

# 香川大学

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# 大学における短期留学プログラムに関する一考察 —プログラム参加学生へのインタビュー調査から—

正楽 藍

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A Discussion about a University's Short-term Studying-abroad Program :

Interviews to the University Students

Ai SHORAKU

International Office, Kagawa University

## 要 旨

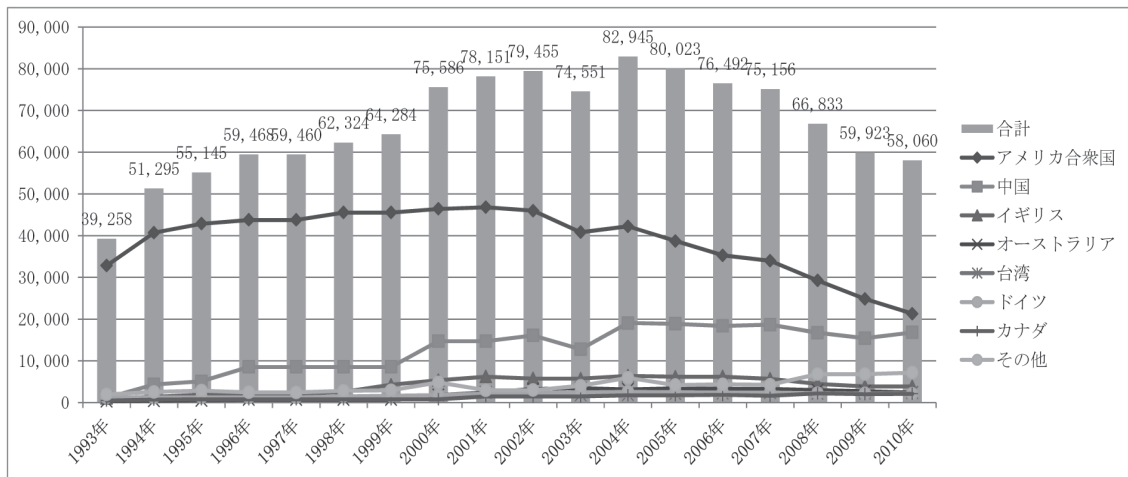
本稿は、日本の大学が実施する短期留学プログラムに着目し、そのねらいや効果を分析し、大学の教育全体の中いかに位置づけるべきかを検討することを目的とする。筆者の勤務する大学の短期留学プログラム参加者に対する帰国後のインタビュー調査の結果を分析し、一般的な短期留学プログラムのねらいと効果として挙げられる「困難・不安」と「緩衝行動」、「自己の成長」、「外国語の習得」、「国際理解」、「交換留学」それぞれについて、本プログラムがどのような効果を持っているのかを考察した。考察の結果、「交換留学」を除いて、本プログラムは一般的な短期留学プログラムの効果を上げられていることが分かった。一方、参加者の帰国後、彼らが得たこれらの効果を維持、向上させるためには、大学（国内）の教育活動におけるさらなる工夫が必要であることも推察された。

Keywords: 短期留学、大学生、インタビュー調査、大学教育、グローバル人材

### 1. はじめに

日本人の海外留学者数の減少が言われて久しい。これは、文部科学省が集計した日本から海外への留学者数の推移を見ても明らかで、アメリカへの留学者数の減少が全体を押し下げていると言える（図1）<sup>1)</sup>。アメリカへの留学者数が激減していることは事実であるが、中国やオーストラリア、カナダ等、他の国への留学者数は増加しており、アメリカ一辺倒であった日本人の留学先が多様化していることも事実である。

図1. 日本人の海外留学状況（1993年－2010年）



出典：文部科学省「日本人の海外留学状況」各年度発表資料より作成

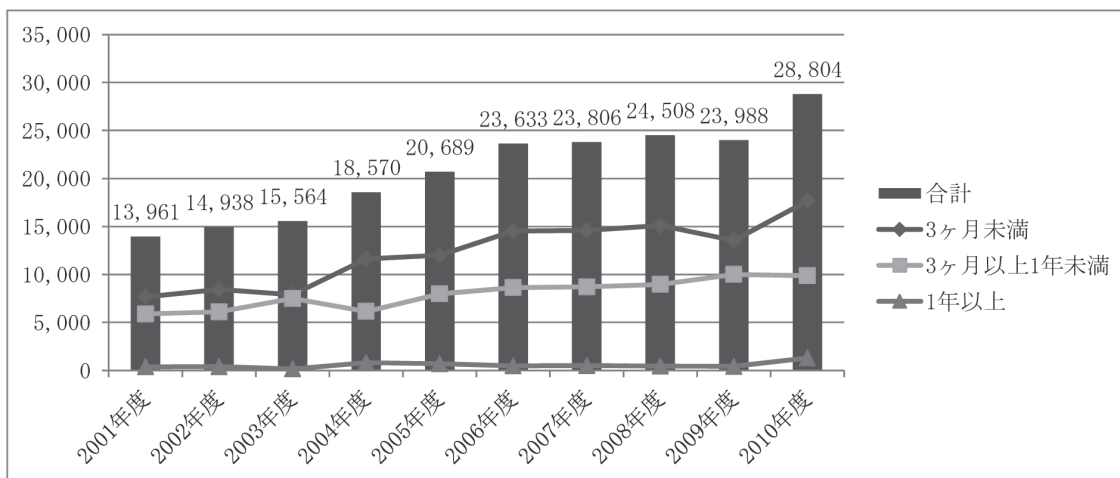
留学生の定義は国や地域、機関によって異なる。OECDは、「高等教育機関に在籍する「受入国に永住・定住していない」または「受入国の国籍を有しない」学生で、正規課程に属する者」とし、ユネスコ統計局は、「高等教育機関に在籍する「受入国に永住・定住していない」学生」としている。アメリカのInstitute of International Educationは、「アメリカ合衆国の高等教育機関に在籍している、アメリカ市民（永住権を有する者を含む）以外の者」とし、中国大使館教育部は、「学生ビザ（Xビザ《留学期間が180日以上》）または訪問ビザ（滞在180日未満）等で中国の大学に在学している者」としている。台湾教育部の定義は、「台湾の高等教育機関に在籍している者（短期留学生を含む）」である<sup>2</sup>。OECDのように、海外の高等教育機関の正規課程に在籍する者、つまり、学位取得を目指す者のみを留学生とする場合もあれば、中国のように、滞在期間の長短を問わず、中国の大学に在学している者を留学生とする場合もある。ある国への留学者数が多い、または増えた等と言っても、どの学生を留学生としてカウントするのは国や地域、機関によって異なるのである。

日本の高等教育機関への進学該当年齢人口が減少しているのであるから、海外留学者数が多少減少したからと言って懸念することはないという見方もある。そもそも、なぜ海外留学者数の減少を懸念しなければならないのかという意見もあろう。海外留学することが日本の若者や企業社会にとってどのような意味があるのかを考えなければならない。

図1で日本人の海外留学者数が減少していることを示した。一方、大学間交流協定等に基づく海外留学者数は増加しているのである（図2）<sup>3</sup>。中でも、3ヶ月未満の極短期の留学を経験する学生が増加している。この増加の背景は、大学間交流協定の数の増加及び協定に基づく留学プログラムの多様化であろう。留学生の定義で想定されているような、学位取得を目的としたり、海外の大学に在学して学修したりする留学のみならず、日本の大学等の教育活動の一環で数日間から数週間程度協定校で学ぶ留学プログラムが増え、学

生の人気を呼んでいると考えられる。

図2. 期間別日本人留学生数（協定等に基づく留学）（2001年度－2010年度）



出典：独立行政法人日本学生支援機構「協定等に基づく日本人学生留学状況調査結果」各年度版より作成

本稿では、海外留学者数の減少の一方で、増加傾向にある協定校への留学、特に、3ヶ月未満の短期留学に着目し、そのねらいや効果を分析し、大学の教育全体の中にかに位置づけるべきかを検討する。第2節では、先行研究を分析することにより、日本の大学における短期留学プログラムのねらいと効果を整理する。第3節では、筆者の勤務する大学での短期留学プログラムを事例に、このプログラムのねらいと効果を参加学生の視点から分析する。第4節では、第3節の結果を踏まえて、大学で提供される教育活動の1つとして、短期留学プログラムはいかにあるべきかを考察する。さらに、短期留学は長期留学希望者を増加させ、日本の海外留学者数の減少を食い止める一方策となりうるのかを検討する。

## 2. 短期留学のねらいと効果

小林（2011）は、日本の大学の一般的な海外留学モデルを費用負担と定員、期間に応じた5つのタイプへ分類し、「交換留学／協定校留学」と「派遣留学／協定校への派遣留学」、「単位認定留学／承認・私費留学」、「私費留学／届出・休学留学」、「短期留学／語学・文化研修」とした。従来の「伝統的」な、大学提供の留学プログラムの代表は「交換留学」であろう。しかし、昨今、この交換留学の枠にとらわれない、学生にとって比較的「気軽な」留学プログラムとして短期留学プログラムが増加している<sup>4</sup>。

全国の大学の短期留学プログラムの状況を見てみると、国立大学法人でかつ全学で実施しているものだけでも80以上に上る（朝日新聞社；河合塾 2013）。学部ごとで実施しているプログラムや公立及び私立大学も含めると相当な数に上り、ほぼすべての大学が何ら



かの短期留学プログラムを実施していると考えられる。内容は、多くが海外の協定校での語学研修や異文化体験学習である。対象を大学院生へ限定しているものもあるが、大半が学部生を想定していると思われる。また、日本から教職員が引率するプログラムもあれば、引率しないものもある。正課科目として開講しているものもあれば、正課外の活動に位置づけているものもある。このように、非常に多岐にわたる短期留学プログラムであるが、そのねらいは何であろうか。また、どのような効果が期待されているのであろうか。

工藤（2011）は、プログラムの教育的効果として困難（緊張や不安等）と緩衝行動（他の参加学生との接触等）、研修成果（言語の習得や国際理解等）に加えて、これら3要素を経験しながら参加者が獲得する要素として、「限定的ながらもこれまでの日常とは異なる空間での学習や異文化との出会いを通じ」た内省と行動力を挙げている。徳井（2002）は、3週間のアメリカの大学での短期留学が日本人学生へ及ぼす影響を次のように説明する。留学前は集団（国、民族）として、また、外見で捉える傾向にあったアメリカ人を、留学後は個人の多様性へ気づいたり、個人の内面へ着目したりするようになった。コミュニケーション意識の変化として、外国人と話すことに対する不安や心配が減少するという効果も指摘している（徳井 2002）。短期留学プログラムへ参加した大学生の異文化適応に着目した川内（2006）は、異文化接触で経験する不安感に対処するためには、異文化間でのコミュニケーションの背景となる自国や相手国の歴史や文化等を学習していること、相手を理解しようとする気持ちやその気持ちを表現すること、予期していない状況に対してすばやく対応できること、これら3つの能力を備えているか否かが重要であると述べる。

日本では内向的であったり、友人同士で外国語を話したりする場面においてよりも、海外での知らない人とのコミュニケーションにおいての方が積極的に会話できるという傾向を指摘した研究もある（川内 2006；木村 2011）。これは、日本人の友人の前では自分の外国語の間違いや発音を気にするのに対して、よく知らない人の前ではそうした劣等感や恥ずかしさが消えるためと言われる。

岩城（2012）は、協定校での短期留学プログラムが及ぼす交換留学への影響を分析し、短期留学は交換留学へのプレステージとなったり、交換留学への心理的な敷居を低くしたりする効果を持つと言う。交換留学への応募者の大半が短期留学経験者であるとの報告も見られる（山口 2011）。

山口（2010、p.50）は日本人学生の海外留学者数減少の要因として以下の6点を挙げる。

- ① 経済的要因（経済状況の停滞や海外大学の授業料上昇による、留学経費の負担の困難化、企業の収益悪化による海外派遣の取り止め等）
- ② 海外留学へのインセンティブの低下（海外への留学が就職・昇進等に有利にならないとの認識、若者の内向き・安全志向）

- ③ 就職活動の早期化（海外留学による、就職活動への出遅れ感等）
- ④ 留年への懸念（単位互換、単位認定制度等への理解不足等）
- ⑤ 英語力の不足（TOEFL の制度改正等に伴うスコアの伸び悩み等）
- ⑥ 大学としての、組織的・継続的な海外留学プログラムの不足

短期留学プログラムの場合、日本の所属大学の学修プログラムであれば単位取得が可能であり、就職活動への出遅れを気にせず参加できる。また、多くの場合、さほど高い外国語能力も求められない。海外留学の「おためし」的プログラムなのである。実際、筆者の勤務する大学でも、協定校を中心に、短期留学プログラムを数多く設けており、学生にとっての異文化体験や外国語能力向上の機会となっている。しかしながら、短期留学が交換留学への「プレ（事前）」ステージとなっているかどうかは疑問である。確かに、異文化や外国語への不安は軽減するかも知れないし、交換留学のイメージをつかむこともできるかも知れない。だからと言って、日本人学生の海外留学者数減少の要因として挙げられている経済的要因や就職活動の早期化が解決されるわけではない。

独立行政法人日本学生支援機構が2011年度から開始した留学生交流支援制度（ショートビジット）のねらいは、留学への経済的不安を緩和することで多様な学生に派遣の機会を提供し、国際的な視野を有する学生の育成を推進することである。ショートビジットは、3ヶ月未満の学生派遣を支援する教育プログラムを対象としており、従来からの3ヶ月以上1年以内の派遣に加えて、文部科学省が新たに開始した補助金事業である<sup>5</sup>。

米澤（2010）は、学生が海外留学という行動を選択するか否かを説明するには、留学のメリットだけでなく、デメリットやリスクも同時に検討しなければならないと言う。

本節で挙げた短期留学プログラムのねらいと効果を整理すると表1のようになる<sup>6</sup>。

表1. 短期留学プログラムのねらいと効果

ねらい・効果	要素	説明
困難・不安	外国語	外国語が聞き取れない、話せない、通じない
	対人関係（外国人）	外国人に対する気後れや劣等感を感じる
	対人関係（日本人）	現地の日本人と対立する
	衝撃体験	自分の価値観では受容できない事象に出会う
緩衝行動	対人関係（外国人）	外国人との接触を好意的に評価する
	対人関係（日本人）	現地の日本人との接触を好意的に評価する
自己の成長		自分の内面や行動等の成長を感じる
外国語の習得		外国語の使用を留学前より身近に感じる
国際理解	海外	海外の文化等を理解する
	日本	日本（自国）の文化等を理解する
交換留学		交換留学や派遣留学への関心が高まる

### 3. 調査結果の分析

#### 3-1. 調査概要

本稿で分析の対象とするのは、筆者の勤務する大学の短期留学プログラム（2012年度夏季）へ参加した16名の内、インタビュー調査への協力を依頼した5名に対するプログラム参加後のインタビュー結果である。この短期留学プログラムは2004年度に開始され、2012年度で9年目をむかえた。本プログラムの目指すところは、主に日本人学生を対象として、彼らの外国語能力を向上させ、海外経験を通して国際感覚を涵養させることである。また、夏休みや春休みの短期間の留学を経験した後、本格的な海外留学、特に、協定校への交換留学に踏み出す学生が出てきてくれればとも期待している。派遣先大学での研修は筆者の勤務校の学生のみを対象としたものではなく、派遣先大学が広く、さまざまな国や地域から参加者を受け入れているものを選んでいる。これは、外国人と外国語で意思疎通を図るという、日本ではほとんど経験することのない経験を積ませるためである。教職員による日本からの引率は実施していない。現地の空港へ到着してからの参加者への引率は派遣先大学の教職員や学生にお願いしている。宿泊形態は派遣先大学に登録されている一般家庭へのホームステイであり、2人以上の参加者が同じホームステイ先にならないようにしている。

本調査への参加者5名は、16名の中から性別や学部、学年等の偏りがないように選出した。インタビューは、参加者の記憶の新しい帰国後約1ヶ月以内に筆者の研究室で行い、すべて個別インタビューである。最初に筆者から参加者にインタビューの主旨と匿名性の保持を説明し、ICレコーダーへの記録を了解してもらった。参加者の性別及び学部、学年、派遣先（国）、派遣期間は表2の通りである。

表2. 本調査参加者の概要

	性別	学部	学年	派遣先（国）	派遣期間
参加者A	女	経済	4年	オーストラリア	5週間
参加者B	女	教育	2年	オーストラリア	5週間
参加者C	女	教育	1年	カナダ	4週間
参加者D	男	工	3年	カナダ	4週間
参加者E	男	経済	1年	カナダ	4週間

インタビューは半構造化で行い、記録はすべて書き起こした。表1の各ねらいと効果をコード化して抜き出し、それぞれについて分析した。

#### 3-2. 困難・不安

プログラム参加前に参加者へその目的を尋ねると、彼らの多くは外国語の習得を挙げた。したがって、彼らが派遣先で先ずぶつかる困難、そして、それによる不安は外国語に

関するものになるようである。本プログラム参加者は外国語が嫌いだという学生ではなく、多少の苦手意識を持ちながらもそれを克服して、自分の外国語能力を伸ばしたいという意志を持つ学生である。自分の外国語は流暢ではないが、なんとかやっていけるだろうとの期待も持っているのかも知れない。これまで高校や大学の教室の中で勉強していた外国語ではなく、自分の意思を伝える手段として外国語を使わざるを得ない状況に置かれ、思い通りの意思疎通をできないことに困惑している様子が見られる。

A：最初の1週間はすごい日本に帰りたくて

筆者（以下、筆）：それはなんで？

A：もう自分の英語の力も、もともと、そんな自信なく来たので

筆：うん

A：あの、伝わらない時のもどかしさがすごく嫌で

筆：うん

A：聞き取れないし

（中略）

A：最初は辛かったです

筆：最初は辛かった

A：分かってはいたんですけど、実際こう体験すると、何しにきたのかなーとか夜考えて

筆：うん

A：なんか1週間経ったけど、もう帰りたいなーってずっと思っていました

Aは大学2年次に約1週間、大学の短期留学プログラムでアメリカへ行っており、今回は2回目の海外渡航である。アメリカでのプログラムは日本の大学教員引率のもと、全行程を同じ大学からの日本人学生と行動を共にするものであった。したがって、派遣先大学でもホームステイ先でも外国語で意思疎通を図らなければならない状況に置かれたのは、今回が初めてということになる。自分の言いたいことが伝わらなかつたり、相手の言っていることが聞き取れなかつたりして意思疎通が思い通りにならず、思い描いていた留学生活のスタートとはならなかった記憶が残っているのである。

Bは高校の国際コースを卒業し、大学では国際交流サークルに所属している。日本で学ぶ外国人留学生との交流にも関心を持っている。一方、自分の性格をあまり積極的ではない性格と分析しており、外国人留学生との交流が思うように進まないことをもどかしく感じている様子でもある。過去の海外経験は、幼いころの家族旅行と大学1年次の韓国への短期留学プログラムへの参加である。A同様、大学教職員の引率のないプログラムへの参加は初めてであった。

B：なんか、日本人同士で

筆：うん

B：3人とかで固まって、日本語喋ってました

筆：うんうんうん

B：私は、それが嫌だったんで

筆：うん

B：そこに入らず、でも、英語も喋れないから

筆：うん

B：その、外国の方にも入れず、みたいな。どっちつかずの感じです

外国語能力を伸ばすために参加しているのだから、日本語の使用をできるだけ避けたいと考える参加者は多い。一方、外国語での意思疎通が思い通りにできるわけではないため、Bのように、そのほごまで悩む参加者は少ない。Bは渡航前のインタビューで、「あんま日本語話せない人の方が、(話が)できるような感じ」と語っている(括弧内、筆者加筆)。これは、Bが日本語の苦手な外国人との日本語での意思疎通を心地よく感じた経験を持ち、海外での外国語での意思疎通であっても、外国人との意思疎通の方が積極的になれるのではないかと期待した。しかし、現実はその期待通りにはならず、日本人の中にも外国人の中にも入れない状況を思い出している。

### 3-3. 緩衝行動

外国語や外国人との交流に対する大きな期待が思うようにならないう現実を経験し、「自分の留学生活はこんなはずではなかった」等と悩む参加者であるが、次第に、この現実から抜け出す方法や自分の気持ちを和らげる方法を見つけ出すようである。

B：まあ、近くにいる子から話しかけようと思って

筆：うん

B：は、みたんですけど、で、だんだん良くなって、3週目ぐらいに、あ、楽しくなってきたって思って

筆：うん。それは、なんで楽しくなってきた？

B：あの、休日に、台湾の子と遊びに出かけたり

筆：うん

B：で、その子同じクラスの子だったんですけど

筆：うん

B：まあ、お互い良くわからない英語で、やりとりして

筆：うん、うん



B：あーできるんだーっていうのを、ま、1日過ごせて、それで、できるんだなっ  
ていうのが分かったの。で、もう、そこから、でも、やっぱり、続け、続  
かなくて、それが

筆：うん

B：やっぱ、うん、なんて言うんだろ、自分からやってかないと楽しいことは起  
こらないから

最初、日本人（日本語）と外国人（外国語）のはざままで悩んだBであるが、上では、お  
互いに英語を母語としない者同士であるからこそ、英語での意思疎通を楽しめた経験が語  
られている。外国語での意思疎通が思い通りにできないというのは半ば自分の思い込みで  
あって、外国語で意思疎通を図らなければならない状況に自分を置いてみると、自分にも  
できるのだという自信を得た様子が見えてくる。

次のEは、現地の日本人と対立するという「困難・不安」を、外国人や現地の日本人と  
の好意的な接触という「緩衝行動」で和らげた経験を持つ。

E：それでもやっぱりグループワークとかでは、その一、日本人と組まなかった  
りしないといけない時があったので

筆：うんうん。

E：そういう時はもう、うっわこいつか、って思って、また無視するんやろうなっ  
て思って

（中略）

E：向こうでできた留学時の友だちでも、その一、友だちはできましたし、その、  
中国人の子で

（中略）

E：一緒にバスケットして遊んだりして、連絡先交換し合って、まあ Facebook  
とかで会おうやって話に

（中略）

E：ほんとに、そうなんす、それで落ち込んだ時に、まあ〇〇（中国人の子）が  
励ましてくれたり、気にすんなっ、みたいな感じに

筆：うん

E：まあそれで、その、まあ、〇〇（中国人の子）の他にも、よく、香川大学の  
〇〇くんとか〇〇くんとか、

筆：うん、そうね。うん

E：あと、〇〇くんとか

筆：えっと、△△さんね

E：そうです

筆：うんうん

E：あと一、そうそう、□□大学の子とか

筆：男の子は香川から今回は4人だったかな

E：そうですね

筆：Eさん含めて

E：4人です

筆：うん

E：まあそのメンバーで、それと、○○（中国人の子）と

筆：うん

E：よく居たりしたんで、そのところはそんなに落ち込まなかったんですけど

Eは派遣期間の途中から別のクラスへ移動したが、移動先のクラスに気の合わない日本人がいた。その日本人との対立で感じた苛立ちを、現地で知り合った外国人や同じ大学からの参加者との交流で緩和させている。Bのように、日本人との交流をできるだけ避けようとする参加者もいるが、Eのように、日本人でも自分が心地よいと感じる相手であれば積極的に交流しようとする参加者もいる。そして、日本人との交流が困難や不安の緩衝材となることもあるのである。

### 3-4. 自己の成長

日本で大学生活を送っているだけでは、自分が何者であるかを問われる機会は多くない。海外で外国人の中に身を置いて初めて、自分と周りとの違いに気づくことがある。

Cは高校の国際コースを卒業し、大学では日本近隣のアジア諸国についての理解を深めたいと考えている学生である。本プログラムへ参加した理由も、日本以外のアジア出身の人と英語で交流をしたいとの思いからである。日本では、外国のテレビドラマを見ながら、海外の同年代の若者の生活をイメージしているようである。高校時代から海外留学へ強い関心を持ち、在学中に長期の留学を経験したいと希望している。

筆：Cさんが1番学んだこと、身に付いたことってなんですか？

C：やっぱり自分から話すことですね

筆：うん

C：自分の意見、自分をしっかり持てた気がします

筆：うん

C：なんか、みんなと同じ行動するのが1番、なんか、安心だと思ってたんですけど

筆：うん

C：で、やっぱり、人と違うことも結構勇気いるし、でもなんか、こう、自分の意見言わなきゃいけないじゃないですか、やっぱりあっちの国では

筆：うん

C：なんで、やっぱ、自分の意見を持つことも学べて、で、それで、もし、なんか、知らないってことに逆に気づいて

筆：うん

C：勉強しようと思うようにもなりました

帰国後、プログラムへ参加して感じる自己の成長を尋ねると多くの学生は、自分の意見を持つことや周囲との協調、自分や自国（日本）についてもっと知識を広げる必要性を学んだと述べる。渡航前のインタビューでは、彼らの関心は外国語や外国人に偏っているが、帰国後は、この関心が大きく変化している。Cも、渡航前は、英語での交流を通してアジア地域への理解を深めたいという期待を持っていたが、上の語りでは、関心が自己の内面に向かっていることが推察できる。

本調査への参加者5名中唯一の理工系の学生であるDは、卒業後は大学院へ進学し、研究者の道を志したいと考えている。大学院へ進学後は国際インターンシップへも参加する計画を持っている。本プログラムへの参加はその準備の一環と考えているようである。本稿3-6でのDの語りで後述するが、外国人から日本人がどのように見られているのかに気づかされ、自分に自信を持ち、積極的に行動することの必要性を感じたようである。

D：その自分でやっぱいかないといけない、みたいな

筆：うんうん

D：自分に誇りを持って、とか

### 3-5. 外国語の習得

外国語で思うように意思疎通を図れない現実に直面し、その不安を気の合う外国人や日本人との交流でなんとか和らげている参加者であるが、彼らの多くに共通して見られる傾向は、派遣期間の後半や帰国後に自分の外国語能力の向上を実感することである。

A：留学から戻ってからアルバイトに行って、で、私、商店街のその、ドラッグストアで働いているので

筆：うんうん

A：海外、外国人の方結構来るんですよ

筆：ふ～ん



A：その時に、あの一多分留学から帰ってすぐのバイトで、多分2、3人来られて、で、日本語話せるんですけど、多分英語の方が流暢に話せるような海外の方来られて

筆：お客さんが？うん

A：で、あの一、私留学行ってなかったら、ほんとに、テキストにあるような英文しか言えなかったんですけど

筆：うん

A：留学行ってたお陰で、あの、頷きとか

筆：うんうん

A：ちょっと言う時とかも

筆：ちょっとこう、相槌の言葉とか

A：そう、ですね～、あ、これ留学でしたわーって思って

筆：うん

A：もうナチュラルな感じに話せたのがすごい嬉しくて、その時「ああ私留学行ったんだ！」って実感しましたね

筆：行ったから今言えたんだ！ってこうフツて、自然にでてきたんですか？言葉が

A：自然に、もう蘇るといふか

筆：うん

A：ああこれこれ！みたいな感じで。嬉しかった

Aは派遣期間の5週間を通して比較的順調な生活を送った学生である。日本人との交流を避ける傾向も見られず、ホームステイ先の家族とも良好な関係を築くことができた。4年生であるAは就職も決まり、就職後は長い夏休みをとることが難しくなるため、大学生活最後の夏休みを有意義に送りたいとの目的で本プログラムへ参加した。他の参加者のように、外国語能力を伸ばしたり、それによって外国人と積極的に意思疎通を図れる力を身につけたいとの期待はそれほど大きくなかった。しかし、本稿3-2でのAの語りからもうかがえるように、最初はやはり、外国語で思い通りの意思疎通をできないことに困惑した経験を持つ。上の語りに加えてAは、「1ヶ月前とは全然違う自分発見できて。もう英語が喋れたらほんとに楽しいなってすごい思いました」とも話しており、大きな期待は持っていなかったものの外国語能力の向上を実感している様子である。

E：あの、とりあえず前よりは、行く前よりかは、今、ものすごい英語が聞き取れるようになったのは確かです

筆：うん。あ、違い感じますか？4週間で

E：めっちゃ感じます。全然違います

筆：ふんふんふん

E：その、今までの僕でしたら

筆：うん

E：英語を聞いて、それを日本語に翻訳して、理解するっていうこの行程が必要だったんですけど

筆：うん

E：カナダ行ってから、英語を聞く、英語を理解する、で、返す

Eは洋楽や海外のゲームを楽しむ学生で、日本でも外国語（英語）を聞く機会が多い。本プログラムへ参加した目的は自分の外国語能力をさらに伸ばし、ネイティブスピーカーのように外国語を使えるようになりたいからと話していた。派遣先大学でのクラス分けではもっとも上のクラスへ入り、本稿3-3での語りからも推察されるように、外国人とも日本人とも積極的に交流を図っていた。「もともと英語は聞き取る練習は、その、海外の友だちといろいろ会話してたので、それで大丈夫ではあったんですけど」とも語っているように、渡航前から自分の外国語能力には多少の自信を持っていたようである。それでもやはり、4週間の研修でさらなる外国語能力の向上を実感している。

### 3-6. 国際理解

短期留学プログラムへ参加するにあたって、異文化理解や国際理解の背景となる自国や相手国の歴史や文化等を学習していることの重要性は指摘されている。本プログラムへ参加したCが渡航前のインタビューで、「同じアジア圏内の人として、なんかこう、どういう。その、同年代がいると思うんで、なんか想像がつかないんですよ、なんか、その、日本人じゃない人が何をしてるのかなっていう。そういうのにも興味があって。やっぱりその、同年代で、ま、地域にいてる人たちがどういう考えを持ってるのかなっていうのは」と語るように、派遣先の国や地域だけではなく、そこで出会うさまざまな国や地域からの人との交流に関心を示している。Cは帰国後のインタビューで次のように語る。

C：やっぱ韓国人と喋ってる時はやっぱり、そういう、なんか、アジアの話とかになって、やっぱ、日本が韓国に、その歴史的に何か、悪いことをしてきたじゃないですか

筆：うん

C：そういう話にもなって、で、なんか、そう、その韓国人は、その、日本人が、キライっていう、反日感情がすごくて、でも、なんか、あなたのことは好きなんだけど、でも日本人はキライなんだって言われて

筆：うーん

C：そういうことしたのは別にアレだけど、謝らないから嫌って言って、謝ってないんだーって思って、イヨンフン（慰安婦）問題とかも。で、なんで謝らないんだろうとか、そういう疑問いっぱい出てきました（括弧内、筆者加筆）

上述のように、Cは渡航前からアジア出身の人との交流に関心を示していた。派遣先大学での韓国からの参加者との接触を通して、アジアという地域の中の韓国、そして、韓国からのある1人の同世代の友人というように、自分の視点をより具体的な事象へ焦点化させて語るようになっている。さらに、慰安婦問題という日本（自国）と相手国との関係を自分自身の課題や疑問として捉えられるようにもなった。

次のDは、外国人から指摘されて初めて日本人の特徴に気づくという経験をしている。

D：で、その韓国人の人には、最初からずーっと言われよったんが、なんでも、やっぱ僕もそうですし、友だちも結構みんなそうやったんですけど、なんでも最初 sorry から入るんですよ

筆：ふふふ

D：あの一、ちょっと間違えたら。で、その韓国人に、いやいや、ごめんとか言いきすぎや。なんで日本人そんな言うんだよ、みたいな感じで

筆：うんうん、言われるね、よくね。日本人って。やっぱ謝ってしまうよね

D：ほんまに、ああやっぱ言われるんや。はい。で、そっから謝ったらダメだよって、僕はそこは（聞き取れず）なんで、言わなかったんですけど、まあ、やっぱそういうのもあるのかなとか思いながら（括弧内、筆者加筆）

筆：うん

D：で、向こうで、なんかごめんって言ったら、その、なんででしょう、認めてしまおうらしいですよ。自分が全部悪かったみたいな感じで

筆：うん

D：そうとられてしまうっていうパターンもあるらしいんで、まあやっぱ、なかなか謝らないほうがいいよ、みたいな、結構教えられて

### 3-7. 交換留学

今回のインタビューからは、本プログラムへ参加したことで交換留学へのイメージが具体化されたり、希望をより強くしたりという直接的な効果は見受けられない。下に挙げるCとDは、本プログラム参加前からさらなる留学の希望を持っており、本プログラムへの参加はさらなる留学の準備とも考えていた。しかし、帰国後の彼らの語りからは、さらなる留学へ向けたより具体的な計画や気持ちの大きな変化は推察されない。

C：将来のことも（視野に）入れて、やっぱ、長期で行って勉強したいかなーって  
いうのは大きいです（括弧内、筆者加筆）

（中略）

C：う～ん。でも、自分がもし、その、なんか、専門的にやりたい勉強とかも見  
つかって

筆：うん

C：英語ももっとなんか、話せるようになれば、長期で行きたいかなーって思っ  
てます

D：そのこないだ、その、研究室訪問をした時に、その先生の生徒さんとかで  
筆：うん

D：あの、海外の、国際インターン行ってきたらしいんですよ

筆：ああ、うんうんうん

D：やっぱそういう人は、なんか、ま、就職でもめっちゃくちゃ有利だし

筆：うん

D：まあええ経験にもなるって聞いてて

筆：うん

D：ああそういうのしてみたいなとか、今とか思ってるんですよ

本節3-4及び3-6でそれぞれ、CとDの自己の成長と国際理解に関する効果を考察したが、これら2つの効果は、交換留学の実現に向けてさらなる一步を踏み出すきっかけにはならないということであろうか。短期留学プログラムで得られる効果と学生が交換留学に期待する効果とは異なるということであろうか。

そこで注目されるのが、Cの「専門的にやりたい勉強」という言葉とDの「就職でもめっちゃくちゃ有利」という言葉である。表1に整理した短期留学プログラムのねらいと効果では、専門性の獲得や就職、または就職活動での有利さという要素や説明は出てこない。一方、CとDの語りからは、学生がさらなる留学を考える際、専門性の獲得や就職ということを意識することがうかがえる。つまり、短期留学を交換留学へのプレステージとするためには、本プログラム参加者、特に、交換留学を検討している参加者に対しては、本プログラムで得られる効果に加えて、専門性の獲得や就職活動での有利さを確信させることが有効であると推察される。

#### 4. 大学における短期留学プログラムのあり方

筆者の勤務する大学の短期留学プログラム（2012年度夏季）への参加者に対するインタ

ビュー結果の分析により、このプログラムでもやはり、表1で挙げた短期留学プログラムのねらいと効果が得られていることが明らかとなった。ただし、交換留学の効果についてはさらなる調査が必要であることが判明した。本節では、大学で提供される教育活動の1つとして、短期留学プログラムはいかにあるべきかを考察する。

日本の大学は現在、グローバル人材として求められる能力の育成を期待され、そのための取組みが課題として課されている。首相官邸に設置されている「グローバル人材育成推進会議」によると、グローバル人材として求められる能力には以下の要素が挙げられている。

- 要素Ⅰ：語学力・コミュニケーション能力
- 要素Ⅱ：主体性・積極性、チャレンジ精神、協調性・柔軟性、責任感・使命感
- 要素Ⅲ：異文化に対する理解と日本人としてのアイデンティティ

2012年度、文部科学省は大学教育におけるグローバル人材育成を進めるため、「グローバル人材育成推進事業」を開始した。これは、日本人学生の海外留学促進に向けた大学の取組みを支援する事業である。大学にとって、グローバル人材として求められる能力の育成と海外留学とは切り離せないものと言える。以下では、第3節で明らかとなった短期留学プログラムの効果を、グローバル人材として求められる能力の3要素へ対応させながら見ていく。

プログラム参加者は外国語で意思疎通を思うよう図れなかったり、現地の日本人にも溶け込めなかったりという経験から「困難・不安」を抱えた。しかし、彼らは「緩衝行動」で挙げた例やその他、各自の方法で困難や不安を乗り越えようとしている。乗り越えようと意識した参加者もいれば、困難や不安の克服をそれほど意識せず、緩衝行動を経験することによって困難や不安を自然と和らげていった参加者もいる。しかし、両者とも、困難や不安、そして緩衝行動の両方を経験した記憶を持っており、それをインタビューで語っている。このことは、プログラム参加者がグローバル人材の要素Ⅱのチャレンジ精神や協調性を意識できていると分析できる。

プログラムを通じて参加者は、自ら行動を起こすことや自分の意見を持つことの重要性に気づいている。この「自己の成長」への気づきを実践行動へ発展させることができれば、要素Ⅱの主体性や積極性、そして、要素Ⅰのコミュニケーション能力の獲得へつなげることができる。要素Ⅰの語学力については、日本では外国語を使う機会が少ないため、プログラムを通じて実感することのできた外国語能力の向上を維持し、さらに、より向上させることは簡単ではない。これは参加者も口にするのである。要素Ⅲの異文化に対する理解と日本人としてのアイデンティティは「緩衝行動」や「国際理解」と対応させることが可能であろう。参加者は渡航前から異文化理解に関心を持ち、派遣先の国の人だけでなく、



さまざまな国や地域からの人との交流を期待している。プログラム参加後はさらに、そうした人との交流を通して日本人としての自分を強く意識し始めるようになる。

それでは、短期留学プログラムの効果をさらに高めたり、帰国後も維持させ、発展させたりするためには、大学はどのような取組みを行うべきであろうか。グローバル人材として求められる能力であれ、短期留学プログラムの効果であれ、海外でなければ養うことができない力ではない。海外留学にはそれらの力が表出されやすいシチュエーションが多く含まれているだけである。国内における教育活動でもそれらの力を育成することは可能である。

さらに言えば、国内における教育活動と海外におけるそれとの有機的な連携が取られていなければ、短期留学プログラムにおいても高い効果は望めない。この意味において、短期留学プログラムへ参加する学生の学業的志向を探ることは有効であろう。彼らが大学においてどのような授業を受講しているのかを把握し、各授業の目的や到達目標等を分析することで、彼らの学修の中で短期留学での経験及び効果はいかに位置づけられるのかが見えてくる。また、プログラム参加者の学業的志向を探ることにより、彼らとプログラムへ参加しない学生との志向の異同を把握できる。両者の志向の異同を把握することにより、プログラム参加者が海外志向や国際志向のより高い学生なのかどうかも見えてくるだろう。

最後に、短期留学は長期留学希望者を増加させる一方策となりうるのかであるが、本稿の分析では、短期留学プログラム参加者に対して、専門性の獲得や就職活動での有利さを確信させる必要性がうかがわれた。このことは、参加者が短期留学にはない長期留学のデメリットやリスクに気づいているということであろう。専門性の獲得や就職活動での有利さを確信させるためには、短期留学から長期留学へと踏み出した先輩学生を有効活用することが考えられる。日本の大学における長期留学者は少数派であり、短期留学を経験した学生であっても、長期留学者と接触する機会は限られている。長期留学者が短期留学で得たどのような力を使って長期留学へと踏み出したのか、そして、長期留学でどのような専門性を獲得し、自己のキャリアへとつなげたのかを説いてもらうことが1つの有効な方策となろう。

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<sup>1</sup> ただし、日本の18歳人口が1993年から2010年までの18年間で198万人から122万人へと減少していることに留意する必要がある（文部科学省「18歳人口と進学率等の推移」[http://www.mext.go.jp/component/b\\_menu/shingi/giji/\\_icsFiles/afieldfile/2012/10/03/1326458\\_3.pdf](http://www.mext.go.jp/component/b_menu/shingi/giji/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2012/10/03/1326458_3.pdf)（アクセス日2013年7月25日））。

<sup>2</sup> これらの定義はすべて、日本政府文部科学省「日本人の海外留学状況」より抜粋（[http://www.mext.go.jp/b\\_menu/houdou/25/02/\\_icsFiles/afieldfile/2013/02/08/1330698\\_01.pdf](http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/houdou/25/02/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2013/02/08/1330698_01.pdf)（アクセス日2013年7月26日））。日本政府は各国や地域による統計に基づいて日本人

の海外留学を集計している。

3 図2で言う留学とは、「海外の大学等における学位取得を目的とした教育又は研究等のほか、学位取得を目的としなくても単位取得が可能な学習活動や、異文化体験・語学の実地習得、研究指導を受ける活動等」を言う（独立行政法人日本学生支援機構「平成22年度協定等に基づく日本人学生留学状況調査結果」より抜粋（[http://www.jasso.go.jp/statistics/intl\\_student/data11\\_s.html](http://www.jasso.go.jp/statistics/intl_student/data11_s.html)）（アクセス日2013年7月26日））。

4 春休みや夏休みの語学研修やインターンシップ、異文化体験学習等、「短期留学」に分類されるであろう大学の教育活動は多岐にわたる。本稿では、小林（2011）の海外留学モデルに従い、参加者本人がプログラム費（全額または一部）を支払い、1大学あたり10～30名の定員で、数週間～2ヶ月程度の活動を指すこととし、これらを総称して短期留学プログラムと呼ぶ。

5 ただし、ショートビジットは平成24年度で終了し、平成25年度からは8日以上1年以内の学生派遣を支援する事業へと統合された。

6 困難や不安も重要な教育的効果であると考え、表中へ含めた。

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# Overcoming Preconceptions of the Difficulties in Learning the Japanese Language for Science Majors

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## Abstract

There is a widespread perception among international students that the Japanese language is difficult to master. This has created a challenge for universities in attracting international students. The Faculty of Agriculture of Kagawa University offers a Master of Science Program in food science for international students, which is taught in the Japanese language. A 33-day Short Stay Program on food safety internship for potential applicants to the master's program was held. Attracting international students to science programs taught in the Japanese language will continue to be a challenge. This study has shown that a Short Stay Program can work as a stepping-stone in assisting potential students overcome their initial perceptions about the difficulties of studying science in the Japanese language. We found that students had improved perceptions about both the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits of the Japanese language. Most students also seemed to have overcome their apprehensions regarding the challenges of learning the Japanese language and believe that it is possible for them to do so. We believe that the key factor in developing this new perception of the Japanese language was taking part in a science program in Japan that incorporates intensive Japanese language training as a major part of the program.

Keywords: JSL/JFL, international students, perceptions of science majors, Short Stay Program

## 1. Introduction

Japan has actively promoted and supported the study of Japanese language and culture for international students through scholarships, student exchange programs, internships, and other international activities. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Sci-

ence and Technology (MEXT) views the international student body as playing an important role in internationalizing Japanese students. In 2008, the 300,000 International Student Plan, set 2020 as the target year for increasing the enrollment of international students to 300,000. One strategy was to expand the number of English-only degree programs, which would not only make studies more easily available to a variety of students, but also help to create a more international environment for Japanese students (MEXT, 2009). However, the number of international students in Japan has not increased.

Furthermore, international students in science and technology programs are under-represented. To successfully increase the international student body, more attractive programs, particularly career-oriented programs, must be available. However, career-oriented programs must also prepare international students for work in Japanese companies which necessitates that they learn Japanese. The perceived difficulty of learning the Japanese language is a significant obstacle to success.

The Faculty of Agriculture of Kagawa University offers a Master of Science program for international students, which is taught in the Japanese language. Students conduct graduate research in frozen food safety and also study Japanese business, culture, and the Japanese language. Graduates are prepared to find employment in the Japanese food industry. One important program goal is that international students will be able to have careers in Japanese international companies after gaining higher education in Japan. To date, all graduates have found employment with Japanese companies. However, potential applicants have expressed concerns about meeting the requirements of the Japanese language component of the program.

The Faculty of Agriculture instituted an internship of food safety, the Short Stay Program (SS Program) with support from Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO). International students were invited to study food safety at the Faculty of Agriculture. The program also included intensive Japanese language lessons. It was thought if students that come to Japan for a short term visit were able to understand the challenges and rewards of studying in Japan, then they would be likely to want to come again and the SS Program would act as a bridge for long-term programs. The 2013 SS Program was a 33-day food safety program (August 19 — September 20, 2013). The internship in food safety was conducted in English, and participants had 6 hours of Japanese language and culture classes, and 3 hours of interaction activities.

We conducted a preliminary study of the 2011 SS Program, which found that the SS Program had a positive effect on some of the perceptions regarding learning the Japanese language, but did not influence their preconceptions about Japanese people. Positive perceptions about the utility of the Japanese language increased while negative perceptions decreased. We also found that there was a shift in student belief in their ability to successfully learn the Japanese language based upon their participation in the internship (Lutes et al., 2012).

Since we believe that the perceptions of the language difficulties are a key factor in influencing potential students' decisions to study in Japan, it is important to foster and encourage positive perceptions of the utility of the language and perhaps more importantly to assist students in understanding that they will be able to successfully learn the Japanese language with effective training and attitudes. We further believe that students that have more positive beliefs about the Japanese language and their capability to successfully learn it, because of their experiences in the short stay program, may serve as conduits to spread this understanding among their peers when they return to their home countries at the conclusion of the SS Program. Furthermore, they may themselves be motivated to apply for advanced studies in Japan that have Japanese language ability as a requirement.

The students' general perceptions about the Japanese language, including the increased social status from Japanese language ability, were examined to determine their perceptions of the Japanese language. Positive perceptions of the target language, in this case Japanese, have been shown to increase intrinsic motivation (Keller, 1983; Crookes & Schmidt, 1989). The perceived utility of the Japanese language is a focal point because perception of the need to use the language is important for motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; McNamara, 1973). Motivation can be positively affected by socio-psychological aspects, and by learner interest in the foreign language (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991, 1993).

Since the perception of the difficulty of mastering the target language is important for success, the student perception of the difficulty in learning the Japanese language was investigated (Ellis, 1994). For Japanese language learners, it was found that reading comprehension and kanji ability are directly associated with the students' perceived difficulty in reading the Japanese language (Kondo-Brown, 2006).

Therefore, gaining a better understanding of the perceptions of the difficulty in learning the Japanese language among science majors would provide useful insights into how the SS Program may be used to positively influence perceptions about studying the Japanese language, and provide insights into the issues that may discourage international students from joining science programs taught in the Japanese language.

## 2. Course design and investigation

In order to investigate if preconceptions of the difficulties in learning the Japanese language would be influenced by a short stay program, two methods were used. Firstly, students that had been chosen to participate in the SS Program were surveyed about their perceptions of the utility and ease of learning Japanese language at the end of the program. Secondly, we asked the students to submit a report about the Japanese language learning, which allowed us to investigate their perception, attitude and change qualitatively. This data can provide useful insights into how perceptions may be influenced by an SS Program. It may also further provide insights into the issues that should be addressed when recruiting international students for programs that are taught in the Japanese language.

All the participants took part in 10 hours of Japanese language training activities (4 classes and an interaction session). At the end of the course, they submitted a report and were invited to participate in a survey. Participants were informed that their participation for the survey was voluntary, on an opt-in basis, and that any identifying information would be removed.

In addition to describing the methodology, we also describe how the Japanese language classes were taught because that may also influence the results. Section 2.2. illustrates the design of the Japanese language component.

### 2.1. Participants

Twenty-two university students (Male 4: Female 18) participated in the SS Program. There were undergraduate (11), master's (10) and doctoral (1) students from various science faculties: agriculture, agro-industry, animal science, animal and agricultural sciences, food technology, fisheries, food engineering, and food science and engineering. They were from six countries, Brazil, China, Indonesia, Thailand, Turkey and the United States. They were native speakers of Brazilian Portuguese, Chinese, English, Indonesian, Thai and Turkish. All of the SS Program students (hereafter students) sub-

mitted the final report, which was a course requirement. Ten of the students participated in the post program survey (hereafter participants).

Seven of the participants self-reported their Japanese language levels as "none" and "a little". Two participants reported short-term experiences studying the Japanese language in their home countries before participating in this program. One participant learned Japanese for two years during childhood.

## 2.2. Language learning

As part of the SS program, students took part in 6 hours (90 min x 4 classes) of Japanese language classes, and a 4 hour interaction activity. Initially, they studied *hiragana*, *katakana*, counting expressions, useful daily phrases, and survival Japanese language skills for 4.5 hours (3 classes). Then, they were asked to complete two functional tasks in the Japanese language at a shopping center for 4 hours (1 class). They were asked to: 1) buy something that they needed; and 2) report on the details of the purchase. They were encouraged to use Japanese language expressions that they had learned, and in fact were forced to use the Japanese language to be able to complete the final tasks of successfully buying item(s).

After these tasks had been completed, they had 1.5 additional hours (1 class) of Japanese language class to debrief, to address the problems that they had with the tasks, and to study more related vocabulary and grammar. Other international students, living in Japan and studying at the Faculty of Agriculture, joined the Japanese language class to assist the SS Program students.

## 2.3. Two aspects of the study

For the quantitative part of the study, the students were asked to answer the survey, which had 48 questions and statements: There were 9 demographic questions, followed by 39 statements to which participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement on a 5 point Likert scale from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree". The 39 statements were divided into four categories:

- (1) Perceptions of the Japanese language (3 statements)
- (2) Perceptions of difficulties studying the Japanese language (15 statements)
- (3) Perceptions of utility of Japanese language ability in career design (12 statements)

(4) Perceptions of utility of Japanese language ability in science (9 statements)

In each category, three statements were asked per topic. Two statements were similar to check for consistency in their responses.

For the qualitative part of the study, the final reports were examined. The students' comments that were related to their experiences in learning Japanese and their attitudes towards Japanese were examined.

### 3. Quantitative Findings

#### 3.1. Perceptions of the Japanese language

60% of the participants indicated that they "want to go to Japan to study Japanese" (Statement 25; "Agree" or "Strongly Agree"). This response was consistent with the responses to Statements 12 and 46 which a positive attitude about going to Japan to study Japanese.

We had not expected such a positive attitude because they are science majors, not language or liberal arts majors. However, these findings are consistent with our previous findings (Lutes et al, 2012) ; we can conclude students that have participated in the SS program have positive attitudes about learning the Japanese language in Japan. On the other hand, we expected that language learning would not be the highest priority for the participants, which our data (below) supports.

#### 3.2. Perceptions of difficulties in studying the Japanese language

Almost all (90%) the students agreed that they would "be able to understand spoken Japanese" if they studied Japanese for two years (Statements 15 and 31). When they were asked specifically about understanding Japanese television, the positive responses increased to 100% (Statement 39). Although we did not define understanding, but only used the term "understanding", which allowed the participants to determine what this meant, we believe that this indicates that the participants had confidence in their abilities to successfully learn the Japanese language.

It is noteworthy that even though the survey was conducted after the program and the participants had completed the intensive study, 30% were neutral about the ease of learning hiragana, the simplest phonetic syllabary of the Japanese language, (Statement

48). Some of them even disagreed that "*hiragana* [was] easy to learn." This is in stark contrast to their positive attitudes about listening and understanding the Japanese language.

They had slightly more negative perceptions about their abilities to learn katakana, another simple Japanese phonetic alphabet (Statement 14), but even so, they thought they would be able to read and write it (Statements 27 and 45). Although they indicated some misgivings about the ease of learning both hiragana and katakana, they did indicate that they thought they could learn them.

They did not learn kanji, Chinese characters, in the classes but they were exposed to kanji in daily life during their stay in Japan. When asked about their perceptions of the ease of learning kanji, their responses showed much less confidence in their ability to learn kanji (Statements 20, 32 and 37). This perception is understandable because they had no chance to study kanji, and they encountered kanji everyday as a mass of indecipherable characters on street signs, menus, buildings, etc. Furthermore, it is much more complicated than the other two phonetic syllabaries, which they did study. We believe that classroom exposure to kanji may also lead to a change in this perception.

### 3.3. Perceptions of utility of the Japanese language ability for career planning

For 60% of the participants, "Japanese is an important skill for a good job" (Statement 44; "Strongly Agree" or "Agree") and 80% disagreed with the negative statement that "Japanese is not important for getting a job in a Japanese company" (Statement 36). 90% believed that they will have more job opportunities even in their own country (Statement 29).

80% agreed or strongly agreed that speaking Japanese will improve their salary (Statement 35), which could be a potential motivating factor for learning Japanese. This response was consistent reflecting their belief in the potential economic benefits of learning Japanese (Statements 21 and 41).

Their strong belief in the potential advantages of learning Japanese for their careers was further supported in the positive responses about working in a Japanese company. 50% responded positively ("Strongly Agree" or "Agree") to the prospect of working in a Japanese company, 30% "Neutral," and 20% "Disagree". We think that high posi-



tive response to considering a career with a Japanese company is a reflection of their positive perceptions: a) of their capability to learn, and b) of the utility of the Japanese language.

80% agreed the ability of speaking the Japanese language would have a good effect on their self-image (Statement 10; "Strongly Agree" or "Agree") and 90% agreed they would be "more respected and admired" (Statement 17; "Agree") Nobody chose "Disagree" or "Strongly Disagree" in response to these statements. These data indirectly support their belief that the Japanese language would bring them practical benefits.

#### 3.4. Perceptions of utility of the Japanese language ability for science

In many fields of science English is the dominant language, the de facto standard, while the Japanese language is not. Nevertheless 60% of the participants thought that it would help them to become more scientifically advanced (Statement 38). This perception may have been affected by their participation in the SS Program which included Japanese language classes. However, it should also be noted that except for the Japanese language classes, all parts of the SS Program were conducted in English. Furthermore, it should be noted that part of the utility of Japanese for learning science may be due to Japan's reputation for being a leader in science and technology.

Contrastively, from 30-50% of the participant were neutral about the general necessity of the Japanese language for science majors (Statements 16, 34 and 40).

Among the participants, the Japanese language was associated with educational opportunities. 90% strongly agreed or agreed that "Learning Japanese will help me get better educational opportunities" (Statement 43). Again, we must consider that this may have been influenced by the act that they were taking part in an educational activity in Japan and that our university has a highly regarded Masters of Science program conducted in Japanese.

## 4. Qualitative Findings

After finishing all the Japanese lessons, all the students were required to submit a report to get certification of joining in the Japanese language classes. They were asked to respond to the following:

- (1) What do you think about studying Japanese language?
- (2) Before you came to Japan, what aspects of studying the Japanese language appealed to or interested you?
- (3) Tell us about your experience of communication with Japanese people during your stay in Kagawa. Did you try to use Japanese words or phrases? How did feel at that time?
- (4) Tell us how you felt about your firsthand experiences with Japanese culture?
- (5) Please comment on other impressions or opinions about learning / using Japanese language or about Japanese culture.  
(e.g. interest, utility in your field or in your country, study more or not, etc.)

We chose these questions to gain insight into students' perceptions about the Japanese language, studying the Japanese language and aspects related to Japanese language abilities and studies, such as Japanese culture and communication with Japanese people. It is useful for us to investigate their perceptions so that we can improve our SS program, Japanese classes, and recruiting of new international students to our university, especially science major students from countries where kanji is not used.

Responses :

- (1) What do you think about studying Japanese language?

Some students mentioned the difficulty of learning the Japanese language including the writing system and the lack of time. On the other hand, all students including those who wrote about the difficulties also mentioned positive aspects.

The reports showed that Thai students were interested in learning the Japanese language because there are many Japanese companies and restaurants in Thailand and they think mastering Japanese language as a third language would be an advantage for them to find a good job in Thailand. Three out of nine Thai students wrote that they had learned the Japanese language for some time in Thailand.

*Thai people want to work in Japanese companies.*

*Thailand has many Japanese companies, learning Japanese language is precious*

*for me in my country. Thus, I will continuous[ly] study Japanese language study undoubtedly.*

*I want to study Japanese language more because I want to join in a Japanese company in Thailand.*

All three Chinese students stated that Japanese language was not so difficult at least in several aspects. One student said that pronunciation and basic conversation are "quite straightforward."

*For Chinese, learning Japanese is simpler than others. Not only some words are the same, but also pronunciation is similar.*

Both of the students from the United States pointed out that they needed more time to learn. This is not a negative opinion but a positive one because it indicates that they were interested in the Japanese language itself and recognized learning it helps them to communicate with Japanese people and to understand the Japanese culture.

- (2) Before you came to Japan, what aspects of studying the Japanese language appealed to or interested you?

Only some students responded directly to the question, whereas the others explained some background information or went off-topic.

The students who responded to the topic directly had expected "survival Japanese," phrases to be practical and useful in their daily life. The Japanese classes for the SS Program were successful in the sense that we introduced phrases of this kind.

*I have learned these 'must-known' Japanese sentences, which have helped [me] during my stay*

- (3) Tell us about your experience of communication with Japanese people during your stay in Kagawa. Did you try to use Japanese words or phrases? How did feel at that time?

Because buying something in the shopping mall using Japanese phrases was one of the tasks of the fourth Japanese class, many students described the situation about this activity. Also the homestay with Japanese people from the local community was a big opportunity for the students to speak and listen to Japanese expressions. Many of the host families had no English language proficiency, and the students needed to communicate with them only in the Japanese language.

*... when I was with host family, I tried to speak Japanese. Because I'm [was] very impress[ed] to[by] them, I want[ed] to be able good communication [to communicate] with them. And this is another powerful inspiration [motivation] which make [made] me want to study Japanese language more and more.*

*From Japanese lecture which I had in here, I learned just simple conversation phrases. This is not enough for long communication with Japanese people, of course. But I can say some words for shopping, apologize and appreciation.*

These are the examples of successful communication in Japanese. A student used the word "proud" to express the feeling and another used the phrase "felt good."

(4) *Tell us how you felt about your firsthand experiences with Japanese culture?*

*The students' evaluations of the Japanese culture were very high. They used many positive words like "very exciting," "could not explain," "interested," "really happy," and "very unique."*

However they did not indicate about the influence on the perception of the Japanese language that the cultural event had.

(5) Please comment on other impressions or opinions about learning / using Japanese language or about Japanese culture.

(e.g. interest, utility in your field or in your country, study more or not, etc.)

Overall impressions seemed to be favorable according to students' comments. Some students wrote comments that would have been appropriate to the above question (4)

*I hope I can learn Japanese well, so that I may know Japanese culture better.*

*I only study Japanese for a short time, [but] I have mastered the basic vocabulary commonly used in Japanese. When I return [to] my country, I will continue learning Japanese.*

*...especially when I lived with the Japanese for three days, I tried to understand what they say in the Japanese language.*

*The way of learning is also interesting because we did not just learn about word things but we actively guided by other students who have learnt this language before.*

Given that these are citations from their final reports, we must consider that they may be affected by the fact that it was a report for the Japanese language learning class. However, since they connected their experience with a potential motivation for learning the Japanese language, we can conclude that they have demonstrated some increased interest in learning Japanese.

## 5. Concluding Remarks

This research examined the students' perspectives on the Japanese language. We found that after the program, most of the students believed that they could learn the Japanese language though some were less confident about their ability to learning the writing systems. We also found that both their intrinsic and extrinsic motivation had increased.

Attracting international students to science programs taught in the Japanese language will continue to be a challenge. However, this study has shown that an SS Program can work as a stepping-stone in assisting potential students to overcome their initial perceptions about the difficulties of studying science in the Japanese language. It is important to note that we believe that the key factor in developing this new perception of Japanese language was taking part in intensive Japanese language training, which has become a major part of the SS Program.

The qualitative findings of this study have shown that using the language in real life situations, as opposed to classroom only exposure, to communicate with Japanese people living in Japan, can reinforce students' positive attitudes towards language learning. The data on students from various countries suggested that we can achieve this goal more effectively by introducing Japanese cultural aspects to the curriculum contents.

Since it is quite rare for science students to have the opportunity to study the Japanese language as part of a science program, this program should be considered to be a valuable tool in developing a new perception of the feasibility of studying science in the Japanese language for international students. We hope that the students who participated in this program will carry their new understanding of learning the Japanese language back to their home countries and share it with their peers. In conjunction with the successful alumni from our programs, the SS Program students can act as a first point of contact in creating a wider awareness that science students can successfully master the Japanese language to enable them to study in science programs taught in the Japanese language.

As a next step, we think it is important to conduct a broad investigation of the perceptions of international students majoring in science that have not had the opportunity to study in Japan.

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## Appendix : Survey Results

Abbreviations :

SA = Strongly Agree Results are expressed as percentages (%)

A = Agree

N = Neutral

D = Disagree

SD = Strongly Disagree

#	Statements	SA	A	N	D	SD
10	Speaking Japanese will improve my image.	10.0%	70.0%	20.0%	0.0%	0.0%
11	I will not be able to read and write hiragana.	10.0%	0.0%	20.0%	50.0%	20.0%
12	I do not want to study Japanese in Japan.	0.0%	0.0%	30.0%	30.0%	40.0%
13	I do not want to work for a Japanese company.	0.0%	10.0%	50.0%	10.0%	30.0%
14	Katakana is easy to learn.	0.0%	30.0%	20.0%	50.0%	0.0%
15	I will be able to understand spoken Japanese if I study in Japan for two years.	20.0%	70.0%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%
16	Learning Japanese is useful for university science students.	10.0%	40.0%	30.0%	20.0%	0.0%
17	I will be more respected and admired if I can speak Japanese.	0.0%	90.0%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%
18	Learning Japanese will not help me get better educational opportunities.	0.0%	10.0%	0.0%	70.0%	20.0%
19	Japanese skills will help me understand science studies more deeply.	10.0%	40.0%	30.0%	20.0%	0.0%
20	Kanji (Japanese characters) is easy to learn if I study in Japan for two years.	0.0%	20.0%	50.0%	20.0%	10.0%
21	Speaking Japanese will not improve my salary.	0.0%	0.0%	30.0%	40.0%	30.0%
22	Working for a Japanese company means that I will have a good career.	10.0%	50.0%	30.0%	10.0%	0.0%
23	I will not be able to speak Japanese even if I study in Japan for two years.	0.0%	0.0%	10.0%	80.0%	10.0%
24	I want to work for a Japanese company.	20.0%	30.0%	30.0%	20.0%	0.0%
25	I want to go to Japan to study Japanese.	20.0%	40.0%	30.0%	10.0%	0.0%
26	I will be able to make a presentation in Japanese if I study in Japan for two years.	0.0%	90.0%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%
27	I will not be able to read and write katakana.	0.0%	10.0%	30.0%	50.0%	10.0%



28	Japanese will not help me be more scientifically advanced.	0.0%	0.0%	40.0%	60.0%	0.0%
29	If I speak Japanese, I will have more job opportunities in in my country.	30.0%	60.0%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%
30	I will be able to read and write hiragana.	10.0%	50.0%	40.0%	0.0%	0.0%
31	I will not be able to understand spoken Japanese even if I study in Japan for two years.	0.0%	0.0%	10.0%	90.0%	0.0%
32	I will not be able to read and write kanji (Japanese characters) even if I study in Japan for two years.	10.0%	0.0%	20.0%	70.0%	0.0%
33	I will be able to speak Japanese if I study in Japan for two years.	10.0%	80.0%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%
34	University science students do not need Japanese.	10.0%	0.0%	40.0%	50.0%	0.0%
35	Speaking Japanese will improve my salary.	20.0%	60.0%	20.0%	0.0%	0.0%
36	Speaking Japanese is not important for getting a job in a Japanese company.	0.0%	20.0%	0.0%	60.0%	20.0%
37	I will be able to read and write kanji (Japanese characters) if I study in Japan for two years.	0.0%	60.0%	20.0%	10.0%	10.0%
38	Japanese will help me be more scientifically advanced.	0.0%	60.0%	30.0%	10.0%	0.0%
39	I will be able to watch and understand Japanese television if I study in Japan for two years.	10.0%	90.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
40	It is important for university science students to know Japanese.	10.0%	30.0%	50.0%	10.0%	0.0%
41	If I can speak Japanese, I will have a higher salary.	10.0%	70.0%	20.0%	0.0%	0.0%
42	I will not be more respected and admired even if I can speak Japanese.	0.0%	0.0%	30.0%	70.0%	0.0%
43	Learning Japanese will help me get better educational opportunities.	20.0%	70.0%	0.0%	10.0%	0.0%
44	I believe that Japanese is an important skill for a good job.	10.0%	50.0%	40.0%	0.0%	0.0%
45	I will be able to read and write katakana.	0.0%	60.0%	30.0%	10.0%	0.0%
46	I would like to study Japanese in Japan.	20.0%	60.0%	20.0%	0.0%	0.0%
47	There are many chances for me to study in Japan if I can speak Japanese.	30.0%	60.0%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%
48	Hiragana is easy to learn.	10.0%	40.0%	30.0%	20.0%	0.0%

# Proposal for the Methodology for Evaluation of Team Kagawa Project

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## Abstract

Diabetes mellitus among adults is a growing epidemic worldwide. According to the World Health Organization (WHO) more than 346 million people worldwide have diabetes, which is likely to double by 2030. Currently there are more than 16 million people in Japan who are diabetic or on the verge of being diabetic.

Team Kagawa Project (TKP) is a multi-faceted project dedicated for the control of diabetes mellitus in Kagawa prefecture, Japan since 2009. The purpose of TKP was to decrease the number of diabetics in Kagawa prefecture & improve the patient's prognosis; but the effectiveness of this program has yet to be evaluated. Therefore, a study was designed to evaluate the impact and limitations of team Kagawa project. The paper describes a proposal of a methodology to evaluate the impact of TKP on controlling DM by introducing the Logic Model to deal the information flow among inputs, outputs, outcomes, assumptions and external factors.

The study was conducted using a cross sectional design and monitoring evaluation approach. Key informants, academics & administrators from University of Kagawa provided the information about the project during the process. The most significant limitation highlighted by them was lack of proper implication of this project till now. It was found out that the project was still in its trial stage therefore, conclusive evidence showing a significant change in epidemiology of diabetics will take several years.

Keywords : Diabetes mellitus, information communication technology, telemedicine, program evaluation, logic model

## Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus is a group of metabolic diseases characterized by hyperglycemia resulting from defects in insulin secretion, insulin action, or both. It is associated with long-term damage, dysfunction, and failure of various organs, especially the eyes, kidneys, nerves, heart, and blood vessels (American Diabetes Association, 2007). Diabetes mellitus (DM) is highly prevalent disease of people aged 65 and older. Estimates from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention indicate that, in 1998, 12.7% of persons aged 70 and older had a diagnosis of DM, up from 11.6% in 1990 (Harris et al., 1998). Older people with DM have higher rates of premature death, functional disability, coexisting illnesses such as hypertension, coronary heart disease (CHD), stroke (Schwartz et al., 2002) and other complications such as retinopathy, nephropathy, neuropathy, and atherosclerotic vascular disease. Being a chronic disease, it has both early and late complications although prevention of late complications can be achieved by a good metabolic control. To achieve these goals education of the diabetic subject and long term care is essential (Assal & Liniger, 1989).

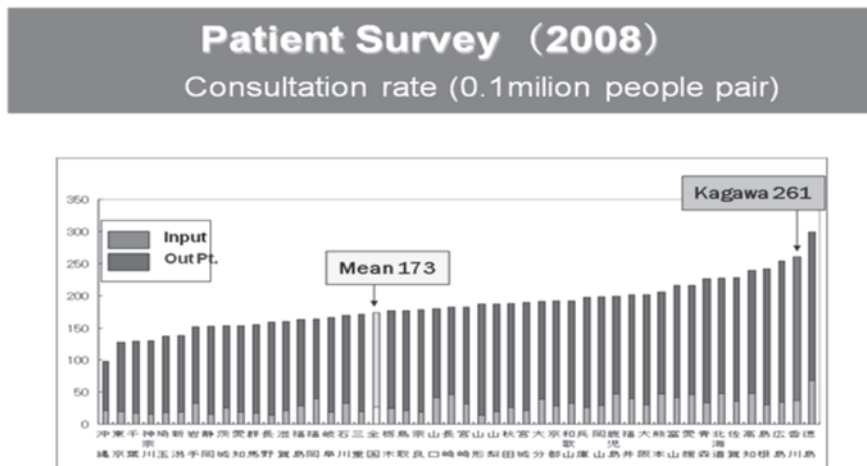
### RESEARCH BACKGROUND

In 2002, the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare announced 7.4 million people were strongly suspected as being diabetic, and 8.8 million people were candidates for diabetes. These increasing rates of type 2 diabetes in Japan may be attributed to a complex of interactions between abnormal  $\beta$ -cell function, thrifty genotype, and change of lifestyle. More sedentary lifestyle, tendency to consume more fatty foods, and more stressful circumstances have been prominent in the Japanese population since the end of World War II. The combination of these environmental changes with the fragile  $\beta$ -cell function and thrifty genotype, characteristic of many Japanese persons, may contribute significantly to the new prominence of diabetes in Japan (Hirose & Kawamori, 2005).

Kagawa prefecture is situated in the northeastern region of Japan's island of Shikoku, where it occupies an area of 1,883 square kilometers. The prefecture's capital is Takamatsu. Kagawa's main crop is rice (Levinson & Christensen, 2002). The prefecture has Kagawa Medical Association (KMA) which has a membership of 1,877 physicians,

organized in 10 municipal medical associations. While the association is engaged in diverse activities, it mainly focuses on Kagawa Medical Internet eXchange (K-MIX), which is the telemedicine network operated jointly by the Department of Medical Informatics, Kagawa University Hospital; the Prefectural Government of Kagawa; and Kagawa Medical Association.

DM in the prefecture is on a rise and according to the patient survey in 2008 by MHLW Kagawa prefecture had the 2nd highest prevalence of DM in Japan. Figure 1 shows the results of the survey.



**Figure 1 Patient Survey, 2008 MHLW**

Team Kagawa Project (TKP) is a multi-faceted project dedicated for the control of diabetes mellitus in Kagawa prefecture, Japan since 2009. The purpose of TKP was to decrease the number of diabetics in Kagawa prefecture & improve the patient's prognosis; but the effectiveness of this program has not yet been evaluated. Therefore, a study was designed to evaluate the impact and limitations of team Kagawa project. The paper describes a proposal of a method to evaluate the impact of TKP on controlling DM by introducing the Logic Model to deal the information flow among inputs, outputs, outcomes, assumptions and external factors.

The study was conducted using a cross sectional design and monitoring evaluation approach. Key informants, academics & administrators from Kagawa University provided the information about the project during the process. The most significant limitation highlighted by them was lack of proper implication of this project till now. It was found out that the project was still in its trial stage therefore, conclusive evidence showing a significant change in epidemiology of diabetics will take several years.

## Chapter 2 RELATED STUDIES

### TEAM KAGAWA PROJECT

Team Kagawa is a project team to combat DM, organized on the background of medical network technology by Faculty of Medicine, Kagawa University. The aim of the project is to reduce the number of diabetic patients in the local population and improve their prognosis by coordinating efforts with Kagawa prefecture, Kagawa Prefectural Medical Association, and various other organizations in the prefecture. Its primary activity is to create the Local Medical Cooperation Critical Path system, through which clinical data such as laboratory results and images of patients can be transmitted over Kagawa Medical Internet eXchange (K-MIX) establishing a network between coordination local family doctors in clinics and specialists at large hospitals.

Many governments in the world have promoted ICT deployment in the healthcare field, especially electronic healthcare information exchange system (Burton et al., 2004; Yamakata & Nogawa, 2011). Japanese government also promotes electronic healthcare information exchange system, but few systems remain to be successful. K-MIX is an exception in the meaning of being a successful case. K-MIX has been functioning with success for more than eight years. However, K-MIX still has open issues to be solved toward a regional health information exchange system.

Team Kagawa also endeavors to "create an action model against diabetes-related diseases" with the aim to reduce the number of diabetics in the local population of Kagawa prefecture and to improve the prognosis through positive educational approaches.

### COMPONENTS OF TEAM KAGAWA PROJECT

Kagawa prefecture is one of the most advanced areas for healthcare information technology. There are four medical ICT projects in Kagawa prefecture :

- i. K-MIX
- ii. Critical Pathway for Diabetes
- iii. E-prescription
- iv. Personal Health Records (PHR)

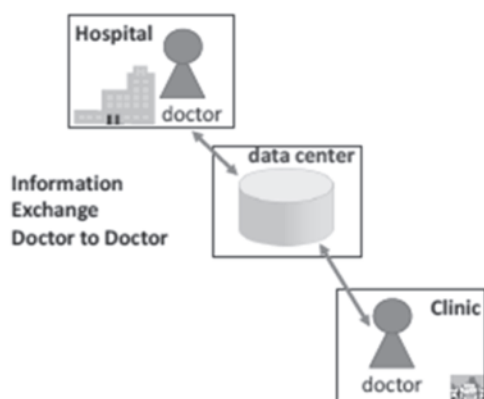
This report briefly examines all of these systems including the electronic health records.

#### i. K-MIX

K-MIX is an ASP (Application Service Provider) type of medical information ex-

change system. Patient's medical information is exchanged between one doctor to another electronically. K-MIX also provides ASP service to regional medical alliance, and has been running for last ten years. K-MIX stores and shares the following five information :

- Patient's basic information (name, sex, age, etc.)
- Medical image (e.g. computed tomography, magnetic resonance)
- Doctor's comment
- Laboratory data
- Files that doctors append



**Figure 2 Information sharing scheme of K-MIX**

More than 100 medical institutions have joined this network so far and many of them are in Kagawa. This network enables doctors/health care professional to communicate easily through internet infrastructure for therapy of patients by providing services like :

- Order of image interpretation
- Communication with patient referral format
- Order of special examination to an advanced hospital from a clinic
- Communication with "Critical Pathway" format

The primary functions of K-MIX are diagnostic imaging support and the electronic transmission of referral documents. This system is designed to accept the use by medical institutions outside Kagawa prefecture, and it is expected to receive proposals from outside the Prefecture (Konishi, M. H. 2009). Figure 2 shows the information sharing scheme of K-MIX respectively.

## ii. CRITICAL PATHWAY

The critical pathway (also known as clinical pathway) concept appeared for the

first time at the New England Medical Center (Boston, USA) in 1985. It appeared as a result of the adaptation of the documents used in industrial quality management, the Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs). Its goals are to :

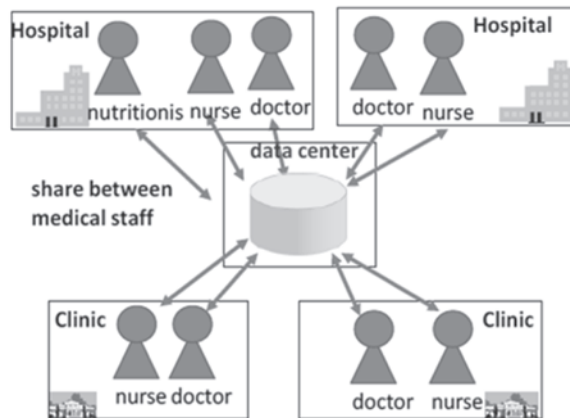
- Improve efficiency in the use of resources.
- Finish work in a set time.

Clinical pathways can be seen as an application of process management thinking to the improvement of patient healthcare. An aim is to re-center the focus on the patient's overall journey, rather than the contribution of each specialty or caring function independently (Murphy & Johnson, 2003).

In case of Team Kagawa's Regional Cooperative Critical Pathway for DM, the purpose is to improve medical treatment for patients with DM. This system stores and shares the following four types of information :

1. patient basic information
2. diagnosis
3. treatment plan
4. laboratory data

The shared data is accessible to medical staffs (nurse, nutritionist, etc.) who were allowed to use this system, as well as doctors. Figure 3 displays information sharing scheme of this critical pathway system (Yamakata et al., 2011).



**Figure 3 Information sharing scheme of critical pathway system**

### iii. E-PRESCRIPTION

E-prescription system is an electronic prescription data sharing system between hospital and pharmacy. E-prescription system in Kagawa prefecture is demonstration experiment. In usual medical consultation, patients receive medicine in pharmacies after they consult doctors in hospitals. Patient receives prescription from doctor in hospital,



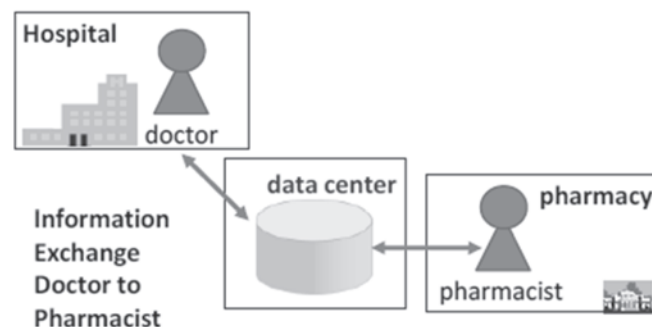
and the patient goes to the pharmacy with this prescription. E-prescription system makes this process electronic, and transmits information via network. This system shares seven type of information : four types are from doctors to pharmacists, and the remaining three types are from pharmacists to doctors. The four types of information from doctors to pharmacists are :

- patient basic information
- prescription data
- disease name (not diagnosis)
- laboratory data

The three types of information from pharmacists to doctors are :

- Medicine change information
- Doubt inquiry information
- Pharmacist comment

Figure 4 depicts information sharing of this e-prescription. E-prescription system is a data sharing system between doctors and pharmacists. Doctors send electronic prescription to pharmacists. Pharmacists receive prescription and is able to send comment to doctor.

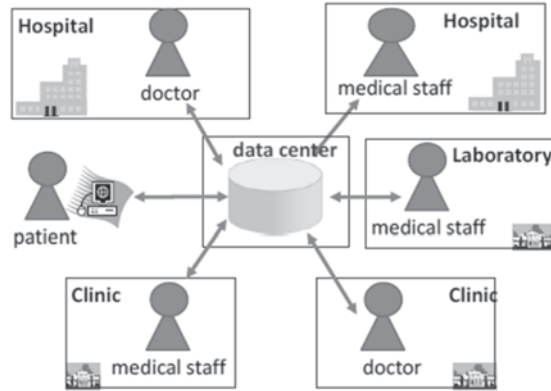


**Figure 4 E- prescriptions**

#### iv. ELECTRONIC HEALTH RECORDS/ PERSONAL HEALTH RECORDS

The term Electronic Health Record (EHR) describes the concept of a comprehensive, cross-institutional, longitudinal collection of a patient's health and healthcare data. It includes data that is not only particularly relevant to a subject's medical treatment but also to a subject's health in general. EHRs have the potential to improve the delivery of health care services. However, the physicians have been slow to adopt such systems (DesRoches et al., 2008). Health-information technology, such as sophisticated electronic health records, has the potential to improve health care (Shekelle et al., 2006). The use

of EHR has been promoted by the Ministry of Health and Welfare and the Japanese Medical Information Science Association for the past three years with considerable progress. Figure 5 shows the EMR system used in Kagawa University Hospital.



**Figure 5 Information sharing scheme of PHR**

## PROGRAM EVALUATION

Effective program evaluation is a systematic way to improve and account for public health actions by involving procedures that are useful, feasible, ethical, and accurate. There are many frameworks that can be used for program evaluation in public health. For instance, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's (CDC's) Framework for Program Evaluation in Public Health provides public health practitioners and evaluators with a practical, six-step approach for effective evaluation ("Framework for program evaluation in public health," 1999). The framework helps public health programs address increased accountability requirements, program improvement processes, and public health decision making. The two initial steps in the CDC's evaluation framework are describing the program and engaging stakeholders. The program description step includes developing a logic model that visually depicts the hypothesized relationships among program resources. It uses program activities and the results to evaluate the program's underlying theory of change. The logic model is an integral part of CDC evaluation framework and has been effectively used for evaluation (Sundra et al., 2006). Keeping this evidence into perspective the logic model can be used for program evaluation.

Many organizations have supported the use of logic model in public health practice. For instance, The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health has long promoted the logic model as a useful tool in an evaluator's portfolio. Because a logic model supports a systematic approach to designing interventions, it is equally useful for program planners. Undertaken with community stakeholders, a logic model process articu-

lates the underlying foundations of a particular programmatic effort and enhances program design and evaluation. Most often presented as sequenced diagrams or flow charts, logic models demonstrate relationships among the following components: statement of a problem, various causal and mitigating factors related to that problem, available resources to address the problem, theoretical foundations of the selected intervention, intervention goals and planned activities, and anticipated short- and long-term outcome (Helitzer et al., 2009).

The inputs in LM include human and financial resources as well as other inputs required to support the program such as partnerships. Information on customer needs is an essential resource to the program. Activities include all those action steps necessary to produce program outputs. Outputs are the products, goods and services provided to the programs direct customers. For example, conducting research is an activity and the reports generated for other researchers and technology developers could be thought of as outputs of the activity (McLaughlin & Jordan, 1999).

## ICT IN HEALTHCARE

Developments in information and communication technologies (ICT) have resulted in an increasing use of these technologies in the practice of medicine and in the provision of medical care (Collste et al., 2006). With the growing ability of modern computers and communication technology to capture and quickly transmit textual, audio and video information, many have advocated its use to improve the health care in rural areas. This can also be applied for treatment at home and in places where medical personnel are not readily available. A systematic review on clinical outcomes resulting from telemedicine interventions found that despite the widespread use of telemedicine in virtually all major areas of health care, evidence concerning the benefits of its use exists in only a small number of them. One reason for the lack of coverage of telemedicine has been an uncertainty about its efficacy and cost. There have been a number of previous systematic reviews assessing the efficacy of telemedicine and related technologies which noted that although the technology showed promise in certain areas; the overall methodological quality of the evaluative studies was low and the plan for the most appropriate and cost-effective use of telemedicine was unclear. (Hersh et al., 2001). According to a systematic review of cost effectiveness studies of telemedicine interventions, there is no good evidence that telemedicine is a cost effective means of delivering health care (Whitten et al., 2002).

## Chapter 3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

The paper describes a proposal of a method to evaluate the impact of TKP on controlling DM by introducing the Logic Model to deal the information flow among inputs, outputs, outcomes, assumptions and external factors. By evaluating this project, important recommendations towards the use of ICT and telemedicine in treating lifestyle related disease like DM can be deduced. Also a critical evaluation towards finding the strengths and limitations of this project can benefit its implications in the future. This study will help to fill the gap in the literature that exists due to the language barrier and give a formation evaluation of the program.

A cross sectional research design was selected to get information on various outcomes and predictors of the project due to strict timeline of the researchers. This design allowed the study to be conducted only at one point in time. The population sub set were the members of team Kagawa who served as key informants to help to answer the research question.

The evaluation was conducted in order to analyze and investigate the effectiveness of TKP during its implementation. This study relied on multiple sources of evidences including :

- Literature review : A brief literature review of various articles by using Kagawa University database, Pub Med, Google scholar, Science direct, Medline and Japanese Medical Association Journal (JMAJ).
- Key informants : Discussions with the various key informants of TKP who had specialist knowledge about the project. They served particularly valuable sources of information it was difficult to obtain articles in English on this project. The purpose of discussion was to collect information from a wide range of people involved in TKP who have firsthand knowledge on TKP. These experts, with their particular knowledge and understanding, provided insight on the nature of the project to the researcher.
- Field experience : Visits to meetings, conferences, and the seminars related to TKP also provided the details about the project.

### METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

Most of the data collection was done by discussion with the key informants, on site

observations in case of seminars and meetings, analysis of various documents and reviewing articles available. Following key words were used during the article/information search :

- Team Kagawa Project
- Telemedicine
- "Health care" AND "Japan"
- "Diabetes" AND "Japan"
- "Prevention" AND "treatment" AND "diabetes" AND "Japan"
- "Health+guidance"
- "Health+checkups"
- "Critical+pathway"
- "Electronic+medical+records"
- "ICT+projects" AND "Japan"

Following search engines were used :

- Kagawa University database
- Pub Med
- Google Scholar
- Science Direct
- Medline
- Japanese Medical Association Journal (JMAJ)

## DATA ANALYSIS

All the information mentioned above was analyzed using the 'Logic Model Framework' in order to evaluate this project. Program evaluation is a systematic method for collecting, analyzing, and using information to answer questions about projects, policies and programs. Evaluation is a systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics, and outcomes of programs. Worthen, Sanders, and Fitzpatrick (1997) defined evaluation as "the identification, clarification, and application of criteria to determine an evaluation object's value [worth or merit], quality, utility, effectiveness, or significance in relation to those criteria". They further delineated evaluation into the categories of formative evaluation and summative evaluation. The current study may be considered as a formative evaluation because the information gathered can be used to improve a program initiative and to determine the next steps in its implementation. While some initial outcomes of the initiative have been examined, the goal of the evaluation was not to determine the overall worth of the program based on these outcomes ;

therefore, this study did not fall into the category of summative evaluation.

## Chapter 4 THE LOGIC MODEL

The Logic Model (LM) displays the sequence of actions that describe what the program is about. The model presents a plausible and sensible model of how the program will work under certain conditions to solve identified problems (Bickman, 1987). The elements of the LM are resources, activities, outputs, and the relevant external influences (Wholey, 1983). Following are the five main components of the LM :

- 1 . INPUTS: resources, contributions, investments that go into the program
- 2 . OUTPUTS: activities, services, events and products that reach people who participate or who are targeted
- 3 . OUTCOMES: results or changes for individuals, groups, communities, organizations, communities, or systems
- 4 . ASSUMPTIONS: the beliefs we have about the program, the people involved, and the context and the way we think the program will work
- 5 . EXTERNAL FACTORS: the environment in which the program exists includes a variety of external factors that interact with and influence the program action.

To evaluate TKP, logic model was used as it supports a systematic approach to understand the impact of interventions within a program. This aids in evaluation of relationships among the various components of a project that could range from statement of a problem to evaluate the impact of causal or mitigating factors related to that problem. The use of logic model has been evaluated in several community based interventional studies and it has given a foresight on monitoring the anticipated short- and long-term outcomes of the projects (Helitzer et al., 2009).

The first step in creating a LM for a program is to state the problem that frames a particular challenge for the population your program will serve. In the case of TKP the problem statement was :

*"A growing number of diabetic patients in Kagawa prefecture and poor disease prognosis"*

Next is to set up the goal which serves as a frame for all elements of the LM that follow. The goals reflect organizational priorities and help you steer a clear direction for future action. The goals of TKP are :

*"Decrease the number of diabetics in Kagawa prefecture and improve the patient's prognosis"*

The input activities of the project along with the possible outcomes were identified after discussions with key informants and stakeholders of the TKP. Based on their feedback several inputs activities were identified.

Table 1 shows the progression of LM for TKP project. The table was constructed using key activities of TKP and assuming their outcomes. The outcomes have been more meticulously described by dividing them into short, medium and long term outcomes which would depict the progression of the project.

The LM also considered some key assumptions and external factors that could affect the outcomes of the project, Table 2 (appendix). The major assumptions were that all health personnel make efforts to contact TK and use the ICT technology provided also all patients contacted during the project give their consent. The evaluator made a list of potential outputs and outcomes related to project activities Table 3 (appendix). These possible outputs recommended an inclusion of community enlightenment through education and health support, the potential outcomes through this would be change in behavior and practice that would lead to a healthier life-style.

**Table 1 Logic model for TKP with key inputs, outputs and anticipated outcomes.**

SITUATION	OUTPUT		OUTCOMES			
	INPUTS	Activities	Participation	Short-term Knowledge	Medium-term Actions	Long-term Conditions
Growing number of diabetic patients in Kagawa prefecture and their poor disease prognosis	Members of TKP Funding - Ministry of Education (50 million yen/ yr) Partners/ Related-organizations	Enlightenment for community medical facilities & residents Development of K-MIX & Electronic Health Records (EHR) Promotion of Critical Pathway for DM Health Support for residents Clinical research for the analysis of pathology education	Residents of Kagawa prefecture, Medical personnel (Olive & Kitagun Diabetes Cooperation Society)	Improvement in awareness and knowledge on diabetes Improved skills on exercise Improved motivation of all participants	Improved behaviour and practice towards prevention of diabetes Improved decision making by medical personnel	Decreased no. of diabetic patients in Kagawa prefecture and improvement in their disease prognosis



## Chapter 5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

As mentioned earlier, TKP is a long term project that is in the starting phase and will continue to proceed in future. At this stage the main results of the project are the initiation of the following activities :

- Enlightenment for community medical facilities & residents
- Development of K-MIX & Electronic Health Records (EHR)
- Promotion of Critical Pathway for DM
- Health Support for residents
- Clinical research for the analysis of pathology
- Education

**Table 4 Possible outcomes and assumptions of TKP**

OUTCOMES AND ASSUMPTIONS		
Short-term Knowledge	Medium-term Actions	Long-term Conditions
Improvement in awareness and knowledge on diabetes for both patients and medical personnel Increase in coordination between institutes and MDs Improved skills on exercise Improved motivation of all participants	Improved behaviour and practice towards prevention of diabetes Improved decision making by medical personnel	(Assumption) Decreased no. of diabetic patients in Kagawa prefecture and improvement in their disease prognosis Decrease mortality and morbidity caused by the disease

Table 4 shows the potential outcomes from the TKP. The findings suggested that TKP is a project that makes use of telemedicine for the aim of improving the overall control over DM in the Kagawa prefecture. Reflecting the use of telemedicine for information exchange as one of its tool for treating DM in the best possible way, but at the same time also involves other strategies like providing education to the community, performing clinical research for the analysis of pathology, promoting critical pathway for DM, providing health support to the community residents. The activities of the TKP improve the awareness of diabetes amongst the community in the short term and in the long term it is expected that the project will reduce the number of diabetics subsequently decreasing the disease burden.

Telemedicine is an innovation that is changing the geography of medical care provision. Telemedicine is regarded as a blueprint for futuristic medical innovation that can

greatly improve accessibility to and utilization of medical institutions and the transfer of medical information (Cutchin, 2002).

Kagawa prefecture is one of the most advanced areas for healthcare information technology. There are many ICT projects in Kagawa prefecture one of which is K-MIX as discussed earlier in the report. Having more than one hundred islands and some under populated mountainous areas, the prefecture has struggled with shortage of medical practitioners. With some governmental actions, minimal numbers of physicians are located in the areas. Though the physicians can cure common diseases, they have limitations to refer their patients to specialists for treatment of DM. Kagawa university hospital has been developing the telemedicine network system to make breakthrough this problem. The feature of this system K-MIX is a structure which have a center server in the network. All communications (e.g. patient referral, order of image interpretation) are performed through the center server, using Web technology (HTTP, Java).

K-MIX was developed as the system for the Internet transmission of patient data<sup>1</sup>, to support the diagnosis, treatment, and the process of informed consent with the aid of specialists. The system started operation in June 2003 as a network of medical institutions in Kagawa prefecture ; it was constructed with the expectation of access from facilities outside the Prefecture. According to a paper published in Japan Medical Association Journal (JMAJ), as of February 29, 2008, the participants of the system include 59 medical institutions in Kagawa prefecture, 2 in Okayama Prefecture, 1 in Hyogo Prefecture, and 1 in Hiroshima Prefecture.

K-MIX is an internet-based transmission system ; it can be accessed from any facility at any place, provided that there is a personal computer with an internet connection. In contrast to the benefit, the use of the internet raises security concerns. For this reason, the network has been designed carefully with elaborate protective measures including multiple barriers to achieve a high level of security.

## Chapter 6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A successful project is more than a quick fix of problems and the same implies to TKP. TKP is expected to be successful and effective in decreasing the prevalence and improving the prognosis of DM. An effective project weighs the below aspects in detail :

- Responds to real issues
- Improves community members' lives

- Incorporates the abilities of those who are served
- Recognizes the contributions of all participants as important and necessary
- Is based on a realistic assessment of available resources
- Aims for specific goals and objectives with measurable results
- Builds effective networks
- Empowers people and communities

Most of these qualities were there in TKP but since some of the components of the project are still in its infancy and are not completed yet. Hence there is not enough evidence available that can be used to back up these qualities. A detailed assessment of community living in Kagawa prefecture should be done for determining their strengths and weaknesses by using community assessment tools.<sup>2</sup>

Having a multidisciplinary team, most of the members were only aware of their part of work but did not have an overall picture of the project and its activities. Many discussions with various key informants of the project were conducted, but they were not able to provide information regarding the various activities and their outcomes in TKP. It was also noted that there should be a list of assets that TKP has for its disposal needs to be made public and shared with the evaluation team to see the cost benefit effects of this intervention<sup>3</sup>.

Currently TKP has a very general approach, having broad goals and not specific time frame to achieve those goals. Setting effective and realistic goals are important for defining the scope and measuring project's success<sup>4</sup>. This also ensures that the project can be completed effectively. Most of the indicators for determining the success and the effectiveness of the TKP are still unknown. Although TKP carried out many activities but most of these activities are not quantified. Together with this the activities are neither tracked nor monitored.

Many seminars are carried out as a part of activities of TKP in Kagawa prefecture community education on DM by visiting community centers. During the evaluation two such activities were done at Sanuki Tsuda Community Center (no. of participants 84) and Sanuki Nagao Public Hall (no. of participants 120). A seminar on strategies of preventing and improving DM was conducted followed by a simple sitting exercise for audience. The seminars were professionally conducted and audience seemed satisfied. Audience was also given a chance to ask questions regarding their health and was given free handouts of the lecture. Some of these activities are documented on Kagawa University's webpage. For improving such activities further, questionnaires should be distributed among the audience to evaluate seminar. These questionnaires can help to

evaluate the activity and improve the future seminars. They may also provide a quantitative evaluation of the change in the knowledge, attitude and practices of the participants which would in turn be used as a feedback mechanism for future improvements.

After setting up of the goals, a work plan<sup>5</sup> should be drafted. A simple, easy-to-understand schedule that documents each task involved in reaching the project's objectives is important to construct. The TKP should appoint an individual or a subcommittee to monitor the project's progress and encourage, remind, and reward those working on each task. There should also be a budget allocation for an annual progress evaluation by an independent project monitoring team. This type of fund allocation will mean that the strengths and weaknesses of the project will be monitored and recommendations to steer the project towards achieving its goals will be easier.

TKP was still in its trial stage and not fully functional at the time of the evaluation, a complete evaluation could not be made at this stage. Timely evaluation plays an important role in ensuring the long-term effectiveness of project. To improve TKP's functionality, the projects needs to document what worked and what didn't and whether the project achieved its objectives. The evaluation process need not be expensive or time consuming but should be done bi-annually. The greatest difficulty during the project evaluation was the language barrier and time limitation. Most of the literature about the project and activities was documented in Japanese language. Therefore considerable time and effort was needed to understand and comprehend the various processes involved in the research. Due to this reason the researcher was unable to analyze the collected data available and also translate the documentation at present that could be made use of for the evaluation.

The project is sophisticated and technologically advanced, but this comes with disadvantages like some doctors may not be comfortable using IT systems. Some may want to use this technology but they don't know how to use it and perhaps they need access to an IT training facility. To solve this issue, Team Kagawa must undertake training programs for such doctors, nurses etc in order to improve their skills as well to promote such kind of technology. With technology comes some shortcomings, like this system can easily be misapplied or misestimated (over and underestimation of system's performance). Moreover some doctors still prefer to use hard copies and fear such systems due to the sophistications which come with it and it may deter them to get involved.

Being a very secure system, it has quite strict security system and one has to go through many steps in order to enter this system. This might be a nuisance for many

users specially the health staff who have limited time and a greater patient burden. Another important requirement to use such a system for treatment of DM is it requires high technology, man power and specialist equipment. These require continuous maintenance and may not be useful in low resource setting.

The team was very open to the comments and remarks made by the evaluator and were positive about them. During the evaluation it was found that the team was welcoming and inclusive. Despite the fact that the evaluation was being done by a foreign researcher; the team always gave value to the comments and anticipated the researcher to come in future and evaluate the project again.

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<sup>1</sup> X-ray, CT, MRI, digitally captured images of skin lesions, fundus photography, referral documents, and laboratory test results

<sup>2</sup> Survey, asset inventory, community mapping, focus group, daily activities schedule, seasonal calendar, community cafe, focus group and panel discussion

<sup>3</sup> Human assets, organizational assets, physical assets and club assets

<sup>4</sup> Effective goals are shared, challenging, achievable, measurable and time specific.

<sup>5</sup> The work plan should list: Specific tasks , Individual responsibilities , Resources , Budget , Project timing and deadlines, Anticipated task outcomes

#### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASP	APPLICATION SERVICE PROVIDER
DM	DIABETES MELLITUS
EHR/EMR	ELECTRONIC HEALTH RECORD/ ELECTRONIC MEDICAL RECORD
GDP	GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT
HC&G	HEALTH CHECKUPS AND GUIDANCE
ICT	INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY
IT	INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY
K-MIX	KAGAWA MEDICAL INFORMATION EXCHANGE
NIDDM	NON INSULIN DEPENDENT DIABETES MELLITUS
OECD	ORGANIZATION FOR ECONOMIC COOPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT
TK	TEAM KAGAWA
TKP	TEAM KAGAWA PROJECT
TLM/LM	THE LOGIC MODEL/ LOGIC MODEL

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**APPENDICES:**

**Table 2 Assumptions and external factors that may affect logic model evaluation**

Assumptions	External Factors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- All health personnel specially physicians makes an effort to contact Team Kagawa</li> <li>- Patient give their consent</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Re-entry of data in the system</li> <li>-Equipment</li> <li>-Training required to use this system</li> <li>-Public policy (government policy)</li> <li>-Economy</li> </ul>

**Table 3 Possible outputs and outcomes of Team Kagawa Project**

OUTPUTS	OUTCOMES
<p>Enlightenment for community medical facilities &amp; residents through education &amp; Health Support for residents (Seminars on ‘Strategy of preventing and improving DM’)</p>	<p>Participants who attended this seminar might have increased knowledge and awareness on DM, its prevention, and suitable exercise that can be performed.</p> <p>The behaviour and practice towards their health was may have improved. Hence, affecting the long term outcome of this project that is ‘Decrease in number of diabetic patients and improving their disease prognosis’</p> <p>There may be an increase in coordination between health care personnel.</p> <p>Common medical records</p> <p>No double prescription</p> <p>Increased equality</p> <p>Increased coverage</p>
<p>Development of K-MIX &amp; Electronic Health Records (EHR) &amp; promotion of Critical Pathway for DM</p>	<p>Residents that are living in outskirts of Kagawa and who usually use regional hospitals have may have a better access to treatment and consultations</p> <p>After taking patient’s consent the doctor working in regional healthcare centre sends the patient’s information to the specialist (endocrinologist), who reviews the information and provides useful information to the doctor which helps him making best decision for the patient using specialist knowledge</p> <p>Doctor’s knowledge on the treatment protocol improves and now more aware of newer treatment options, also the patients are satisfied by receiving specialist consultation without any difficulty</p> <p>Improved skills of doctor and his decision making</p> <p>Cost benefit for both doctor and patient</p>



**Domestic Work Between Two Paradigms :  
Dependency and Self Sufficiency  
An Examination of the Opposing Models of Japan and the UAE<sup>i</sup>**

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**Abstract**

This research note is embedded in a question raised during my visiting fellowship to Japan. I had asked if the UAE, a country fully reliant on foreign domestic workers (1/4 of the national population) could benefit from the practice of Japan which does not employ migrant domestic workers and relies almost fully on family members taking care of their own needs and house chores. During the fellowship period I did many interviews with working mothers, families, and students. I observed school children learning cleaning their classrooms. I gathered notes and references of the changing pattern and level of men's engagement in domestic work in Japan. The question has opened many doors of inquiry about domestic work conception and its relationship with modernity, capitalism and women's work, and how the conception and unfolding realm of domestic work is also deeply connected to the cultural practices in societies. This research note relies mostly on the reading of the survey data accumulated from three Universities in Japan: Kagawa, Tokyo, and Bunkyo. The survey attempted to find out the perception of young students towards domestic work and the level of men dependability on women in such chores.

Keywords: migration, domestic work, gender, patriarchy, family

**Introduction**

Domestic work has long been an issue of much controversy since the advent of industrialization, modernization and women's participation in the workforce. Domestic work can create gender tension, class exploitation, and racial manipulation. It has his-

torically been the arena within which domestic violence of various types and various intensities takes place<sup>ii</sup>.

More frequently, working women around the world, particularly after the globalization of domestic work and the "feminization of migration", are opting to relieve themselves of the burden of household chores by hiring migrant domestic workers. These workers are becoming increasingly one of the new commodities of a globalized world and increasing the flow of inexpensive labor, particularly domestic labor, throughout the world<sup>iii</sup>.

Since the advent of capitalism, domestic work has been marginalized and increasingly devalued. Feminist movements in the 70 s and 80 s attempted to readjust the situation by giving domestic work more value, however, to nearly no effect. The poorest of women now populate the domestic working class<sup>iv</sup>.

As the demand rises for migrant domestic workers, their countries find it a better solution to encourage the impoverished women of their nations to migrate in search of work so as to ease the demand on employment opportunities within the country and guard against popular unrest<sup>v</sup>.

Among the Gulf region, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) in particular is among the countries with the highest demand for domestic workers and the highest population of incoming global migrants. According to the UN migration statistics of 2013, the UAE has 7.8 million migrants<sup>vi</sup>. 236,500 of them are domestic workers, as indicated by the International Labor Force statistics of 2008<sup>vii</sup>.

### Aim of the Study

This study is set to examine two models of domestic work: one is almost fully-reliable on migrant domestic workers to fulfil domestic chores and responsibilities, and the other is almost fully-reliable on internal resources and self-sustainability. The dependency (on migrant domestic workers) model is that of the UAE, while the other is Japan.

The study was inspired by my interest as an Emirati scholar visiting Japan in the Japanese model of domestic work and the influence of state dependency on or independence from migrant labor. The purpose of this study to examine whether the UAE may

benefit from the Japanese model's very modest reliance on domestic workers.

In October 2010, the total population of Japan reached approximately 128,056,000, according to the Japanese population census. Of that figure, only 0.2% of the population were non-Japanese. The annual increase in non-nationals has been growing at a very low rate of 0.2% since 2005 and, subsequently, at an annual rate of 0.05%. Japan is an aging society. Nevertheless, Japan has a minimum to almost zero dependency on migrant workers in the domestic-work domain. The end of 2008 estimated the number of registered non-Japanese national residents to be 2,217,000 (1.7% of Japan's total population)<sup>viii</sup>.

The situation of dependency on foreign labor in the UAE is dramatically opposite to that in Japan. According to the latest 2013 statistics, the UAE has the fifth-largest international migrant stock in the world, a total of 7.8 million migrants out of a total population of 9.2 million residents, according to estimates produced by the United Nations (UN)<sup>ix</sup>. With this high percentage of foreign labor, the nationals become the minority in their own country (Nationals make less than 10% of the whole population)<sup>x</sup>.

At the time of full completion, the study compares the two models with an aim to finding out how much a fully-dependent model of continuous growth of foreign domestic labor, and total dependence on the global market supply, can learn from an entirely opposite practice, the Japanese model.

## Methodology

The study is based on two different surveys, one administered in Dubai-UAE, and the second in Japan. Both are mainly based on interviewing University students and family members of both countries. The two surveys are not comparable in questions, goals and approaches. Each had a different approach and questionnaires. Yet both learn from each other. In this research note, I will only present the Japan students surveys and will not address the other in-depth interviews and field work administered at different localities in Japan.

In this work, only some of the general findings to the UAE case will be presented. It is only to provide a background to the study. Most of this study addresses the find-

ings of the quantitative survey administered at Japanese Universities.

Looking at both Emirati and Japanese societies, it is evident that both operate around a strong patriarchal family structure, one in which women are seen as the primary, if not the sole, caregivers and are responsible for household chores and taking care of the needs of the family.

Before initiating this study, or trying to learn from the Japanese model, I conducted a study of the impact of globalization on the UAE family. The study was based on the outcome of a survey spanning over 240 female and male students and their respective parents, presenting their views on the impact of globalization on the Emirati family. One of the main issues examined through this study was the abundance of domestic workers in the UAE.

According to this study, 93% of UAE families have domestic workers. 63% of UAE families believe that the UAE family cannot survive without domestic help. A ratio of dependency on domestic workers was calculated which showed that 3.2 to 3.7 domestic workers are serving each family. The high rate of dependency puts the UAE family in an extremely vulnerable position should anything affect the global market and their access to domestic workers.

Many reasons were cited to explain the high rate of dependency on domestic workers in the UAE. One of the surveyed students indicated that "The busy-ness of all members of the UAE family contributes and deepens the dependency on domestic help, and the high standard of living pushes all family members to work so as to contribute to the family income".

Some families acquire domestic help in order to conform to the expected behaviour of people at their social level, their actions based on a need to conform and receive the approval of their peers.

Other respondents also indicate that, as a result of women entering the workforce, the demand for and dependency on domestic workers is on the rise. Some have stated that if the mother is not working, it will be easier to live without the domestic help. The case is different in Japan which has a higher percentage of working mothers.

The figures highlighted in this report reflect the influence of economic changes on family behaviour.

The findings could be alarming if we consider the future wellbeing of the UAE family. A volatile market could render the family unable to function and could cause chaos and instability if the supply of foreign labor is discontinued.

Thus, in the attempt to further understand the reality of domestic work in Japan and how families survive without outside help, I carried out many interviews with working women of different ages. I also visited schools in an attempt to further observe how the Japanese maintain their lifestyles independent of domestic assistance. I spoke to students and compiled data on the reality of domestic work and the responsibilities in their current homes as well as their future aspirations.

This survey shows that the Japanese family, though primarily patriarchal, is being forced to adapt as a result of the pressures of modernity and the increasing need for women to participate in the workforce. The questionnaire was set to find out more about the impression of the younger generation of Japanese towards domestic work. It investigates the main trends with regards to male and female roles within the family.

The sample was distributed in three Universities: Kagawa, Tokyo, and Bunkyo University. Most are considered urban universities, though Kagawa is more rural in its origin. The total number of students surveyed is 194, of them 104 are females and 90 are males, which indicates that 46.4% of the samples came from females; while 53.6% from males. Not all the respondents were Japanese, a small number (totalling 9 students) were foreigners.

The survey questionnaire had to be distributed in both English and Japanese to allow all students to understand the question clearly. The answers had to be provided in English in order to enable their accurate analysis. Most of the questions were closed-ended, as the language skills of the students were not advanced enough to allow them to express themselves in great length in the survey. Very few did include a few comments. The following is a description of some of the data collected.

### Data Analysis and Findings

In order to understand the structure of domestic work in the family of the students interviewed, the initial informative question asked about the status of family members

and work. The survey indicated that 39%<sup>xi</sup> of the students in the sample have both parents working in full-time jobs, while only 38% have only one working parent, the father, and one parent working part-time (the mother). This indicates that close to 77% of the family members of students in the sample are working parents. This conclusion raises the question: who does the work at home in the interviewed Japanese families? Whose responsibility is it if 77% of the family members work outside the home? Also, according to this study only 20% of Japanese mothers do not work. In contrast, 59% of mothers in the UAE (based on the NRF project results) do not work outside their homes (See figure 1 below).

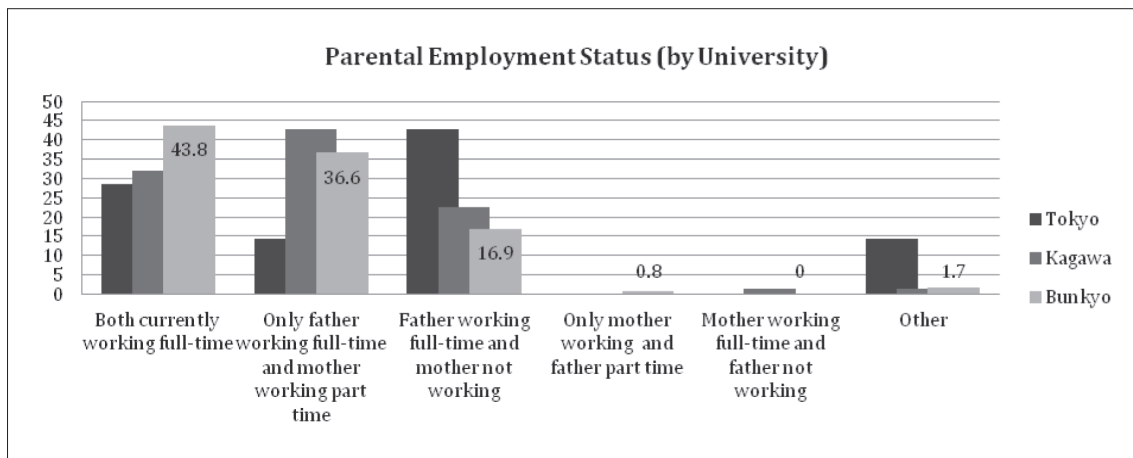


Figure 1

When comparing the rate of working mothers among the students of the three universities to determine whether the mothers in rural areas work more than the mothers in urban areas, the data shows little difference — although the number of working mothers is higher in Kagawa.

The respondents from Tokyo University indicated that 28.6% of their parents work full-time. The percentage was higher in both Kagawa and Bunkyo. It is important to note, however, that the sample of students surveyed in Tokyo is significantly smaller than the sample surveyed at the other universities. It may be that the figures do not represent the general population of the area. In the urban area, approximately 43% of the respondents' parents both work full-time; while in the rural areas, 32% of the respondents' parents working full-time. These figures may determine that urban areas have a higher percentage of working parents. In rural areas, however, a higher percentage of mothers work in part-time jobs as 42.6% of respondents stated that only their fathers work full-time and their mothers work part-time (Figure 2).

When asked: "Who does the housework in your family?", 29.4% of respondents stated that their mothers are the sole responsible person in charge of the domestic work, and 43.8% of respondents commented that domestic work is mostly the mother's responsibility. If we combine both responses, we can say that 63.2% of respondents believe that among all the members of the household, it is the mothers who are primarily responsible for housework.

None of the respondents believe that fathers are the only family members responsible for housework; while only 4.6% believe that housework is mostly a father's responsibility. And only 10% of respondents believe that housework is a responsibility to be shared between the father and mother on an equal basis.

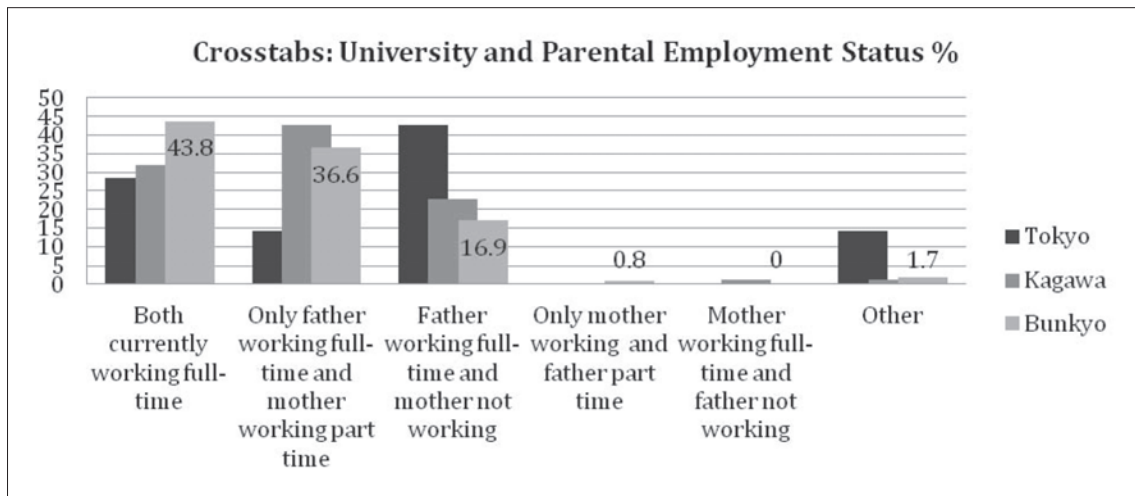


Figure 2

These figures show that 64.6% of the respondents in the rural area (Kagawa) believe that housework is the responsibility of the woman in the Japanese family (25.3% believe that only women are responsible for housework and 49.3% believe that housework is mostly the women's responsibility). And only 9% of them believe that housework is the responsibility of both father and mother equally. Only 5.3% of the respondents from the rural areas believe that the father is primarily the one responsible for housework.

While in the urban areas, 32% of respondents believe that only mothers are fully responsible for the household (adding the respondents from both Tokyo and Bunkyo, 38 and 119); while 41.2% of respondents from urban areas believe that women are mostly responsible for the housework.

The results of the survey show that more than 63.2% of respondents living in urban

areas believe that women are responsible for carrying out the household duties in Japanese families. They also indicate that, among the rural areas, that perception is just about the same (Figure 2).

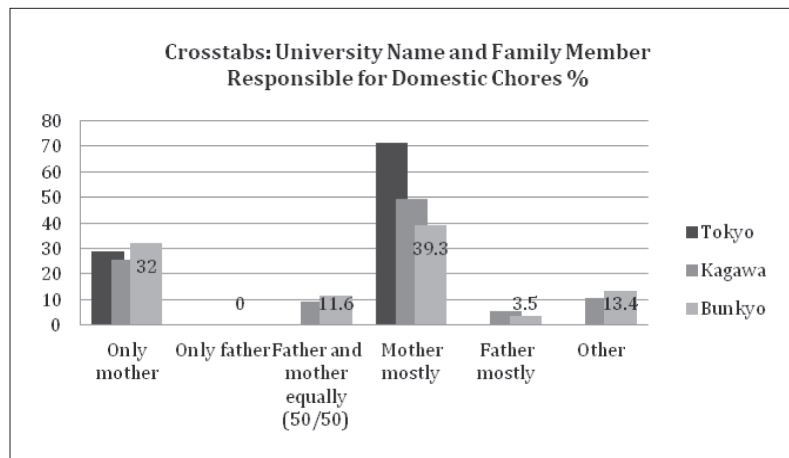


Figure 3

As the chart illustrates, 76.7% of males believe that housework is mostly a female responsibility and it is a mother's job to carry out this function. Additionally, 30% of males stated clearly that only mothers are responsible for housework and 46.7% believe that mothers are mostly responsible. Both males and females believe that a father is not solely responsible for housework. Only 10% of males believe that the responsibility is equally shared between father and mother (Figure 3).

On the other hand, about 70% of females assert their belief that women play the central role in carrying out the housework - 28.8% believe that mothers only should be responsible and 42.3% believe that mothers are mostly responsible (Figure 4).

When asked, "When you were a child, did your family get help with domestic work?", students' answers were mostly in the negative.

This question highlights the level of dependency of Japanese families on domestic workers. It indicates that 60.3% of respondents' families never resorted to outside help for housework. While 30.9% of respondents admitted that their families sought external assistance from members of the extended family, such as grandparents, aunts or others.

In conclusion, the survey shows that most Japanese families never resorted to employing domestic help from outside the family (Figure 5).

If we compare these results with the "UAE Family Under Global Transformations" project, we find :

- 0% reliance on outside domestic helpers among the Japanese families
- 93% of UAE families have domestic workers



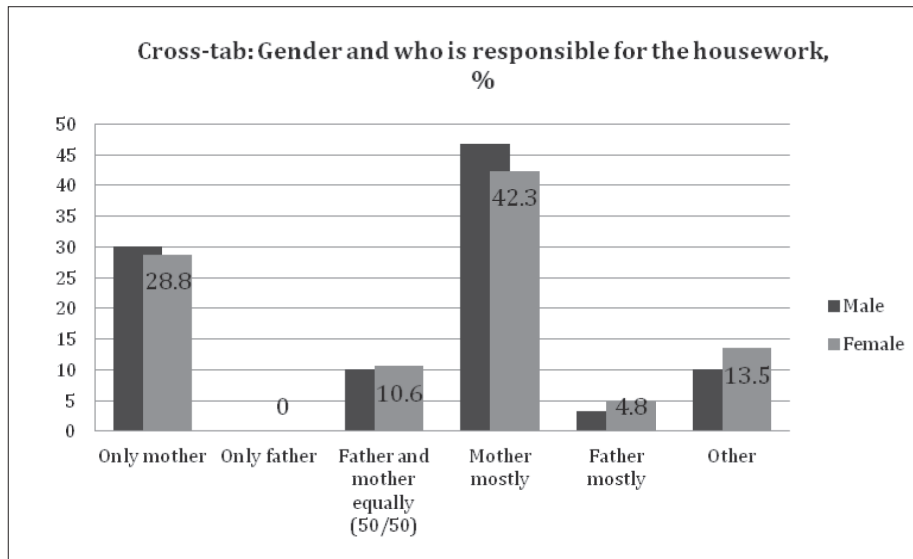


Figure 4

- 63% of UAE family respondents believe that the UAE family cannot survive without domestic workers

Note: "UAE Family Under Global Transformations" project examines the lives of 240 male and female students and their parents.

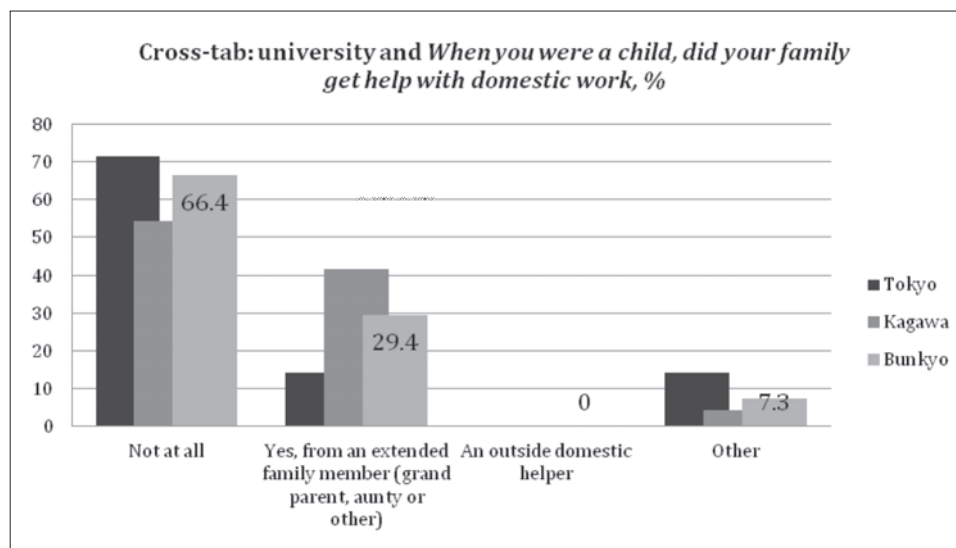


Figure 5

These figures show that 66.6% of respondents from urban areas (Tokyo and Bunkyo, totaling 78 and 117) stated that their families have never resorted to any help from outside the family. While 54.2% of the respondents from rural areas (Kagawa) stated that they never resorted to external help. Additionally, 25.6% of the respondents from urban areas (Tokyo and Bunkyo, totaling 30 and 117) stated that sought assistance from extended family members.

The fascinating result of this survey illustrates that throughout the urban and rural

areas in Japan, the Japanese family does not ever resort to seeking domestic help from outside the family (Figure 5 and 6).

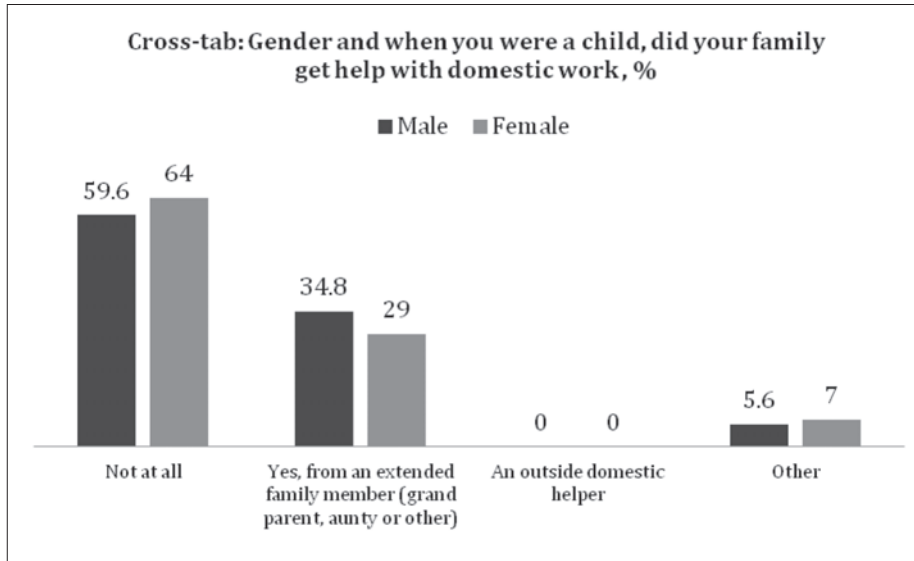


Figure 6

#### Do you do housework at home?

This question measures the level of cooperation within the Japanese family as concerns the household work. While 76.8% of respondents do housework; only 21% do not cooperate with their families in doing housework (Figure 7).

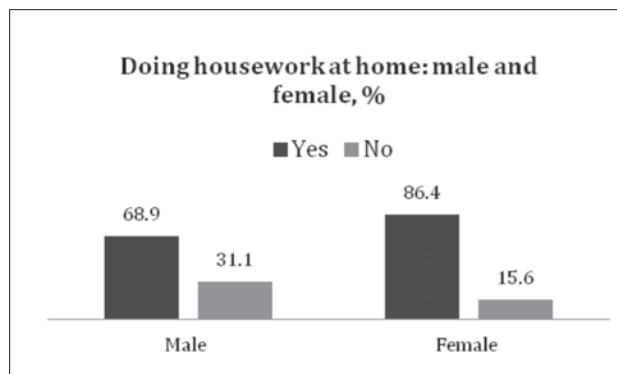


Figure 7

When examining the responses to this question based on gender, it becomes apparent that 69% of male students answered, "yes", while 31% only said "no", and the female responses totaled 86.4% positive and 15.6% negative. Additionally, 60% of those who indicated they do housework are female and 40% are male. Alternately, 66% of the males surveyed answered "no" when asked if they do housework, by comparison to the 34% of female respondents who answered "no" (Figure 7).

Doing a crosstab between gender and the degree of involvement in housework, the

results indicate that 9.7% of males are highly involved in the housework (spending more than 10 hours) while only 2.2% of female respondents so dedicated. However, more males are doing less at home. About 48% of the males surveyed said that they are less involved in housework and only spend an hour or less doing chores. The females surveyed showed that about 31% of female respondents work for an hour or less. Approximately 66% of female respondents are more involved in housework, spending about 2-9 hours per day. (Additionally, 53% of females are working 2-5 hours and 13% working 6-9 hours per day) (Figure 9).

From a general perspective, 46% of the survey respondents spend 2-5 hours per day doing housework against only 5.3% who spend more than 10 hours per day doing housework.

These figures if linked with the high rate of employment among Japanese shows that both male and female are too occupied and have less time to carry out the domestic work (Figure 8).

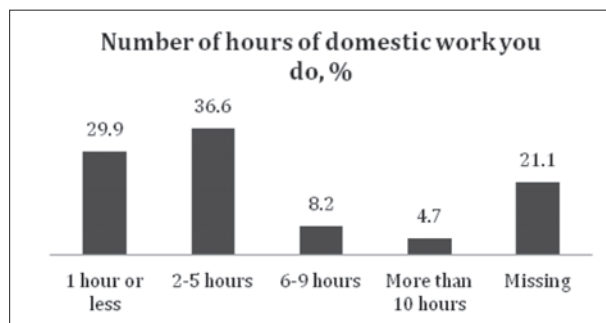


Figure 8

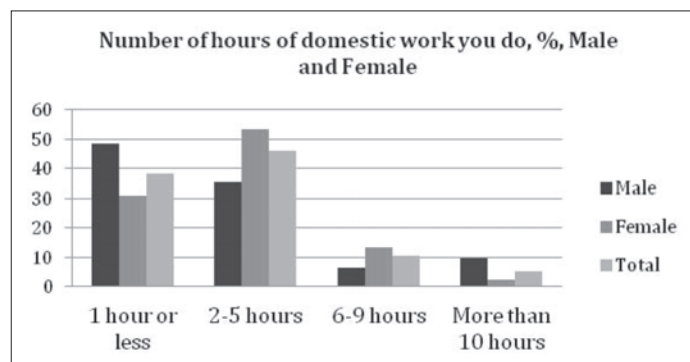


Figure 9

The upcoming question measures the degree of involvement of Japanese students in housework, based on their living location (by rural or urban area).

Name of university and how many hours of domestic work per week do you carry out?

**Students in urban areas :**

This table shows that 43.2% of respondents from urban areas spend 1 hour or less per day doing housework ; while, 44.3% spend 2-5 hours doing housework, and only 7.2% spend 6-9 hours per day doing housework. A modest 5% only spend more than 10 hours doing housework per day.

**Students in rural areas :**

Results show that 29% of the respondents from rural areas spend 1 hour or less per day doing housework ; while, 49% spend 2-5 hours doing housework. Only 16.4% spend 6-9 hours per day doing housework, and 4.3% spend more than 10 hours doing housework per day.

There is not a significant difference between the results from students in rural versus urban areas (Figure 10).

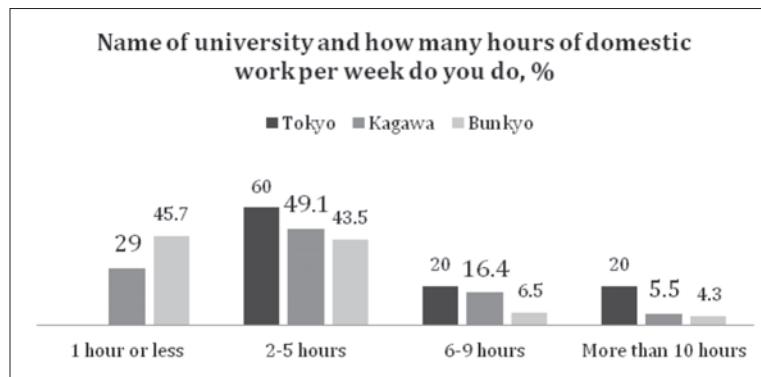


Figure10

**What type of domestic work do you do?**

These answers reflect the level of involvement in most types of household chores among Japanese families and particularly youngsters. 56.7% of respondents stated that they participate in cleaning the house ; 64% participate in washing the dishes ; 51% do shopping for household items ; 47.4% fold clothes and ironing ; and 43% cook. Below is a breakdown of the statistics by gender (figure 11).

Aggregated table for type of work with relation to gender :

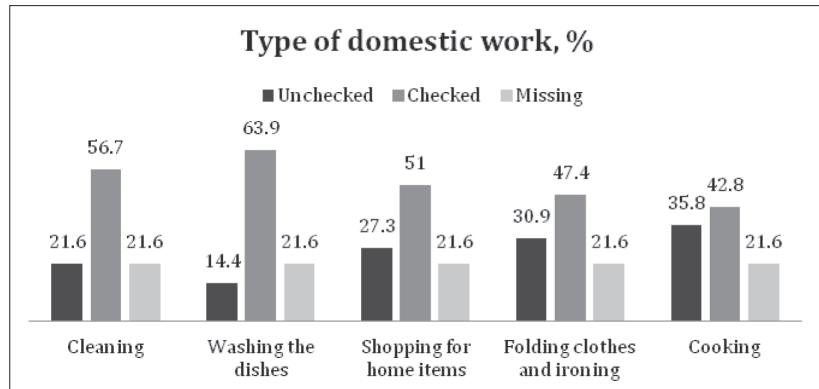


Figure11

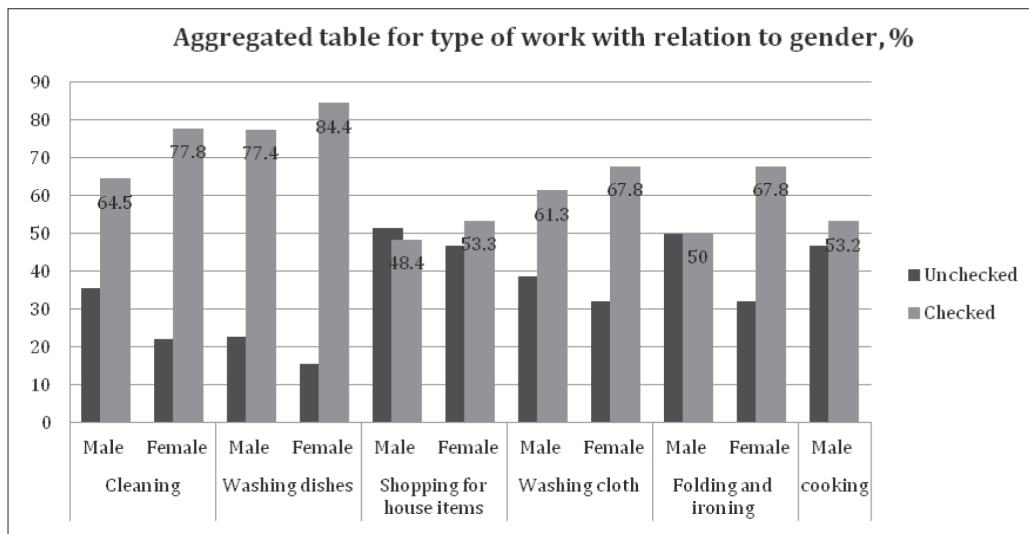


Figure12

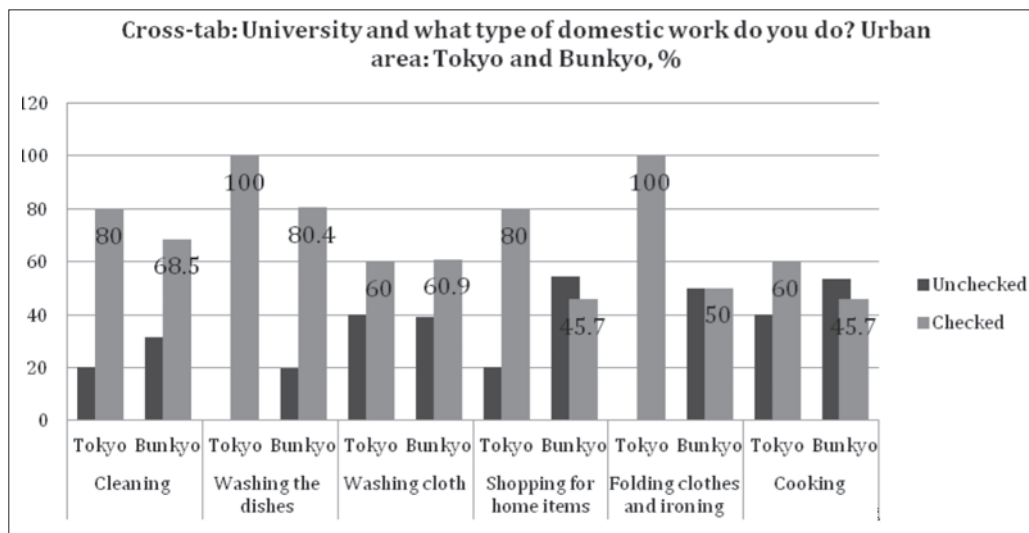


Figure13

The table above shows that both males and females are participating in various kinds of housework. Males are participating in all kinds of housework, but regardless of their participation, females remain responsible for most of the housework in Japanese families. More than 50% of females stated that they do carry out all the kinds of housework indicated above. The housework that males participate in least is shopping for household goods, and the type of work that males take part in the most at home is cleaning (Figure 12 and 13).

After marriage, 65.5% of respondents indicated that they would prefer to do the housework with the help of their partners, while 23.2% of respondents preferred partial help from their partners. In general, more than 88.7% of the respondents assured that partner help is crucial to them. These figures explain that Japanese society favors the inclusion of male participation in the domestic work (Figure 14).

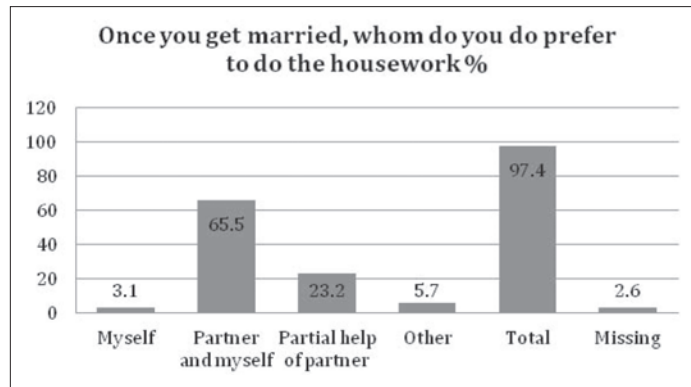


Figure14

The results show that 60.7% of respondents from urban areas stated that they prefer their partner to have a role in helping them with housework; while 25% believe that they need only partial help from their partners.

On the other hand, 70.8% of respondents from rural areas believe that their partners have a vital role in housework; while only 14.7% of them believe that they need partial help.

Results show that among the Japanese in both urban and rural areas, the partner is expected to provide vital support with the housework (Figure 15).

When students were asked about the future possibilities of doing the house chores after getting married; the females choose either to do it fully (5%) or fully shared (half and half) with their partners (48%), or only partial help from their partners (44%). Male choices were mostly focused on the sharing choice with their female partners (89.7%). The above results (Figure 15) show that women still see themselves more as

the ones responsible for the house-chores more than men. Less than 50% of the females see men sharing the work with them equally. While the other 50% expect themselves to either do more or do the whole work. However, when it comes to males their choice is to share the work half and half with their future partners (89.7%). Such results show a shifting trend among young Japanese males towards taking part in the house-chores in comparison to the earlier generations of their parents. According to this survey, mothers of the respondents used to do 73% of the house responsibilities. Only 10% reported that their parents used to share the work equally (half and half).

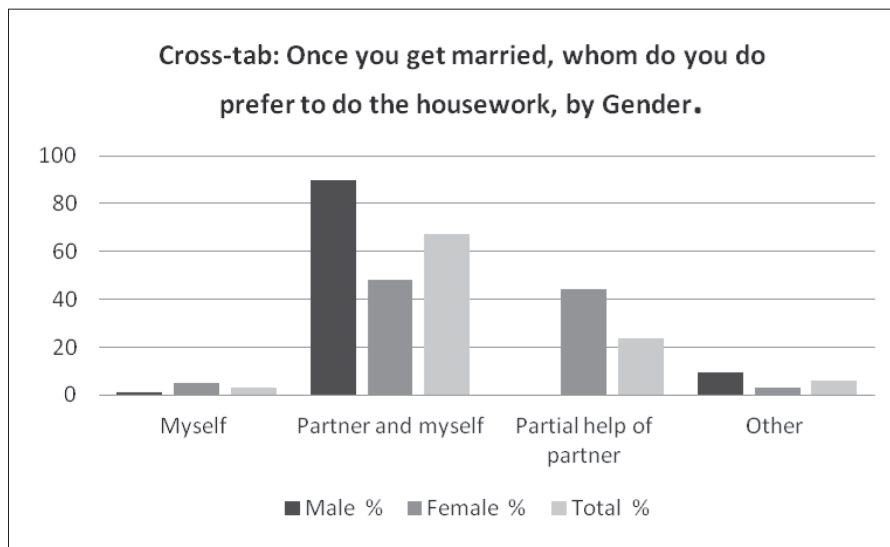


Figure15

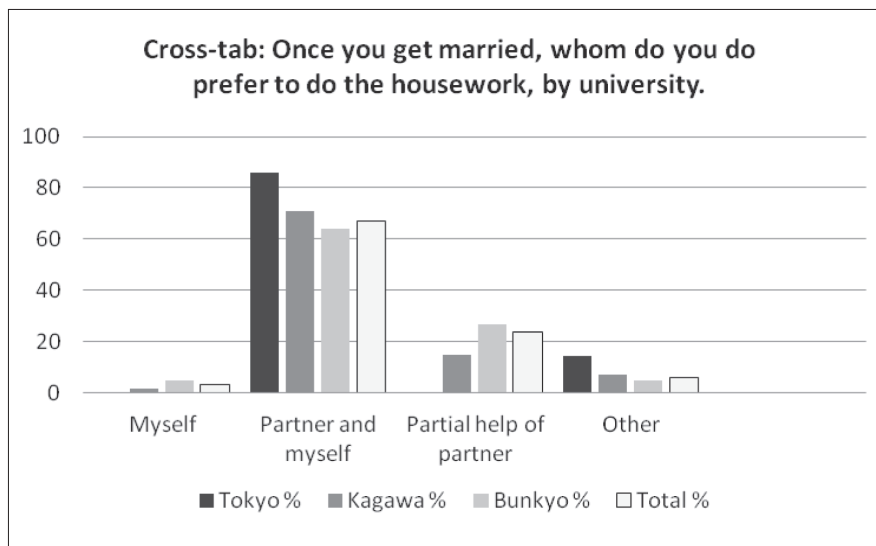


Figure16

The cross-tabulation of the preference of housework after getting married by the universities shows 67% choosing the share the house responsibilities with their partners

(half and half). This trend is more obvious in the urban areas such as Tokyo, in which about 86% of the sample believe in the necessity of partners' collaboration in doing the housework. Also, none of the sample from Tokyo believes that he/she is willing to carry the whole responsibility of housework; while 1.4% and 4.6% are willing to do so in Kagawa and Bunkyo respectively do so.

This survey is showing clear preference among young generation Japanese that partners do share domestic work. It also reflects a greater interest of young male to be engaged in domestic work<sup>xiii</sup>.

## Discussion

This study is based on the element of learning between two cases/realities of domestic work (UAE-Japan). The two are different in their history, culture, aspirations, and mode of development. Yet both have also similarities pertaining to the patriarchal construction of meaning of domestic work and domestic responsibilities viewed essentially as a women's domain. Both countries are today undergoing tremendous changes in relation to domestic work and its gender divided roles. However, in Japan the changes has been affecting the structure of gender responsibilities towards domestic work as it seems reflected in the survey analysis administered among Japanese Youth in four Japanese Universities.

Women who were assumed to be the main responsible persons in a household over house chores and the family in general are today sharing these responsibilities with other members of the family, and mainly their husbands and children. As we have seen in the results of the survey that the Japanese family is becoming a working full working family (77% of families of students interviewed have both family members working, and 39% have both parents working full time). We also saw that 10% of the families in the sample are sharing domestic chores equally. Of course, the culture of domestic work is still under the "patriarchal model" where women are expected to be responsible for domestic chores. In the sample, 29% of the families are still managed by the mothers who are doing all the domestic work.

We also saw how women are still doing most of the domestic work, and particularly the cleaning among other types. The types exercised by the male students (in the sample) equally as the females are washing the cloth and cooking. Another interesting structural change is happening in the young generation, which reflect the shifting of at-



titude towards domestic work in Japanese society, is the large willingness of the young Japanese and particularly males to share the domestic responsibilities with their future partners (half and half). This was not possible generations ago.

What was also observed in this sample is the role of the extended family in Japan, and mostly in the rural areas where the extended family eases the transformation of the family, and the working of women outside the household<sup>xiii</sup>.

Conversely, in the case of the UAE, domestic work is still a female domain performed not by the local females of the family, but by migrant domestic workers perceived as lower status. This reconstruction of modernized family can fit along the wealth and status of the family acquired during the modern time (sudden oil wealth). However, such easy solution is creating a dysfunctional relation with migrant workers in the society in general and inside the family in particular. The UAE is growing a population imbalance, and is also building internal dependency on domestic work. This is leading to the taking of granted of this unsustainable reality by generations of young Emirati men and women. The UAE family is growing more dependent on foreign and alien elements; they could affect the inner safety, and security of the family let alone the culture and language acquisition of children in the family, as most national families worry about<sup>xiv</sup>.

### Conclusion and Future Implications

The aim of the study was deeply rooted in the learning the UAE can get from looking at the Japanese case. Therefore, for this study to bare fruits and achieve its goals, it has to unfold in many levels of inquiries, and future follow-up studies. There also have to be more in-depth engagement on larger institutional levels: universities, government entities and so on. The researcher is aware of the challenges and is taking the process step at a time. Thus this work is a seed in a long-term project. Among the future follow-ups of the project is to observe a group of Emirati students (from Abu Dhabi) who are studying at Japanese schools from kindergarten onward. The researcher came to know about them only recently, and is hoping to follow up their behaviour and that of the family towards domestic work. A future follow up study to engage in is another in-depth interviews with Japanese families in the UAE to compare them to their fellow families in Japan and particularly towards their relationship with migrant domestic workers.

There is a great hope that this project bring in more collaboration on many levels between the UAE and Japan educational institutions, discussions, exchange programs, workshops, networking and possibly holding multiple forms of conferences.

Many benefits could be generated from this study while it is unfolding and getting the knowledge disseminated. Among them :

- 1 . Bringing in new comparative edge and discussion not addressed before.
- 2 . Open the Japanese intelligentsia to another reality of life (under globalization and domestic work), and raise the debate of migration with less tension and more ease particularly when compared to a place that is fully dependent on migrant domestics.
- 3 . Challenge the UAE taken for granted attitude that women participation in the public sphere has to be heavily embedded in a dependency on migrant workers.
- 4 . Bringing positive images of the Japanese society and culture to the outside world and help policy makers using such aspects while building international collaborative programs.
- 5 . Raise the issue of domestic work from a multi-dimensional perspective inside the local countries/families, and outside (in a "transnational" comparative reality the world is living today.

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<sup>i</sup> I would like to acknowledge the contribution of many colleagues and students who helped me in the process of developing this work. First, I like to thank the Japanese Society for the Promotion of Science for their generous Fellowship grant and invitation to spend time in Japan and be able to draw the data included in this research. Second to the JSPS is Professor Hosoda from Kagawa University who has been the real initiator, manager, and great support of this fellowship, and the work as a whole. She tirelessly exerted every effort to insure the success of this visit, and the accomplishment and publication of this work. Thirdly and more important personally to me is the help of Mrs. Asma Mohamed, the research associate, who assisted me in the National Research Foundation grant work, and helped generating the data for this research note through the SPSS program. Mrs. Asma has been essential in providing the help I needed under the busy teaching schedule at Zayed University. Without her, carrying both responsibilities (research and teaching) would have not been possible. I also would like to thank all the Japanese scholars, Colleagues and friends who have supported the work at each

position, state, city and or prefecture. From Kagawa to Kyoto, to Osaka, to Tokyo, they all made sure I meet with students, faculty and engage academically as well as socially. Professor Naomi had gone through all the difficulties of applying and managing the grant and all the logistics attached to it, and the great planning and punctuality. Professors Koji Horinuki, Akiko Watanabe, Namie Tsujigami, Masaki Matsuo and his wife Rie Takahashi have all contributed to this work. I am also grateful to the PhD students who assisted me on many levels (translation among them), and the university students, school students and respective teachers who enthusiastically answered the questions and believed in the purpose of this research and eased its process. I am indebted to the working mothers I interviewed and some who opened their houses to me. The list is long and is not easy to mention each and every person among them staff at universities where I stayed or gave talks, individuals who showed warmth, care and hospitality by going out of their way to explain things to me, to show me places to answers all my questions and inquiries. Thank you all. Without the help of each one of you, this work could not have seen the light.

ii More in *The Sociology of Housework* by Ann Oakley (1974), *Families and Work* Eds. by Naomi Gerstel and Harriet Emgel Gross (1987), *Banana, Beaches and Bases* by Cynthia Enloe (1989), *The Origin of the Family, Private Property and the State* by Friedrich Engels (1983), *Family, Economy and State* Eds by James Dickinson and Bob Rus- sel (1986).

iii To follow up in *Servants of Globalization* by Rhacel Parrenas (2001), *Maids Crossing* by Rima Sabban (2012), *Globalization and its Discontents* by Saskia Sassen (1998), *Global Women* Eds. By Barbara Ehrenreich and Arlie Hochschild ( 2003), *The Global- ized Women* by Christa Wichterich (2000).

iv See also Engels, Enloe, and Oakley Op. Cited, and in addition to *Women's Estate* by Juliet Mitchell (1973), 'Household as an Institution of the World Economy' in Joan Smith and Immanuel Wallerstein *Creating and Transforming Households* (1992), and *Domina- tion and the Arts of Resistance : Hidden Transcripts* by James Scott (1990).

v See *Gender and Migration in Arab States: The Case of Domestic workers* Eds. By Esim and Smity ILO (2004).

vi United Nations, (2013). *Trends in International Migration Stock : 2013 statistics Re- vision*. Cited at : <http://esa.un.org/unmigration/wallchart2013.htm>.

vii International Labor Organization, (2013). *Domestic workers across the world : Global and regional statistics and the extent of legal protection*.

viii Solidarity Network with Migrants Japan (SMJ), (2010). *NGO Report Regarding the*

Rights of Non-Japanese Nationals, Minorities of Foreign Origins, and Refugees in Japan. Sited at : [www.ohchr.org/english/bodies/.../SNMJ\\_Japan\\_76.doc](http://www.ohchr.org/english/bodies/.../SNMJ_Japan_76.doc)

<sup>ix</sup> Froilan T. Malit Jr. and Ali Al Youha, (2013). Labor Migration in the United Arab Emirates: Challenges and Responses. University of Oxford. Sited on Migration information source website, at : <http://www.migrationinformation.org/Feature/display.cfm?ID=965>

<sup>x</sup> The case of the UAE is very peculiar in the world, where the reliability on foreign workers (migrants) is one of the highest in the world. The rate of population imbalance is becoming very problematic. This was a result of the ease policies of welfarism in the state during the Oil era. The state eased the import of foreign labor on nationals in order to provide them with increased sense of security and luxury in return of a full support of the ruling family to keep controlling the state and its new wealth. This ease on importing migrant labor was stretched over to the households, and families were capable of bringing as many since the prices were comparatively low. Today, the prices are not the same, and are becoming expensive for some local families. However, the continuous import is linked to many structural conditions, among them the big size of the modern family, the new standards of cleanness and image of the local Emirati which require more care and attention, the strive to keep the family at a large to medium size, the women increased participation in the public sphere of education and labor force, the resentment of the extended family members to do the house chores in order to ease the women participation in the work force etc... More on domestic work in the UAE is the below bibliography.

<sup>xi</sup> It is important to note that the number is a calculation of the three universities. The same goes for all the figures. An appendix of the tables is attached to the study.

<sup>xii</sup> Contrary to the qualitative data research and open ended interviews where older generation working Japanese women strongly painted a typical image of a patriarchal division of labor at home and where the female members of the society are assumed to be in charge of domestic work.

<sup>xiii</sup> I have seen and particularly in Kagawa, how the in laws of the father or mother live in the proximity and help in caring for the youngsters, while their mom is busy at work.

<sup>xiv</sup> Most local News Papers and magazines, in addition to academic writing coming from natives in the UAE focus on the negative impact of migrants domestic workers on the UAE family. They show how this dependency is helping the creation of an alienated generation from its own culture and belonging. Many write particularly on how foreign domestics can affect the language acquisition of youngsters.

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## Appendix : Survey Results

### 1. Gender

	Frequency	%
Male	90	46.4
Female	104	53.6
Total	194	100

### 2. Nationality

	Frequency	%
Japanese	185	95.4
Non-Japanese	9	4.6
Total	194	100

### 3. Status of your parents' work?

	Frequency	%
Both currently working full-time	75	38.7
Only father working full-time and mother working part time	74	38.1
Father working full-time and mother not working	39	20.1
Only mother working and father part time	1	0.5
Mother working full-time and father not working	1	0.5
Other	4	2.1
Total	194	100

### 4. Who does the housework in your family?

	Frequency	%
Only mother	57	29.4
Only father	0	0
Father and mother equally (50/50)	20	10.3
Mother mostly	85	43.8
Father mostly	9	4.6
Other	23	11.9
Total	194	100

### 5. When you were a child, did you family get help with domestic work?

	Frequency	%
Not at all	117	60.3
Yes, from an extended family (grand parent, aunty or other)	60	30.9
An outside domestic helper	0	0

6. Do you do housework at home?

	Frequency	%
Yes	149	76.8
No	41	21.1
Total	190	97.9
Missing	4	2.1
Total	194	100

This question in below is answered by those who said yes for the previous question only. 41 have answered the previous question with No.

7. How many hours of domestic work per week do you do?

	Frequency	%
1 hour or less	58	29.9
2 – 5 hours	71	36.6
6 – 9 hours	16	8.2
More than 10 hours	8	4.7
Total	153	78.9
Missing	41	21.1
Total	194	100

8. What type of domestic work do you do?

Type of domestic work	Cleaning		Washing the dishes		Shopping for home items		Folding clothes and ironing		Cooking	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Unchecked	42	21.6	28	14.4	53	27.3	60	30.9	69	35.8
Checked	110	56.7	124	63.9	99	51.0	92	47.4	83	42.8
Total	152	78.4	152	78.4	152	78.4	152	78.4	152	78.4
Missing	42	21.6	42	21.6	42	21.6	42	21.6	42	21.6
Total	194	100	194	100	194	100	194	100	194	100

9. Once you get married,whom do you do prefer to do the housework?

	Frequency	%
Myself	6	3.1
Partner and myself	127	65.5
Partial help of partner	45	23.2
Other	11	5.7
Total	189	97.4
Missing	5	2.6
Total	194	100

Cross tabs: Name of university and all the questions:

10. Name of university and the status of your parents' work?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Both currently working full-time	2	28.6	24	32	49	43.8	75	38.7
Only father working full-time and mother working part time	1		32	42.6	41	36.6	74	38.1
Father working full-time and mother not working	3		17	22.6	19	19.6	39	20.1
Only mother working and father part time	0		0		1		1	
Mother working full-time and father not working	0		1		0		1	
Other	1		1		2		4	
Total	7		75		112		194	

11. Name of university and who does the housework?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Only mother	2	28.6	19	25.3	36	32	57	29.4
Only father	0		0		0		0	
Father and mother equally (50/50)	0		7	9	13	11.6	20	10.3
Mother mostly	5	71.4	37	49.3	44	39.3	86	44.3
Father mostly	0		4		4		8	
Other	0		8		15		23	
Total	7		75		112		194	

12. Name of university and when you were a child, did you family get help with domestic work?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Not at all	5	71.4	39	54.2	73	66.4	117	61.9
Yes, from an extended family member (grand parent, aunty or other)	1		30	41.6	29	29.4	60	31.7
An outside domestic helper	0		0		0		0	
Other	1		3		8		12	
Total	7		72		110		189	

13. Name of university and do you do housework at home?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Yes	5	71.4	54	72	90	82.6	149	78.4
No	2	28.6	20	27	19	17.4	41	21.6
Total	7		74		109		190	



14. Name of university and how many hours of domestic work per week do you do?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1 hour or less	0		16	29	42	45.7	58	38.2
2 – 5 hours	3	60	27	49.1	40	43.5	70	46.1
6 – 9 hours	1	20	9	16.4	6	6.5	16	10.5
More than 10 hours	1	20	3	5.5	4	4.3	8	5.3
Total	5		55		92		152	

15. Name of university and what type of domestic work do you do? Cleaning?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Un-checked	1	20	23	41.8	50	54.3	74	48.7
Checked	4	80	32	58.2	42	45.7	78	51.3
Total	5		55		92		152	

16. Name of university and what type of domestic work do you do? Washing the dishes?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Un-checked	0		10	18.2	18	19.6	28	18.4
Checked	5		45	81.8	74	80.4	124	81.6
Total	5		55		92		152	

17. Name of university and what type of domestic work do you do? Shopping for house items?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Un-checked	1	20	12	21.8	29	31.5	42	27.6
Checked	4	80	43	78.2	63	68.5	110	72.4
Total	5		55		92		152	

18. Name of university and what type of domestic work do you do? Washing cloth?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Un-checked	2	40	15	27.3	36	39.1	53	34.9
Checked	3	60	40	72.7	56	60.9	99	65.1
Total	5		55		92		152	

19. Name of university and what type of domestic work do you do? Folding and ironing cloth?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Un-checked	0		14	25.5	46	50	60	39.5
Checked	5		41	74.5	46	50	92	60.5
Total	5		55		92		152	

20. Name of university and what type of domestic work do you do? Folding and ironing cloth?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Un-checked	2	40	18	32.7	49	53.3	69	45.4
Checked	3	60	37	67.3	43	45.7	83	54.6
Total	5		55		92		152	

21. Name of university and once you get married,whom do you do prefer to do the housework?

	Tokyo		Kagawa		Bunkyo		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Myself	0		1	1.4	5	4.6	6	3.2
Partner and myself	6	85.7	51	70.8	70	64.2	127	67.2
Partial help of partner	0		16	14.7	29	26.6	45	23.8
Other	1		5		5	4.6	11	5.8
Total	7		73		109		189	

Cross tabs : Gender and all the questions :

22. Gender and name of university?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Tokyo	5	5.6	2	1.9	7	
Kagawa	34	37.8	41	39.4	75	
Bunkyo	51	56.7	61	58.7	112	
Total	90		104		194	

23. Gender and nationality?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Japanese	89	98.9	96	92.3	185	95.4
Non-Japanese	1	1.1	8	7.7	9	4.6
Total	90		104		194	

24. Gender and the status of your parents' work?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Both currently working full-time	34	37.8	41	39.4	75	38.7
Only father working full-time and mother working part time	41	45.6	33	31.7	74	38.1
Father working full-time and mother not working	13	14.4	26	25	39	20.1
Only mother working and father part time	0		1		1	
Mother working full-time and father not working	0		1		1	
Other	2		2		4	
Total	90		104		194	

25. Gender and who does the housework in your family?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Only mother	27	30	30	28.8	57	29.4
Only father	0		0		0	
Father and mother equally (50/50)	9	10	11	10.6	20	10.3
Mother mostly	42	46.7	44	42.3	86	44.3
Father mostly	3		5		8	4.1
Other	9		14		23	
Total	90		104		194	

26. Gender and when you were a child, did you family get help with domestic work?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Not at all	53	59.6	64	64	117	61.9
Yes, from an extended family member (grand parent, aunty or other)	31	34.8	29	29	60	31.7
An outside domestic helper	0		0		0	
Other	5		7		12	
Total	89		100		189	

27. Gender and do you do housework at home?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Yes	60	68.9	89	86.4	149	78.4
No	27	31.1	14	15.6	41	21.6
Total	87		103		190	

28. Gender and how many hours of domestic work per week do you do?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1 hour or less	30	48.4	28	31.1	58	38.2
2 – 5 hours	22	35.5	48	53.3	70	46.1
6 – 9 hours	4	6.5	12	13.3	16	10.5
More than 10 hours	6	9.7	2	2.2	8	5.3
Total	62		90		152	

29. Gender and what type of domestic work do you do? Cleaning?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Unchecked	22	35.5	20	22.2	42	27.6
Checked	40	64.5	70	77.8	110	72.4
Total	62		90		152	

30. Gender and what type of domestic work do you do? Washing the dishes?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Unchecked	14	22.6	14	15.6	28	18.4
Checked	48	77.4	76	84.4	124	81.6
Total	62		90		152	

31. Gender and what type of domestic work do you do? Shopping for house items?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Unchecked	32	51.6	42	46.7	74	48.7
Checked	30	48.4	48	53.3	78	51.3
Total	62		90		152	

32. Gender and what type of domestic work do you do? Washing cloth?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Unchecked	24	38.7	29	32.2	53	34.9
Checked	38	61.3	61	67.8	99	65.1
Total	62		90		152	

33. Gender and what type of domestic work do you do? Folding and ironing?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Unchecked	31	50	29	32.2	60	39.5
Checked	31	50	61	67.8	92	60.5
Total	62		90		152	

34. Gender and what type of domestic work do you do? Cooking?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Unchecked	29	46.8	40	44.4	69	45.4
Checked	33	53.2	50	55.6	83	54.6
Total	62		90		152	

35. Gender and once you get married, whom do you do prefer to do the housework?

	Male		Female		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Myself	1	1.1	5	4.9	6	3.2
Partner and myself	78	89.7	49	48.3	127	67.2
Partial help of partner	0		45	44.1	45	23.8
Other	8		3		11	
Total	87		102		189	

# 国際経験は身近なもの？

## —学生の海外渡航に関する意識調査—

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Voices of Kagawa University Students on Traveling Abroad

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### 1. 日本人学生は内向き志向か？

今年から官民協働海外留学支援制度「トビタテ！留学JAPAN 日本代表プログラム」が始まった。これは、日本の学生の海外留学促進を望む企業からの助成金を基に、「産業界を中心に社会で求められる人材」「世界で、又は世界を視野に入れて活躍できる人材」となる若い世代に奨学金を提供し、国際経験を積んでもらおうとするプログラムである。選ばれた学生は、事前研修に参加し、留学後も留学生ネットワークに属して留学で培った学習や交流の継続をすることが期待されている<sup>i</sup>。

日本政府や産業界がこうした新プログラムを設立した背景には、海外に留学する日本人学生数が2004年の8万2,945人をピークに近年急激に減少している現実がある。2010年にその数は5万8,060人まで減少した<sup>ii</sup>。これに対して日本の大学側は、急減している理由として、①留年の恐れ、②留学のための資金難、③大学の体制の未整備等があり、特に大学生が就職等のために留年する可能性を懸念することが最大の問題だとみている<sup>iii</sup>。くわえて、文部科学省は、留学先の学年期間が日本の学期制度や新卒の採用時期と異なることも、留学を阻害する主要な原因だとしている<sup>iv</sup>。

こうした分析結果に対して、学生自身はどう感じているのだろうか。学生は海外留学と自分自身についてどのように考えているのだろうか。本報告は、筆者が実施した質問票調査の結果を、学生の視線からみた海外留学に対する思いやそのために必要な要件についての考察を加えながらまとめる。

### 2. 調査対象者のプロフィールと調査の概要

質問票調査を行ったのは全学共通科目「国際社会と日本・日本語」の平成25年12月2日の授業においてである。本報告は日本人の海外留学意識をテーマとするため、当日の受講

者78人のうち、留学生7人を除く71人の日本人学生の回答を分析の対象とする。対象者の所属学部は、経済47人、教育16人、工6人、法2人、医・農は0人、性別は男性36人、女性35人、また学年では1年61人、2年5人、3年3人、4年2人だった。この授業は全学共通科目のため1年が極めて多く、さらに授業のタイトルからして、この授業を選んで受講している学生は国際社会について関心を持つ学生の割合が高いと思われる。また、12月2日の授業の前3回は、大学の海外研修に参加した学生の体験談（1回）と、日本に招聘中の外国人教員による異文化に関する講義（2回）を行っていることも、受講生の国際経験に対する意識に影響を及ぼしていると考えられる。

当日、学生はまず以下の質問(1)～(3)の回答を用紙に記述し、続いてその記述を基に5～6人のグループ内で各自の回答を述べ、最後に各グループの代表がグループ内でのディスカッションの様子を受講者全体の前で発表した。学生はグループワークとその後の代表による発表の感想を(4)に記載した。なお、この調査では、海外留学に限らず、様々な海外渡航の形態（旅行、研修、ホームステイなど）について尋ねている。海外留学に絞って尋ねると、幅広い海外に対する関心を見落としてしまうと考えたためである。

(1) 海外渡航経験の有無

(2) 海外渡航について、①関心があり具体的に計画中、②関心はあるが具体的計画はない、③関心はない、のいずれか。また、その理由

(3) 国際経験を積む意義について、意義があると思うか、思わないか

(4) グループワークとその後の代表による発表の感想

### 3. 調査結果

#### 【海外渡航への関心】

まず、(1)の海外渡航の経験ありは8名、海外渡航の経験なしは63名だった。ありと答えた学生は、海外研修、旅行、ホームステイのために渡航していた。

次に、(2)については、①が21名、②が47名、③が3名だった。①の回答者は、語学研修に参加と休暇中に旅行する計画との回答が多かったが、フィジーでの語学留学の後、3カ月程度ワーキングホリデー（経財、男、1年）、発展途上国でバックパック旅行（経済、男、1年）などの回答もあった。3年次に留学を計画中（経済、男、1年）と「留学」を明示して回答した学生は1名だった。

海外渡航に関心があるが、具体的な計画はないとの回答者は、実際に行動に移せない理由として、治安の問題、資金不足、時間のなさ、言葉の問題を挙げた。興味深いことは、回答者のなかに、明らかな理由ではなく漠然とした不安やイメージが湧かないという答え方をしている人が多々いる点である。例えば次のような記述である。

- 「学びにいくのではなく、単に旅行として海外にいったみたいという気持ちはあるが、まだ漠然としていてイメージがうまくできない」(経済、女、1年)
- 「実際、私の友人や後輩が、海外に行って、さまざまな経験を積んでいることに対して、海外に一度も行ったことがない私はうらやましさや、あこがれを抱くことがある。しかし、一度も行ったことがないゆえに様々な不安があり、実際に行動を起こせない大きな原因になっている」(経済、男、1年)

関心がないとの回答者は3名と非常に少なかったが、授業のテーマが国際社会と日本・日本語であるために、国際経験を積むことに関心がないと答えにくいことが反映し、実際よりも少ない数値になっていると推測される。関心がない理由としては、スポーツなど他のことに集中したいなど、別の関心事項があるためと記されている。

以上から、全体として、受講者は海外渡航には関心が高いが、過半数は具体的な計画がない状況が示されている。

#### 【海外渡航の重要度についての意見】

「意義があると思う」との答えは61名で、「意義があると思わない」の7名や、「どちらとも言えない」の3名よりも圧倒的に多かった。ここでも、授業のテーマが国際社会と日本・日本語であることが大きく影響している点は否めないが、それでも受講生の間では意義があるとの意見の人が多いいえる。意義があるとの回答の理由には次のようなものがあった。

- 自分の目で見ることの大切さ(経済、女、1年)
- 語学が伸び、視野が広がる、自国の文化の再発見(工、男性、1年)
- 体験しないと分からないことが世の中にあると聞いて(工、男性、1年)
- 「グローバル社会」で生きるため(経済、女、1年)(教育、男、1年)
- 日本に来る外国人が多いため、彼らとのコミュニケーションには他国の言語・文化を知る必要があるため(教育、男、1年)

意義があると思わない、どちらとも言えない、という回答者の理由の例も挙げる。

- 「国際的な経験をつむことに価値を見いだせないなら無理に行く必要はない」(経済、男、1年)
- 「リスクが伴い、それがプラスに働くとも限らない」(工、男、1年)
- 「国際経験を積むかどうかは個人の自由」(経済、男、1年)



筆者の関心を引いたのは、意義があると答えた人のなかに、自分の成長のためだけでなく、グローバル社会では国際経験を積んでおくことが必要との意見が複数あった点である。学生の間で自ら「グローバル社会」を意識している人がいることが示されている。

#### 【グループワーク等の感想】

最も多かったのが、今回グループ内で海外渡航や国際経験に関するディスカッションを行ったことで、海外へ行くための準備をしている人が予想以上に多いことに驚いたという意見である。たとえば次のような感想があった。

- 「世界的に見ると、日本人はあまり海外に出たがらない閉鎖的なイメージだったが、話してみると多くの人が海外に行ってみたいという願望があるとわかった」(経済、男、1年)
- 「海外へ留学したり研修に行ったりすることは手続きがたくさんあり、自分とは遠いものだというように勝手に考えていたけれど身近な人が留学の予定があるということを知り、国際経験がとても自分にとって近いものに思えた」(教育、女、1年)

その結果、「モチベーションが高まった」、「自分は意識が低いかと気付かされた」と述べている。逆に言えば、この「驚き」は、日常では海外に行くことについて、身の回りの人たちと会話することがない点を示唆している。友人・知人関係のなかでは同調意識が働くため、人々が特殊と考えるような事柄について自分の方から話題にしにくいという側面があるのかもしれない。その意味で、授業のグループディスカッションのような場は、通常、自分と同じと思っている人同士でも自らの意見を述べられる場合が多く、日常会話ではあまり話題にならない互いの思いを聞きやすいとも考えられる。

また、自分では考えたことがない意見、反対の意見が聞けたことに対する肯定的意見も多い。「明確な目標を持って（海外へ）いくかどうかについて意見が割れ、それぞれの理由が聞けておもしろかった」(経済、男、1年)、「自分のグループ内の全員が国際経験を積みたいと言ったが、一人一人自分のなかで考えている留学（の方法）や（行き先の）外国にちがいがあることが分かった」(経済、男、1年) などである。自分では一つの方向、あるいは一つの理由だけしかないと考えていたが、複数の人たちと話すことによって、物事の多面性が見えたり、多様な考え方があったりすることが、刺激となった様子が伺える。

#### 4. 国際経験について身近な人と語れる場づくり

本報告は、限られた学生に対する意識調査の結果ではあったが、今後の大学の国際化に



対して示唆的な傾向も伺える。第1に、国際経験を積む意義は知識としてかなりの学生に浸透している。その一方で、その思いを實際行動に移すにはイメージが湧かないなどの理由で、思いと行動との間にギャップを感じている学生が多い。治安の問題、資金不足、時間のなさ、言葉の問題等のよく知られた「行けない理由」が聞かれたが、それらの要素以前に、海外に行くこと自体をまだ身近に感じていない点も影響している。

そうだとすれば、第2に、「きっと自分と同じ」と思っていた人が実は海外渡航経験者だったり、真剣に海外渡航を考えたりしていることを知ること（実際そのような人は予想以上に多い）が、海外渡航を、自分にとって遠い人の話ではなく、まさに自分のこととして考え始めるきっかけになる。よって、学生の中の非日常ではなく、日常の会話に国際経験の意義やそのための方法が話題としてのぼる場づくりが、「内向き志向にみえる日本人学生」を変える重要な要素の一つになるのではなかろうか。

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i 平成26年度官民協働海外留学支援制度～トビタテ！留学 JAPAN 日本代表プログラム～募集要項(<http://mext.s3.amazonaws.com/2014/03/8b9feb45a071dc8ae7c40c654a589012.pdf>)。

ii 文部科学省「『日本人の海外留学者数』及び『外国人留学生在籍状況調査』について」（平成25年2月8日報道発表）([http://www.mext.go.jp/b\\_menu/houdou/25/02/1330698.htm](http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/houdou/25/02/1330698.htm))。

iii 具体的には、①には「帰国後、留年する可能性が大きい」（67.8%）、②には「経済的問題」（48.3%）、③には「帰国後の単位認定が困難」（36.8%）、「助言教職員の不足」（26.4%）、「大学全体としてのバックアップ体制が不備」（24.1%）、「先方の受け入れ大学の情報が少ない」（10.3%）といった回答が入る。これは、平成19年1月に行われた国立大学協会国際交流委員会留学制度の改善に関するワーキング・グループが、各国立大学に対して留学制度の改善に関するアンケート結果であり、87大学が回答している(<http://www.kantei.go.jp/jp/singi/ywforum/dai2/sankou3.pdf>)。

iv 文部科学省「日本人の海外留学の状況」(<http://www.kantei.go.jp/jp/singi/ywforum/dai2/sankou3.pdf>)。



## 香川大学インターナショナルオフィスジャーナル発行要項

### 第1 目 的

香川大学インターナショナルオフィス（以下「オフィス」という）の目的に従い、オフィスの事業に関わる教育・研究の活性化、留学生及び国際交流に関わる施策の充実を図るため、『香川大学インターナショナルオフィスジャーナル』を刊行する。

### 第2 内 容

未発表のもので、日本語・日本事情教育、異文化教育、留学生教育、国際交流等、香川大学インターナショナルオフィス規則第2条に定めるオフィスの目的に沿うものとする。

### 第3 編 集

次項に定める編集委員会が行う。

### 第4 編集委員会

- (1) 委員はオフィス教員で組織し、委員長はインターナショナルオフィス長をもって充て、副委員長はオフィス専任教員から選定する。
- (2) 会議において必要と認めるときは、委員以外の者の出席を求め、意見を聞くことができる。
- (3) 研究論文及び研究ノート1篇につき、査読委員2名を選定する。

### 第5 投稿要領

香川大学インターナショナルオフィスジャーナル投稿要領の通りとする。

### 第6 発 行

原則として、年1回とする。

### 附 則

この要項は、平成21年12月1日から施行する。

### 附 則

この要項は、平成23年11月29日から施行する。

## 香川大学インターナショナルオフィスジャーナル投稿要領

### 第1 趣 旨

この要領は、香川大学インターナショナルオフィスジャーナル発行要項（以下「要項」という）第5に基づき、香川大学インターナショナルオフィスジャーナル（以下「オフィスジャーナル」という）への投稿に関し、必要な事項を定めるものとする。

### 第2 投稿者の資格

- (1) 香川大学（以下「本学」という）教員（専任教員及び非常勤講師）
- (2) 香川大学インターナショナルオフィス（以下「オフィス」という）教員（専任及び兼任）との共著論文等における上記以外の者
- (3) その他、編集委員会（要項第4の組織。以下同じ）が認めた者

### 第3 投稿内容区分

下記の5種類を設ける。この内、どれに当たるかは投稿者が自己申請し、編集委員会が審議する。なお、編集委員会の判断により、下記以外の種類で掲載することもある。

- (1) 研究論文
- (2) 研究ノート（：研究論文として十分な論証をするまでには至っていないが、中間的・暫定的に発表しておきたいもの）
- (3) 実践報告
- (4) 短信（新しい見解や解釈、提言や批判、学会動向／参加報告、調査報告等、呈示発表しておきたいもの）
- (5) 書評

### 第4 使用言語

日本語又は英語とする。

### 第5 原稿規格

- (1) 原稿の長さは、1篇につき、図・表・写真・注・参考文献等を含め、A4版用紙40字×35行、20ページ以内とする。英文の場合もこれに準ずる。
- (2) 原稿が20ページを超える場合は、編集委員会の判断による。
- (3) 刷り上がり1ページ目は、研究論文等（第3のものをいう。以下同じ）のタイトル、著者名、所属、要旨（400字程度、英文の場合は200語程度）、キーワード（5語）を含むものとする。ただし、研究論文等の内、(4)短信と(5)書評については、要旨及びキー

ワードの記載は必要ない。

- (4) 注・参考文献等は原稿末尾に一括して掲げるものとする。
- (5) 参考文献等は、著（編）者名、発表年、書名・論文等のタイトル、ページ、発行所を記載する。
- (6) 本文のフォントは10.5ないし11ポイントを標準とする。
- (7) 和文、英文とも指定のテンプレートを使用すること。

## 第6 提出原稿・書類

投稿にあたっては下記の原稿及び書類等を提出する。なお、提出された原稿及び書類等は原則として返却しない。

- (1) 原稿1部
- (2) 香川大学インターナショナルオフィスジャーナル投稿申込書1部
- (3) (1)と(2)を添付した電子メール、または(1)と(2)のデータを記載したCD-R等の電子媒体

## 第7 提出先

原稿及び書類等は編集委員会委員長宛てに提出する。

## 第8 提出期限

発行に応じて、別途定める。

## 第9 取り扱い

第3の内、(1)研究論文と(2)研究ノートについては、編集委員会においてその取り扱いを下記のいずれかに決定する。

- (1) 採録
- (2) 条件付き採録
- (3) 採録否

## 第10 校正

校正は編集委員会のコメントに基づき、投稿者において速やかに行うものとする。

## 第11 抜き刷り

抜き刷りが必要な場合は投稿時に申し出ること。投稿者には投稿原稿1篇につき抜き刷り30部を無料で呈する。

## 第12 著作権

- (1) 掲載された研究論文等の著作権はオフィスに帰属する。
- (2) オフィスは、掲載された研究論文等を電子的な手段で配布する権利を有する。
- (3) 投稿者が掲載された研究論文等を自身の著作物に掲載したり、電子的な手段で公開、配布したりすることは認められる。ただし、オフィスジャーナルに掲載されたものであることを、号数等を含めて明示しなければならない。その場合、できるだけ速やかにオフィスへ連絡する。

## 第13 その他

この要領に定めるものの他、投稿に関し必要な事項は編集委員会が定める。

### 附 則

この要領は、平成21年12月1日から施行する。

### 附 則

この要領は、平成23年11月29日から施行する。

<編集委員>

2014年4月1日現在

(◎委員長、○副委員長)

板野 俊文 (オフィス長) ◎  
ロン・リム (副オフィス長・留学生センター長)  
熊谷 信広 (インターナショナルオフィス 客員教授)  
細田 尚美 (インターナショナルオフィス講師) ○  
高水 徹 (インターナショナルオフィス講師)  
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加藤 尚 (農学部教授)  
塚田 修 (地域マネジメント研究科教授)

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