

Bridging Internationalization Goals Through Future Selves: A Focus on Japan

Andrew Nowlan

Pages 95-111 | Received: February 22, 2019, Received in revised form: June 30, 2019, Accepted: June 13, 2019

ABSTRACT

Japan's higher education institutions (HEIs) are making efforts to become more internationalized, in order to foster global human resources (West, 2015). Despite government-driven initiatives to make HEIs more international through increased inbound and outbound study abroad participation, there continues to be a discrepancy between the contemporary goals of internationalization. Knight (2004; 2015a) stipulates the integration of an international dimension into the purpose, functions, and delivery of post-secondary education, while the government's primary internationalization objective involves higher global rankings by sending more Japanese students abroad and orchestrating a greater foreign presence on Japanese campuses (Yonezawa, 2014). With the aim of contributing to a more effective brand of higher education internationalization that reconciles these conflicting interpretations, this research-based report will summarize a case study involving five Japanese graduate students taking an English-language elective course on intercultural communication. Through semi-structured email exchanges, an online questionnaire, and the International Preferences Indicator (IPI) tool, participants were asked to reflect on their international and professional experiences, and to examine their future selves to determine which intercultural competences and communication skills would be most important for their hypothetical future international roles (Ewington & Hill, 2012). While the five participants had different professional and academic ambitions, thematic analysis was employed to identify common themes regarding the intercultural competences that they desired, yet lacked. As a central observation, participants considered the communicative push competence of *exposing intentions* as critical to their future roles; however, according to the IPI, students dedicated little energy to enhancing this skill. In reflecting on the intervention, the five participants shared thoughts on how they have become better equipped to succeed in their future role, and how they might dedicate more energy to dimensions that are crucial for future success, including exposing intentions, *resiliency*, and being *attuned*. This study provides a rationale for integrating future selves and an instrument like the IPI into an internationalized curriculum, that could potentially foster intercultural communicative competences while bridging conflicting internationalization ideals.

KEYWORDS: Future selves, Higher education, Intercultural communication, Internationalization, Japan

Introduction

As the global network of higher education institutions (HEIs) becomes increasingly connected; English has emerged as the lingua franca in various capacities, including government, business, and higher education. The prominence of English in Japan's education system has been prevalent since internationalization initiatives began in the 1980s. Especially in higher education, an English First mentality was introduced in the early 1980s as part of education reforms that considered English as a gateway to the rest of the world (Kubota, 2015). More recently, English as a second language (L2) has become more integrated into school curricula following the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology's (MEXT) 2003 action plan to cultivate Japanese citizens who can effectively use English (Fujimoto & Adamson, 2006). This program involved language targets to be assimilated at the different levels of schooling, including high schools, where multiple courses (e.g. mathematics) would be taught in English. In addition to the education system, Japanese multinationals, such as retailers Uniqlo and Rakuten, have implemented English-only policies in order to become more global (Brown, 2014). While L2 skills are often at the core of policies to become more international, the fostering of intercultural competences can be overlooked.

The importance of developing intercultural competences should not be discounted, as its key indicators include global mindedness, openness to diversity and intercultural sensitivity (Clarke III, Flaherty, Wright, & McMillen, 2009; Deardorff, 2011). There are numerous

challenges involved with cultivating intercultural competences in Japan. Japanese society has been described as collectivistic; bearing a herd mentality where citizens tend to follow the lead of the majority (Hinenoya & Gatbonton, 2000; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Tsuneyoshi, 1992). Being an ageing society, political change in Japan is difficult to realize due to the unparalleled large proportion of Japanese elderly; however, higher education students could potentially act as the vanguard to change for future generations. Furthermore, Japan is a high-context culture, where uttered words can contain significant non-vocalized meanings depending on the situation, tone, and context. For instance, if asking permission to do something, a Japanese person may answer "it is difficult...". While someone from a low-context society might interpret this as a possible or reluctant "yes", the meaning in Japan is often "no". In this case, the Japanese speaker would not want to use such direct, and possibly rude, language. Based on a study of national culture, Japanese society has been defined as uncertainty avoiding, risk-averse, hard-working, and oriented towards the long term (Hofstede et al., 2010). These unique cultural attributes reflect the need to develop intercultural competences, especially for those who wish to engage in the global workforce.

Considering the challenges involved with fostering intercultural competences in Japanese HEIs, this paper will attempt to address the following research questions:

1. How do participants perceive various intercultural competences and

communication skills that may contribute to success in their future international role?

2. What impact has the international preferences indicator (IPI), and accompanying activities, had on the future selves of participants and their motivation to succeed in their future international role?

3. How can Japanese university classes promote a more effective brand of internationalization in Japan, that satisfies the conflicting interpretations of internationalization?

In answering these questions, an overview of the conflicting interpretations of internationalization will be summarized, followed by an introduction of intercultural communicative competence, and the concept of future selves.

Literature review

Internationalization

In the domain of higher education studies, the concept of internationalization is broadly applied, and there is much criticism over how it should be defined and operationalized in HEIs (de Wit, Hunter, Howard, & Egron-Polak, 2007). Knight (2015a) proposes that internationalization is “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (p. 2). Altbach (2015a) concludes that internationalization is largely misunderstood as its goals shift, depending on economic and political climes. Altbach’s contributions (2015a; 2015b; Altbach & de Wit, 2015) in conjunction with contemporary global trends, would suggest that

internationalization is fluid and rooted in the constantly changing face of culture within global contexts. This corroborates Knight’s interpretation that defines internationalization as a process that is “ongoing and continuous” (2015a, p. 2). Knight (2004, 2011; 2015a; 2015b) expresses skepticism about how internationalization is being interpreted and applied as HEIs are shifting their application of internationalization from one embedded in the pursuit of academic excellence towards more superficial goals of status building and achieving higher global rankings.

Japanese stakeholders at the government level have recognized the difficulty in defining and applying internationalization to national and institutional policy. A study funded by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) asked presidents of Japan’s elite HEIs to offer their interpretations of internationalization (Yonezawa, Akiba & Hirouchi, 2009), and the data indicated a strong focus on developing the country’s global human resources and being more competitive in the global economy. Based on these results from MEXT, the government currently encourages HEIs in Japan to develop L2 programs (e.g. English) that will give students the language skills needed to study overseas. In 2015, MEXT published a list of 10 internationalization goals for HEIs, many of which emphasize proficiency and skill with an L2. Examples include an increase in (a) study abroad participation, (b) classes taught in a foreign language, (c) students enrolled in classes taught in a foreign language, (d) students who meet foreign language standards, (e) syllabi translated into English, and (f) students

who live in an international dormitory (p. 4). While these L2 goals could satisfy numerous interpretations of internationalization, the Japanese government's overall action plan legitimizes Knight's (2011) concerns that contemporary policy—established in the name of internationalization—is being misconstrued. Specifically, in lieu of being rooted in academic excellence, internationalization efforts are instead operationalized to address “competition, commercialization, self-interest and status building” (Knight, 2011, p. 1).

In order to contribute to a higher education pedagogical strategy that may satisfy multiple interpretations of internationalization, the author proposes the integration of intercultural communicative competences (ICC) and the concept of future selves into the delivery of curriculum.

Intercultural Communicative Competence
 The definition of internationalization posited by Knight (2015a) is found at the core of ICC (Byram, 2015). Defined as “the ability to meet and engage successfully with people of another social group” (Byram, 2015, p. 2), and “the ability to use language in socially appropriate ways” (Byram, Holmes, & Savvides, 2013, p. 252), ICC can involve communication with interlocutors from a diverse range of groups. In higher education, both teachers and learners are encouraged to recognize and understand cultures that extend beyond one's own (Byram et al., 2013). Unfortunately, Japanese campuses remain ethnically homogenous, with a small representation of non-Japanese students, often being isolated from the domestic student body

(Keller, 2007; Ninomiya, Knight, & Watanabe, 2009). This current manifestation makes the practice of study abroad even more critical, if Japanese students wish to increase their ICC. Studies have confirmed that students with international experience are able to improve their intercultural communication skills to a greater extent to those who study domestically. Furthermore, the greatest predictor of intercultural communicative skills is exposure to various cultures (Williams, 2005).

If efforts are made to increase ICC amongst Japanese students domestically, then alternative strategies should be adopted, especially in cultural and L2 classes. One approach to consider is the integration of future selves and how intercultural contact may contribute to achieving future ambitions.

Future Selves

Japanese HEIs have been infamously described as a “motivational wasteland” (Berwick & Ross, 1989, p. 207), with its students being depicted as inward thinking, risk averse, and not interested in the world outside of Japan (Asaoka & Yano, 2009; West, 2015). To further illustrate this, research identified 50% of new Japanese employees having no interest in working abroad, as well as 55.9% who believe that their English education was not useful (Hirai, 2014). One account claims that “the Japanese education system lacks teaching students how to use English in their daily lives and business scenarios” (para. 18). These results elicit a question of whether the students involved in this study were given the opportunity to consider benefits of learning English on future prospects. In

Japan, research has identified a weak association between the target L2 group and one's future (Miyahara, Namoto, Yamanaka, Murakami, Kinoshita, & Yamamoto, 1997). This is a concern for stakeholders, as it complicates assimilation of ICC and discourages desire to acquire the L2 skills needed to compete in the global job market (Knight, 2004; Yonezawa, 2010).

Research has indicated that having clear goals, purpose, and meaning can play a significant role in a student's decision to pursue international education opportunities, such as study abroad (Nowlan & Wang, 2018). Studies have also shown that children can become motivated to study if a connection can be made between their current selves and their adult future selves (Nurra & Oyserman, 2017). Leondari, Syngollitou, and Kiosseoglou (1998) concluded that in-class performance is enhanced by students "who are able to produce well-elaborated, vivid pictures of future selves" (p. 153). If young students can consider schooling as a path to ideal future selves, then teachers will benefit from a student body being driven by purpose and meaning. Based on this conclusion, one could assume that the benefits of identifying future selves could become even more motivating and advantageous for university students, who are closer to entering the corporate world.

Methodological framework

Case Study Design

Generally, a case study involves investigating several individual cases within a real-life higher education setting (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Yin, 2014). The participants involved in the current study shared their real-life experiences and

perspectives over time through semi-structured email exchanges and an online questionnaire. This paper provides a case description through the establishment of data themes through thematic analysis. While case studies are used in numerous domains, Merriam and Tisdell (2015) promote the use of qualitative case studies in the education field, providing greater justification for the current study.

Since all steps of this study focus on one institution, this research can be defined as a descriptive case study. Merriam (1998) describes the practice of fencing in a research setting, and this is executed through the identification and recruitment of graduate students who are all enrolled in the same English language course. The current study's design reflects Merriam's three main features of a case study, being that it 1) focuses on a particular phenomenon, 2) provides rich and thick description of a phenomenon (i.e. study abroad) through a significant sample of participants, and 3) represents a heuristic feature that can enable potential for greater actionable understanding. Since a case study can involve either a single case or multiple cases within the same scope of study (Tight, 2003), the purpose of this research project is to explain, explore, and describe students' future selves and how this can help them prepare for their future international roles.

The Sample

The sample for this study involved five Japanese university graduate students, who composed the total enrollment of an intercultural communication course. The course was administered during the Spring 2018 semester at a large, private university, located in the Kansai region of

Table 1: Participant Profiles

Participant	Sex	Future International Role
P1	F	Doctoral studies and laboratory work in France
P2	M	Graduate studies in Southeast Asia
P3	F	English teacher
P4	F	Airline cabin attendant
P5	M	English teacher

Japan. These five students, who agreed to participate in the study, shared numerous qualities, including (a) past international experiences, (b) future international professional ambitions, and (c) an education primarily received in Japan. Their future international roles are shown in Table 1, as they range from academia, to teaching English, to working for an international airline.

Multiple students were chosen so that their data could be compared. Since case studies are often defined as existing within a bounded system (Creswell & Poth, 2018), the parameters of this study involve the student's international ambitions following completion of their graduate studies in Japan. The approach taken to collect multiple data sources aims to address the feature of quality case studies presenting in-depth and rigorous analysis. A profound description of the case is generated with the analytical process of identifying themes within the data.

The International Preferences Indicator (IPI)

To meet the objectives of this study, the IPI was adopted. Developed by WorldWork Ltd., the tool is designed to help participants identify the push and pull factors that they possess and also those they need to develop in order to satisfy the obligations of actual or hypothetical professional roles (Ewington & Hill, 2012). Considering the stress placed on education and the cultivation of global human resources (Yonezawa, 2014), this instrument was also deemed as appropriate for students who plan to study overseas at the graduate level. The instrument revolves around five push and five pull competences that are considered as important for successful cross-cultural engagement in an international environment. The five push competences generally involve the dissemination of one's goals, values, and beliefs in an assertive and confident way, in order to bring purpose and direction to the forefront

of decisions. Specifically, these dimensions are as follows:

IPI Push Dimensions

1. Inner purpose – maintaining strong personal values and beliefs when dealing with uncertain situations, thus projecting credibility.
2. Spirit of adventure – actively seeking variety, and willing to engage in unfamiliar or uncertain environments, even if they involve great ambiguity and challenge.
3. Resilience – being able to persevere in difficult situations and in times immediately after mistakes were made; not being disabled by embarrassment, error, and criticism.
4. Focus on Goals – the tendency of setting goals and exhibiting persistence and determination in reaching them; belief of self-control over one's own destiny.
5. Exposing intention – indicating positive intentions, thus building trust.

The five pull competences, on the other hand, involve drawing others in by showing interest, being willing and open minded towards new ideas, and adapting to changes in the environment. Specifically, these pull competences are as follows:

IPI Pull Dimensions

6. Flexible behavior – able to adapt to cultural and social situations; a willingness to learn different behaviors while possibly adopting behaviors for successful outcomes.
7. Welcoming strangers – interested in meeting and building relationships with people from diverse backgrounds.
8. Acceptance – positive understanding and acceptance of ideas and behaviors that are

different from one's own; not feeling challenged when faced with practices that are in conflict with one's own.

9. New thinking – openness to new ideas and active exploration into the unfamiliar.
10. Attuned – focus on and comprehension of indirect verbal and nonverbal cues, such as tone and gestures.

Participants in the study were first introduced to the 10 dimensions and then measures were taken to confirm understanding. Following this, the participants were asked to reflect on the five pull and five push competences and to speculate on which style—push or pull—they dedicated more energy to. Following this, students were asked to consider their future international role, and to surmise the degree of importance that all 10 dimensions would play in this hypothetical position. Next, students completed the IPI questionnaire, and this provided a score to all 10 dimensions, based on the energies that participants are currently dedicating to each. Students then completed numerous written and spoken reflections regarding the discrepancies that may or may not have materialized when comparing the ideal and actual energies being dedicated to the dimensions.

Results and Discussion

Through semi-structured email exchanges and an online questionnaire, analysis from the multiple participants advanced three themes related to international future selves. These include (1) self-perceptions aligned with pull competences, (2) desire for push competences, especially exposing intentions, and (3) better informed views of future selves and understanding in how

to achieve professional and academic goals.

Amongst all five participants, each individual claimed to be stronger in pull competences. This was expected since Japanese society is often described as conforming, in order to maintain harmony amongst all members (Hofstede et al., 2010). In other words, one might hesitate to expose their intentions, in fear that this would place others in an uncomfortable predicament of feeling challenged. What was unexpected for the participants is that two actually scored higher overall in push competences, and that one participant expressed displeasure in this, due to feeling that it was somewhat “selfish” to dedicate energy to competences that subject others to your own thoughts, opinions, and values (personal communication, 2018).

Focus on Exposing Intentions

The first research question of this study asks how the case study participants perceive various intercultural competences and communication skills that may contribute to success in their future international role. While participants were not inclined, or even necessarily comfortable exposing intentions to others, most did reflect on the importance of exposing intentions in their future international roles. For this reason, in the IPI analysis, all five respondents showed a discrepancy between perceived importance of exposing intentions in their respective future international roles (high), versus their actual scores (low) generated by the questionnaire. To explore further why certain students had difficulties in exposing intentions, notable feedback is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Difficulties in Exposing intentions

Theme	Example from participant
Difficulties in exposing intentions	<p>It is difficult to take initiative in group work. When I do group work with classmates, I am overly supported and don't give my own opinion. (P1)</p>
	<p>In my opinion, it's important to make others happy while communicating. (P1)</p>
	<p>I feel a need to refrain myself from making direct remarks, which might hurt my image and cause others to think I'm rude.(P2)</p>
	<p>The hardest was explaining what I thought or what my opinion was. When debating something, I always kept silence or said "I think so too", because if I disagreed, I needed to explain why. (P3)</p>
	<p>In group discussions, I became so nervous. Because of the strain, I couldn't understand what my classmates were saying so I didn't give my opinion. I still regret that I didn't say anything. (P4)</p>
	<p>Japanese people often depend on a leader when thinking about something. (P5)</p>

As seen in Table 2, participants shared several experiences where they did not expose intentions, and they offered insight as to why. Some articulated their deference to others in greater positions of power (P5), which is a feature of Japanese society, especially in the corporate world where challenging a senior or superior could result in a loss of face (Oetzel, Ting-Toomey, Masumoto, Yokochi, Pan, & Wilcox, 2001). One alluded to not wanting to disrupt harmony of the group, for example, the desire to “make others happy while communicating” (P1). Others explicitly associated the sharing of personal feelings as “rude” (P2) or evading the prospect of explaining thoughts in more detail, since this would require more explanation (P3). Such responses illustrate the chasm that exists between perceived intercultural communication skills that are described as critical by the IPI, yet are almost considered as taboo by participants in this study. Despite these incongruencies, the participants began to recognize the need for a transformative paradigm shift through exploring future selves.

Impact of Intervention on Future Selves

Participants were asked to speculate on the IPI competences that would be most critical for their future ambitions, as summarized in Table 1. Upon reflection of this, through the lens of the IPI data that indicated actual energy being dedicated to said competences, participants seem to have benefitted from the intervention. They reported to be better equipped to address dimensions where current energy is lacking. For instance, in stating the value of the intervention, participants shared numerous statements of approaches they could take, both inside and outside the classroom, to increase their ICC and successfully meet the demands of their future international role. Table 3 presents reasons why some of the 10 intercultural competences are particularly important for future roles, and also how they can be achieved. Comments were given regarding the ability to better expose intentions, but students also noted a desire to dedicate more energy to the push dimension of resilience, and the pull dimension of being more attuned.

Table 3: Understandings of Future Self Through Intervention

Theme	Example from participant
Understandings of future self and professional role	For <i>resilience</i> , I will try to recover from mistakes quickly. I know that I am a person who likes to try new things, but afraid of mistakes. So, I will tell myself that people will always make mistakes on the first time. Every failure is a stepping stone to success. I will keep this word in my mind, and remember it when I make mistakes. (P1)
	The result surprised me: my personality veered toward the push side very much. (P2)
	I recognize my skills which are important to be a teacher is very low. I need to improve this, and I will start to take action.(P3)
	I think the way I can narrow the <i>exposing intentions</i> gap is to explain my ideas and opinions clearly and logically in daily life. (P3)
	To change myself, I forced myself to be a leader of graduate school students. I hope this will help change me (P3)
	To make good classes, teachers need to argue the process of the class, and it is important to explain what I want. So, I think <i>exposing intentions</i> are important for me. (P3)
	I was surprised that the balance of push and pull is balanced. I thought I was not good at push skills before. (P3)
	I don't really care about other's nonverbal communication, but the <i>attuned</i> score was much lower than I expected. I think it's one of the most important skills for cabin crew. I need to observe the customers carefully and understand their request. Are they thirsty? Are they hot? Do they understand how to use the TV? I will start observing others from tomorrow. (P4)
	I realized again that I am a person who seems to be able to live wherever I want. (P5)

Considering the tendency in Japanese society to strive towards excellence and competitiveness, the pull quality of resilience is often desired, yet not always practiced. Especially in a hierarchical organization, there is a sense of shame in making mistakes and possibly letting others down (Oetzel et al., 2001). In this case, one would not be expected to quickly overcome mistakes, but to reflect on how the mistake may have inconvenienced others or hampered progress. This fear of making mistakes is expressed in the data, but instead of being discouraged by the prospect of making mistakes, one participant offered positive reinforcement to persevere in situations of failure, specifically, "(e) every failure is a stepping stone to success" (P1).

Overall, the intervention seemed to give participants more confidence in succeeding in their future international role, even if the realization was that certain areas need drastic improvement. For instance, participant (P4) came to realize that she is lacking focus on one of the most important competences for international airline cabin staff, that is, being attuned to the nonverbals and subtleties of passengers and colleagues. This was one of her lowest scores, and before completing the IPI questionnaire, she determined that being attuned was one of the most important features of a successful cabin attendant. This realization caused a paradigm shift for the participant, where she set time boundaries for the practice of noticing nonverbals "from tomorrow" (P4). Similarly, participant (P3) was not discouraged in her low score assigned to the critical attribute of exposing intentions, even though it was the dimension she considered as critical for her future role of

English teacher. Because of the intervention, she was able to devise a plan to explain "ideas and opinions clearly and logically in daily life" while forcing herself to "be a leader of graduate school students" (P3). Intercultural communicative competence was cited by (P3) as particularly important since she will need to communicate effectively with her non-Japanese assistant language teacher.

The second research question of this study aimed to explore the impact of the IPI and its accompanying activities on future selves and motivation to succeed in future international roles. In addition to identifying a need to better expose intentions, which is not common practice in Japanese society, participants also cited a need to improve the push dimension of resilience and the pull dimension of being attuned. While not seeming to be neatly aligned with communication, there are significant communicative aspects to each. For instance, in order to be more resilient, participants need to overcome criticism that may cause embarrassment. While these outcomes can often cause a participant to become reticent and withdrawn, the IPI stresses the need to risk making mistakes. This is perhaps a challenge to Japanese university students, as Hofstede et al. (2010) have described Japanese society as placing emphasis on competitiveness and perfection. In regards to being attuned, participants recognized the need to better interpret nonverbal and indirect verbal cues. Nonverbal communication is an often-overlooked form of intercultural communication that can be culture specific (Martin & Chaney, 2012), making it worthy of exploration in an internationalized higher education curriculum.

Implications for Higher Education Internationalization

The third and final research question of this study asks how Japanese university classes can promote a more effective brand of internationalization that satisfies conflicting interpretations of internationalization, as discussed by Knight (2004, 2015a) and Yonezawa (2014). To satisfy the Japanese government's internationalization goals in HEIs, strategy has been discussed through the lens of competitiveness, university world rankings, and global human resources (Yonezawa, 2013). This has manifested on Japanese campuses through employing more foreign faculty and accepting a greater number of international students (Ince, 2014), which feels hollow and contrary to Knight's (2004, 2011, 2015a) conception of internationalization. From an employability standpoint, human resource departments around the world bemoan the lack of soft skills of recent graduates, which include problem-solving, mediation, interpersonal skills, and flexibility (Jones, 2014). However, these skills relate not only to corporate aptitude, but also the goals of internationalization as espoused by Knight (2004, 2015a). If more bottom-up approaches can be enacted at the classroom level, with a focus on developing global human resources through future selves and communicative activities, then perhaps the gap in internationalization perception can be mitigated.

From the data presented in this case study, it does seem that generating understanding for one's future role can cultivate the purpose and meaning needed to become more engaged and interested in international opportunities. This

understanding can not only provide students with the tools needed to meet goals of future selves, but it could also make students more cognizant of the international role that they can play during their current studies. This may result in increased ICC, more meaningful interactions with international students in Japan, and greater comfort with the push competences that students generally described as weaker. If L2 curriculum can be internationalized and enhanced to foster ICC, then the dual yet polarizing internationalization goals of (a) fostering a more academically rich learning environment (Knight, 2004) and (b) increasing study abroad participation to gain more national and global recognition (Yonezawa, 2010), may be realized. Similar to the foundations of internationalization as espoused by Knight (2004, 2015a), Leask (2016) promotes the internationalization of curriculum as "the process of incorporating international, intercultural and global dimensions into the content of the curriculum as well as the learning outcomes, assessment tasks, teaching methods and support services of a program of study". At this ground level, where instructors are the catalysts to curriculum change, it could be argued that integrating an international dimension into the curriculum is more critical than providing skills that might be helpful in facilitating a job placement. That said, employers around the world are increasingly seeking graduates who embody a global perspective in addition to awareness of other cultures, language skills, and intercultural communicative competences (Jones 2014).

Conclusion

The current study involved five Japanese students taking an English graduate class in intercultural communication. While this is suitable for a descriptive case study, it represents limitations when attempting to generalize findings to other Japanese contexts. University students across Japan are similar in many respects—ethnically, socio-economically, and culturally—however, more data is desirable to make a stronger claim of generalizability. By including a broader cross-section of participants, as well as a quantitative component to better establish the veracity and effectiveness of the IPI, data can be generated to confirm or challenge the perceived importance of push-pull dimensions, such as exposing intentions, resiliency, and being attuned. In the longer term, a longitudinal study comparing perceived intercultural competences, and those needed to achieve future international goals, would help inform HEIs of how intercultural curriculum can better serve individuals, and society as a

whole. While this case study was limited to graduate students with international experience and ambitions, it would be interesting to see if research involving undergraduate seniors yielded similar results.

The results from this study indicate that the IPI can be an effective tool in helping university students identify the push and pull qualities that they currently dedicate their energy to and those that need developing, in order to succeed in one's future international role. This exploration of future selves seems to fit within the philosophical framework of numerous interpretations of internationalization. Knight (2004) concedes that there may never be a universal definition of internationalization; however, an internationalized curriculum that motivates students to consider their future contributions to a global society is in harmony with a diverse range of internationalization ideals, most notably the development of ICC.

References

Altbach, P. (2015a). Perspectives on internationalizing higher education. *International Higher Education*, 27, pp.6-8.

Altbach, P. (2015b). The “tipping point” in international education: How America is losing the race. *International Higher Education*, Financial Issues, pp.5-6.

Altbach, P. & de Wit, H. (2015). Internationalization and global tension: Lessons from history. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 19(1), pp.4-10.

Asaoka, T., & Yano, J. (2009). The contribution of “study abroad” programs to Japanese internationalization. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13(2), pp.174–188.

Berwick, R. & Ross, S. (1989). Motivation after matriculation: Are Japanese learners of English still alive after exam hell? *JALT Journal*, 11(2), pp.193-210.

Brown, H. G. (2014). Contextual factors driving the growth of undergraduate English-medium instruction programmes at universities in Japan. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), pp.50-63.

Byram, M. (2015). Culture in foreign language learning—The implications for teachers and teacher training. *Culture and foreign language education: Insights from research and implications for the practice*, pp. 37-58.

Byram, M., Holmes, P., & Savvides, N. (2013). Intercultural communicative competence in foreign language education: Questions of theory, practice and research. *The Language Learning Journal*, 41(3), pp.251-253.

Clarke III, I., Flaherty, T. B., Wright, N. D., & McMillen, R. M. (2009). Student intercultural proficiency from study abroad programs. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 31(2), pp.173-181.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry & research design (4th ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Deardorff, D. K. (2011). Assessing intercultural competence. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 2011(149), pp.65-79.

de Wit, H., Hunter, F., Howard, L., & Egron-Polak, E. (2007). *Internationalization of higher education*. European Parliament, Culture and Education. Brussels, Belgium.

Ewington, N., & Hill, T. (2012). Push and pull: The competencies required for working internationally. *Cultus*, 5(1), pp.80-92.

Fujimoto-Adamson, N. (2006). Globalization and history of English education in Japan. *Asian EFL Journal*, 8(3).

Hinenoya, K. & Gatbonton, E. (2000). Ethnocentrism, cultural traits, beliefs, and English proficiency: A Japanese sample. *The Modern Language Journal*, 84(2), pp.225-240.

Hirai, M. (2014). Understanding Japanese motivations for studying abroad (or not). *Recruiting Intelligence*. [online] Available at: <http://services.instead.com/blog/understanding-japanese-motivations-for-studying-abroad-or-not> [accessed 15 Jan. 2019].

Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. New York City, NY: McGraw Hill.

Ince, M. (2014). *Prime Minister Abe to accelerate internationalisation of Japanese universities*. QS Intelligence Unit. [online] Available at: <http://www.iu.qs.com/2014/05/prime-minister-abe-to-accelerate-internationalisation-of-japanese-universities/> [accessed 15 Jan. 2019].

Jones, E. (2014). Graduate employability and internationalization of the curriculum at home. *International Higher Education*, 78, pp.6-8.

Keller, G. (2007). Higher education management: Challenges and strategies. *International Handbook of Higher Education*, 18, pp.229-242.

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationale. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 8(5), pp.5-31.

Knight, J. (2011, August). Is internationalization having an identity crisis? *Programme on Institutional Management in Higher Education*. 1.

Knight, J. (2015a). Updated definition of internationalization. *International Higher Education*, 33, pp.2-3.

Knight, J. (2015b). Internationalization: A decade of changes and challenges. *International Higher Education*, 50, pp.6-7.

Kubota, R. (2015). Paradoxes of learning English in multilingual Japan: Envisioning education for border-crossing communication. In I. Nakane, E. Otsuji, & W. S. Armour (Eds.), *Languages and identities in a transitional Japan: From internationalization to globalization* (pp. 59–77). New York, NY: Routledge.

Leask, B. (2016). Internationalizing curriculum and learning for all students. In *Global and Local Internationalization* (pp. 49-53). Sense Publishers.

Leondari, A., Syngollitou, E., & Kiosseoglou, G. (1998). Academic achievement, motivation and future selves. *Educational Studies*, 24(2), pp.153-163.

Martin, J. S., & Chaney, L. H. (2012). *Global business etiquette: A guide to international communication and customs*. ABC-CLIO.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education. Revised and expanded from "Case study research in education"*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). Qualitative Research: A guide to design and implementation (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Miyahara, F., Namoto, M., Yamanaka, S., Murakami, R., Kinoshita, M., & Yamamoto, H. (1997). Konomamade yoika daigaku eigokyoiku [Current status of university English education: comparison of university students' ability in English and learning behavior in China, Korea, and Japan]. Tokyo: Shohakusya.

Ninomiya, A., Knight, J., & Watanabe, A. (2009). The past, present, and future of internationalization in Japan. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, pp.117-124.

Nowlan, A., & Wang, R., 2018. Study abroad self-selection amongst first-year Japanese university students. *Journal of International and Comparative Education (JICE)*, 7(2), pp.65-81.

Nurra, C., & Oyserman, D. (2018). From future self to current action: An identity-based motivation perspective. *Self and Identity*, 17(3), pp.343-364.

Oetzel, J., Ting-Toomey, S., Masumoto, T., Yokochi, Y., Pan, X., Takai, J., & Wilcox, R. (2001). Face and facework in conflict: A cross-cultural comparison of China, Germany, Japan, and the United States. *Communication Monographs*, 68(3), pp.235-258.

Tsuneyoshi, R. (1992). *Ningen keisei no nichibei hikaku* [Comparative study of Japanese and American human development]. Tokyo: Chuok

West, C. (2015). Japan looks to take flight. *International Educator*, 24(2), pp.2-16.

Williams, T. R. (2005). Exploring the impact of study abroad on students' intercultural communication skills: Adaptability and sensitivity. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 9(4), pp.356-371.

Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Yonezawa, A. (2010). Much ado about ranking: Why can't Japanese universities internationalize? *Japan Forum*, 22, pp.121-137.

Yonezawa, A. (2013). Challenges for top Japanese universities when establishing a new global identity: Seeking a new paradigm after "world class". In J. C. Shin & B. M. Kehm (Eds.), *Institutionalization of world-class university in global competition* (pp. 125-143). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

Yonezawa, A. (2014). Japan's challenge of fostering "global human resources": Policy debates and practices. *Japan Labor Review*, 11(2), pp.37-52.

Yonezawa, A., Akiba, H., & Hirouchi, D. (2009). Japanese University Leaders' Perceptions of Internationalization: The Role of Government in Review and Support. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13(2), pp.125-142.