Managing the study-abroad experience: An investigation of the role pressures experienced by Japanese educational programme coordinators in a non-profit organisation in Japan, in response to non-Japanese students

Natasha Nicole Walker
BA (UWI), MEd (USQ)
School of Education and Professional Studies, (Brisbane, Logan)
Faculty of Education
Griffith University
Australia

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education

June, 2007

Managing the Study-Abroad Experience: An Investigation of the Role Pressures Experienced by Japanese Educational Programme Coordinators in a Non-Profit Organisation in Japan, in Response to Non-Japanese Students

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to investigate the role pressures experienced by two Japanese Educational Programme Coordinators, JEPCA and JEPCB, who work in a Non-Profit Organisation in a small Host City in Japan. The Non-Profit Organisation sponsors a Study-Abroad Japanese Language Programme for non-Japanese students enrolled in universities in the United States. The broad research question was "How do Japanese Educational Programme Coordinators of a Study-Abroad Japanese Language Programme conceptualise their role pressures in a Non-Profit Organisation in Japan, in response to non-Japanese Students?"

Role theory was applied to four education-related industries that were similar to the organisational functions of the Non-Profit Organisation. This was done to elucidate the potential sources of role pressures for JEPCA and JEPCB. Subsequently, non-Japanese students' demands were analysed with Content Analyses of 60 Postal Applications and negative e-mails from a sample of 10 male and 10 female students. The One-on-One Interviews with JEPCA and JEPCB provided data on their perceived role pressures in relation to non-Japanese students.

The results show that JEPCB conceptualised his role pressures in terms of his interpersonal relationships with the non-Japanese students. JEPCA, however, conceptualised her role pressures in terms of her administrative duties, and her ability to manage a successful Study-Abroad Japanese Language Programme. She expressed her anxiety about being able to provide non-Japanese students with adequate housing, one of their most basic needs while living in Japan. Her account led this researcher to conclude that the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Programme is a community project, and so it was necessary to manage the activities of various members of the Host City community in order to care for non-Japanese students.

This dissertation concludes with an evaluation of the study, critical comments on the Homestay Component of the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Programme, and recommendations for future research.

STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

This work has not been previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

_____ _____

Natasha Nicole Walker Date

Managing the study-abroad experience: An investigation of the role pressures experienced by Japanese educational program coordinators in a non-profit organisation in Japan, in response to non Japanese students

Abstract

The aim of this study is to investigate the role pressures experienced by two Japanese educational program coordinators, referred to here as JEPCA and JEPCB. They work in a non-profit organisation in Japan, which sponsors a study-abroad Japanese language program for non Japanese students are already enrolled in universities in the United States. The broad research question was "How do Japanese educational program coordinators of a study-abroad Japanese language program conceptualise their role pressures in a non-profit organisation in Japan, in response to non Japanese students?"

Role theory was used throughout this investigation. It was used in the literature review to elucidate the potential sources of role pressures for JEPCA and JEPCB. Subsequently, in the research method, non Japanese students' demands were analysed using content analyses of 60 postal applications and negative e-mails from a sample of 10 male and 10 female non Japanese students. One-on-one interviews with JEPCA and JEPCB also provided insightful data on their perceived role pressures in relation to non Japanese students.

The results show that JEPCB conceptualised his role pressures in terms of his interpersonal relationships with non Japanese students. JEPCA, however, conceptualised her role pressures in terms of her administrative duties and her ability to manage the study-abroad Japanese language program. She expressed her anxiety about being able to provide non Japanese students with adequate housing, which is one of their basic needs while living in Japan. JEPCA's account led this researcher to the opinion that the study-abroad Japanese language program is ideally conceptualised as a community project because it was necessary to coordinate the activities of various members of the host city community in order to care for non Japanese students.

This dissertation concludes with an evaluation of the study, critical comments on the homestay component of the study-abroad Japanese language program, and recommendations for future research.

Statement of originality

This work has not been previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

_____ _____

Natasha Nicole Walker Date

Table of contents

List of figures

List of appendixes

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge my principal supervisor, Dr. Juliette Goldman and my secondary supervisor, Professor Mervyn Hyde, for their thorough guidance, encouragement and patience throughout the period of the research and preparation of this dissertation. In particular, I wish to thank Dr. Goldman for helping me to conceptualise and outline this research theme. As an external student, who has commuted between Australia and Japan to attend coursework weekends for this degree, I am most grateful for what has been academic supervision at the highest standard. Through the guidance of my supervisors, I have come to understand the characteristics of research work of intellectual depth. I am also very grateful for her encouragement to pursue further research in this field.

I would also like to acknowledge Dr. Steven Nisbet, Ms. Aneeta Das, Ms. Susan Willmott, and Ms. Fawzia Zullah, for their support throughout my course of study. Their professionalism, patience, and kind attention to me have made this research on education administrators a worthwhile and meaningful experience.

Finally, I wish to acknowledge the unwavering, warm-hearted support and encouragement of the non-profit organisation and the Japanese educational program coordinators who are at the centre of this research. Their trust, kind words, and quick responses to my numerous queries helped me to conclude this project on time. They have inspired me with their ability to balance friendship and professional integrity.

Chapter 1
Introduction and background to the study

1.1 Broad aim of the study

The broad aim of this study is to investigate the role pressures experienced by two Japanese educational program coordinators in Japan who coordinate a study-abroad Japanese language program for non Japanese university students from the United States. The relationship between the Japanese educational program coordinators and the non Japanese students was chosen as the focus of this study because the Japanese educational program coordinators are responsible for ensuring that non Japanese students can learn and develop from their sojourn in Japan. Non Japanese students are important stakeholders in the study-abroad Japanese language program because their participation ensures its sustainability. Study-abroad programs such as this one can enhance international understanding and peace, which are important in an increasingly integrated world.

1.2 Introduction

The specific aim of this study is to investigate the role pressures experienced by two Japanese educational program coordinators, in response to non Japanese students who participate in a study-abroad Japanese language program that is sponsored by a non-profit organisation in Japan. The Japanese educational program coordinators are full-time employees in the non-profit organisation. The study-abroad Japanese language program is a Japanese language acquisition program that is equivalent to one academic year of Japanese language study in universities in the United States. Every year, about 60 non Japanese students visit the city that hosts this study-abroad Japanese language program. They spend eight weeks studying Japanese. These non Japanese students represent a diverse number of nationalities and cultures, but are all currently enrolled as full-time students in United States universities.

The Japanese educational program coordinators belong to a broader group of education administrators called educational program coordinators with a range of job titles including director of scholarship and student-development programs; student-affairs

professional; study-abroad coordinator; and diversity trainer (Henderson, 2006). The Japanese educational program coordinators' job duties are discussed later in this chapter. In chapter 2, the job duties of exemplary educational program coordinators in higher education institutions are discussed. In chapter 3, the role pressures experienced by the Japanese educational program coordinators and these exemplary educational program coordinators are analysed. The method for investigating the Japanese educational program coordinators' role pressures is presented in chapter 4. Chapter 5 presents the results of the study, which are discussed in chapter 6. Chapter 7 presents the research findings and recommendations for further research. The following section presents a discussion of the non-profit organisation.

Background to the study

1.3 The non-profit organisation

The non-profit organisation that sponsors the study-abroad Japanese language program promotes cross-cultural ties between Japanese people living in the host city and non Japanese people who are interested in Japanese culture. Its organisational goals are the advancement of world peace and the promotion of international understanding among Japanese people. These organisational goals have been maintained for 20 years since the inception of the study-abroad Japanese language program. The study-abroad Japanese language program hosts 60 non Japanese students for a period of eight weeks each year.

This non-profit organisation facilitates non Japanese students' language learning experiences by providing Japanese language instructors, study materials and classrooms. Non Japanese students' cross-cultural learning experiences are facilitated by social and familial interactions with Japanese people who live in the host city. Familial interactions occur during homestay, which is a compulsory part of the study-abroad Japanese language program. Homestay is a housing arrangement that allows students who are studying in a foreign country to live with indigenous families from the target culture (Richardson, 2003). The Japanese host family is usually a married Japanese couple, with or without children. Non Japanese students are expected to create harmonious relationships with members of

their Japanese host family while practising their Japanese conversational skills. The following section presents a brief discussion of study-abroad programs.

1.4 Study-abroad programs

University educators and study-abroad organisations seem to agree on the need for the effective management of students' cross-cultural experiences during study-abroad programs. University educators generally agree that study-abroad programs contribute to university students' personal growth by providing them with opportunities to observe the daily practices of other people. University students are expected to learn how others view the world by living in a foreign culture and speaking in a foreign language (Dolby, 2004).

Many multinational corporations are seeking a 'new breed of employee' who is open to diversity, adaptable to change, and therefore able to thrive in uncertain and complex situations. Therefore, Bakalis and Joiner (2004) believe that universities should establish study-abroad programs that encourage students to think globally, and be receptive to diverse values and beliefs. In a survey of 232 students at George Mason University who participated in study-abroad programs in several countries, Kitsantas (2004) concluded that study-abroad programs enhanced these students' cross-cultural skills and global understanding, while preparing them to function in a multicultural world.

The Institute of International Education in the United States (IIE, 2006a) reports that during the 2003/2004 academic year, 191,321 American students participated in study-abroad programs worldwide. This figure represents an increase of 9.6% from the 2002/2003 academic year. However, this number is still less than 1% of all students enrolled in universities in the United States. IIE believes that universities and colleges in the United States can and should do better than this low number of participants (Harvey, 2006). Lane (2003) supports this view and has encouraged the United States Government to send more American students overseas to participate in study-abroad programs.

The United Kingdom received the highest number of US study-abroad students, with 32,237 students visiting in the 2003/2004 academic year. Japan received the comparatively low number of 3,707 students in the 2003/2004 academic year. Figure 1.1 displays the destinations, numbers and percentage changes taken from the *Open Doors 2006 Report on International Educational Exchange*, published by the Institute of International Education

(IIE), with funding from the US Department of State's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs.

Figure 1.1: Study-abroad destinations for US university students

Destination	**2002/03**	**2003/04**	**% Change**
United Kingdom	31,706	32,237	1.7
Italy	18,936	21,922	15.8
Spain	18,865	20,080	6.4
France	13,080	13,718	4.9
Australia	10,691	11,418	6.8
Mexico	8,775	9,293	5.9
Germany	5,587	5,985	7.1
Ireland	4,892	5,198	6.3
China	2,493	4,737	90.0
Costa Rica	4,296	4,510	5.0
Japan	3,457	3,707	7.2
Austria	2,798	2,444	-12.7
New Zealand	1,917	2,369	23.6
Cuba	1,474	2,148	45.7
Chile	1,944	2,135	9.8
Greece	2,011	2,099	4.4
Czech Republic	1,997	2,089	4.6
South Africa	1,594	2,009	26.0
Russia	1,521	1,797	18.1
Netherlands	1,792	1,686	-5.9

Source: *Open Doors 2006 Report on International Educational Exchange*, Institute of International Education

The *Open Doors 2006 Report* was published in November, 2006, the same month in which the United States Senate declared 2006 to be the 'Year of Study-Abroad' (Dessoff, 2006). The *Open Doors 2006 Report* provides information on financial support offered by the United States Government to American university students who participate in study-abroad programs sponsored by their universities. As shown in Figure 1.2, the United States

Government currently provides the highest percentage of financial support for American students in study-abroad programs. Currently, the United States has over 3,400 universities and colleges, so the information here represents between 12 % and 17 % of the total. Nevertheless, these statistics suggest that study-abroad programs have become part of mainstream higher education in the United States.

Figure 1.2: Financial support for US study-abroad students in 2003/04

	2003/04 (%)		
Financial Support	Institution's Own Programs	Institution-Sponsored	Other Programs
Federal Aid	92.6	86.2	44.2
State Aid	88.8	78.9	35.1
Need-Based Institutional Aid	87.3	70.7	17.0
Merit-Based Institutional Aid	86.8	68.4	18.1
Other Aid	84.9	66.1	27.7
Number of Responding Institutions	583	549	412

Source: *Open Doors 2006 Report on International Educational Exchange,* Institute of International Education, New York, United States of America

Study-abroad offices at universities across the United States aim to achieve participation in study-abroad programs by all social and ethnic groups in the United States (Dessoff, 2006). This initiative is aimed at equalising the standard of education in the United States across all cultural and social groups. Currently, long-term study-abroad programs are dominated by Caucasian females, many of whom major in foreign languages (Dessoff, 2006). However, females outperform males at the university level, and therefore win more fellowships to participate in long-term study-abroad programs. Short-term study-abroad programs (about 8 - 12 weeks long) have attracted a higher number of male participants, engineering and computer science majors, as well as students from ethnic minority groups and low-income groups in the United States. Short-term study-abroad programs are said to be less intimidating for students from underrepresented social groups who want to experience new cultures (Lewis & Niesenbaum, 2005). The study-abroad Japanese language program may therefore facilitate participation by males, engineering and

computer science majors, ethnic minority groups, and low-income groups because it lasts for only eight weeks.

Presently, it is said that many American students have a limited understanding of global society. This limited awareness may jeopardise the dominant cultural and economic position of the United States in years to come (Bollag, 2004; Lane, 2003). It is believed that the position of the United States as an economic power may be maintained if universities encourage students to pursue a cross-cultural education outside of the United States (Lane, 2003). The consensus on the value of study-abroad programs in the United States seems to be that it is becoming increasingly difficult for Americans to dominate the interconnected world. So, American students need to be aware of current world affairs to protect themselves from the negative consequences of misunderstandings that may occur during cross-national interactions. In response to these concerns, as well as to concerns about the costs and availability of study-abroad programs, the United States Government has established a Study-Abroad Evaluation Commission with a proposed annual budget of US $3.5 billion (Lane, 2003). This financial support has enabled universities in the United States to incorporate study-abroad programs into their educational programs.

Harvard College, the undergraduate section of Harvard University, sponsors Summer study-abroad programs, citing that studying abroad is an exciting experience from which all students can benefit by developing their knowledge of the world and knowledge of cultural difference (Harvard College, 2006). Northwestern University is another university that encourages students to develop cultural awareness by participating in study-abroad programs. That university quotes statements made by former United States Secretary of State, Colin Powell, and current Secretary-General of the United Nations, Kofi Annan, concerning the future well-being and livelihood of young people in an increasingly competitive global environment (Northwestern Study-Abroad Office, 2006). These statements demonstrate to parents that their children's participation in study-abroad programs would contribute to the security of US national interests through international cooperation.

Northwestern University encourages students in all of its schools to spend all or some of their junior year studying abroad, and considers the study-abroad experience as study at the university. Students earn credit for coursework completed away from the University and in many cases, even fulfil major, minor or school requirements (Northwestern Study-Abroad Office, 2006). Furthermore students at Northwestern are informed that when

they participate in study-abroad programs they will develop new perspectives on academic subjects and real-world issues, achieve proficiency in a foreign language, experience personal growth, and develop valuable career skills.

Northwestern University's guarantee of academic credit for participation in its study-abroad programs suggests that university students want to complete their academic programs on time. This is because participation in study-abroad programs may delay their entry into the workforce if they are unable to earn academic credit while studying overseas.

Students at Wesleyan University are also concerned about completing their academic programs on time. These concerns were addressed by the University's Director and Assistant Director of International Studies. These administrators have stated their strong intent for students and parents to have confidence in the academic value and the overall quality of the study-abroad programs offered by Wesleyan University (Sorkin, 2004). The Director and Assistant Director of International Studies state that for a student going abroad on a Wesleyan-approved program, they guarantee that credit towards graduation will be given for all approved courses. Harvard College has a similar policy for its summer study-abroad programs, which are worth 8 units of credit and may be taken for undergraduate or graduate credit (Harvard College, 2006). Eight units of credit taken in during study-abroad programs approved by Harvard College may be equivalent to either one-half or one full academic course, depending on the subject.

Despite international understanding being an important basis for students' participation in study-abroad programs, it is likely that students may participate in study-abroad programs to fulfil the requirements of their academic programs without having been inspired by a genuine interest in international affairs. Two university educators in the United States, who have observed students' behaviour during study-abroad sojourns, seem to agree with this opinion (Dolby, 2004 & Freinberg, 2002). Dolby (2004) and Freinberg (2002) have illustrated the seemingly dominant presence of United States culture, which allows American students to feel comfortable in other English-speaking countries such as Australia or Zimbabwe. However, they explain that when Asian students study in an English-speaking country such as Australia, or when American students study in a non-English speaking country such as Spain, cultural contrasts become the focal point of their sojourn. In English-speaking countries, for example, students from Asian backgrounds tend to hold views on social roles that are incompatible with the views of their host families (Lloyd, 2003). In non-English speaking countries, American students may have unspoken

expectations for interpersonal interactions that may be incompatible with the norms of the host culture (Dolby, 2004; Freinberg, 2002).

The discussion now shifts to study-abroad programs, exemplified by the Institute of International Education (IIE) and the Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE), two leading study-abroad organisations in the United States. The Institute of International Education (IIE) was founded in 1919 as an independent non-profit organisation to make the world a safer place by creating opportunities to travel and study abroad (Harvey, 2006). IIE monitors foreign students in the United States (Davis, 2003), and offers study-abroad scholarships to American students.

IIE administers the prestigious Fulbright Scholarship Program on behalf of the United States Government. The current United States Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs, Dina Habib Powell, has said that she was pleased that American students are studying abroad and that Department of State initiatives such as the Fulbright Program and Gilman Scholarship Program are at the forefront in helping American study-abroad participants obtain the skills and experience they need for leadership and responsible action in our interdependent world (IIE, 2006b). The IIE's organisational policy for American students studying abroad is that they should learn foreign languages and cultures in preparation for senior management positions in global corporations (Harvey, 2006). IIE's policy on foreign students studying in the United States is that they should observe and live in an open system of government, perfect their English language skills and learn about the potential of the United States as a trading partner.

CIEE (2006a) has observed that study-abroad organisations in the United States tend to receive criticism when American students visit foreign countries and engage in behaviours that are considered inappropriate in the host culture. Some university educators believe that students behave inappropriately because they lack empathy with the host culture (Dolby, 2004; Freinberg, 2002; Young, 2002). Examples of inappropriate behaviour include the immoderate consumption of alcohol and conflicts with other study-abroad students in their cohorts. The latter problem has resulted in the imposition of legislation to monitor gender relations among university students during sojourns abroad (Young, 2002).

CIEE believes that the pre-screening of students may be a better way to reduce incidents of inappropriate behaviour in the host country. However, pre-screening procedures may be difficult to implement, because universities with a global policy of student enrolment in study-abroad programs may tend to focus on the academic value of the

study-abroad programs in which they enrol students, without necessarily evaluating students' maturity and readiness for the study-abroad experience (CIEE, 2006a). For example, Wesleyan University's Office of International Studies acts as a study-abroad organisation by offering related services to parents and students. These services include daily visiting hours for students who need help applying to study-abroad programs; and consultation time with parents who have questions and concerns about the study-abroad experience (Sorkin, 2004). These services suggest that Wesleyan students are eligible to participate in study-abroad programs simply because they are enrolled in the university.

An orientation to the host country may be a suitable alternative to pre-screening. CIEE states that orientation should take place before students leave the United States, and should provide students with information that may help them to adapt to the target culture (CIEE, 2006a). However, pre-departure orientation may not be enough to reduce the problems students experience while participating in study-abroad programs. If support teams in the host country are small, they may not be able to effectively manage students' problems when they arise (CIEE, 2006a).

This section has established that study-abroad programs are part of mainstream higher education in the United States because of strong support from university educators, and because of financial contributions by the United States Government. IIE statistics (IIE, 2006a) provide data on American students' destination countries and sources of funding. However, these statistics have not identified the reasons why students choose to study outside of the United States. American students who travel abroad may have been encouraged to do so by educators in their home institutions. They are finding it easier to participate in study-abroad programs because of the guarantee of academic credit and the availability of funding from the US Government. However, students may be better served during study-abroad programs if their own motivations for studying in foreign countries are understood. The literature addressed students' motivations for participating in academic study-abroad programs, but these studies have been concentrated in single institutions, with a relatively low number of research participants. Perhaps more insight into American university students' reasons for studying abroad may be gained in future cross-institutional studies. The following section discusses the study-abroad Japanese language program that is managed by the Japanese educational program coordinators.

1.5 The study-abroad Japanese language program

The study-abroad Japanese language program aims to help non Japanese students gain a positive view of Japanese culture through exposure to the country's language, society and history during an eight-week period. The study-abroad Japanese language program is an intensive foreign language study program that has been designed for both committed and proactive participants. During an eight-week period, non Japanese students are expected to improve their Japanese reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills. These skills are facilitated by daily Japanese language instruction, homestay, Japanese culture classes, class research projects and community events.

Non Japanese students are encouraged to converse with their Japanese host families, and maintain a harmonious relationship with them. They are also expected to use their free time outside of classes to complete assignments, prepare for weekly tests and study for formal examinations. When they successfully complete the educational component of the study-abroad Japanese language program, non Japanese students receive certificates of completion and course transcripts. The transfer of academic credit is later assessed and applied by their universities in the United States.

1.6 Homestay

Homestay is the housing arrangement whereby students live in the homes of indigenous families in the target culture. Universities and study-abroad organisations appear to disagree about the benefits of homestay, even though they usually agree about the benefits of study-abroad programs in general. University educators believe that study-abroad programs offer students beneficial cross-cultural experiences (CIEE, 2006a), but study-abroad organisations believe that students may only benefit from cross-cultural experiences if they are comfortable with their living arrangements in the host country (Lloyd, 2003; Richardson, 2003).

Homestay seems to be the best housing option for study-abroad students because it offers them protection and care while they are living in the target culture (Richardson, 2003). When vast cultural and linguistic differences separate the native culture of study-abroad students and the culture of the host country, the quality of living conditions become the critical to their adjustment (Schmidt-Rinehart & Knight, 2004). Study-abroad students want to feel welcomed and supported while they are adjusting to a new culture

(Lloyd, 2003), so a good homestay experience may enhance their perception that the study-abroad experience was a good one.

Homestay is rarely the sole objective of students' visit to a foreign country, but it should be considered as part of the study-abroad experience if it is a compulsory component of a study-abroad program. The CIEE (2006c) has stated that good reception in the host country encourages students to focus on their academic courses. Reiterating the general view of university educators just discussed, CIEE states that "excellent housing placement can be the single most rewarding part of a study-abroad experience", but disagrees that homestay is always the best option for students (CIEE, 2006b, p. 11). The contention is that "homestays are prized in much of the professional literature on study abroad [but] the truth is that dormitory and apartment living experiences often provide far more contact with host nationals than a room with a señora who is in it for the cash" (CIEE, 2006b, p. 11).

CIEE may be opposed to the imposition of a standard housing policy by study-abroad organisations, but there are several reasons that make homestay the common choice among them. Richardson (2003) has identified these reasons as having the following advantages:

1. Homestays are easy to arrange because of less stringent government regulations regarding international students living in the homes of indigenous families.
2. Homestays are cheaper than rented accommodation.
3. Students can experience the target culture and use the target language.
4. Adults in the host family can supervise students outside school hours.
5. Students can receive individual care from the host family members.

Items 1 and 2 are particularly relevant to the study-abroad Japanese language program because short-term housing rental costs in Japan are prohibitively expensive. The Japanese practice of paying non-refundable cash deposits equivalent to four months' rent to rental agencies before moving into a house or apartment (Poza, 2002), cause a great deal of apprehension among non Japanese who intend to live and work in Japan. Non Japanese students staying in Japan for eight weeks do not qualify for housing rented on a monthly basis. The non Japanese students who participate in this study-abroad Japanese language program visit Japan as tourists, so their visas or other immigration arrangements permit them to stay in Japan for only 90 days from the day they arrive. Japan has strict immigration laws and regulations regarding the movement of non Japanese within the

country. These laws and regulations may present legal concerns for rental agencies and the non-profit organisation. So, while the non-profit organisation promotes homestay as the best option, it may be the only cost-effective housing option available at the present time.

1.7 Job duties of the Japanese educational program coordinators

The two Japanese educational program coordinators in this study are native Japanese (one female and one male) who speak English as a second language. Their responsibilities include the recruitment of non Japanese students, Japanese language instructors and Japanese host families for the study-abroad Japanese language program. They are also responsible for reviewing non Japanese students' postal applications, and for coordinating various activities during the study-abroad Japanese language program.

The female coordinator, who has been working at the non-profit organisation for three years, is referred to as JEPCA. The male coordinator who has been working at the non-profit organisation for a little more than one year is called JEPCB. Their job duties are analysed in the following subsection.

1.7.1 Job description of the Japanese educational program coordinators

The Japanese educational program coordinators' job description is a very large document that is impractical to reproduce here, so a summary of their job duties is presented instead. JEPCA compiled the Japanese educational program coordinators' job description manual over a two-year period ending in August, 2005. It is a six-volume text, which provides quick references and unambiguous guidelines for tasks related to the study-abroad Japanese language program. JEPCA created it because she did not have a detailed description of her duties when she came to work at the non-profit organisation in late 2002. Each volume of the manual contains instructions for coordinating and managing the study-abroad Japanese language program. The preparation for the study-abroad Japanese language program begins in September of the year prior to the subsequent year's program. A summary of the job duties of the Japanese educational program coordinators, by month, are presented in Appendix A.

The Japanese educational program coordinators have much to do to prepare for the study-abroad Japanese language program. Having identified these individual on-going tasks,

JEPCA has quite specifically defined her role as an educational program coordinator in the non-profit organisation.

The job duties of the Japanese educational program coordinators presented here are similar to the job descriptions of educational program coordinators in education institutions outside of Japan. Exemplary job descriptions are discussed later in chapter 2. They are also addressed in chapter 3, where role theory is applied to the job duties of educational program coordinators. The intention of the parallel discussions in chapters 2 and 3 is to establish the relationship between the job duties of educational program coordinators and the students they serve. Those discussions also focus on the culture of education administration in relation to international students and study-abroad programs in higher education institutions.

1.8 Research questions

The broad research question is "How do Japanese educational program coordinators of a study-abroad Japanese language program conceptualise their role pressures in a non-profit organisation in Japan, in response to non Japanese Students?"

From preliminary discussions with the Japanese educational program coordinators (JEPCA and JEPCB), two sources of their role pressures were identified from written documents and face-to-face communication with non Japanese students. Written documents are read, authored or exchanged before non Japanese students arrive in Japan, and face-to-face communication takes place during non Japanese students' stay in Japan. Therefore, the specific research questions presented here focus on these two areas.

Part A: Role pressures concerning non Japanese students' expectations before they arrive in Japan

The following two specific research questions relate to the negative pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators before non Japanese students arrive in Japan. These negative pressures may be found in written statements from non Japanese students. These written statements are information requested in their postal applications, and their e-mail queries about the study-abroad Japanese language program. The following two research questions were investigated using content analyses of non Japanese students' postal applications and e-mails.

A1: How does the requested information about non Japanese students' preferences in their written applications contribute to the role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?

A2: What is the nature of the negative content of non Japanese students' e-mail queries concerning the study-abroad Japanese language program?

Part B: Role pressures concerning non Japanese students' expectations while living in Japan

The following two specific research questions relate to the role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators while addressing non Japanese students' complaints while living and studying in Japan. Non Japanese students' complaints predominantly relate to the educational and compulsory homestay components of the study-abroad Japanese language program.

B1: How do non Japanese students' educational expectations while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?

B2: How do non Japanese students' homestay expectations while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?

The method for investigating these four specific research questions is discussed in chapter 4. The Japanese educational program coordinators provide services and information to non Japanese students, so their role pressures are investigated in terms of non Japanese students' demands on the Japanese educational program coordinators, and the stresses that Japanese educational program coordinators perceive because of those demands. The following section presents a justification for this research.

1.9 Justification for the study

The investigation of role pressures perceived by education administrators such as the two Japanese educational program coordinators is timely because the attitudes and behaviours of salaried, professional workers are emerging as subjects of research into the contribution of professional workforce to the knowledge economy (Loi, Hang-Yue & Foley, 2004). The justification for this research is presented in terms of the roles of education

administrators who work in higher learning institutions. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, education administrators in higher learning institutions have a number of job titles including director of scholarship and student-development programs, study-abroad coordinator, career counsellor, and diversity trainer (Henderson, 2006). Generally, educational program coordinators perform four main duties, and these are (1) the provision of educational services; (2) the management of information flow between students and the study-abroad organisation; (3) the integration of students into the target culture; and (4) the removal of obstacles for organisational level decision-making regarding students' needs.

The Japanese educational program coordinators are education administrators who work in a higher learning institution. The non-profit organisation is a higher learning institution because it sponsors the study-abroad Japanese language program, which is a university-level course. The Japanese language course is taught by specialists in Japanese linguistics who also teach in Japanese universities. The Japanese language instructors cooperate with the Japanese educational program coordinators to present the study-abroad Japanese language program.

The limited focus on educational program coordinators in the academic literature may be explained by dissonant beliefs about higher education held by university administrators and academic faculty in universities. Australian university educators have complained that administrators treat universities as service providers, and that this has contributed to the imposition of external benchmarks for university performance (Watty, 2003). These external benchmarks are frowned upon because they are believed to interfere with research and teaching. Similar complaints have been made by university teachers in the United Kingdom. They believe that the external regulations created to manage the affairs of large universities have led to the creation of diverse support structures, which in turn increase the number of administrative chores they must perform (Lauwerys, 2002). Watty (2003) insists that university teachers are responsible for the performance of the university, since quality assurance assessments are aimed at teaching quality and students' academic performance.

University teachers in the United States seem to have a simplistic view of American education administrators as courteous and efficient channels for information about the institution to students and academic faculty staff (Caddell, 2006). For instance, Krebs (2003) believes that university administrators help teaching faculty at universities to do their work well. However, she presents a vague explanation of university administrators' job duties, while emphasising that the limited compensation they receive for doing their work.

Henderson (2006) is an education administrator in a university in the United States, who, like Krebs has an earned PhD in the Humanities. Henderson is eager to contribute to academe in her professional role. She has a positive view of academia, which is for her, an environment dominated by research agendas that often seek to right historic wrongs, question power, undermine hierarchy, and give voice to the voiceless. Her positive view of academia contrasts with the problems she has encountered in her job as an education administrator. She notes some of these problems as perceived invisibility and 'voicelessness' during faculty meetings; the dismissal of her scholarly knowledge; and overt criticism from colleagues or superiors.

The treatment of education administrators in the United States contrasts with the urgent need for strong administrative leadership in Japanese universities, and the presence of strong leadership in British universities, for example. In Japan, the urgent need for strong administrative leadership is highlighted by the absence of professional organisations for education and research (Shimizu, Baba & Shimada, 2000). The absence of strong administrative leadership in Japanese universities is the result of hiring naturally conservative, non-assertive, and non-confrontational people to work as university administrators. However, Japanese universities face closure if they are unable to attract the most desirable students from a decreasing population of potential new students. Japanese academics are beginning to reconsider the belief that strong administrative leadership and vision will eliminate their academic autonomy (Ogawa, 2002). They are also reconsidering the belief that the principle of efficiency has no place in the activities of universities (Murasawa, 2002).

In the United Kingdom, university administrators have already demonstrated their capacity to lead their universities in an era of scarce resources and fierce competition. The competition in higher education in the United Kingdom was brought about by the reduction of government funding to universities there, which led university administrators to act as entrepreneurs to maintain the good standing of their universities. Shattock (2000) believes that good institutional management helped Warwick University to become a leading university when he served as registrar from 1983 to 1999. According to him, "competition also produces losers, and loser institutions often contain excellent scholars and excellent students who suffer in career and in academic creativity" (p. 34). Good universities, according to Shattock, are expensive because they must pay their staff well, and constantly reinvest to stay ahead of the competition.

Since universities are traditionally treated as places of research and teaching, university employees who do not contribute to any of these two areas may be considered unqualified to contribute to the academic goals created by the university. Dobson and Conway (2003) came to this conclusion in a study of the role of education administrators in Australian universities. They believe that although "the core university business of research, teaching and scholarship are the direct purview of academic staff, none of these functions could occur without sturdy groups of administrative, technical and other support staff" (p. 124). Dobson and Conway also believe that the supporting roles of education administrators are overlooked because the reputations of higher learning institutions are determined by the actual or perceived quality of teaching and research. Academic faculty teach, and would not be able to do so effectively if they were also raising revenue, recruiting staff, and monitoring the performance of the university in the competitive education industry. Regardless of the decision-making authority of academic faculty, it is the work of university administrators that makes it possible for them to focus on doing their jobs well and therefore raise the performance of the university.

Competition among universities is another reason why the work of education administrators in higher learning institutions merits attention in a research project. The quality of service provided by higher learning institutions seems to be driven from the "presumed superior insight of academic insiders, presupposing that the inherent knowledge base of those involved in the business of higher education is sufficient for developing service oriented programs for students" (Joseph, Yakhou & Stone, 2006, p. 67). Henderson (2006) believes that a highly stratified professional environment may lead to misconceptions about the contributions that education administrators make to their institution. This is why she believes that the literature has not dealt adequately with education administrators in universities. Perhaps, therefore, the insights of education administrators themselves may shed light on the nature of their work, as well as on their professional triumphs and challenges.

Education administrators in Australia have apparently been cognizant of the unique nature and purpose of the higher learning institutions in which they work. They have expressed their desire to develop and display expertise on how to do their jobs in order to support and reinforce other qualities and objectives in their institutions of higher learning (Dobson & Conway, 2003). To do their jobs well, Australian education administrators have

proposed that their colleagues develop detached, composite concepts about the field of tertiary education, its institutions, and of their positions and roles within it.

One example of a composite concept in the field of tertiary education is the notion that higher and further education has become an increasingly complex industry (Trim, 2003). The administrative functions of the higher education industry have become complex because higher education institutions serve governments, individuals, financial contributors, commerce and industry, as well as other education institutions. This means that it is impractical to perceive a higher learning institution as being important only because of its teaching faculty, as Krebs (2003) has asserted. This also means that Caddell's (2006) advice to education administrators that serving students should be the primary university goal may be oversimplified.

Higher learning institutions now belong to a global industry of education. Trim (2003) suggests that senior managers in higher learning institutions that attract overseas students need to establish trust-based, long-term relationships. Two examples of trust-based, long-term inter-organisational relationships are discussed in chapter 2, in relation to two Japanese universities and their partnerships with universities and study-abroad organisations in the United States. These inter-organisational relationships need to be administrative in nature, since teaching faculty cannot effectively manage student recruitment and retention while teaching and doing research. Thus, the role of education administrators is important because, as Dobson and Conway (2003) and Krebs (2006) have pointed out, they allow academic faculty to focus on teaching and research.

Trim (2003) suggests that senior managers in higher learning institutions should aid cultural change and facilitate the development of organisational learning in their institutions. However, this will be a challenging undertaking if institutional policies continue to undermine the contribution of education administrators who are responsible for attracting and retaining students and who ultimately contribute to the sustainability of their higher learning institutions. The personal accounts of university administrators about the need for more research into their roles, is perhaps the most convincing justification for research into the work of education administrators in higher learning institutions.

1.10 Chapter summary

This chapter identified the broad aim and specific aims of this research. It also introduced the non-profit organisation, the study-abroad Japanese language program, and the job duties of the Japanese educational program coordinators. This chapter also established that study-abroad programs are part of mainstream university education in the United States and that the United States Government is providing financial support for university students who wish to study abroad. Study-abroad organisations in the United States connect university students with academic programs in many other countries around the world, and may therefore be regarded as administrative extensions of higher learning institutions.

Emerging from the discussions presented in this chapter is the notion that the operations of this non-profit organisation overlap with four education-related contexts. These are identified as (a) non-profit organisations; (b) United States universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs; (c) study-abroad organisations; and (d) Japanese universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs. The literature review, next in chapter 2, presents a discussion of the features of each of these education-related contexts, and the job duties of educational program coordinators within them. A complete discussion of the non-profit organisation is undesirable for reasons of confidentiality and anonymity, but the discussions that follow enable an understanding of how it functions in the larger context of the education industry.

Chapter 2

Literature review

2.1 Introduction

Educational program coordinators are education administrators who serve students participating in academic programs. This chapter presents a discussion of the roles of educational program coordinators in four education-related sectors. These sectors are discussed because the activities of the non-profit organisation are similar to the activities in higher learning institutions in four education-related sectors. Therefore, the Japanese educational program coordinators perform their job duties as education administrators within these overlapping educational contexts. These contexts are:

1. Non-profit organisations.
2. United States universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs.
3. Study-abroad organisations.
4. Japanese universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs.

Job duties constitute *work roles*, which may be defined as a set of potential behaviours to be performed in accordance with a specific job (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). Work roles are the specifically assigned duties, activities, purposes and functions of employees in an organisation (Krantz & Maltz, 1997). Work roles are also influenced by the employee's contribution to the overall mission of an organisation; the employee's assumed functions in fulfilling the organisation's overall mission; and the employee's actions in relation to these roles.

The aim of this chapter is to establish that educational program coordinators must work according to specific institutional or industry guidelines. These guidelines are established through the analysis of potential role behaviours of educational program coordinators in non-profit organisations; United States universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs; study-abroad organisations and Japanese universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs. A range of

job titles are assigned to the educational program coordinators whose work in the four education-related sectors are analysed in this chapter. These job titles are Summer Program Coordinator, Coordinator of International Student Services, Associate Director, Study-abroad Office, Program Assistant, Enrolment Management Specialist, Study Centre Director, Director of International Affairs, and Study Centre Resident Director.

The potential role behaviours of these educational program coordinators are found in documents known as job descriptions. These job descriptions have been used by this researcher to form assumptions about the work of educational program coordinators, but job descriptions alone may not adequately define how employees should perform their job-related activities (Krantz & Maltz, 1997). On the contrary, job-related activities are defined and shaped by employees' prior knowledge, abilities and expectations of the job. Therefore, the personal accounts of educational program coordinators who work in Japanese universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs are also used to establish institutional and industry guidelines in relation to their work. This chapter presents a discussion of the common job duties of educational program coordinators in these four educational contexts, as well as the implications for the stated and expected roles of the Japanese educational program coordinators.

2.2 Roles of educational program coordinators in two non-profit organisations in the United States

A non-profit organisation, or NPO, is a charitable organisation that provides services and benefits to society at the national or international level (Martens, 2002; McHargue, 2003). Non-profit organisations differ from commercial enterprises in that their operations are not focussed on gaining and maintaining financial profits (Kilpatrick & Silverman, 2006). Instead, NPOs provide services to fulfil unmet needs in their communities (Chambré & Fatt, 2002).

Some non-profit organisations engage in traditional business activities to generate commercial revenue (Tucker, Cullen, Sinclair & Wakeland, 2006). This revenue is later used to serve the community in which the NPO is located. NPOs that engage in traditional business offer services through their employees, whose duties may range from financial planning and human resource management to information technology management and logistics management (Euske, 2003). These NPOs are expected to base their operations on

a “compelling, easy-to-understand description of how they would like the world to change” over a three- to five-year period (Kilpatrick & Silverman, 2006, p. 25). This recommendation is based on the belief that employees in an NPO will be happier and more efficient at their jobs if they know the intended benefits of their work.

However, many NPOs that rely on part-time and temporary employees tend to have flat and informal management structures (Alatrista & Arrowsmith, 2003). The resulting high rate of employee turnover may interfere with the viability of NPOs in an economic climate of competition for revenue. In a competitive climate, NPOs are expected to continuously improve organisational performance by streamlining their operations to satisfy their clients’ expectations for integrated, tailored and timely services (Lettieri, Borga & Savoldelli, 2004). Improved organisational performance may involve the creation of performance standards or benchmarks for prospective NPO employees, and ultimately, the creation of job descriptions that resemble those of their counterparts in commercial enterprises.

In the United States, two non-profit organisations, AHC, Inc. of Arlington, Virginia, and Sponsors for Educational Opportunity (SEO), are analysed here as examples of NPOs that employ educational program coordinators, on a temporary basis. The job descriptions for AHC and SEO were posted on the Action without Borders Website between January and July, 2006, respectively (see Appendixes B and C). Action without Borders is based in the United States, and was founded in 1995 as a central venue for NPOs to promote their services and advertise career opportunities. It appears to be a reliable and current source of information on jobs in the global non-profit industry.

All job postings published on the Action without Borders website between January and July, 2006, for the position of Program Coordinator were examined. From these, the job postings with detailed job descriptions were selected. The two job descriptions presented here are comparable to the Japanese educational program coordinators’ job description, which was presented in chapter 1. AHC and SEO are large, private, non-profit organisations that engage in traditional business activities to generate revenue. Their educational activities are managed by educational program coordinators on temporary or part-time contracts.

The education division of AHC, Inc. of Arlington, Virginia, organises educational, recreational, and leisure activities for children and youth who reside in low- to medium-income communities in Arlington, Virginia, USA. The position of Summer

Program Coordinator is offered on a temporary basis, and requires the minimum qualification of a High School Diploma. The job duties of the Summer Program Coordinator include:

1. Recruiting children for the Summer Program.
2. Planning and providing structured activities for children, making use of the resources at a community centre.
3. Procuring snacks and activity materials for children.
4. Implementing systems to make sure the Summer Program runs smoothly.
5. Planning, coordinating, and supervising field trips to local attractions.
6. Implementing a behaviour management program during the Summer Program.
7. Maintaining financial records for the Summer Program.

The Summer Program Coordinator's job duties also include curriculum development, quality assurance, and financial management. The position offers a maximum salary of US $15 per hour. In the literature, it is argued that low salaries tend to perpetuate high staff turnover, which then makes it difficult for NPOs to hire and retain suitably skilled employees (McHargue, 2003). So, it is likely that the low salary and temporary appointment may fail to attract candidates who can best perform the job duties listed above. These factors may also contribute to the belief that the position of Summer Coordinator is of little significance relative to the AHC's general operations.

The second NPO discussed here is Sponsors for Educational Opportunity (SEO). SEO was founded in New York in 1963, as a mentoring organisation, and is now an international NPO based in the United States and the United Kingdom (SEO, 2001). SEO offers educational and career development programs for senior high school students from minority groups in both countries. The job description discussed relates to the management of the Merrill Lynch Atlantic Fellowship. The fellowship provides high school students in the United States and the United Kingdom with opportunities to learn about the business world, and to explore potential careers in the financial services industry.

The Merrill Lynch Atlantic Fellowship Summer Program Coordinator is offered employment on a contract basis, and is expected to have at least a Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degree, and one to three years of administrative experience in a non-profit organisation or education institution. The Summer Program Coordinator is also expected to have knowledge of the financial services industry, experience directly supervising young people, and experience travelling abroad. The Summer Program

Coordinator's preferred skills include excellent organisational and project management skills, the ability to manage multiple concurrent tasks, excellent written and verbal communication skills, excellent interpersonal skills, and outstanding critical thinking and situational problem-solving skills.

The duties and responsibilities of the Merrill Lynch Atlantic Fellowship Summer Program Coordinator are:

1. Plan all SEO-driven components of the Merrill Lynch Atlantic Fellowship Program, including making recommendations on training for students.
2. Accompany students during their travels to, from, and within the United Kingdom.
3. Ensure that participants have completed all required paperwork and related administrative steps including, where necessary, passports and visas, necessary for them to legally enter the United Kingdom.
4. Coordinate an itinerary of activities and all logistics for the Merrill Lynch Atlantic Fellowship Program.
5. Document activities and experiences in press releases, foundation reports and other media.
6. Budget and track all expenses related to the Merrill Lynch Atlantic Fellowship Program, including travel, meals, and accommodations.
7. Serve as co-chaperone for 20-24 students, 24 hours per day.

The job descriptions of the Summer Program Coordinators at AHC and SEO do not contain clear statements about how much time is to be spent on preparatory work prior to the start of the respective programs, so it is not possible to comment on the duration of each Summer Program Coordinator's employment contract.

There is one difference between the job descriptions of the Summer Program Coordinators examined here and the job description of the Japanese educational program coordinators, presented in chapter 1. This difference is that according to their job descriptions, the Summer Program Coordinators are not required to create marketing materials for their respective educational programs, to create information booklets, or to perform any authoring tasks not resulting from the events that take place during their educational programs. Perhaps the Japanese educational program coordinators must engage in these tasks because they are the only administrative employees in the non-profit organisation who are fluent speakers of English. Much of the preparatory work for the

study-abroad Japanese language program requires written and spoken fluency in English, so the assistance they can receive from their colleagues may be limited.

2.3 Roles of educational program coordinators in United States universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs

This section analyses the job duties of educational program coordinators at Wesleyan University and Northwestern University, two universities in the United States (see Appendixes D and E). The educational program coordinators manage international student services and study-abroad programs, respectively. The focus on these universities is justified because non Japanese students who participate in the study-abroad Japanese language program are enrolled in universities there, either as domestic or international students.

University managers and administrators may be classified as educational program coordinators, but this classification is inferred from their job duties, which include the management of large financial budgets, the coordination of academic programs, and long-term planning. University managers and administrators are constantly called on to make decisions about people, issues, budgets and policies (Powers & Maghroori, 2006). The analysis of the job duties of the educational program coordinators at Wesleyan University and Northwestern University is preceded by a discussion of the work of university managers and administrators in a global context. This preliminary discussion intends to elucidate the historical and professional challenges that may face university managers and administrators.

In the United Kingdom, the first university administrators were former civil servants who were stationed in other administrative jobs in the (former) British colonies. When they returned to the United Kingdom to take up new jobs as university administrators, they supported the work of academic staff, who were the sole decision-makers (Shattock, 2000). Up until 30 years ago, university administrators in the United Kingdom were not expected to work “counter to academic priorities, and they were expected to be seen and not heard at formal meetings and committees” (Lauwerys, 2002, p. 94). The present status of higher education administration in the United Kingdom, according to Lauwerys, has been influenced by the movement towards providing accountability and value for money in all related activities.

Despite these changes, Shattock (2000) believes that few universities in the United Kingdom have fully adopted fluid, participative, and flat structures for administrators. Having knowledge of the history of university administration in the United Kingdom has assisted university administrators there to understand their professional roots and the societal changes that have influenced their job duties in recent years. Presently, university administrators in the United Kingdom are working to achieve professional status, and are creating a professional body to represent their interests (Lauwerys, 2002). The proposed professional body of university administrators would accept members based on education and experience, create a code of conduct or guidance for members regarding their professional work, and establish systems to maintain standards and quality within the profession.

Recently, in the United States, an increasing number of individuals with postgraduate credentials appear to have taken jobs as university administrators. However, their most significant professional challenge is low peer esteem. Henderson (2006), in a personal account of her work as a university administrator, claims that her university does not officially recognise her job as a distinct job category. She believes that more American PhD holders, like her, are pursuing careers in university administration because of the scarcity of full-time, tenure-track academic jobs. Lauwerys (2002) and Shattock (2000), in contrast, chose lifelong careers as education administrators. Henderson (2006) believes that her shift in career focus has resulted in negative treatment from academic faculty staff who consider her and other university administrators with qualifications similar to hers to be ‘failures’.

The Executive Director of a Language School at Queen’s University, Canada, took his administrative position after being a teacher in a university. He says that his academic training did not prepare him for the new administrative role, or for the low peer esteem associated with educational administrative roles. He feels that other university administrators rarely feel satisfied with their jobs, because they are never recognised for doing well (Curtis, 2006). He believes that university administrators would feel a sense of achievement if they received awards for their work.

While an increasing number of PhD holders are taking administrative positions in United States universities, only half of university administrators in Norway have completed a university degree (Gornitzka & Larsen, 2004). However, Norwegian university administrators complain that their role is undervalued within the academic community. They believe that their contribution to the success of Norwegian universities may be

overlooked because of recent calls for increased efficiency and reduced administrative costs in universities. It appears that university administrators desire professional recognition for their work, and acknowledgement from academic staff about their contribution to university life. Regardless of the professional status of university administrators, their work is critical to the service quality offered by their universities.

Service quality is often understood from the perspective of students, whose satisfaction is often used to assess the ability of an education institution to address their needs (Tan & Kek, 2004). The literature on quality assurance in tertiary education focuses on the products of teaching and research at a university. These often are the skills that students bring to the job market at the end of their academic careers. This stance may contrast with students' perceptions of quality, which are based on a select few attributes, and which vary from student to student (Ratcliff, 2003). In other words, the subjective construction of service quality in education suggests that there may be some uncertainty as to what aspects of service would be of greater importance to students. It may therefore be difficult to assess how any educational program coordinator has catered to students' needs, before s/he begins working in that role.

The job duties of the educational program coordinators in Wesleyan University and Northwestern University in the United States will now be analysed. The job descriptions of these educational program coordinators emphasise prior administrative work experience and time spent living in non-English speaking countries. The job descriptions of the two educational program coordinators were retrieved from *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, and from the websites of Wesleyan University and Northwestern University. *The Chronicle of Higher Education* is a well-known source of news, information, and job vacancies for college and university faculty members and administrators. *The Chronicle of Higher Education* has a weekly print edition, and its website, which is updated every weekday, reportedly receives more than 800,000 unique visitors each month.

The two positions discussed are Coordinator of International Student Services, at Wesleyan University, and Associate Director, Study-abroad Office, at Northwestern University. The job descriptions for the two positions were also posted in the Human Resources areas of each university's website. These positions are full-time, but the proposed salaries were not advertised on the websites of *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, nor were they advertised on the websites of the respective universities.

The Coordinator of International Student Services at Wesleyan University is required to have at least a Bachelor's degree and three to five years experience as an administrator in a higher education institution. The job description emphasises that the Coordinator of International Student Services should have problem-solving skills and technology skills. The Coordinator of International Student Services is required to work overtime, according to a flexible schedule. S/he should be self-motivated and self-directed, and able to work effectively with a diverse and international population, including non-native English speaking students. The job duties required for this position are presented here:

1. Develop and implement international student orientation programs.
2. Develop effective administrative, data management, and communication procedures.
3. Manage the operating budget of the International Student Services Office.
4. Author reports for relevant international student programs.
5. Advise prospective international students on immigration requirements.

The full-time designation of the Coordinator of International Student Services is appropriate because s/he is expected to provide and maintain service quality before, during and after international students enrol in an academic program. The full-time designation may also enable the Coordinator to develop rapport with international students over a period of several years, during their course of study. This rapport may be enhanced if the Coordinator has lived in a non-English speaking country.

The minimum educational and skill requirements for the position of Associate Director, Study-Abroad Office, at Northwestern University are much higher than those of the Coordinator of International Student Services at Wesleyan University. While the Coordinator of International Student Services serves international students who are enrolled at Wesleyan University, the Associate Director at Northwestern University serves approximately 600 Northwestern University students who apply for study-abroad programs each year. These students may or may not be international students enrolled at Northwestern University.

The minimum qualifications for the position of Associate Director include a Master's degree, three to five years experience in study-abroad administration; teaching experience at the university level; work experience as an academic advisor; experience living, studying, or researching abroad; and fluency in a foreign language.

The job duties of the Associate Director, Study-abroad Office, at Northwestern University are:

1. Set study-abroad policies for Northwestern University.
2. Evaluate study-abroad programs.
3. Create office procedures that integrate with other Northwestern University offices.
4. Design pre-departure and re-entry curricula.
5. Author marketing and application materials.
6. Evaluate applications for study-abroad programs.
7. Offer advice about Northwestern University's study-abroad programs.
8. Manage the content of the Study-Abroad Office's Website.

The job duties of the Japanese educational program coordinators discussed in chapter 1 are similar to the Associate Director's job duties. The six-volume manual of preparatory tasks is comparable to item 1 above, namely "set study-abroad policies", and item 3, "establish office procedures". Effectively, the compilation of that six-volume Manual is equivalent to the setting of study-abroad policies for the non-profit organisation.

The Associate Director's job title and items 1, 2 and 3, above, suggest that the person who works in this position has administrative authority. Teaching experience at the university level may help the Associate Director to evaluate the study-abroad programs offered at Northwestern University. Students enrolled at Northwestern University receive academic credit for participating in study-abroad programs, so the Assistant Director must have the skills to evaluate the academic merit of study-abroad programs that are not provided by Northwestern University.

The experiences of one male US academic faculty member who was asked to temporarily take on the job duties of a university administrator may explain the required qualifications of the educational program coordinators at Wesleyan and Northwestern Universities. During his short tenure as a university administrator, Powers (Powers & Maghroori, 2006) came to understand the complex nature of university administrative work. He was asked to make many decisions, while facing disagreements over his decisions, and overt criticism of his work. He also realised that his experience and wisdom were openly questioned because that was his first experience as an administrator.

These attitudes may explain the requirement from Wesleyan and Northwestern Universities that their respective educational program coordinators have at least three to five years experience in a higher education institution. Administrative experience may imply "know-how", which translates to job efficiency and effectiveness. Therefore, this

minimum qualification is appropriate for the information management, event planning, and budgeting activities associated with both positions.

The Coordinator of International Student Services at Wesleyan University is expected to communicate with students from diverse backgrounds, while the Associate Director of the Study-abroad Office at Northwestern University is expected to prepare students for studying overseas. Therefore, both job descriptions state that ideal candidates should have lived in a non-English speaking country, or should have fluency in a language other than English. In the example of Wesleyan University, this requirement suggests that experience living in a non-English speaking environment may better enable the Coordinator of International Student Services to empathise with the stresses experienced by non-native English speaking students in the United States, and offer services that are sympathetic to their needs. In the example of Northwestern University, this requirement suggests that the Associate Director of the Study-abroad Office may be better able to advise students and parents, and to select study-abroad programs that best suit students' academic and extra-academic needs.

2.4 Roles of educational program coordinators in two study-abroad organisations in the United States

Study-abroad programs have been widely adopted by universities in the United States since early in the twentieth century. Universities have an institutional obligation to enhance students' life skills and employability (Bakalis & Joiner, 2004), so some universities in the United States may use study-abroad programs to fulfil that obligation. The Strategic Task Force on Education Abroad, which was created by the United States Government to investigate study-abroad programs, has recommended that the Government provide more financial support to American students who wish to study overseas (Lane, 2003). The argument for this recommendation was that national security can be safeguarded if the United States makes the effort to increase its understanding of world cultures. Dolby's (2004) study on American university students on a study-abroad program in Australia illustrates this latter point. Her study showed that American students were constantly confronted by negative sentiments about the United States and Americans. These American students noticed that Australians seemed to have a greater awareness of US culture and

history. They were also distressed to find that they were often unable to respond to the informed opinions of their Australian peers.

Freinberg (2002) is concerned that American students may see the cultures they encounter during study-abroad programs as a fantasy playground whose only real inhabitants are obsessed with commodities from the United States. The prospect of improving cross-cultural understanding and career prospects seems to attract American students to study-abroad programs (Kitsantas, 2004). However, Freinberg (2002) believes that these benefits are theoretical, as students seem to make their own decisions about the level of personal growth they will experience during study-abroad programs. Perhaps this concern comes from the belief that activities related to the university should have tangible learning outcomes, and so students who ignore the indigenous cultures with which they interact have failed to achieve a meaningful learning outcome.

Study-abroad organisations may be more aware of the practical needs of the university students they serve, and they may also be witnesses to students' experiences during study-abroad programs. Since study-abroad organisations serve students directly, they may be more inclined to focus on practical matters related to students' comfort and satisfaction while they are living in the host country. This stance may be necessary because the students who participate in study-abroad programs are the study-abroad organisation's primary clients and source of revenue, regardless of where the students themselves receive their funding.

Study-abroad organisations may appear to have similar goals, but may have different organisational structures and principles for managing students. Therefore, the discussion of the roles of educational program coordinators in study-abroad organisations in the United States begins with the self-declared roles of the study-abroad organisation to which each educational program coordinator is affiliated. The two study-abroad organisations presented here are the Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE) and Institute for the International Education of Students (IES). They are two large study-abroad organisations with headquarters in the United States and branch offices in several other countries.

The Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE) describes itself as a leading United States non-governmental organisation that creates opportunities for students to study, volunteer, and work outside of the United States. The CIEE has a branch office in Sophia University, Japan. The partnership between CIEE and Sophia University, as well as the job duties of the CIEE educational program coordinator at Sophia University, are

discussed in section 2.5, in relation to Japanese universities. CIEE also describes itself as industry leader, and states that its role is to set standards for other study-abroad organisations and study-abroad programs.

In 2006 CIEE produced a series of documents outlining its commitment to establishing standards for its study-abroad programs. In one publication (CIEE, 2006b), CIEE states that its organisational role is to create a cognitive-affective, outcomes-based model that ensures rewarding learning experiences for students. Simply put, CIEE believes that students should receive academic credit for expanding their cross-cultural understanding in a foreign country. CIEE ensures that students can receive academic credit from their study-abroad programs by examining the pedagogical methods of the academic programs provided by host institutions outside of the United States. This is done by identifying academic programs that combine specific academic standards with effective pedagogy. These academic programs are then matched to students' needs.

These procedures appear to establish CIEE's standing as an education institution with American universities. However, from CIEE's publications, it is clear that students are central to the definition of its institutional role. For instance, CIEE believes that the type and quality of student housing significantly affects students' daily lives in host countries. Instead of homestay, CIEE believes that a dormitory-style arrangement with members of students' peer group may do more to enhance contact with the host culture. This conclusion was drawn from feedback from students who participated in CIEE study-abroad programs. The implication here is that a discrepancy exists between ideas and experience about what would truly benefit study-abroad participants. From this understanding, CIEE has identified three further organisational roles:

(a) Establish a comfortable living environment in the host country.
(b) Make rational, reasoned and unbiased judgements on housing, prioritising students' well-being.
(c) Provide value for money.

Organisational role (a), above, is illustrated in the job description of the *Program Assistant* at the CIEE Study Centre in Dakar, Senegal (see Appendix F). The Program Assistant is an educational program coordinator whose main role is to oversee students' adjustment, health, and safety in Dakar. The responsibilities related to this role are:

1. Creating orientation packages for incoming students.
2. Watching over students' health and safety.

3. Providing guidance for appropriate medical care.
4. Observing safe behaviour and general welfare of students during excursions.
5. Acting as host family liaison.
6. Acting as an intermediary between students and host families when problems arise.

The job duties of the Program Assistant in Dakar illustrate CIEE's self-description as a student-oriented organisation. The role of educational program coordinators at CIEE's study centres around the world is to look after students' well being. There may be two objectives for prioritising students' well-being. The first may be to secure end-user loyalty, which serves to attract students to future study-abroad programs. The second objective may be compliance with health and safety guidelines, such as those provided by the Interassociational Advisory Committee on Safety and Responsibility in Study Abroad, in the United States.

The Advisory Committee provides guidelines to study-abroad organisations, as well as the teachers and families of study-abroad participants. The guidelines are not legally enforced, but represent an undertaking for good practice, which users are asked to follow using their judgement while considering their specific circumstances (Interassociational Advisory Committee on Safety and Responsibility in Study Abroad, 2006). Study-abroad organisations are also free to choose whether they wish to participate in this joint effort to maintain safety standards for their programs.

In 2000, safety standards for study-abroad programs were discussed during a United States Senate Hearing before the Subcommittee on Oversight and Investigations of the Committee on Education and the Workforce (Congress of the United States, Washington, DC, House Committee on Education and the Workforce, 2000). During that Hearing, several parents spoke about how their children, students in United States universities, died under tragic circumstances while participating in study-abroad programs in overseas. The Subcommittee's concern was that, with the projected increase in the number of US university students enrolled in study-abroad programs, there should be stringent guidelines for minimising risks to American university students who travel overseas.

The Mission Statement of the Institute for the International Education of Students (IES) indicates its commitment to providing quality study-abroad programs to American university students. The job duties of the Enrolment Management Specialist are now discussed. The Enrolment Management Specialist at the Institute for the International Education of Students (IES) is expected to:

1. Serve the IES recruitment team by providing them with up-to-date and accurate information about the status of each mailing.
2. Serve IES Centres worldwide by providing them with up-to-date and accurate information about the students who will be coming to their programs.
3. Analyse and generate reports on enrolment data.
4. Work collaboratively with the IES accounting team to ensure proper management of each student's billing record.
5. Work collaboratively with the IES Information Technology Department to ensure that data systems work effectively and accurately.
6. Provide creative ideas, and valuable input within the Enrolment Department.
7. Provide input for effective, easy to read, timely and streamlined pre-departure correspondence.
8. Review, copy, and file applications within the department's specifications for time and quality.

The job duties of the Enrolment Management Specialist include the collection, compilation, and delivery of information for students. The Enrolment Management Specialist occupies a transactional role because s/he relays information from IES departments to the student, and relays information from students back to IES for decision making. This relay of information, called knowledge flow, is vital to every organisation (Lettieri, Borga & Svoldelli, 2004). However, the flow of knowledge requires an atmosphere of voluntary cooperation among employees within an organisation. Collaborative work and information sharing with specific members of the organisation require a work culture that is based on trust (Lettieri, et al., 2004). Given that the responsibility for communicating with other IES departments rests with the Enrolment Management Specialist, another of his/her undeclared roles may be to maintain strong professional relationships with other employees at IES. Strong professional relationships may therefore facilitate the effective flow of information between IES and students enrolled in that organisation's study-abroad programs.

The job duties of the CIEE Program Assistant and the IES Enrolment Management Specialist differ because of the stage of students' participation in each organisation's study-abroad programs. The CIEE Program Assistant serves students living in Dakar. The Program Assistant is responsible for protecting students' well-being, and is physically present in Dakar to offer support and guidance. The IES Enrolment Management Specialist

serves students before they leave the United States to participate in study-abroad programs. However, the IES Enrolment Management Specialist also protects students' well-being by sending accurate information to IES Centres worldwide, so that the relevant administrative teams in host countries can prepare for students. The well-being of each student may be served by the receipt of updated and accurate information prior to their departure from the United States.

2.5 Roles of educational program coordinators in two Japanese universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs

Japanese universities have undergone reform since the beginning of the 1990s, in what is known as 'the third wave' of Japanese higher education reform (Ogawa, 2002). Matters addressed by educational reform include the improvement of undergraduate education, the expansion of graduate education, and the introduction of university evaluation systems. Another matter addressed in Japan's higher education reform is the creation of universities that are accessible to members of the global academic community (Horie, 2002). This relates to one objective of the higher education reform plan, which is to increase the number of international students studying in Japan.

Traditionally, Japanese universities have been managed internally as places of research and education (Asonuma, 2002). So, the work of education administrators in Japanese universities has been overshadowed by more visible activities such as research and teaching (Ogawa, 2002). Japanese universities have always been governed by the academic faculty (Ogawa, 2002), and this remains so even though Japan's education system is still undergoing reform. Ogawa believes that the work of university administrators does not receive attention in the literature because of the view that marketing and quality assurance are inappropriate activities for Japanese universities. Furthermore, Japanese universities are characterised by the absence of strong administrative leadership, and the practice of hiring conservative people who will work to establish harmony and balance (Shimizu, Baba & Shimada, 2000).

Japanese universities may have found a way to resolve the apparent paradox of continuing the traditional practice while recruiting external experts to manage university administrative processes. This is done by creating links with universities outside of Japan to improve education and research (Yonezawa, 2003). An example of the recruitment of

external experts by Japanese universities is the outsourcing of study-abroad programs to US study-abroad organisations. This outsourcing involves the establishment of partnerships between Japanese universities and study-abroad organisations in the United States. The function of these study-abroad organisations, in relation to Japanese universities, would be to serve non Japanese students studying, or intending to study in Japan. However, the cooperation between Japanese universities and study-abroad organisations in the United States may obscure the roles of Japanese education administrators.

The work roles of Japanese education administrators may also be obscured by a critical social problem, which is Japan's declining population. The impending population decline in Japan has resulted in a de facto state of increased competition for a smaller pool of students among public and private universities. That is, public and private universities are faced with the scarcity of potential students, and this has resulted in the recognised need to conceptualise new strategies for attracting the most desirable students.

Japanese universities may address this problem by revisiting a 1983 stipulation by Japan's Ministry of Education, Sports, Science and Culture. This stipulation, named *"100,000 by 2000*" was the Japanese Government's objective to promote intellectual international cooperation by increasing the number of international students studying in Japan to 100,000 by the year 2000 (Horie, 2002). The enrolment of non Japanese students in study-abroad programs may relieve the economic hardships faced by Japanese universities; however, these academic programs must meet global standards for education in the relevant subject areas.

The present discussion continues with the analysis of the roles of educational program coordinators who coordinate study-abroad programs at International Christian University (ICU) and Sophia University. These two Japanese universities have created partnerships with prominent study-abroad organisations in the United States, and have employed educational program coordinators who specifically manage study-abroad programs. The activities discussed here may not be a reflection of practices at all higher education institutions in Japan, and so this discussion addresses two special cases in Japan's higher education system.

The International Christian University, commonly referred to as ICU, is a prominent Japanese university that describes itself as Japan's pioneer in study-abroad programs (ICU, 2004). ICU maintains academic exchange partnerships with 52 universities around the world. In one partnership, the ICU offers study-abroad programs to international students

from the University of California (UC), a large, private, research university in the United States. Student exchange between ICU and the University of California began in 1964, when a UC Study Centre was established at the ICU campus in Tokyo.

Currently, the UC Tokyo Study Centre Director is the educational program coordinator who manages study programs at ICU and 13 other Japanese universities. According to the UC Tokyo Study Centre's Website (UC Tokyo Study Centre, 2006), the present Study Centre Director is a (male) professor of the University of California. His job duties are stated on the UC Tokyo Study Centre's Website [see URL: http://www.uctsc.org/menu3e.htm]:

> "*The idea was that a professor from the UC system would come to Japan and take up the position of program director as a sort of "exchange student" himself. There he [sic] would work with and advise both those students studying abroad in Japan as well as the Japanese students hoping to study in the U.S. regarding whatever problems/questions they might have concerning Japan or the U.S*".

The UC Tokyo Study Centre Director demonstrates the University of California's commitment to international education. His main responsibilities are to record UC students' opinions on the Japanese language program at ICU, and expand both universities' academic offerings according to these interests. Compared with the UC Tokyo Study Centre Director, ICU's Director of International Affairs has a greater number of responsibilities. His duties are to recruit international students, and to facilitate the sojourn of Japanese students in overseas partner universities. He manages the study-abroad experiences of non Japanese students and Japanese students who are studying outside of Japan. Many of these Japanese students are job seekers visiting other countries to participate in career internships or summer programs.

The discussion now shifts to Sophia University, Tokyo, which is another prominent Japanese university. The educational program coordinator who manages study-abroad programs at Sophia University is the CIEE Study Centre Resident Director. CIEE was discussed in section 2.3 of this chapter, in relation to study-abroad organisations in the United States. CIEE's presence at a leading Japanese university demonstrates its worldwide reach as a study-abroad organisation, while establishing the link between Japanese universities and study-abroad organisations in the United States.

The role of the CIEE Study Centre Resident Director is to welcome American students to Sophia University. The duties of the CIEE Study Centre Resident Director are

inferred from the 2006 Annual Program Review of the CIEE Study Centre at Sophia University (CIEE, 2006), a public document that was published on the CIEE website (see URL: http://www.ciee.org/evaluations_pdf/Tokyo_Summer_2006_ASCR.pdf). The job duties of the CIEE Study Abroad Centre Resident Director, Sophia University, Tokyo are:

1. Arrange homestay and dormitory housing options for students.
2. Coordinate cultural exchange programs in Japan for international students.
3. Coordinate tours, excursions and social events for international students.
4. Coordinate and report on the volunteer activities of international students.
5. Compile and report on feedback from students on the teaching effectiveness.
6. Compile and report on feedback from students with regards to satisfaction with academic programs.
7. Compile and report on feedback from students with regards to satisfaction with administrative processes.
8. Report on the effectiveness of the study-abroad program.
9. Modify program content to facilitate the needs of future students.

The presence of the UC Tokyo Study Centre Director, and Director of International Affairs at ICU, and the presence of the CIEE Study Centre Resident Director at Sophia University demonstrate the desire by these universities to establish innovative organisational practices without necessarily engaging in commercial activities. This view is supported by Asonuma (2002), who reports that the Japanese Government began to expect private universities to survive by themselves and to compete with each other.

The increased competition for students has made it necessary for universities in Japan to seek non-government sources of funding, which may later be funnelled to research and development projects. Outside contracts with industries are one potential source of revenue (Asonuma, 2002), and this is exemplified in the partnership between CIEE and Sophia University. ICU's partnership with the University of California may facilitate future graduate student enrolment, research partnerships and the exchange of teaching staff between these universities.

The job duties of the UC Tokyo Study Centre Director, Director of International Affairs, and CIEE Study Centre Resident Director appear to be centred on the provision of English-language services related to settlement, academic enrolment, and academic advice to non Japanese students. The ICU and Sophia University have made the comfort and security of international students the responsibility of specialised organisations, or

individuals, and in so doing, have reduced the strain on their own internal human and financial resources. In terms of the introduction of evaluation processes for institutions of higher education, universities that employ specialists to coordinate study-abroad programs are fulfilling an important quality assurance requirement. This requirement is to maintain a clear division between the roles of administrators as business managers and faculty staff as academic managers.

2.6 Chapter summary

This chapter presented analyses of the job duties of educational program coordinators in four types of education institutions, namely non-profit organisations; United States universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs; study-abroad organisations; and Japanese universities that enrol international students and sponsor study-abroad programs. The exemplary job descriptions suggest that overall educational program coordinators occupy service-oriented roles. In these roles, they manage the flow of information from the student to their organisations, and pave the way for decision making at the organisational level.

The discussion on the study-abroad organisations CIEE and IES highlight the weight of responsibility given to Educational Programs Coordinators, who are responsible for students' safety and well-being during study-abroad programs. CIEE has concluded that study-abroad program participants must receive comfortable housing while they study in a host country (CIEE, 2006b). However, while educational program coordinators are responsible for meeting students' immediate needs for comfortable living conditions in the host country, their decision-making authority may also be restricted by organisational policies and legal guidelines.

The job duties of the two Japanese educational program coordinators in this study are now conceptualised in relation to the educational activities that occur in organisations with similar operations. The minimum and preferred qualifications of full-time educational program coordinators in Wesleyan and Northwestern Universities have highlighted the importance of employing educational program coordinators who can efficiently serve students of diverse cultural backgrounds, while also addressing the needs of domestic students who participate in study-abroad programs sponsored by their institutions.

Chapter 3
Role theory

3.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the application of role theory to the non-profit organisation as a non-profit higher learning institution that organises a Japanese language study-abroad program for Japanese universities. Role theory concepts are first defined and subsequently applied to the job duties of educational program coordinators in four education institutions, namely non-profit organisations; higher education institutions; study-abroad organisations; and Japanese universities. The analyses are presented here at the organisational level to facilitate a broad understanding of Role theory. Finally, Role theory is applied to the Japanese educational program coordinators' job duties. Prior to these discussions, gender roles are discussed in terms of Japanese culture and the work of educational program coordinators.

Job duties are work roles, and these have been defined in chapter 2 as a set of potential behaviours to be performed in accordance with a specific job (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). Job duties are understood as social roles, or societal conventions to which adults are expected to conform (James & Mullen, 2002). Work roles are defined by society, which expects employees to conform to them. Since almost all adult life is spent functioning in a range of social roles, including work roles, role theory offers a clear perspective from which to analyse the professional experiences of the Japanese educational program coordinators.

3.2 Role theory

Role theory may be understood as a set of assumptions about how individuals behave in a society, in relation to their specific roles within that society. Roles may be defined as normative behavioural repertoires that must be played within groups (Odell, Parunak & Fleischer, 2003). Societies are maintained by patterned behaviours, which are imposed upon members of society rather than negotiated with them. Every member of society is assigned specific roles to play in relation to other members in that society, and in relation to

the integrity of the society itself. Role theory presumes that the behaviour of an individual belongs to a system of classification. It also presumes that the systematic classification of an individual's behaviour is a necessary process (Montgomery, 1998). The classification of an individual's behaviour may relate to his/her gender, family, and occupation, but occupational roles are more relevant to effective job performance than family or gender roles (Thompson, 2004).

Roles are abstract resources for accomplishing social action (Collier & Callero, 2006). Social action primarily involves the construction and reproduction of the structure of a social group. In the workplace, abstract resources are job duties or potential behaviours to be performed in accordance with a specific job (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). To perform a role, individuals must know the expectations of their role-set members, the activities that fulfil those role expectations and the consequences of those activities for themselves and for others (Marko & Mika, 2001). Job descriptions reduce ambiguity concerning the organisation's expectations about how an occupational role is to be performed. So, job duties are *roles* because the employee's potential behaviours are linked to a specific job. The workplace is a social system, and employees help to construct and reproduce it by performing expected behaviours.

Members of a social group use roles to analyse the social actions of other group members or non-members. The employees in a work environment constitute a social group, and role theory assumes that they possess job duties. Role theory also assumes that upon accepting employment, employees agree to perform their assigned job duties. Other members of society rely on the outcomes of employees' work, and therefore expect them to perform their job duties.

Chapter 2 presented a discussion of university administrators' definition of their work roles in terms of their professional contributions to higher education (Curtis, 2006; Henderson, 2006; Powers, 2006). Loi, Hang-Yue and Foley (2004) propose that professional identification is a key construct affecting professional workers' attitudes towards their jobs. When professional workers become identified with their profession, they incorporate distinctive professional attributes and values into their self-identities. Loi, Hang-Yue and Foley (2004) define a 'professional worker' as an individual whose identification starts in a professional school where members are socialised with professional values and attributes.

Education institutions are professional organisations that serve the public and the education industry, so educational program coordinators may obtain professional status from their affiliation with these institutions. As discussed in chapter 2, educational program coordinators do not receive formal training for their jobs before working in higher education institutions; however, they are emerging as a professional group because of certain attitudinal attributes. Lauwerys (2002) suggests that these attitudinal attributes include the establishment of a professional organisation as a major reference, a belief in service to the public, a belief in self-regulation, a sense of calling to the field, and professional autonomy.

3.2a Role-set

The term role-set refers to the set of other positions with which focal persons (for example, educational program coordinators) interact in the course of accomplishing their organisational role (Peiró & Meliá, 2003). A role-set is a network of positions within the organisation to which the focal person's position is connected, directly or indirectly (Das, 2001). The connection between positions can be understood in terms of work procedures, types of job duties and reporting relationships. However, educational program coordinators do not work exclusively with their colleagues. They also interact with students and other stakeholders in the education institution. Therefore, role-set members would be individuals who can transmit influence attempts to educational program coordinators in relation to their job duties.

3.2b Role expectations

Role expectations may be defined as role-set members' beliefs and attitudes about what focal persons should or should not do as part of their jobs (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). Role senders may use role expectations to create standards for evaluating the adequacy of the focal person's work (Stone-Romero, Stone & Salas, 2003). Role expectations may be compiled from job descriptions and later used to evaluate the focal person's job performance.

Communication with role-set members allows focal persons to reinforce or identify their role expectations. The expectations of role-set members are related to the focal

persons' culture-based conceptions of their roles (Stone-Romero, et al., 2003). In this case, any discrepancies between the expectations of role-set members' and the role conceptions of focal persons should be communicated or negotiated.

3.2c Sent Role

The sent role is comprised of overtly communicated role expectations that are received by focal persons (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). However, these expectations may not be communicated completely, since roles senders make assumptions about how focal persons will behave (Stone-Romero, et al., 2003), and expect them to behave accordingly. Focal persons can also send messages about their own roles to role-set members. This information may help role-set members to understand how focal persons intend to perform their job duties.

3.2d Role senders

Role senders assume that focal persons are motivated and able to engage in acceptable role behaviours without being told to do so (Stone-Romero, et al., 2003). Role senders may be the organisation's employees or clients, the organisation's mission statement, or the role the organisation is expected to play in society. When the role sender is an individual, the demands made on the focal person are constructed internally by the individual as assumptions of how the focal person will behave (Stone-Romero, et. al., 2003). When the role sender is an organisation, it imposes constraints on its employees, by defining the standards, objectives and responsibilities that they must meet (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). When more than one focal person occupies the same role in an organisation, the organisation may impose formal demands and constraints on them to achieve uniformity in their behaviour.

3.2e Role pressures

In the process of role sending, role pressures refer to the quantity of influence attempts that are directed at the focal person (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). Role pressures are directed towards the focal persons' performance of their job duties, but they may not

necessarily affect the focal persons in a negative way. If focal persons belong to a role-set with a large membership, they may experience greater pressure to comply with the expectations of each role sender. If different role senders direct role pressures towards the achievement of diverse outcomes (Tidd & Friedman, 2002), focal persons may experience stress or burnout if they are unable to achieve the outcomes demanded by the role senders (Bakker, Demerouti & Eurwema, 2006).

3.2f Role forces

Role forces are psychological forces that may be the immediate source of motivation for the focal person's behaviour (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). Role forces arise from pressures imposed by members of a role-set (Tidd & Friedman, 2002), but focal persons may resist forces they perceive as illegitimate. Role forces may also work internally, for instance, when focal persons send their work roles to themselves. These self-sent roles are beliefs and attitudes about how they should perform their job duties. Self-senders may refer to these internalised beliefs and attitudes as they perform their job duties. Self-sent roles, however, do not always lead to (or may not be relevant to) the accomplishment of organisational objectives.

3.2g Role behaviour

Role behaviour is understood as how focal persons behave in relation to their position in an organisation (Das, 2001). Role behaviour is equivalent to human output, and it is the focal person's contribution to the achievement of organisational goals (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). The employee's efficiency is irrelevant to the concept of role behaviour (Das, 2001). So, in discussing the behaviour of employees in terms of role theory, it does not matter whether the role behaviours are performed to the satisfaction of other members of the role-set. The evaluation of role behaviour takes into account whether focal persons have behaved according to standard patterns of behaviour specified by their job descriptions. This means that the behaviour of focal persons may not always conform to the role expectations held by the role sender.

3.2h Role conflict

Role conflict is created when members of a role-set have divergent or incompatible role expectations concerning the focal person (Das, 2001). Role conflict may also arise when members of the role-set pressure the focal person towards incompatible behaviours (Bakker, et al., 2006). The literature often cites examples of the conflict between work and family life, where the demands of the job prevent focal persons from fulfilling their familial duties to a satisfactory degree (Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman & Garden, 2006). Focal persons may perceive conflict when they are unable to respond to the demands of each member of their role-set.

3.3 Gender, work roles, and role theory

Work roles are more relevant to effective job performance than family roles or gender roles, but gender and family roles (to a lesser degree) are briefly examined here. The discussion of gender roles is relevant to the present role theory discussion because the Japanese educational program coordinators work in Japan, which is a society that is characterised by a high degree of role differentiation by gender. Japan's Confucian ethical system emphasises a harmonious society with a hierarchical structure in which subordinates show obedience to superiors, and men have dominance over women and children (Sugihara & Katsurada, 2002).

For working women in Japan, the consequences of gender role differentiation are low salaries, few opportunities for promotion, and pressure to resign their jobs when they start a family. This is true in spite of the fact that Japan's strongly patriarchal society is changing because of the Women's Rights Movement, the achievement of equal education of boys and girls, as well as the understanding that a single wage is no longer sufficient to maintain household living standards in Japan.

Currently, in Japan, more and more women desire personal freedom, and the decreasing stigma of being unmarried means that single women can enjoy economic and social independence. Though women in Japan are interested in career development, they are still placed outside the hierarchy of seniority and promotion in the workplace (Ono, 2003). They also receive little support from their superiors when they decide to start families. Women professionals in Japan must make a choice between contributing to the

country's economic life and managing the domestic household. Their expanding contribution to the Japanese economy suppresses their ability to create families. This is because their jobs cause stresses that create obstacles to getting married and raising a family (Ono, 2003).

The conflicts between career and family are not isolated to women professionals in Japan. Globally, women are said to face a 'double bind'. The double bind is that women are deemed unfit for leadership positions if they demonstrate stereotypical gender qualities. At the same time, they are singled out for not conforming to their expected female role if they exhibit role characteristics associated with the leadership position to which they aspire (Northwestern University Institute for Policy Research, 2000). The double bind seems to be a psychological stalemate in which women choose between career advancement and social ostracism on one hand, or social acceptance and low peer esteem on the other hand.

Generally, gender stereotypes portray men as agentic providers, and women as communal domestics (Thompson, 2004). In the work environment, jobs that require high levels of agentic qualities usually carry higher status and more power than jobs that require high levels of communal qualities. Agentic qualities include aggression, a strong drive for success, forcefulness, independence, self-sufficiency and self-confidence (University of Indiana Office of Women's Affairs, 2001). Individuals in jobs that require these qualities are perceived as being more powerful and more competent than individuals who occupy positions that require communal qualities (Thompson, 2004). Communal qualities include helpfulness, kindness, interpersonal sensitivity and gentleness. It has been suggested that new styles of leadership should include both agentic and communal qualities (University of Indiana Office of Women's Affairs, 2001).

The job duties of educational program coordinators are examples of the combination of both agentic and communal qualities. For example, various tasks require them to be self-sufficient and self-confident. These tasks include administrative processes such as educational program development, budgeting, student recruitment and knowledge management. Tasks that require educational program coordinators to assess, evaluate, and monitor systems and processes within the organisation also require agentic qualities. However, communication with students, and the management of students' welfare require communal qualities such as helpfulness, kindness, interpersonal sensitivity and gentleness. Communal qualities may assist educational program coordinators in providing students with relevant information, care, and quality service. The provision of these services helps

retain students in education institutions. This retention helps the institution to remain viable. In the context of educational program coordinators' work roles, communal or stereotypically feminine attributes are related to service quality, while agentic or masculine attributes are related to efficient job performance.

The examination of gender roles in relation to the Japanese educational program coordinators may only be relevant to their reasons for choosing to work in the non-profit organisation, and not necessarily to the content of their jobs. That is, from a gender-role standpoint, the non-profit organisation is communal in purpose because it is sensitive to Japan's standing in the global community, and because it seeks to foster good relationships between Japanese and non Japanese people. Given the differences in job training and experiences of JEPCA and JEPCB, it may not be necessary to extend the discussion of gender roles in this study beyond any issues that may emerge from the examination of their professional experiences, in relation to non Japanese students. So, gender roles in relation to the job duties of the Japanese educational program coordinators will be discussed if this issue is relevant to their interactions with non Japanese students.

3.4 Role theory applied to non-profit organisations and their employees

Non-profit organisations are public service organisations, and so they tend to have a positive public image because their financial resources, time, and energy are focussed on the well-being of their clients (McHargue, 2003). Members of the public may infer from the term non-profit that employees of non-profit organisations should work for the organisation's clients with no expectation of financial or professional benefits. The term role behaviour, defined in section 3.1h, is illustrated in Dart's (2004) research on 'business-like' behaviour in non-profit organisations. He has defined 'business-like' behaviour as planning behaviours that are directed toward the promotion of good social values. So, the role behaviours of non-profit organisations should relate to the promotion of good social values.

The phrase 'business-like' connotes that non-profit organisations normally lack the organisational structure and focus of commercial enterprises because their primary role behaviours involve the promotion of good social values. However, Euske (2003) supports the idea that non-profit organisations are business entities with system-relevant behaviour may include accounting, finance, human resource management, information technology and

general functions like purchasing supplies and making travel arrangements. Callen, Klein and Tinkelman (2003) have shown that the operations in North American NPOs are governed or monitored by major donors, boards of directors, non-profit rating agencies, and even the popular press. Thus, non-profit organisations may be said to operate in "a complex operating environment with a range of legal and financial constraints" (Tyler, 2006, p. 221).

Two issues may contribute to the role pressures of employees in non-profit organisations. The first issue is that non-profit organisations are believed to offer minimal financial rewards and limited opportunities for career development (Alatrista & Arrowsmith, 2003). The second issue is that employees are normally expected to contribute many hours of unpaid overtime work to achieving the non-profit organisation's goals. Now let us imagine that employees perceive limited opportunities for professional development as incompatible with their long-term career goals. If these employees resist the pressure to devote much of their time to providing services while ignoring their own financial and professional needs, they may decide to leave the non-profit organisation.

However, future employees may also seek out a non-profit organisation upon which to project their own values, or may assume that the organisation will embody certain values. In this sense, the employee has expectations concerning the non-profit organisation's role in society. Baecker (2006) argues that "the business of a firm consists both in its endeavours to produce its products profitably and in its attempts to reproduce itself" (p. 113). So, non-profit organisations must conduct their business in a way that will enable them to continue creating positive change in society. The non-profit organisation's administrative structure or job responsibilities may therefore include tasks that reinforce the notion that apart from its goals and values, it is primarily a business entity. Role conflict may result if the employee feels that there is too great a disparity between his/her values and the way in which the non-profit organisation's services are planned internally for delivery in the community.

Euske (2003) has discussed the range of demands on employees in non-profit organisations, and alludes to role pressures in other non-profits with similar organisational structures to commercial enterprises. Role pressures, as defined earlier, constitute the quantity of influence attempts that are directed at a focal person within an organisation (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). Non-profit organisations may be subject to a wider range of influence attempts than commercial enterprises. This is because they are "generally accountable to a number of stakeholders, rather than mainly to shareholders as for private

companies" (Tyler, 2006, p. 221). Some of these stakeholders may include sponsors or funding bodies that negotiate the desired outcomes of the non-profit organisation's activities.

Any stakeholder with the ability to influence how the non-profit organisation carries out its activities is therefore in a position to send influence attempts and therefore exert role pressures. The presence of a large number of stakeholders may lead to an increase in the number of sub-goals that the non-profit organisation must try to achieve over above service to its clients. These sub-goals may contribute to the employees' role pressures, and role stress may result if they are unable to meet the demands of these stakeholders.

3.5 Role theory applied to higher education institutions

In chapter 2, it was argued that academics and education administrators normally make decisions about what is best for students (Joseph, et al., 2006), whereas students themselves may have a select few attributes as to what constitutes service quality (Ratcliff, 2003). From a role theory perspective, it may be said that educators and students have different expectations about the roles of universities. Boyadjieva and Petkova (2006) believe that education is a permanent companion of the individual, a specific form, a way of life, as opposed to being preparation for life. However, preparation for life is the reason that students in the United States go to university.

Tannock (2006) has stated that the demand for higher education in the United States is so great, that students are "quite literally dying to go to college" (p. 45). They want to go to college because they want to be on the more favourable side of the wage gap. That is, students expect universities to give them a diploma so that they can get a good job and secure a higher standard of living than their peers who only have high school diplomas. Therefore, students' role expectations of universities relate to the benefits that they will receive *after* graduation.

It appears then, that the relationship between students and universities are temporary and transactional in nature. Students may be willing to accept influence attempts from their university (for example, deadlines, regulations and tests) because they know they will receive a diploma in return. So, for example, when universities in the United States insist that their students participate in study-abroad programs, students may comply with the policy because of reassurances that they will be able to compete for lucrative jobs in

multinational companies when they graduate. Figure 3.1 presents this researcher's summary of the students' priorities in relation to the organisational roles of universities.

Figure 3.1 Students' priorities in relation to the organisational roles of universities

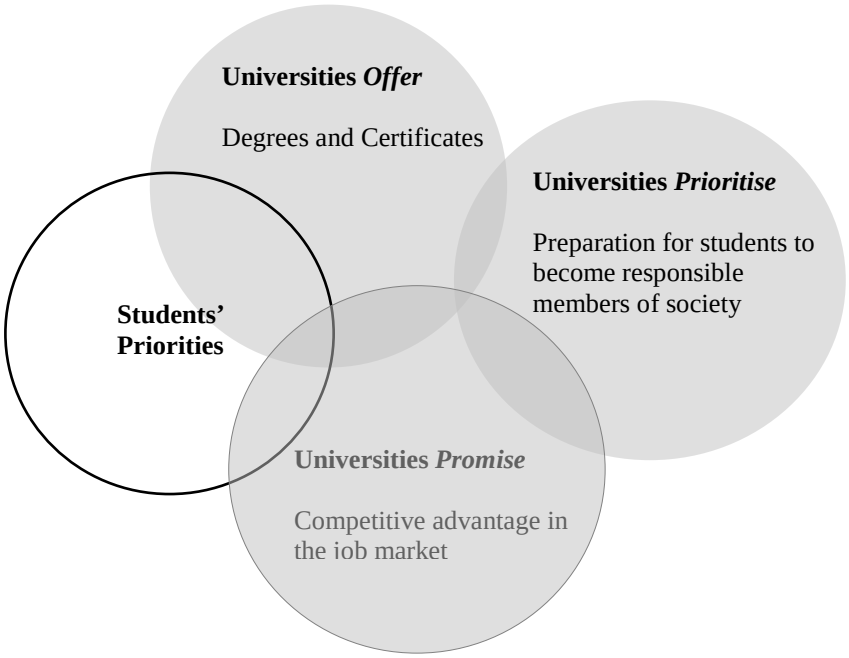


Figure 3.1 illustrates that the mission of universities is to prepare students for meaningful contributions to society. However, when students graduate, they will have to compete for jobs. So, the focus on getting a good job will cause students to seek universities that promise a competitive advantage in the job market. They will also expect to receive degrees or certificates to validate their academic studies.

Higher education institutions have dual roles, which are composed of their self-conceptualised (self-sent) roles on the one hand, and their sent roles on the other. The self-conceptualised roles of higher education institutions are relatively stable, and are presented to the public as standard guidelines, regulations, policies and curricula. Since higher education institutions are human service organisations, their self-sent roles may be the protection, maintenance, or enhancement of individual well-being (Johnson & Owen, 2003). The sent roles of higher education institutions are variable since these are

communicated individually by students (or parents), in the form of queries, requests, or expectations.

The dual role of higher education institutions is illustrated in Wesleyan University's Office of International Studies, which was discussed in chapter 1. Wesleyan University has a firm study-abroad policy, but parents and students are offered mediation services, daily visiting hours, and consultation time for discussing the study-abroad experience (Sorkin, 2004). This example illustrates that while education institutions establish objectives for specific learning outcomes, they must also respond to students' needs as well as to the cultural or socioeconomic issues that affect their lives.

Vanderstraeten (2002) believes that students' most urgent need is to find meaningful careers upon graduation from university. He argues that institutions fulfil students' role expectations in this regard by creating selection mechanisms for granting them the degrees or certificates they will use to find lucrative careers. However, the potential for role-conflict arises if students work towards receiving degrees or certificates, but education institutions pay more attention to preparing them to be responsible, well-informed members of society (Boyadjieva & Petkova, 2006). Education institutions are sustained by revenue from tuition and fees, so they may need to find a compromise between their value-driven objectives and helping students to find meaningful careers.

Modern education institutions rely on positive student feedback to attract future students (Joseph, Yakhou & Stone, 2006). This is why the term *service quality* has been discussed in relation to education institutions in recent literature (Joseph, et al., 2006; Konidari & Abernot, 2006; Trim, 2003). Service quality is defined as "the extent to which a service deliverer exceeds or falls short of customers' expectations" (Joseph, et al., 2006, p. 68). Traditionally, service quality has been discussed in relation to commercial organisations, and this may be why education institutions believe that they face (and must resist) the pressure to redefine themselves to resemble economic organisations.

As recently as 2004, higher education institutions in the United States received negative media attention because of the rising costs of tuition and fees (Engelkemeyer, 2004). Role forces are illustrated by the pressure from a number of sources towards greater accountability for education costs. These sources include a book authored by an American academic criticising the high cost of education; one financial consulting firm for universities; a prominent US National Award Program; and an analytical report produced by the United States Congress. All of these sources have requested that universities in the

United States justify tuition costs in terms of quality outcomes. These requests are understood to be role pressures that were aimed at ensuring that students receive cost-effective and high quality services from their education institutions.

The importance given to students' satisfaction with their higher education institution's services reinforces the notion that education institutions need positive appraisal from students and members of society to remain competitive. Though education institutions are being pressured to direct the majority of their activities towards providing outcomes that are relevant outcomes to students' lives after graduation, it may take some time before universities alter their organisational structures to accommodate the needs of each of their stakeholders.

3.6 Role theory applied to a prospective educational program coordinator in a study-abroad organisation

The application of role theory to study-abroad organisations is presented here in the context of the Institute for the International Education of Students (IES) in the United States, and the information made accessible to the public on its website. Founded in 1950, IES has a vision to foster interculturally competent leaders who have both the understanding and skills to effectively navigate across different cultures, in politics, education and business (IES, 2006). To prospective employees, IES describes itself as a non-profit study abroad organisation that offers a collegial, high energy environment (IES, 2006).

The job duties of the Enrolment Management Specialist were discussed briefly in chapter 2. The position is analysed here in terms of role theory because the Enrolment Management Specialist's job duties are similar to those of the Japanese educational program coordinators. Sent roles were defined earlier in this chapter as "communicated expectations that are received by the focal person with regards to his/her role" (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). These sent roles are presented in this job description as the collection, compilation, and delivery of information to students (see Appendix G). Thus, the Enrolment Management Specialist's main role is to manage information.

Other members of the IES Enrolment Management Specialist's role-set include (a) the Associate Director of Enrolment Management, (b) students, (c) university coordinators, (d) internal departments and (e) other employees in IES Centres around the world. The

detailed list of job duties and activities suggests that the Enrolment Management Specialist may experience a range of role pressures while interacting with each member of his/her role-set. These pressures may arise from the number of required tasks to be performed, or to the number of departments to which s/he must report. Thus, in terms of role forces, the IES internal departments, students and university coordinators will be the immediate motivators for the Enrolment Management Specialist's role behaviours. That is, their requests for information or services will inform the Enrolment Management Specialist as to what his/her appropriate role behaviours should be, in relation to these requests. Given that the Enrolment Management Specialist must interact with a relatively large number of role senders, the person who occupies this position will not have the authority to make changes in IES' organisational policies.

The Enrolment Management Specialist's role behaviours are indicated in the job description document. The principal verbs occurring in the dot point rows of the job description indicate the appropriate role behaviours in relation to each of the abovementioned role-set members. These verbs are: *serve, serve as, work, provide, assist, perform, collect* and *collaborate*. The principal role behaviour of the Enrolment Management Specialist is to serve students by providing information to all role-set members. Thus his/her information-management duties are limited to conceptualising ideas, providing factual information, preparing reports, and analysing data.

IES acts as a bridge between students and academic programs in education institutions within, and outside of the United States, so its organisational functions are administrative in nature. IES serves its clients by providing information, so it is logical that its activities range from finding appropriate academic programs to arranging overseas travel for students. The Enrolment Management Specialist assists IES in carrying out its organisational activities. So, the role expectations of this position are to provide accurate information to new students and to receive accurate information from internal departments.

3.7 Role theory applied to educational program coordinators in Japanese universities

Traditionally, Japanese universities have been conceptualised as places of education and research, which are managed internally by academic faculty members (Asonuma, 2002). Japanese academic faculty members have full autonomy over their roles as university educators. However, Japanese universities receive, and must respond to

influence attempts from students, private sector companies, and members of the wider society who believe that universities should restructure themselves as flexible organisations (Ogawa, 2002).

Two pressing social issues conflict with Japanese universities' self-sent role as 'research institution' or 'education institution'. One issue is Japan's fluctuating economy, which has increased the level of competition among graduates for entry into the working world.

The other issue is the impending population decline. One effect of low fertility rates and long life expectancy is that 19 percent of the population is over 65 years of age (Economist, 2006, p. 37). "Japan's population will continue to grow only until 2010, after which time, [it] will actually begin to decrease" (Levkoff, 2000 p. 11). Even though Japan's population decline has not yet started, Yonezawa (2003) claims that the decrease in student enrolment numbers has decreased the annual revenues of universities there. This decrease in student enrolment, and the resulting decrease in revenue, may be construed as role forces that would potentially motivate universities to reorganise their administrative structure. Some Japanese universities have responded to this role force by abolishing the competitive entrance examination system in favour of competing for students (Yonezawa, 2002). Other Japanese universities have sought to increase their student populations by inviting non Japanese students from overseas to participate in academic programs (Horie, 2002). Two of these universities, Sophia University, and International Christian University, were discussed in chapter 2.

The Japanese Government, in a bid to reduce general expenditure, has reduced financial support for universities by legislating to modify the sent role of universities to independent administrative institutions (Murasawa, 2002). The reduction in expenditure, which implies a reduction in the amount of monies received from the Japanese Government, is understood as pressure towards finding new sources of funding. Private sector companies are also highly influential role senders for Japanese universities. In an effort to reduce the costs of training university graduates to work in corporate environments, private sector companies in Japan have demanded that universities there prepare students with job related skills before sending them into the workforce (Asonuma, 2002).

Despite strong pressures to implement administrative reforms, these have been difficult to execute because Japanese university educators are still afraid that strong administrative leadership will strip them of academic authority (Shimizu, Baba & Shimada,

2000). This situation may be a source of role conflict for Japanese universities. They are devoted to maintaining their standing as places of research and teaching, but they will find it difficult to recruit new students, or to adequately prepare students for the working world, without making sweeping (and perhaps costly) changes at the administrative level.

In chapter 2, it was argued that Japanese universities maintain a clear division between academic and business affairs by employing outside consultants to manage study-abroad programs for non Japanese students. This division has allowed Sophia University and the International Christian University to maintain their standing while expanding their services. Perhaps the role conflict experienced by Japanese universities could be resolved in a similar separation of administrative and academic functions, while permitting strong leadership in both areas.

3.8 Role theory applied to the Japanese educational program coordinators and the non-profit organisation

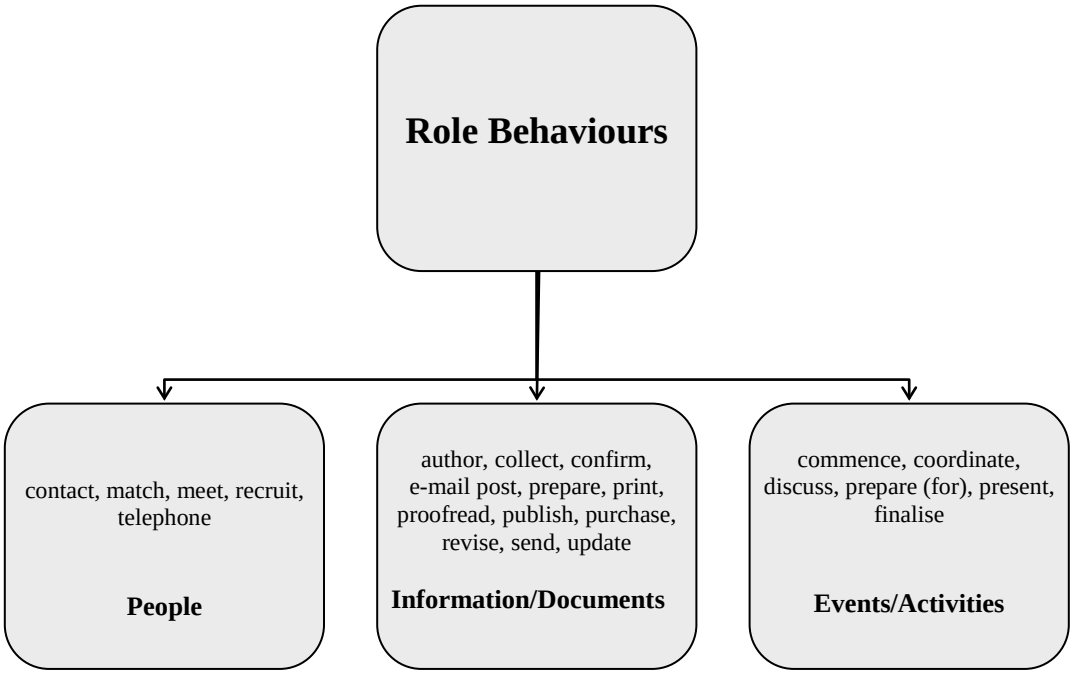
The final section of this chapter presents the application of role theory to the work of the Japanese Program Coordinators. Their job duties, presented in chapter 1, indicate that they spend a great deal of time preparing for the study-abroad Japanese language program. The Japanese educational program coordinators perform their duties by interacting with a large role-set. The members of their role-set include:

(a) The Study Abroad Japanese Language Program's Academic Committee, based in the United States.
(b) Japanese host families.
(c) Non Japanese students.
(d) Members of the host city community.
(e) Japanese language instructors.

The job duties presented in chapter 1 indicate that the Japanese educational program coordinators' role behaviours are related to people, documents or information, and events or activities. In chapter 2, it was argued that the role behaviours of employees in study-abroad organisations would be related to practical matters related to students' comfort and satisfaction during their stay in the host country. The Japanese educational program coordinators' job description shows that their role behaviours include providing

information, organising educational activities, and coordinating the individuals who will teach or interact with the non Japanese students during their stay in Japan. Figure 3.2 displays the verbs used in the list of job duties presented in chapter 1. These verbs indicate how the Japanese educational program coordinators are expected to perform their role behaviours in relation to people, documents or information, and events or activities as they prepare for the study-abroad Japanese language program.

Figure 3.2 Japanese educational program coordinators' role behaviours to prepare for the study-abroad Japanese language program



The non Japanese students and other individuals directly employed by the non-profit organisation have a contractual relationship with the study-abroad Japanese language program. These relationships are established through financial transactions or other tangible benefits, such as academic credit, for non Japanese students. However, there are other persons who make intangible, value-based investments or voluntary contributions to the study-abroad Japanese language program. These individuals are members of the host city community, and especially prospective Japanese host families. These individuals are

important role-set members because they are capable of influencing the outcome of the study-abroad Japanese language program.

If Japanese host families do not cooperate with the goals of the non-profit organisation by accommodating non Japanese students in their homes, homestay will not be a viable option for accommodating non Japanese students. Moreover, if Japanese host families do not treat non Japanese students well, the negative feedback on satisfaction with homestay may adversely affect future enrolments in the study-abroad Japanese language program.

The non Japanese students may have the following needs during the study-abroad Japanese language program, so they may expect the Japanese educational program coordinators to provide:

(a) Relevant, concise, and accurate instructions.

(b) Regular communication and follow-up communication.

(c) Printed documents.

(d) Information and support for living with Japanese host families.

While the non Japanese students are living in Japan, it is likely that they may expect the Japanese educational program coordinators to maintain the facilities, make travel arrangements and to monitor the daily schedules. Lloyd (2003) explained that after non-Australian students arrive in Australia, a homestay coordinator monitors their general adjustment, and investigates their complaints. He also observed that while Australian host families complain on the telephone about students, students complain in person about their host families. If this were true for this study-abroad Japanese language program, the Japanese educational program coordinators' role pressures may result from one-on-one interactions with non Japanese students concerning homestay.

Role forces are now discussed in relation to the selection of non Japanese students for participation in the study-abroad Japanese language program. Non Japanese students' postal applications are reviewed first by the Japanese educational program coordinators, and subsequently by the study-abroad Japanese language program's Academic Committee. The members of the Academic Committee make the final decisions about which non Japanese students will be selected to participate in the study-abroad Japanese language program. Some role conflicts may arise during the selection process because of the different objectives of the non-profit organisation and the academic committee for the study-abroad Japanese language program. The non-profit organisation's objective is to cultivate

responsible, informed, and cross-culturally competent young adults. This may mean that it would favour the selection of non Japanese students who respect these values. However, Japanese society greatly values school credentials (Fuwa, 2001), so the Academic Committee's objective is to recruit non Japanese students with outstanding academic credentials and therefore the ability to fully participate in the educational component of the study-abroad Japanese language program.

The Academic Committee is a significant role sender for the Japanese educational program coordinators because it creates the acceptance criteria for the study-abroad Japanese language program. As discussed earlier in this chapter, Japanese academia does not favour challenges to its autonomy, but prefers conservatism, balance and harmony (Shimizu, et. al., 2000). Furthermore, Japanese academic faculty members have the authority to make decisions on academic matters and may interpret strong administrative leadership as the attempt to interfere with their academic autonomy (Ogawa, 2002). Therefore, the Japanese educational program coordinators would not be expected to make overt influence attempts in relation to the selection of non Japanese students.

Japan's academic culture makes it difficult for the Japanese educational program coordinators to influence the selection of non Japanese students. However, they are responsible for selecting Japanese host families and for negotiating the contributions of other members of the host city community to the study-abroad Japanese language program. They are also responsible for ensuring that non Japanese students enjoy their stay in Japan. This issue may not necessarily have an impact on the quality of their work, but it illustrates the separation of administrative processes and academic functions in higher learning institutions in Japan. The Academic Committee take responsibility for non Japanese students' academic work, while the Japanese educational program coordinators take responsibility for their well-being.

3.9 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented an analysis of the sub-parts of role theory that apply to the Japanese educational program coordinators, as well as to each sub-feature of the non-profit organisation. The work of non-profit organisations was also discussed in terms of gender role expectations in Japan. Helpfulness, kindness, interpersonal sensitivity, and gentleness are communal qualities that may assist the educational program coordinators in providing

students with relevant information, care and quality service. However, educational program coordinators need to be good role senders and role receivers. That is, they must be flexible in order to do their work well.

The non-profit organisation receives influence attempts from all stakeholders who benefit from or contribute to the study-abroad Japanese language program. These influence attempts are experienced as role pressures by the Japanese educational program coordinators who must comply with the demands of each stakeholder in order to provide services to its target clients, the non Japanese students. Furthermore, the non-profit organisation serves the host city community in Japan and may not be in a position to influence the participation of prospective Japanese host families, who are asked to volunteer their time and resources to support the study-abroad Japanese language program. This may introduce additional pressures on the Japanese educational program coordinators to prepare housing for the non Japanese students before they arrive in Japan. Non-profit organisations are said to operate in a complex operating environment with a range of legal and financial constraints, but voluntaristic values in host communities may also add to the complexity of their organisational operations. The following chapter discusses the method for investigating the Japanese educational program coordinators' role pressures, in relation to non Japanese students.

Chapter 4
Method

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the method for investigating the role pressures conceptualised by the Japanese educational program coordinators in relation to the 60 non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. The three data collection methods were:

(i) A content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications.

(ii) A content analysis of e-mails to the Japanese educational program coordinators.

(iii) One-on-one interviews with the two Japanese educational program coordinators.

Both content analyses were designed to investigate the nature of Japanese educational program coordinators' interactions with non Japanese students before they arrived in Japan. The one-on-one interviews were designed to investigate the interactions between the two Japanese educational program coordinators and non Japanese students during and after their stay in Japan. The role pressures conceptualised by the Japanese educational program coordinators may originate from their interactions with non Japanese students before their arrival, as well as during and after their stay in Japan. This is because the Japanese educational program coordinators do a great deal of preparatory work before non Japanese students arrive in Japan, and because they look after the well-being of non Japanese students while they are living in Japan. Therefore, role pressures were investigated terms of non Japanese students' demands before they arrived in Japan, non Japanese students' demands during their stay in Japan and the effects of those demands on the Japanese educational program coordinators' professional experiences.

4.2 Broad and specific research questions

The broad research question is "*How do Japanese educational program coordinators of a study-abroad Japanese language program conceptualise their role pressures in a non-profit organisation in Japan, in response to non Japanese students*?"

From preliminary discussions with the Japanese educational program coordinators, two sources of their role pressures were identified from written documents and face-to-face communication with non Japanese students. Written documents are read, authored or exchanged before non Japanese students arrive in Japan. Face-to-face communication takes place during non Japanese students' stay in Japan. Therefore, the specific research questions presented here focus on these two areas.

Part A: Role pressures concerning non Japanese students' expectations before arriving in Japan

The following two research questions relate to the negative pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators before non Japanese students arrive in Japan. These negative pressures may be found in written statements from non Japanese students. These written statements are information requested in their *postal applications*, and their *e-mail queries* about the study-abroad Japanese language program. The following two research questions were investigated using content analyses of non Japanese students' postal applications and e-mails.

A1: *How does the requested information about non Japanese students' preferences in their* postal applications *contribute to the role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators*?

A2: *What is the nature of the negative content of non Japanese students' e-mail queries concerning the* study-abroad Japanese language program?

Part B: Role pressures concerning non Japanese students' expectations while living in Japan

The following two research questions relate to the role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators when addressing non Japanese students' complaints about living and studying in Japan. Non Japanese students usually complain about the educational and compulsory homestay components of the study-abroad Japanese language program. Non Japanese students' complaints were investigated using one-on-one interviews with the two Japanese educational program coordinators.

B1: *How do non Japanese students'* educational expectations *while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators*?

B2: *How do non Japanese students'* homestay expectations *while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators*?

Figure 4.1 presents a summary of the data collection methods that were used to investigate the four specific research questions.

Figure 4.1 Research questions and relevant data collection methods

Research question	**Data collection method**
A1: How does the requested information about non Japanese students' preferences in their postal applications contribute to the role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?	Content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications.
A2: What is the nature of the negative content of non Japanese students' e-mail queries concerning the study-abroad Japanese language program?	Content analysis of negative e-mails from 10 male and 10 female non Japanese students.
B1: How do non Japanese students' educational expectations while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?	One-on-one interviews with the Japanese educational program coordinators.
B2: How do non Japanese students' homestay expectations while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?	One-on-one interviews with the Japanese educational program coordinators.

4.3 Content analyses of non Japanese students' postal applications

Research question A1 was addressed by the content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications. The postal applications are compilations of documents and statements submitted by non Japanese students who intend to participate in the study-abroad Japanese language program. The focus of the postal application content analysis was the 'background information' section (see Appendix H). This section of the postal application elicits information about non Japanese students' lifestyle preferences. The Japanese educational program coordinators and Japanese host families use this information to prepare suitable accommodations for non Japanese students.

The background information section states that the information provided will help the Japanese educational program coordinators to make appropriate matches between non Japanese students and Japanese host families. The statement reads: "*To help us place you appropriately, and to ensure you a pleasant and constructive stay in Japan, answer the following questions CANDIDLY. Incorrect information can cause trouble when you live with your host family especially about food you cannot eat, smoking habits and physical restriction* [sic]. *So please include ALL relevant information"*. The statement suggests that the *absence* of accurate information might hinder the process of matching non Japanese students to Japanese host families. Therefore, the content analysis of the postal applications focussed on whether non Japanese students provided the requested information.

The term *content analysis* refers to a domain of techniques that are used to analyse "a communication or series of communications in a systematic, objective and quantitative manner" (Crano 2002, p. 245). These techniques are time-efficient strategies for conducting observational research, as the researcher "takes the communications that people have produced and asks questions of the communication" (Crano 2002, p. 246). Silverman (2003, p. 121) suggests that researchers should analyse how texts themselves achieve a particular purpose or effect. This is because texts document "what participants are actually doing in the world" (Silverman, 2003, p. 122). For example, non Japanese students are asked to write their personal information in the background information section of their postal applications. When they write statements, they appear to comply with that request. However, these statements may demonstrate the non Japanese student's desire to submit a successful postal application, and not necessarily his/her desire to provide accurate information to assist the Japanese educational program coordinators in preparing suitable

accommodations. That is, the background information section may have different meanings for the non Japanese students and by the Japanese educational program coordinators. Even if the Japanese educational program coordinators are uncertain about the accuracy of these statements, they must accept them at face value so that they can complete the homestay preparations.

Brewerton (2001, p. 153) believes that content analysis is disadvantageous to researchers because "only what is mentioned can be analysed". This would present a methodological problem if the non Japanese students' accounts were included in this research, but the Japanese educational program coordinators are in a parallel situation. That is, they can *only account for preferences that the non Japanese students present* in their postal applications. Moreover, the content analysis of the postal applications focussed on what was "not said", so the apparent disadvantage noted by Brewerton (2001) and Silverman (2003) served the purpose of the data analysis.

4.3.1 Sample for the content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications

The sample for this content analysis of research question A1 included the postal applications of all 60 non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. This sample was highly relevant to the Japanese educational program coordinators' perceived role pressures because they selected non Japanese students' Japanese host families prior to their arrival in Japan.

4.3.2 Population of the content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications

The total population of postal applications received from non Japanese students for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program is 150.

4.3.3 *Context unit and coding unit for the content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications*

The *context unit* for the content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications was the background information section. The *coding unit* of the background information

section contains 15 survey-type items, which ask for (a) yes/no answers, (b) short explanatory sentences, or (c) lists of information. The 15 items were sorted into the following nine categories:

1. Linguistic background (native language and languages spoken fluently).
2. Religion.
3. Food preferences.
4. Personal habits.
5. Dislikes about others' personal habits.
6. Height.
7. Allergies and other health-related problems.
8. Interests and hobbies.
9. Experience living in Japan or any foreign country.

4.3.4 Procedure for content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications

This content analysis identified whether non Japanese students responded to all items in each of the nine categories on the background information section of the postal application form. The number of responses was determined by tallying each non Japanese student's response under the nine categories presented above. The data collection instrument for tallying the responses is presented in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2 Data collection instrument for tallying non Japanese students' responses to the information requested in their postal applications

Postal application category	**Number of respondents**
Linguistic background.	
Religion.	
Food preferences.	
Personal habits.	
Dislikes about others' personal habits.	
Height.	
Allergies and other health-related problems.	
Interests and hobbies.	
Experience living in Japan or any foreign country.	

The impact of non Japanese students' responses to requests for information on the background information section of the postal application was determined in one-on-one interviews with the Japanese educational program coordinators. In section D of the interview schedule (see Appendix I), question D4a asked the Japanese educational program coordinators to rate the level of difficulty in matching non Japanese students to Japanese host families. Question D4b asked them to state the most significant challenges they experienced while selecting Japanese host families in 2006. Section F5 of the interview schedule asked the Japanese educational program coordinators to rank their feelings of stress according to a five-point scale on the issues of (a) non Japanese students' complaints about their Japanese host families and (b) non Japanese students' requests to live with different Japanese host families.

4.4 Content analysis of non Japanese students' negative e-mails

Research question A2 was addressed by a content analysis of the negative e-mails that non Japanese students sent to the Japanese educational program coordinators. Non Japanese students started sending emails about six months prior to the start of the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. Their e-mails contained queries about the application instructions, immigration procedures for entering Japan, as well as the educational and homestay components of the study-abroad Japanese language program.

From a pre-test of 20 randomly selected e-mails, there appeared to be a consistent relationship between negative words, expressions of doubt, and questions. The questions were requests for the Japanese educational program coordinators to perform actions or give the non Japanese students 'special' consideration during the application process. These requests were made because non Japanese students were unable to fully comply with application procedures; because they were dissatisfied with services received; or because they wanted the Japanese educational program coordinators to provide services that may have been beyond their duty statement.

The response to non Japanese students' requests for special consideration may have required non-typical responses, work schedule adjustments, or the performance of additional tasks. Thus, e-mails with negative content were taken to be deliberate influence attempts directed towards the Japanese educational program coordinators. This is why negative e-mails from non Japanese students were chosen for the content analysis.

The use of content analysis to examine e-mails from non Japanese students combines both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Silverman (2003, p. 123) asserts that the theoretical basis of content analysis is unclear, and conclusions can be "trite". He also opines that "our ability to categorise quickly is properly treated as a research topic rather than a resource" (p. 124). However, categorisation is an important first step for analysing research data, especially when no precedent exists for defining the categories within the data. The sample for this content analysis, which is discussed later, is relatively small, so the "powerful conceptual grid" (Silverman 2003, p. 123) provided by this data collection method is advantageous. This content analysis isolates the themes found within *negative* e-mails received by the Japanese educational program coordinators. Because this is an empirical study of role pressures in a Japanese higher learning institution, the content analysis established the *kinds of subjects* upon which the Japanese educational program coordinators and non Japanese students exchanged e-mails.

E-mail requests for information on the study-abroad Japanese language program, for example, are not remarkable because the non Japanese students may be redirected to a website or to printed texts that contain the required information. Negative e-mails are remarkable because their "negativity" is compatible with the definition of role pressures as *influence attempts that aim to bring about conformity with the expectations of the role sender*. Since the meaning of affirmative words can change depending on the context, and thus limit the results of the content analysis (Brewerton, 2001, p. 152), the identification of negative content e-mails was achieved by highlighting negative words, phrases, prefixes, and suffixes. This means that trading off "tacit members' knowledge in coining and applying categories" (Silverman, 2003, p. 124), may not be problematic if an objective definition of *negative e-mails* is offered. The definition of *negative e-mails* for the e-mail content analysis procedure is discussed later in this section.

4.4.1 Population for the content analysis of negative emails from non Japanese students

The population for this content analysis consisted of all e-mails sent by non Japanese students regarding the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. All queries were included in the population, whether or not the non Japanese students were eventually invited to participate in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program.

4.4.2 Context unit and coding unit for the content analysis of negative e-mails from non Japanese students

The context unit for this content analysis was the set of e-mails exchanged between the non Japanese students and the Japanese educational program coordinators that contain negative content. A measurable and replicable coding context was created by defining negative content as "e-mails containing negative words, or phrases that express doubt". Examples of negative words are *no, not, however, afraid, sorry, wonder*, as well as the apostrophised letters *n't*, which were found in negative phrases such as *haven't, can't, don't* or *won't*.

4.4.3 Sample for the content analysis of negative e-mails from non Japanese students

The final sample for this content analysis was the set of e-mails received from 10 male and 10 female non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. This sample was selected by identifying the e-mails with the highest number of negative words from the e-mails in the population. The sample of e-mails containing negative words was identified by highlighting negative words in Microsoft Word. The e-mails were analysed for negative words such as *no, not, however, afraid, sorry, wonder*, as well as the apostrophised letters "*n't*", which are found in negative phrases such as *haven't, can't, don't* or *won't*. The final sample of 10 male and 10 female non Japanese students was determined by comparing the list of e-mails containing a high number of negative words, with the list of non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program.

A pre-test of 20 randomly selected e-mails using the sampling method described above showed a relationship between negative words and expressions of doubt, and questions. These questions relate to the following:

(a) Requests for special consideration due to the non Japanese students' inability to comply with application procedures.

(b) Complaints about services.

(c) Requests for services that may go beyond the Japanese educational program coordinators' duty statement.

Within this pre-test sample, e-mails that contained questions without negative words did not display any of the above characteristics.

4.4.4 Procedure for content analysis of negative e-mails from non Japanese students

Three thematic categories for the content analysis of non Japanese students' e-mails were derived from the pre-test of the sampling method described above. The thematic categories were:

(a) The inability to comply with application procedures.
(b) Complaints about services.
(c) Requests for services that may be beyond the Japanese educational program coordinators' duty statement.

The content analysis procedure was as follows:

1. Search for and highlight negative words in the e-mails.
2. Search for and highlight questions or question phrases in these e-mails.
3. Determine whether there is a relationship between the question and the accompanying negative statement.
4. Assign subjects to each e-mail.
5. List each subject under one of three thematic categories (mentioned above).
6. Count the number of e-mail messages exchanged between the non Japanese student and the Japanese educational program coordinators to resolve each issue.
7. Count the number of queries in each thematic category.

The number of e-mails exchanged was measured without difficulty because each e-mail was saved as a "conversation". That is, the Japanese educational program coordinators resent the original messages in each response they sent to a non Japanese student. This enabled them to trace each conversation to its original query, so they could track the progress of the correspondence. This content analysis procedure did not measure the *seriousness* of the content of negative e-mails. Rather, it indicated the issues raised by

non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, and how they attempted to resolve them before arriving in Japan.

4.4.5 Reliability and validity of the content analyses

The reliability of the content analyses was achieved with standardised categories for (Silverman, 2003, p. 229). Inter-rater reliability was another way of achieving reliability in the analyses of the postal applications and negative e-mails. This would have involved asking different analysts to analyse the postal application data and e-mails according to an agreed set of categories (p. 229). Instead, reliability was achieved by creating standard definitions and protocols for analysing the data.

4.5 One-on-one interviews with the Japanese educational program coordinators

One-on-one interviews were used to answer research questions B1 and B2. The Japanese educational program coordinators were interviewed separately, and the data used to generate accounts of their perceived role pressures in response to non Japanese students. Qualitative methods are well suited to the understanding of meanings, interpretations, and subjective experiences of individuals (Al Rubaie, 2002, p. 32). Therefore, this research interview allowed this researcher to examine the subjective experiences of the Japanese educational program coordinators. The interview questions (Appendix I) were structured to achieve efficient analysis and comparison the data generated (Silverman, p. 88). The Japanese educational program coordinators' responses were treated as accounts of their role pressures, in response to non Japanese students. The treatment of interview responses as 'accounts' is conveyed by the broad research question and research questions B1 and B2. The broad research question is: *"How do Japanese educational program coordinators of a study-abroad Japanese language program conceptualise their role pressures in a non-profit organisation in Japan in response to non Japanese Students*?*"*

B1: *How do non Japanese students'* educational expectations *while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressure perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?*

B2: *How do non Japanese students'* homestay expectations *while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressure perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?*

These two specific research questions address the Japanese educational program coordinators' interpersonal interactions with the non Japanese students *before* they arrived in Japan, and *during* their stay in Japan. The one-on-one interviews were used to establish how non Japanese students' demands contributed to the role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators while managing the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program.

The Japanese educational program coordinators conceptualise their role pressures according to their subjective construction of the study-abroad Japanese language program. Research interviews are an important source of subjective experiences in qualitative research that are focussed on human affairs (Yin 2003, p. 92). Yin's belief that human affairs should be reported and interpreted through the eyes of specific interviewees (p. 92), contrasts with Freebody's (2003, p. 136) view that interviews cannot be treated as authentic or pure reflections of self.

Interviews are interactions through which the researcher and the respondent construct narrative versions of the social world (Miller & Glassner, 2003, p. 99). They allow researchers to explore the points-of-view of respondents, and "provide access to the meanings people attribute to their experiences and social worlds" (p. 100). This is advantageous to the present research, which is focussed on personal accounts.

Qualitative research interviews are conducted on the assumption that it is "possible to investigate elements of the social world by asking people to talk" (Mason, 2002, p. 225). Interviews became widely used in qualitative research because researchers had to complete projects in short periods of time (Stark & Torrance, 2004, p. 34). However, research interviews seem to be disclaimed on the bases that (a) facts are independent of the individuals within a social setting, and that (b) individuals are unreliable sources of facts because they interpret the information within their social world according to their internal values and meaning-making systems. The main disadvantages of research interviews are said to be that the respondents' stories are told only in part, and that respondents may alter their stories in accordance with their social systems, further distorting the accounts they give to the researcher (Freebody, 2003, p. 136; Miller & Glassner, 2003, p. 101).

These disclaimers may be counter-argued with assurances from Stark and Torrance (2004, p. 33) that qualitative research assumes that "things may not be as they seem" while offering "*possible* readings from the inside" [emphasis added]. That is, while the Japanese educational program coordinators were asked to account for their role pressures, they did not necessarily have access to the tools for recognising and analysing their own thoughts about role pressures. So, this researcher treated the one-on-one interviews as another way of observing the research setting.

The content analysis of e-mails from non Japanese students, for example, provided a way to quantify the influence attempts received by the Japanese educational program coordinators, but it was not possible to show the professional and personal effects of these influence attempts on the Japanese educational program coordinators. This researcher, however, assumes that the Japanese educational program coordinators are able to give accounts of how they were affected in their interactions with non Japanese students.

One-on-one interviews were chosen over e-mail or posted questionnaires because personal contact achieves higher response rates to questions (Crano, 2002, p. 225). One-on-one interviews were effective in allowing this researcher to resolve misunderstandings arising from the way the questions were phrased. The researcher's presence during the interview, together with the use of an interview protocol to conduct both interviews in exactly the same way, facilitates reliability in generating data (Silverman, 2003, p. 88). Crano (2002, p. 226) advocates the use of structured, scheduled interviews with closed-ended questions to achieve the greatest degree of standardisation. Therefore, a structured interview that appears similar to a formal survey (Yin, 2003, p. 89) was used to record the accounts of the Japanese educational program coordinators.

Direct observation of the Japanese educational program coordinators as they work in the non-profit organisation to prepare for the study-abroad Japanese language program was ruled out as a data collection method. This was because of time constraints, as well as this researcher's inability to guarantee that the findings would be "independent of accidental circumstances of the research" (Peräkylä, 2003, p. 203). For example, this researcher would have been asked to assist the Japanese educational program coordinators in their work at some point during the observation, and this assistance would have reduced their perception of role pressures during the research period.

In chapters 2 and 3, the analyses of the job duties of educational program coordinators in other education institutions were identified as alternatives to direct observation of the

Japanese educational program coordinators at work in the non-profit organisation. Those analyses allowed this researcher to practise analysing the information that was later generated from the content analyses and one-on-one interviews.

Focus groups were also a possible method for investigating the Japanese educational program coordinators' role pressures. The naturally-occurring data arising from their discussion of a particular issue would have provided an understanding of their attitudes and feelings (Silverman, 2003, p. 83, p. 160) about their interactions with non Japanese students. However, this researcher must consider social factors such as hierarchical relationships between colleagues who were doing the same job, as well as Japanese cultural rules about taking turns in conversations. Japanese speakers are known to prioritise harmony and relationship-building in their interpersonal conversations, and so it is possible that the focus group interview would not have been a reliable method of generating information. Therefore, one-on-one interviews were chosen because this researcher wished to generate an account of Japanese educational program coordinators' role pressures while minimising the interference of cultural factors in the generation of these accounts.

4.5.1 Population and sample for the one-on-one interviews

The population and sample of respondents to this interview are two Japanese educational program coordinators, one female and one male. The female Japanese educational program coordinator has been employed to the non-profit organisation since December, 2002. Her pseudonym is JEPCA. The male Japanese educational program coordinator has been employed to the non-profit organisation since November, 2006. His pseudonym is JEPCB. Both JEPCA and JEPCB are full-time, permanent employees of the non-profit organisation. Neither of them has lived outside Japan for more than six months. The small sample size for these one-on-one interviews is unique for two reasons. The first reason is that these Japanese educational program coordinators are the only two employees in the Non-profit Organisation who coordinate the study-abroad Japanese language program. Second, they are not members of a larger group of Japanese educational program coordinators.

4.5.2 Procedure for the one-on-one interviews

The one-on-one interviews were conducted on the same day, at separate times, with each Japanese educational program coordinator in facilities provided by the non-profit organisation. The interview questions were organised into six main sections:

A. Biographical Information.
B. Overtime Work.
C. Non Japanese Students' Demands.
D. Services to Non Japanese Students.
E. Communication Skills.
F. Problem solving/Crisis Management Skills.

The seventh section (G) contained an open-ended question, which asked the Japanese educational program coordinators to make additional statements about their role pressures. The complete interview schedule is found in Appendix I.

The following three issues were investigated in the one-on-one interviews:

1. The perceived quality of Japanese educational program coordinators' interpersonal relationships with non Japanese students.
2. The Japanese educational program coordinators' assumptions about the kinds of demands made by non Japanese students.
3. The degree of stress experienced by the Japanese educational program coordinators when addressing non Japanese students' demands before and during their stay in Japan.

Sections A and B of the interview schedule elicited information about the Japanese educational program coordinators' professional experiences, qualifications, and motivations for choosing to work at the non-profit organisation. These questions were used to generate comparable data on the professional experiences of the Japanese educational program coordinators. The information generated in this section was comparable only with the literature on the work of non-profit organisations (Alatrista & Arrowsmith, 2003; Martens, 2002; McHargue, 2003). The perceived quality Japanese educational program coordinators' interpersonal relationships with the non Japanese students was addressed by section E, which asked questions about their communication skills, and items F1a to F4 in section F, which asked about problem solving and crisis management skills. The Japanese educational program coordinators were asked to rate their problem-solving skills (F3), and satisfaction with their skills (F4), and to explain their answers. These explanations from the Japanese

educational program coordinators ensured that the interview was standardised but flexible, allowing a range of responses within the topic.

Sections A and B contained closed-ended questions that required short responses. Section B focussed on overtime work, which is normally related to role pressures. All items in section C (C1, C2 and C3), as well as item F5, used a five-point Likert-type rating scale to measure the level of stress experienced in relation to non Japanese students' demands. The rank of 5 was equivalent to *I experience a very high level of stress*, and a rank of 1was equivalent to *I experience no stress at all.* The mid-point of this scale was *I experience a moderate level of stress.* The tables in items C1, C2, C3, and F5 used closed-ended scales. However, in C1, C2, C3, the flexibility was found in the spaces created in a table for "*demand"* from non Japanese students. This researcher was open to Japanese educational program coordinators' descriptions of the kinds of demands that they receive from non Japanese students. While the elicitation of different demands resulted in low comparability, interview schedules are normally required to be incisive and probing while leaving room for the researcher to discover the unexpected (Gerson & Horowitz, 2002, p. 204).

This researcher nominated specific issues in item F5 because preliminary discussions with the Japanese educational program coordinators revealed a common set of problems that non Japanese students experienced each year while they were living in Japan. The interview emphasised the kinds of problems that the non Japanese students discussed with the Japanese educational program coordinators, because the explanation of the content of each unique query, request or complaint was neither practical nor time-efficient.

Item D4a used a seven-point Likert-type scale to rate the level of difficulty in matching non Japanese students to Japanese host families. The phrases *very difficult* and *very easy* were at either end of the scale, with *neither easy nor difficult* at the mid-point of the scale. Items D5a and D5b use a six-point Likert-type scale with the choices of *always, frequently, sometimes, seldom, rarely* and *never.* A six-point Likert-type scale was also used in item E4, which measured the level of importance of rapport, from *very important*, to *other*. This latter option allowed the Japanese educational program coordinators to discuss their opinions if they were not captured by the choices provided during the interview. A number scale was not used for these items because the Japanese educational program coordinators were asked to explain their answers. This means that the explanations

were prioritised over the ranking, which was used to quantify the level of difficulty or frequency of occurrence, in the respective situations.

This researcher used the contrasting information in section D to understand how the Japanese educational program coordinators conceptualised the services that they provided. In section C, *demand* is associated with *stress*, but in section D, *service* is associated with *challenge*. This researcher hoped to understand whether the Japanese educational program coordinators perceived stress when motivated by the non Japanese students to perform specific tasks.

The degree of stress experienced by the Japanese educational program coordinators was addressed by the questions in section C, and question F5, which focused on one-on-one conversations with non Japanese students. These questions investigated the level of stress experienced by the Japanese educational program coordinators when non Japanese students made queries, requests, complaints, or were uncooperative during the study-abroad Japanese language program.

The questions in the interview schedule were brief, direct, and delivered in language that was easy to understand (Crano, 2002, p. 226). This latter condition was critical because the Japanese educational program coordinators are second language speakers of English. Another feature that made the interview questions easy to understand was the chronological sequence of questions that "flow from past, to present, to imagined" (Gerson & Horowitz, 2002, p. 205). The interview questions also differentiated "among the various dimensions of lived experience" (p. 205), which were social contexts or events; behavioural responses; feelings; perceptions and feelings before, during and after the experience, and current interpretations of the experience.

The final version of the interview questions was achieved after several revisions of the questions for clarity and relevance to the research themes, and a pre-test with two Japanese educational program coordinators, one male and one female, who manage international student enrolments in a prominent Japanese university.

4.5.3 One-on-one interview data analysis

The information from the one-on-one interviews were analysed from three perspectives. First, the information from the interviews was analysed from the perspective of each Japanese educational program coordinator. Second, comparisons were made

between the information from each Japanese educational program coordinator. Third, the information was compared to the literature review presented in chapter 2, and the analysis of the primary sources in chapter 3, on role theory.

The insights gained from these perspectives enabled this researcher to answer the broad research question, "*How do Japanese educational program coordinators of a study-abroad Japanese language program conceptualise their role pressures in a Non-profit Organisation in Japan, in response to non Japanese students?"* The information from sections C, D, E and F, was used to answer the specific research questions, B1 and B2.

4.5.4 Reliability and validity of one-on-one interviews

The reliability of the one-on-one interviews was achieved by creating an interview protocol to ensure that the Japanese educational program coordinators were able to understand the research questions in the same way (Silverman, 2003, p. 229). Though the Japanese educational program coordinators speak fluent English, they were expected to have different interpretations of the interview questions. Fixed choice answers would have increased reliability (Silverman, 2003, p. 229), but the information would not have been valid if this researcher asked the Japanese educational program coordinators to confine their answers to the ones provided. Silverman suggests the use of low-inference descriptors (p. 230). In this research, this was achieved by recording and transcribing the one-on-one interviews and by presenting long quotations in the presentation and discussion of the results.

4.6 Ethical considerations

The ethical considerations for this study relate to voluntary participation, informed consent, confidentiality, and anonymity. The principle of voluntary participation "requires that people not be coerced into participating in research" (Trochim, 2000, p. 24). Informed consent is a process whereby researchers give respondents ongoing information about the goals, benefits and risks of the research project (Citro, 2003, p. 83). The Japanese educational program coordinators' voluntary participation was ascertained during initial discussions with this researcher before this study was designed.

The benefits from this research need to outweigh the immediate purposes for which this project is being pursued. Piper and Simons (2004) advocate this approach in stating

that researchers “should aspire to do ‘good’, in other words to conduct research that benefits participants in positive ways” (p. 56). So, this researcher accepted the invitation to investigate the work of the Japanese educational program coordinators and offer insights into their negative experiences during the study-abroad Japanese language program. Finally, the schedules for the one-on-one interviews were allocated separately, at times that were most convenient for them.

After the discussions, informed consent was formally achieved by providing the Japanese educational program coordinators and the non-profit organisation with information about the nature of this research project, the type of data collection methods that were used, how they would be used, expected outcomes, as well as the durations of the data collection and the present study. The Japanese educational program coordinators agreed to participate in this research project after reviewing the informed consent package, which followed the procedures listed here:

1. Provide a statement that this project involves research.
2. Provide an explanation of the purposes of the research project.
3. Provide a statement regarding the expected duration of the respondents' participation.
4. Explain the data collection procedures, including documents that the respondents must provide.
5. Explain how the information will be used during the research.
6. Provide a statement regarding future use of the research data.
7. Provide a statement regarding the use of collected data, and disposal of the audio-recorded data at the end of the research project.
8. A statement of any benefits to the non-profit organisation and the Japanese educational program coordinators themselves.

The Japanese educational program coordinators were guaranteed confidentiality, which is the assurance that any identifying information would not be made available to anyone who is not directly involved in the study. Piper and Simons (2004, p. 57) define confidentiality as a principle that allows research participants to talk in confidence, and to refuse to have certain information about them put in writing.

Given that the challenges of managing the study-abroad Japanese language program are well known within the non-profit organisation, the information revealed in the research report is not expected to significantly compromise the Japanese educational program

coordinators' professional standing. This protection was offered in the research theme, research questions, and interview questions, all of which focus on the professional interactions between the Japanese educational program coordinators and non Japanese students.

Anonymity is a stricter standard of privacy in research (Trochim, 2000, p. 24), and this was guaranteed to the non Japanese students whose postal applications and e-mails were analysed. The Japanese educational program coordinators removed personally identifying information from the postal applications and e-mails before allowing them to be retrieved from the Non-profit Organisation. Cross-referencing was facilitated by the use of numbers and the name of their University in the United States to identify the non Japanese students.

The risks associated with this research project are more appropriately termed as inconveniences. These inconveniences included the need to use personal time to participate in the one-on-one interviews, as well as time lost in preparing the postal applications and e-mails for this researcher.

Finally, the ethical procedures related to this research project were formalised through the submission of an application for expedited ethical review to the Griffith University Research Ethics Committee. The application for research ethics clearance included an outline of the research project, the informed consent package, as well as written permission from the non-profit organisation. The data collection proceeded only after permission was obtained.

4.7 Meaning-making and communication in the context of this study

Three sets of participants were directly or indirectly involved in this research, and they are this researcher, the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators, and non Japanese students. It is important to acknowledge how meaning making processes may impact on the flow of communication between these participants. This researcher was primarily an observer who asked questions of the research site and directly to one set of participants, the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators. The interpretations of those observations are primarily related to the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators, as they are the focus of this study.

In terms of non Japanese students are studying Japanese as a second language, and the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators have (to a greater or lesser extent) acquired English as a second language. Therefore, it is assumed that there must be a conscious awareness of the cultural differences at work when non Japanese students communicated with Japanese Educational Program Coordinators, or when this researcher communicated with the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators. Taguchi (2002) offers insight into the issue of linguistic meaning-making, by way of Relevance Theory, in stating that "communication is never achieved by mere decoding of linguistic stimuli" and that "linguistic structure determines a fraction of what is intended, whereas context plays a crucial role in the interpretation of meaning" (p. 152). Put differently, in terms of this research, the use of English (or Japanese) as a means of communication between non Japanese students and the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators was not an overbearing issue.

The overarching contexts for this research are study-abroad programs and the job duties of educational program coordinators. Therefore, the meaning-making processes of the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators are considered to have taken place in the context of this Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program. As quoted from Stark and Torrance (2004, p. 34) in section 4.5, individuals "interpret the information within their social world according to their internal values and meaning-making systems". In this study, the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators' *social world* is the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program and its members, which include non-Japanese students, Japanese Language Instructors, Japanese Host Families, as well as other members of the Host City community. In relation to this social world, it may be said that the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators' *internal values* were guided by their duty statements. These duty statements may be found in the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators' job description Manual, which was discussed in section 1.7 and section 1.7.1. Thus, it may be said that primarily, meaning-making processes take place in a professional context. However, the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators' secondary meaning-making processes may involve the decoding of linguistic information in English and Japanese.

An example of this latter instance is indicated in non Japanese students' postal applications. This researcher assumed that the background information provided on the postal applications facilitated the efficient performance of key job duties prior to non Japanese students' arrival in Japan. The format of the background information section of

the postal application asks non Japanese students to provide Yes/No answers or to list other information (see Appendix H). This may be the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators' attempt to reduce the time and effort required to process the information found on those forms.

This assumption is supported by Taguchi (2002), who states that "humans process information as productively as possible" (p. 152) and select "the most immediately relevant interpretation which has the greatest contextual effects for the smallest processing effort" (p. 153). The efficient processing of information was achieved by requesting the information in the form of discrete English words that could be translated with by reference to an appropriate bilingual lexicon. It was assumed that the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators may be able to minimise errors caused by any incongruence between their own lexical capacities and information that the non Japanese students wrote down in English.

It is critical that the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators be able to understand the information provided on the postal applications by the non Japanese students, because they must identify compatible Japanese Host Families before non Japanese students arrive in Japan. When non Japanese students write down a particular preference on their postal applications, the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators are able to translate that information to Japanese and negotiate living arrangements with Japanese Host Families. Therefore, from the perspective of the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators, the postal applications are attempts to achieve productive communication with non Japanese students prior to their arrival in Japan. The outcome of this communication is the placement of non Japanese students with *compatible* Japanese Host Families.

The background information section of the postal application requests that non Japanese students indicate health problems or physical challenges that may require special attention or assistance (see Appendix H). This is a critical protocol for addressing students' needs, and is advocated by Carmical (2002), who states that host institutions must be informed of study-abroad students' medical, psychological, physical or educational history, and how any issues identified may become "intensified under the stress of studying in a foreign country" (p. 82). In other words, it is logical that the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators would try to process the information on non Japanese students' applications as efficiently and as accurately as possible.

There is an alternate scenario, however, in which a non Japanese student has left a blank space on the background section of the postal application. There are various ways in which the absence of written information may be interpreted by the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators. Taguchi (2005) argues that "when speaker intentions are linguistically coded or embedded within predictable, fixed patterns of discourse, the listener may not attend to such contextual cues as background knowledge, mutual understanding, or flow of discourse" (p. 545). Transposing "speaker" with "writer" and "listener" with "reader" in the above quotation, it may be said that the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators have paid attention only to the information provided by the non Japanese students.

It is imperative that study-abroad students communicate their needs with staff in host institutions, while staff in host institutions must acknowledge those needs and use students' disclosure as a basis for providing assistance (Carmical, 2002, p. 82). If Japanese Educational Program Coordinators are working towards the effective fulfilment of their job duties in a professional context, then these professional goals must guide the way in which they make use of the information provided by the non Japanese students. The present discussion indicates that communication through postal applications is not inherently one-sided. However, this researcher focussed on the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators' use of the postal applications, rather than what they meant to say when they completed the application forms. The investigation of non Japanese students' possible attempts at communication through their postal applications is beyond the scope of this study but would provide data for analysis and discussion in further research on this topic.

The contents of negative e-mails from a sample of 10 male and 10 female non Japanese students were also analysed. The sample of e-mails containing negative words is presented as a set of examples of non Japanese students' attempts at resolving their concerns before arriving in Japan. Study-abroad students' concerns prior to their arrival in the target culture may relate to new customs, climate, monetary systems, routines, food, and living arrangements (Scharman, 2002, p. 71). CIEE (2005d) argues that students "want the familiarity of home while abroad, from classes, to housing to diet and more" (p. 8); therefore, instead of being indulged, study-abroad program administrators should remind them that "study abroad is supposed to be different" (p. 9).

This stance assumes that university students in the United States require assurance that the host culture will pose few, if any, obstacles to adjustment. However, Scharman

(2002) believes that study-abroad students should know what situations they may face in the host country, as this knowledge will help them to feel safe and do well while studying abroad (p. 72). Again, this presents a professional context in which the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators may interpret e-mail queries. That is, the resolution of non Japanese students' concerns will help them to feel comfortable before they arrive in Japan, while at the same time helping students to nurture a positive attitude towards their stay in Japan.

In terms of general communication by e-mail, non Japanese students' e-mail queries are linked to Question F4a, which asks, "Generally, are you *satisfied* with your ability to advise non Japanese students when they experience problems before they arrive in Japan? Please explain your answer". The Japanese Educational Program Coordinators' answers to this question indicated their overall satisfaction with their ability to resolve problems by e-mail. In other words, this question is asked of the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators in relation to their roles as Education Program Coordinators, and not in relation to their personal interpretations of particular e-mails received. This is not to say that their personal interpretations would be irrelevant or invalid; however, e-mails are treated as one form of communication through which contextual cues are relayed through linguistic data.

Scharman points out that "on-site advisers" are an important source of guidance for study-abroad students (2002, p. 72). In order to do their jobs well, these on-site advisers must have strong interpersonal skills and excellent problem-solving skills. These skills were acknowledged in the one-on-one interviews with the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators (see Appendix I). Section E, entitled "Communication Skills", addressed the level of difficulty that was perceived in responding to e-mail queries, as well as Japanese Educational Program Coordinators' opinions on the relationship between rapport and the successful fulfilment of their job duties. Section F, entitled "Problem-solving/Crisis management Skills", addressed problems experienced by non Japanese students, as well as the manner in which those problems were resolved.

The investigation of problem-solving or crisis management skills could be extended in two ways, in order to better understand the meaning-making processes of Japanese Educational Program Coordinators. One way would be to observe the interactions between Japanese Educational Program Coordinators and non Japanese students as they discuss the problems they experienced during the program. The second way would be to identify a set

of objective standards, and by examining Japanese Educational Program Coordinators' self-evaluations against those standards would facilitate the investigation of the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators' internal logic with regards to their problem-solving skills. This would then facilitate a discussion about how they assess this critical component of their job.

This issue of interpretation is not resolved in this study. Furthermore, an investigation of the implications of the cultural differences on communication between Japanese Educational Program Coordinators and non Japanese students are beyond the scope of this study. However, a definition of meaning-making in this research was achieved, together with a discussion of the relevant implications on the methods that were chosen to investigate the research questions presented in this chapter.

4.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented discussions of the data collection methods used for this study, namely the content analyses and one-on-one interviews. Content analyses were used to investigate the postal applications of 60 non Japanese students, and negative e-mails from a sample of 10 male and 10 female non Japanese students. The Japanese educational program coordinators create accounts of their work in texts. Non Japanese students interacted with these texts, in the form of e-mails and responses to requests for information in their postal applications. The content analyses highlight the non Japanese students' responses to the Japanese educational program coordinators' work before they arrived in Japan.

The non Japanese students' interactions with the Japanese educational program coordinators changed while they were living in Japan. This was because the non Japanese students were able to communicate with the Japanese educational program coordinators in person. Therefore, the content of the Japanese educational program coordinators' accounts of their work may change. The one-on-one interviews therefore highlight Japanese educational program coordinators' responses to non Japanese students while they were living in Japan.

The meaning-making processes of the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators have been defined as taking place in the context of their professional roles. Efficient and productive communication with non Japanese students has been identified as secondary

goals for the Japanese Educational Program Coordinators in the fulfilment of their job duties. The following chapter presents the results of the content analyses and the one-on-one interviews.

Chapter 5
Results

5. 1 Introduction

This chapter presents three sets of results from the investigation of the role pressures conceptualised by the two Japanese educational program coordinators, JEPCA and JEPCB. The first set of results presented is the content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications to the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. The second set of results presented is the content analysis of negative e-mails from non Japanese students received by the Japanese educational program coordinators prior to the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. The third set of results presented is the one-on-one interviews conducted with JEPCA and JEPCB.

5.2 Results of the content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications

This section presents the results of the content analysis of the postal applications from the 60 non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. As discussed in chapter 4, the coding unit for the content analysis was the background information section of the postal application form. The background information section has 15 survey-type items, and non Japanese students were asked to respond to them with yes/no answers; short explanatory sentences; or lists of information. The 15 survey-type items were sorted into nine categories and then compared with each postal application. The nine categories were:

1. Linguistic background.
2. Religion.
3. Food preferences.
4. Personal habits.
5. Dislikes about Japanese host families' lifestyles.
6. Height.
7. Allergies and other health-related problems.
8. Interests and hobbies.

9. Experience living in Japan or any foreign country.

Figure 5.1 displays the number of non Japanese students, by category, who responded to the requests for background information in their postal applications.

Figure 5.1 Non Japanese students' responses to requested background information

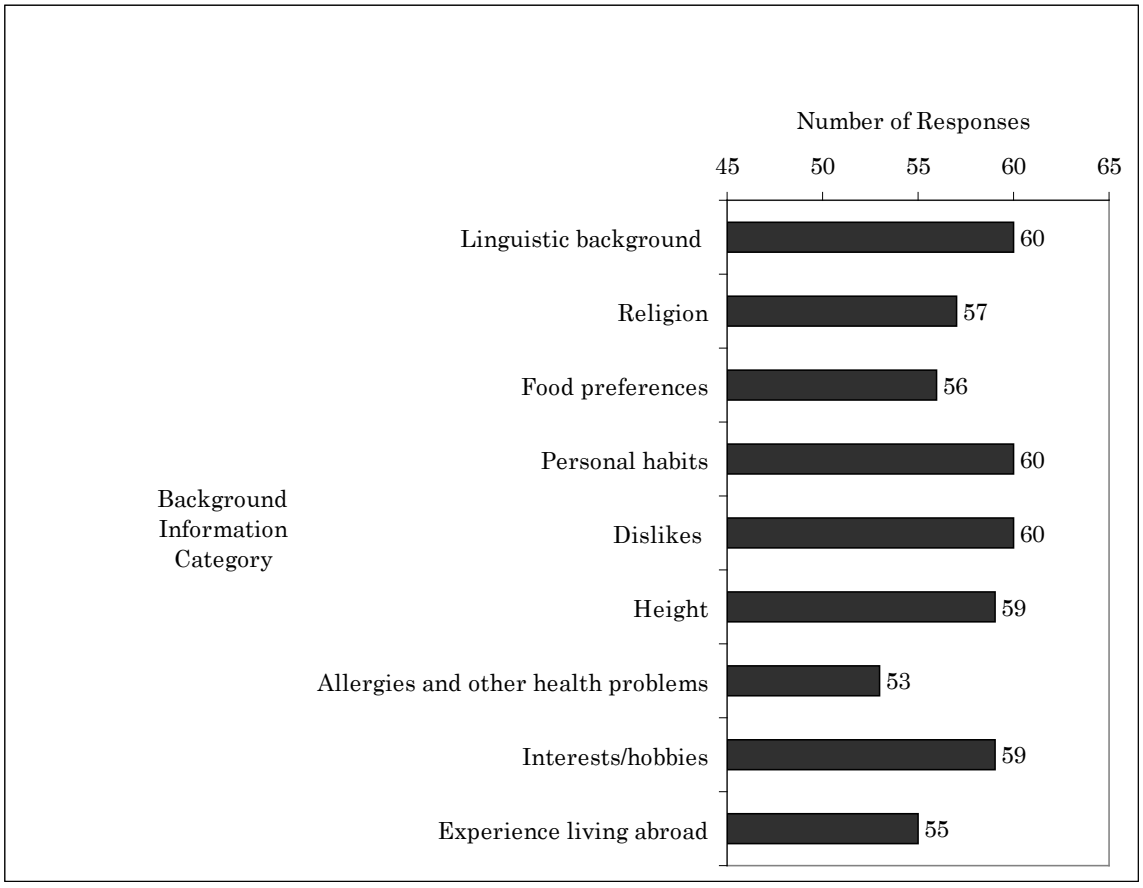


Figure 5.1 indicates that the categories that received responses from all 60 non Japanese students were 'linguistic background', 'personal habits' and 'dislikes [about Japanese host families' lifestyles]'. The category that received the fewest responses was 'allergies and other health problems', with 53 non Japanese students responding here. Overall, most students provided the required background information on most of the nine categories in their postal applications.

5.3 Results of the content analysis of negative e-mails from non Japanese students

This section presents the results of the content analysis of negative e-mails sent by non Japanese students *before* they arrived in Japan for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. This content analysis identifies the subjects of e-mails received from a sample of 10 male and 10 female non Japanese students. The e-mails represent these non Japanese students' efforts to resolve their concerns before they arrived in Japan.

The sample for this content analysis consisted of 10 male and 10 female non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. Three thematic categories for the content analysis of negative e-mails from non Japanese students in general were derived from the pre-test of the content analysis procedure, which was presented earlier in chapter 4. Figure 5.2 displays the number of negative e-mails received from 10 male and 10 female non Japanese students, by thematic category and gender. The number of queries received in each category is indicated in the figure.

Figure 5.2 Categories of negative e-mails from a sample of 10 female and 10 male non Japanese students in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program

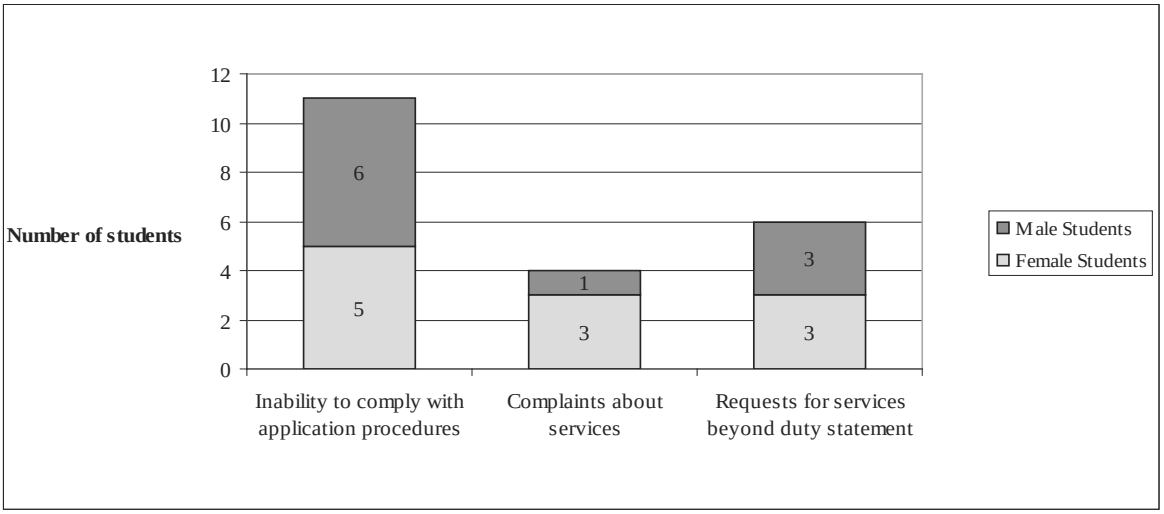


Figure 5.2 indicates that a total of 11 e-mails were received from the 20 non Japanese students in the sample. Five male and 6 female non Japanese students sent e-mails about their inability to comply with application procedures. Four non Japanese students, 1 male and 3 female, made complaints about services. One female non Japanese student sent two separate sets of e-mails related to the categories about her inability to comply with application procedures and complaints about services. Six non Japanese students, 3 male

and 3 female, sent e-mails requesting services that were beyond the Japanese educational program coordinators' duty statement. Figure 5.3 presents summaries of the content of negative e-mails sent by the 10 male non Japanese students.

Figure 5.3 Content summaries of negative e-mails sent by 10 male non Japanese Students before the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program

Male student	E-mail subject	Inability to comply with application procedures	Complaint about services	Request for service beyond duty statement
Student 1	Request permission to submit a recommendation letter from an instructor who does not teach Japanese.	✓		
Student 2	Pre-application assessment of his Japanese language proficiency level.			✓
Student 3	Request information on the number of non Japanese students who have submitted postal applications for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program.			✓
Student 4	Request reassurance that Japanese language instruction meets personal criteria.			✓
Student 5	Request permission to send official university transcript after the deadline for receiving postal applications.	✓		
Student 6	Request permission to send official university transcript after the deadline for receiving postal applications.	✓		
Student 7	Request permission to send official university transcript after the deadline for receiving postal applications.	✓		
Student 8	Request permission to post documents omitted from postal application after the application deadline date.	✓		
Student 9	Request permission to submit postal application after the application deadline date.	✓		
Student 10	Acknowledgement of receipt of postal application not received.		✓	

Figure 5.3 indicates that all the queries of the male non Japanese students in the sample were related to the study-abroad Japanese language program's application procedures and documents to be submitted. The e-mail sent by male student 4 was also related to the postal application because he wanted to make sure that the study-abroad Japanese language program met his personal criteria after submitting his application. This

is evidenced by the incidences of the phrase "postal application" or documents related to the postal applications in the above summaries. Figure 5.4 presents summaries of the content of negative e-mails sent by the 10 female non Japanese students.

Figure 5.4 Content summaries of negative e-mails received from 10 female non Japanese Students before the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program

Female student	E-mail Subject	Inability to comply with application procedures	Complaint about services	Request for service beyond duty statement
Student 1	Request permission to include unofficial university academic transcript in the postal application, instead of the official academic university transcript.	✓		
Student 2	Visa documents sent by the Japanese educational program coordinators not received one month after expected date of receipt.		✓	
Student 3	Official university academic transcript misfiled by Japanese educational program coordinators.		✓	
Student 4	Request reactivation of previous year's postal application, instead of sending a new postal application.			✓
Student 5	Request a specific date for receipt of notification of acceptance status from the Japanese educational program coordinators.			✓
Student 6	Request permission to join the study-abroad Japanese language program 2 weeks later than the mid-June start date.			✓
Student 7	No language specified in postal application instructions for submitting Personal Statement.	✓		
Student 8	Request for extension of deadline date for sending postal application.	✓		
Student 9	Request permission to resend Application Fee payment in the correct format.	✓		
Student 10	Request permission to send instructor's letter of recommendation separately from the postal application.	✓		

Figure 5.4 indicates that with the exception of female students 2 and 6, the queries of the female non Japanese students in the sample were related to the study-abroad Japanese language program's application procedures, or documents to be submitted with their postal

applications. Figure 5.5 displays the number of e-mails sent by the sample of 10 male and 10 female non Japanese students.

Figure 5.5 Number of e-mails sent by the sample of 20 non Japanese students to the Japanese educational program coordinators

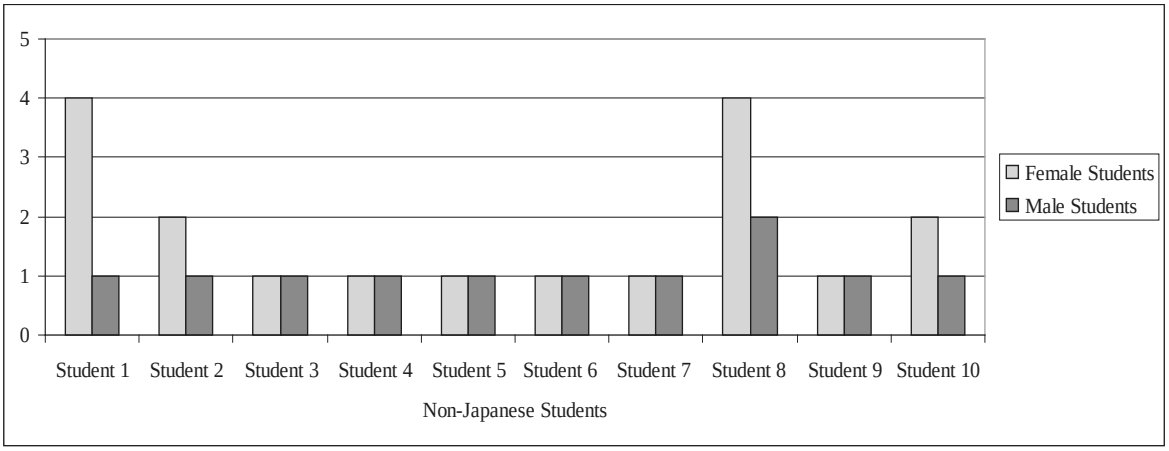


Figure 5.5 indicates that female student 1 and female student 8 (4 e-mails each) sent the most e-mails to the Japanese educational program coordinators. Male student 2 and male student 10 each sent 2 e-mails to the Japanese educational program coordinators. Overall, most of the non Japanese students in the sample needed to send only one e-mail to the Japanese educational program coordinators to resolve their queries before arriving in Japan.

In summary, the 60 non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program provided most of the requested information in their postal applications. Eleven of the 20 non Japanese in the sample sent e-mails to the Japanese educational program coordinators about their inability to comply with the application procedures. Four non Japanese students complained about services, and six non Japanese students made requests that were beyond the duty statement of the Japanese educational program coordinators. Except for two female non Japanese students, the negative e-mails were related to the application process for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program.

5.4 Results of the one-on-one interviews with the Japanese educational program coordinators

This section presents the results of the one-on-one interviews conducted with the Japanese educational program coordinators. The female Japanese educational program coordinator has been employed to the non-profit organisation since December, 2002. Her pseudonym is JEPCA. The male Japanese educational program coordinator has been employed to the non-profit organisation since November, 2006. His pseudonym is JEPCB. JEPCA and JEPCB are full-time, permanent employees of the non-profit organisation. Neither of them has lived outside of Japan for more than six months.

Based on the job descriptions analysed in the literature review presented in chapter 2, six possible sources of role pressures were identified before the interview. These were:

1. Prior training and experience.
2. Overtime work.
3. Non Japanese students' demands.
4. Services to non Japanese students.
5. Communication skills.
6. Problem-solving/crisis management skills.

These sources of role pressures were included in the interview schedule (Appendix I) under the headings (A) biographical information; (B) overtime work; (C) non Japanese students' demands; (D) services to non Japanese students; (E) communication skills; and (F) problem-solving/crisis management skills. The seventh heading (G) presents an open-ended question, which invited JEPCA and JEPCB to comment on their role pressures. Their accounts, in relation to the seven categories of information outlined above, are presented below.

5.4.1 One-on-one interview with JEPCA

Biographical information

JEPCA is a 39-year-old single female, who has a Bachelor of Arts degree in Chinese language and Chinese literature from a Japanese university, and is a fluent speaker of Chinese and English. She has been working in the non-profit organisation since December, 2002. She says that she was recruited by the director of the non-profit organisation, and had

no specific motivation for working in an NPO. Prior to working in the non-profit organisation, she worked for 10 months as an English teacher in an English conversation school in Japan. JEPCA's English proficiency is equivalent to Level 1 of the STEP Test, which she last sat in 2001. The STEP Test is administered by Japan's Society for Testing English Proficiency. STEP Level 1 is equivalent to a score of 610 on the TOEFL paper-based test (PBT) or 253 on the computer-based test (CBT).

Overtime work

JEPCA has a 9-hour work day, but said that she did 10 hours of overtime work every week when she was preparing for the study-abroad Japanese language program. She was paid for overtime work at the non-profit organisation, but when events were scheduled for a Saturday or Sunday, she received a day off during the following week. JEPCA worked overtime during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program because when non Japanese students came to her workstation, for any reason, she gave them her undivided attention. She said, "We can't do any desk work when there are problems with students". Instead, she waited until after students left for the day to attend to her administrative duties. During the hours when she works overtime to prepare for the study-abroad Japanese language program, JEPCA said that she performed the following tasks:

1. Edit the layout of the postal application Form.
2. Revise the contents of study-abroad Japanese language program brochure and website.
3. Respond to e-mails from non Japanese students.
4. Make photocopies.
5. Prepare the database of non Japanese students.
6. Consult with screeners in the United States via telephone.
7. Advise non Japanese students of their application status.
8. Prepare documents to be mailed to successful applicants.
9. Consult with non Japanese students regarding their travel plans.
10. Discuss travel arrangements with travel agents in the host city.
11. Provide the police in the host city with the photographs and host family information for each non Japanese student.
12. Negotiate transportation discounts for non Japanese students in the host city.

13. Negotiate the daily preparation of food at local bakeries for non Japanese students with special dietary requirements.
14. Order English- and Japanese-language newspapers.
15. Contact the Association for Japanese Teachers to ask for assistance with photocopying teaching materials.
16. Plan meals with the staff of the non-profit organisation's cafeteria that meet the taste preferences and health requirements of the non Japanese students.
17. Perform maintenance checks on personal computers in the student lounge.
18. Post the 2006 Japanese language course syllabus to the Japanese language instructors.
19. Post the weekly schedule for the study-abroad Japanese language program to the Japanese language instructors.
20. Prepare apartments, furnishings, and necessary items for the home for the Japanese language instructors.
21. Prepare documents for Japanese language instructors' meetings
22. Contact volunteer teachers in the host city to arrange dates for Japanese Culture Classes.
23. Prepare information booklets for non Japanese students.
24. Arrange charter buses for transporting non Japanese students to various locations around the host city.
25. Visit the offices of the mayor of the host city, and the heads of regional media companies, and ask them to address non Japanese students at the opening ceremony of the study-abroad Japanese language program.
26. Print and staple programs for the opening ceremony.

JEPCA said that it took a great deal of time and effort to find 60 Japanese host families for the 60 non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. She said that the recruitment of Japanese host families required overtime work. During her overtime hours, she (together with JEPCB) interviewed first-time Japanese host families to assess their eligibility as host families for non Japanese students.

In 2006, Japanese host families were recruited through NHK Television, Japan's national broadcasting company; local television and radio stations; local newspapers; and through the distribution of 25,000 copies of Japanese host family recruitment pamphlets.

These pamphlets were distributed to elementary schools, junior high schools, and selected senior high schools in the host city. This effort failed to attract the desired number of Japanese host families, so she called Japanese families who hosted non Japanese students in previous years. She then matched Japanese host families with non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. This process took two or three days to complete. She described it as an ongoing process, with special attention paid to non Japanese students' allergies and Japanese host families' smoking habits and children. JEPCA said that recruiting and matching Japanese host families to non Japanese students was *taihen*, which is a Japanese word for expressing feelings of frustration, anxiety, or stress.

Non Japanese students' demands

Non Japanese students' demands were made before arriving in Japan, during their stay in Japan, and after they left Japan at the end of the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. JEPCA recalled only two incidents where non Japanese students asked her to do something that was beyond her duty statement before they arrived in Japan. The first request was from a non Japanese student who asked her to arrange a domestic flight within Japan. JEPCA said that this did not induce any stress at all because she was able to refer the non Japanese student to an English-speaking travel agent in the host city. The second request was for her to receive the luggage of a non Japanese student in advance of his arrival in Japan. JEPCA said that it was not a problem to store non Japanese students' luggage in a secure area of the non-profit organisation's building prior to their arrival in Japan.

While non Japanese students were living in Japan during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, JEPCA said that she could remember requests from them that were beyond her duty statement. She did not remember their requests as being beyond her duty statement because she feels that once non Japanese students arrive in Japan their problems are the responsibility of the non-profit organisation. After non Japanese students left Japan and returned to their home institutions in the United States, JEPCA said that she did not receive any requests that were beyond her duty statement. She noted, however, that upon returning home, several non Japanese students sent e-mails about their negative experiences with their Japanese host families. JEPCA says, "*It's regrettable* [that they

reported their negative experiences when was too late for me to do something about it], *but I appreciate their perseverance while living in Japan*". She said that after returning home, non Japanese students do not usually contact the non-profit organisation, but when they do, it is either to lodge a complaint about a Japanese host family, or to express gratitude.

Services to non Japanese students

Information and services given by JEPCA to non Japanese students are now addressed. Before non Japanese students arrive in Japan, JEPCA said that services or information to students were provided only in written form. All non Japanese students who applied to the study-abroad Japanese language program were able to find written information about it on the non-profit organisation's website. After non Japanese students were accepted into the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, printed documents with detailed information were sent to them by post from the end of March, 2006.

JEPCA said that it was difficult to prepare written information for the non Japanese students because she was not sure if she provided adequate information. She said "*Because I am Japanese and living in Japan, so* [sic] *I don't know what is inconvenient for foreigners"*. Towards the end of the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, non Japanese students were asked to evaluate the quality of the written documents they received before arriving in Japan. JEPCA said that she did not receive any complaints about these written documents in 2006, or in previous years, so she assumes that the information was useful to the non Japanese students.

While non Japanese students were living in Japan, they received maps of the host city containing information on essential locations such as post offices, supermarkets, and banks. Non Japanese students also received information on events created for them by members of the host city community. JEPCA says that she did not perceive any stress or pressure while providing information or services to the non Japanese students while they were in Japan. She said that the non Japanese student's search for information must start with the Japanese host family. In her own words, "*Once they come to Japan, the most important person in Japan for the student is the host family so, what the office can provide is very basic. I expect students to communicate with their host families to find something*". She believed that this request for information served as a catalyst for meaningful communication between the non Japanese student and the Japanese host family.

Another reason why JEPCA did not remember any challenges in providing non Japanese with information about the local community is that in 2006, for the first time, English-speaking Japanese volunteers residing the host city chaperoned the non Japanese students around the city, and gave them essential information in English. JEPCA reported that in 2006, she did not provide any non Japanese students with information or services after they left Japan and returned to their universities in the United States. In terms of information or services to non Japanese students before, during and after their stay in Japan, JEPCA said that she worked overtime occasionally, but in 2006, as in previous years she said, "*If my partner* [JEPCB] *is capable, then overtime work is not necessary. I only have to work overtime if s/he is slow or not experienced*". JEPCA said that when she worked overtime to give information to students, she was always able to complete the necessary tasks satisfactorily in that time.

JEPCA found it difficult to match non Japanese students to Japanese host families, before the non Japanese students arrived in Japan. The most significant challenges she experienced in relation to this process was that she did not know the non Japanese students personally before they arrived in Japan. She said it was difficult to know what the non Japanese students were really like, because the information she received about them was based only on what they provided in their postal application forms.

Furthermore, it is the non-profit organisation's policy to interview only first-time Japanese host families. This meant that JEPCA was only confident about matching the Japanese host families she interviewed personally in 2006, or in previous years. JEPCA did not meet many of the Japanese host families who hosted non Japanese students before her employment at the non-profit organisation. She said that this lack of information makes it difficult to predict whether non Japanese students and those Japanese host families can get along.

JEPCA says that she and JEPCB must "*guess the students' characters from pictures and personal statements. Sometimes the guessing is correct, but other times it is difficult. If we had to match them based only on eating habits and other information they wrote down on the form, it's very easy*". She added that having to pay attention to non Japanese students' personality traits made her job difficult.

Communication skills

JEPCA's communication skills are now addressed. She said that she perceived no difficulties communicating with non Japanese students about their e-mail queries regarding the study-abroad Japanese language program or study-abroad Japanese language program's website. She said that it was not a challenge at all to give the non Japanese students the information they requested. JEPCA says that she has no problems with non Japanese students who send e-mail queries concerning matters related to the study-abroad program that are beyond her duty statement. This is because, as she says, "*I have never regarded their requests to be beyond my job description. I feel that I have to be kind and provide as much information as possible. Students are young [*late teens and early twenties*], so it's very easy to be kind to them. They are not trained adults in society, so I'm kind to them"*.

JEPCA believes that it is not important for her to have a friendly relationship with non Japanese students in order to do her job successfully. She says that "*it's dangerous if I'm cordial with certain students, so I try to maintain a level* [fair] *relationship with everyone. Students are always asking me to go out and to have a drink, but I always decline. Because I am Japanese, students think I am younger than they are, so they speak to me in a friendly manner. I am mistaken for 23 at times* [though I am really 39 years old], *but we are not the same*".

Problem-solving/crisis management skills

JEPCA's problem-solving and crisis management skills are now addressed. JEPCA said that there were there are no written guidelines for addressing predictable or unpredictable problems with non Japanese students. She said that solutions to non Japanese students' problems are not written down because problems usually occur between non Japanese students and their Japanese host families, and it would be impractical to repeat the same solution in different situations. For unpredictable problems, JEPCA says that the definition of 'problem' varies according to the perspective of the Japanese host families. For example, one scenario may be a problem for one Japanese host family, but may not be a problem for another. She said that in 2006, "*I gave up fixing problems, so now I just changed host families quickly. I switched* [changed non Japanese students' Japanese host families] *very quickly. I wanted to change* [the attitudes of] *host families and students, but it's only eight weeks, and my past efforts ended in failure"*.

JEPCA said that three non Japanese students transferred to new Japanese host families in 2006. The transfer of non Japanese students to new Japanese host families required her to interview the non Japanese students and their Japanese host families. She described the problems as unpredictable, and was very satisfied with the way she managed the situations. She also said that non Japanese students adjusted well to their new Japanese host families.

JEPCA was asked to rate her problem-solving skills, in relation to the problems experienced by non Japanese students (role pressure interview schedule, item F3). On a seven-point scale, with "excellent" and "poor" at opposite ends, JEPCA rated her problem-solving skills as "adequate". She gave herself this rating because "*I didn't make an effort to solve the problems, I just switched host family*". Item F4 of one-on-one interview schedule asked her to say whether she was satisfied with her ability to advise non Japanese students when they had problems during their stay in Japan. She said she was not sure about her skills, because the key to resolving interpersonal problems is finding out the source of the problem. She said, "*If we can find the cause of the problem, then we can know what kind of advice we have to give. It is difficult to find the cause of the problems, because the problems are deeply rooted in the relationships with their own families in the US*".

On three occasions, JEPCA had to speak directly, at length, with non Japanese students about problems they had during the 2006 study-abroad program. These problems are presented in Figure 5.6. JEPCA resolved each issue by transferring the non Japanese student to a new Japanese host family.

Figure 5.6 Three problems that required JEPCA to speak directly, at length, with non Japanese students during the 2006 study-abroad program

Problem A	**Outcome A**
"I don't know why she hated the host family's father, but she said that she hates him. I asked her, "*Do you hate men this much?*" She answered that she really didn't like him. I think they were *seiritekinikirai*, physically incompatible. The host father had complaints about her as well."	She was moved to a second host family, who liked her very much. They were pleased that she woke up early and went to bed early.
Problem B	**Outcome B**
"I couldn't understand the problem with the host mother. She was a middle-aged woman who lives alone. He [non Japanese student] disliked her, and according to him, she was too picky about his privacy. For example, [she was checking] whether he turned off the light in the room, or whether he kept the PC on, or whether he keeps chatting on the PC. The house was too small. I think the area [living space] was too small for the two of them."	He was moved to a second host family and then was very happy. The first host family just let the problem go, after he left, and they [the first host family and non Japanese student] have a good relationship now. Surprisingly, he contacted the first host mother by telephone, and visited her after he changed host families.
Problem C	**Outcome C**
"[The non Japanese student] is Muslim. It is embarrassing for a single Muslim man to talk to a married woman when her spouse is not beside her. But the host father comes home at midnight. The son [of the host family] is an elementary school student, so he couldn't help the situation. The situation was that he was	I was very satisfied with this situation. The Host family was relieved to know the reason why the Muslim student didn't want to talk to the host mother. She felt relieved after he left. He had a good relationship with his second host family.

Figure 5.6 (Continued)

very embarrassed to talk with a [married woman] in her 30s. After returning home, and after dinner, [the non Japanese student] went back to his room, and avoided talking to the host mother so she thought he hated her. We found out what was really happening on the last day of the first semester. He complained about the host family every day at the office, but he didn't tell us the real reason. It was only after one or two hours of talking at the house with the host family, that he confessed his problem. After changing host families, his attitude changed. His [new] host family said he was really nice, and talked a lot to them."

JEPCA was also asked to rate the level of stress she experienced during one-on-one conversations with non Japanese students about various aspects of their stay in Japan. She ranked her feelings of stress on the following five-point scale.

5 = *I experience a very high level of stress*

4 = *I experience a high level of stress*

3 = *I experience a moderate level of stress*

2 = *I experience very low level of stress*

1 = *I experience no stress at all*

Figure 5.7 presents a range of issues related to the study-abroad Japanese language program, and the Japanese educational program coordinator's level of stress.

Figure 5.7 JEPCA's levels of stress experienced during one-on-one conversations with non Japanese students about various aspects of their stay in Japan

	Conversation Topic	Level of Stress			
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**
(a)	Non Japanese students' queries about admission to the study-abroad program.	✓			
(b)	Non Japanese students' queries about living in the host city in Japan.	✓			
(c)	Non Japanese students' queries regarding transportation within the host city.			✓	
(d)	Non Japanese students' complaints about their Japanese host families.			✓	
(e)	Non Japanese students' requests to live with different Japanese host families.			✓	
(f)	Non Japanese students' complaints about the study-abroad program's Japanese language instructors.		✓		
(g)	Non Japanese students' unexcused absences from compulsory Japanese Language classes.	✓			
(h)	Non Japanese students' unexcused absences from optional Japanese Culture classes.	✓			
(i)	Non Japanese students' complaints about other non Japanese students.		✓		
(j)	Non Japanese students' complaints about the educational component.				✓

JEPCA said that non Japanese students' complaints about the educational component of the study-abroad Japanese language program caused her a high level of stress. This is because she felt that it is her responsibility to make sure that non Japanese students were satisfied with every aspect of the study-abroad Japanese language program.

Open-ended comments

Finally, JEPCA was asked to comment on the issues addressed during the one-on-one interview, regarding her role pressures as a Japanese educational program coordinator. Her comments are presented here in her own words.

> *"Honestly speaking, it was working with my partner [JEPCB]. The job as coordinator requires us to organise the program successfully, and to solve the communication problems with host families, students and instructors. My job is to maintain harmonious relationships with*

everyone. So I have to keep a wide view. If my partner is not trained, it causes stress.

"[The non-profit organisation] doesn't train the coordinators, just hires people who is [sic] able to do the job. The job requires English proficiency and administrative skills. The number of people [living in the host city] with a high level of English proficiency is very limited so it is difficult to find appropriate people. He is not trained to be a desk worker.

"[Female Japanese educational program coordinator who resigned in late 2005] was a secretary, so she was unable to be an administrator for the program. She was not used to being an administrator, just going back and forth, and running errands. The responsibility was too big for her. Sometimes we must make decisions about changing host families, how to solve the problem. Over five years, the program has changed. So every year, I have to make a decision for changing components of the program."

5.4.2 One-on-one interview with JEPCB

Biographical information

JEPCB is a 31-year-old single male. JEPCB has a Bachelor's degree in international law from a Japanese university, but has never undertaken a formal examination to evaluate his English proficiency. He said that he learnt English on his own by speaking with non Japanese friends. JEPCB has been working in the non-profit organisation since November, 2006. He has never worked in an education institution before starting his job here. In his previous job, he was a sales clerk in a men's clothing store. He said that he decided to work in this non-profit organisation because he had always wanted to have a job that would allow him to use his English language skills.

Overtime work

JEPCB says that he worked for 20 hours overtime each week during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. At the end of the study-abroad Japanese

language program he worked about 2 hours overtime each month. He was paid for all of his overtime hours, including his overtime hours on Saturday, Sunday or public holidays. JEPCB performed the following three tasks during his overtime hours before June, 2006.

1. Telephone prospective Japanese host families and screen non Japanese students' postal applications.
2. Receive postal applications each day from the post office.
3. Screen postal applications using the screening form prepared by the Academic Committee in the United States.

This list is significantly shorter than JEPCA's list of 26 overtime tasks. During the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, while non Japanese students were living in Japan, JEPCB used his overtime hours to prepare maps and schedules for them. He also conducted in-person consultations with non Japanese students.

Non Japanese students' demands

JEPCB had a difficult time recalling incidents in which non Japanese students made requests for services that were beyond his duty statement before they arrived in Japan. He recalled two incidents, but said that he experienced a very low level of stress. One non Japanese student asked him how to obtain a Japan Railway Pass, and another student asked him how to find discount air tickets between Tokyo and the host city.

While non Japanese students were living with their Japanese host families during the 2006 study-abroad program, they asked him to do three things that were beyond his duty statement. None of the requests caused him any stress. The first request came from 30 students who approached him separately to go out with them for dinner or lunch. Of these incidents, JEPCB said that he felt a very low level of stress because he was happy that the non Japanese students invited him out. However, he felt some stress because he had to decline their requests.

Two non Japanese students asked for the location of clothing shops in the host city. Another non Japanese student came to JEPCB for counselling for over 2 hours about a traumatic personal experience that occurred prior to his arrival in Japan. JEPCB said that this 2-hour counselling session caused only a very low level of stress because it was his first group of non Japanese students, they were very *kawaii* [adorable], and he did not mind paying them special attention. After non Japanese students returned to their host

universities in the United States, JEPCB says that he did not receive any request for services beyond his duty statement.

Services to non Japanese students

Before non Japanese students arrived in Japan in 2006, JEPCB provided them with information on their Japanese host families, as well as information on the host city, by e-mail. He found it easy to provide this information to non Japanese students. While non Japanese students were living in Japan, JEPCB gave them information on air, ground, and rail transportation in Japan. He also gave them information on restaurants in the host city, as well as advice on purchasing souvenirs. JEPCB said he found it challenging to give non Japanese students advice on what souvenirs to purchase for friends and family in the United States.

After non Japanese students returned to their universities in the United States, JEPCB provided them with academic transcripts of their work during the study-abroad Japanese language program. He did not experience any significant challenges while delivering this information to the non Japanese students or their universities in the United States. JEPCB did not work overtime to provide the above-mentioned information or services to non Japanese students before, during, or after their studies in Japan.

JEPCB found it difficult to match non Japanese students with Japanese host families. He said that only first-time Japanese host families were interviewed before the non Japanese students arrived in Japan. He didn't meet the Japanese host families who had hosted non Japanese students in previous years, so he didn't know what kind of people they were. He says "*I knew some host family members, but I didn't know half of the host families. It was difficult to judge whether the students' characters matched the host families I didn't meet. If the host family is interviewed before matching, we can be more confident. I think it would be ideal to first meet the new host families, and then match them to the students*". The most significant challenge that he experienced while matching non Japanese students to Japanese host families was that "*some host families want students to be serious [about studying], but we don't know that from the application forms*".

Communication skills

In terms of communicating with non Japanese students in relation to their e-mail queries regarding the study-abroad Japanese language program or study-abroad Japanese

language program's website, he said that it was difficult for him to write e-mails in English. He used a template for replying to e-mails with similar queries, but he did not edit the content, so he was unsure of the relevance of his replies to the non Japanese students' queries. JEPCB said that he experienced no challenges in communicating with non Japanese students who sent queries about the study-abroad Japanese language program's website. He said that it was not a problem for him to tell non Japanese students what they needed to when they requested information.

In one situation, JEPCB said, "*I had trouble getting students to answer e-mails about financial information*". He described one incident that he found quite stressful. He had sent an e-mail to a non Japanese student to cancel his enrolment, because his tuition fees were unpaid after the deadline date for payment had passed. However, the non Japanese student's Japanese teacher in the United States intervened to stop the cancellation. JEPCB complied with that request, but the non Japanese student cancelled his enrolment nonetheless.

JEPCB also had problems with non Japanese students who sent e-mail queries concerning matters related to the study-abroad program that are beyond his duty statement. A non Japanese student, for instance, sent an e-mail requesting to know the contact information of the person in charge of screening his postal application, as well as the mailing address of the director of the non-profit organisation.

JEPCB believed that it was not necessary for him to have a friendly relationship with non Japanese students in order to do his job successfully. He said, "*Students thought I was strict but after they came to Japan, they found out that I was not so strict. I thought I gave students a bad impression of me because of how I wrote e-mails to them. The contents seemed to be very formal and bureaucratic*".

Problem-solving/crisis management skills

JEPCB concurs with JEPCA that there are no written guidelines for addressing predictable or unpredictable problems with non Japanese students. However, he did not elaborate on these points. He related two unpredictable problems and one predictable problem with non Japanese students during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. The three incidents that required JEPCB to *speak directly, at length, with non Japanese students* during the 2006 study-abroad program, are presented in Figure 5.8. JEPCB was satisfied with the outcome of each problem. JEPCB says that Problem B, in

Figure 5.8 was a predictable problem, but that there were no written guidelines for solving this kind of problem. Problem A and Problem C are unpredictable, and as with Problem B, there are no written guidelines for solving them.

Figure 5.8 Three incidents that required JEPCB to speak directly, at length, with non Japanese students during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program

Problem A "A female non Japanese student lost 6000 yen [AU $64] during the first week of the study-abroad Japanese language program. She told me that she suspected that her host family stole it. Maybe she was not used to Japanese money, so I suggested that she count her Japanese currency again and make a record of how much she spends every day."	**Outcome A** After she followed my recommendation, the problem did not recur.
Problem B "A female student came crying to the office one morning. [She said] the host family's father is scary, and she can't get along with him. It took 30 minutes to talk to her. We [JEPCA and JEPCB] spoke to the host family in person. We listened to the host family's side, and changed her host family."	**Outcome B** The second host family was very happy with her.
Problem C "A Muslim male student felt uncomfortable talking to a married woman when she is not with her husband. So he didn't talk to the host mother. We [JEPCA and JEPCB] went to the host family's home, listened to both sides. We listened to the problem, from a religious perspective. We changed him to a new host family."	**Outcome C** If the student doesn't specify religious conditions, it's very difficult to anticipate the problems that might occur.

JEPCB and JEPCA recalled two of the same incidents (Figure 5.6, Problems A and C and Figure 5.7, Problems B and C) in the similar sequence during their one-one-one interviews. This suggests that the male Muslim student complained about his host mother

after the female non Japanese student complained about Host Father. The recollection of the same two incidents by JEPCA and JEPCB suggests a joint consultation with these students.

JEPCB was asked to rate his general problem-solving skills (Appendix I, item F3). He thought that generally, his problem-solving skills were satisfactory in addressing non Japanese students' problems. This was because there were no further complaints from non Japanese students after the problems were addressed. However, on item F4, which asks him to rate his satisfaction with his ability to advise non Japanese students, he indicated that he was not sure of his ability to advise non Japanese students when they experience problems while they are living in Japan. He was unable to elaborate further on his answer.

JEPCB was also asked to rate the level of stress he experienced during one-on-one conversations with non Japanese students about various aspects of their stay in Japan. He was asked to rank his feelings of stress on the following five-point scale.

5 = *I experience a very high level of stress*
4 = *I experience a high level of stress*
3 = *I experience a moderate level of stress*
2 = *I experience very low level of stress*
1 = *I experience no stress at all*

JEPCB said that non Japanese students' complaints about the educational component of the study-abroad Japanese language program caused him a moderate level of stress. These complaints are stressful for him because he felt that he didn't do a good job. Figure 5.9 presents a range of issues related to the study-abroad Japanese language program, and the JEPCB's level of stress.

Figure 5.9 JEPCB's levels of stress experienced during one-on-one conversations with non Japanese students about various aspects of their stay in Japan

Conversation Topic	Level of Stress				
	1	2	3	4	5
(a) Non Japanese students' queries about admission to the study-abroad program.		✓			
(b) Non Japanese students' queries about living in the host city in Japan.		✓			
(c) Non Japanese students' queries regarding transportation within the host city.		✓			
(d) Non Japanese students' complaints about their Japanese host families.			✓		
(e) Non Japanese students' requests to live with different Japanese host families.		✓			
(f) Non Japanese students' complaints about the study-abroad program's Japanese language instructors.		✓			
(g) Non Japanese students' unexcused absences from compulsory Japanese Language classes.			✓		
(h) Non Japanese students' unexcused absences from optional japanese culture classes.			✓		
(i) Non Japanese students' complaints about other non Japanese students.			✓		
(j) Non Japanese students' complaints about the educational components of the study-abroad program.			✓		
(k) A gay male couple was being affectionate in a public area. JEPCB approached them. He told them that in Japan, it is not normal for gay people to display affection in public.					✓
(l) Five gay non Japanese students asked for advice on what to tell their host families, assuming that they were heterosexual, when they asked about their boyfriends or girlfriends.		✓			

JEPCB said that he experienced a moderate level of stress in five types of situations. These were non Japanese students' complaints about their Japanese host families; unexcused absences from compulsory Japanese Language classes; unexcused absences from optional Japanese Culture classes; complaints about other non Japanese students;

complaints about the educational components of the study-abroad Japanese language program.

JEPCB recalled two incidents relating to gay non Japanese students. These incidents are described in Figure 5.9, item (k) and item (l). In the first incident, JEPCB said that he experienced a high level of stress when he had to caution two gay male non Japanese students against public displays of affection. He approached them while they were being affectionate in a public area. He told them that in Japan, it is not normal for gay people to display affection in public. The two gay male students accepted JEPCB's advice and told him that in future, they would be more discreet.

In a second incident, five gay non Japanese students asked JEPCB for advice on what to tell their host families who, assuming that they were heterosexual, asked about their boyfriends or girlfriends. JEPCB told them that it would be better not to answer truthfully, because the Japanese host families would probably come to dislike them. JEPCB said that the gay non Japanese students were appreciative, and accepted the advice.

Open-ended comments

Finally, JEPCB was asked to give a general comment on the issues addressed during our interview, regarding his role pressures as a Japanese educational program coordinator. His comments are presented here.

> *"I didn't know how close to get to the students, or how friendly to be with the students. If I am not close enough they don't tell me the problems. If I'm too close I might listen to [the non Japanese students] too much, and not listen to the host family's side. It was hard to get a good balance."*

5.5 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the results of the content analysis of non Japanese students' postal applications for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, the content analysis of negative e-mails from non Japanese students received by the Japanese educational program coordinators prior to the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, and the one-on-one interviews with JEPCA and JEPCB.

The content analysis of the background information section of the postal application form indicates that all 60 non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program responded to the requests for information on their linguistic background, personal habits, and dislikes about Japanese host families' lifestyles. Fifty-three non Japanese students provided information about allergies and other health problems.

The content analysis of negative e-mails from the sample of 10 female and 10 male non Japanese students indicates that 11 of 20 non Japanese students sent e-mails to the Japanese educational program coordinators about their inability to comply with application procedures for the study-abroad Japanese language programs. Four non Japanese students in the sample sent e-mails complaining about services. Six non Japanese students sent e-mails requesting services that may have been beyond the duty statement of the Japanese educational program coordinators.

The one-on-one interviews with the two Japanese educational program coordinators have been presented as accounts from JEPCA and JEPCB. JEPCA and JEPCB differ in terms of experience as educational program coordinators for the study-abroad Japanese language program.

Chapter 6 presents an interpretation of the results of both content analyses and one-on-one interviews with the two Japanese educational program coordinators.

Chapter 6
Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents discussions of the results of the two content analyses, and the one-on-one interviews with the Japanese educational program coordinators, in response to the broad and specific research questions for this study. The results are discussed here in terms of role theory and the occupation of educational program coordinators. In chapter 3 the job duties of the Japanese educational program coordinators in the non-profit organisation were discussed in terms of role theory. Six points were made in that discussion, and they are recapitulated here to establish the assumptions made about the working conditions of the Japanese educational program coordinators.

Assumption one, the Japanese educational program coordinators' jobs are relatively secure because they are full-time employees of the non-profit organisation. However, as employees in a small non-profit organisation, they may have few opportunities for career development there. In chapter 3, it was argued that this issue may cause role stress for the Japanese educational program coordinators. However, the results indicate that an indirect source of role stress for them was the absence of job training. This point is discussed further later in this chapter.

Assumption two, the extent to which the Japanese educational program coordinators strive to exceed the expectations of non Japanese students will depend on their own professional values. Thus, the Japanese educational program coordinators' professional values are reflected in their work.

Assumption three, role pressures are inevitable because of the small proportion of Japanese educational program coordinators to non Japanese students. These role pressures may relate to timely communication; the provision of accurate information to non Japanese students; and mediation between non Japanese students and their Japanese host families. The Japanese educational program coordinators send information and instructions to non Japanese students through printed documents, e-mails, or face-to-face conversations. It was assumed that when non Japanese students arrived in Japan and lived with their Japanese host families, the Japanese educational program coordinators' role pressures would relate to

(a) facility maintenance, (b) travel arrangements and (c) timekeeping. This latter assumption was not supported by the data.

Assumption four, the Japanese educational program coordinators would spend a great deal of time each day conversing with non Japanese students about day-to-day matters. In addition, the non Japanese students and their Japanese host families would expect the Japanese educational program coordinators to prioritise their well-being. This expectation was assumed to be a source of role pressures (but not necessarily role stress) for the Japanese educational program coordinators. This assumption was supported by the results.

Assumption five, non-profit organisations thrive on client support and positive appraisal. So, the Japanese educational program coordinators may feel pressured to address the needs of every non Japanese student. Given this strong focus on client care, the Japanese educational program coordinators may not perceive the non-profit organisation as an academic institution. Instead, they may see it as a provider of education in cross-cultural communication. There was no strong support for this latter assumption in the data.

Assumption six, Japan's educational culture is characterised by resistance to strong administrative leadership. Therefore, the Japanese educational program coordinators would not help to select non Japanese students for the study-abroad Japanese language program. This may mean that the Japanese educational program coordinators would feel stress if their beliefs about the ideal characteristics of non Japanese students do not match the selection criteria created by the study-abroad Japanese language program's academic committee. This assumption was not supported by the results.

The following section presents a discussion of possible answers to the broad research question for this study. The specific research questions for this study are addressed in subsequent sections of this chapter.

6.2 Broad research question

The broad research question for this study is now addressed. It asked "*How do Japanese educational program coordinators of a study-abroad Japanese language program conceptualise their role pressures in a non-profit organisation in Japan, in response to non Japanese Students?*" This research question is addressed in part by the open-ended statements made by JEPCA and JEPCB during their one-on-one interviews. These statements were elicited by the question "*is there anything further you would like to*

say about the above areas regarding your role pressures as an educational program coordinator?"

JEPCA's statement suggests that she conceptualises her role pressures in terms of her administrative job duties. This is suggested by her statement that she has found it stressful to work with JEPCB because he did not have any training or experience as an educational administrator. JEPCA said that: "*the job as coordinator requires us to organise the program successfully and to solve the communication problems with host families, students and instructors. My job is to maintain harmonious relationships with everyone. So I have to keep an [open mind]. If my partner is not trained, it causes stress*". Her statement, about one of her former colleagues, suggests that she is concerned about JEPCB's professional experience and competence as an educational program coordinator. This was also suggested by the large number of tasks she performed during her overtime hours to prepare for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program.

As discussed in chapter 2, education institutions outside Japan do not train education administrators to do their jobs. So, educational program coordinators must become competent while doing their jobs (Curtis, 2006; Lauwerys, 2002; Powers & Maghroori, 2006). JEPCA made a similar statement on this issue. She said that the non-profit organisation "*doesn't train the coordinators, [it] just hires people who are able to do the job*". This situation is complicated because the non-profit organisation must employ fluent English speakers as educational program coordinators. This is because the non Japanese students who apply to the study-abroad Japanese language program are already enrolled in universities in the United States. Many of these non Japanese students are native English speakers and may prefer to communicate in that language. However, it is difficult for the non-profit organisation to recruit fluent English speakers in the host city. So, it may be difficult for the non-profit organisation to insist upon stringent qualification standards for prospective employees.

JEPCA's concern is indicated by her statement that JEPCB "*is not trained to be a desk worker*". Her concern about JEPCB's lack of work experience and administrative skills suggests that she conceptualises her role pressures in terms of her ability to effectively manage a heavy workload while providing high quality service to non Japanese students. JEPCB, in contrast, conceptualises his role pressures in terms of his interpersonal interactions with the non Japanese students. He said that friendly relationships with non Japanese students were not important for the successful fulfilment of his job duties.

However, in his open-ended statement, his expressed concern that he "*didn't know how close to get to the students, or how friendly to be with the students*". He elaborated by saying, "*If I am not close enough to the students they don't tell me the problems. If I'm too close to the students, I might listen to the student's side too much, and not listen to the host family's side. It was hard to get a good balance*". These statements suggest that JEPCB conceptualises his role pressures in terms of the problems that non Japanese students disclose to him, and his ability to judiciously address those problems. The following section presents a discussion of the Japanese educational program coordinators' professional backgrounds.

6.3 The Japanese educational program coordinators' professional backgrounds

In their one-on-one interviews, JEPCA and JEPCB indicated that they developed professional competence as educational program coordinators as they performed their job duties. JEPCA said that the non-profit organisation doesn't train the coordinators, instead hiring people who can do the job. JEPCA had 10 months of experience as a teacher in an English conversation school in Japan, but JEPCB had no prior working experience in the education sector before being employed to the non-profit organisation. JEPCA, who has been employed to the non-profit organisation for four years, and has gained more job experience than JEPCB. This may be why JEPCB's lack of office administration training in an education-related sector was a source of stress for her.

McHargue (2003) argues that for-profit organisations invest in their employees in order to produce a competitive product. Non-profit organisations, by contrast, are expected to focus on their services and programs. This leaves little time and resources for employee training. This is especially true for small non-profit organisations, such as this non-profit organisation, which often lack the time and resources for effective employee training (Tucker, Cullen, Sinclair, & Wakeland, 2006).

Alatrista and Arrowsmith (2003) and McHargue (2003) agree that employees in non-profit organisations may not want to remain employed there if they receive relatively low salaries, or have limited career development opportunities. However, these issues also contribute to the difficulties that many non-profit organisations face when hiring and retaining highly skilled employees (McHargue, 2003). This situation is suggested by JEPCA, who said that being an educational program coordinator in the non-profit

organisation "*requires English proficiency and administrative skills. The number of people [living in the host city] with a high level of English proficiency is very limited so it is difficult to find appropriate people"*. JEPCA's use of the word 'appropriate' is understood to mean 'suitably qualified'.

In the absence of employees with specialised skills, non-profit organisations that engage in traditional business activities are more likely to make poor decisions, and may be less able to recognise and respond to errors when they occur (Tucker, et. al., 2006). This situation is suggested by JEPCA, who said that one former female colleague was previously employed as a secretary, and "*so she was unable to administrate the program. She was not used to being an administrator, just going back and forth, and running errands. The responsibility was too big for her"*. Tucker, et. al., (2006) support the view that employees in non-profit organisations must have the skills and abilities that enable them to address the organisation's social activities in a meaningful way. Employees must also possess expertise in the management of business issues.

A further discussion of the implications of the lack of training opportunities for the Japanese educational program coordinators is beyond the scope of this study. Presently, this researcher believes that JEPCA's concern about the professional competence of her past, present (and probably future) colleagues is an underlying cause of the role pressures she experienced in response to the non Japanese students that participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. This issue is discussed further in this chapter, in relation to various aspects of the Japanese educational program coordinators' work. The Japanese educational program coordinators' overtime work is discussed in the next section.

6.4 The Japanese educational program coordinators' overtime work

The one-on-one interview information on overtime work shows that in contrast with JEPCB, JEPCA had a greater number of overtime tasks to perform in preparation for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. JEPCB's two main job duties during his overtime hours were the recruitment of Japanese host families, and the screening of non Japanese students' postal applications. The recruitment of Japanese host families involved making telephone calls to prospective Japanese host families. The screening of non Japanese students' postal applications involved the use of screening criteria prepared by the study-abroad Japanese language program's academic committee in the United States.

JEPCA said that she performed 26 tasks to prepare for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. The job duties of the Japanese educational program coordinators, as compiled by JEPCA are presented in Appendix A. These job duties were compared to the tasks listed by JEPCA during her one-on-one interview. Only two tasks from this main index appear in JEPCA's list of overtime tasks. These were the updating of the study-abroad Japanese language program's Website, and the revision of the postal application Form. The other tasks appear to be clerical tasks, or tasks that required in-person communication with members of the host city community.

JEPCA's overtime job duties were compared to the common activities performed by administrative staff in public, private, and non-profit sector organisations in the United States (Euske, 2003). JEPCA's overtime job duties are similar to general functions that occur in these organisations. Although these general functions relate to the management of employees, the purchase of supplies, travel arrangements, and facility maintenance (Euske, 2003), JEPCA's overtime tasks appear to have a broader scope. This broader scope may be related to the organisational characteristics of non-profit organisations, which include the use of voluntary resources, the establishment of communities around specific needs and problems, and the establishment of cooperative relationships with other stakeholders in the non-profit organisation (Lettieri, Borga & Savoldelli, 2004). JEPCA's overtime tasks are also compatible with two of the organisational roles of CIEE, the United States study-abroad organisation which was discussed earlier in chapter 2. These organisational goals are to provide a living environment that is conducive to a rewarding study-abroad experience, and to provide value for money (CIEE, 2006).

JEPCA's list of overtime tasks is sorted into two categories, 'office' and 'community'. These overtime tasks are displayed in Figure 6.1. The 'office' category highlights JEPCA's job duties in response to the needs of non Japanese students. The 'community' category highlights the tasks, activities, and conditions that were negotiated with members of the host city community. It is assumed that these community-based negotiations were undertaken to enhance non Japanese students' comfort while they were living in Japan.

The tasks in the category 'community' are marked by verbs such as *discuss, provide, negotiate, contact, arrange* and *ask*. These verbs suggest that the host city community's cooperation was an important factor in the successful delivery of the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. Non-profit organisations "operate fully in a social system when they are aware of a community of heterogeneous actors, and when they are able to

catalyse the resources that these people provide in order to solve (or ameliorate) specific social needs" (Lettieri, et. al., 2004, p. 20). So, the involvement of high ranking officials in the host city and the media, the local police, and food suppliers suggests that the study-abroad Japanese language program is a community project.

Figure 6.1 Overtime tasks performed by JEPCA in the office and in the host city community

Overtime Tasks Performed in the Office	Overtime Tasks Performed in the community
▪ Revise the postal application form. ▪ Revise the contents of study-abroad Japanese language program brochure and website. ▪ Respond to e-mails from non Japanese students. ▪ Making photocopies. ▪ Prepare the database of non Japanese students. ▪ Advise non Japanese students of their application status. ▪ Prepare documents to be mailed to successful applicants. ▪ Consult with non Japanese students about their travel plans. ▪ Order newspapers in English and Japanese. ▪ Perform maintenance checks on personal computers in the Student Lounge. ▪ Post the syllabus for the previous year's Japanese classes to the Japanese language instructors. ▪ Post the weekly schedule for the study-abroad Japanese language program to the Japanese language instructors. ▪ Prepare and print programs for the Opening Ceremony in English and Japanese.	▪ Discuss travel arrangements with travel agents in the host city. ▪ Provide the Police in the host city with the photographs and host family information for each non Japanese student. ▪ Negotiate bus passes for non Japanese students in the host city. ▪ Negotiate the daily preparation of food at local bakeries for non Japanese students with special dietary requirements. ▪ Ask the Japanese Teachers' Association to help with making photocopies of teaching materials. ▪ Discuss the preparation of western and vegetarian meals for students at the school cafeteria. ▪ Contact volunteer teachers in the host city to arrange dates for Japanese Culture Classes. ▪ Arrange charter buses for transporting non Japanese students to various locations around the host city. ▪ Ask the Director of City Hall, Mayor of the host city, Directors of NHK and regional newspapers to address non Japanese students at the Opening Ceremony for the study-abroad Japanese language program.

Figure 6.1 (continued)

- Prepare apartments, furnishings, and necessary items for the home for the Japanese language instructors.
- Prepare documents for Japanese language instructors' meetings.
- Prepare information booklets for non Japanese students.

The overtime work undertaken to recruit Japanese host families, is relevant to the understanding of how the Japanese educational program coordinators work to maintain the well-being of non Japanese students. The recruitment of Japanese host families is an example of how role forces operate. Role forces arise from pressures imposed by members of a role-set (Tidd & Friedman, 2002). These may be defined as "psychological forces that may be the immediate source of motivation for the focal person's behaviour" (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004).

The role-set members who imposed indirect role pressures in this situation were the 60 non Japanese students whose living arrangements had to be confirmed and prepared prior to their arrival in Japan. The low number of Japanese host families who responded to the initial recruitment efforts motivated the Japanese educational program coordinators to telephone Japanese host families who had hosted non Japanese students in previous years. As discussed in chapter 5, JEPCA said that Japanese host families were recruited through NHK Television, Japan's national broadcasting company, local television station, local newspapers; local radio stations, and through local schools. The failure to attract the desired number of Japanese host families through this comprehensive recruitment effort in the host city indicates that there is a small pool of willing or available Japanese host families.

This situation undermines the Japanese educational program coordinators' ability to use stringent selection criteria in choosing Japanese host families. It is also difficult for the Japanese educational program coordinators to make appropriate matches between non Japanese students and Japanese host families. Moreover, if a large number of non Japanese students request a change of Japanese host family, there would not be enough alternate Japanese host families to accommodate them.

The small available pool of Japanese host families indicates that the Japanese educational program coordinators would either have to place non Japanese students in homes with less than ideal living conditions, and/or negotiate with the available Japanese host families to create the best living conditions for the non Japanese students. These conditions appear to be a significant source of role pressures for JEPCA, who expressed frustration and anxiety about the recruitment of Japanese host families. The provision of comfortable accommodations for non Japanese students does not require direct interaction with them, but it is a service provided by the Japanese educational program coordinators, in response to their needs. Therefore, it must be considered a source of role pressures in relation to non Japanese students, since they communicated directly with JEPCA and JEPCB about the quality of their relationships with their Japanese host families. These interactions are analysed later in this chapter, in relation to the Japanese educational program coordinators' problem-solving skills.

While non Japanese students were living in Japan during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, JEPCA gave them her undivided attention when they came to her desk, delaying her administrative duties until after the non Japanese students had returned home. These actions are similar to the job duties of the Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE) Program Assistant in Dakar, Senegal, which were discussed in chapter 2. The CIEE Program Assistant oversees students' housing conditions, adjustment, health, and safety. JEPCA's account provides useful insight into how this job duty is put into practice.

It is interesting that while JEPCB says that he worked for 20 hours overtime each week during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, JEPCA did not discuss her overtime hours during that time. Instead, she said that she needs to do overtime work if her colleague is inexperienced, or inefficient. This statement seems to be a reference to JEPCB's job performance, because she performed a large number of overtime tasks to prepare for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program.

JEPCA and JEPCB were paid for overtime work, and were able to complete their work during overtime hours. JEPCA's role pressures, prior to the non Japanese students' arrival in Japan, appear to be related to the effects of having only a small pool of Japanese host families available even after comprehensive range of recruitment efforts within the host city. The resulting role forces motivated them to telephone other prospective Japanese host families. These psychological pressures may have been amplified by the lack of

alternate housing arrangements for the non Japanese students, and the expectation that compatible matches would be made between the non Japanese students and the Japanese host families. Overtime work undertaken while the non Japanese students were living in Japan does not appear to have been a significant source of role pressure for JEPCA or JEPCB.

6.5 The Japanese educational program coordinators' responses to non Japanese students' demands

In terms of role theory, non Japanese students' demands may be viewed as *sent roles*. Sent roles are communicated expectations which are received by the focal person with regards to his/her role (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). The impact of the non Japanese students' demands on the Japanese educational program coordinators is now discussed. These demands are made before they arrive in Japan, while they are living in Japan, and after they leave Japan and return to their home universities in the United States. The Japanese educational program coordinators' responses to non Japanese students' demands are discussed separately in these three timeframes.

6.5.1 The Japanese educational program coordinators' responses to non Japanese students' demands before they arrived in Japan

Research question A2 addresses non Japanese students' demands before they arrived in Japan for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. It asked "*what is the nature of the negative content of non Japanese students' e-mail queries concerning the study-abroad Japanese language program*?" This research question was addressed by the content analysis of the negative e-mails sent by a sample of 10 female and 10 male non Japanese students. These non Japanese students sent the e-mails before they arrived in Japan to participate in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program.

The results of the content analyses, presented in chapter 5 indicate that 11 of 20 non Japanese students sent e-mails about their inability to comply with application procedures; 4 non Japanese students sent complaints about services; and 6 non Japanese students made requests for services that may have been beyond the Japanese educational program coordinators' duty statement.

The role senders are the 10 female and 10 male non Japanese students in the content analysis sample, and their e-mails are influence attempts. As defined earlier in chapter 3, role senders make demands according to their assumptions about how the focal person might behave (Stone-Romero, Stone, & Salas, 2003). For example, the non Japanese students might have assumed that the Japanese educational program coordinators were constrained by the non-profit organisation's regulations about the processing of postal applications. Apart from the non Japanese students, the non-profit organisation is a role sender because it defines the duties, standards, objectives and responsibilities of the Japanese educational program coordinators. Since the non Japanese students received clear instructions for applying to the study-abroad Japanese language program, they might have assumed that requests deviating from these instructions would be treated unfavourably by the Japanese educational program coordinators.

Before arriving in Japan, non Japanese students also expected that the Japanese educational program coordinators would perform their roles according to specific standards. One example of pre-departure support for university students participating in study-abroad programs was illustrated in chapter 1. United States universities such as Harvard College, Northwestern University and Wesleyan University, guarantee that all students who participate in compulsory study-abroad programs will receive academic credit (Harvard College, 2006; Northwestern Study-Abroad Office, 2006; Sorkin, 2004). This guarantee suggests that these universities maintain oversight on the study-abroad programs they sponsor, so they are confident that their students will receive high quality education outside of the United States. It is therefore likely that non Japanese students' expectation of full support may have been caused by the perception that their universities in the United States also imposed constraints upon this non-profit organisation. It is likely, therefore, that the four non Japanese students' e-mail complaints about services were related to their expectations for services that matched those provided by their universities in the United States.

The discussion now shifts to the non Japanese students' e-mails, and how these contributed to the Japanese educational program coordinators role pressures. JEPCA and JEPCB said that they did not perceive any difficulties in responding to non Japanese students' e-mail queries related to the study-abroad Japanese language program's website. However, JEPCB said that he lacked confidence in his English language proficiency, and believed that this may have reduced his ability to communicate effectively with the

non Japanese students by e-mail. JEPCB's English language proficiency is also discussed later in this chapter, in relation to the Japanese educational program coordinators' communication skills.

In response to non Japanese students' requests before arriving in Japan, JEPCA and JEPCB were asked to recall requests that may have been beyond their duty statement. This researcher has conceptualised the Japanese educational program coordinators' duty statement as a set of rules for their role behaviours, in relation to the management of the study-abroad Japanese language program. Therefore, this researcher assumed that non Japanese students' e-mail requests would be a source of role pressures for the Japanese educational program coordinators. However, as reported in chapter 5, JEPCA recalled only two incidents where non Japanese students asked her to do something that was beyond her duty statement. The first request was from a non Japanese student who asked her to arrange a domestic flight within Japan. The second request was for her to store the luggage of a male non Japanese student in advance of his arrival in Japan. JEPCA was able to comply with both requests.

JEPCB found it difficult to recall incidents in which non Japanese students made requests for services that were beyond his duty statement. He recalled two incidents, but said that he experienced a very low level of stress in responding to them. One non Japanese student had asked him how to obtain a Japan RAILWAY PASS. Another non Japanese student had asked him how to find discount air tickets between Tokyo and the host city.

The absence of the above four requests from the e-mail content analysis suggests that requests that go beyond the Japanese educational program coordinators' duty statements may not necessarily contain negative phrases. However, due to the large volume of e-mails they received, it is likely that JEPCA and JEPCB were unable to recall the same incidents that were highlighted in the content analyses of the negative e-mails. It is also possible that JEPCA and JEPCB found it difficult to recall every single e-mail that contained requests that went beyond their duty statement.

This analysis has aimed to be compatible with two statements provided in the definition of role pressures, presented in chapter 3. First, if the focal persons belong to a role-set with a large membership, they may experience greater pressure to comply with the expectations of each role sender. JEPCA and JEPCB are the two focal persons whose role-set included the non Japanese students who e-mailed them about the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. Second, role pressures that are directed

towards the performance of work duties may not affect the focal person in a negative way (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). This explains why JEPCA and JEPCB did not perceive any stress in responding to the e-mail requests they recalled during their interviews.

The open-ended style of the interview question related to non Japanese students' requests before arriving in Japan therefore has one main advantage and one main disadvantage. One advantage is that it revealed the small number of incidents recalled by the JEPCA and JEPCB. This suggests that in relation to the non Japanese students JEPCA and JEPCB do not separate matters as being within or beyond their duty statement. The disadvantage of the question is that it did not allow this researcher to measure the level of stress experienced by the JEPCA or JEPCB in relation to the e-mails highlighted for the content analysis. The choice of this style of question is defensible because non Japanese students' e-mails were not addressed by both JEPCA and JEPCB at the same time. The following section discusses the responses of JEPCA and JEPCB to non Japanese Students' demands while they were living in Japan during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program.

6.5.2 The Japanese educational program coordinators' responses to non Japanese students' demands while they were living in Japan

While non Japanese students were living in Japan during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, JEPCA could not remember any requests that were beyond her duty statement. She does not perceive non Japanese students' requests as being beyond her duty statement because once non Japanese students arrived in Japan their problems became the non-profit organisation's responsibility. JEPCA's perception is now discussed in terms of role behaviour.

Role behaviour was defined in chapter 3 as focal persons' behaviour in relation to their job duties in an organisation (Das, 2001). Role behaviour is equivalent to the employee's contribution to the organisation (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). JEPCA describes her role behaviour during her interview: "*I feel that I have to be kind and provide as much information as possible. Students are young, so it's easy to be kind to them. They are not trained adults in society, so I'm very kind to them.*" In other words, JEPCA felt that she had to protect the non Japanese students because they were still university students, and not contributing members of society.

There is a contrast between CIEE's industry standard and the role behaviours of the Japanese educational program coordinators. While CIEE as an organisation has established an industry standard, which acts as role expectations for its employees, JEPCA and JEPCB seem to have dissimilar notions of what their own role behaviours should be, while non Japanese students are living in Japan. JEPCA said that she was responsible for non Japanese students' well-being while they were living in Japan, but JEPCB recalled three incidents in which non Japanese students asked him to do three things that were beyond his duty statement.

The first request came from 30 students who approached JEPCB at various times to accompany them for meals. JEPCB said that he was happy for the invitations from the non Japanese students. So, the stress he felt when he declined the non Japanese students' invitations may have come from his perception that socialising with non Japanese students is inappropriate role behaviour. The second set of requests that were from two non Japanese students who asked for the location of clothing shops in the host city. In this situation, JEPCB believed that providing directions to clothing shops in the host city was inappropriate because it was unrelated to the educational or homestay components of the study-abroad Japanese language program. The third request came from a non Japanese student who had spent two hours talking with JEPCB about an extremely distressing personal experience that occurred prior to his arrival in Japan. JEPCB said that this two-hour counselling session caused only a very low level of stress because it was his first group of non Japanese students. He thought they were *kawaii* [the Japanese word for adorable], and he did not mind paying them special attention. JEPCB experienced role conflict because the expectations of these non Japanese students may have differed from his own expectations of his own role behaviours.

JEPCB's notion of inappropriate role behaviours is explained in terms of role forces. Role forces may be constructed internally when employees send their work roles to themselves (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). These internally constructed roles are a combination of beliefs and attitudes about how a job should be performed. JEPCB believed that the two-hour counselling session was inappropriate role behaviour, perhaps because the issue being discussed was not directly related to the educational or homestay components of the study-abroad Japanese language program.

Role conflict was defined in chapter 3 as being created when members of a role-set have different role expectations regarding the focal person (Das, 2001). In terms of non

Japanese students' demands that were beyond her duty statement, JEPCA's response was that "*this year, I found that there are issues I can't fix, so I shouldn't take responsibility for them*". On the surface, she seemed to be saying that she had a relaxed approach towards managing non Japanese students' problems. However, it is likely that JEPCA has attempted to reduce the negative impact of the role pressures she experienced by clearly defining her attitude towards her work and by setting up parameters for her role behaviours.

As discussed earlier in chapter 3, role expectations are reciprocal because the focal person can communicate their job duties to members of the role-set in order to help them to understand their job duties (Stone-Romero, et. al., 2003). This means that although JEPCA did not impose limitations with respect to her duty statement, she had, however, imposed limitations on her ability to influence the outcome of her interventions in the issues that were experienced by the non Japanese students. The following section discusses the third and final responses to non Japanese students' demands after they left Japan and returned to their home institutions in the United States.

6.5.3 The Japanese educational program coordinators' responses to non Japanese students' demands after Leaving Japan

After non Japanese students left Japan and returned to their host universities in the United States, JEPCA and JEPCB did not receive any request for services beyond their duty statement. JEPCA said, however, that upon returning home, non Japanese students sent e-mails to her about negative experiences with their Japanese host families. JEPCA expressed regret that they reported these negative experiences after they left Japan, when it was too late for her to intervene. As discussed in chapter 3, education institutions are human service organisations, with values that include the protection, maintenance, or enhancement of individuals' well-being (Johnson & Owen, 2003). It was also argued, in chapter 2, that education institutions are sustained by positive, or favourable, feedback from present or past students (Joseph, Yakhou & Stone, 2006). This positive feedback attracts students to the institution. So, education institutions tend to direct a great proportion of their activities towards fulfilling the needs of their students. However, the education institution must know the needs of each student in order to address them in a timely and appropriate manner. If, for instance, the non Japanese students do not communicate their needs to the Japanese educational program coordinators, their needs will not be addressed

in a timely manner. However, this is also true if non Japanese students' needs are beyond the scope of the Japanese educational program coordinators' authority.

JEPCA said that she experienced a high level of stress when listening to non Japanese students' complaints about the educational components of the study-abroad Japanese language program. JEPCB said that he felt a moderate level of stress in relation to similar complaints, adding that non Japanese students' complaints meant that he "*didn't do a good job*". These statements suggest that JEPCA and JEPCB feel responsible for ensuring that non Japanese students are satisfied with the educational component of the study-abroad Japanese language program.

Their underlying concern may be that non Japanese students' low satisfaction with the educational component would lead to fewer enrolments in the study-abroad Japanese language program. JEPCA and JEPCB do not have the authority to make changes to the educational component because they do not have academic authority to do this. Research Question B1 asked "*How do non Japanese students' educational expectations while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators*?" The educational expectations of non Japanese students contributed significantly to the Japanese educational program coordinators interpersonal role pressures. However, the impact of non Japanese students' expectations is not measured by the number of complaints received by JEPCA and JEPCB. Instead, it is measured in terms of the psychological pressure to "do a good job" and meet or exceed non Japanese students' expectations. The psychological pressure to do well may have been exacerbated by their limited academic authority as administrative employees in the non-profit organisation.

As discussed earlier in chapter 2, the policies and practices of Japanese universities are controlled by academic staff control who reject strong administrative leadership in marketing or quality control (Ogawa, 2002). Ideally, non Japanese students' complaints about the educational components of the study-abroad Japanese language program should stimulate discussion among the Japanese language instructors and Academic Committee. Instead, these complaints became a source of role pressure for JEPCA, since she communicates directly with the non Japanese students, who expect her to respond to their needs. However, since changes to the educational component were beyond JEPCA's authority, complaints are potentially a source of role stress for her.

In terms of role theory, the inability of focal persons to achieve the outcomes expected by members of their role-set may lead to feelings of stress (Bakker, Demerouti &

Euwema, 2006). These feeling of stress may be enhanced by the primary and secondary roles of educational program coordinators in institutions of higher learning that enrol international students. The educational program coordinator's primary role is to provide and maintain administrative service quality before, during, and after students enrol in an academic course of study. The educational program coordinator's secondary role is to ensure the comfort of international students who are living in the host country. Thus, the role of the educational program coordinator is very important because instructors are not always able to assess the positive or negative effects of the education institution on students (Joseph, et. al., 2006).

Service quality in education institutions is defined as "the extent to which a service deliverer exceeds or falls short of customers' expectations" (Joseph, et al., 2006). Non Japanese students who complained about the quality of their relationships with their Japanese host families, after they left Japan, were expressing the view that the service they received in Japan failed to meet their expectations. The timing of non Japanese students' e-mails may be a source of role pressures for JEPCA because she was expected to address non Japanese students' concerns even after they left Japan. That is, she felt pressured to respond in such a way as to mitigate the effects of any non Japanese students' negative experiences in Japan.

6.6 The Japanese educational program coordinators' services to non Japanese students

JEPCA and JEPCB provided non Japanese students with printed and verbal information about the host city, their Japanese host families, together with travel information before they arrived in Japan for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. JEPCB said that he did not experience any significant challenges while providing non Japanese students with this information. In contrast, JEPCA said that she was unsure if non Japanese students found the printed information useful.

The job descriptions of educational program coordinators in chapter 2 show that an important part of their work is providing relevant and accurate information to new students. These duties may include developing orientation packages, providing advice to parents, or managing of information available in electronic format. The common roles of educational program coordinators, it was argued, has been to manage the flow of information from the students to the organisation, while meeting students' needs for comfortable housing, and a

safe living environment. Although JEPCA performed her required role behaviours by providing non Japanese students with written information, she was concerned about the impact of her role behaviour on the well-being of the non Japanese students.

While non Japanese students were living in Japan, JEPCA said that she did not perceive any significant challenges in providing them with detailed maps of the host city, or relaying event information to them. She says that this was because the Japanese host families are responsible for helping non Japanese students to adjust to life in Japan. JEPCA's shift in perception suggests that she "sent" roles to the Japanese host families their roles caregivers to the non Japanese students. She had created role expectations and role behaviours for the non Japanese students and their Japanese host families. Non Japanese students were *expected* to use information gaps to initiate conversations with their Japanese host families, who were in turn expected to provide the information requested and thus establish rapport with the non Japanese students. JEPCA stated these as her role expectations for the non Japanese students and their Japanese host families, but she did not say whether she had directly communicated these expectations to them.

JEPCB perceived some stress when he was asked to provide non Japanese students with suggestions on souvenir purchases. His perception of difficulty was related to a request that was not directly related to the educational or homestay components of the study-abroad Japanese language program. This suggests that JEPCB believes that it is necessary for him to have a positive response to all requests made by the non Japanese students. This expectation may lead to the feeling of stress when a positive response is not available, or cannot be provided within a short period of time.

The discussion now shifts to the Japanese educational program coordinators' work in matching non Japanese students to Japanese host families. In their one-on-one interviews, JEPCA and JEPCB rated the level of difficulty in matching non Japanese students to Japanese host families. They discussed any significant challenges they experienced while selecting Japanese host families in 2006. JEPCA and JEPCB both said that they found it difficult to match Japanese host families with non Japanese students because it is the non-profit organisation's policy to only interview first-time Japanese host families. JEPCA and JEPCB said that this policy made it difficult for them to predict whether the non Japanese students would be compatible with their Japanese host families.

JEPCA pointed she could only make homestay arrangements based on the non Japanese students on the basis of the information they have provided in their postal

applications, and that this involved a great deal of guesswork. She also said that her work would have been easier if matches between Japanese host families and non Japanese students were based only on eating habits or other information on the background information section of their postal applications. However, she had to pay attention to non Japanese students' personality traits, and this made the process difficult.

JEPCA's statement suggests that non Japanese students' lifestyle preferences and interests were not as important as their ability to get along with their Japanese host families. JEPCB's statement highlights the significant challenges of matching non Japanese students to Japanese host families. He said that some Japanese host families insisted on hosting non Japanese students who are "*serious about studying*", but he says "*we don't know that from the application forms*". The results of the content analysis of the postal application forms presented in chapter 5 showed that the 60 non Japanese students who participated in the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program provided most of the information requested in background information section. However, the responses of JEPCA and JEPCB suggest that they were concerned with the non Japanese students' ability to get along with their Japanese host families for several reasons.

One reason for this concern relates to an earlier discussion, in chapter 1, where the study-abroad organisation, CIEE, was introduced. In that discussion, it was mentioned that students' daily lives in the host country are significantly affected by the quality of housing (CIEE, 2006). Schmidt-Rinehart and Knight (2004) share this view, and state that living conditions become the key factor in students' adjustment in the host culture when there are vast differences between students' home cultures and host cultures. The homestay component of the study-abroad Japanese language program is compulsory, so the Japanese educational program coordinators may have been under great pressure to ensure that non Japanese students enjoyed living in Japan. The only way for non Japanese students to enjoy living with their Japanese host families in Japan is to make an effort to get along with them. JEPCA has said that "*how they can get along is the most important factor*" but this condition could not be enforced, measured, or reliably predicted from the information non Japanese students provided in their postal applications.

Research question A1 asked "*How does the requested information about non Japanese students' preferences in their written applications contribute to the role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators*?" The answer to this question is that the requested information does not contribute *directly* to the role pressures of the

Japanese educational program coordinators. Instead, the role pressures experienced by JEPCA and JEPCB may be related to the absence of reliable information that could be used to predict the quality of the relationships between non Japanese students and their Japanese host families before the non Japanese students arrive in Japan.

6.7 The Japanese educational program coordinators' communication skills

As mentioned earlier, JEPCB said that his biggest challenge in interacting with non Japanese students by e-mail was his English language proficiency. JEPCB has never taken a formal examination to establish his English proficiency level. Instead, he developed his English-language skills through conversations with other non Japanese people. JEPCA, on the other hand, has taken an official English language test in Japan, which validates her as a fluent speaker of English.

Although JEPCA speaks and writes English fluently, JEPCB apparently has had difficulties expressing his ideas clearly in writing. He relied on templates to compose his e-mails to non Japanese students, and he sent the same unedited composition to many students, regardless of the content of their queries. He said that later, when the non Japanese students arrived in Japan, he realised that his apparently formal and bureaucratic writing style had given the non Japanese students the impression that he was a stern person. He said, "*I thought I gave students a bad impression of me because of how I wrote e-mails to them*". This feedback is a source of role pressure for JEPCB, because the non Japanese students expressed the view that their expectations of him did not match his actual communication style. So, in terms of communication skills, JEPCB's role pressures may be related to his need to develop effective written communication skills in English.

Communication skills are an important part of the Japanese educational program coordinators' skill-set. This is because non Japanese students' preferred language of communication is English, because they have native or near-native competency in it. Generally, educational program coordinators must relay information between students and the organisation, so they need effective communication skills. JEPCA and JEPCB are also expected to relay information to the non Japanese students in English before they arrive in Japan.

JEPCB's lack of official credentials to authenticate his English proficiency may have caused his low confidence in his ability to produce written communication in English. This

may have been why he blamed himself for one non Japanese student's decision to cancel his enrolment. JEPCA seems to have attributed the outcome of this incident to his difficulty in getting non Japanese students to acknowledge e-mails containing information about payment schedules for fees for the study-abroad Japanese language program. This may not be a valid cause for concern because as Joseph, et. al. (2006) point out, students determine for themselves the meaning of quality, as well as the role of an education institution in their preparation for professional life. This means that non Japanese students are free to choose among a number of study-abroad Japanese language programs that are offered in Japan. However, JEPCB's concern about his written communication skills is valid, and is discussed further in chapter 7.

JEPCA and JEPCB said that they did not need to have friendly relationships with non Japanese students to successfully fulfil their job duties. JEPCA said that she wanted to be fair to all non Japanese students, so she considered socialising with students to be inappropriate role behaviour. However, even though JEPCB believed that it was inappropriate for him to socialise with non Japanese students, he found it stressful to decline their invitations. Role conflict is perceived by focal persons when they are unable to respond to all the role pressures, especially when one pressure is opposite to another (Bakker, et. al., 2006). JEPCB may have experienced some role conflict here because he may have wanted to socialise with the non Japanese students, but felt constrained by his professional role.

Since non Japanese students attempted to socialise with the Japanese educational program coordinators, even though JEPCA has managed the study-abroad Japanese language program since 2002, this suggests that the acceptable role behaviours were not fully communicated to the non Japanese students. Their judgement of non Japanese students' social invitations as inappropriate may have been based on cultural norms of student-teacher relationships in Japan, which may be different in other cultures. Non Japanese students' invitations may be seen as influence attempts. However, the intentions of the non Japanese students should be clearly determined before such a judgement is made.

Stone-Romero, et. al., (2003) have noted that in cross-cultural situations the full expectations of expected behaviours may have to be sent to each role-set member, because they may have different cultural representations of the role. The eight-week sojourn of the non Japanese students gives them little time to discover the Japanese educational program

coordinators' cultural representations of their professional and social roles. Social invitations were a source of role pressures for JEPCA and JEPCB, but they did not affect JEPCA in a negative way, because she was able to present reasons for them. However, JEPCB is an inexperienced educational program coordinator, and not knowing how to address these invitations, they may have been a source of role stress for him.

6.8 The Japanese educational program coordinators' problem-solving and crisis management skills

This section addresses research question B2, which asked, "*How do non Japanese students' homestay expectations while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?*" JEPCA said that the problems that non Japanese students experience during their stay in Japan were usually related to their relationships with their Japanese host families. This suggests that non Japanese students' homestay expectations were related to maintaining harmonious relationships with their Japanese host families. JEPCA said that it was impractical to write down probable solutions for problems because each situation is unique, and because not all hypothetical situations would be considered problematic by non Japanese students and their Japanese host families.

The need to solve the problems experienced by non Japanese students may not have been a significant source of interpersonal role pressures for JEPCA. This was mainly because of her past experience, in which the attempt to "fix" the problems of non Japanese students ended in failure. In the past, JEPCA created role pressures for herself by finding solutions for the problems experienced by non Japanese students and their Japanese host families. However, she believed that by refusing to encourage both parties to resolve their problems, she somehow failed to perform to the best of her ability. JEPCA believes that she needed effective counselling skills to address the problems that non Japanese students experienced with their Japanese host families. "*If we can find the cause of the problem, then we can know what kind of advice we have to give. It is difficult to find the cause of the problems, because the problems are deeply rooted in the relationships with their own families in the US*".

JEPCB, by contrast, was unable to discuss his ability to solve the problems experienced by the non Japanese students, even though he was pleased with the outcomes

of the decision to change their Japanese host families. JEPCA made the decision to transfer the non Japanese students to new Japanese host families, based on her past experience of failure in attempting to get both parties to repair their relationship problems and live harmoniously with each other. JEPCA's decision to change Japanese host families was prudent because, as she said, the study-abroad Japanese language program lasts for only eight weeks. Schmidt-Rinehart and Knight (2004) found that study-abroad students were less willing to negotiate solutions for problems with their host families during a stay of this duration. Therefore, JEPCA should be reassured because the non Japanese students were happy with their new Japanese host families. The non Japanese students' former Japanese host families were also pleased with the Japanese educational program coordinators' decision to relocate the non Japanese students. JEPCB may have been unable to gauge his own response to their problems, or elaborate on his problem-solving skills because he counselled the non Japanese students together with JEPCA. It is therefore unclear how the non Japanese students' homestay expectations contributed to his interpersonal role pressures.

JEPCB experienced low to moderate stress while conversing with non Japanese students about various aspects of the study-abroad Japanese language program. However, he said that he experienced a very high level of stress while conversing with gay non Japanese students about appropriate behaviour in public. This was not a source of role pressure for JEPCB because he approached the non Japanese students and initiated a conversation with them about their behaviour, which is culturally inappropriate in Japan. Instead, role forces were at work in this situation, because JEPCB saw himself as being responsible for guiding non Japanese students' awareness of appropriate behaviours in Japan. This may have been why he felt a low level of stress when he told five gay non Japanese students not to tell their Japanese host families the truth about their sexual orientation. JEPCB's intention is more relevant than the quality of the advice he gave to the non Japanese students. That is, he intended to protect them from emotional or psychological distress caused by interacting with people who do not accept their sexual orientation.

6.9 Chapter summary

The discussion presented in this chapter is now summarised in terms of the broad and specific research questions for this study. The broad research question asked, "*How do Japanese educational program coordinators of a study-abroad Japanese language program conceptualise their role pressures in a non-profit organisation in Japan, in response to non Japanese Students?*" JEPCA had conceptualised her role pressures in terms of her desire to do her job to the best of her ability. JEPCB's lack of administrative training and JEPCA's four years of experience as an administrator created an imbalance in the skills of these two colleagues. JEPCB had conceptualised his role pressures, in relation to non Japanese students, in terms of the personal problems that they shared with him, and his ability to appropriately address these problems.

Research question A1 asked, "*How does the requested information about non Japanese students' preferences in their written applications contribute to the role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?*" The answer to this research question may be that the requested information does not contribute directly to the role pressures conceptualised by the Japanese educational program coordinators. Instead, the role pressures experienced by JEPCA and JEPCB may be related to the absence of reliable information that they could use to predict the quality of the relationships between non Japanese students and their Japanese host families.

The content analysis of non Japanese students' e-mails revealed that the majority of negative content was related to sending documents by post after the deadline for receiving postal applications. Research question A2 asked, "*What is the nature of the negative content of non Japanese students' e-mail queries concerning the study-abroad Japanese language program*?" Non Japanese students sent e-mails requesting permission to send documents to the non-profit organisation by post. Their requests for services that were beyond the Japanese educational program coordinators' duty statement were sent with the assumption or expectation that the request would be rejected.

Research Question B1 asked, "*How do non Japanese students' educational expectations while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators*?" Non Japanese students' educational expectations contributed significantly to the Japanese educational program coordinators interpersonal role pressures. This was due to the psychological pressure to "do a good job". This psychological pressure may have been exacerbated by their cultural and organisational

barriers to their academic authority as administrative employees in the non-profit organisation.

Non Japanese students' homestay expectations while in Japan were addressed by research question B2, which asked, "*How do non Japanese students' homestay expectations while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators*?" Non Japanese students' homestay expectations were related to maintaining harmonious relationships with their Japanese host families. These expectations were a significant source of interpersonal role pressures for JEPCA, but the impact of these role pressures was mitigated by her decision not to intervene when the relationships between non Japanese students and their Japanese host families broke down. JEPCB was unable to gauge his ability to address non Japanese students' complaints about the homestay component, so it is unclear how these contributed to his interpersonal role pressures.

Chapter 7 presents a discussion of the research questions, and concluding remarks for this study.

Chapter 7
Conclusion

7.1 The study's findings

This study investigated the role pressures experienced by two Japanese educational program coordinators in a non-profit organisation in Japan, in response to non Japanese university students from the United States. The four research questions posed at the beginning of this study are now summarised.

Research question A1 asked: "How does the requested information about non Japanese students' preferences in their *written applications* contribute to the role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?" The data show that the requested information does not directly contribute to their role pressures. However, as discussed in chapter 4, the instructions on the background information section of the postal application forms explain why the requests for information must be taken seriously. Since the 60 non Japanese students provided most of the requested information, it may be assumed that they expected it to be used to prepare suitable accommodations for them. Therefore, the background information section represents a tacit agreement, between the non Japanese students and the Japanese educational program coordinators, about the provision of suitable accommodations.

Research question A2 asked: "What is the nature of the negative content of non Japanese students' e-mail queries concerning the study-abroad Japanese language program?" The content analysis of the non Japanese students' negative e-mails indicated that except for female students 2 and 6 (figure 5.4), queries from the sample of non Japanese students were related to application documents for the study-abroad Japanese language program. This suggests that these non Japanese students intended to complete the application process according to the procedural guidelines.

Research question B1 asked: "How do non Japanese students' *educational expectations* while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?" Non Japanese students' educational expectations contributed significantly to the Japanese educational program coordinators'

role pressures. These pressures were measured in terms of the psychological pressures to do a good job even though they had limited academic authority.

The Japanese educational program coordinators conceptualised non Japanese students' educational expectations in terms of their in-person complaints. The Japanese educational program coordinators were not in charge of the educational component of the study-abroad Japanese language program, but they were responsible for non Japanese students' well-being, so they may have felt pressured to address these complaints. Their inability to address the complaints effectively may have been a source of stress for them as well.

Research question B2 asked: "How do non Japanese students' *homestay expectations* while in Japan contribute to the interpersonal role pressures perceived by the Japanese educational program coordinators?" The problems discussed by JEPCA and JEPCB (figure 5.6 Problems A, B, C; and figure 5.8 Problems B and C), suggest that these non Japanese students' homestay expectations related to the harmonious relationships with their Japanese host families. Non Japanese students' homestay expectations did not significantly contribute to the JEPCAs' role pressures because she did not try to change the students' views. Instead, she respected their preferences and resolved the disputes by changing the students' host families. JEPCB seemed to have taken an observational role in the consultations between JEPCA and the non Japanese students. Therefore, his inability to gauge his effectiveness in solving their problems also suggests that non Japanese students' homestay expectations did not significantly contribute to his interpersonal role pressures.

The broad research question asked, *"How do Japanese educational program coordinators of a study-abroad Japanese language program conceptualise their role pressures in a non-profit organisation in Japan, in response to non Japanese Students?"* Overall, JEPCA and JEPCB had different conceptualisations of their role pressures in response to non Japanese students. JEPCA conceptualised her role pressures in terms of managing the study-abroad Japanese language program. This is suggested by her creation of the six-volume Manual, her attention to JEPCB's professional skills, and her reaction to non Japanese students' invitations to socialise. JEPCA played an active role in defining her job duties for the study-abroad Japanese language program, so she may have felt the pressure to do a good job of managing it. Her surprise at non Japanese students' social invitations suggests that she sees herself primarily in an administrative role.

JEPCB, on the other hand, felt role conflict when asked to socialise with the non Japanese students. This may have been because he wanted to be liked by the

non Japanese students, but knew that he was expected to focus on his administrative duties. JEPCB's desire to be liked the non Japanese students is suggested by his anxiety over having given the non Japanese students the impression that he was strict. His apprehension about cautioning two gay students about being affectionate in public may also have been due to his unwillingness to be seen as an overbearing educational administrator. JEPCB may therefore have conceptualised his role pressures in terms of the carrying out his administrative duties JEPCB was learning to do his job, and with no experience as an administrator, it will take time for him to define his role in the non-profit organisation.

7.2 Evaluation of the content analyses

The sample of non Japanese students chosen for the e-mail content analysis allowed this researcher to focus on the "negative content" of e-mails sent to the Japanese educational program coordinators. However, the size of the sample could have been increased to analyse the generalisations made in a larger sample of e-mails. Silverman (2001) regards the ability to change sample sizes throughout the research as one advantage of qualitative research. However, he also recommends that procedures should be valid and reliable and this was one aim of the sampling method. The sampling for the postal applications was comprehensive, as it included all 60 non Japanese students in the 2006 cohort.

The analysis of texts presents methodological problems that are similar to those found in interview analysis. That is, texts cannot be treated as firm evidence of what they report (Atkinson & Coffey, p. 47). The Japanese educational program coordinators are aware of this because they doubted that the postal applications truly represented the non Japanese students' personal experiences and preferences. However, in order to do their jobs, they had no choice but to treat these documents as true representations of the non Japanese students before they arrived in Japan.

The postal applications showed that non Japanese students participated in the process of applying to take part in the study-abroad Japanese language program; however, this may have been partially due to the structure of the document. The document was constructed by the non-profit organisation, and may not have captured all the information that would give them a specific picture of non Japanese students' needs for living in Japan. The analysis of their Personal Statements would have provided more accurate insights into their needs

before arriving in Japan. These expectations may or may not be accurate reflections of their needs, again, because the information was elicited by the non-profit organisation. Perhaps the non Japanese students' e-mails, which were not created with any input from the non-profit organisation, may have provided the most accurate source of information on the non Japanese students' expectations.

In light of the above evaluations, one weakness of this research may have been the inability of the content analysis to capture the influence attempts that were not phrased in negative language. All influence attempts should be considered important sources of role pressures for the Japanese educational program coordinators because they had to address every request while doing their jobs. However, ethical concerns constrained the examination of all e-mails sent by non Japanese students to the non-profit organisation. That is, the non-profit organisation is responsible for protecting the privacy of the non Japanese students, and examination of all e-mails sent by them would have broken that arrangement. Alternative measures, such as asking the Japanese educational program coordinators to report on the types of e-mail queries received from different non Japanese students could reduce this risk.

7.3 Evaluation of the one-on-one interviews

The use of interview data is now discussed. Interview data in this study was collected by a structured interview schedule. According to Freebody (2003, p. 133), structured interviews restrict "*the domains of relevance of the talk to a predetermined set of questions, and thus, by inference, a set of possible answers. Any materials outside of that domain of relevance are not sought, not recorded, and/or not taken into account in the compilation of the analyses of data*". The purpose of the structured interview was to keep the process efficient; however, there was no restriction on the answers that were to be received by the Japanese educational program coordinators. Since there was no literature found on the work of Japanese educational program coordinators to guide the research, it was necessary to create a set of hypothetical answers to the interview questions. These hypothetical answers were presented in the form of the professional experiences of other educational program coordinators.

Freebody (2003, p. 135) advises that interview data be treated as accounts, and not reports of the phenomenon under study. This is because interviews are events in which

individuals provide insight into their constructed social worlds. This research has shown that the accounts of educational program coordinators are but one perspective of how educational programs are managed. Other perspectives were presented in the form of job descriptions, and reports by education institutions. The implication for further research is that the measurement of role pressures experienced by educational program coordinators in any education institution should be analysed from a broad range of perspectives.

The analysis of the interview data in chapter 6 shows that a technical definition of role pressures, from a researcher's perspective, may have differed from the Japanese educational program coordinators' understanding of the term. This discrepancy highlighted the necessity of negotiating meaning or understanding in the use of terms, before proceeding with the recording of their accounts. However, such a process would be time-consuming, and would confuse the Japanese educational program coordinators as to the authenticity, or validity of their personal constructions of their professional experience.

Holstein and Gubrium (2003) state that the validity of the answers found in interview data "derives from their ability to convey situated experiential realities in terms that are locally comprehensible" (p. 117). They go on to say that meaning construction is unavoidably collaborative so, "it is virtually impossible to free any interaction from those factors that could be construed as contaminants" (p. 126). In this study, the locally comprehensible "terms" were the professional experiences of educational program coordinators in general. These were used to analyse the accounts of the Japanese educational program coordinators. The contrasts in the accounts of JEPCA and JEPCB were highlighted because they were coordinating the study-abroad Japanese language program together. Role theory offered an analytical perspective from which to understand the differences in their professional behaviours and attitudes.

7.4 Reliability and validity of the study

Reliability and validity in qualitative research are normally discussed as *triangulation*, which is a means of arriving at comparable conclusions through different data sources. Yin lists the "four design tests" as *construct validity*, *internal validity*, *external validity*, and *reliability* (2003, p. 34). Silverman (2003, p. 226) refers to the use of several data collection methods as the attempt to achieve "synchronous reliability". In this study, synchronous reliability was achieved through the use of information from content analyses of

non Japanese students' postal applications and e-mails, one-on-one interviews, as well as through the theoretical observations of 'research sites' that are similar to the non-profit organisation in which the Japanese educational program coordinators work.

Internal validity may not be relevant to this research because this study is an exploration of role pressures rather than an investigation into the specific causes of role pressures for the Japanese educational program coordinators. The validation of the research findings was addressed by corroborating the findings of the one-on-one interviews and the content analyses of the postal applications and negative e-mails. Construct validity was the overarching quality that helped this researcher to investigate role pressures with the content analyses and one-on-one interviews. Discussions of the work of educational program coordinators in several educational contexts led to an understanding of the sources of their role pressures. In chapter 2, it was proposed that the role pressures of educational program coordinators seem to emanate from the time constraints of managing a large quantity of tasks, often negative, while addressing the complaints or queries of individual students. This prompted the focus on the phrase "influence attempts" in the definition of *role pressures* (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). These discussions were presented in the sections outlining the data collection protocol.

External validity was addressed by "establishing the domain to which a study's findings are generalised" (Yin, 2003, p. 34). Another definition of external validity is the degree to which the conclusions in a study would "hold for other persons in other places and at other times" (Trochim, 2000). Yin (2003, p, 37) suggests that external validity may be established through *analytic generalisation*, which is the generalising of results to a broader theory. This has been attempted in this study. While the empirical nature of this study limits further analytic generalisation, corroborations with the analyses made in this study could be investigated in further studies of the role pressures experienced by Japanese educational program coordinators in education institutions that enrol international students from universities in the United States.

7.5 Evaluation of the study

The scope of this study was constrained by the emerging status of research on education administrators in higher learning institutions. This researcher was able to analyse empirical research on the work of educational program coordinators, and to seek out their

opinions on their work. Empirical information was found in the job descriptions of educational program coordinators in a number of other higher learning institutions.

The scope of this study affected the research design in a number of ways, and these are discussed here. First, the scarcity of research undertaken on Japanese educational program coordinators, or administrative roles in Japanese universities is the result of historical factors, which have been discussed in the introduction to this study. Administrators in Japanese higher education institutions do not have academic authority. Furthermore, the literature on the Japanese education system has focussed on the slow movement of reform efforts towards creating a strong educational culture in Japan. This study relied upon current research literature outside of Japan and the present day realities of education administrators within Japan, but it is likely that the global focus may have caused this researcher to overlook other cultural issues not identified in the literature.

7.6 Recommendations for further research

This research examined the experiences of educational program coordinators from a global perspective, but this study is still a non Japanese researcher's perspective on educational administration in Japan, with this non-profit organisation treated as an example of one organisation among many of its kind around the world. This study has focussed on the job duties of the Japanese educational program coordinators but in future, research could focus solely on educational administration in Japan, or in comparison with education institutions outside of Japan. Future research should also be conducted across a range of education institutions in Japan in order to gain a broad view of the issues highlighted in this study.

Non Japanese students may only expect to encounter Japanese culture after, but not necessarily during the process of applying for admission to this study-abroad Japanese language program. This may be because administrative procedures are conducted in English. However, non Japanese students' interaction with the Japanese educational program coordinators may represent direct contact with Japanese culture, as well as contact with the facilitators of integration into Japanese society.

Non Japanese students may be seen as young adults who are unfamiliar with Japanese culture. This means that when the Japanese educational program coordinators interact with non Japanese students, they are also interacting with a different cultural system. This

cultural system may include the reputation of non Japanese students' universities in the United States, non Japanese students' social skills, social norms about the use of technology for communication, the roles of young adults within society, and beliefs about the role of education administrators. Non Japanese students' expectations influence the frequency and nature of the interactions between them and the Japanese educational program coordinators. Therefore, future research could focus on the cultural factors affecting non Japanese students' expectations for the study-abroad Japanese language program.

This researcher believes that JEPCA's concern about the professional competence of her past, present (and probably future) colleagues is a legitimate source of role pressure for her, in response to the non Japanese students that participate in the study-abroad Japanese language program. In chapter 5, JEPCA said that the non-profit organisation does not provide the Japanese educational program coordinators with training related to their job duties. This situation is not unique to Japan. As discussed in chapter 2, educational program coordinators outside Japan also had to learn how to do their jobs while performing their duties (Curtis, 2006; Lauwerys, 2002; Powers & Maghroori, 2006). The 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program was effectively a training opportunity for JEPCB. So, JEPCA may have felt a great deal of pressure to perform well because she may have had to take full responsibility for coordinating the study-abroad Japanese language program, as well as for any errors that JEPCB may have made while performing his job duties. A comprehensive discussion of the implications of the lack of training opportunities for the Japanese educational program coordinators merits examination in further studies of this non-profit organisation.

7.7 Concluding recommendations on the homestay component of the study-abroad Japanese language program

The homestay component is singled out for discussion because of the difficulties JEPCA experienced in recruiting Japanese host families for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program. McHargue (2003) argues that within non-profit organisations, there is no direct connection between the services and resources. Three points stand out in this argument, in relation to the services that the non-profit organisation provides to non Japanese students. First, donor stakeholders might provide the resources for the non-profit

organisation, but may know little about the management of non-profit organisations. Second, the demands that donor stakeholders make of the non-profit organisation relative to its mission and management may not always be in the best interest of the client, or the organisation. Third, the client who receives the services often has a minimal stakeholder voice. These three points are now discussed in terms of the non-profit organisation's services.

In the non-profit organisation, the Japanese host families are very important donor stakeholders. They donate living space as well as personal time and money towards the cross-cultural education of the non Japanese students they invite into their homes. However, Japanese host families do not simply offer their resources to the non-profit organisation. Instead, the non-profit organisation asks them to contribute these resources to the non Japanese students. As discussed in chapter 1, homestay is currently offered as the only type of accommodation because of the non Japanese students' eight-week stay, and the high cost of temporary accommodation in Japan. The comprehensive recruitment effort that was coordinated by the non-profit organisation may be seen as a form of pressure directed towards the host city community, in response to the pressure to find suitable accommodations for the non Japanese students, before they arrive in Japan.

The low response of potential Japanese host families, in response to the comprehensive recruitment efforts of the non-profit organisation, may be interpreted as their unwillingness to contribute to the cross-cultural education of non Japanese students who visit the host city community. This may mean that the non-profit organisation's principle of promoting cross-cultural awareness is not shared equally by members of the host city community. However, the Japanese educational program coordinators may not be aware of this dissonance and so they may continue to recruit Japanese host families from within the host city community.

The 60 non Japanese students who participated in the study-abroad Japanese language program account for a small percentage of the student population in their universities in the United States, and therefore an even smaller percentage of the population of their home communities. A parallel assumption should be that the only a small percentage of the host city community would be willing to contribute to the cross-cultural development of the non Japanese student. Thus, the development of cross-cultural values should be not treated as a principle that is necessarily shared by an entire community.

Non-profit organisations should be able to make full use of available human resources to address social needs (Lettieri, et. al., 2004). However, they should also be aware of the extent to which they can rely on human resources. JEPCA, for example, negotiated with local businesses and statutory bodies to create a rewarding study-abroad experience for the non Japanese students. The contribution of Japanese families living in the host city community should be negotiated in the same way. This would enable more Japanese families to contribute to the study-abroad Japanese language program in a greater variety of ways. Thus, they may experience interactions with non Japanese students without the pressure of providing for them as a family.

This researcher also recommends that the Japanese educational program coordinators conduct research within the host city to gauge individual views on non Japanese residents, community members' interpersonal skills and values in relation to human interaction, as well was their commitment to raising their global awareness. This measure would allow the non-profit organisation to consider whether the homestay component of the study-abroad Japanese language program is offered in the best interest of both the non Japanese students and members of the host city community. The non-profit organisation may then be able to consider alternate methods of effectively raising non Japanese students' awareness of Japanese culture when they visit the host city to participate in the study-abroad Japanese language program.

7.8 Concluding remarks

In this study, the Japanese educational program coordinators were presented as the managers of the study-abroad Japanese language program. However, members of the host city community were identified as important stakeholders in the study-abroad Japanese language program. The Japanese educational program coordinators were chosen as the focus of this study because they are the mediators between the non Japanese students and the host city community. They are mediators because of their English fluency and because they are responsible for the well-being of the non Japanese students.

As discussed in chapter 1, this research theme displays contextual overlaps with study-abroad programs, the job duties of educational program coordinators, international studentship, and administrative policies in North American and Japanese universities. So far, no other study has been found which analyses cross-institutional, cross-cultural, and

international studentship issues in relation to Japanese educational program coordinators. This study therefore presented these overlapping contexts as a single research theme for investigation. This researcher was presented with the opportunity to analyse the merging of diverse cultural realities in education institutions as an emerging industry of education. As discussed in chapter 2, diversity has now become an essential component of mainstream education. This is illustrated by students' interest in foreign languages, cultures and societies as well as the existence of educational programs in their countries of interest that foster and nurture their interest.

The Japanese educational program coordinators are native Japanese who serve non Japanese students who are studying Japanese culture. Their role pressures were influenced by non Japanese students' expectations, which were articulated as demands and complaints. It appears that in order to serve non Japanese students well, the Japanese educational program coordinators need to either imagine the kinds of support that non Japanese students will need during their stay in Japan, rely on feedback from non Japanese students, or request full training from the non-profit organisation. This conceptual framework may thus be a useful strategy for addressing and improving services to non Japanese students.

Appendixes

Appendix A

Job duties of the Japanese educational program coordinators indexed by month

September
- Begin recruiting participants for the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program.
- Prepare pamphlets and flyers for recruiting non-Japanese students in the USA.
- Revise content of the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program Website.
- Revise content and format of Postal Application Forms.
- Contact Travel Agencies to arrange transportation for non-Japanese students.
- Prepare to recruit Japanese Language Instructors for the next year.

October
- Update content on the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program Website.
- Publish Annual Report for previous Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program.

November
- Discuss evaluation procedures for non-Japanese students' Postal Applications.
- Recruit Japanese Language Instructors for future teaching.
- Update the content of Information Booklets.

December
- Commence mass media (television, video) recruitment of Japanese Host Families.
- Post thank-you letters to current year's Japanese Host Families.
- Author recruitment pamphlets for the subsequent year.

January
- Print Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program Information Booklets.
- Revise and update content of Orientation Materials.
- Recruit Japanese Host Families from selected Senior High Schools in the Host City.

February
- Commence area-wide recruitment of Japanese Host Families.
- Continue recruiting Japanese Host Families from all public schools in the Host City.
- Confirm Special Japanese Culture Instructors' participation in the Program.
- Commence preliminary assessment of non-Japanese students' Postal Applications.

March
- Send information to non-Japanese students who need visas to enter Japan.
- Proofread documents for the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program Website.
- Forward Postal Applications to the Academic Committee in the United States.

April
- Update content on the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program Website.
- Telephone Japanese Host Families who responded to recruitment campaign.
- Purchase Japanese textbooks for non-Japanese students.
- Interview potential first-time Japanese Host Families.

May
- Print Orientation Booklets.
- Meet with representatives from Host City Hall.
- Match non-Japanese students with suitable Japanese Host Families.
- E-mail Orientation Booklets to non-Japanese students in the United States.
- Prepare for Japanese Host Family Orientation Meeting.
- Finalise lease agreement for Japanese Language Instructors' accommodation.

June
- Present Japanese Host Family Orientation Meeting.
- Plan reception for Japanese Language Instructors.
- Print posters and notices to be posted on bulletin boards.
- Prepare meeting halls and classrooms.

Non-Japanese students arrive in Japan and the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program Commences

- Coordinate travel arrangements chosen by non-Japanese students.
- Present Orientation Meeting for non-Japanese students.

July
- Coordinate activities for the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program.

August
- Coordinate activities for the Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program.
- Collect Evaluation forms.

The Study-Abroad Japanese Language Program ends and non-Japanese students return to the United States

- Post transcripts to non-Japanese students' universities in the United States.
- Post letters of gratitude to Japanese Host Families, and Japanese Language Instructors.
- Post Homestay Questionnaire Forms to Japanese Host Families.

Appendix B

Job description
Summer Program Coordinator, AHC, Inc. Virginia, USA

POSITION: Part-time, Temporary @ 30 or 35 hours per week (weekday afternoons plus some flexible hours), for 7 weeks, June 28, 2006 through August 11, 2006). Wage: up to $15/hour, based on experience; no benefits.

BACKGROUND: AHC, Inc. is a non-profit, community-based organization located in Arlington, Virginia. Its mission is to provide quality affordable housing to low and moderate-income residents. The organization offers a variety of housing programs for homeowners, and owns and operates 19 rental apartment complexes in Arlington County. In addition, AHC currently offers support services for residents living at eight of its rental properties.

The goal of our Resident Services programs is to improve the quality of life at AHC properties and strengthen the neighborhoods where they are located. We offer programs for all age groups, with our primary focus on children and teens. After-school and summer programs for youth comprise the largest part of resident services programming. Workshops, lectures and field trips are offered during the year for adults and senior citizens as well.

GENERAL RESPONSIBILITIES: Each Summer Program Coordinator, working with the Resident Services Coordinator, a permanent AHC staff member, is responsible for managing a daytime only summer program for approximately 15-20 children, who have just graduated from Kindergarten through fifth grade, three to five afternoons a week, at the community center in one low- and moderate-income apartment community.

SPECIFIC RESPONSIBILITIES:

- Plan and provide structured activities for children, making use of the resources at the community center. Projects could include, but are not limited to, arts and crafts activities, cooking lessons, computer-related activities and outdoor games.
- Implement systems to make sure program runs smoothly (e.g. sign in/sign out sheets, program rules, etc.).
- Help recruit children for program.
- Maintain good discipline. Teach children to respect one another and take care of the community room by implementing behavior management program and modifying as necessary.
- Plan, coordinate, attend and supervise field trips to local pools, parks, museums and other attractions.
- With other staff, work within program's budget to get snacks and activity materials for children.
- Help maintain records of money spent and of program outcomes for grant reports.

Appendix C

Job description
Summer Program Coordinator, Atlantic Fellowship Program,
Sponsors for Educational Opportunity, New York, USA

Sponsors for Educational Opportunity was founded in 1963 as one of New York City's first mentoring organizations and is now an international nonprofit organization based in New York, with offices in London, England. SEO prepares young people of color to lead by example in their families, communities and careers.

SEO's programs address societal inequities in education and opportunity that limit the success of young people of color. Our services are provided through three major initiatives: the SEO Scholars Program, which serves promising students of color in New York City public high schools and prepares them to attend and excel at the nation's most selective colleges and universities; the Career Program, which provides internships and training and to outstanding college students of color - in recent years, more than 80% of the young people who completed these summer internships were offered full-time jobs with participating investment banks and other leading companies; and Alumni & Philanthropy Programs, which promotes volunteerism, philanthropy and financial literacy to students and families both in New York City and nationally.

Summer Program Coordinator, Atlantic Fellowship Program

The Merrill Lynch Atlantic Fellowship gives exceptional high school students in underserved areas of the US and the UK the opportunity to explore the business world firsthand and to discover the variety of careers in the financial services industry. The Fellowship offers a comprehensive overview of the financial markets through intensive training workshops, job shadowing and tours of cultural attractions.

The Summer Program Coordinator is responsible for the management of the Merrill Lynch Atlantic Fellowship Program, including chaperoning the Fellows when traveling locally and between the US and UK.

Responsibilities

- Act as liaison between Merrill Lynch and the Windsor Fellowship to plan all SEO-driven components of the program, including making recommendations on training for students
- Accompany students throughout their travels to, from, and within the United Kingdom
- Ensure that participants have completed all required paperwork and related administrative steps including, where necessary, passports and visas, necessary for them to legally enter the U.K.
- Coordinate itinerary of activities and all logistics for program, particularly the social events and leadership training aspects of the itinerary
- Responsible for documenting activities and experiences to contribute to press releases, foundation reports and other media.
- Responsible for budgeting and tracking of all expenses related to program including travel, meals, accommodations, etc.

- Work closely with Director of Alumni and Philanthropy Programs and Merrill Lynch Staff to ensure effective implementation of the Program.
- During their stay in the US and UK, serve as co-chaperone for 20-24 students 24-hours per day.
- Other duties as assigned.

Preferred skills

- Excellent organizational and project management skills.
- Ability to manage multiple concurrent tasks and schedules, and to prioritize between competing projects.
- Excellent written and verbal communication skills.
- Excellent interpersonal skills and ability to manage multi-level relationships.
- Team player who thrives in a fast-paced environment.
- Outstanding critical thinking and situational problem-solving skills.

Education and experience

- Minimum of B.A. or B.S. degree
- 1-3 years experience in administrative setting, preferably in a non-profit or educational setting.
- Experience working with and directly supervising young people.
- Experience traveling abroad is preferred.
- Candidates with knowledge of financial services are preferred.

Education: No minimum requirement
Languages: English
Last day to apply: July 23, 2006
Posted by: Sponsors for Educational Opportunity
Area of Focus: Children and Youth, Education
Location: New York, New York, 10005, United States

Appendix D

Job Description
Coordinator of International Student Services, Wesleyan University, Connecticut, USA

Reporting to the Dean for Diversity and Academic Advancement, the Coordinator for International Student Services serves as a liaison, counselor, and advocate for undergraduate international students, including Freeman Asian Scholars and visiting international and exchange students. In collaboration with key staff, the Coordinator will develop and implement programs and services, including international student orientation, that help students make successful social, cultural, and academic transitions to the University, and provide advice on University policies and procedures regarding the international student population and relevant external agencies. The Coordinator will also develop effective administrative, data management, and communication procedures, manage the office's operating budget, be responsible for all programmatic reports, and perform other duties as directed by the Dean for Diversity and Academic Advancement.

Minimum Qualifications: Bachelor's degree and 3-5 years experience in higher education. The successful candidate must have the ability to work effectively with a diverse and international student population, and with non-native English speaking students; have excellent problem-solving and organizational skills; be self-directed and motivated; be an effective problem solver; and be experienced using databases, spreadsheets, and word processing. Flexible schedule required outside of traditional work hours.

Preferred Qualifications: Master's degree. Experience living abroad, especially in non-English speaking countries, and experience in a liberal arts environment.

Qualified candidates should visit http://www.wesleyan.edu/hr/postings.html and select Staff Employment Opportunities to apply.

Appendix E

Job description
Associate Director, Study-Abroad Office, Northwestern University, Illinois, USA

Job Summary: The Associate Director assists the Director in carrying out the academic and administrative mission of the Study-Abroad Office. In collaboration with the Director and administrators and faculty members in all six schools, the Associate Director sets university-wide study-abroad policies; evaluates study-abroad programs; designs pre-departure and reentry curricula; coordinates and teaches non-credit workshops and courses; advises students and parents about all aspects of study-abroad (approximately 600 students apply each year); develops advising, marketing, and application materials; manages office Website and listserv content; establishes office procedures and processes, in collaboration with other offices (particularly the Office of the Registrar); evaluates applications for study-abroad; and represents the Director, when required.

Minimum Qualifications: A Master's degree, or the equivalent combination of education, training and experience from which comparable skills can be acquired; 3-5 years of experience in study-abroad administration or comparable experience; teaching experience and/or previous experience as an academic advisor; demonstrated ability to work with students, faculty, and administrators at the university level; experience living, studying or conducting research abroad; excellent written, verbal and interpersonal communication skills; foreign language skills and familiarity with higher education in other countries; excellent organizational skills and the ability to multi-task; demonstrated attention to detail; ability to network and collaborate; excellent word-processing skills; and working knowledge of Macintosh computers, and experience with Microsoft *Excel*, *Word* and *FilmemakerPro*.

Preferred Qualifications: (Education and experience) Teaching experience and/or pervious experience as an academic advisor helpful; ability to work effectively with students, faculty, and administrators at the university level; experience working with budgets; ability to converse in at least one language other than English.

Application Process: For a complete job description and to apply, please go to: http://www.northwestern.edu.employment/. This position is listed under Job ID 9858, Assoc Dir Study Abroad Program. Resumes sent directly to the Study-Abroad Office cannot be reviewed.

Appendix F

Job description
Program Assistant (PA), CIEE Study Centre, Dakar, Senegal

Location: Dakar, Senegal
Appointment: Annual, Starting Date May, 2006
Reports to: Resident Director

As a contracted staff member hired through the CIEE office in Portland, Maine USA, this position primarily oversees all student affairs including student life experiences, issues and concerns (e.g. adjustment, housing, personal, etc), and excursions associated with the program. In addition, this position will be responsible for many of the administrative duties in the Dakar office (e.g. assisting with monthly expense reports and responding to program-affiliated e-mail). CIEE offers a comprehensive benefits package including Medical/Dental/Vision, Disability, and Life insurance as well as a 403b retirement plan.

Duties and Responsibilities

- Assist Resident Director in planning and conducting orientation for incoming students.
- Attend orientation planning meetings with host institutions and participate in ongoing communication between CIEE Portland office and host institutions in Senegal via e-mail and phone.
- Create Orientation folder and handouts for incoming students.
- Arrange for airport pickup for group arrivals.
- Assist Resident Director in providing cross-cultural training and information about living arrangements, the academic program, the host university, and the community to incoming students during orientation and throughout academic semester. Coordinate and conduct regular small group meetings throughout the semester to review and clarify these topics.
- Conduct regular group meetings in addition to specialized meetings on topics of interest and/or expertise.
- Plan and conduct an evaluation session and a discussion of re-entry to the United States for all program participants.

Program Administration

- Assist the Resident Director with the programming of cultural activities and social events for students.
- Watch over student health and safety, proving frequent training and assistance to students in these matters. Provide guidance to appropriate medical care.
- Assist students with Medical Insurance Claim forms.
- Act as host family liaison in coordination with CIEE Housing Coordinator. Participate as an intermediary between student and host family if needed. Work with the Resident Director when a warning letter may be required.

Academic Program

- Keep student records and communicate any student problems or special concerns to the Resident Director.
- Assist Resident Director in feedback meetings with students and with host institutions.

Field Excursions and Cultural Activities

- Create an Excursion Information Notebook which includes student emergency contact, Student Medical Report/Dietary specifications, photocopies of student passports along with other emergency contingency information and contacts.
- Plan the cultural activities and excursions. Establish contacts and relationships with tour guides, hotels and restaurants within the host country.
- Provide excursion information to students in a timely manner in forms of brochures and handouts. Responsible for student sign-up sheets and confirming participation.
- Act as excursion manager on field trips observing safe behavior and general welfare of all participants. Responsible for budgeting, planning and payment of meals, lodging, tips, transportation and other logistical and administrative details. The Resident Director will approve excursions and options based on the budget. The Resident Coordinator will assist with the payment of drivers and write receipts. Keep receipts of all transactions for the monthly expense report.
- Produce cultural activity calendar for the semester. Act as a resource for cultural events and activities available to students. Update and oversee the bulletin announcement board.
- Create an excursion guideline of expectations regarding behavior and responsibilities during CIEE sponsored activities.

Other Responsibilities

- Maintain regular office hours in coordination with the Resident Director.
- Assist Resident Director with maintenance of expense records. Organize all petty cash and miscellaneous receipts within expense codes.
- Maintain contact with CIEE Portland in terms of e-mail and requests.
- Annually review catalogs and mailings sent by the Portland office to check for accuracy and changes in program.
- Work with students who want to volunteer in social service agencies in the city (introductions, transportation questions, etc.). With the Resident Director, organize an orientation to introduce the volunteer options to them.
- Other duties as assigned.

Job Requirements

- B.A. degree minimum, M.A. preferred in Intercultural Studies/Cross-Cultural Communications.
- Facility in written and spoken French, and/or other local languages.
- Experience with student affairs and/or small group leadership, excellent interpersonal skills.
- Experience in the field of international education/study abroad.
- Cultural interest in West Africa in general with specific interests in Senegal.

Appendix G

Job description
Enrolment Management Specialist, International Education of Students (IES), USA

The general responsibilities of the Enrolment Management Specialist are to serve students who apply to/or are admitted to the programs. These duties include collecting, organizing, and clarifying of data and information so that it is clear, informative, and adds value to the study abroad experience.

- Serves as a contact in the Enrollment Management department. The primary responsibilities related to the admissions unit within the department are to provide exceptional departmental service to students, university coordinators, other internal departments, and IES Centers.
- Serves the IES recruitment team providing them up-to-date and accurate information about the status of each mailing; the receipt of forms from each student; and admissions requirements for all programs.
- Serves IES Centers worldwide providing them up-to-date and accurate information about the students who will be coming to their programs each term.
- Serves the organization's need for reports and analysis of enrollment data.
- Works collaboratively with the IES accounting team to ensure proper management of each student's record with respect to billing.
- Works collaboratively with the IES IT department to ensure that data systems work effectively and accurately in order to implement the services as defined for all of the above constituencies. This will entail working through such information delivery systems as the World Wide Web, the IES Intranet site, and automated e-mails.
- Provides creative ideas, valuable input and fosters a dynamic working environment within the unit.
- Serves as the department representative for the programs assigned. This includes managing and performing all enrollment management responsibilities related to these programs as well as maintaining expert knowledge of each program assigned by learning specific program requirements and nuances.
- Provides input for effective, easy to read, timely and streamlined pre-departure mailings, e-mailings and online forms to all admitted students.
- Assists in the distribution of reports so that all our constituents receive the kinds of reports and data needed in an easy to read and timely manner.
- Collects required signatures and processes Change of Status requests for each Center.
- Collaborates with the IT department to ensure IES online forms and database applications are up-to-date and effective.
- Assists with maintaining accurate enrollment counts for admissions and other areas.
- Performs the responsibilities of Enrollment Management department representative on an ongoing basis for the programs assigned.
- Enters application data in database; reviews, copies, and files applications within the department's specifications for time and quality.
- Collects, logs, and distributes paper applications materials and mailings.
- Reviews online pre-departure forms and approves them for Center access.
- Follow-ups and regular communication with all constituencies regarding individual students, program changes, and updates.

- Provides accurate visa application instructions, coordinates the distribution of visa materials to admitted students, and collects materials required.
- Provides additional visa information, instructions, and support to students and recruiters when necessary by researching visa requirements and creating IES materials that can help facilitate the visa process whenever possible.
- Works collectively with the recruiting, academic, and marketing departments to edit publications.
- Manages the editing process for pre-departure information on paper and online.

Appendix H

Background information section of the postal application for the study-abroad Japanese language program

Instructions: The information you provide in this section will help us to place you with an appropriate host family. Your background information will NOT affect the screening process. Inaccurate information, however, can cause trouble when you live with your host family especially about food you cannot eat, smoking habits and physical restriction. So please include all relevant information.

Native language(s): _____ English proficiency: □ Native □ Advanced □ Daily conversation level

Your religion (Please tell us about any special needs you may have that are based on your religion.)

_____

Are there any foods you cannot or will not eat due to personal preference, dietary restrictions or food allergy? □Yes □No If yes, please list (for example, egg, beef, pork, shellfish allergies). Be as specific as possible. Do not say just "vegetarian".

_____

If you wish, please tell us what your diet is on a daily basis.

_____

Have you ever eaten Japanese food? □Yes □ No If yes, what did you eat and what were your impressions?

_____

Do you smoke? .....□Yes □No

Note: Many host families smoke. If you are a smoker, do not hesitate to say so.
We will try to match you with a family who does not mind if you smoke.

Do you MIND if somebody smokes in your host family? .....□Yes □No
Do you drink alcoholic beverages? .....□Yes □No
Do you MIND if somebody drinks alcoholic beverages in your host family? .....□Yes □No
Do you MIND living with a family with small children? .....□Yes □No
If yes, what age would you consider to be too young? Up to years old

Do you MIND if your host family keeps pets? .....□Yes □No
If yes, please check the animals dislike □dogs □cats □birds □rabbits □other
How tall are you? _____cm (1inch=2.54cm) (this information is helpful for your host family to prepare futon or a bed if you are very tall.

Do you have any health problems or physical restrictions (including allergies to medicines, animals, smoke)? Please describe any major health problems you have had up until now.

_____

What are your interests and hobbies?

_____

Appendix I

One-on-one interview schedule

A. Biographical information

A1. Date of birth (Year/Month/Day) 19_____/ _____/_____

A2. Marital status *Single* *Married* *Separated* *Widowed* *Divorced*

A3a. *Before* working in this non-profit organisation, have you ever worked in an *education institution*? *Yes* *No*

A3b. If 'Yes' to A3a, *what was your job title* in that education institution?

A3c. If 'Yes' to A3, *how many years ago* did you work in that education institution? ….*years*

A4. If 'No' to A3, what was your *last job title*? ……..

A5a. Have you ever lived in outside of Japan for more than six months? *Yes* *No*

A5b. If 'Yes' to A5a, please say what country/countries ……..

A5c. How long did you stay in each country? …….

A5d. What were your main activities in each country?

(a) Paid work (b) Unpaid work (c) Study (d) Vacation (e) Other (Please specify)

A6. How many years *have you been working* with this non-profit organisation? …years ...months

A7. Is your job in this non-profit organisation *permanent*, or is it *temporary* or for a *fixed term* (contract)? *(a) Permanent (b) Temporary (c) Fixed Term (contract)* *(d) Other (Please specify)*

A8. Why did you choose to work in this non-profit organisation?

A8a. Please tell me your *highest academic qualification* to date.

(a) PhD/Doctoral degree (b) Master's degree (c) Bachelor's Degree (d) Associate Degree (e) High School Diploma (f) Professional Certificate (g) Other (Please specify)

A8b. Please tell me the titles of the academic or professional programs you have undertaken.

A9. What is your current English proficiency level? Please tell me in terms of your most recent certification.

Certificate/Examination/Qualification: *Date of Result:*

B. Overtime work

B1a. What is the total number of hours you *usually* work each week?…… *hours per week*

B1b. How many of those hours are *paid* overtime hours? ..... *hours per week*

B1b. How many of those hours are *overtime are unpaid overtime hours*?

B2. If 'Yes' to B3a and B4a, are you *paid a salary* for overtime work, or *given time off later* when you work overtime? *(a) I am normally paid (b) I normally take time off later (c) I am sometimes paid and sometimes take time off later (d) None of the above (e) Other (Please specify)*

B3a. Do you usually work overtime to *prepare* before the study-abroad program? *Yes No*

B4b. If 'Yes', please tell me the work you usually do during these overtime hours.

B4a. Do you usually work overtime *during* the study-abroad program? *Yes No*

B4b. If 'Yes', please tell me the work you usually do during these overtime hours.

B5a. Do you usually work overtime *after* students leave Japan? *Yes No*

B5b. If 'Yes', please tell me the work you usually do during these overtime hours.

C. Non Japanese students' demands (2006)

C1. *Before arriving in Japan* for the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, non Japanese students asked me to do the following things that are beyond my duty statement: *(Please tell me as many as you can).* State the demands, and rank the level of stress you experienced while processing those demands. Use the following five-point scale to rank your level of stress:

5 = *I experience a very high level of stress*

4 = *I experience a high level of stress*

3 = *I experience a moderate level of stress*

2 = *I experience a very low level of stress*

1 = *I experience no stress at all*

DEMAND	LEVEL OF STRESS
	5 4 3 2 1
	5 4 3 2 1
	5 4 3 2 1

C2. While *living with their Japanese host families* during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, non Japanese students asked me to do the following things that are beyond my duty statement: *(Please tell me as many as you can).* State the demands, and rank the level of stress you experienced while processing those demands. Use the five-point scale presented in C1:

DEMAND	LEVEL OF STRESS
	5 4 3 2 1
	5 4 3 2 1
	5 4 3 2 1

C3. *After returning to their universities in the United States* at the end of the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program, non Japanese students asked me to do the following things that are beyond my duty statement: *(Please tell me as many as you can).* State the demands, and rank the level of stress you experienced while processing those demands. Use the five-point scale presented in C1:

DEMAND	LEVEL OF STRESS
	5 4 3 2 1
	5 4 3 2 1
	5 4 3 2 1

D. Services to non Japanese students

D1a. What information/services do you provide for non Japanese students *before* they arrive in Japan?

D1b. Please tell me the most significant challenges that you have experienced (during 2006) while *delivering the above information/services* to non Japanese students *before* they arrive in Japan.

D2a. What information/services do you provide for non Japanese students *while they are living* in Japan?

D2b. Please tell me the most significant challenges that you have experienced (during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program) while *delivering the above information/services* to non Japanese students *while they are living* in Japan.

D3a. What information/services do you provide for non Japanese students *after they have completed the study-abroad Japanese language program* and leave Japan?

D3b. Please tell me the most significant challenges that you have experienced (during the 2006 study-abroad Japanese language program) while *delivering the above information/services* to non Japanese students *after they have completed the study-abroad program* and leave Japan.

D4a. How would you rate the level of difficulty in *matching non Japanese students to Japanese host families*?

Please explain your answer.

Very difficult *Difficult* *Average* *Somewhat easy* *Easy* *Very easy*

D4b. Please tell me the most significant challenges (in the past year) that you have experienced while *matching non Japanese students to Japanese host families*.

D5a. Do you work *overtime* to complete any of the tasks related to D1a, D2a or D3a?

Always *Frequently* *Sometimes* *Seldom* *Rarely* *Never*

D5b. If you work overtime to complete the tasks related to D1a, D2a or D3a, *are you able to complete these tasks satisfactorily* in overtime? Please explain your answer.

Always *Frequently* *Sometimes* *Seldom* *Rarely* *Never*

E. Communication skills

E1. Complete the following sentence: "*In terms of non Japanese students' e-mail queries concerning the* study-abroad Japanese language program, *I find it very challenging to* ……."

E2. Complete the following sentence: "*In terms of non Japanese students' e-mail queries concerning matters related to* the study-abroad Japanese language program that *are beyond my duty statement, I find it very challenging to* ……."

E4. How important is rapport (a friendly relationship with non Japanese students) *to you* to the *successful fulfilment* of your job duties?

Very important *Important* *Somewhat important* *Not important* *Not sure* *Other (Please Specify)*

F. Problem-solving/crisis management skills

F1a. Are there a set of written institutional Guidelines for addressing *predictable* problems with non Japanese students?

Yes *No* *Other (Please specify)*

F1b. Are there a set of written institutional Guidelines for addressing *unpredictable* problems with non Japanese students?

Yes No Other (Please specify)

F2a. Briefly describe three problems that required you as a Japanese educational program coordinator to *speak directly, at length, with non Japanese students* during the 2006 study-abroad program.

- **Problem A**

Were you pleased with the outcome of **Problem A**? *Yes No Unsure Other (Please specify)*

- **Problem B**

Were you pleased with the outcome of **Problem B**? *Yes No Unsure Other (Please specify)*

- **Problem C**

Were you pleased with the outcome of **Problem C**? *Yes No Unsure Other (Please specify)*

F2b. Would you say each of the above problems was *predictable* or *unpredictable*?

Problem A *Predictable Unpredictable Other (Please specify)*
Problem B *Predictable Unpredictable Other (Please specify)*
Problem C *Predictable Unpredictable Other (Please specify)*

F2c. Are there a set of written institutional Guidelines for addressing the above problems?

Problem A *Yes No Other (Please specify)*
Problem B *Yes No Other (Please specify)*
Problem C *Yes No Other (Please specify)*

F2d. If 'Yes' to F2c, do you think they are effective Guidelines?

Problem A *Yes No Other (Please specify)*
Problem B *Yes No Other (Please specify)*
Problem C *Yes No Other (Please specify)*

F2e. If 'Yes' to F2c, what else do you think should be included in these Guidelines?

F3. *Generally*, how would you rate *your own problem-solving skills* in addressing non Japanese students' problems? Please explain your answer.

Excellent Very good Satisfactory Adequate Inadequate Poor Other (Please specify)

F4a. Generally, are you *satisfied* with your ability to advise non Japanese students when they experience problems before they arrive in Japan? Please explain your answer.

(a) I am satisfied (b) I am somewhat satisfied (c) I am not sure (d) I am unsatisfied

(e) I am unable to advise non Japanese students *(f) Other (Please specify)*

F4b. Generally, are you *satisfied* with your ability to advise non Japanese students when they experience problems during their stay in Japan? Please explain your answer.

(a) I am satisfied *(b) I am somewhat satisfied* *(c) I am not sure* *(d) I am unsatisfied*

(e) I am unable to advise non Japanese students *(f) Other (Please specify)*

F4c. Generally, are you *satisfied* with your ability to advise non Japanese students when they experience problems after they leave Japan? Please explain your answer.

(a) I am satisfied *(b) I am somewhat satisfied* *(c) I am not sure* *(d) I am unsatisfied*

(e) I am unable to advise non Japanese students *(f) Other (Please specify)*

F5. Please rate the following incidents in order of the stress you feel when you have *one-on-one conversations* with non Japanese students about the following aspects of their stay in Japan. Rank your feelings of stress according to the following five-point scale:

5 = *I experience a very high level of stress*

4 = *I experience a high level of stress*

3 = *I experience a moderate level of stress*

2 = *I experience very low level of stress*

1 = *I experience no stress at all*

Non Japanese students' queries *about admission to the study-abroad Japanese language program.*	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Non Japanese students' queries about *living in the host city in Japan*.	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Non Japanese students' queries about *transportation within the host city*.	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Non Japanese students' complaints about their *Japanese host families.*	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Non Japanese students' *requests to live with new Japanese host families.*.	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Non Japanese students' complaints about *other non Japanese students*.	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Non Japanese students' complaints about the *educational component* of the study-abroad Japanese language program.	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Non Japanese students' complaints about the study-abroad Japanese language program's *Japanese language instructors*.	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Non Japanese students' *unexcused* absences from *compulsory* Japanese Language classes.	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Non Japanese students' *unexcused* absences from *optional* Japanese Culture classes.	*5*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Other (Please explain). There is no maximum.					

G. Open-ended question

G1. Is there anything further you would like to say about the above areas regarding your role pressures as an educational program coordinator?

Thank you for your participation

End of interview

Bibliography

AHC, Inc., of Arlington, Virginia. (2006). Job announcement: Summer Program Coordinator: Actions without Borders.

Al Rubaie, T. (2002). The rehabilitation of the case-study method. *European Journal of Psychotherapy, Counselling & Health*, 5(1), 31-47.

Alatrista, J., & Arrowsmith, J. (2003). Managing employee commitment in the not-for-profit sector. *Personnel Review, 33*(5), 536-548.

Asonuma, A. (2002). Finance reform in Japanese higher education. *Higher Education, 43*, 109-126.

Atkinson, P., & Coffey, A. (2003). Analysing documentary realities. In D. Silverman (Ed.), *Qualitative research: Theory, Method and Practice* (pp. 45-62). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Bakalis, S., & Joiner, T. A. (2004). Participation in tertiary study abroad programs: The role of personality. *Internal Journal of Educational Management, 18*(5), 286-291.

Baecker, D. (2006). The form of the firm. *Organization, 13*(1), 109-142.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Euwema, M. C. (2005). Job resources buffer the impact of job demands on burnout. *Occupational Health Psychology, 10*(2), 170-180.

Bollag, B. (2004). Get out of the country please. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 51*(13), A42.

Boyadjieva, P., & Petkova, K. (2005). Towards a new understanding of education in the globalizing world: Lifelong learning. *Managerial Law, 47*(3/4), 21-29.

Brewerton, P. M. (2001). *Organisational Research Methods: A Guide for Students and Researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Caddell, M. H. (2005). Academic administrative careers. *Office Pro, 65*(8), 30-31.

Callen, J. L., Klein, A., & Tinkelman, D. (2003). Board composition, committees, and organizational efficiency: The case of nonprofits. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 32*(4), 493-520.

Carmical, B. H. (2002). Internationalising the campus: What do you need to know? *New directions for higher education, 117*, 79 - 86.

Chambré, S. M., & Fatt, N. (2002). Beyond the liability of newness: Non-profit organizations in an emerging policy domain. *Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 31*(4), 502-524.

Citro, C. F. (Ed.). (2003). *Protecting Participants and Facilitating Social and Behavioural Sciences in Research*. Washington, D.C.: National Academic Press.

Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE). (2005a). Our View: How are we doing (Vol. 1, pp. 8). Portland, ME: Council on International Educational Exchange.

Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE). (2005b). Our View: A CIEE eye for the study abroad guy...or girl (Vol. 3, pp. 10). Portland, ME: Council on International Educational Exchange.

Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE). (2005c). Our View: Standards (pp. 14). Portland, ME: Council on International Educational Exchange.

Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE). (2005d). Our View: Parents, pills, and pandering (pp. 16). Portland, ME: Council on International Educational Exchange.

Citro, C. F. (Ed.). (2003). *Protecting Participants and Facilitating Social and Behavioural Sciences in Research*. Washington, D.C.: National Academic Press.

Collier, P. J., & Callero, P. J. (2005). Role theory and social cognition: Learning to think like a recycler. *Self and Identity, 4*, 45-58.

Congress of the United States, Washington, DC, House Committee on Education and the Workforce. (2000). *Safety in Study Abroad Programs*: *Hearing before the Subcommittee on Oversight and Investigations of the Committee on Education and the Workforce. House of Representatives, One Hundred Sixth Congress, Second Session*. (Hearing Senate-Hrg-106-132). Washington, DC: Congress of the United States, House of Representatives.

Crano, W. D. (2002). *Principles and Methods of Social Research*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Curtis, A. (2005). The first 1,000 steps: Walking the road from academic to administrator. *Leader, 21*, 1, 6.

Dart, R. (2004). Being "business-like" in a nonprofit organization: A grounded and inductive typology. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 33*(2), 290-310.

Das, T. K. (2001). Training for changing managerial role behaviour: Experience in a developing country. *Journal of Management Development, 20*(7), 597-603.

Davis, T. M. (2003). *Atlas of Student Mobility*. Washington, D.C.: IIE Books.

Dessoff, A. (2006). Who's not going abroad? *International Education, March/April*, 20-27. Retrieved August 5, 2006, from http://www.nafsa.org/_/Document/_/who_s_not_going_abroad.pdf.

Dolby, N. (2004). Encountering an American self: Study abroad and national identity. *Comparative Education Review, 48*(2), 150-173.

Eagly, A. H., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. (2001). The leadership styles of women and men. *Journal of Social Issues, 57*(4), 781-797.

Economist. (2006, January 7). The downturn. *Economist*, pp. 37 - 38.

Eduventures, L. (2004). Managing collegiate enrolments: Identifying solutions to today's pressing challenges. Eduventures, LLC. Retrieved March 25, 2006 from http://www.eduventures.com/about/press_room/03_09_04.cfm.

Engelkemeyer, S. W. (2004). Resources for managing our institutions in these turbulent times. *Change, 36*(1), 53-56.

Euske, K. J. (2003). Public, private, not-for-profit: everybody is unique? *Measuring Business Excellence, 7*(4), 5-11.

Freebody, P. (2003). *Qualitative research in education: interaction and practice*. London: Sage Press.

Freinberg, B. (2002). What students don't learn abroad. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 48*(34), B20.

Fuwa, K. (2001). Lifelong education in Japan, a highly school-centred society: educational opportunities and practical educational activities for adults. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 20*(1/2), 127-136.

Gerson, K., & Horowitz, R. (2002). Observation and Interviewing: Options and Choices in Qualitative Research. In T. May (Ed.), *Quantitative Research in Action* (pp. 199-224). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Gornitzka, A., & Larsen, I. M. (2004). Towards professionalisation? Restructuring of administrative work force in universities. *Higher Education, 47*, 455-471.

Harvard College. (2006). Harvard Summer School 2006: Study Abroad Programs. Retrieved August 3, 2006, from http://www.summer.harvard.edu/2006/programs/abroad/;jsessionid=IOJHBINNNEIL.

Harvey, T. (2006). International educational policy: A statement from Thomas Harvey, Senior Counsel for Government Affairs, IIE . Institute of International Education. Retrieved 2006, August 5 from http://www.iie.org/Content/NavigationMenu/Research_and_Resources/Publications3/Field_Papers1/International_Educational_Policy.htm

Henderson, N. (2005). A 'nonacademic' career. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 51*(42), C1-C4.

Holstein, J. A., & Gubrium, J. F. (2003). Active interviewing. In D. Silverman (Ed.), *Qualitative research: Theory, Method and Practice* (pp. 113-129). London: Sage Publications.

Horie, M. (2002). The internationalisation of higher education in Japan in the 1990s: A reconsideration. *Higher Education, 43*, 65-84.

Institute for the International Education of Students (IES). (2005). *Employment Opportunities: Enrollment Management Specialist*, [Website]. Institute for the International Education of Students. Retrieved January 29, 2006, from http://www.iesabroad.org/res/pdf/employment/EMSpecialist.pdf.

Institute for the International Education of Students (IES). (2005). Employment Opportunities: Enrolment Management Specialist, [Website]. Institute for the International Education of Students. Retrieved January 29, 2006http://www.iesabroad.org/res/pdf/employment/EMSpecialist.pdf.

Institute of International Education (IIE). (2006a). Open Doors 2005: Report on International Educational Exchange. IIE Network. Retrieved March 25, 2006 from http://opendoors.iienetwork.org/?p=69703 .

Institute of International Education (IIE). (2006b). US study-abroad increases by 9.6%, continues record growth. Retrieved August 5, 2006, from http://opendoors.iienetwork.org/?p=69735.

Interassociational Advisory Committee on Safety and Responsibility in Study Abroad. (2006). Responsible study-abroad: Good practices for health and safety, [Website]. NAFSA: Association of International Educators. Retrieved July 28, 2006 from http://www.nafsa.org/knowledge_community_network.sec/education_abroad_1/education_abroad_2/practice_resources_12/guidelines_for_health.

International Christian University (ICU). (2004). *The ICU* (Newsletter). Tokyo: International Christian University.

James, W. B., & Mullen, C. A. (2002). Advocating for a social roles curriculum framework at the secondary school level. *Educational studies, 28*(2), 194-207.

Johnson, B. L., & Owens, M. (2005). Building new bridges: Linking organisation theory with other educational literatures. *Journal of Educational Administration, 43*(1), 41-59.

Joseph, M., Yakhou, M., & Stone, G. (2005). An educational institution's quest for service quality: customers' perspective. Quality Assurance Education, 13(1), 66-82.

Kilpatrick, A., & Silverman, L. (2005). The power of vision. *Strategy & Leadership, 33*(2), 24-26.

Kitsantas, A. (2004). Studying abroad: The role of college students' goals on the development of cross-cultural skills and global understanding. *College Student Journal, 38*(3), 441-452.

Konidari, V., & Abernot, Y. (2006). From TQM to learning organisation: Another way for quality management in educational institutions. *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management, 23*(1), 8-26.

Krantz, J., & Maltz, M. (1997). A framework for consulting to organizational role. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 49*(2), 137-151.

Krebs, P. M. (2003). The Faculty-Staff Divide. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 50*(12), B5.

Lane, K. (2003). Report, educators call for more study abroad programs. *Black Issues in Higher Education, 20*(22), 11-12.

Lauwerys, J. (2002). The future of the profession of university administration and management. *Perspectives, 6*(4), 93-97.

Lettieri, E., Borga, F., &, & Savoldelli, A. (2004). Knowledge management in non-profit organizations. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 8*(6), 16-30.

Levkoff, S. E. (2000). Graying of Japan: *Choju Shakai*. *Ageing International*, 26(1/2), 10-24.

Lewis, T. L., & Niesenbaum, R. A. (2005). The benefits of short-term study abroad. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 51*(39).

Lloyd, L. (2003). *Quality of homestay services.* Paper presented at the 17th IDP Australian International Education Conference, Melbourne.

Loi, R., Hang-Yue, N., & Foley, S. (2004). The effect of professional identification on job attitudes: A study of lawyers in Hong Kong. *Organisational Analysis, 12*(2), 109-128.

Marko, E., & Mika, K. (2001). The effects of personal need for structure and occupational identity in the role-stress process. *Journal of Social Psychology, 141*(3), 365-378.

Martens, K. (2002). Mission impossible? Defining non-governmental organizations. *International Journal of Volunteer and Non-profit Organisations, 13*(3), 272-285.

Mason, J. (2002). Qualitative Interviewing: Asking, Listening and Interpreting. In T. May (Ed.), *Qualitative Research in Action* (pp. 225-241). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

McHargue, S. K. (2003). Learning for Performance in Non-profit Organizations. Advances in Developing Human Resources, 5(2), 196-204.

Miller, J., &, & Glassner, B. (2003). The 'inside' and the 'outside': Finding realities in interviews. In D. Silverman (Ed.), *Qualitative Research: Theory, Method and Practice* (pp. 99 - 112). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Montgomery, J. D. (1998). Toward a role-theoretic conception of embeddedness. *The American Journal of Sociology, 104*(1), 92-125.

Murasawa, M. (2002). The future of higher education in Japan: Changing the legal status of national universities. *Higher Education, 43*, 141-155.

Northwestern University Study-Abroad Office. (2006). Northwestern Parents, Welcome to Study Abroad! Retrieved August 3, 2006, from http://www.northwestern.edu/studyabroad/parents/index.html.

Northwestern, Institute, for, Policy, & Research. (2000). Prejudice a stumbling block for women leaders. *Northwestern University Institute for Policy Research Newsletter, 21*(1).

Odell, J. J., Parunak, V., & Fleischer, M. (2003). The role of roles. *Journal of Object Technology, 2*(1), 39-51.

Ogawa, Y. (2002). Challenging the traditional organization of Japanese universities. *Higher Education, 43*, 85-108.

Ono, H. (2003). Women's economic standing, marriage timing, and cross-national contexts of gender. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 65*(2), 275-286.

Patton, E., & Appelbaum, S. H. (2003). The case for case studies in management research. *Management Research News, 26*(1), 60-71.

Peiró, J. M., & Meliá, J. L. (2003). Formal and informal interpersonal power in organisations: testing a bifactorial model of power in role-sets. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 52*(1), 14-35.

Peräkylä, A. (2003). Reliability and Validity in Research Based on Transcripts. In D. Silverman (Ed.), *Qualitative Research: Theory, Method and Practice* (pp. 201-220). London: Sage Publications.

Piper, H., & Simons, H. (2004). Ethical Responsibility in Social Research. *Research Methods in the Social Sciences* (pp. 56-64). London: Sage Publications.

Powers, C., & Maghroori, R. (2006,). The Accidental Administrator. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 52,* C2-C3.

Poza, L. H. (2002). Housing. Retrieved August 3, 2006, from http://poza.net/japan/living1.html.

Ratcliff, J. L. (2003). Dynamic and communicative aspects of quality assurance. *Quality in Higher Education, 9*(2), 117-131.

Richardson, K. (2003). *International education: The quality of homestay services.* Paper presented at the 17th IDP Australian International Education Conference, Melbourne.

Scharman, J. S. (2002). The extended campus - safety abroad. *New directions for student services, 99,* 69 - 76.

Schmidt-Rinehart, B. C., & Knight, S. M. (2004). The homestay component of study abroad: Three perspectives. Foreign Language Annals, 37(2), 254-262.

Shattock, M. (2000). Managing modern universities. *Perspectives, 4*(2), 33-34.

Shimizu, K., Baba, M., & Shimada, K. (2000). The New Role of the JUAA in Japanese University Evaluation. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 25,* 51-60.

Shivers-Blackwell, S. L. (2004). Using role theory to examine determinants of transformational and transactional leader behaviour. Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 10(3), 41-50.

Siegel, P. A., Post, C., Brockner, J., Fishman, A. Y., & Garden, C. (2005). The moderating influence of procedural fairness on the relationship between work-life conflict and organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(13-24).

Silverman, D. (2003). *Interpreting Qualitative Data: Methods for Analysing Talk, Text and Interaction*. (Second Edition). London: Sage Publications.

Sorkin, C. (2004). The Wesleyan Parents' Guide to Study Abroad. Retrieved August 3, 2006, from http://www.wesleyan.edu/ois/parentsguide1.html.

Sponsors for Educational Opportunity (SEO). (2001). About SEO, [Website]. Sponsors for Educational Opportunity. Retrieved July 23, 2006, from http://www.seo-usa.org/main11.php?which=4.

Stark, S., & Torrance, H. (2004). Case Study. In C. Lewin and B. Somekh (Eds.), *Research Methods in the Social Sciences* (pp. 33-38). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Stone-Romero, E. F., Stone, D. L., & Salas, E. (2003). The influence of culture on role conceptions and role behavior in organisations. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 52*(3), 328-362.

Sugihara, Y., & Katsurada, E. (2002). Gender role development in Japanese culture:

Diminishing gender role differences in a contemporary society. *Sex Roles, 49*(9/10), 443-452.

Taguchi, N. (2002). An application of relevance theory to the analysis of L2 interpretation processes: The comprehension of indirect replies. *IRAL, 40*, 151-176.

Taguchi, N. (2005). Comprehending implied meaning in English as a foreign language. *Modern Language Journal, 89*(4), 543 - 562.

Tan, K. C., & Kek, S. W. (2004). Service quality in higher education using an enhanced SERVQUAL approach. *Quality in Higher Education, 10*(1), 17-24.

Tannock, S. (2006). Higher education, inequality, and the public good. *Dissent, 53*(2), 45-51.

Teichler, U. (2004). Temporary study abroad: The life of ERASMUS students. *European Journal of Education, 39*(4), 395-408.

Thompson, I. (2004). Sex differences in technical communication: A perspective from social role theory. *Journal of Technical Writing and Communication, 34*(3), 217-232.

Tidd, S. T., & Friedman, R. A. (2002). Conflict style and coping with role conflict: An extension of the uncertainty model of work stress. *International Journal of Conflict Management, 13*(3), 236-257.

Tobin, G. A., & Begley, M.). Methodological rigour within a qualitative framework. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 48*(4), 388-396.

Trim, P. R. J. (2003). Strategic marketing of further and higher educational institutions: partnership arrangements and centres of entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Educational Management, 17*(2), 59-70.

Trochim, W. (2000). *The Research Methods Knowledge Base*. Cincinnati, OH: Atomic Dog Publishing.

Tucker, J. S., Cullen, J. C., Sinclair, R. R., & Wakeland, W. W. (2005). Dynamic systems and organisational decision-making processes in nonprofits. *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 41(4), 482-502.

Tyler, M. C. (2005). Benchmarking in the non-profit sector in Australia. *Benchmarking: An International Journal, 12*(3), 219-235.

UC Tokyo Study Centre. (2006). UC Tokyo Student Centre, [Website]. UC Tokyo Study Centre. Retrieved February 17, 2006, from http://www.uctsc.org/menu3e.htm.

University of Indiana Office for Women's Affairs. (2001). Women in a changing world: A new vision of leadership. *Majority Report, 15*(2), 1, 3.

Vanderstraeten, R. (2002). The autopoiesis of educational organizations: The impact of the organizational setting on educational interaction. *Systems Research and Behavioural Science, 19*(3), 243-253.

Watty, K. (2003). When will academics learn about quality? *Quality in Higher Education, 9*(3), 213-221.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. (Vol. 5). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Yonezawa, A. (2002). The quality assurance system and market forces in Japanese higher education. *Higher Education, 43,* 127-139.

Yonezawa, A. (2003). The impact of globalisation on higher education governance in Japan. *Higher Education Research and Development, 22*(2), 145-154.

Young, J. R. (2002). When trips abroad go bad. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 49*(6), A49-A50.