for industrial society. The participative style of management more and more gives workers a say in the operations of industry. Kerr et al. explain that “the democratic-participative philosophy grows out of the conclusion that people respond best in an organization when they can participate in the process of decision-making on matters that directly affect them” (1960: 161). These three styles of management function within the purvey of convergence theory because Kerr et al. viewed them as an evolution from paternalistic at a lower level even pre-industrial style moving up to participative as an ideal functioning of
democracy in an industrial society. In this way Kerr et al. asserted that management styles too would converge in industrial society.

It is also interesting to consider Japan in Kerr et al.’s discussion of labour process management. As Kerr et al. acknowledged, Japanese management style has historically been seen as paternalistic, and as such, would be in accord with the inherited social order in Japan. Although the paternalistic style is associated with the early stages of industrial society, for contemporary Japanese society, convergence might be evidenced in such things coming inward as the change of the electrical system to match the US, the prevalence of global brands and products such as Apple’s iPhone; or moving outward the prevalence of Japanese cultural items in food, design or technological components; or the two-way flow evidenced with MNCs such as Toyota spreading worldwide not just products but adaptations of Japanese industrial methods, integrating Japanese managers into overseas’ leadership positions, recruiting to Japan engineers and workers from around the world all under the Toyota Motor Corporation (TMC) transnational corporation umbrella. While Kerr et al. treated the three styles of management (paternalistic, constitutional, and participative) as distinct, in the case of TMC for example it could be argued there is evidence for all three continuing to operate simultaneously even today. In the same way that Kerr et al. noted differences in the styles that may be observed between a Soviet and US manager even as both might be observed to be operating in the same constitutional styles, so it may be there are differences in TMC’s overtly participative style in present-day Japan. As expected for an advanced industrial society, constitutional and then participative styles have emerged in Japanese multinational and transnational corporations. At TMC, this is evidenced in worker unions and the evolution of worker rights all the way up to the TMC emphasis on solving production issues there on the floor by empowering workers and floor managers to take action to solve problems on the spot. This type of approach aligns with Kerr et al.’s suggestion of the participative management style. Nevertheless, this high level of participation could be shown to continue to take place and exist.
within a historically diminished but still essentially paternalistic company-
employee atmosphere further supported by the entrenched dominant national
cultural style.

**iii. Emergent global culture**

On the whole, Kerr *et al.*’s ideas and analysis have had a lasting influence on
theories about industrial society. But how does convergence compare with the
concept of globalisation? Convergence theory predates the use of the term
globalisation and the on-going debates and dialogue associated with the latter,
newer term. As ‘globalisation’ has been used to refer to different aspects of social
systems and processes, it could be said that convergence in sum addresses one
aspect of the discussion covered more broadly in globalisation, namely what
Bird and Stevens call an “emergent global culture” (2003: 395). A modern sense
of convergence is seen in Royle describing McDonald’s pushing TNC standards
over and above national norms (2000, quoted in Morley and Collings).
Convergence of this nature, as McDonaldization, is frequently viewed in a
negative light and opposition to it symbolizes the fight of local identity in the
face of what is perceived as oppressive and reductive TNCs.

In that respect convergence theory aligns best with the ‘strong’ globalisation
thesis, and also with a sense of socio-economic determinism in that the changes,
positive or negative, are seen as inevitable outcomes of the industrialisation
process. Although Bird and Stevens do not use the term ‘convergence’ and make
no reference to the work of Kerr *et al.*, they do address precisely the idea of a
group of people who

“shares neither a common geographic location, socioeconomic class,
religion, native language nor a national culture. Yet they share a common
set of values, attitudes, norms, language and behaviors. With one foot in
their native culture and one foot in the global arena, they are members of
a distinctly identifiable and emerging global culture” (2003: 397).
Looking at what could be called a convergence in culture such that one group shares a field of focus in common with others outside of their national culture of origin is similar to the work done investigating third-culture kids: persons who as children have lived and absorbed the culture in two or more countries so that they are adapted culturally and linguistically to both and emerge as a third culture differentiated from either of their origins. This group has similar attributes described by Bird and Stevens wherein it is the enculturation process itself that connects them to similarly-experienced others regardless of national culture(s) of origin. Third-culture kids (TCKs) may have more in common with TCKs with unrelated cultural backgrounds on the basis of their shared ‘third’ cultural identity. As Bird and Stevens’ explained about individuals in the emergent global society, it could be this enculturation process itself that brings connection and understanding.

This process can be described as convergence in Kerr et al.’s sense because it is a pattern of similarity in people of different national origins that is driven by developments in industrial society. As globalisation, it aligns with Sklair’s third type of globalisation research, the global polity and society approach “derived from being with and mobilizing fellow human beings to solve global problems” (2002: 44). Sklair describes that for the theorists in this approach to globalisation research “the concept of global polity and /or society has become a believable idea only in the modern age and, in particular, science technology, industry, and universal values are increasingly creating a world that is different from any past age” (2002: 44). Whatever the source of their enculturation or sense of membership to a cultural group that transcends singular affiliation with a national culture of origin, this type of group could be said to be among the early participants in a global civil society.

Another aspect of the global polity can be seen in the concept of a global perspective, or a global approach to policies and challenges not necessarily directed toward solving global problems. For example, it is possible that
developing a business-minded global perspective may ultimately lend itself to the promotion of one’s own company’s business interests, or perhaps in the service of national interest, to foster one’s own business development and international success above and beyond (if not at the expense) of others. From this it is clear that cultivating a global perspective does not necessarily require a separating of allegiances—to company or country—and that developing the skills and abilities of a global perspective can be viewed as tools to gain an advantage for one’s own group in the international scene.

In the education context, consider for example the American Council on Education (ACE), a public policy advocacy and major coordinating group for higher education in the US, white paper from 2002. Titled, “Beyond September 11: A Comprehensive National Policy on International Education,” the paper lays out three US national policy objectives for international education: 1. Produce international experts and knowledge to address national strategic needs. 2. Strengthen US ability to solve global problems. 3. Develop a globally competent citizenry and workforce. As Mihai I. Spariosu has pointed out, objectives such as these are driven by a national focus, one could say protecting and promoting the hegemony of the United States. He posits,

“A global approach would take into consideration not only the perceived national or ‘local’ interests of the United States or any other country or region. Of course, those local interests are extremely important, and genuine global practitioners will neglect them only at their peril. But such global practitioners would also look beyond what might turn out to be short-term and limited national interest to long-range interests serving the entire global community. From this global perspective, the concept of national interest itself may gain a new dimension and be redefined, in a larger reference frame, as that which ultimately is in the best interest of and benefits all nations and cultures” (Spariosu, 2004).
Spariosu insists from a humanitarian view that a truly global perspective must needs take into account the best interests of the entire global community. Nevertheless, within the parameters of such a practice as developing a global perspective, using those skills and abilities in the service of one’s company or country for personal or group gain is a commonplace purpose. In the case of Japan, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology’s (MEXT) efforts to promote internationalization for Japanese students can be similarly directly linked as stated policy objectives to strengthening Japanese identity and promoting Japanese interests on the global scene (Yoneoka, 2001).

The distinction being made rests on two views of our world community that are divergent, though not necessarily exclusive, and might be phrased as relativist or universal. The distinctions are not sharply defined, but generally ACE and MEXT are taking more relativist positions that emphasize the benefit of one particular group to a greater or lesser extent over others, whereas Spariosu is taking a more universal stance in seeking to attend to the best interest of all.

Convergence theory assumes an evolution that leads to a unifying of industrial societies at various levels in their practices, functions and cultures. The ‘strong’ globalisation position can be seen to share in this view of converging universals, whether taken positively or negatively. Convergence and globalisation are better thought of as different when globalisation is not viewed as definitively unifying nor superceding national or regional cultural differences. Divergence theorists, like Hoefstede, challenge the notion of increasing cultural convergence (1980). Similarly Weiss’ preferred fourth option in *The Limits of Globalization* argues for ‘weak globalization (strong internationalization); state power adaptability and differentiation emphasized’ (1999: 170) by which she means “the result is not so much a globalized world (where national differences virtually disappear) as a more internationalized one, where national and regional interaction networks remain vibrant and continue to highlight the importance of institutions and place” (1999: 187). Kerr et al.’s *Industrialism and Industrial Man* was written at a
time when arguing in favour of a positive, democratizing and inevitable victory for capitalism was a pressing idea for the US in the post-war period. Inevitably such a view would find its critics, a notable one being Braverman’s *Labor and Monopoly Capital* (1974) and more recently Harvey, as a critic of capitalism, points out that

“...endless capital accumulation implies that the neoliberal regime of rights must be geographically expanded across the globe by violence (as in Chile and Iraq), by imperialist practices (such as those of the World Trade Organisation, the IMF, and the World Bank) or through private accumulation (as in China and Russia) if necessary (Harvey, 2005: 181-182)

For Harvey, this is a question of rights and the political struggle to protect alternative political and economic arrangements.

Sklair advances another criticism to capitalism as a global system from the perspective of a Marx-inspired conception of globalisation. He points to two main crises intensified by the globalising of the capitalist mode of production: the crises of class polarization and the crises of ecological unsustainability (2002: 47-48). Convergence theory does not account for such consequences as class divisions or ecological calamities.

Although there is no fully agreed upon working definition of multinational and transnational organisations, one distinction that can be made between the two is that both have international operations with large-scale operations in several countries, but multinational corporations (MNCs) operate largely within national boundaries, whereas transnational corporations (TNCs) supercede and transcend them. A key point to note here is the differentiation between globalisation and internationalisation. Though some authors have used the expressions interchangeably, it is perhaps useful to define internationalisation as the increasing interactions of networks flowing between nations versus the decreasing strength-presence of nation states surpassed by multinational (MNC) or transnational corporations (TNC). Along similar lines, Fulcher explains that
“Sklair’s argument for a ‘conception of the global system based on transnational practices’… can lead to the making of a sharp distinction between the transnational and the international, which is conceptually important, for they have different implications for the nation-state. International organizations, such as the United Nations, are controlled by the representatives of nation-states and operate through national structures. Transnational organizations, such as transnational corporations (TNCs), operate across national boundaries, have some autonomy from the nation-state, and can threaten its autonomy” (2000: 524-525).

In this rendition the transnational organization is put as the high mark of world-wide agency for globalisation. While there does appear to be a reasonable logic to finding similar but lesser degrees of agency in the international or multinational organization, Howard Perlmutter demonstrated forty years ago that in practice these lines of distinction a fraught with complexity and nuance. His assertion holds true today that “no single yardstick, such as the number of foreign nationals in key positions, is sufficient to establish a firms multinationality” (1969: 18). Therefore, though a logical distinction can be asserted between multinational and transnational corporations, nevertheless, perhaps due to the difficulty delineating the categories in the real-life complexity of organizations, the terms are sometimes used interchangeably.

A central question for globalisation and patterns of change in labour markets is to what extent are the MNCs and TNCs responsible as agents of change? It can be argued that jobs have been transformed by MNCs and TNCs because the ability to move production overseas precipitated the move post-Fordism toward flexible labour. Further, extending from Adam Smith’s idea of a ‘division of labour,’ the ‘New International Division of Labour’ (NIDL) has been used as a model to explain trade and production relations as a hierarchical structure of decreasing levels of technology and skill from developed down to developing
nations. From the 1970s new forms of organising work emerged which allowed a decentralisation of production while maintaining centralised technology and market decision-making (Mitter, 1986). The effort to reduce labour costs resulted in both the movement of jobs across economies and a changed status for labour in industrialised nations. Industrialised nations moved toward flexible labour, in particular employing more women in casual and flexible unskilled and semi-skilled work. However, even TNCs are “more closely associated with their ‘home’ state than is commonly supposed” (Fulcher: 531), again attesting to the complexity of the MNC/TNC classifications. Additionally, the growth of newly industrialising economies (NIEs) cannot be attributed exclusively to the whims of transnational investment. Though it behoves them to say so, according to the World Bank, successful development in NIEs is largely due to the state intervention in economic planning of the economy. Clearly Mittleman has a point in arguing that “[t]he old categories do not capture the intricacy and variability of the integration of the world economy as well as the ways it constrains all regions and states to adjust to transnational capital” (1997: 77).

Ultimately, Harbridge and Walsh conclude that “[l]abour flexibility, like globalisation, is here to stay” (2002: 434)

While the exact character of the changes in the distribution of labour and work is difficult to reduce to a single satisfactory theory, the need for education systems to adapt to on-going changing demands is likely. There is a core issue here to address: to what extent does a university have to take ‘globalisation’ into account? How does a university translate internationalisation policies into practice?

These questions centre on the point of transformation versus replication. To what extent do messages require transforming to match the style and approach of the target audience; to what extent are global practices replicated universally in various settings; what is the impact of “country of origin” on university policy and its translation into practice? All things considered, there seems to be no
straightforward answer to these questions and certainly not one that is one-sided. Consider, for example, that even if a university adapts methodologies to its different locale (transformation), some common expectations of global consumers for global products may lead a local university toward an aligning (replication) to shared harmonization targets: the characteristics of an elite global university culture may trump the local context of national culture. Extending the argument, it is also clear that rigid identification to a national cultural homogeneity is not a model for success even within national HE systems. Accounting for contextual differences in region, ethnic, or cultural backgrounds is relevant to all HE stakeholders, local or global, in an era of vast and complex migration patterns and international networks.

b. The labour market and transition to work in Japan

i. Youth transitions as a concept in social science research

The transition from education to work addresses the period of finishing formal education and seeking employment in the market place. The standards for the end of formal education vary in different locales. Generally speaking, developed nations such as in the OECD area have compulsory education requirements up to secondary school with completion at around age fifteen to eighteen.

The transition from education to work has gained an increasing level of prominence in contemporary social science research. Cieslik and Pollock (2002) give a useful overview of changes in the thinking of researchers regarding youth transitions. They argue the wide-ranging opportunities of possibilities for youth with the individualization of transitions increases the complexity of the process (p. 8-9). They resist the notion of a straightforward linear process implied by terms like youth-to-work.

Furlong and Cartmel address the decline of the youth market due to the emergence of flexible employment practices (1997). Arguments for increased individualisation notwithstanding, they assert that these developments did not
interfere with maintenance of structured inequalities. Furlong and Cartmel argue that “[d]espite an apparent increase in the possibilities to continue full-time education or embark on a course of training, young people from advantaged positions in the socio-economic hierarchy have been relatively successful in protecting privileged access to the most desirable routes” (p.10). The shift they note is that increasingly male graduates have a higher unemployment rate and are more likely to be unemployed for longer periods of time (p.11). Along with individualisation risks, Furlong and Cartmel show that uncertainty has increased for all participants; nevertheless, “risks are distributed in an unequal fashion and correspond closely to traditional lines of disadvantage based on class and gender (p. 39).

Accordingly, Vickerstaff (2003) shows that class background and schools attended continue to be the predominant determiners of employment outcomes. She makes the distinction that greater certainty of employment opportunities for earlier generations does not imply greater choice or absence of risk. She is critical of assessments of apprenticeships in the 50s and 60s and regards this type of training as not one-step transitions but rather “an institutionalized form of prolonging an intermediate status between childhood and adulthood...” (p. 275).

Goodwin and O’Connor (2003a) outline three conceptual debates in the recent literature on youth transitions, summarized as follows: 1. Extent to which individualised, characterised by risk and uncertainty; 2. Previously viewed as either structure or agency; 3. Individualisation + structural = best used to understand youth transitions. In agreement with Vickerstaff, they view that earlier studies of the so-called ‘golden age’ for employment tend to understate the complexity of the process even then. For changes in the process, Goodwin and O’Connor highlight Elias’ suggestion that the adjustment to adult relationships forms a significant part of the transition process now required of young people. Another key argument from Goodwin and O’Connor is that
career aspirations are not necessarily reflected in outcomes due to social, cultural and structural factors. Regarding job outcomes, Banks et. al (1992) show in their study of various training schemes that “while parents of students in [a] group [attending fashion design school] seemed keen to invest in their careers, they had little knowledge of opportunities in fashion design and could not assess the value of the course or the realism of their children’s goals” (p. 91).

On this point of employment outcomes, Anyadike-Danes and McVicar take the angle that there are four significant factors: 1. Qualifications; 2. School disciplinary records; 3. Parental education; 4. Family socio-economic indicators. Evans and Furlong (1997: 37) describe different attitudes to career aspirations observing there can be “a more passive kind of individualisation in which the young person is carried along in socially accepted transition patterns, without a sense of ultimate goal...Transition behaviour which is characterised by a ‘step-by-step’ or a ‘wait-and-see’ pattern is linked to a passive kind of individualisation. In their re-evaluation of 60s data on young women’s career aspirations, Goodwin and O’Connor (2003b) write tellingly that “[o]n the one hand [young women in the 1960s] were expected to enter employment on leaving school and on the other hand they had been socialised to believe that their paid work was somehow not so important as men’s.” We see then that education to work transition is not a simple linear process. Various social, cultural and structural factors must be taken into consideration.

ii. The recruitment and hiring process in Japan

In the lifetime employment system workers are not usually hired to occupy immediately a specific role under a clearly defined job title. Typically, the full time employee enters as a generalist and is trained and inculcated in the corporate culture of their firm. From there they will be directed to fulfil roles and tasks as needed by the organization; job roles and position in the company are not necessarily linked to a focused career identity or intentionally cultivated skill set. Correspondingly, the job search is less one of looking for a particular
position with a clear function the candidate has cultivated the skills to perform. Rather, it is more a matter of finding a good match with an enterprise of which to become a member. With this then it is evident that while not discounting entirely the university’s educational role, the primary function of the university in Japanese society has been to help students develop the networking and social skills required to perform successfully at the next stage of social maturity, in the labour market.

High graduation rates accompanied by traditional assurances of lifetime employment indicate lifetime security in a national system with near guaranteed employment for all but a tiny percentage of university entrants. Up until the 80s, employment for the entire 15-24 age group was close to universal at levels of 97-98%. More recently, however, Japan's tight-knit social contract is undergoing relative upheaval. The OECD notes that “[t]he traditional pattern, in which firms hire graduates for long-term employment and train them within the firm, is shifting in favour of employing workers with specific skills” (OECD Economic Surveys, 2011). Nevertheless, although the changes represent a decline in fortunes for some of Japan's workforce, to date the changes mean only the introduction of slightly greater levels of competition and risk than existed prior. Certainly for the majority of university graduates, the long-held notion that a family can be supported by the income of a “salary man” with lifetime employment endures in Japan at a level without counterpart in the OECD area.

In this arrangement, university graduates enter the lifetime employment system during a fixed time period in their transition from education to work. The recruiting process begins in their third year of university and reaches a peak during the fourth year. In fact, fourth-year students, having completed most of their course work, spend very little time at university or studying, but rather focus most of their attention on the job hunt, attending seminars and large-scale recruitment meetings. The hiring process for large enterprises ends by summertime (the mid-point of the academic/fiscal year) though for smaller
enterprises can continue until early in the new year (toward the end of the academic/fiscal year). The Japanese academic/fiscal year begins in April. New recruits begin their working lives en-masse as freshmen employees at the start of the fiscal year in April.

iii. Trends and needs in the Japanese labour market

Japanese society is changing; accordingly, Japanese institutional roles are changing. Looking forward, changes in the labour market and hiring practices hint at the wearing away of the life-long employment system. Graduates today can collectively no longer count on the same security and continuity that previous generations valued and sought. The first job after graduation as a job for life was taken for granted in previous generations. This arrangement is available to fewer and fewer graduates as the labour market becomes increasingly flexible. The trend is for companies to favour in their human resources an increase in flexible hiring for the ability to respond to shifting needs and a decrease in lifetime employment which had been a long-standing social contract implicit in institutional stability.

Unemployment rates in Japan for the 15-24 age group hovered around 2% up to the 1970s, rose slightly to 3% in the late 70s, and did not settle above 5% until the mid-90s. In light of such a history, the 8-10% range common after the late 90s represents a marked shift in the labour market. Genda notes the unemployment rate rose for all groups in the nineties, but at a particularly accelerated rate for this 15-24 age group (2003). As such, unemployment has most adversely affected young workers. Genda asserts that the “strong protection of employed workers results in most employment being adjusted through changes in the hiring of young workers, who consequently face a change in labour demand” (2003). Bringing it up to the present day, the youth unemployment rate has remained under 10% for the last decade. In 2010 it stood at 9.2% and has held at around 8% up through 2014. While 2010 represented a historic high for Japan, the numbers for youth unemployment in Japan compare
favourably to the 16% range seen for a similar cohort over the same period in all OECD countries. More recently, the rate has hovered below 6% and dropped to 4.8% in July 2016.

Overall, Japan in many respects is following an industrial development path similar to that described by Furlong and Cartmel (1997) wherein the emergence of flexible employment practices contributes to a declining youth market. So, too, in Japan in the last few decades the pathways to employment have become more complex and the process of securing employment fraught with greater uncertainties. Beck’s notion of risk seeks to explain the feelings of uncertainty that have arisen in the modern era (1992). Japan is no exception to this development. While the long term influence of heavy government interventions in quantitative easing remains to be seen, the legacy of a determinedly strong yen combined with a longstanding tendency toward deflation in the Japanese economy have not boded well for future projections of youth employment opportunities. Furlong and Cartmel have noted that in such depressed labour markets the feelings of risk and uncertainty are likely to increase (1997a). In any event, for the long term, it appears the employment process in Japan is shifting to one that has more individualisation along the lines of the ‘risk society’ described by Beck.

Source: Tradingeconomics.com Eurostat

Figure 10: Japan Youth Unemployment Rate
The OECD Employment Outlook 2011 argued that “the resilience of employment in Japan during the [financial] crisis has been a welcome development but has not prevented a sharp rising in long-term unemployment” (2011). For April 2011, the employment rate of new university graduates reached a record low for Japan with 91% securing jobs (Kyodo, May 25, 2011). In 2012 it improved to 93.6%, remained stable in 2013 at 93.9% and rose to 94.4% for 2014. Gains continued for the fifth year straight in 2016, up to 97.3 from 96.7 the previous year. As for the university graduate job-opening rate, it had risen in the latter half of the 2000s, only to drop sharply after 2010. For 2014, openings at SMEs (less than 1000 employees) stood at 1.91 per graduate compared with 0.70 at companies with over 1000 employees. The battle for employment continues to be waged primarily over securing the most favourable positions at the largest and most respected institutions in Japan.

iv. Gendered trajectories

It is well established and uncontroversial that labour market outcomes in Japan have a ‘gendered’ character. Various indicators can be cited that reflect this. One such measure is that Japan has a combination of low female employment and low fertility rates. According to the OECD, this indicates that Japanese parents struggle to combine work and family commitments. Further, the OECD explains “the labour market position of women is unfavourable. For example in Japan the gender pay gap is large and women’s median income is two thirds that received by their male counterparts (twice the OECD average)” (OECD Social Policy Division, 2011). Moreover, Genda argues that the net effect of Japanese labour market practices is that “women are discouraged from being in the labour force in Japan” (2006: 12). Jones and Urusawa report that “the participation rate of prime-age women in 2009 was the sixth lowest in the OECD area, reflecting the fact that around 60% of the female workers still withdraw from the labour force when their first child is born...” (2011). They go on to note that in 2009 the participation rate for university-educated women is 68%. This is only 4 percentage points higher than for women with a high school degree. The OECD
rate for university-educated women is significantly higher at 82%. The OECD notes that the earnings advantage for women with a tertiary degree is 91% more than women who only completed senior high school (OECD, 2011d).

Figure 11: Female labour-force participation rate

Female workers come out poorly on all levels of employment outcomes. Kyodo news reports that non-regular workers in the labour force rose to a record average high of 35.2% in 2011 (February 22, 2012). The report noted “the rise appears to have stemmed from the growing tendency of firms to hire fewer younger people as regular workers and rehire veteran workers on a contract basis after their retirement.” Since almost 60% of the non-regular workforce are women, this disproportionately affects female workers.

Even seeming positives turn out to reflect the unfavourable position of women. Ito and Fujioka try to strike a positive note in headlining that the shift to service industry jobs is favouring women’s employment (Bloomberg). Although it is true that counter to the preponderance of manufacturing jobs that preceded them, service jobs such as in health care or hospitality tend to hire more women, these are invariably lower paying jobs. Further evidence of the gendered character of labour outcomes in Japan is reflected in the Kyodo news report that
women in the Tohoku area affected by the 11 March disasters have faced significantly greater difficulty finding jobs than men (January 24, 2012).

For greater detail on women in the workplace, Broadbent’s 2003 study on female workers in Japan “Women’s employment in Japan: The experience of part-time workers” is an important contribution to recent social science research on the labour market in Japan. Broadbent uses a balance between quantitative analysis in the early chapters and her own qualitative research in evaluating Daei department store employees on the topic of their employment with individual interviews.

A key observation from Broadbent’s study is the view that women’s employment “has been constructed within a discourse that assumes a division of labour based on gender exists objectively” (2003: 142). In Broadbent’s view, the assumptions regarding women’s capabilities and role in the labour market are widely accepted in Japanese society as objective fact. As demonstrated above, assumptions about gender are fundamental to cultural dynamics operative at various levels within the intended research area: in education, employment outcomes, and societal roles.

Failing to address these integrated issues seems to be more than just a limitation of Broadbent’s analysis but rather calls into question the very paradigm of her approach. Young (1995) has shown in Colonial desire: Hybridity in theory, culture and race that the history of culture studies returns to what in business terms above was politely termed a sort of “sophisticated stereotyping.” Referencing Matthew Arnold’s writings on culture, Young argues “[t]he modern anthropological notion of culture does not refute Arnold: he originated its use in cultural theory... The ethnological basis of Arnold’s cultural politics, and the way in which racism, ethnology, and culture slide so easily into each other, might also give us pause about current ways in which we champion ethnicity, and promote a culturally defined ethnic, as opposed to a biologically defined racial,
identity...We are still operating, in other words, in complicity with the history of our culture” (1995: 88-9). For Broadbent, she is correct that the assumptions regarding women’s capabilities and role in the labour market are widely accepted in Japanese society as objective fact. However, Broadbent’s analysis of the issue does not extend much beyond these initial descriptive statements. Broadbent is content to apply her own received concepts about gender directly to the Japanese context absent any concern for cultural dimensions. Without describing it as such, she critiques Japan from Western perspectives of gender that she treats as universal without problematizing the intercultural issues of such a discussion. Regarding the national culture, the closest Broadbent comes to acknowledging complexity in the cultural dimension to gender is to report in her small survey of Japanese feminist perspectives the views of Iwao. Iwao argues that freedom from the responsibilities of being a breadwinner has resulted in empowering women to pursue cultural interests or work-roles on their own terms. This analysis could be taken as an oppressive inversion: the marginalized as the benefactors of their own disenfranchisement. It may however give hints to complexities in Japanese gender politics outside the western imagination.

Due to the gendered nature of the labour market in Japan the lifetime employment narrative is primarily a male one. Male and female careers follow different trajectories. Consequently, even in tertiary education the divergent future employment outcomes mean altogether different purposes for pursuing a university degree. Nagotomo, referencing Amano, states that “[f]or boys, the function of education is to gain ‘entry to professions and jobs with high income and social status’; for girls it is to signify “the social class and culture to which they belong”’ (Amano, 1997 in Nagatomo, 2012). Nagatomo notes that in the 2010 Global Gender Gap Index based on economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political empowerment, Japan ranked 94 out of 134 countries. Nagatomo correctly points out that “[b]ecause Japanese women have the longest life expectancy in the world and because they
receive high levels of education, this low ranking signifies Japanese women’s severe underrepresentation in political and economic spheres” (2012: 29). An update to the Global Gender Gap Index further emphasises the crises: in the 2015 index Japan has dropped to 101 out of 145 countries, placing just above Swaziland, Belize and Malta (World Economic Forum, 2015).

Encouragingly, women university graduates are likely to transition to work with relative ease. On the other hand, compared to a similar cohort in the OECD area they are much less likely to remain in that career trajectory. Remarkably, career development resembling their male counterparts is achieved by a relatively small percentage of Japanese women, whether or not they have graduated from university. To return to Broadbent, she is correct to note the societal influence of gendered career trajectories continues to limit the full development of careers for women. These points are not immediately evident nor are they even considered in the government’s general employment data. Broadbent perhaps missed an opportunity to compare employment outcomes with an evaluation of the motivation and aspiration of Japanese women transitioning from tertiary education to work, since aspiration was a primary focus of her study. Overall, Broadbent’s research is an important contribution to literature on Japan, even though it could be seen as sidestepping in its analysis the complexity of issues of gender, national culture, and labour market practices.

c. The Japanese university and international competition

i. Critiques of the Japanese university system

Two interconnected forces—the shift in the labour market on the one hand, and the push to change the role of the university on the other—are driving forward, albeit at a limited pace, a move toward steering more Japanese universities to become centres of learning and skills-acquisition on par with international tertiary educational standards.
Japanese university education is not perceived as being at the highest international standards. Although the Japanese education system is generally respected on the international scene, Jones observes that “Japanese universities do not rank high in international comparisons”; further, he references Goodman R. et. al (2009) in noting “there was a common understanding that in accepting students, a university has an obligation to graduate them, suggesting a lack of rigour” (Jones, 2011). As additional evidence he exclaims, “[i]indeed, 93% of entrants graduate, the highest in the OECD area and well above the OECD average of 70% (Jones, 2011).

McVeigh is another author critical of the Japanese education system (2001, 2002). He argues that “[b]ecause pre-tertiary level academic culture is largely shaped by an educatio-examination system rather than an educational system, students are socialized to associate studying with preparation, classroom participation with ritualized inspection, test-taking with catechism, academics with credentialism, and learning with monotonous training” (2001). He goes on to say that “Japanese schooling has as its goal training, grading, and filtering productive workers, not necessarily expanding an individual’s educational horizons.” This “training, grading, filtering” system for decades has served the workforce requirements of Japanese industry in exchange for lifetime employment.

**ii. Function of the university in Japanese society**

The primary function of the university in Japanese society has not been to ensure high standards of educational achievement (McVeigh 2001, 2002). Amano (2011) states that

“[i]t was entrance examinations that played the most important role for assigning students to different schools. Unlike there European equivalents, Japanese schools had no system of qualifying examinations at graduation time... This means that the selection function at work
within the Japanese school education system rapidly came to be concentrated in the academic entrance examination” (185-186).

Achievement in the entrance examination supersedes any measurement of achievement gained from studies at the university. By extension, Japanese companies historically have placed the most emphasis on the graduates’ institution rather than any particular skill set acquired. In the life-long employment system most training traditionally occurred in the workplace as companies were keen to inculcate their own culture and values on new recruits. This long-enshrined practice resulted in an overemphasis on university admissions tests as the determinant for one’s future career, while de-emphasizing the content of university curricula and indeed student education. For Japanese university students the outcome of the emphasis on admissions exams for employment potential was a system that undermined student learning, self-cultivation, or awareness of acquiring a personal skill set since none of these were valued by employers. The OECD tertiary education: Japan report provides important background to understanding part of the dissonance between education and working life. The report states that:

> [f]or many students, low levels of engagement in classroom-based instruction (e.g. infrequent attendance, and a strong orientation towards extra-curricular activities) was a rational adaptation to a labour market that rewarded university entry results, rather than classroom-based achievement at university - and to a curriculum and pedagogy that are shaped by the professor’s research programme, rather than the development of skills and competencies suited to working life. (p. 65)

MEXT launched PPGHRD with the assertion that “The Project for Promotion of Global Human Resource Development is a funding project that aims to overcome the Japanese younger generation’s ‘inward tendency’…” (MEXT, 2012). Although for MEXT this ‘inward tendency’ is measured by the reluctance to pursue education opportunities abroad, perhaps it is better understood as a rational response to the labour market, in the manner of the OECD analysis of
student strategies at university noted above. It may be that ‘inward tendency’
describes not a trend in the psychological character of a generation of Japanese
youth, but rather should be considered indicative of changes in the Japanese
labour market and a response to increasing risk in the transition from
university-to-work. Further compounding the response, there have been
growing pressures on family resources such that the current generation cannot
expect to maintain the same levels of financial stability achieved in the working-
life of their parents’ generation. It may be the decline in education abroad
numbers for Japanese students is best understood primarily as a rational
reaction to increased risk in the domestic labour market and concerns for
financial stability at home.

iii. Internationalisation and the limits of mutual understanding

The motivation for international outreach at the tertiary level has been
described in a 2004 OECD policy brief as a four-level process: 1. Mutual
understanding, 2. Skilled migration, 3. Revenue generation, and 4. Capacity
building. In the early stages of internationalisation for Japan's universities the
focus was almost exclusively on cultural exchanges to promote friendship and
mutual understanding. The other categories tended to be descriptive of
countries with developing economies seeking to attract both talent and funds to
boost their domestic growth. Today, all four levels can be applied to the status
of internationalisation in university education in Japan, especially with concerns

In a time of growing cross-border education with high levels of student mobility
Japan is understandably eager to find its place in the elite international
networks of tertiary education. Yet each country has its own systems and
processes that establish the role and function that university education inhabits
in each respective society, region, and institution. The OECD Guidelines for
Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education caution that “[t]he quality
of a country’s higher education sector and its assessment and monitoring is not
only key to its social and economic well-being, it is also a determining factor affecting the status of that higher education system at the international level” (10). At the simplest levels of seeking to build mutual understanding between international universities, comparing the societal role of the institutions and the achievement levels of graduates are only minor concerns, if at all. While there is no singular standard on which elite university education rests, establishing some level of harmonization in the quality of education and correspondence in the international status of universities is an essential feature of cross-border education. It is at this level of seeking harmonization in quality and correspondence of status that each country system faces great scrutiny on the international scene.

To these ends, two key processes are at the root of the restructuring of Japanese universities 1) accountability in the form of applying the practices of international quality assurance standards to university education, 2) organisational management systems with the efficacy to implement the large-scale change processes internationalisation requires.

iv. Quality assurance: an obstacle to harmonization
The accreditation-issuing agency in Japan is the National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Education (NIAD-UE). At the Quality Assurance International Conference held in Brussels, Belgium 14 December 2011, Dr. Akihiko Kawaguchi, then vice-president of the National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation (NIAD-UE) gave a presentation entitled “Globalising Quality Assurance of Higher Education in Japan”. He discussed the standards for the evaluation and accreditation of universities with a view to making a comparison of the old and new standards. In the shift from the First cycle FY2005-2011 NIAD-UE reforms to the Second cycle FY2012-2018, three new points in particular were highlighted by Kawaguchi: a) Learning outcomes, b) Internal quality assurance system of teaching and learning, and c) Public information on teaching and learning. The internationalisation of quality assurance for higher education in Japan is quietly at the root of the ultimately
radical reforms implied by the project for internationalising Japanese tertiary education. To what extent will standards in tertiary education be universalised? As Kawaguchi points out “…globalization does not mean applying a set of universal standards to everything, as each country, region and university has its own established customs and traditions; it means accepting something different from what they are familiar with while preserving their own customs and traditions in hope of creating synergies. This is why quality assurance based on both the entity’s individual character and standard features matters” (p.77). The historic role of the university in each society cannot be ignored. This point is easy to accept. Integrating new organisational processes while trying to maintain traditional practices is a much more complicated proposition. In language echoing Dr. Kawaguchi’s statements in Belgium, the 2013 OECD economic survey Japan declares: “Restructuring in the face of the shrinking number of high school graduates should be driven by increased transparency about the quality of tertiary institutions, including the labour market outcomes of their graduates, to strengthen competition and upgrade performance” (p. 35-36). Learning outcomes, harmonization with international standards, quality assurance, and above all accountability (meaning the thorough application of objectives, outcomes, and indices) are all requirements for an engagement in the competitive global market of tertiary education. None of these are defining characteristics of tertiary education in Japan today, nor in its historical trends.

In the shift to a different paradigm of university education Japanese universities are aspiring to be many things, yet as Kitagawa and Obu assert, “without having the institutional capacity to meet these expectations” (2010). The targets indicated by MEXT and the NIAD-UE appear to have been made in earnest. Nevertheless, Kawaguchi makes clear a stark contrast in thinking in the principles of outcome versus output:

Nonetheless, a difference in performance measurement implemented in Japanese national university corporations and in U.S. and British governmental institutions needs to be pointed out; as stated
above, objectives are, in practice, set by the national university corporations themselves, and although MEXT presents several objectives concerning education and research that should be part of the midterm objectives (Table 3-1), no details are given. Thus it would be appropriate to say that MEXT only provides an outline (Kawaguchi, p. 58-59).

Performance measurement is defined as setting indices to indicate outcomes and measuring them regularly. According to this definition, objectives need to be explained using such outcome indices. In reality, however, many national university corporations use qualitative descriptions rather than numerical targets to explain their midterm objectives. As well, many objectives contain outputs, implementation processes, or inputs rather than outcomes (Kawaguchi, p. 59).

The Super Global University targets follow from the National University Reform and likewise are in line with these long-term plans articulated by the national accrediting agency, NIAD-UE. These stated policy objectives seek university education reform for a new focus on learning outcomes, assurance of learning and quality assurance systems. The motivation for formulating such policies, at least in part, is that they are viewed as a means to achieve harmonization with elite international networks.

However, current practices in Japanese tertiary education that a) eschew the details necessary for accountability, combined with b) the lack of effective management systems necessary for implementing organisational change, suggest an on-going period of struggle ahead.

v. International competition

For national identity and development, a ‘world-class university’ is now assumed to be an essential driver of innovation, progress, and economic growth; further, it is also cherished as a mark of national pride and prestige (Ramirez et. al 2013a, 2013b, 2014). In the absence of a global body to certify a would-be global
institution, the competitive marketplace determines acceptance into the ranks of the top global universities. The American model for a research institution has come to be accepted as the consensus ideal. In particular, for an institution to achieve status as a ‘world-class university’, the path to gaining legitimacy increasingly relies on a shortlist of must-haves derived from the American model. These developments are contributing to the process of ‘universalising the university’. A key characteristic is the emphasis on efficiency and performance: the world-class university has as its primary role to be a knowledge producer. The university is recognized as an organisational actor with targets, strategies, and mechanisms for assessing performance. Global institutions facilitate student and faculty mobility. This increases standardization and leads to greater convergence with international quality assurance practices in education.

In Japan, government policies aggressively target raising the national profile in the ranks of top global universities. These reforms and change processes present complex challenges for university education and management. In seeking successful participation in the elite international networks of university education, in what ways will Japanese national characteristics of university education be preserved? To what extent will university reform policies lead to substantive institutional changes in education practices and organisational management?

In this pursuit of international rankings, as Kariya (2011) has pointed out, it is important to clarify the parameters of actual international competition for Japanese universities. In looking at the function of the university in Japanese society, understandably it serves needs internal to Japan so that most individuals traversing through the processes from secondary schooling to university to the workplace do so in a context of domestic competition. Compulsory education is closed off. We can make general comparisons about the state of education and compare data for the educational environment in
different countries and even things like PISA scores give comparative indications. But there is no direct competition between Japanese students and those of other nations. Even at the university level the reality is that Japanese universities operate in near isolation from actual global competition. For English-speaking countries there are more comparative variables and more actual movement of students, faculty and to a lesser extent even staff. Nevertheless, it is not surprising that countries would set national goals to move up in the global rankings, and Japan is not alone in adopting policies that pursue improved ratings. The checklist of must haves to be considered world class includes such things as publications, foreign faculty, foreign students, international collaboration, and using a Grade Point Average (GPA) system. These categories of data are more readily tabulated for the type of exercise that is large-scale ranking of universities globally. In and of themselves they do not actually communicate very much about the on-the-ground operations and daily functioning of individual institutions. This means it is entirely possible to seek to “game the system” and take steps to improve the numbers in rankings measured areas without changing the status quo of its operational culture. To put it differently, invoking a comprehensive internationalisation agenda does not necessarily produce a comprehensively internationalised university.

d. Norbert Elias
   i. The globalising process

An opening theoretical insight in the research stage readings was Elias’ notion of ‘reality congruent’ (Elias, 1978; 2000) because I saw this as a standard for integrating various perspectives that to me must ultimately co-exist. Next, his notion of a symbiosis of research and theory (Elias, 1978) aligned with what I could see I was already trying to do. Then, finally, making the correspondence that Elias’ ‘civilising process’ could inform what could be called a ‘globalising process’ for university education in Japan, set Elias approach to social analysis as a guiding concept (Elias, 2000). Additionally, there are several features of Elias’ figurational sociology which are helpful for the analysis in this thesis. In
particular, Elias helps give understanding to issues of long-term social processes and the transference of power, and helps elucidate changes in the I-we identity and the effect of loss of meaning on group identity (Elias, 1978; 1991; 2000) both of which are applicable to the case of the university in Japan. The globalising process for university education in Japan is an heuristic extending from the centre of this analysis and holds organisational management at the university as the lynchpin intersection point.

First for long-term social processes, the concept of the “globalising process for university education” follows directly from Elias’ “civilising process”. The parallels are straightforward. To put it simply, in his seminal work “The Civilizing Process”, Elias posits a general trajectory toward ‘civilising’ norms and practices of social attitudes (Elias, 2000). Elias demonstrates that individual behaviour and psychic structures were shaped by complex levels of social interaction which valued increasing levels of self-restraint in etiquette and personal comportment (Elias, 2000: 15). This thesis argues that, similarly, institutions engaging in the networks of elite international universities are shaped by complex levels of social interaction which put forward particular values, rules and practices. The thesis posits a general trajectory for the university in Japan toward ‘globalising’ norms and practices of social attitudes, namely in university educational standards and the mindset of faculty and staff. Likewise, in “Key Sociological Thinkers” Hughes discussion of Elias’ use of the concept of civilising vs civilisation illustrates a parallel case for the use here of globalising vs globalisation in the case of the university in Japan (Hughes, 2008: 170). The ‘globalising’ process too contains a notion similar to that attributed to ‘civilising’ whereby there emerges a connotation of ‘progress’ and ‘superiority’ in the appeal to adopting associated characteristics. This is evidenced in such things as the top global university funding project, for example (see Chapter 3). Hughes argues that “Elias’s focus on civilizing processes was bound up with his endeavour to move towards a more adequate understanding of how processes of change in the human psychic structure are interrelated with processes of
changing social relations (Hughes, 2008: 171). Similarly, though perhaps more so in an opposite trajectory, the thesis seeks to move to a more adequate understanding of how changing relations in the interconnected networks of the university are interrelated with human psychic structure changes for the faculty and administration faced with globalising processes of change.

ii. Structure/agency

Rather than focussing exclusively either on social structures or on individual subjects, this thesis follows from Elias in seeking a symbiosis between theory and research. The goal is to move toward a more adequate understanding of the university in Japan by looking at relations, process and synthesis that come from the emerging interdependence of academic communities. Hughes points out that “the balance between involvement and detachment...[is]... a hallmark of Elias’ studies (Hughes, 2008: 168). Elias was frustrated with dichotomies (Hughes, 2008: 169) such as ‘individual’ and ‘society’, or ‘mind’ and ‘body’. Following Elias, there is an ‘invisible wall of affects’ that seems to suggest Japan, Japanese institutions, and Japanese people are separated from the world. Instead Elias’s Hominis aperti suggests that these levels of society—and university operations in particular in this thesis—are interdependent with the world community. This openness and interdependent connectedness of individuals is the way Elias provides an understanding of power: it is relational. To explain this relational quality to power, Hughes retells Elias’ chess game example. The extent to which there is greater equality between the players, the figuration is “a game process that neither of them has planned” (Hughes, 2008: 175-6). For Elias the figuration is “this order of interweaving human impulses and strivings, this social order, which determines the course of historical change; it underlies the civilising process” (Elias, quoted in Hughes, 2008: 177). This gives a model for thinking of the university, in terms of figurational sociology, as networks of interdependent people locally, nationally and globally. The macro processes of the globalisation process of university education in Japan are related to the micro processes of We-identity that subvert the dynamics of change. Again, the
thesis seeks to move to a more adequate understanding of processes in the functioning of the university in society. To repeat again from above, this means looking at how changing relations in the interconnected networks of the university are interrelated with human psychic structure changes for the faculty and administration faced with globalising processes of change.

**iii. I-we balance**

Although some particulars may vary, the role of the professional academic is recognisable across societies. This is true of various professional roles. Elias observes:

> “Changes in professional relationships are tending in the same direction; many paid professional activities have become interchangeable in more developed societies. This whole development contributes towards a tilting of the I-we balance towards the I in the more developed countries. The individual now has to rely far more on himself or herself in deciding on the form of relationships, whether to continue or end them (Elias, 1991 p. 204).”

It could be argued that as professional roles become interchangeable, there is a shift in the I-we balance from the group we of national identity toward greater individual responsibility in a global marketplace. The nation-state based we identity is itself not the primary we-identity. Elias explains:

> “It may be that the nation-state-based we-identity of the individual in our day is almost taken for granted. One does not always remember clearly enough that the role of the state as a frame of reference for the we-identity of the great majority of all members of a state, i.e. the states role as a nation state, is of relatively recent date (Elias, 1991 p. 206).”

The shift to a greater weight on the I-identity in the comparatively more developed countries runs counter to we-based identities that predominated early history. Elias states:
“The group identity of the single person, his we-, you- or they-identity, played a much too important role, compared to I-identity, in the social praxis of the ancient world to give rise to a need for any universal concept for the single person as a quasi-groupless entity (Elias, 1991 p. 158).”

Elias notes that for Japan “...the shift in the we-I balance in favour of I-identity is less pronounced...than in western countries (Elias, 1991 p. 178).” The we-identity remains relatively strong in Japanese society as a firm nation-state based we. The we-identity is pervasive and assumed. Elias explains:

“The compulsion exerted by the social habitus attuned to the single state appears to many people today as so overwhelming and ineluctable that they take it for granted as something inherent in nature, like birth and death. They do not think about it... The we-image of human beings has changed; it can change again. Such changes do not take place overnight... Again and again a split has developed between the actual takeover of the primary survival function by social units at a higher stage of integration, and the persistent fixation of individuals’ we-identity on units of an earlier stage... Such discrepancies usually result in considerable behavioural malfunctions (Elias, 1991 p. 228-229).”

Japanese society is weighted heavily to a nation-state based we-identity. Turner (2013: 224) notes that “...in terms of ethnic diversity and hybridity, Tokyo is totally different from New York, London or Paris. This resistance to foreign influence is associated with the notion of Japanese exceptionalism or the discourse on nihonjinron which has promoted (if not created) the notion of Japan as a homogenous society”. He goes on to add that “with its late cultural globalization, Japanese society has yet to experience what Zygmunt Baumann (2000) has called liquid modernity, let alone postmodernism” (Turner, 2014: 225). Although, as Hendry notes (2013: 51), the stereotype of a rigid view of Japan as a group oriented society has been debunked; nevertheless, in their discussion of group consciousness in Japan Davies and Ikeno articulate the widespread view
on Japan’s postwar economic growth, that “it would have been impossible to reorganize society and reconstruct the economy quite so quickly if it had not been for the strong group consciousness of the Japanese people (Davies & Ikeno, 2002: 197). The we-identity remains relatively strong in Japanese society as a firm nation-state based we. The we-identity is pervasive and assumed. Elias asserts:

“The compulsion exerted by the social habitus attuned to the single state appears to many people today as so overwhelming and ineluctable that they take it for granted as something inherent in nature, like birth and death. They do not think about it… The we-image of human beings has changed; it can change again. Such changes do not take place overnight… Again and again a split has developed between the actual takeover of the primary survival function by social units at a higher stage of integration, and the persistent fixation of individuals’ we-identity on units of an earlier stage… Such discrepancies usually result in considerable behavioural malfunctions (Elias, 1991 p. 228-229).”

At the university, there is a split between the higher-level operations of the institution which for the survival of the university are functioning at a higher level of integration with the world of the global elite universities on the one hand, and on the other hand, a core of faculty and administration fixated on a nation-state based we-identity that is of an earlier stage. There is a drag effect between the higher level of integration and the earlier stage we-identity. Elias illuminates:

“In studying social development processes we repeatedly come across a constellation in which the dynamic of unplanned social processes is tending to advance beyond a given stage towards another, which may be higher or lower, while the people affected by this change cling to the earlier stage in their personality structure, their social habitus. It depends entirely on the relative strength of the social shift and the deep-rootedness and therefore the resistance of the social habitus whether—
and how quickly—the dynamic of the unplanned social process brings about a more or less radical restructuring of this habitus, or whether the social habitus of individuals successfully opposes the social dynamic, either by slowing it down or blocking it entirely. There are many examples of such drag effects (Elias, 1991 p. 211).”

Already for some decades now, such a ‘drag effect’ has been in place at the upper echelons of management in Japan, both in the corporate world and the academic. In other words, the social shift driven by more expansive engagement in global networks is slowed down, dragged back by the people most affected by this change clinging to earlier stages of their personality structure. For elite global universities, in what Ramirez and Tiplin call “the rise and triumph of world models for university excellence” (2013: 15), the dynamic of social processes is tending toward a stage where a national state based We-identity is not the sole social habitus for members and especially not those of the management team for whom it may not even be primary. Rather, they are connected to global networks of research, human resources, and professional development. Running in countercurrent to this lead group, for a core of faculty and administrators a national state based We-identity defines their social habitus and dominates their identity. Elias argues,

“But in most cases the difficulty lies in the fact that intellectual awareness of the logic of integration meets the tenacious resistance of emotive ideas which give the integration the character of ruin, a loss that one cannot cease mourning. And in such a situation, one probably does not want to cease mourning.

The central problem, as perhaps can be seen, lies in a peculiarity of the transition from one level of integration to another. In the transitional period there is often a long phase when the group at the lower level suffers what its members feel to be a serious loss of the we-group meaning, while the group a the higher level is not yet able to take over
the function of a we-group conferring emotive meaning (Elias, 1991 p. 225-226).”

For our purposes here we are addressing this issue in terms of faculty and administration in the university setting, but it is not exclusive to this setting and may have broad application to society as a whole.

In summary, Elias helps focus on the processes of figurational dynamics, the levels of integration involved in sphere of human figurations in a way that is reality congruent. These are seen as interdependent, as homo aperti not homo clausus. The goal, following Elias, is to engage theory and empirical data, with neither dominant in the analysis. In the next chapter, the context for the key components of the thesis area will be explored: Japan, globalisation, the labour market, youth-to-work transition, and the function of the university in society.

**Conclusion**

This chapter has explained the main trends for Japan in the labour market, the youth-to-work transition and university reform. The implication of these trends is that in Japan, while youth employment—and university graduate employment in particular—fairs comparatively well for OECD countries, there is increasing competition for the best jobs. While employment opportunities for new graduates are quite good, the overall trajectory for the job-market is toward greater individualisation and increased risk compared with earlier generations of Japanese. Employment competitiveness is offset somewhat by the population decrease in young people. On the other hand, the declining population adds pressure to increase female participation in the workforce. Although there are some positive indicators for women, such as high education attainment levels, the overall trend is that Japan has highly gendered trajectories entrenched by social conformity and longstanding employment policies and practices. For university reform the Japanese government has pursued high profile projects which seek to align university education with global standards and practices.
The goal of these reforms is to shift the function of the university in Japan toward greater production and societal contribution in innovation for businesses and skills training for workers. Although the overall aim is to improve the global standing of Japanese universities, rather the trend is toward adopting policies and practices in name only without changing the core operational practices of the institution. The implication for the research questions is that organisational management occupies a central role either in helping or impeding long-term social processes of change to the function of the university in Japanese society.

Further, this chapter has explored the globalising process as defined in this thesis. The globalising process as a concept derives from Elias’ civilising process and articulates a tendency that 1) increasingly research, innovation, and collaboration have a worldwide scope; 2) aspects of the university which function at a level of transnational institutional processes supersede the power and influence of a nation-state identity; 3) an emergent global culture of SIHRM in tertiary education that shifts toward the I-identity and which allows for complexity and flexibility in We-identity associations outside of singular nation-state based We-identity.

This heuristic in inspired by Elias’ figurational sociology but also articulated within the general discussions on globalisation and convergence. As a working model of the current state of world affairs, a prudent and balanced view seems to be Weiss’ fourth proposition that argues we are in a situation of weak globalisation but strong internationalisation, with state power adaptability and differentiation emphasized. This view perhaps best captures the complexity of present-day interconnectedness that while heavily internationalised, seems in many areas to fall short of truly worldwide global transnational networks and operations. Morely and Collings show that differences are pervasive in the findings of a wide variety of studies on HRM lending to agreement toward divergence in this area (2004: 491). Weiss notes Robert Wades’ observation on
the trends in national bases of production, North-South divisions, and regionalisation (176-177). She adds to this her analysis of financial integration that notes the cost of money has not converged, large differences in saving and investment rates persist, and the bulk of domestic investment in the OECD comes from domestic savings (178-179). The sum of these trends indicate that perhaps, as Weiss argues, “the novelty and the magnitude of change [globally] have been overplayed” (176). These points are likewise applicable to university education in Japan. Foremost the institutions are heavily characterised by their function in Japanese society and core Japanese identity. Nevertheless, there is a movement toward deeper connections and relations with international networks of elite global institutions. This shifting trend I am calling a globalising process for university education in Japan.
Chapter 3—Methodology: Researching Super Global
Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology for the thesis. It begins by defining my philosophical and methodological position, and continues by introducing the case study method then detailing the case study method used in this thesis. Next, I present the methods applied for data collection, the selection of the research elements and the techniques of data analysis. Finally, the chapter concludes by reflecting on ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

a. Philosophical and methodological position

This thesis is a case study of policy translation that contextualizes the processes on the ground at an elite Japanese university. At various levels of social processes ranging from the policy directives of the Abe government, to MEXT funding projects, or even university promotional materials, the language of internationalization and reform do not necessarily reflect the operational functioning and everyday life realities of university institutions. For Japanese university students, far removed government-level reform policy discourse struggles to gain attention from their immediate needs and concerns. Yet, of course, today's students are connected to interdependencies relationally and socially in Japan, as well as historically and globally. By exploring these patterns taking place in time and recognizing multi-level complex relationships, this thesis seeks to investigate how to best give meaning to these structures and processes in a way that is ‘reality congruent’ at both macro and micro levels. The purpose is to begin to give a rich picture of the HE policy reform practices at the university, placed in the context of broader social developments.

This integrated and overlapped setting of the research location required integrating and overlapping research tools and procedures in a mixed method approach that is intercultural and interdisciplinary. Epistemologically and ontologically this approach is in line with a critical realist perspective. In the thesis, primarily I take a critical realist perspective which holds that
“we will only be able to understand—and so change—the social world if we identify the structures at work that generate those events and discourses...These structures are not spontaneously apparent in the observable pattern of events; they can only be identified through the practical and theoretical work of the social sciences” (Bhaskar, 1989: 2, quoted in Bryman: 14).

In order to investigate the structures at work, I needed to develop a research method that could treat different levels and angles of looking at the complex issues of policy translation at the university. Recognising the complexity of the reality to be investigated meant that a singular approach could not be expected to reveal all that was happening. Therefore, this is an educational-management, critical realist-type case study that employs mixed methods research, including ethnography, organisational management vignettes, extended participant observation, and student questionnaire data.

Aligned with a basic critical realist perspective, my research studies the translation of policies with reference to four analytic levels: the macro level of national education policy; the institutional level of policy reform at the University of Tsukuba; the departmental level of management practices in the English Section at the Center for Education of Global Communication (CEGLOC) in the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at the University of Tsukuba, and the individual level of student perception of the university for skills training and career development.

To extend from the critical realist approach, the thesis incorporates as an heuristic concepts from Norbert Elias’ figurational sociology. Following from Elias, looking at the various pieces—HE reform policies, the labour market, the university as an institution—like static structures in comparisons across societies can make them appear partly or wholly equivalent. Looking at how HE
reform is translated into practice in the context of societal processes yields an integratable view of the dynamics at play.

The mixed method approach I take in the thesis, understandably, can be subject to criticism. For example, Hughes asserts

“every research tool or procedure is inextricably embedded in commitments to particular versions of the world and to knowing that world” (Hughes, 1990: 11; quoted in Bryman, 2008: 604).

I am reading that for Hughes “that world” means that version, exactly that particular version of the world. The epistemological position being taken then is, following Hughes’ argument, inextricably embedded in the research methodology. The implication is that more than just different views about how social reality should be studied, this viewpoint asserts that the methodology establishes a commitment to a particular version of the world that is incompatible with other versions. From Hughes’ statement, the different views on how social reality should be studied also indicate irreconcilable versions of how we can know that world as well as, finally, what is the world.

It seems to me this argument suggests it is not just that we might be differing as to a favoured or preferred method, say for example, between metric and imperial, for which ultimately there can be some inter-dialogue, some process where we can develop systems for conversions and integration of results—no, not just an irreconcilable commitment to using tools of analysis different in the manner of centimetres or inches. Rather this position seems to insist that the fundamental view of the world itself is different. In other words, taken to its full conclusion there is embedded in the methodology a view of the world that is unto itself unmeasurable in other systems, and that cannot integrate or co-exist with another position.

Perhaps this view of non-integratable systems asserts a primacy to mental constructs that can be illuminated further with Foucault’s notion of regimes of
truth (1975: 30). A regime of truth is a discourse limited to the constraints of time and place, and concerned—perhaps primarily—with power and identity. A regime of truth is invested in one particular view, and, as an exercise of power, rejects any co-existence or possibility of integration. As such, a regime of truth may be defended vigorously, foremost by individuals for whom that regime is a particular form with which their own egoic sense of self is fully identified. Thereby, any criticism or threat to the systems of meaning, the mental constructs, of the regime are likely to be taken as a personal attack.

With those considerations in mind, therefore, I believe the critical realist perspective is a helpful ontological approach because whether history or cultural studies, business or anthropology, a regimes’ approach to research and analysis fully acceptable within its own tradition seems to be at best an incomplete assessment of multifaceted historical social realities. In isolation each individual tradition, or each individual research tool, is possibly even misleading given this limitation. Consequently, an interdisciplinary approach using mixed methods can be an important technique that may yield a more complex and rich perspective of the research area. At the same time, I believe a practical perspective is necessary to the challenge of integrating different epistemological positions or approaches to research. This is not to say that there is an identity between the quantitative-qualitative, history-cultural studies and other dichotomies. Simply, I am arguing that insisting on the exclusivity of one particular view, and especially its irreconcilability, does I believe, seem to exemplify asserting the primacy of mental constructs and a compartmentalizing of the world that is difficult to defend and not ‘reality congruent’, to use Elias’ term.

To extend from the basic critical realist position in the thesis, I use Elias’ figurational sociology as an heuristic. I do so precisely because Elias suggests the possibility of integrating various levels of analysis in an adaptive way, responding to the need to adjust to looking from different perspectives and
ratios of distance. Here we might add that Garfinkel’s ethnomethodology (Heritage, 2008: 220-221) and attention to background knowledge could also be insightful to suggest problematizing the depth of the issues. Along similar lines, Bourdieu’s approach to investigating sociological issues (Waquant, 2008: 264) can offer parallel support to the argument for a synthesis of the positivist and interpretivist aspects singled out in this thesis; further, Bourdieu's approach to research supports use of the component of reflexivity I believe is necessary for such embedded international, interdisciplinary, intercultural research.

b. The case study method

The case study method has a diverse history in different disciplines with the result that there may be different approaches to the application of the method. In his recent study on the case method, Tight provides a useful overview of various definitions given for the case study method. The following definition from Gerring provides a simple outline definition that captures in the simplest, general terms the fundamental purpose of a case study:

“A case study is best defined as an intensive study of a single unit with an aim to generalize across a larger set of units “ (Gerring, 2004: 341; quoted in Tight, 2027: 7).

Gerring’s key phrase there is this notion of the “intensive study of a single unit”. This describes the root thinking for the parameters and purpose of doing a case study. The question then arises—and it is a key one in the debates surrounding the case study method—is the single case applicable to a broader context?

On this point, Bryman argues that

“[i]t is important to appreciate that case study researchers do not delude themselves that it is possible to identify typical cases that can be used to represent a certain class of objects... In other words, they do not think that a case study is a sample of one” (Bryman: 55).

In his curious and perhaps playful phrasing, Bryman seems at pains to assert that it would be ridiculous to consider the single unit as a typical representative
of a larger set of units. Does this mean that generalizations cannot be made then? As quoted above, the Gerring short definition stated plainly that, from his perspective, the aim of studying single unit is to get “to generalize across a larger set of units”.

The following definition from Mitchell may serve as a way to resolve the debate as to how the findings from a single case may be applied to a larger set of units. Mitchell states that,

“[a] good case study... enables the analyst to establish theoretically valid connections between events and phenomena which previously were ineluctable. From this point of view, the search for a ‘typical’ case for analytical exposition is likely to be less fruitful than the search for a ‘telling’ case, in which the particular circumstances surrounding a case serve to make previously obscure theoretical relationships suddenly apparent” (Mitchell 1984: 239; quoted in Tight, 2017: 28).

This definition from Mitchell sets out best the balance I have sought to achieve in the present case study. That is to say, in agreement with Bryman, the University of Tsukuba cannot be taken as a sample of one with direct correspondence to all other Super Global Funding recipient universities and certainly not for all 800+ universities in Japan in general. Rather than a ‘typical’ case, the case study of this thesis is better conceived of as a ‘telling’ case from which theory and analysis emerge.

c. The case study method of the thesis

In addition to being a telling case, following the analysis of Bryman, the present case study is also an exemplifying case with elements of being a revelatory case. It is exemplifying “because it exemplifies a broader category of which it is a member” (Bryman: 56). Although it can also be considered as one of the entire group of 800+ Japanese universities, most immediately the University of Tsukuba is a member of the R13, an elite group of Japanese research universities. (as discussed in Ch.1). Further, the case study method of the thesis has elements
of revelatory because the “investigator has an opportunity to observe and analyse a phenomenon previously inaccessible to scientific investigation” (Yin, 2003:42; quoted in Bryman: 56). Due to my dual status as researcher and embedded faculty at the university, I have had the opportunity to observe up close for an extended period in intimate detail the workings of the university that would otherwise have been inaccessible. Therefore, I consider that this case study is an exemplifying case with elements of being a revelatory case.

As a case study, it is within the tradition of inductive research. The thesis is an intensive analysis of a single case from which new theoretical arguments are generated (Bryman: 57). The result is to develop theory for HE reform in Japan regarding the globalising process of that reform and the centrality of organisational management for policy translation in the university setting. This case study is a form of ethnography using fieldwork notes for ethnographic observation of operations and management practices with detailed notes of meetings, agendas, minutes, emails and planning documents.

In terms of using a critical realist approach in case study research, Easton argues that “[a] critical realist case approach is particularly well suited to relatively clearly bounded, but complex, phenomena such as organisations, interorganisational relationships or nets of connected organisations” (Easton, 2010: 123; quoted in Tight: 100). The present case study involves a relatively clearly bounded organisation (the University of Tsukuba) which operates through interorganisational relationships (e.g. MEXT, policy institutes, other universities, etc.), and within the net of overlapping processes and practices of elite global universities. In a case study, the critical realist approach emphasizes uncovering the mechanisms or explanations for why things operate as they do (Tight: 101). The present case study has pursued this approach.
To help develop a working definition for the present case study, consider this definition from Bassey specifically addressing the educational context that applies to the character of the case in this thesis:

“An educational case study is an empirical enquiry which is: conducted within a localised boundary of space and time... into interesting aspects of an educational activity, or programme or institution, or system; mainly in its natural context and within an ethic of respect for persons; in order to inform the judgements and decisions of practitioners or policy-makers; or of theoreticians who are working to these ends; in such a way that sufficient data are collected for the researcher to be able to explore significant features of the case... create plausible interpretations... test for the(ir) validity... construct a worthwhile argument... [and] convey convincingly to an audience this argument” (Bassey, 1999: 58 emphasis in original; quoted in Tight, 2017: 6-7).

Though more lengthy and complex than previous definitions noted here, Bassey provides the nuance needed to give an accurate representation of the methodological concept to be used for the thesis. Bassey’s definition can be summarized with five points: 1. boundary of the case; 2. interesting programme/institution; 3. to inform practitioners/policy-makers; 4. sufficient data to look at significant features of the case; 5. to make a plausible, worthwhile argument.

Borrowing from the language and concepts of the two more complex definitions cited here, Mitchell and Bassey, I propose the following combined definition for the purposes of clarifying the methodology of this thesis:

This thesis is an interdisciplinary case study (HE, management, policy translation, labour market studies) which investigates Super Global University education reform policy at the University of Tsukuba with sufficient data to explore the significant features of the case, with plausible interpretations such that a worthwhile argument can be made that this is a telling case for globalising-focused education reform policy
in Japan which serves to make previously obscure theoretical relationships suddenly apparent in order to inform the judgements and decisions of practitioners or policy-makers in this area.

d. Research location, timing, events, participants

In August 2012, in the second year of the doctorate program, I accepted a position at the University of Tsukuba. I first considered doing a comparative study of my previous university in Aichi, but quickly realised the logistics would be challenging. I decided to base the study at my new location, the University of Tsukuba. My lack of connections and experience in the SME business in my new area combined with the bigger national presence and reach of the new university led me to drop the original SME angle I had envisioned and to instead focus on better understanding the university itself. Besides, based on institutional reputation alone, the employment prospects for graduates from this Japan top-10 ranked, large, national research university differ greatly from those of a small, private university in Aichi. Though the circumstances demanded it, in practice this meant restarting the research from a new angle.

In early 2013, I was put in touch with the then-faculty supervisor to the University of Tsukuba Career Guidance Centre. Over a series of meetings together with key centre staff, we came to an agreement to collaborate on a questionnaire to be distributed to students at a career guidance seminar, the centre’s primary student outreach event. Completing the process of negotiating the agreement for the collaboration was the most challenging intercultural communication episode I have ever dealt with in my professional life. At several junctures the whole project was on the verge of derailment; only patience, determination, and the gracious generosity of Jun Ikeda, the then-director of research at the centre, allowed for it to come to fruition. Professor Ikeda and I communicated in English and from the very first meeting he was firm in his enthusiasm and support for my idea for a collaborative survey project. In order to proceed, he set up a meeting with the director of the centre and several key
staff. All of those meetings took place in Japanese. Initially the centre director wanted to rule out even the possibility of a collaborative project on the grounds that it would be unfair for the centre to support the research of only one professor. Only Professor Ikeda’s firm support and deft handling of that objection allowed us to move ahead to the next step and indeed to the final completion; yet, that initial spirit of non-cooperation on the administration side was never fully overcome. At several follow up meetings, negotiations took place over the number and type of questions to be included in the survey, the method of delivery, and the location and timing for execution. The centre staff, based on their own annual survey experiences, strongly favoured a paper survey, and that was an easy concession for me to make. After some negotiation we agreed on a general set up for the survey structure. With me taking full responsibility for the translation process, the target was to produce a bilingual working document for our review. The biggest challenge came after the first draft of questions. I had forwarded the survey draft document ahead of the meeting. When I arrived at the follow-up meeting it was clear immediately that something was wrong. The mood was dark and the meeting began with the announcement from the director that it appeared we may not be able to proceed. It took more than an hour for us to parse through to get to the real issue. The problem was that although I had taken the biographical data questions directly from the ones used in the centre’s annual survey, these questions contained several pertaining to family income and financial status. The director considered it unethical and inappropriate that I should have access to that data. In retrospect, perhaps he was right on this point. Nevertheless, although I could quickly concede the deletion of those specific questions from the survey, the path to get us there was calamitous. Essentially, the meeting began with ending the project and only after a journey through a wide circuitous route did we actually get to what the real issue was and how we might address that. Thankfully it was resolved. Without doubt, here again, Professor Ikeda’s stabilising, calm communication style was invaluable to the success of the proposal. Eventually the survey was
conducted in June 2013 as part of the Career Centre’s main student outreach event.

The details of the survey itself are discussed below in sub-chapter e. A pdf version of the survey is in the appendix, along with a bilingual text version of the survey questions.

Once all completed surveys were collected I set about implementing a process for data entry. Initially I was greatly disappointed to have only gathered around 350 surveys. I had anticipated around 1,000 completed surveys. This smaller data set was a blessing in disguise. In June 2013, I invited several top students to apply for a research assistant position, then conducted interviews of those who applied. Yuki, Sae, Naoko, Ryosuke, and Shoko became the five conscientious team members for the project. These five part-time research assistants worked for more than a hundred total hours on data entry. Fortunately, a generous research budget and extra project support funding made it possible to formally hire the assistants and officially pay them at university scale for their time on the project. Having the assistants do the grunt work of the data entry meant that I could take a supervisory role for quality assurance, checking and monitoring the process.

This survey was intended to be the foundational backbone to the research project. Throughout 2013 and into 2014, as I became more acquainted with and engaged in the operational details of the university, it became clear that given the high employment rate of graduates, the function of the university in society was a key research issue. The competence and ability levels of the students were obviously significantly higher than my rural Aichi private university; while at the same time there appeared to be low workload demands in course expectations and educational standards remarkably different from my own socialisation in standards for university education. In other words, the students did seem to be largely representative of society’s academic elite who go on to secure some of
the best professional positions in the marketplace, but what role did their university education play? And, what was the function of the university in society?

Alongside these questions, the messages of reform at the university were constant, yet the functional units I operated within seemed unable and/or unwilling to translate these into meaningful actions at ground level.

A secondary survey was conducted in the winter term of 2014 on student perceptions of the coordinated curriculum in the English Section and the TOEFL test. Several of my colleagues in the Section were struggling with how to implement the coordinated curriculum and this led to discussions of conducting a student survey to see what the students thought. From these discussions, I collaborated with two colleagues to produce the survey which was then administered by eight of our faculty members. I wrote a report on the results of this for our in-house journal (versions of which are included in the results below).

At the same time as this was going on, in collaboration with two different colleagues I helped establish a new Faculty Development workshop for faculty to present their research or practical teaching methods to our Section. The faculty is a widely diverse group with expertise in various fields, and a dozen different nationalities. Before these workshops, there were no group gatherings that facilitated discussion and sharing amongst the members. Japanese academic meetings tend to be formal reporting of decisions already made, and our sets of meetings followed this approach.

With this type of involvement in institutional operations, I undertook to write mini case studies of management units in relation to these issues. Further, to augment my knowledge and gain contextual information for government policies and university operations I gathered MEXT documentation and
university Super Global documents to conduct policy and document analysis. As a member of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences I participated in regular meetings of that group, in monthly meetings for all members of the Foreign Language Section, and monthly meetings of the English Section. Perhaps partly as a result of this type of engagement on my part (though certainly the main reason was no other eligible candidate would agree to do it!), in 2015-16 I was elected chair of the English Section. During all of this time I treated the location as a field site for ethnographic observation, formally in official meetings, and informally through analysis of in-house documents and texts and interviews and discussions with university officials and faculty members.

From a rather circuitous route then, it had eventually become clear to me that university reform targeted toward internationalisation of the university was the de facto research area I was investigating and that this more specifically was in its current incarnation as the reform plan funded by the 2014 Super Global University Project. I did not start with this in mind but context and my natural research interests presented me with the setting for what has become the case study reported here.

e. Research steps and processes

The main research steps taken followed a sequence from Bryman’s “Social Research Methods” (2008: 370) that illustrates the qualitative research process through a study by Foster (1995).

Step 1. General research question.

The original hypothesis and research questions from the thesis proposal.

A hypothesis of this study is that student achievement in internationalisation and global perspective development are proportional to cultural capital and will reflect differences by gender regardless of social class.

The principal aims of this study are to (1) explore how students conceptualise, understand, and navigate internationalisation and global perspective skills development as these relate to career opportunities, and (2) place the
Japanese tertiary education-to-labour market transition in the context of social, cultural and structural inequalities.

It is anticipated that the following research questions will also be answered by the research in relation to the participants studied:

- What is student self-perception of internationalisation and global perspective employability skills?
- What insights can be gained from diverse quantitative measurements such as are used in tertiary education, by government agencies and in the labour market to assess the internationalisation process and global perspective employability skills? These include measures of language achievement like TOEIC scores, language program completion, level of participation in Education Abroad Programs, or language use in employment outcomes.
- What is the epistemology of gender and national culture as it applies to the labour market in Japan?

Step 2. Selection of relevant site and subjects
Early research focused on a small private university in Aichi prefecture combined with local SMEs. After I relocated to the other side of the country to a post at a national university the logistics and access to Aichi became prohibitive. My attention gradually shifted to the applying the questions to the national university and re-envisioning the thesis from there.

Step 3. Collection of relevant data
Data collection consisted of a student survey (The Global Human Resources Survey), ethnographic notes from meetings, emails, announcements, memos in the English Section, university data on education reform and the Super Global Funding Project, a student survey and management policy study of a coordinated curriculum programme in the English section. Additional data was gathered on the labour market in Japan, MEXT HE policy documents, and literature on contemporary Japan studies.

Step 4. Interpretation of data
My initial focus had been more focused on student perceptions of global human resource development policies directed at their preparation for the labour
market. The data on management operations in the English Section began to show an intermediary force acting between, for, and around the education policies and the experiences of students. Initially, I started writing memos on management policy purely on the basis of my background in management but later understood these were being informed by and were integral to my research on the labour market, the youth-to-work transition, HE policy, and policy translation. The core theory to emerge is that there is a globalising process for university education at the university, and that organisational management is the essential operative variable at the intersection of university reform, the changing needs of the labour market, and increased risk in the youth-to-work transition.

**Step 5. Conceptual and theoretical work**

The approach in this thesis was an iterative one in which data collection, and in particular the juxtaposition of various sets of data from different levels of analysis, worked interactively with the theorising and interpretation of the data. What had seemed at the start a perfunctory mechanism, only to gradually emerge as the core theory, was the centrality of organisational management in the translation of policy reform at the university. Regarding the concept of a globalising process for HE in Japan, I discovered Elias in the module work preparing for the doctoral research and was immediately drawn to his style, approach, and concepts. Elias’ figurational sociology was influential in helping to think through the changes taking place on a macro scale and connect them to changes on a micro scale.

**Step 5a. Tighter specification of the research questions**

In order to tighten the focus and clarity of the study, the research questions were reformulated to the current versions.

The main research question:

how is the super-global university project policy translated into practice by an elite Japanese university?
The four sub questions:

Q1. What is the super global university project and, as a recipient of this government project funding, what are the specific goals of the University of Tsukuba’s super global project plan?

Q2: For implementation of super global university reform policies, what is the academic management model for governance of the University of Tsukuba?

Q3: In relation to super global plan educational targets, what are the processes for quality assurance in education at the University of Tsukuba?

Q4: With respect to the super global student targets, what are student perceptions of the university for skills training and career?

Step 5b. Collection of further data
Though labour market data and analysis is crucial to understanding the changing function of the university in Japanese society, increasingly the collection of further data centred on the Super Global Funding Project and the organisational management practices of the English Section.

Step 6. Writing up of findings/conclusions
My role as an embedded researcher operating throughout the initial adoption phase of Super Global at the forefront of reform target implementation and translation has enabled me to bring to light previously obscure theoretical relationships. This study is a telling case for globalising-focused education reform policy in Japan which serves to inform the judgements and decisions of practitioners or policy-makers in this area.

The following sub-chapters present the methods I used to gather and analyse the data. The different components of the research are integrated in the four levels of analysis: the macro level of policy, the organisation level of the university, the departmental level of the English Section, and the individual
level of the student. The different sources of data map on to different aspects of the research problem as discernible events in the translation of policy at the University of Tsukuba.

The components of the research and the different sources of data look at internal structures of the organisation and try to understand what are the mechanisms of policy translation operative in the integrated and overlapping complexity of the four levels of analysis. At the core of the research is the objective of understanding why things are as they are.

**f. Student perspectives: The Global Human Resources Survey**

![Student survey cover page](image)

Figure 12: Student survey cover page

**i. Background and Method**

The purpose of conducting a student survey was to contribute data on student perspectives to the research on the university-to-work transition and global human resource development in Japan.

In late-2012 to early-2013 I developed a 40-question survey in part based on questions from the UK Understanding Society study and recent global human
resources surveys from Manpower and McKinsey. These were rendered into Japanese and added to a Japanese-language core of established biographical data questions used by the University of Tsukuba for annual in-house student surveys. The questionnaires were administered in Japanese in the form of a printed booklet (in pdf format in the appendix) following a layout similar to the UK Understanding Society materials.

Through a cooperative arrangement with the University of Tsukuba Career Guidance Center, in June 2013 the survey was distributed at a major career guidance event. The survey was included in the packet of documents distributed to all attendees. Approximately 700 surveys were distributed on the day, plus 50 over the course of subsequent weeks to interested parties unable to attend the main event.

On the day of the event, career centre staff were stationed at the exits of the auditorium to collect five documents students had been invited to fill out during the session. Four of the documents were career and employment related from the centre and one was the survey. 235 respondents’ surveys were collected on the day.

Additional surveys were distributed in the researcher’s 8 courses of first and second year students which brought the respondents over 400. The final total of 315 comes from completed, eligible surveys. Surveys with 1 or 2 unanswered questions were permitted. Incomplete or incorrectly filled out surveys were rejected.

**g. Organisational Management: English Section leadership**

As part of an analysis of university management practices I produced a report on management and leadership of the English Section based on my role and duties as an associate professor in the faculty and participating member of the group from October 2012 to March 2015. I used a scale of team maturity levels and
components developed by Moral for team coaching in multinational companies (2009).

Self-evaluation of university management practices is recommended in government educational reform policies. MEXT advises in its guidance documents that all universities, as part of the internationalisation reforms, should evaluate the state of their organisational standards through self-evaluation (MEXT, 2012). Quality assurance processes are cited with a view to strengthening organisational and management functions (MEXT 2011, 2014).

The leadership of the University of Tsukuba has aligned with MEXT policies and incentives toward developing internationalisation at Tsukuba. These plans for the university include increasing foreign faculty and reforming the recruiting and promotion system. From a quality assurance standpoint, effective academic management in an intercultural workplace environment is a necessary feature of an internationalised university.

Considering that university reform policies give prominence both to English language education and to increasing foreign faculty, the English section merits review and analysis for assessment of current practices. Moreover, the restructuring of the Foreign Language Center (FLC) to become CEGLOC started in April 2015. The English section has full-time faculty members of twelve different nationalities, including the majority native Japanese contingent. A total of six new full-time faculty had been recruited in the previous two academic years. With its cultural diversity and frontline role in English language education at the University of Tsukuba, the English section is uniquely positioned to serve as an exemplary model of a high-functioning global team. Aspiring to educational targets for Tsukuba students in the form of learning outcomes or performance achievements is predicated on effective academic management systems.
Policy translation: Coordinated curriculum and TOEFL

i. Background for coordinated curriculum and TOEFL

“Super Eigo” with “Academic Express” (hereafter, “Super Eigo”) is a web-based English language study system produced by the Tokyo-based company CHIeru Co. Ltd. In 2012, Super Eigo was adopted at the University of Tsukuba by the English Section of the then-Foreign Language Center (renamed in 2015 as the Foreign Language Section in the restructuring of the new Center for Education of Global Communication). Super Eigo (eigo means English in Japanese; meanwhile, note the return of ‘super’ as a marketing catchphrase) was planned for use as common teaching material in the first year course Integrated English I, II starting from the 2013-2014 academic year. Integrated English has 60 class sections per term, with approximately 20 instructors (full-time and part-time) and over 2,000 students enrolled. Super Eigo was described in the English Section’s Curriculum Committee documents as “common teaching materials” in a “coordinated curriculum” for Integrated English. As common teaching material it was required for purchase by all 1st year students enrolled in the Integrated English course in the 2013-14 and 2014-15 academic years.

ii. Method for coordinated curriculum and TOEFL

The pilot study and survey questions were developed as a collaborative project with my English section colleagues R. Ide and M. Tasseron based on an earlier survey design I had produced. The idea to use “Survey Monkey” as the tool to implement the survey, and the text used for the consent form came from M. Tasseron. The Japanese language edit checks and the idea to expand the respondents set by inviting other instructors to participate came from R. Ide. I conducted the set-up and administration of the survey and am the sole author of the analysis in this section.

The survey was web-based using the online survey tool “Survey Monkey”. The bi-lingual Japanese/English survey consisted of twenty questions spread over six pages. There were four sections to the survey: 1. Research Consent Form, 2.
Biographic data, 3. Super Eigo, and 4. TOEFL. First, respondents were asked to read a research consent form with the option to agree or disagree. Clicking disagree put them directly to the end of the survey. Agreeing would go to page 2 to start the survey. Page 2 consisted of 5 non-identifying biographic data questions. Page 3 started the Super Eigo section with the single question about use of Super Eigo. Answering “No” put respondents directly to the final section, TOEFL. Only users of Super Eigo answered the follow-up detail questions. Likewise, a “no” answer for the first TOEFL question led directly to the end of the survey.

The primary research questions for this survey were a. Is web-based study effective?; b. What makes for an effective coordinated curriculum? The survey research also sought to address “how many minutes of study per week for web-based study to be effective?” The survey questions on student perceptions targeted three specific areas: 1. Use patterns of Super Eigo, 2. Perception of the effectiveness of Super Eigo for language acquisition, 3. Perception of the importance of and priority given to TOEFL.

The survey was administered by eight instructors of Integrated English, in-class at the end of the 2014 Winter term. There were 559 respondents, with a 60/40 split between male and female participants. Survey results were distributed to the participating instructors. Each instructor received for their own use all data plus data for their own students’ responses. The analysis included in the thesis deals only with the category “all data”.

**i. The seven core findings**

i. Groupist civil-servant type vs individual corporate type

ii. Output vs outcome

iii. Elisian We-I drift in social development

iv. Factionalised operations

v. Maintain the past, protect the village
vi. Funding the crowd: dispersed and diminished resources

vii. Latent institutional strengths

These seven will be discussed in Ch. 4. In accord with Easton’s description of a critical realist approach to case study, the seven core findings can be thought of as mechanisms operative in the setting of the University of Tsukuba which help to explain the processes of policy translation through the four analytic levels used in the thesis: the macro level of policy; the institutional level of the University of Tsukuba; the departmental level of the English Section; the individual level of the student.

Easton has explained that the critical realist approach to cased study research:

“involves developing a research question that identifies a research phenomenon of interest, in terms of discernible events, and asks what causes them to happen. The key entities involved, their powers, liabilities, necessary and contingent relationships are provisionally identified. Research then proceeds by capturing data with respect to ongoing or past events asking at all times why they happened or are happening and taking into account the problems and issues associated with interpreting the empirical data back to the real entities and their actions. The research process is one of continuous cycles of research and reflection. The final result is the identification of one or more mechanisms that can be regarded as having caused the event” (Easton, 2010: 128; quoted in Tight: 100-101).

The seven core findings are the result of this process of a continuous cycle between research and reflection. These are the final results of trying to identify what are the mechanisms operative in the translation of policy at the University of Tsukuba.
As an example of this process, I developed the model for the finding i. *Groupist civil-servant type vs individual corporate type* over the course of a few months in late 2014. I started from my insider knowledge with the analysis that in various modes of operation at the university, the group dynamic set up varying levels of quasi-ambiguous collective responsibility, while eschewing any individual responsibility. From that point I began a list with two columns to try to theorise about the situation. I positioned one side as the historical civil-servant type educational management approach in contrast with a newly emerging model that was more business-like. To help clarify the contrast I labelled them *Groupist vs. Individual: Groupist civil-servant type education management model vs. Individual corporate type education management model*. The first thing I noted, then, was the civil servant tendency for shared responsibility and the corporate tendency for individual responsibility. Lower and higher individual accountability levels followed logically from that. Then I added the output vs. outcome point (which is also treated separately in finding ii). I proceeded like this trying to fill out logically the relevant aspects for a management model, adding categories as needed. The final details that emerged had not been at first evident. As will be explained in the next chapter, it seems counterintuitive that the individual corporate means lower individual freedom. In theorising the framework I did not place a value judgement on either model. The framework does not argue for one being better than the other. Its purpose was to help identify and explain the characteristics and contrast of these two approaches to the management of the university, and to help identify what are the mechanisms that contribute to the tensions in contrasting management paradigms.

**j. Ethical considerations and limitations**

First, from an administrative perspective, the Global Human Resources survey and the Coordinated Curriculum/TOEFL surveys both followed Japanese research protocols for disclosure, data protection and informed consent.
Additional ethics approval was obtained from the University of Leicester (Ethical Application Ref: gb178-4434) on 18 October 2012.

Next, the thesis critically evaluates policy translation and the processes of organisational management at the university using vignettes and data gathered from the position of embedded researcher. Although it was widely known among my colleagues that I was pursuing a doctorate degree and writing a thesis that took the University of Tsukuba as the setting for a case study, nevertheless, this insider/outsider position presents an inherent ambiguity between my dual roles as faculty member and researcher. While this extended, embedded proximity allowed for a broad range and depth of access to data in the research setting, the ambiguity of roles poses both an ethical consideration and a limitation. Nevertheless, because my role and position at the university allow for this highly optimal positioning in terms of breadth of access to conduct the case study, on balance, I am convinced the final contribution will serve to inform the judgements and decisions of practitioners and policy makers in this area.

A further key ethical consideration is the intercultural context of the research. The nature of the arguments put forward in the thesis is inherently sensitive to intercultural communication and understanding. Further, the thesis addresses issues of global teams in intercultural working environments at the university. The concepts and interpretations involved in analysing and discussing these issues are infused with cultural biases and assumptions. From a business perspective Moral, Abbott and Darmouni (2009) argue that regarding the culture studies work of Hofstede (among others)

“...the complexity of the global business reality is that the measurement of culture through such relatively static and linear methods is becoming less useful. It can only go so far in making sense of the environment”. 
They caution it is “important not to fall into the trap of what Osland, Bird, Delano and Jacob (2000) term ‘sophisticated stereotyping’ through the overuse or misuse of such tools and knowledge”. The pitfalls they speak of are, it has to be said, quite difficult to avoid. No one sets out to undermine their own analysis with tools and knowledge that obscure and muddle when precisely the intention had been to clarify and elucidate. To a lesser or greater extent, some level of cultural misrepresentation or ethnocentrism may be inevitable and is likely to be found in this study. Every attempt has been made not to fall into this trap.

In contrast to Moral et al., Rosaldo (1993), succinctly asserts that

“[a]lthough the classic vision of unique cultural patterns has proven merit, it also has serious limitations. It emphasizes shared patterns at the expense of processes of change and internal inconsistencies, conflicts, and contradictions. By defining culture as a set of shared meanings, classic norms of analysis make it difficult to study zones of difference within and between cultures. From the classic perspective, cultural borderlands appear to be annoying exceptions rather than central areas for inquiry” (Rosaldo, 1993).

Here Rosaldo is writing from an earlier anthropological perspective on cultural studies and therefore is not specifically addressing Hofstede, but is already anticipating and understanding the way in which looking for commonalities and universals, while necessary, can also mislead.

This juxtaposition of paradigms from business and anthropology helps illuminate Baudrillard’s view that we emphasize the world of signs over reality (Potter, 192). On this point the above (quotations from Moral et al. and Rosaldo respectively) it is precisely the borderlands of interaction that must be acknowledged and included in this study.

Added to this, as Shaules (2007, 2010, 2015) has shown, it is not uncommon for long-term overseas’ residents to fixate on stereotypical criticisms of the host country. He writes:
“Educators tend to focus on desired outcomes and the ideals of tolerance increasingly espoused in today’s multicultural communities make it difficult to talk about negative reactions to cultural others in neutral terms. But it is necessary to distinguish between learned prejudice and negative reactions to intercultural experiences. Someone who grows up in an environment where a particular group is systematically denigrated can easily develop prejudicial attitudes towards members of that group. Yet, sojourners who do not start with negative stereotypes about another cultural group also sometimes denigrate their cultural hosts. The cause, however, may not be prejudice learned previously but rather a natural product of ethnocentrism. But examining the experience of sojourners teaches us that ethnocentrism is not easy to overcome. Our cultural programming runs deep and ethnocentrism can be very subtle so it is often not recognized as such” (2007: 65-66).

The fact that ethnocentrism may be subtly unrecognised informs the need for caution in handling both the researcher's cultural assumptions as well as the intercultural perspectives reflected in the research group. The ethical concern in evaluating cultural practices is to avoid imposing culturally based misjudgements on the groups involved. Shaules goes on to insist on developing and using neutral language to speak of intercultural challenges because negative outcomes are seen at all levels of intercultural interaction. Bringing this type of non-static intercultural awareness to the analysis is an important ethical consideration.

This chapter has provided an overview and justification for the philosophical approach and methodology I used for the research.

The next chapter, Key Findings, will present the results of the survey and the analysis of organisational management practices.
Chapter 4—Key findings
Introduction

Employing mixed methods, this is an educational-management, critical realist-type case study. The thesis looks at a single institution, the University of Tsukuba, and investigates the complex structures at work in the translation of policy in situ. It is important to place the university in Japan in a global context of relations to networks for university reform, the labour market and the youth-to-work transition. As explained in the methodology, a critical realist approach to case study emphasizes uncovering the mechanisms or explanations for why things are as they are. In accord with this macro-micro perspective, the key results are organised into four levels: Policy, Institutional, Departmental, and Individual.

a. Policy level

Drawing on Elias’ “The Civilising Process,” this thesis employs the concept of the globalising process as an heuristic for understanding change processes in university education in Japan. The globalising process as defined in this thesis means a tendency that 1) increasingly research, innovation, and collaboration have a worldwide scope; 2) aspects of the university which function at a level of transnational institutional processes supersede the power and influence of a nation-state identity; 3) an emergent global culture of SIHRM in tertiary education that shifts toward the I-identity and which allows for complexity and flexibility in We-identity associations outside of singular nation-state based We-identity.

The globalising process of university education in Japan means, in part, shifting the function of the university in Japanese society toward the global model of a knowledge-producing centre of innovation. There are four key global issues in the societal function of a national university: Global recognition, Global integration, Global challenges to society, and Global soft power.
1). Global recognition: The top universities in Japan do not rank high in the world rankings. Outside of the top 2 or 3 Japanese universities which rank in the top world 100 (University of Tokyo, Kyoto University, Osaka University), few universities in Japan make it into the top 200 to 300 range. What is particularly remarkable is that for the top 10 universities in Japan those ranked 5-10 nationally figure in the 300 to 400 range globally, the University of Tsukuba included.

2). Global integration: the Top 100 universities are connected to an elite global network of institutions which exhibit high levels of global integration in faculty composition, research achievement, student populations, and study abroad engagement. To the contrary, Japanese universities tend not to perform well in these areas and are at a distinct disadvantage linguistically, culturally, and geographically.

3). Global challenges to society: Japan is an export-based economy. The Abe government has sought to promote future economic growth partly through policies directed at the universities: a) promoting a shift in university function to be knowledge-producing enterprises thus alleviating some of the burden from industry while aligning the function of the university in society with the global model; b) promoting “global human resources” by funding university projects which seek to produce graduates with global management skills.

4). Global soft power: The Abe government expects Japan to perform better in global university rankings as a matter of national pride, but also as a necessary and important tool for soft-power influence on the global stage. In particular, attracting top ASEAN students to undergraduate and graduate programs in Japan is policy driven strategy whose direct aim is to gain influence and position in the region. To maintain their appeal in the Asian HE market, universities must make their ranking credentials a priority.
Achieving such changes in the function of the university is being targeted through top-down reforms by the policy makers in government in coordination with the national tertiary education establishment through major competitive government-funding projects for university reform, such as the Super Global University Project fund. From the perspective of long-term social processes, the movement is toward deepening links to global networks through increasing degrees of integration at all levels of the functioning of the university. Change in the function of the university is part of a long-term globalising process not limited to internal controls or policy reforms.

**b. Institutional level**

1. **Seven core findings:**

   1. Groupist civil-servant model vs individual corporate model

   The thesis proposes a framework for understanding the shift in the management model as one of moving from a groupist civil servant perspective to one which is corporate driven and more individualistic. The globalising process of university reform is ushering in with varying degrees of success a shift in the role of management. The table below aligns points of contrast between the existing historical management model and the emerging corporate type education management model. On first reflection, it may seem counter-intuitive that the groupist civil-servant model has higher individual freedom while the individual corporate model has lower individual freedom. In the groupist civil-servant model the individual faculty member has greater individual freedom because it is the overall contribution of the unit that is measured. The spotlight for praise or blame tends to shine on the group as a whole rather than on individual members. This means that in the individual corporate model there are actually fewer individual freedoms because there is a greater need for individual achievement, a greater need for alignment with organisational goals, and a greater need for cooperation among team members. Again, it may seem counter-intuitive that greater cooperation is required in the individual corporate model, but this need is a feature of a greater focus on results, outcome oriented
with higher detail performance indices. The groupist model is output driven with lower detail in the guidelines for achievement, thus allowing a wide berth and greater flexibility. In the corporate model, individual performance and contribution count for more, which places a heavier burden of responsibility on the individual.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groupist civil-servant type education management model</th>
<th>Individual corporate type education management model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- shared and dispersed performance responsibility</td>
<td>- individual performance responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- lower group cooperation</td>
<td>- higher group cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- higher individual freedom</td>
<td>- lower individual freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- lower individual accountability</td>
<td>- higher individual accountability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- lower detail guidelines, output oriented</td>
<td>- higher detail indices, outcome oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- non-specialized management and leadership on a rotating basis</td>
<td>- specialized management and leadership appointments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 13: Education management models

This provides an illustration of challenges presented when macro level policy gets translated at the institutional level, in this case the change in status of the university from government entity run by civil servants to that of a national
university corporation which brings with it emergent changes in the approach to governance and accountability.

2. Output vs outcome
Current education and management systems are based on an output model which has as its focus recording that something happened: output. Follow-up action or measurement of the results of the action are ignored or not pursued. The globalising process leads to a tension between current output strategies in contrast with a shift to a quality assurance model which seeks to emphasize systematic follow-up actions and measurement of performance results.

3. Elisian We-I drift in social development
The group’s nation-state based we-identity is perceived to be under threat from the globalising process. There is a gap between what high-level operatives in government and education recognise as possible and necessary with that which the majority are able to process and reproduce in management and operations.

4. Factionalised operations
One of the reasons the faculty and administration struggle to unify around institutional goals and strategies is that they are preoccupied with internal conflicts and factionalised operations.

5. Maintain the past, protect the village
“Maintain the past” would lack appeal as a university motto. “Imagine the future”, the University of Tsukuba’s actual motto, succinctly evokes modernity, creativity, and innovation. Yet, when it comes to university management, a core of the faculty and administration at the University of Tsukuba has been highly effective at maintaining the status quo.

6. Funding the crowd: dispersed and diminished resources
Because funding in education is based on output in the groupist civil servant model, individual accountability is low. Funding is widely dispersed shotgun style with an acceptance of low rates of overall project success. Projects are measured by output not outcome. Inclusively, many are allowed to participate all the while knowing that few will come to realisation of successful measurable outcomes. This practice incentivises gaming the system to procure funds and de-incentivises productivity and integration of achievements.

7. Latent institutional strengths in Higher Education (HE), opportunities for growth

It is not that nothing happens at the university; it is that nothing is required to happen. In other words, real achievements and considerable successes are everywhere to be found. There are opportunities to better articulate, honour and promote these achievements.

c. Departmental level

i. Case detail on English Section management

Management practices of the English section during this period operated neither on a traditional bureaucracy model of laws and rules, nor on a quality assurance model of performance and outcomes. Governance tended to rely on a process of unspoken norms, which themselves are applied inconsistently. In many areas leadership is limited or absent. Resources and capacities were dispersed. Affinities are factionalised. Team operative function was low. Team building or acknowledgement of global team dynamics was limited to none. Absent team integration strategies, the dual-track hiring system renders ambiguous the role and legitimacy of Non-Japanese faculty. These practices tend toward member disaffection rather than synergy.

Goals of the English section governance that can be inferred include the following: Provide leadership to the English section; inform members by email, in meetings, and individually of on-going duties, new duties, policies, and
requirements; hold meetings for the purpose of a) keeping members informed, b) holding discussion among members, c) voting on matters subject to group authority.

From the standpoint of good practices in organisational management, the goals for governance of the English section are generally appropriate. Goals could be improved with clarification of section aims and functions. Practices in the period 2012-2015 occasionally met the goals, but management practices overall were limited, ineffective or inadequate. The process of unspoken norms in the governance of the English section was applied inconsistently. Operational procedures tended not to be systematized. Leadership in the form of managing group performance, mentoring, or improving systems and operations was limited or absent. The intercultural and linguistic variance in the group was not formally acknowledged or addressed. The global team dynamic was generally ignored.

In summary: Leadership limited or absent; information is usually distributed, but inconsistently; procedures for email distribution of information are limited or absent; meetings are held inconsistently with procedures limited or absent; intercultural and linguistic variance, global team dynamic are ignored.

Team member engagement in the group is limited. General identifications are with individual roles. Values are toward self or with one's own work. Efforts and energy in the group is dispersed. Cohesion is absent. Few to no processes are in place. Relationship development in the group is limited. Co-responsibility is limited to none. Finality is not achieved on high-importance topics and issues. Management style tends to be reactive and needs driven. Performance and contribution is without feedback or evaluation. Time management is poor. Context is generally ignored.

Counterproductive management practices October 2012-March 2015:
When it comes to guiding and supporting the English Section faculty team, leadership was largely absent. To start, the global team environment was not addressed. The context of challenges faced in the educational setting was not explained and issues put to the group were not adequately defined. The roles and responsibilities of section members were not explained or codified. There was no system to ensure that faculty would fully and adequately informed of key matters, nor to ensure the accuracy of any meeting record (attendees, discussion points, attributions).

The leadership failed to insure the integrity of governance by, for example, circumventing section meeting decisions arbitrarily. In handling internal issues, good practices in conflict management were not in evidence, such as by not ensuring fairness and consistency in choice of language for section communication (e.g. only using English for a ‘crisis’ or ‘problem’). Even for general matters of operations, basic leadership functions were inadequate, such as not informing faculty in a timely and adequate manner of their administrative duties; not ensuring fair, equal and systematic treatment in matters of curriculum coordination, assignment of extra administrative duties, or in other provisions for faculty; not delivering work schedules to new staff in a timely fashion, and failing to account for discrepancies in staff contracts.

To look specifically at the meeting process, the function of English Section meetings in the broader context of the FLC and university was unclear or inconsistent. For example, is the function exclusively information disbursement? What is the decision-making authority of the English section? What are the defined responsibilities of leadership and members?

The management and organisational characteristics of English section meetings can be summarized as follows: Meetings were held inconsistently; procedures were limited or absent; members were informed inconsistently in terms of themes, format, detail, and content; information disbursement relied strongly
on faculty members’ prior experience or peer support for checking and verifying accuracy of information; during the meetings, interaction was restricted to individually isolated stating of opinions or positions with discussion and processing limited or absent, meaning an absence of any leadership in providing context, integration and summary analysis of viewpoints expressed. In decision-making situations the legitimacy and authority of the decision-making process was limited or absent because voting may be held, but the decision-making process was not systematized with the result that undesired outcomes of a section vote could be circumvented by management.

An example of circumventing the vote is the approval of a summer program at Hertford College. An emergency meeting of the English section held in February 2014 to take a vote on sanctioning promotion of the Hertford College summer English program through the English section. Information about the program was presented as a half-page of typed notes. The motion did not pass. The reasons for ‘no’ votes varied widely. Reasons offered were ‘insufficient data about the program to make a decision’, ‘not understanding the organisational context of a stand alone FLC summer program’, ‘not understanding why it was a straight up and down vote’, ‘not understanding why this program was selected’, ‘not a selection among a range of options’, ‘opposing this type of program’, ‘uncertainty about credentials of the program’, ‘uncertainty about member authority to vote on this matter’. Early in the spring term 2014 the Hertford summer program was presented to FLC as a fait accompli, approved through the English Section Curriculum Committee, thus side stepping and overriding the full section vote.

Alternative practices considered: Global teams present challenges at all levels of group interaction in communication, trust, and understanding. A successful global team requires conscious deliberate effort. A firm commitment by management to building a global team is an essential starting point.
A Working Group for a Global team could be an effective strategy to support the unit. Acknowledging the intercultural and linguistic variance in the group is an important early step. A Working Group for a Global Team can formulate recommendations for the lingua franca of the group and strategies for accommodating the cultural and linguistic variances. The Working Group for a Global Team can be tasked with helping the group work toward the foundational steps of developing team engagement, cohesion, and goal clarity.

The English Section is a uniquely positioned intercultural workplace environment at the University of Tsukuba. What kind of workplace community do we want the English Section to be? By extension, from its largest unit the English section, what kind of community for the FLC's multilingual, multicultural community as a whole? The University of Tsukuba's campaign slogan for “internationalisation in everyday life” invites dialogue and collaboration toward creating a thriving community workplace environment.

A Working Group for Good Practices in Organisational Management could be an effective strategy to support the unit. From a good practices organisational perspective, English section management might consider a commitment to transparency, informed fact-based decisions, specialised roles, responsibility, and accountability. Supporting mechanisms, such as a bilingual Faculty Handbook, should be considered. Fundamental good practices to be applied may include but not be limited to the following: Systems, Structure, Procedures, Policy, Guidelines, Consistency, Fairness, Equity, Efficiency

In contrast with the recommendations aforementioned, an alternative strategy could be to implement fully a dual-track organisational management system that matches with the dual-track hiring practices. Due to the Japanese/Non-Japanese dual-track hiring system in place for the English Section, faculty equality is only nominal. Inequality in position and opportunity renders ambiguous the role and legitimacy of Non-Japanese faculty. Ultimately, by fact
of pre-determined temporary engagement, Non-Japanese faculty are in a marginal position. Left unacknowledged, this contributes to undermining team building and motivation for all parties in regards to developing a high-functioning global team.

Consequently, an alternative management strategy would be to follow the general practice for Global 30 Non-Japanese hires in which liaisons are assigned to act in between the Japanese faculty administrative body and the Non-Japanese faculty. In other words, a clear separation of guidelines, standard practices and responsibilities could be made according to hiring system track. Although this alternative strategy would represent a defeat for collegial solidarity, it would be welcomed as a superior alternative to taking no action or maintaining the status quo.

Issues

1. Bringing a matter to a vote without providing sufficient data and context corrupts the process and principles of voting
2. Holding a vote then circumventing the outcome undermines group morale and creates distrust in section procedures

Recommendations

Effective academic management in an intercultural workplace environment is a necessary feature of an internationalised university. Aspiring to educational targets for Tsukuba students in the form of learning outcomes or performance achievements is predicated on effective academic management systems.

Global team development and good practices in organisational management are two essential components of effective academic management. For the English Section, foundational steps toward achieving effective academic management can be facilitated by establishing two working groups to help develop appropriate systems and processes.
Global Team
- Make a firm management commitment to global team development.
- Establish a Working Group for a Global Team.

Organisational Management
- Formalise management operations and standardise procedures.
- Provide faculty development training and guidance in global teams and academic management.
- Establish a Working Group for Good Practices in Organisational Management

In alignment with the “University of Tsukuba Strategy for Internationalization”, this case detail may contribute to helping formulate recommendations for organisational management and best practices in the internationalisation processes of the University of Tsukuba.

d. Student level
   i. The global human resources survey

There are 315 completed surveys in the data set. 161 male, 152 female, 2 undeclared. Respondents come from a wide spread of majors. The top five majors are 1. Knowledge and library sciences (57), 2. Health and physical education (43), 3. Art and design (33), 4. International studies (21), 5. Information science (18). In total, 22 of 25 campus majors are represented. First year students make up almost half of respondents, at 149. The rest are Second years, 32; Third years, 97; Fourth years, 4; Fifth years 18; undeclared 15.

The majority of students live in an apartment near campus (178) or in the university dormitory (84). 93 respondents had not had a part-time job in the last 6 months. The most popular part-time jobs were restaurant (95), cram school (32), and light office work (31). 171 said they worked to pay for education and living costs. For breakfast, 208 usually eat at home while 68 usually skip it.
216 students belong to a campus circle or university club with the primary reason being to make friends (154).

![One hour or less on homework (weekday)](image)

Figure 14: One hour or less on homework per day (weekday)

186 respondents said they spent 1 hour or less on homework on a weekday (1 hr, 113; .5 hr, 24; 0, 49) with 49 of those doing no homework at all.

Most students (166) decided their university major in the 3rd year of high school with family’s opinion (152) being the biggest factor in the decision. Oral communication, problem solving and theoretical training in discipline were the highest rated skills relevant to employment. Skills, knowledge and networking were the highest rated for importance for securing employment. 305 will seek regular full-time work, but only 237 expect to secure that type of employment as their first job out of university, and only 163 expect to secure a lifetime-employment type position.
120 students have never travelled abroad. 50 students have previously participated in some kind of study abroad program, 33 have lived overseas. As more important for their career 158 chose keigo (formal Japanese) versus 150 English.
218 students ranked their anxiety levels about job-hunting as 7 or higher on a 10-point scale (81 marked 10). Job role, industry and working in Japan were the top factors for desired employment.

104 (two thirds of the total number of women) plan to stop
working full time when they have a child.

Key findings of the survey: The results of the study reflect key trends observed for Japanese university education. 1. Students report a high sense of anxiety about the university-to-work transition. 2. Time given to studying is limited. 3. Gendered trajectories.

Discussion for the global human resources survey
One hypothesis for the thesis was that student achievement in global skills development and orientation toward a global career would be proportional to social capital. In other words, for all the talk of internationalisation and cultivating global skills at the university, those who excel in and pursue these orientations do so because their social capital has afforded them exposure to the international scene with access to formative international experiences and skills development opportunities. This point would be better investigated through interviews. The survey questions were insufficient to evaluate the influence of social capital one way or another.

The survey title and introductory explanation stated clearly the topic of research around global human resource development and university-to-work transition. In retrospect, there is a possibility this influenced students responses if they thought they should try to sound more “global” in their answers. More research is needed on a larger scale and at different institutions for comparison.

e. Policy translation from Super Global to institution to department to student

i. TOEFL
TOEFL is favoured by the university administration as the external language proficiency measurement of choice due to its academic focus and link to study abroad programmes. Through the Global Commons unit, the university has
taken steps to sponsor collective testing with a plan for TOEFL ITP to be taken by students in their 1st and 3rd years. The survey sought to assess student perceptions toward the test and attitudes toward preparation for study abroad.

Summary of results for TOEFL
40% of respondents said TOEFL was important for them. Of these 42% believed Super Eigo would help them improve their TOEFL score. 3% of students said they studied hard for the TOEFL test.

Key findings for TOEFL
TOEFL did not rank as important in the perception of the majority of students. The number who believed Super Eigo might help them improve their TOEFL score (42%) was a bit lower but comparable to those who felt Super Eigo was a good way to learn English (48%). With just 3% reporting that they studied hard for the TOEFL, students in the survey do not rank test preparation for the TOEFL as a priority.

Discussion for TOEFL
On the one hand, the university administration desires to improve the international standing of the university by having a growing number of students take study abroad programmes at prestigious institutions overseas; on the other hand, students are generally apathetic toward studying internationally (albeit some notable exceptions) and, as the survey indicates, lack a commitment to achieving benchmarks necessary to be eligible for competitive study abroad programmes.

For some in the university management and administration, the responsibility for the low number of students meeting the language-skill benchmarks required for study abroad lays squarely at the feet of the language instructors. The survey results suggest other factors may be involved. TOEFL and TOEFL achievement is not a priority for the students surveyed. To what extent can this be attributed
to language instructor performance? Whether or not this apathetic result has been influenced directly by the instructors, is it likely that language instruction methods alone would remedy the situation?

It is a popular notion in university management that any student would benefit from a study abroad experience. Broadly speaking this may be accurate. Realistically, though, international study may not be cost-beneficial for the career trajectory of some students for whom foreign language proficiency and global skills will not be a factor in their career. For others, their temperament and life skills may not be suited to the demands of living abroad or the rigours of academic standards overseas.

The leadership of organisational units such as CEGLOC have the responsibility to bridge the gap in awareness of the real world benefits of study abroad. Here, a one-size-fits-all approach to language education and study abroad expectations may be insufficient. If study abroad is genuinely something of value to the education and career plans of students—and not just to the university's international ranking bottom line—then the university has a responsibility to educate students of the opportunity. Indeed, connecting students to global opportunities is part of the reasoning behind the formation of the Global Commons as well as the restructuring of the FLC into a new Center for Education of Global Education (CEGLOC).

Concluding remarks for TOEFL
The leadership of CEGLOC sits directly between the administrative hierarchy of the university, administrative support programmes like Global Commons, and the classroom instruction of the students. Organisational units like CEGLOC are uniquely positioned to help inform the university hierarchy by creating systems to gather detailed research data on the needs, perceptions and development of students; likewise, uniquely positioned to help inform students by creating mechanisms to connect students with data, analysis and readily available
information on the opportunities available to them through excellence in foreign language ability; and further, uniquely positioned to help define reality for faculty in terms of the logic and intent of university reform policies. To meet the needs of the different stakeholders, effective academic organisational management is required.

**ii. Coordinated curriculum: Super Eigo**

This section is based on the results of a survey that sought to assess student perceptions of 1. web-based language study using the “Super Eigo” (Super English) system with “Academic Express2” and 2. TOEFL. While addressing the student perceptions revealed in the survey, the focus here is primarily on policy and organisational management strategies.

Summary of results for coordinated curriculum

68% of respondents said they used Super Eigo. Just under half of these users (48%) said it was a good way to learn English, while 30% felt it helped them with their English. This 30% number parallels the 32% who said they liked Super Eigo. 92% used Super Eigo less than 10 minutes per week, including 50% who reported 0 minutes per week.

Key findings for coordinated curriculum

One of the stated goals for Super Eigo web-based learning is to supplement student language-learning study time with independent study outside the classroom. It is uncontroversial to say that steady, regular study is beneficial to making gains in language learning. One question for the research was to consider “How many minutes per week for web-based study to be effective?” As this was a pilot study we asked the students to self-report their study time to check the range. The idea was that for a future study we might be able to compare study time with a range of performance indicators such as TOEFL scores or course grades. However, rather than needing to wait for some future study, this pilot study already yields an interesting result on the question of study time and effective learning. Surprisingly, the amount of time students
spent doing Super Eigo was highly consistent. That is, they did not really do Super Eigo at all. Although about a third of users said they liked Super Eigo and felt that it helped them with their English, in practice 92% said they spent 10 minutes or less per week, with 50% reporting that they never used it (0 minutes). Therefore, despite 30% saying they felt it helped them with English, the numbers for study time suggest that any gains in language learning or marked improvement in English skills would be modest, at best. With near universal reporting of spending zero to 10 minutes at most per week, students simply did not use Super Eigo enough for it to have any significant impact on learning. In other words, for the vast majority of students surveyed, Super Eigo was inconsequential to their English language study.

Discussion for coordinated curriculum

If the goal of making Super Eigo part of a coordinated curriculum was to help improve student learning, then this goal was not met for the students in the survey. Is web-based study effective? The survey does not answer that question. What we can say is that according to the survey, as a coordinated curriculum it did not work for these students, at this time, implemented in this way. Super Eigo was not effective for the simple reason that these students did not use it.

Nevertheless, the reasonable expectation is that under certain conditions web-based study is effective; furthermore, that for some students Super Eigo is in fact a positive language-learning tool. If true, these points only serve to highlight the missed opportunity to provide something of value to the population of students in this survey.

One might have concluded the main implication of the results of the survey is that Super Eigo does not work or that web-based language study is not effective. This, however, is not the main implication. The main implication of the results of the survey is that a coordinated curriculum actually requires coordination. A coordinated curriculum for these students in this learning environment requires
a greater commitment to coordination in terms of planning, execution, evaluation, data-gathering and research. If we replaced the Super Eigo case with a novel or textbook and followed the same implementation principles we are almost certain to have comparable results. That is, students could be predicted to report a. for some yes it is a good way of studying English; b. no, mostly they do not like it; and c. no they do not have any real motivation to spend time for self-study. These patterns are perhaps only exacerbated if we include in the scenario that student requirements differ widely from section to section of the same course such that grading may be arbitrary, inconsistent or inconsequential toward evaluation for the course.

Analysis – management practices for coordinated curriculum
The near universal non-participation reflected in the survey invites analysis of the education management practices employed to implement Super Eigo as coordinated curriculum. This section will argue that education management coordination was insufficient to support successful adoption by faculty and students. Recommendations are given for education management practices that help support the implementation of using common teaching materials in a coordinated curriculum.

Background summary of practices for coordinated curriculum
First year of use
2013-2014
For faculty, there was no managed system of coordination—voluntary or required—put in place. Coordination was limited or absent. Instructor participation varied widely or was absent. Students were nominally required to purchase, but in the first year of implementation non-compliance was prevalent with a high number of students failing to purchase the system. No coordinated data collection.

Second year of use
In the second year of system use, greater coordination was implemented for students in the form of a first week orientation session. The academic calendar was rearranged to start one week late exclusively within the English Section in order to accommodate this first-week orientation session. The primary goal of the student orientation seminars was to ensure registration and payment compliance. For faculty members, course instructors were requested in curriculum committee documents to incorporate the system into their syllabus for the course with the implication of a soft-expectation of compliance. In other words, the system is incorporated in the course at the discretion of the instructor with no standard requirements or evaluation of use. For instructor training, introductory guidance is provided as one part of a pre-term, two-hour seminar covering a range of general faculty and computing matters. No coordinated data collection.

Coordination Issues for coordinated curriculum
The issues in the coordination of Super Eigo can be summarized in seven points, as follows.

a. A functionally inoperative environment.
For management of implementing Super Eigo as common teaching material, these three specifications were in place:
   - Super Eigo was common teaching material for Integrated English I & II
   - 1st year students must purchase Super Eigo
   - Use of Super Eigo in the Integrated English I, II was optional for instructors

b. A key issue inhibiting success of the programme is that having all three of these specifications at the same time creates a functionally inoperative environment. To have a functional system any two of these is possible, but not all three. If Super Eigo is common teaching material for the course Integrated
English AND students must purchase it, then some minimal standard for instructor use must be in place and consistently applied. If students must purchase Super Eigo AND it is optional for Integrated English instructors, then it cannot be common teaching material for this single course, Integrated English. If Super Eigo is common teaching material for Integrated English AND optional for instructors, then students cannot be required to purchase it. All three specifications at the same time creates a system that does not work. The system is functionally inoperative.

c. Not required to pass the course.
All students were required to purchase the on-line service, yet in practice for the vast majority of students it was not part of the course and/or the minimum level of usage or achievement required to pass the course was low to none. In the first year, for more than 1000 students Super Eigo was not used at any time as any part of the course. Instructor self-reporting indicates that participation and usage levels increased in the second year (the time of the survey).

CHieru Co. Ltd. is a Japanese company based in Japan with Japanese-native faculty as their target customer. In direct discussions and email communication, CHieru Co. Ltd. representatives indicated that their focus on a Japanese audience is the reason the company had at the time no intention to develop a bi-lingual system (as other web-based language tools do, such as Word Engine) and no plans to provide the full administrative support materials in English (only basic task guides were given in English). The Super Eigo administrator/class management system is Japanese-language only. Administrative expertise for the system requires a relatively high level of Japanese literacy. Although some Non-Japanese faculty do have high levels of Japanese language ability, the majority of Integrated English courses were led by Non-Japanese instructors who lacked sufficient literacy to use the system with ease.
e. Organisational management of Super Eigo was limited or absent. Super Eigo was designated as common teaching material for the course, but no coordinated plan was in place for the 60 different sections taught by 20 different instructors. Although indicated as a coordinated curriculum, in the first year no directives were given for the use of Super Eigo. Specifically, there were no defining goals of the project. The functional strategy of its use as coordinated curriculum was limited to student self-study. The idea of study self-study was useful in that it could be cited as the activity for the two-week recess period at the end of AB courses prior to final exams. In terms of organisational management, there was no coordinated rollout to build a momentum for successful adoption of the system. Without a coordinated plan, adoption was inconsistent, with many instructors omitting Super Eigo from the course altogether.

f. No data collection.
Over the two years of its use there was no coordinated measurement of outcomes or coordinated collection of data on student usage even though measurement and data collection are key features of the administrative functions in Super Eigo.

g. No evaluation of system.
Accordingly, project management planned no coordinated assessment of student participation and performance; there was no planned opportunity for feedback, nor any coordinated evaluation of the project. In April 2013, in the early stages of the Super Eigo programme and before full implementation, alerts and cautionary analysis were brought to the attention of the leadership of the Super Eigo project and English Section, but these were ignored.

h. No coordinated training strategy.
There was no coordinated strategy to train users and faculty in the optimal use of the system. The student-orientation week focused on getting students signed
up to Super Eigo and processing their payment. In terms of training for the system, this was limited to basic instructions for logging in and a general overview of the sections within Super Eigo, not a coordinated strategy for effective use of the system, which was left to the designs of individual instructors. No systematic training of faculty members.

Creating working management systems
Although there are different approaches to making a coordinated curriculum system that works, there are two fundamental steps necessary to successful implementation of a programme of this scale: measurable standards, and a roll out plan.

Measurable standards
For the use of common teaching materials—if they are to be used at all—at the very least a minimum standard must be in place that is universally applied throughout all sections of the course and evaluated according to those standards. Developing a purposeful and effective standard requires research and careful planning toward achieving group consensus. The logic used in setting a standard should be fact-based and, by definition, designed to function as an incentive to learning and achievement in the target subject. Setting effective measurable standards takes time and dedication to do well; however, from a management system perspective the key issue is having a standard at all. If there is not some form of a baseline, measurable standard, then a coordinated curriculum is not the system fit for purpose for a programme involving 2000 students, 60 sections, and 20 instructors. Measurable standards are the backbone of using common teaching materials for a coordinated curriculum of this scale.

Roll out plan
In order for a programme of this scale and requirements to have a chance at success a role out plan is necessary. As an example of a roll out plan, see
Google’s “The value of change management” plan that is the foundation of their change management strategy for organisations adopting Google Apps, updated 2018.

For a programme such as Super Eigo, a roll out plan means at least the following four elements:

a. Clearly and explicitly defined goals for use.

The academic goals of the system must be specific, measurable and accountable. General goals like "for student self-study" would be inadequate if the intention is for a high level of commitment and participation from students and instructors. These goals must answer fundamental questions like "why this system for these students?" "why now?" "why in this way?" Ideally, the goals are fact-based and align with departmental goals or organisational mission statements. For example, for Super Eigo, this could include something like the following: average TOEFL score improvement is a priority of the university (organisational goal), student vocabulary levels were identified as a factor in low TOEFL scores (fact-based data), completion of 300 minutes of Super Eigo has been shown to improve vocabulary levels for most students (fact-based data), therefore 300 minutes is the target study time to receive full marks for the assignment (specific, measurable, accountable). (Note: data here is not actual, merely a representative example). Clearly and explicitly defined goals which have agreed upon meaning and purpose are essential to maximizing the successful adoption of the plan.

b. Consciously build community.

Consciously building community is synonymous with establishing the legitimacy and integrity fundamental to running a successful programme. Achieving consensus for standards is difficult and time consuming. Aligning research-supported standards with organisational goals helps give purpose and
authority to the programme. Consciously building community around the programme is a primary duty for the leadership of the programme.

c. Set out then promote extensively a plan of execution.
Provide step-by-step promotional guides. Carefully plan and schedule a deployment calendar. Develop a ‘fool-proof’ support framework: a hand-holding, carefully guided system that effectively promotes all necessary information to all relevant parties to get everyone (students, faculty, administration) on board to fulfil the aims of the programme. Too much communication is not possible here.

d. Schedule extensive faculty sessions for training and support of those using Super Eigo, then evaluate results. Train a core group of two or three advanced users. Expand to a larger group of early adopters. Expand to the full group of users, including part-time faculty members.

Summary of lessons learned: recommendations for using Super Eigo as common teaching material in a coordinated curriculum
Create a project plan that includes the following items:

- **Measurable standards**: Define goals of the project, including a clear functional strategy that incorporates all instructors and all students for all sections of the course
- **Rollout plan**: Systematic, on-going training and support process for faculty, students and related administration staff
- **Assessment**: Coordinate collection of data to effectively measure outcomes and keep a record of results; assess student participation and performance

Provide English-language version of full CHieru Co. Ltd. Japanese manual (as other universities using the system have done)
Limitations of the study for coordinated curriculum

A limitation of the survey is that it covered less than one third of the total number of students and less than half of the instructors. Although the numbers surveyed are substantive, the full diversity of the cohort may not have been captured. In particular, Japanese faculty are underrepresented. It is possible that students in sections led by Japanese instructors may yield a different perspective. Usage of Super Eigo and inclusion in the course requirements may have been greater among Japanese faculty. For this reason, in order to provide the most accurate representation we had wanted to give all instructors the opportunity to participate in the survey. Perhaps overcautiously, we deemed it inappropriate for a blanket request to come directly from us; therefore, protocol channels were followed by requesting the then-English Section and Super Eigo leadership for distribution of notice of the survey to all faculty. As we received no response to this request, given the time constraints we proceeded with voluntary participation from those instructors we were able to contact directly in person. Improvements in communication and outreach simply require better planning and foresight on my part.

Concluding remarks for coordinated curriculum

The requirement for students to purchase Super Eigo was dropped before the start of the 2015-16 academic year (the survey in this report was conducted a few months prior). The decision was made by programme leadership due to top-down pressure from higher up in the university management hierarchy. It was reported that this top-down pressure resulted from student complaints; however, this is merely anecdotal and without data for complaint numbers or specific nature of the issues put forward. In any case, the fact remains that the decision to drop Super Eigo as common teaching material was not a curriculum decision made by the English Section. Abandoning the only common teaching material in the curriculum was not subject to discussion or debate and was met with no objections or resistance. The ease with which Super Eigo was abandoned as common teaching material is further indication of the academic
management issues addressed in this report. Perhaps a coordinated curriculum that truly works would not be so ephemeral.

Next, it is important to consider these issues in the context of the curriculum as a whole. To start, English Section courses are defined by brief thematic descriptions for each distinct course title. Fundamentally, the English Section curriculum is applied along the principle of academic freedom accorded to academic subjects. That is, instructors are entrusted with teaching a unique syllabus to fit each course according to the instructor’s own expertise and areas of interest. In the course catalogue the thematic descriptions for each course category are listed identically for all course sections. This may appear to indicate uniformity across the different sections; however, in practice the sections of a course are totally unique by instructor. Compounding the distinctions, for each section of a course, students are grouped based on their major and placement-test score; consequently, individual instructors may also have modified or distinct syllabi for different sections of the same-named course according to the major or rank level of the students (e.g. Physical Education “C” vs. Medical “A”). This means that not only are all courses unique by instructor, but also sections of a same-named course taught by a single instructor may differ. At present, there are no coordinated common teaching materials in any ES course. Additionally, no ES course is related in scope, level, grading criteria, course expectations, workload or student learning outcomes. We can add to this that for all courses the “I, II” series does not indicate sequence, only course length AB (I) 8 weeks (+2 independent study), or ABC (II) 15 weeks.

The success of such a system is driven by the academic integrity and expertise of the faculty. The strengths of treating the ES curriculum as teaching an academic subject includes the diversity of approaches from different instructors, as well as the opportunity for creativity and experimentation for each faculty member. The merits of this system deserve greater attention, but this is beyond our scope here.
It must be noted that, since the core identity of the English Section curriculum is aligned to teaching English as an academic subject, this is to be distinguished from teaching English for language learning, whether that be language learning for a) language acquisition (e.g. for communication in the language), or language learning for b) testing (e.g. university entrance exams, TOEFL).

The point is that it is inherently problematic to try to introduce any concept or practice of “coordination”, such as with Super Eigo, into a curriculum whose core identity is the academic freedom of teaching an academic subject. Before “coordination”, first the case would have to be argued for the English Section curriculum to be restructured according to a principle of “teaching a language” rather than the principle of “teaching an academic subject”. Clarification of the core identity and purpose of the curriculum is prerequisite to any discussion of course coordination or any attempt to implement common teaching materials.

This is not to say that much instruction geared towards language instruction does not occur, nor that voluntary cooperation is impossible. Currently, many instructors in the English Section take as their primary duty specifically the instruction of language acquisition. But this is accommodated by the broad charge of a core identity of academic freedom for academic subjects. A truly coordinated curriculum would signify redefining the program in terms of a core identity oriented fundamentally and in total to language acquisition. This would mean thereby a paradigm change to a calculated program of study that is coordinated, planned and rooted in specific learning outcomes, whether they are for communication or testing. Such a transformation would herald a quantum shift in the identity and root principles of the teaching project of the English Section at the University of Tsukuba. This section makes no claim for or against this proposition. The current program undoubtedly has its merits, while nominal change for change’s sake may be inconsequential. Suffice to say that if student achievement and learning outcomes align with top-down university
policy initiatives, then at the English Section level a coordinated curriculum or common teaching materials requires careful strategic planning: organisational management must be prioritized to ensure effective educational systems.

Finally, it is important to point out that challenges in academic management are pervasive in tertiary education worldwide. Moreover, many of the issues addressed in this report are reflective of standard practices throughout the University of Tsukuba. It is understood that historic management practices—university-wide and at all levels of operations—are likely to differ in organisational culture from that of the quality assurance principles being adopted in university reform. In part this is because, as Ueyama (2014) has pointed out, the shift at national universities to a knowledge-based university model happened abruptly in the last decade. In that rapid shift the historic foundation of university administration has tended to remain in place while only adopting the nomenclature and surface appearance of reform models and practices. University professionals, by omission or by objection, have tended to remain untouched and unchanged by top-down reform measures.

**Conclusion**

This chapter has presented the key findings by arranging the results of the case study according to the levels of 1. Policy, 2. Institution, 3. Department, and 4. Individual.

The next chapter will address the discussion and conclusion for these results.
Chapter 5—Discussion and conclusion
The main research question is as follows:

How is the super-global university project policy translated into practice by an elite Japanese university?

This is undergirded by four sub questions:

Q1. What is the super global university project and, as a recipient of this government project funding, what are the specific goals of the University of Tsukuba’s super global project plan?

Q2: For implementation of super global university reform policies, what is the academic management model for governance of the University of Tsukuba?

Q3: In relation to super global plan educational targets, what are the processes for quality assurance in education at the University of Tsukuba?

Q4: With respect to the super global student targets, what are student perceptions of the university for skills training and career?

In order to answer the research questions, the thesis analyses the translation of policies developed for the super global university funding project at the University of Tsukuba in the first phase of development from early 2013 to late 2015.

Discussion

The University of Tsukuba’s motto is “Imagine the Future”. In the university’s quest to be an elite global institution, the greatest obstacle to future success is the unwillingness of faculty and administration to imagine a globalised institution. This is important because organisational management intersects the correlated networks for university reform, the labour market and the youth-to-work transition. Reform objectives seek to redefine the function of the university to meet modern-day requirements for an elite global institution. The historic management system in place today is incongruent with these institutional reform targets. Consciously or not, imagining a future of institutional integration with global networks, standards and practices
represents a fearful undoing of the very structures integral to the core groups’ we-identity. Preserving past practices in organisational management is perceived as corresponding to preserving that we-identity. In so doing, faculty and staff needs are prioritised over institutional ones: the immediate comforts of placid individual career continuity trump the long-term challenges of uncertainty in institutional adaptation to fierce global competition. Absent drastic organisational management reform, university reform objectives are unlikely to be met. Ambitious university reform targets, to have any tread in the immediate future, would require an extensive change-management apparatus to help steer faculty and administration through a period of radical restructuring and retraining because current management processes which align with reform objectives are insufficient or non-existent. Lacking any such management-restructuring plan to navigate changes to this I-We balance, status quo organisational management practices at the University of Tsukuba will continue to impede university reform targets.

Nevertheless, there is a web of interdependence in the dynamic figurations of the university. Taking the figurational sociology of Norbert Elias as a methodological guide, we can observe that the university is simultaneously operative within Japanese society and a sub-unit of the global network of elite university institutions (understanding that at all levels here ultimately we are talking about networks of people and not the university as a reified object). The university does not exist in isolation, disconnected from the rest of Japan, East Asia, or the global community. This means that from the perspective of long-term social processes, whether by reform or interdependence, slowed down or opposed, welcomed or not, the movement is toward deepening links to global networks through increasing degrees of integration at all levels of the functioning of the university (e.g. student experience, student learning, campus diversity, curriculum, evaluation of outcomes, research, faculty, university to work transition). Change in the function of the university is part of a long-term globalising process not limited to internal controls.
The present study has sought to give a portrait or a measurement in situ of an elite university in Japan. The study sought to investigate the processes of the overlapping functions of the university for its role in society, for the pathway from university education to work, and in the systems of organisational management operative at the university.

**Conclusions**

i. Policy implications

Care must be taken to preserve the things that the university does well. The globalising process will change the elite universities in Japan in some way or another at all levels of their operations. It is incumbent on university management to guide each and every stakeholder through this process and to secure the national character and identity of the organisation.

Though this may be as much an overly broad generalisation as it is a helpful pointer, perhaps the nomenclature for programs and the mottos of the organisation can be clues to the underlying stance by looking at their mirror image and reversing the language. In this way “Center for Education of Global Communication” is rather translated code for what might be rendered “Center for Protection of National Identity”. The university motto “Imagine the Future” might reveal in translation rather the sentiment “Restore the Past”. This dissonance between the public and private face of the university creates incongruence and dissipates organisational synergy. Promoting the university on the global stage will require greater transparency externally and greater cooperation internally. This means greater honesty in acknowledging shortcomings and weaknesses, and greater confidence in promoting the university’s advantages and strengths.

ii. Concluding remarks

The truth remains that for a majority of Japanese powerbroker companies the university-to-work system works to their advantage (and thereby, it might even
be said, for Japanese society as a whole) and therefore they are mostly satisfied with the status quo, or at least they are not under immediate pressure to act urgently to invoke change. In fact, there are many positives we can point to for the system as it is, such as the efficiency of the employee initiation process or the operational stability in long-term planning for large enterprises. Change will rightly continue to be incremental for some time. I estimate the lasting impact of initiatives like Super Global, more than any kind of radical restructuring, will be primarily on the level of nurturing our fundamental interdependencies, individually and societally.

The university is being re-defined in Japan. The restructuring in national education reforms hinges on aligning top-down policies with daily education realities on the ground: from the top, reforms targeting university development and internationalization strategies; on the ground, changing priorities in student education driven by the changing role of the university in society. Correlated to government reform policies, the changing demands of the labour market are pressurizing the established transition to the workforce. The gap remains large between the intent of education reform and the direct education experience of students. The stakeholders in university education form a complex structure that overlaps all levels of society, from government to business, from local to international centres of power, from the individual students pursuing their careers to the collective human capital of a nation. Satisfying the often-divergent needs of these stakeholders is the fundamental challenge of university management. If organisational management in education is not effective, no one will be happy, the diverse range of stakeholders will all be dissatisfied with the outcomes. This thesis concludes that effective academic organisational management is the lynchpin at the intersection of university reform, the labour market, and the youth-to-work transition.

iii. Recommendations future research
There are two key recommendation points for future research that come to the fore.
a. A new model is needed for understanding and representing the function of the university in Japanese society. In order to promote the things that the university in Japan does well, we need a model for the function of tertiary institutions in Japan which better articulates distinctions and differentiation in private vs. national and local, and urban vs. rural.

b. Organisational management in the university holds a vital role for university reform, the labour market and the university-to-work transition and its role is undergoing a paradigm shift. More research is needed to compare the management situation at different tertiary institutions in Japan, in particular comparing and contrasting private vs. national and local, and urban vs. rural. Doing so will support developing systems and networks for best practices in academic organisational management in tertiary education in Japan.
Appendices


Dissertation working title:
アイデンティティー、自己認識とインターナショナルリゼーション—日本人大学学生の学生時代から就職への移行期のための就職スキル
Identity, individualisation, and internationalisation: Employability skills for the youth-to-work transition of Japanese university students

問1. あなたの性別をお答えください。
1. 男性
2. 女性
1. Gender
   1. Male
   2. Female

問2. あなたの所属する学類あるいは専門学群にチェックを付けてください。
人文・文化学群
   1. 人文学類
   2. 比較文化学類
   3. 日本語・日本文化学類
社会・国際学群
   4. 社会学類
   5. 国際総合学類
人間学群
   6. 教育学類
   7. 心理学類
   8. 障害科学類
生命環境学群
   9. 生物学類
  10. 生物資源学類
  11. 地球学類
理工学群
   12. 数学類
   13. 物理学類
   14. 化学類
   15. 応用理工学類
   16. 工学システム学類
   17. 社会工学類
情報学群
18. 情報科学類
19. 情報メディア創成学類
20. 知識情報・図書館学類

医学群
21. 医学類
22. 看護学類
23. 医療科学類

専門学群
24. 体育専門学群
25. 芸術専門学群

2. Major
School of Humanities and Culture
1. College of Humanities
2. College of Comparative Culture
3. College of Japanese Language and Culture
School of Social and International Studies
4. College of Social Sciences
5. College of International Studies
School of Human Sciences
6. College of Education
7. College of Psychology
8. College of Disability Sciences
School of Life and Environmental Sciences
9. College of Biological Sciences
10. College of Agro-Biological Resource Sciences
11. College of Geoscience
School of Science and Engineering
12. College of Mathematics
13. College of Physics
14. College of Chemistry
15. College of Engineering Sciences
16. College of Engineering Systems
17. College of Policy and Planning Sciences
School of Informatics
18. College of Information Science
19. College of Media Arts, Science and Technology
20. College of Knowledge and Library Sciences
School of Medicine and Medical Sciences
21. School of Medicine
22. School of Nursing
23. School of Medical Sciences

Other Schools
24. School of Health and Physical Education  
25. School of Art and Design

問3. あなたの在籍年次の番号一つにチェックを付けてください。
1. 1年次  
2. 2年次  
3. 3年次  
4. 4年次  
5. 5年次  
6. 6年次

3. Year  
1. 1st year  
2. 2nd year  
3. 3rd year  
4. 4th year  
5. 5th year  
6. 6th year

問4. あなたの現在のすまいについて、あてはまる番号一つにチェックを付けてください。
1. 筑波大学学生宿舎  
2. 民間のアパート・マンションなどに一人暮らし  
3. 親と同居  
4. 親戚・知人宅  
5. その他

4. Housing  
1. dorm  
2. living in an apartment alone  
3. family  
4. relatives, acquaintances’ house  
5. other

問5. あなたの居住地について、あてはまる番号一つにを付けてください。
筑波大学内の  
1. 追越  
2. 平砂  
3. 一の矢  
4. 春日  
筑波大学外でつくば市内の  
5. 天久保  
6. 春日  
7. 桜
5. Where do you live? (Region in Japan).
At the University of Tsukuba
1. Oikoshi dorm
2. Hirasuna dorm
3. Ichinoya dorm
4. Kasuga dorm
Area outside the university, in city of Tsukuba
5. Amakubo
6. Kasuga
7. Sakura
8. Shibasaki
9. Azuma
10. Kurihara
11. Kaname
12. Higashi-Hiratsuka
13. Hanabatake
14. Other
Area outside the city, in Ibaraki pref.
15. Southern Area
16. Western Area
17. Central Area
18. Rokkou (Southeastern) Area
19. Northern Area
Area outside Ibaraki, in Kanto area
20. Tokyo
22. Saitama pref.
23. Other pref.
24. Area other than the above

問6. 以下の1.～4.についてあなたの満足度を教えてください。

満足
やや満足
普通
やや不満
不満
1. 過去1年間の健康状態
2. あなたを学資支援している世帯の年間収入
3. 自由時間
4. 今の生活

6. For the 4 items below, please rate your feeling on the following scale:
Satisfied
Somewhat satisfied
Neutral
Somewhat unsatisfied
Unsatisfied
1. your health condition over the last year
2. your family household income
3. the amount of leisure time you have
4. your life now overall

問7. 過去6ヶ月間にアルバイトをしましたか？
1. 全くしなかった
→問(10)へ進んでください。
2. 定期的なアルバイトをした
→問(8)へ進んでください。
3. 臨時的なアルバイトをした
→問(8)へ進んでください。
4. 上記2・3両方のアルバイトをした
→問(8)へ進んでください。

7. In the last 6 months have you had a part-time job?
1. No (go to question #10)
2. Yes, steadily (go to question #8)
3. Yes, temporarily (go to question #8)
4. Both 2 & 3 (go to question #8)
問8. アルバイトの種類はどのようなものですか？ あてはまる番号三つ以内にチェックを付けてください。
1. 家庭教師
2. 塾講師、添削指導
3. 一般事務
4. 特殊技能（翻訳、通訳など）の活用
5. 飲食店でのウェイター、ウェイトレス、レジ係、調理係等
6. 飲食店以外の軽労働（調査、販売、配達等）
7. 建築・土木作業、工事現場、工場等での重労働
8. 建物倒壊作業、薬効取扱い作業等の危険作業
9. 学内でのアルバイト（チューター、RA、TA等）
10. その他

問9. アルバイトをした理由は何ですか？ あてはまる番号三つ以内にチェックを付けてください。
1. 学費や生活費のため
2. サークル活動費のため
3. 自動車等の購入・維持費のため
4. 携帯電話の料金などのため
5. レジャー・海外旅行のため
6. 時間の有効活用のため
7. 技術を得るため
8. 友人を得るため
9. その他

8. What type of part-time job? Check the numbers (up to three) that apply to you.
1. tutor
2. cram school teacher/correcting students’ work
3. office work
4. translator or interpreter/special skills
5. cook, waiter, cashier in a restaurant
6. light work, not restaurant
7. heavy work, hard labour
8. high-risk work
9. on-campus work
10. other

9. How do you spend your earnings?/ What is the reason for working part-time? Check the numbers (up to three) that apply to you.
1. education and/or living costs
2. circle and/or club activities
3. car and maintenance
4. mobile phone bill
5. leisure and travel
6. to be productive
7. training to learn new skills
8. socialize, get friends
9. others

問10. 食事は主にどのようにして摂っていますか？朝食・昼食・夕食それぞれについて下の数字の番号一つを記入してください。
朝食
昼食
夕食
1. 自宅(アパート・宿舎等)での自炊
2. 学生宿舎の食堂
3. 学内の食堂
4. 学外のファミリーレストラン・飲食店等
5. 弁当持参
6. 店舗(コンビニ・ファーストフード等含む)で弁当など購入
7. その他
8. ほとんど食べない

10. Where do you usually eat? Write in the number that applies for each meal:
Breakfast
Lunch
Dinner
1. eat at home
2. eat at student-dorm cafeteria
3. in the university
4. family restaurant, other eateries
5. obento (packed lunch)
6. convenience store or fast food store
7. other
8. don’t usually eat

問11. 授業がある日の平均的な1日の過ごし方についてお答えください。
1. 授業出席および予習・復習等の学習時間
2. 授業以外の勉学時間
3. サークル・ボランティアなどの活動時間
4. アルバイト時間
5. コンピュータや携帯電話を使用する時間
6. 睡眠時間
(次の7と8は、およその時刻を24時間制で記入してください)
7. 起床時間
8. 就寝時間
11. Please write down the number of average hours spent on activities on a weekday.
   1. study time: lectures/class time
   2. study time: not lectures/class time
   3. circle, volunteer activities
   4. part-time job
   5. use of computer, mobile phone
   6. sleeping
(for #7 and 8 below, write in approximate time)
   7. What time do you wake up?
   8. What time do you go to bed?

問12. 部活／サークル活動について、あてはまる番号一つにを付けてください。
   1. 所属している（問(13)へ進んでください）
   2. 所属していた（問(13)へ進んでください）
   3. 所属したことがない（問(15)へ進んでください）
12. Regarding circle/club activities, please check the number that applies to you.
   1. I belong to a circle/club (go to question #13)
   2. I used to belong to a circle/club (go to question #13)
   3. I have never belonged to any circle/club (go to question #15)

問13. 部活／サークル活動の動機はどのようなものですか？ あてはまる番号すべてにチェックを付けてください。
   1. 友人が欲しくて
   2. 知識, 教養のため
   3. 健康のため
   4. 技術向上のため
   5. 団体生活を経験したい
   6. 趣味と一致
   7. 余暇の利用のため
   8. レクリエーションの一環で
   9. 希望の進路と同様で有益
   10. 就職などにプラス
   11. 高校時代からの継続
   12. 勧誘されて
   13. その他
13. For the following reasons for doing circle/club activities. Please check every number that applies to you.
   1. to make friends
   2. for knowledge, self-improvement
   3. for your health
   4. skill improvement
   5. to gain experience of group life
   6. hobby
   7. leisure
   8. recreation
   9. for future career
   10. for finding a job (networking)
   11. continuation since high school
   12. invited
   13. other

問14. 部活/サークル活動の学業への影響はどのようにですか？あてはまる番号一つにチェックを付けてください。
   1.かなりマイナスの影響がある
   2.少しマイナスの影響がある
   3.どちらともいえない
   4.少しプラスの影響がある
   5.大いにプラスの影響がある

14. How much influence does circle/club have on your learning at the university?
   1. bad influence
   2. some bad influence
   3. hard to say
   4. some good influence
   5. good influence

問15. 大学入学後、あなたの友人関係はどのようにですか？あてはまる番号一つにを付けてください。
   1.友人にも親友にも恵まれ、充実している
   2.友人はいるが、親友といえる人はいない
   3.友人も親友もいるが、なぜか孤独を感じる
   4.友人も親友もなく寂しい
   5.友人はいないが、特に寂しくはない

15. How are your relationships with friends at the university?
   1. have many friends, including best friends
   2. have friends, but no best friends
3. have friends and best friends, but sometimes lonely
4. lonely due to lack of friends
5. no friends, but do not feel lonely

問 16. プライベートなことで相談しやすい人はどなたですか？ あてはまる番号三つ以内にを付けてください。
1. クラス担任教員
2. 学生担当教員
3. 指導教員
4. サークルの顧問教員
5. その他の教員
6. 保健管理センターのカウンセラー
7. スチューデントプラザの教職員
8. 事務職員
9. 先輩・後輩
10. 友人・恋人
11. 家族
12. その他
13. 特にいない

16. Who helps you in your personal matters? Please check the numbers (up to three) that apply to your case.
1. homeroom teacher
2. support room professor
3. academic advisor
4. circle/club advisor
5. other advisor
6. counselor in health centre
7. Student Plaza counselor
8. university administrator
9. peers
10. friends or boyfriend/girlfriend
11. family
12. others
13. none

問 17. なぜ大学教育を受けましたか。
17. Why did you decide to study at university?

問 18. なぜこの大学を選びましたか。
18. Why did you choose the University of Tsukuba?
問19.いつ学類を決定しましたか。また、学類を決定するにあたって、以下のことを考慮しましたか。あてはまる番号すべてにチェックを付けてください。
学類決定時期
1.高校入学以前
2.高校1年生
3.高校2年生
4.高校3年生
5.高校卒業以降
考慮事項
1.家族の意見
2.就職先
3.将来の賃金
4.就職率
5.誰にも相談しなかった
6.塾または学校の先生の勧め
7.その他
19. When did you decide your major?
1. Before entering high school
2. First year in high school
3. Second year in high school
4. Third year in high school
5. After graduating from high school
Things that you took into account when deciding your major (check all that applies)
1. family’s opinion
2. your future career
3. future earnings
4. employment rate
5. no advice from others
6. advice from teachers or cram school teachers
7. others
問20.以下の1.〜3.について、0から10までの10段階で答えてください。0は「全くそう思わない」を表し、10は「とてもそう思う」を表します。
1.就職のしやすさを意識して専門を決めた
2.専攻を決めた時点でどの進路の収入が多いかを知っていた
3.新しい仕事（就職）に向けて十分な準備ができている
20. For parts 1 to 3 below, please rate your level of agreement on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 means you strongly disagree with this statement and 10 means you strongly agree with this statement.
1. I knew which careers had many jobs when I was choosing what to study.
2. I knew which careers had high wages when I was choosing what to study.
3. I am well prepared for a new job.

問 21. あなたは、自分自身にどの程度能力があると思いますか。0 から 10 までの 10 段階で答えてください。0 は「全ての面で優れていない」を表し、10 は「すべての面でとても優れている」を表します。
21. Please rate how competent you are on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 means you are not competent at all and 10 means you are extremely competent.

問 22. あなたが望む職業にとってそれぞれのスキルがどの程度重要だと思いますか。
0 から 10 までの 10 段階で答えてください。0 は「まったく重要ではない」を表し、10 は「とても重要である」を表します。
1. work ethic/diligence
2. teamwork
3. keigo (formal Japanese language for business)
4. oral communication
5. hands-on training in discipline
6. problem solving
7. written communication
8. creativity
9. computer literacy
10. theoretical training in discipline
11. mathematics
12. leadership
13. English proficiency

問23. それぞれの学習方法がどの程度効果的だと思いますか。0から10までの10段階で答えてください。0は「まったく効果がない」、10は「とても効果的である」を表します。もし体験したことがない場合は、「未体験」と答えてください。
1. 実際の職業訓練 (OJT On the job training)
2. 職業と直結したトレーニング
3. マルチメディア教材
4. 少人数のセミナー
5. 一般的な講義
6. オンラインまたは遠隔授業

23. Please rate how effective for you each learning method is on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 means the method is not effective at all and 10 means it is very effective.
If there are methods that you have not been exposed to, please write down “no experience.”
1. on-the-job training
2. hands-on-learning
3. multimedia learning materials
4. seminars
5. traditional lecture
6. online/distance learning

問24. あなたの将来のキャリアにおいて、それぞれの重要性についてどう考えていますか。0から10までの10段階で答えてください。0は「全く重要ではない」、10は「とても重要である」を表します。
1. 特定の大学に合格したこと
2. 大学で身につける専門的技能
3. 大学で学ぶ知識
4. 特定の大学を卒業したこと
5. 部活やサークルの活動
6. 成績
7. アルバイト
8. 資格
9. 大学で築く人的ネットワーク
10. 大学以外（家族や友達）の人的ネットワーク
11. 父親の職業
12. 母親の職業
13. 出身地
14. 出身高校
24. Please rate how important each of these points is for your future career on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 means not important at all on this aspect and 10 means extremely important on this aspect.
   1. passed the university entrance exam
   2. skills acquired in the university
   3. knowledge you gained in the university
   4. graduated from this university
   5. circle or club activities
   6. grades (GPA)
   7. part-time job
   8. qualification certificates acquired
   9. networking made in the university
   10. networking with family and friends
   11. Father’s job
   12. Mother’s job
   13. hometown
   14. high school attended

問25. 卒業後どの形態の職業を選びますか。あとはまる番号すべてにチェックを付けてください。
   1.正社員・正職員
   2.契約社員・契約職員
   3.派遣社員
   4.自営業（起業を含む）
   5.パートタイム
   6.アルバイト
   7.家業を継ぐ
   8.その他

25. What type of employment will you seek after graduation? Check all that apply.
   1. regular full-time
   2. contract employee
   3. temporary employee
   4. self-employed
   5. part-time
   6. side jobs
   7. family’s business
   8. other

問26. 卒業後、最初の仕事としてフルタイムの仕事を得られると考えていますか。
26. Do you expect to get full-time permanent employment as your first job following graduation?
Yes
No

問 27. 卒業後、最初の仕事で終身雇用を期待しますか。
はい
いいえ

27. Do you expect to get lifetime employment as your first job following graduation?
Yes
No

問 28. 入社試験のために勉強していますか。
はい
いいえ

28. Are you preparing for company entrance exams?
Yes
No

問 29. 以下の 1. 〜3. についてあなたは次のどれに当てはまりますか？ (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 以上)
1. 何度海外旅行を行ったことがありますか。
2. 何か国訪問したことがありますか。
3. 外国人の友人は何人いますか。

29. For items #1 to 3 below, please indicate the number (0, 1, 2, 3, more than 4) that applies to you:
1. How many times have you travelled abroad?
2. How many countries have you visited?
3. How many foreign friends do you have?

問 30. 外国で学習プログラムに参加したことがありますか。はいと答えた方は、プログラムの内容を詳しく教えてください。
はい
いいえ

30. Have you gone on a study-abroad program? If yes, please explain.
Yes
No

問 31. 外国に住んだことはありますか。
31. Have you lived abroad?
   Yes
   No

問 32. 外国で最も長かった滞在期間はどのくらいですか。
32. What was the longest period of time you ever stayed abroad?

問 33. グローバル人材としての最も重要な能力は何だと思いますか。
33. What do you think are the core competencies of an internationalized person?

問 34. 国際的、世界的な大学の最も重要な特徴は何だと思いますか。
34. What do you think are the core features of an international, global university?

問 35. あなたがキャリアを築いていく上で、以下の 1. ～4. はどの程度重要だと思いますか？
35. Please rate the importance of the following for your future career on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 means not important at all and 10 means extremely important.
   1. Foreign languages (other than English)
   2. English language
   3. TOEFL score
   4. TOEIC score

問 36. あなたの学習状況について教えてください。0 から 10 までの 10 段階で答えてください。0 は目標に向かって「全く努力していない」、10 は「熱心に努力している」を表します。
   1. 英語力の向上
   2. TOEFL の点数向上
   3. TOEIC の点数向上
   4. 英語以外の語学力の向上
   5. グローバル的な視点の獲得
36. Please rate your level of study effort for the following statements on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 means you make no effort toward this goal and 10 means you make very strong effort toward this goal.
   1. I study to be proficient in English
   2. I study for the TOEFL test
   3. I study for the TOEIC test
   4. I study to be proficient in a foreign language (other than English)
   5. I study to learn global perspectives

問37. 敬語と英語のどちらがあなたのキャリアにおいて重要だと思いますか。
   敬語
   英語

37. Which of the following is more important for your career?
   1. Keigo (formal Japanese language for business)
   2. English

問38. 就職活動に対する不安について教えてください。0から10までの10段階で答えてください。0は「全く不安はない」、10は「とても不安である」を表します。

38. Please rate your level of anxiety about job hunting on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 means not anxious at all and 10 means extremely anxious.

問39. あなたは仕事を選ぶ際、以下の1.〜11.の要素について、どの程度重視しますか。
   0から10までの10段階で答えてください。0は「全く重要ではない」、10は「とても重要である」を表します。
   1. 職種
   2. 業種
   3. 会社の規模
   4. 会社の評判
   5. 会社の所在地
   6. 勤務地が地元（出身地）であること
   7. 勤務地がつくばであること
   8. 勤務地が関東であること
   9. 勤務地が日本国内であること
   10. 出張の頻度が高いこと
   11. 海外赴任の可能性が高いこと

39. Please rate how important these points are for your desired employment on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 means not important at all on this aspect and 10 means extremely important on this aspect.
   1. job role (employment title)
2. industry
3. company size
4. company’s reputation
5. company’s location
6. work in hometown
7. work in Tsukuba
8. work in Kanto
9. work in Japan
10. work internationally/frequency of international business trips
11. overseas relocation opportunities

問 40. もし、あなたがフルタイムの仕事を辞めるとしたらどのような状況の時ですか。
すべての番号にチェックしてください。
1. 家族の誰かが病気になったとき
2. 結婚したとき
3. 妊娠したとき
4. 出産する（子育て）とき
5. フルタイムで働く予定がないとき
6. 自分自身が仕事に支障をきたすような病気になったとき、障害を負ったとき

40. Check the box for any of the following that apply to you.
I plan to stop working full-time if/when:
1. a family member becomes ill
2. I get married
3. pregnancy
4. I have a child
5. I do not plan to work full time
6. I get severe illness or disability that makes me unable to w
アイデンティティ、自己認識とインターンシップ

日本工大生の学生時代から就職への移行期のための就職スキル

この調査はグローバル人材に関するアンケートで学生が必要としている教育についてより理解するために筑波大学の研究者（プラティックス・プラント 文化社会系外国語センター 原典）が行っているものです。

このアンケートへの参加は任意であり、強制ではありません。

これはテストではありませんので、
“正しい”“誤り”という回答は名前が前の記入も必要ありません。

良い調査結果を得るため、率直に回答をしていただきますようよろしくお願い
します。

回答したくない項目があった場合は、
無理に回答する必要はありません。
途中でやめてもかまいません。
アンケートの回答方法について
下記の例のように答えの隣にある四角にチェックまたは数字を入れて進めてください。
複数回答、具体例記入の質問もあります。
いくつかの質問は、次にどの質問に進むかの指示があります。
指示が無い場合は順番に次の質問にお答えください。

例問(1) あなたは今朝 食事を摂りましたか？
はい ✔ →問(3)へ進んでください。
いいえ

例問(2) あなたの考えを0から10までの10段階で答えてください。
0は「全くそう思わない」を表し、10は「とてもそう思う」を表します。
1.今日はよい天気だと思いますか？ 2
2.明日の天気はよいと思いますか？ 7
3.筑波大学の敷地面積は広いと思いますか？ 1

アンケートの回収について
・ アンケートの回答記入後、担当者の指示に従い提出してください。
・ このアンケートについての問い合わせは、☎029-853-6729 調査責任者 ブラック グラント
（人文社会系 外国語センター 准教授）までお願いします。

それでは問(1)からお答えください →
あなた自身について

問(1) あなたの性別をお答えください。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>号</th>
<th>情報</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>男性</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>女性</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

問(2) あなたの所属する学類あるいは専門学群に✔を付けてください。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>学群</th>
<th>号</th>
<th>情報</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>人文・文化学群</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>人文学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>比較文化学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>日本語・日本文化学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>社会国際学群</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>社会学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>国際経営学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>人間学群</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>教育学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>心理学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>資源経済学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>生命環境学群</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>生物学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>生物資源学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>地球学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>理工学群</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>数学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>物理学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>化学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>理工学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>工学システム学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>社会工学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>情報学群</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>情報科学類</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>問(3) あなたの在籍年次の番号一つに✓を付けてください。</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. 1年次</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 2年次</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 3年次</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 4年次</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 5年次</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 6年次</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>問(4) あなたの現在の住まいについて、あてはまる番号一つに✓を付けてください。</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 筑波大学学生宿舎</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 民間のアパート・マンションなどに一人暮らし</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 親と同居</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 親戚・知人宅</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. その他( )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>問(5) あなたの居住地について、あてはまる番号一つに✓を付けてください。</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>筑波大学内</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. 近藤</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 平野</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 七の矢</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 常盤</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. その他</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>筑波大学外でつくば市内</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 天久保</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[4]
生活全般について

問(6) 以下の1～4についてあなたの満足度を教えてください。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>項目</th>
<th>満足</th>
<th>やや満足</th>
<th>普通</th>
<th>やや不満</th>
<th>不満</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.過去1年間の健康状態</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.あなたを学資支援している世帯の年間収入</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.自由時間</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.今の生活</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
問(7) 過去6ヶ月間にアルバイトをしましたか？

| 1.全くしなかった | →問(10)へ進んでください。 |
| 2.定期的なアルバイトをした | →問(8)へ進んでください。 |
| 3.臨時的なアルバイトをした | →問(8)へ進んでください。 |
| 4.上記2・3両方のアルバイトをした | →問(8)へ進んでください。 |

問(8) アルバイトの種類はどのようなものですか？ あてはまる番号三つ以内に✔を付けてください。

| 1.家庭教師 | | |
| 2.塾講師、添削指導 | | |
| 3.一般事務 | | |
| 4.特殊技能（翻訳、通訳など）の活用 | | |
| 5.飲食店でのウェイター、ウェイトレス、レジ係、調理係等 | | |
| 6.飲食店以外の軽労働（調査、販売、配達等） | | |
| 7.建築・土木作業、工事現場、工場等での重労働 | | |
| 8.建物修理作業、廃棄物扱い作業等の危険作業 | | |
| 9.学内でのアルバイト（チーター、RA、TA等） | | |
| 10.その他( ) | | |

問(9) アルバイトをした理由は何ですか？ あてはまる番号三つ以内に✔を付けてください。

| 1.学費や生活費のため | | |
| 2.サークル活動費のため | | |
| 3.自動車等の購入・維持費のため | | |
| 4.携帯電話の料金などのため | | |
| 5.レジャー・海外旅行のため | | |
| 6.時間の有効活用のため | | |
| 7.技術を得るため | | |
| 8.友人を得るため | | |
| 9.その他( ) | | |
問(10) 食事は主にどのようにして摂っていますか？ 朝食・昼食・夕食それぞれについて下の数字の番号一つを記入してください。

朝食( ) 緑食( ) 夕食( )
1. 自宅（アパート・宿舎等）での自炊
2. 学生宿舎の食堂
3. 学内の食堂
4. 学外のファミリーレストラン・飲食店等
5. 弁当持参
6. 店舗（コンビニ・ファーストフード等含む）で弁当など購入
7. その他(____________________)
8. ほとんど食べない

問(11) 授業がある日の平均的な1日の過ごし方についてお答えください。

1. 授業出席および予習・復習等の学習時間 (平均____時間)
2. 授業以外の勉学時間 (平均____時間)
3. サークル・ボランティアなどの活動時間 (平均____時間)
4. アルバイト時間 (平均____時間)
5. コンピュータや携帯電話を使用する時間 (平均____時間)
6. 眠眠時間 (平均____時間)
(次の7と8は、およそその時間を24時間制で記入してください)
7. 起床時間 (だいたい____時頃)
8. 就寝時間 (だいたい____時頃)

クラス制度、学生組織、サークル活動等について

問(12) 部活／サークル活動について、あてはまる番号一つに✔を付けてください。

1. 所属している ➔問(13)へ進んでください。
2. 所属していた ➔問(13)へ進んでください。
3. 所属したことがない ➔問(15)へ進んでください。
問(13) 部活／サークル活動の動機はどのようなものですか？ あてはまる番号すべてに✔を付けてください。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. 友人が欲しい</th>
<th>2. 知識、教養のため</th>
<th>3. 健康のため</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. 技術向上のため</td>
<td>5. 団体生活を経験したい</td>
<td>6. 趣味と一致</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. 余暇の利用のため</td>
<td>8. レクリエーションの一環で</td>
<td>9. 希望の進路と同じで有益</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. 就職などにプラス</td>
<td>11. 高校時代からの継続</td>
<td>12. 動機されて</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. その他( )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

問(14) 部活／サークル活動の学業への影響はどのようですか？ あてはまる番号一つに✔を付けてください。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. かなりマイナスの影響がある</th>
<th>2. 少しマイナスの影響がある</th>
<th>3. どちらともいえない</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. 少しプラスの影響がある</td>
<td>5. 大いにプラスの影響がある</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

交友等について

問(15) 大学入学後、あなたの友関係はどのようにですか？ あてはまる番号一つに✔を付けてください。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. 友人にも親友にも恵まれ、充実している</th>
<th>2. 友人はいるが、親友といえる人はいない</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. 友人も親友もいるが、何か孤独を感じる</td>
<td>4. 友人も親友もなく寂しい</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 友人はいないが、特に寂しくはない</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
問(16) プライベートなことで相談しやすい人はどのたですか？ あてはまる番号に✔を付けてください。

| 1.クラス担任教員 |
| 2.学生担当教員 |
| 3.指導教員 |
| 4.サークルの顧問教員 |
| 5.その他の教員 |
| 6.健康管理センターのカウンセラー |
| 7.ステューデントプラザの教職員 |
| 8.事務職員 |
| 9.先輩・後輩 |
| 10.友人・恋人 |
| 11.家族 |
| 12.その他( ) |
| 13.特にいない |

就職スキルと将来の雇用についての
学生自身の考えについて

問(17) なぜ大学教育を受けましたか。

問(18) なぜこの大学を選びましたか。
問(19) いつ学類を決定しましたか。また、学類を決定するためにあたって、以下のことを考慮しましたか。あてはまる番号すべてに ✔ を付けてください。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>学類決定時期</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.高校入学以前</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.高校1年生</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.高校2年生</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.高校3年生</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.高校卒業以降</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>考慮事項</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.家族の意見</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.就職先</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.将来的の賃金</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.就職率</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.誰にも相談しなかった</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.塾または学校の先生の通し</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.その他( )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

問(20) 以下の1.〜3.について、0から10までの10段階で答えてください。
0は「全くそう思わいない」を表し、10は「とてもそう思う」を表します。

| 1.就職のしやすさを意識して専門を決めた       |
| 2.専攻を決めた時点でどの進路の収入が多いかを知っていた |
| 3.新しい仕事（就職）に向けて十分な準備ができている |

問(21) あなたは、自分自身にどの程度能力があると思いますか。0から10までの10段階で答えてください。0は「全ての面で優れていない」を表し、10は「どれの面でも優れている」を表します。

問(22) あなたが望む職業にとってそれぞれのスキルがどの程度重要だと思いますか。0から10までの10段階で答えてください。0は「まったく重要ではない」を表し、10は「とても重要である」を表します。

| 1.仕事熱心          |
| 2.チームワーク      |
問(23) それぞれの学習方法がどの程度効果的だと思いますか。0から10までの10段階で答えしてください。0は「まったく効果がない」、10は「とても効果的である」を表します。もし体験したことがない場合は、「未体験」と答えください。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>項目</th>
<th>答え</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.実際の職業訓練（OJT On the job training）</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.職業と直接したトレーニング</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.マルチメディア教材</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.少人数のセミナー</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.一般的な講義</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.オンラインまたは遠隔授業</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

将来の職業に関する大学の役割について

問(24) あなたの将来のキャリアにおいて、それぞれの重要性についてどう考えていますか。0から10までの10段階で答えてください。0は「全く重要ではない」、10は「とても重要である」を表します。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>項目</th>
<th>答え</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.特定の大学に合格したこと</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.大学で身につける専門的技能</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.大学で学ぶ知識</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.特定の大学を卒業したこと</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. 正社員・正職員</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 契約社員・契約職員</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 派遣社員</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 自営業（営業を含む）</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. パートタイム</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. アルバイト</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. 任意を除く</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. その他</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

問(26) 卒業後、最初の仕事としてフルタイムの仕事を得られると考えていますか。

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | はい |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | いいえ |  |  |  |  |  |

問(27) 卒業後、最初の仕事で終身雇用を期待しますか。

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | はい |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | いいえ |  |  |  |  |  |

問(28) 入社試験のために勉強していますか。

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | はい |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | いいえ |  |  |  |  |  |
インターナショナルリゼーションについて

問(29) 以下の1.～3.についてあなたは次のどれに当てはまりますか？

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>問題</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4以上</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 何度海外旅行に行ったことがありますか。</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 何か国訪問したことがありますか。</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 外国人の友人は何人いますか。</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

問(30) 外国で学習プログラムに参加したことがありますか。はいと答えた方は、プログラ
ムの内容を詳しく教えてください。

はい
いいえ

問(31) 外国に住んだことはありますか。

はい
いいえ

問(32) 外国で最も長かった滞在期間はどのくらいですか。

問(33) グローバル人材としての最も重要な能力は何だと思いますか。

問(34) 国際的、世界的な大学の最も重要な特徴は何だと思いますか。

[13]
問(35) あなたがキャリアを築いていく上で、以下の1.～4.はどの程度重要だと思いますか？
0から10までの10段階で答えてください。0は「重要ではない」、10は「とても重要である」を表します。

---

1.外国語の能力（英語を含まない）
2.英語の能力
3.TOEFLスコア
4.TOEICスコア

問(36) あなたの学習状況について教えてください。0から10までの10段階で答えてください。
0は目標に向かって「全く努力していない/取り組んでいない」、10は「熱心に努力している」を表します。

---

1.英語力の向上
2.TOEFLの点数向上
3.TOEICの点数向上
4.英語以外の語学力の向上
5.グローバル的な視点の獲得

問(37) 敬語と英語どちらがあなたのキャリアにおいて重要だと思いますか。

敬語
英語

日本の労働市場におけるジェンダーと日本特有の文化について

問(38) 就職活動に対する不安について教えてください。0から10までの10段階で答えてください。
0は「全く不安はない」、10は「とても不安である」を表します。
問(39) あなたは仕事を選ぶ際、以下の1.〜11.の要素について、どの程度重視しますか。
0から10までの10段階で答えてください。0は「全く重要ではない」、10は「とても重要である」を表します。

| 1. 産業 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2. 業種 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3. 会社の規模 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4. 会社の評判 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5. 会社の所在地 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6. 勤務地が地元（出身地）であること |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7. 勤務地がつくばであること |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8. 勤務地が関東であること |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9. 勤務地が日本国内であること |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10. 出張の頻度が高いこと |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11. 海外赴任の可能性が高いこと |  |  |  |  |  |

問(40) もし、あなたがフルタイムの仕事を辞めるとしたらどのような状況の時ですか。
あてはまる番号すべてに ✔ を付けてください。

| 1. 家族の誰かが病気になったとき |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2. 結婚したとき |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3. 妊娠したとき |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4. 出産する（子育て）とき |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5. フルタイムで働く予定がない |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6. 自分自身が仕事に支障をきたすような病気になったとき、障害を負ったとき |  |  |  |  |  |

ご協力ありがとうございました！
3. Coordinated Curriculum and TOEFL Survey contents

Page 1
Research consent form

You are invited to participate in a research project that we are planning. The project is investigating student perceptions of using Super Eigo to learn English.

*The data for this project will be collected electronically using an online survey.

Please note:
- Participation is voluntary.
- You may withdraw from this research at any time.
- You do not need to give your name, and the data that you provide is anonymous.

The data will only be used for this research project and it is confidential.

Thank you for your help!

リサーチ協力のお願い。

このリサーチは、スーパー英語で英語の勉強をするがどのように感じているかを調べるためのものです。このリサーチでは、オンラインアンケートを利用してデータを収集します。

リサーチへの参加は任意です。

リサーチの途中であっても、いつでも退席可能です。

記名の必要はなく、提供いただいたデータは匿名で集計されます。

提供いただいたデータは機密情報として、リサーチプロジェクトでの利用目的にのみ使用します。

Page 2
1. 年齢 Age

2. 性別 Sex
   男 Male
   女 Female

3. クラス Class level

4. 教員名 Course instructor
5. 時限 Student year

Page 3
1. I use Super Eigo.
私はスーパー英語を使った。

Page 4
1. I like Super Eigo.
私はスーパー英語が好きだ。

2. あなたは毎週スーパー英語に何分費やしましたか？
How many minutes did you spend on Super Eigo.

3. Super Eigo is a good way to learn English.
スーパー英語は英語を学ぶのに良い手段だと思う。

4. Super Eigo helped me with my English.
スーパー英語は私の英語の助けになった。

5. I recommend Super Eigo to my friends.
スーパー英語を友達にすすめます。

6. I used Super Eigo mainly because...
私がスーパー英語を使った主な理由は...

クラスで必修だったから。It was required.
英語力向上のため。To improve my English.
楽しかったから。It was fun.

7. Enter your total Super Eigo miles to date.
今までのマイル数を教えて下さい。

8. Super Eigo was good value for the price.
スーパー英語は値段の割に得な買い物だった。

ハイ Yes
分からない I do not know
いいえ No
1. **TOEFL** は私にとって重要である。
**TOEFL** is important to me.

ハイ  Yes
分からない  I do not know
いいえ  No

Page 6

1. スーパー英語は私の **TOEFL** スコアを改善すると思う。
Super Eigo will help me improve my **TOEFL** score.

2. あなたは何回 **TOEFL** テストを受けましたか？
How many times have you taken the **TOEFL** test?
0 1 2 3 4 回以上受けた

3. **TOEFL** 最高得点は... **TOEFL** highest score...

4. 私は **TOEFL** テストを受けるつもりです。
I will take the **TOEFL** test...
今年。 This year.
来年。 Next year.
来年以降。 In the future.

5. 私は **TOEFL** のために猛勉強した
I study hard for **TOEFL**.

6. Comment

Appendix 4

Promotion of Internationalization in Everyday Life
University of Tsukuba Strategy for Internationalization

I. Our Mission in the Global Society

In the global society of the 21st century the action to be taken by our university is conceived as follows:

1. The accumulation and communication of knowledge sustained by high-level research;
2. The production of human resources to provide international leadership;
3. The creation of international cooperation networks.

In order to fulfill our role as a world-class research university in a rapidly globalising world, we aim to offer solutions to global problems through the creation of a groundbreaking system for the acquisition of knowledge.

II. Defining Characteristics of our Internationalization Strategy

Based on the founding principle of being an open and accessible institute of higher learning, the University of Tsukuba has promoted internationalization in accordance with its distinctive qualities. In addition, our management efficiency is based on an accurate assessment of the environment in which universities are placed domestically and abroad. In particular, to this end, we have recently concluded international cooperation agreements with North Africa and Central Asia, regions that are at the
In the spirit of such traditions, and based on the concept of being routinely internationally-minded, we promote the cultivation of human resources capable of symbiosis at the global level, and engage in efficient and strategic development aimed at strengthening the function of being a world-level stronghold for research and education. At the same time, we promote internationalization within local communities by taking advantage of our geographical location in Tsukuba Science City.

III. Fundamental Policies for Expanding and Enriching Internationalization

(1) Internationalization of Education and Research

- We will form ties with universities and research institutions overseas, and establish centers for joint research and education.
- We will advance the internationalization of our educational system and extend our compatibility with international standards.
- We will carry out cutting-edge joint research with overseas research organizations, research groups and researchers.
- By accepting first-class students and researchers from overseas, and by supporting the activities of our students and staff abroad, we will promote the exchange of human resources.

(2) Internationalization of Campus Management

- We will expand and enhance our system of transmitting information internationally.
- We will expand our overseas liaison offices and cooperative arrangements, and advance international exchange through our overseas offices designed for a variety of activities.
- We will further improve the internationalization of our academic organizations, facilities and staff and provide an environment for accepting top-rank students and researchers from overseas.
- We will cooperate with Tsukuba Science City to promote internationalization jointly with the local community.
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