Organizational Analysis of Japanese Universities: Characteristics of Four Members of the Global 5 Schools

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Keywords 日本の大学, 国際化, 組織分析
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ABSTRACT

Existing literature in English on the internationalization of higher education identifies organizational analysis as a major research area, but the Japanese literature often focuses on government policies and their impact on individual universities. The current studies in Japan fail to provide solutions to the organizational issues facing Japanese universities. The author analyzed four universities of the Global 5 consortium to identify their common organizational characteristics. Designed as a qualitative study, the author employed Qualitative Content Analysis as the main method to collect and analyze publically available documents. The study resulted in uncovering common organizational configurations, and concluded that these characteristics illustrate a framework that other Japanese universities may be able to utilize in their internationalization efforts.
1. Introduction

The number of degree-seeking international students enrolled in universities outside of their own countries has increased in recent years (Bhandari, Belyavina, & Gutierrez, 2011; Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007). In the Japan’s case, the statistical data from the Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO) reveals that the total number of international students in Japan reached 184,155 in 2014, and the top four nationalities (five geographic locations) include China, Vietnam, the Republic of Korea, Nepal, and Taiwan (JASSO, 2015). There are twenty universities in Japan that receive the largest percentage of international students every year; on average, at these universities, 5.4 percent of the student body is made up of international students (Meeting on Education Rebuilding, 2008). Often, international students identify issues related to Japanese culture as one of their main difficulties when studying in Japan, according to studies conducted by JASSO (2008) and Tohoku University (2008). These two studies indicate that Japanese universities as hosting organizations are not meeting the academic and social needs of their international students to facilitate their transition into Japanese culture.

Current research on the internationalization of higher education includes organizational issues as important areas of study (Zha, 2003; Grant & Johnson, 2003; Ellingboe, 2003). However, the Japanese studies tend to focus on Japanese government policies and their way of stimulating and regulating internationalization on Japanese universities (Altbach & Ogawa, 2002; Burgess, Gibson, Klaphak, & Selzer, 2010; Horie, 2002; Yonezawa, 2009). There are only a few studies focusing on Japanese universities as organizations (Breaden, 2012; Murasawa, Watanabe, & Hata, 2014; Ottman & Rogers, 2010). This focus on government policies fails to pay due attention to specific internationalization strategies at the organizational level. While many Japanese universities continue to struggle with assisting international students as part of their internationalization effort, a group of five private universities in Japan, known as the Global 5 (G5) Consortium, have been gaining recognition for their efforts to engage in internationalization initiatives. These universities are Akita International University (AIU), Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), International Christian University (ICU), Faculty of Liberal Arts, Sophia University (FLA-Sophia), and School of International Liberal Arts, Waseda University (SILS). Their faculty and staff have been interacting with each other since 2010, sharing their challenges and experiences through workshops and seminars (ICU, 2012; Waseda University, 2013). This study finds its research motivation in one such study of best practices at four of the G5 universities.

The present study applies organizational analysis as an analytical framework. It employs the organizational theory formulated by Scott (1992) to contextualize the study and to frame its focus on universities at the organizational level. The study uses Qualitative Content Analysis (Mayring, 2000; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Schreier, 2014) to formulate an organizational management framework by synthesizing the G5’s common characteristics. To guide the research, the study poses the following research question: What common organizational characteristics do G5 universities in Japan adhere to in order to facilitate global student mobility? In addition to the objective to identify those characteristics, this study also seeks to investigate Japanese universities as organizations, particularly as research that examines them at the organizational level is rather scarce.
2. Focusing on Japanese university organization

In various studies about the internationalization of higher education, universities are frequently referred to as “institutions of higher education” instead of “organizations” (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Altbach, 2004; de Wit, 2002) and this can cause methodological confusion. To avoid this, we need to clarify the differences between the two terms and establish the context within which “organizations” will be used here. In order to focus on a university as a unit of analysis, this study employs organizational theory in its analytical framework. The goal is to bring attention to university organizations by applying an organizational theory (Scott 1992; 2001), highlighting its conceptual components. Scott (2001) refers to institutions as “multifaceted, durable social structures made up of symbolic elements, social activities, and material resources” (p. 49). In the “structural vocabulary of modern organizations” Scott includes the following: formality, offices, specialized functions, rules, records, and routines (1992, p. 152). Drawing on Scott’s definition of an “organization” above, one can characterize a group of university organizations within one national border as an institution of higher education. Consequently, the present study situates Japanese universities within organizational theory and refers to them as “organizations,” or “university organizations,” in order to bring analytical attention to individual university organizations, instead of treating them collectively as an institution.

According to Scott’s organizational theory (1992), an organization can manifest the characteristics of four different systems: Open, Closed, Rational, and Natural. Scott combines and cross-classifies these in order to formulate four analytical models which represent the nature of today’s complex organizations: a Closed Rational Systems Model (Type I), a Closed Natural Systems Model (Type II), an Open Rational Systems Model (Type III), and an Open Natural Systems Model (Type IV). In justifying the need for such a cross-classification, Scott explains that “[a]n alternative basis for combining the perspectives is to suggest that they have appeared in varying combinations over time and that they are applicable to differing levels of analysis” (1992, p.121). Applied to the Japanese context and to academic organizations, such an approach helps define both the analytical boundaries and scope of this study. It further assists in formulating practical solutions to organizational issues by uncovering managerial challenges and obstacles which Japanese universities commonly face today. Figure 1 below provides a visual rendition of the relationships among Scott’s four Models.

Drawing on Scott’s four models, the present study operationally classifies Japanese universities, into a Type II Model: Closed Natural Systems Organizations. A university organization can be seen as a Closed System, or metaphorically an “ivory tower,” when it has little contact with or influence from the outside world. As a university organization brings together a group of faculty members with a high level of autonomy, it manifests the characteristics of a Natural System (Scott, 1992); this reflects the nature of Japanese university organizations nationwide. More importantly, the Type II Model allows us to consider the coordination of internal organizational resources such as members, specializations, and functions as a structural change within Japanese universities since any internationalization initiative requires university-wide commitment.

Sometimes, such internal arrangements reflect and respond to the complexities existing in the external environment, and resource mobilization characterizes a form of university internal arrangement and resource coordination as a Type II Model.
organization. According to Scott (1992), “Organizations do not spontaneously emerge but require the gathering and harnessing of resources-materials, energy, information, and personnel” (p.169). Faculty members, for example, represent one specific type of organizational resource among Japanese universities as they bring in their expertise and hold fairly autonomous positions within a university. Their high level of independence results in a rather isolated status, which might explain why minimal collaboration is often the norm at Japanese universities. As faculty members’ autonomy reflects universities’ conservative nature, this gives the impression that they function as closed organizations. Consequently, university organizations tend to be isolated from society at large, resisting any change triggered by external forces.

At the same time, the Type II Model does not illustrate the complete picture of today’s university organizations that do tend to show their receptive character to outside influences. As modern universities’ principal mission and scholarship include providing social services (Boyer, 1997), they need to be open to the external environment in some ways. Socially disconnected universities cannot survive as social entities (Altbach, 2004) and different external forces, like government policies, often dictate today’s university administrative policies (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Altbach, 2004; Knight & de Wit, 1999). In the case of Japan, the national government, especially the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), holds strong control over the Japanese universities, and its political influence often dictates their policies and administration, for example, through funding new internationalization initiatives, such as the Global 30 Project (Burgess et al., 2010). For these reasons, Japanese universities are considered to be in a process of transition from a Type II Systems Model (Closed Natural Systems) to a Type IV Systems Model (Open Natural Systems). While they demonstrate the features of a Type II Systems Model, they are also beginning to manifest some Open Systems characteristics.

Traditional Japanese university structures, even those manifesting some Open Systems characteristics, are only designed to serve domestic students. In response to global student mobility trends, they
need to develop their organizations especially preparedness of staff and instructors (Arthur, 2012) to better serve in-coming international students by configuring new organizational mechanisms for university resource coordination and mobilization. Although some research and policy studies on internationalization initiatives at individual universities in Japan recognize problems associated with student mobility and international student support (Ashizawa, 2012; MEXT, 2007; Terakura, 2009), the field can benefit from a new approach - one which examines Japanese universities at the organizational level in order to construct alternative tangible solutions. In other words, should such an organization-level analysis uncover evidence of an organizational process among G5 universities, it could serve as a new methodological approach not only in examining problems but also as an analytical instrument to design practical solutions in Japan. Applying an organizational framework to the study of G5 universities, therefore, could expose possible models that other Japanese universities could share as a part of their strategies in responding to global student mobility.

3. Methodology

3.1 Methodological Framework

This study has been designed as a qualitative study, employing Qualitative Content Analysis as its main research method (Mayring, 2000; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Schreier, 2014). It draws on the assumption that conducting a summative study should involve analyzing qualitative data to uncover common characteristics among the four subject universities when only limited data is available due to the restricted nature of internal data at the universities. A second factor influencing the scope of this study is based on the assumption that an unobtrusive method would be the most appropriate research approach since the closed nature of the four universities limits access to internal data. The present study has been able to investigate several public data sources available through the university websites, among which includes both self-evaluation reports and the accreditation reports. Needless to say, such a qualitative research design comes with its limitations; in order to minimize their impact, specific measures including triangulation, peer debriefing, and bias clarification have been implemented to maintain methodological validity (Creswell, 2014).

3.2 Principal Investigator Role and Perspective in the Study

Since 2002, the Principal Investigator (PI) has gained significant experience in higher education administration in the United States, Germany, and Japan. As the PI has worked on management and evaluation related to the organizational dimensions of higher education, his professional experience in three different national university systems has provided him with unique insights. It also has helped keep his individual biases and assumptions in check.

3.3 Research Context and Subject Selection

In Japan, there are approximately 780 universities which are generally classified in three different categories in accordance with their funding schemes: national universities established by the Japanese government, prefectural/municipal public universities established by local governments, and private universities established by educational corporations (MEXT, 2012). For the purpose of this study, the research focus has been on Global 5 member universities. After the initial selection review, the study excluded from its scope the School of International Liberal Arts, Waseda University. Due to its status as a newly created department, it was exempt from university accreditation review and functioned in an asymmetrical relationship with
the other consortium members. The final selection of subjects then includes four universities and departments (n=4).

3.4 Procedure: Study Implementation, Data Collection, Analysis and Interpretation

Implementing the study. As with many other qualitative studies, the study progressed in a non-linear manner. The PI had to iterate between the study’s different stages and components (literature review, data collection, and data analysis and interpretation) in order to implement the study and articulate the issues and gaps.

Collecting data. The study included three main data sources; the data collection consisted of both web-based and in-person approaches. The PI collected self-review and accreditation reports, available online on the four subject universities’ websites. However, insufficient information resulted in gaps, which the PI sought to fill in by locating additional sources. The PI attended the Global 5 Information Session in 2012, in which all subject universities participated, in order to collect the official print materials as supplemental data.

Analyzing and interpreting the data. The coding process extracts a series of initial themes from the data, PI eventually have formulated the initial thematic codes, which, reduced to merge into similar categories. It resulted in the study’s codebook as a coding paradigm. Several coding efforts for data analysis interpreted the data to present the findings. The codebook has to be adjusted and reorganized throughout the analysis in order to reflect the more accurate descriptions for the study’s results. The study produced common characteristics related to the sample universities’ organizational features.

4. Results

4.1 Demographic configuration.

The present study identifies a high level of diverse demography among the subject schools. The organizational member demography including both students and faculty members is displayed by nationality, and the analysis generates an average ratio of non-Japanese among individual universities and within the study group as a whole. The results are illustrated in Table 1 and Table 2 below.

While the individual schools have different ratios of international students in their demography, the results illustrate a higher level of diversity in their student demography by nationality in Japan. Compared to the average of 5.4 percent of international students at the top 20 Japanese universities with the greatest number of international students (Meeting on Education Rebuilding, 2008), the G5 universities host a higher rate of international students on their campuses.

The results from the analysis of faculty demography illustrate another aspect of demographic configuration. The study reveals an even higher level of diversity by nationality among faculty, compared to student demography. The summary in Table 2 below includes the ratio of full-time non-Japanese faculty by nationality to the Japanese faculty at the subject universities. For the purposes of this study, nationality is understood to mean the current self-claimed nationality and not the place of birth as stated on the self-evaluation reports and accreditation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria/Universities</th>
<th>AIU</th>
<th>APU</th>
<th>ICU</th>
<th>FLA -Sophia</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Student Population</td>
<td>820</td>
<td>5633</td>
<td>2959</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>10512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Student Population</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>2601</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>3321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio (%)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 Student Demographic Configuration
Two out of five faculty members in the subject universities altogether define their nationalities as non-Japanese. The average ratio of full-time non-Japanese faculty among Japanese universities nationwide is 3.4 percent (Meeting on Education Rebuilding, 2008), which reveals a considerable difference between the four schools and the national average. The faculty demographic diversity among the subject schools, therefore, manifests another aspect of demographic diversity which has an impact on undergraduate education among them. These universities have been successful in recruiting non-Japanese faculty members in order to carry out research and teaching, consequently creating more favorable conditions for effective intercultural interactions.

4.2 Structural configuration

The analysis identified six common subcategories, listed in 3 below, which describe the universities’ structural configuration. Although their specific descriptions differ in the reports generated by each university, it is significant that all four universities considered the same six interrelated components integral to their structure.

The subject universities have coordinated their structural configurations to shape their profiles. Their mission statements clearly identify an international focus, reflected also in their instructional language policies which emphasize opportunities for education in a language other than one’s first language. While some universities, like AIU and FLA-Sophia, offer degrees taught entirely in English, others, like APU and ICU, support opportunities for a bilingual Japanese-English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria/Universities</th>
<th>AIU</th>
<th>APU</th>
<th>ICU</th>
<th>FLA -Sophia</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-Time Faculty</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Japanese Faculty</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio (%)</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>41</td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Mission</th>
<th>International Focus</th>
<th>Undergraduate Education Emphasis</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Language Policy</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Bilingual (English &amp; Japanese)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Disciplines &amp; Scholarly Expertise Areas</td>
<td>Interdisciplinary Emphasis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Calendar</td>
<td>Semester</td>
<td>Trimester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School calendar: April admissions for Japanese students</td>
<td>School calendar: September admissions for non-Japanese students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Aid</td>
<td>University Scholarships for All Students</td>
<td>Scholarships Specifically for International Students</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
instruction. In addition, the subject universities favor common interdisciplinary approaches to popular academic disciplines in the liberal arts (AIU, FLA-Sophia, ICU) and area studies (APU). They have integrated flexible academic and admission calendars, providing also funding specifically designated for international students. These organizational measures and coordination possibly reduce the structural obstacles of student mobility.

4.3 Curricular configuration

The present study has identified four categories in the curricular configuration which underlie the four universities’ characteristics: degree programs, language programs, study abroad programs and co-curricular programs (see Table 4 below). The curricular configuration reveals the four universities’ common organizational coordination approach as a shared integral feature.

The subject universities offer familiar degree programs in Humanities and Social Sciences that are international or global and interdisciplinary. Interestingly, however, ICU also offers degrees in the Natural Sciences among thirty-two majors; it is the only university among the subject schools which has a Department of Natural Sciences. The other schools, AIU, APU, and FLA-Sophia, offer degrees primarily in the Social Sciences.

The subject universities also offer language programs depending on the students’ primary language, so students can enroll in either an English or Japanese Language Program. In addition to their language programs, the four universities offer opportunities to study a third language. A review of the available data on the Intensive English Language Programs reveals that the incoming first-year students at AIU, APU, and ICU were admitted with an average TOEFL score of 500 (Paper-based Test), while their peers at FLA-Sophia had an average score of 600. This means that the four universities tend to accept students who are proficient in academic English at the standard North American undergraduate admission requirement level. By coordinating their language programs and organizing them as an integral part of the curriculum structure, the four universities put in practice their instructional language policies advocating an English-only or bilingual instruction.

All four universities offer study abroad programs through international university partnerships as a part of their degree programs; study abroad lengths and destinations depend on the specific degree requirements at each university. Some programs rely on institutional exchange, while others include external providers for managing student mobility. For example, ICU has hosted the University of California Tokyo Study Center since 1969, and Sophia University has hosted the Council for International Educational Exchange (CIEE) Tokyo Table 4 Curricular Configuration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree Programs</th>
<th>Global/International Business</th>
<th>Global Studies / International Relations</th>
<th>Comparative Cultures</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language Programs</td>
<td>Intensive English Language Program Requirement for non-English Speakers</td>
<td>Intensive Japanese Language Program Requirement for non-Japanese Speakers</td>
<td>Third Language Course Options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Abroad Programs</td>
<td>Required for all English-track students</td>
<td>Options for required courses overseas</td>
<td>Optional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-Curricular Programs</td>
<td>Volunteer / Service Learning Program in Japan / abroad</td>
<td>Internship Program in Japan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8 | Educational Studies 58 | International Christian University
Study Center since 1998. The specifics of a particular study abroad program also depend on the importance the four universities attribute to international experience as one of the student qualities in their educational outcomes. For example, all degree-seeking students at AIU, regardless of their major, must participate in a study abroad program during their four years of education; at other universities, the study abroad program is optional. ICU offers a creative program that is part of the English Language Program (ELP): a student can choose to fulfill his or her ELP requirement by participating in one of ICU’s short-term courses overseas.

As Table 4 above reveals, all four universities offer a co-curricular program to their domestic and international students which consists of for-credit academic activities that are often conducted outside the university boundaries. For example, internships are available in Japan for students at AIU and APU, while domestic service learning and volunteer programs are available for students attending APU and ICU. It is worth noting that ICU’s Service Learning program includes an international option. The academic programs and international initiatives presented in this section disclose the rich experience the four universities have gained in coordinating and integrating international activities into their curricula. They also showcase how subject universities’ curriculums are configured to facilitate academic student mobility.

4.4 Student service configuration

The subject universities, in addition to the standard student services available at Japanese universities nationwide, have coordinated efforts to provide student assistance specific to their highly diverse student population: student learning assistance, student support services, and living-learning communities. These services are instrumental in supporting the diversity in their academic communities by meeting the needs of both their international and domestic students.

All four universities provide language learning assistance to support their students in improving their proficiency in the primary or secondary language of instruction (in the case of a bilingual instruction policy). For example, ICU has a writing center to assist the English-track students with essay writing and assignments. The four universities also host learning assistance centers to meet their students’ wide variety of learning needs. As language-intensive programs form an integral part of the curriculum, providing organizational resources also becomes crucial for meeting the needs of their international and domestic students.

The four universities also provide a variety of student support services. Academic adviser systems offer opportunities for face-to-face student mentoring, while extra-curricular activities function as a source of leadership opportunities: peer advisers, resident assistants, and orientation assistants are recruited from local and international students in order to help new students adjust to their new academic and cultural environment. Counseling centers offer further assistance in reducing any stress caused by culture shock and/or academic time management issues, while on-campus job fairs

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<th>Table 5  Student Services Configuration</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Student Learning Assistance</strong></td>
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<td>Student Support Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>Living-Learning Communities</td>
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aid degree-seeking local and especially international students with transitioning to the Japanese professional societies. These services foster intercultural interaction and transitional assistance to the Japanese society overall.

The four universities also manage their dormitories, which they operate as living-learning communities to facilitate student interaction across cultures. All four universities have international dorms on and off campus, where both local and international students choose to live. For example, AIU requires all first-year Japanese students to live with an international student as a housemate, while APU guarantees a residential space for all incoming international students for the first year. The residential facilities of the four universities play a crucial role in enabling international students’ smooth transition into Japan. Together with the various kinds of student services discussed in this section, they demonstrate intercultural environments and configured mechanisms of interactions across cultures.

5. Discussion

The present study reveals four unique configurations of student and faculty demographics, structure, curriculum, and student services. Moreover, the study successfully applies the organizational framework to its analysis, and as a result the study’s outcomes represent a university as an organizational entity. Although the differences in organization illustrate the individual universities’ attempts to address and solve their own specific challenges, what is common, their organizational configurations as resource coordination mechanisms, reflects their shared university features among the Global 5 members. As key features in this profile, it is their distinctive organizational configurations that define their successful internationalization strategies as internationally-oriented Japanese universities.

The results from the data and the reliance on organizational theory to examine Japanese universities as academic organizations has allowed an expansion in the methodological approach to studying Japanese universities, and has indicated possible frameworks. A potential further outcome of this study, therefore, might emerge if other Japanese universities incorporate Global 5’s organizational configurations as their resource coordination mechanisms into their organizational frameworks. The Global 5 universities continue to evolve as Japan’s model cases for internationalization strategies of higher education.

A high level of demographic diversity, in terms of students and faculty nationalities, contributes to creating an organizational setting that possibly is designed to promote interesting teaching and learning experiences. These universities’ curricular configurations underscore an interdisciplinary academic framework which promotes diverse students and faculty members to engage in productive educational interactions in academic settings. At the same time, the complementary co-curricular programs allow students - domestic as well as international - to experience and get involved in the environment outside of the university’s boundaries. In addition, the range of student services at these universities gives rise to

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<th>Organizational Configurations Summary</th>
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<tr>
<td>Demographic Configuration</td>
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Table 6  Organizational Configurations Summary
an inclusive support system, which is designed to facilitate member interaction by identifying and responding to the specific needs of their students. It is initiatives like these that illustrate some key characteristics of a Closed-Natural Systems (TYPE II) Organization (Scott, 1992). The variable structural configurations, such as flexible admission schedules and the adoption of policies promoting English or English-Japanese bilingual instruction, signal methods of internal resource coordination which accommodate member diversity. The latter, promoted also by international university partnerships and co-curricular programs, provides some evidence of Open-Natural Systems (TYPE IV) (Scott, 1992).

The PI has certainly recognized from the outset both the strengths and limitations of the qualitative content analysis method (Mayring, 2000; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Schreier, 2014). In particular, the PI was very much aware of the restraints created by the incompleteness of data sources for the data analysis. For example, one of the main limitations consisted in the ways data was accessed (or made available). As the PI relied on public data provided by each of the four universities (university reports), it was impossible to evaluate the reliability of each university’s data collection process. Employing different methodologies, such as field observations, in-person interviews, and/or questionnaires, would complement the study’s results and allow a closer look into these university practices, something directly relevant to a future critical investigation. Nevertheless, the qualitative content analysis has allowed the PI to uncover the evidence needed to achieve the study’s original goal: applying an organizational analysis into universities and identifying organizational characteristics of Global 5 universities.

As this study is one of few such studies (Breaden, 2012; Murasawa et al., 2014; Ottman & Rogers, 2010) to make an organizational analysis of Japanese universities its object, it contributes to a further understanding of internationalization as a process impacted by changes in organizational configurations. Other Japanese universities can incorporate the findings of this study as a possible framework for their organizational reform and development as they continue to cope with the pressure of globalization and internationalization of higher education. This pressure requires attentiveness and targeted responses to university-specific organizational needs and resources.

6. Conclusion

This is a summative study that aimed to uncover common characteristics at four private Japanese universities that have received recognition for their internationalization strategies. An aim of this study was to explore university orientation among some of the G5 members within the framework of organizational analysis. The main findings have revealed that the four subject schools have implemented a set of specific internationalization initiatives. What the four schools share in common is a set of mechanisms for coordination of organizational resources and mobilization, which manifest in organizational configurations designed to accommodate diverse demographics, which favor open-system characteristics in structural, academic and co-curricular programs and student services. As global student mobility increases, and with it a possible increase in degree-seeking international students in Japan, the country’s universities can be expected to put forth efforts such as described herein to secure their capacity to manage organizational diversity.

References


