

Research on International Students' Mobility and their Satisfaction in Japanese Universities: A comparison of Chinese and American students

Noboru Miyoshi* and Qiuqing Pan**

Abstract. Internationalization in higher education in Japan is progressing, and it is desirable for international students to have a high degree of satisfaction with their experience in Japanese universities. With that in mind, this research focuses on the study of Japanese language and experiences of taking Japanese language classes before and during study abroad. In addition, this paper examines the different influences on Chinese and American international exchange students based on a questionnaire administered to students in Japanese universities between April and June 2016. A comparison between students who studied Japanese and took language classes before studying abroad and those who began only after coming to Japan shows significantly different levels of satisfaction with their university. Additionally, Chinese and American students experience different levels of satisfaction based on their experience with Japanese language. Chinese students' previous experience with learning Japanese did influence their satisfaction, but the magnitude of this influence was smaller than the influence of prior Japanese language experience on American students.

Keywords: Japan, international student, internationalization, student mobility, university satisfaction

Introduction

Higher education enrolment rates in China began to be announced in the 1990s, reaching 26.9% in 2011. Compared to Japan's enrolment rate of 51% in the same year, China's rate was still relatively low, however, because of China's large population about 2,308,000 students were enrolled in Chinese universities (Education Statistics Yearbook of China, 2011), compared to only 610,000 in Japan (School Basic Survey, 2011). Thus, Chinese universities and its higher education system are some of the world's largest and are quite diverse. After entering university, about 200,000 Chinese students study overseas. Their primary destinations are, in order, the United States, the United Kingdom,

* Associate Professor (Specially Appointed), Hiroshima University, E-mail: miyoshi-noboru@hiroshima-u.ac.jp

** Doctoral Student, Hiroshima University, E-mail: panqj2017@hiroshima-u.ac.jp

Australia, Canada, Hong Kong, and Japan. In general, the majority of students choose to study in English-speaking countries, and by comparison Japan does not have a large draw.

On the other hand, the internationalization of Japanese universities is progressing. Japan's current policy for accepting international students stems from the "Recommendations for an International Student Policy for the Twenty-First Century," which was first advanced by former Prime Minister Nakasone in 1983. The plan proposed to increase the number of international students in Japan ten-fold, to 100,000, by the year 2000. The plan reached its numerical target in 2003 before former Prime Minister Fukuda proposed the similar "Plan for 300,000 International Students" as a policy measure to create a Japan that is open to the world. The government still hopes to boost the number of international students to 300,000 by 2020, as Japan's inbound student mobility continues to lag far behind the United States and major European countries. Thanks to this policy, the number of international students in Japanese universities is increasing, reaching 271,122 in 2016 (Japan Student Services Organization: JASSO, 2016). Key source countries for Japanese universities include China (75,262), Vietnam (28,579), South Korea (13,571), Nepal (13,456), Taiwan (6,401), Indonesia (3,670), Thailand (3,185), Malaysia (2,581), United States (2,428), and others (21,989) (JASSO, 2016). As the number of people aspiring to a university education has increased in line with economic growth in Asian nations (Terakura, 2009), most international students in Japan have come from China and other East Asian countries. Given this rise in inbound mobility, it is desirable for these international students to have a high degree of satisfaction in Japanese universities. University satisfaction is an alternative index of students' learning outcomes (Kuzuki, 2006), and this research identified university satisfaction through the following survey question: "How satisfied are you with the education in Japanese universities? (Dissatisfied=1, Somewhat dissatisfied=2, Somewhat satisfied=3, Satisfied=4)."

To clarify international students' satisfaction in Japanese universities, this research focuses on the influence of curricula studied and whether the students studied Japanese language before or during their study abroad. Moreover, this paper examines how this influence differs between Chinese (with many international students in Japan) and American (with fewer international students in Japan) students in several Japanese universities.

Literature review

International student mobility and the receiving model

Why do Chinese and American students study abroad, and do Japanese universities need to accept them? When considering such questions, a push-pull model offers an effective framework.

The push-pull model was first discussed by the early scholar Ravenstein (1889), who researched immigration in the United Kingdom. According to his research, unfavorable conditions in a sending country push immigrants abroad, while good conditions in a receiving country pull migrants and

encourage inbound migration. Lulat and Altbach (1985) applied this framework to study abroad, a discussion later developed by Mazzarol, Soutar, and Seng (2003). According to them, a better educational opportunity, cultural experience, and career opportunity after graduation serve as pull factors for studying abroad for many students. Among these pull factors, according to Sato (2012) and Sato & Horie's (2015) studies with Nepali and Vietnamese students, career opportunities after graduation are an important motivation for entering Japanese universities. However, recent trends in China suggest that rapid economic growth and an international labor market lead to domestic economic costs associated with overseas study, causing a reduction of these pull factors from receiving countries (Li, 2012).

Regarding push factors, Mazzarol & Soutar (2002) revealed that the economic situation of the family, the academic background of parents, the presence of friends with a desire to go abroad, and learning time have a strong influence. In addition, according to research by Li (2016), although many Chinese students initially wanted to go to universities in Europe and the United States, those whose academic achievements that did not meet the required standards often decided to go to Japanese universities instead. Furthermore, Chinese students who go to Japanese university directly tend to be high academic achievers, whereas others who go to Japanese language school and enter to Japanese university indirectly have low academic achievement and factors prescribed by the admission route are different (Zhang, 2012).

International students' satisfaction with Japanese universities

International students, including Chinese and Americans, study abroad in several countries, including Japan. However, are they satisfied with Japanese universities? In seeking to answer this question, Astin's (1993) Input-Environment-Output Model (IEO) offers a potential solution, underscoring the need for an understanding of student qualities upon their entry into the university, the nature of the educational environment with which they come into contact during their studies, and their qualities as they exit the university, in order to be able to fully evaluate its effectiveness. Many previous studies are based on this model, examining university satisfaction from three viewpoints: (a) "The Situation Before College," (b) "The Systematic Characteristics at College," and (c) "Individual Characteristics."

Regarding (a), a significant body of research investigated first-generation students, meaning the first child in a family to enter university. It became clear that being a first-generation student has a negative influence on university satisfaction (Pike, Kuh, & Gonyea, 2005). Moreover, Hou (2014), examined university entrance examination grades, showing that high grades on university entrance examinations have a positive effect on university satisfaction. Furthermore, Pike & Killian (2001) focused on the effect of students' field of study, explaining that students in the physical sciences, engineering, and health had particularly high levels of university satisfaction. According to the study,

this may be caused by the long study periods associated with fields in which students must conduct experiments.

Regarding (b) and (c), in Japan club activities positively influenced satisfaction, but part-time jobs had a negative influence (Yamada & Mori, 2010). Moreover, there is also research that examined the balance of study and leisure time. An effective balance between time spent studying and leisure time had a positive effect on university satisfaction (Miyoshi, 2015). Furthermore, Ogata (2008) clarified the positive effect of engaging classes on university satisfaction in Japanese universities.

Although previous research on university satisfaction has been conducted predominantly with Japanese students, some research has been done on international students' satisfaction in Japan. It appears that if students' level of Japanese language ability is high, international students' satisfaction is also high (Iwao & Hagiwara, 1987, 1988, 1997a, 1997b). However, advanced Japanese skills were assumed as a precondition, existing prior the students' arrival in Japan. Research that considers the extent to which the international student studies Japanese during their time in Japan and the influence of Japanese language classes taken before studying abroad have not yet been conducted.

Research method

Research method

This research was carried out with the cooperation of Chinese and American international students studying in Japan's "Top Global Universities" as exchange students (government-sponsored and privately financed students only, not including short-term students)¹. Japan's "Top Global Universities" are driving internationalization and receive prioritized support for university reforms. Universities in this group are categorized into 13 Type A (Top Type) universities and 24 Type B (Global Traction Type) universities. This paper asked for cooperation of these 37 universities and 7 universities accepted this request. 5 of these are national universities in addition to 2 private universities, and most of them are highly international research universities. In addition to that, all these universities are in the top-20 highest ranked universities in Japan (The Japanese Universities Ranking, 2018). The printed questionnaire form was sent to these 7 universities and they were randomly distributed and collected in class from April to June 2016. This garnered effective responses from 3,285 Chinese and 925 American international students. The questionnaire form consisted of four parts: (a) student information, including sex, family register [Chinese students only], and the study abroad university in Japan; (b) the study abroad situation, concerning learning situation and field of study (c) the subsequent situation, regarding learning situation, curriculum, and university

¹ This research was only conducted with exchange students because the number of degree-mobile students from America is extremely small in Japanese universities.

satisfaction; and (d) post-graduation career, concerning the transition to employment or graduate school.

Hypotheses

This research intended to test the following hypotheses:

[Hypothesis 1] Chinese and American international students who take Japanese language classes before and during their study abroad sojourn have high university satisfaction.

[Hypothesis 2] Chinese and American international students who spend time on out of the classroom study before and during study abroad have high university satisfaction.

[Hypothesis 3] Chinese and American international students for whom study abroad in Japan was not the original intention have low university satisfaction.

Analysis of participants' attributes

Considering the results, this research would like to understand the situation of the frequency distribution of the major variables: curriculum, Japanese study outside of the classroom before and during study abroad, and students' satisfaction in the Japanese university.

Regarding the curriculum before studying abroad, this research asked participants the following: "Please describe the curriculum that was studied the most before studying abroad." Chinese and American international students respectively studied Japanese language (62.5%/50.9%), general education (24.3%/39.4%), and specialized education (13.2%/9.7%). During study abroad, Chinese and American international students studied the Japanese language (49.3%/59.9%), general education (18.7%/20.1%), and specialized education (32%/20%). It is clear from these frequency distributions that most of the participants studied the Japanese language both before and during study abroad. Especially, the majority of Chinese international students are taking Japanese language classes before studying abroad. Perhaps because China is geographically close to Japan, it seems that many universities teach Japanese in China.

The questionnaire also asked participants the following: "How much time each day outside of the classroom did you spend studying Japanese before studying abroad?" The responses of Chinese and American students respectively were zero time (16.7%/8.2%), one hour (21.5%/16.9%), two hours (39.8%/33.2%), three hours (17.2%/33.9%), four hours (3.3%/4.3%), five hours (1.2%/3.1%), and more than six hours (0.3%/0.4%). During study abroad, responses of each group were as follows: zero time outside of the classroom studying Japanese (32.5%, 10.2%), one hour (29.2%, 17.6%), two hours (20.3%, 38.5%), three hours (14.2%, 30.2%), four hours (2.9%, 2.2%), five hours (0.7%, 1%),

and more than six hours (0.2%, 0.3%). These results show that, in particular, Chinese international students did considerably less self-study during study abroad compared to prior to studying abroad. Before studying abroad, Chinese international students had to prepare well in order to study abroad in Japan, and committed a lot of time to self-study.

Figures 1 and 2 show participants' satisfaction in Japanese universities. The questionnaire asked: "How satisfied are you with your university education in Japan?" Chinese and American international students respectively responded that they were dissatisfied (8.6%/18.9%), somewhat dissatisfied (12.6%/22.2%), somewhat satisfied (45.4%/34.3%), and satisfied (33.4%/24.6%); American international students were not as satisfied as their Chinese counterparts, perhaps due to many classes in Japanese universities being held in Japanese, and because many staff responsible for student support can't speak English.

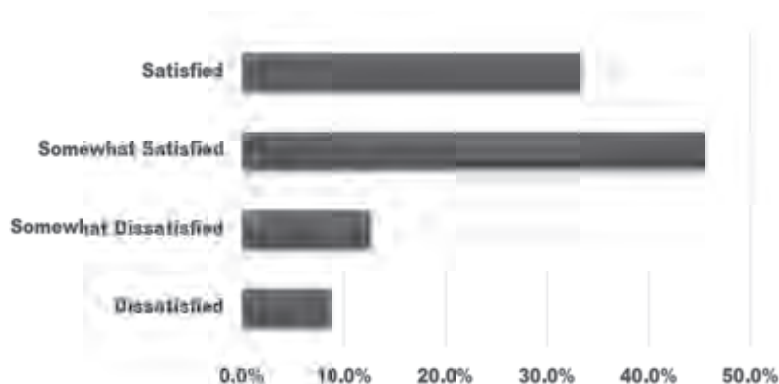


Figure 1. Chinese international students' satisfaction (N=3,285)

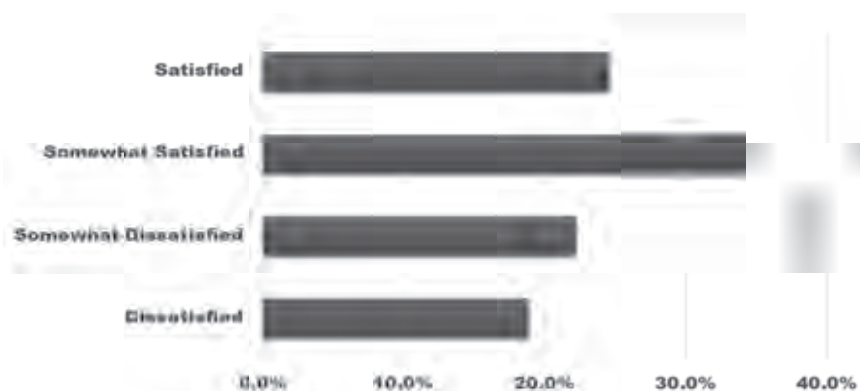


Figure 2. American international students' satisfaction (N=925)

Results

Types of curriculum transitions before and during study abroad

Based on the curriculum studied before and during study abroad, the researchers created typology of curriculum transitions (the curriculum that was studied the most before/during studying abroad) and checked the frequency distribution. Figures 3 and 4 show the frequency distribution of different types of curriculum transitions before and during study abroad.

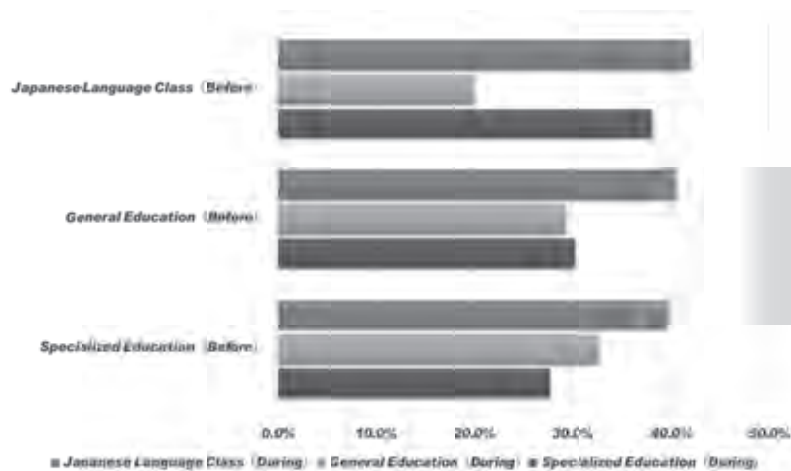


Figure 3. Chinese international students' curriculum transitions (N=3,280)

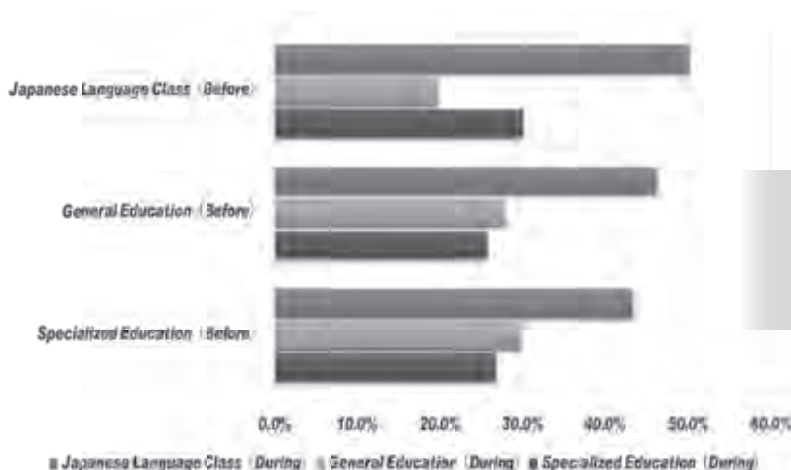


Figure 4. American international students' curriculum transitions (N=923)

Chinese and American international students who studied Japanese language before studying abroad were the most likely to continue formal language study during their study abroad

(41.9%/50.1%). Participants who studied Japanese before studying abroad and those who are studying specialized education after studying abroad were the next most likely to continue formal study while in Japan (38.1%/30.2%). Why did many continue to study Japanese? It may be that many of the classes in Japanese universities that are open to international students are taught in the Japanese language. This research verified the language used in class using the following item: "Please write the most commonly used class language in the lesson [except for Japanese language class] that you experienced in your Japanese university (Japanese=1, English=2, Other=3)". On the whole, 80% of respondents were in classes predominantly taught in Japanese. Notably, for Chinese and American international students who did not study Japanese language before studying abroad, but did during study abroad, around 90% indicated that the main language of instruction was Japanese. Overall, classes in Japanese universities are conducted in Japanese, and that tendency is especially strong according to the type of curriculum transition. Therefore, life in Japanese universities is especially difficult for Chinese and American international students who did not study Japanese language before studying abroad, and during study abroad were in general or specialized education courses. In this instance, it is necessary for Chinese and American international students to be able to study various classes in languages other than Japanese, likely through increasing the number of courses in English. However, in Japanese universities there are very few faculty members who can teach general education or specialized education in English. Thus, to increase the number and quality of English courses, every faculty member should perform a trial lesson conducted in English when being hired as a professor in a Japanese university.

Transitions of student type before and during study abroad

This paper created a student type based on time spent studying Japanese outside of the classroom. This research classified students into four types: "The Non-Student," who hardly studied outside of class time; "The Short-Time Student," who studied for one or two hours per day; "The Middle-Time Student," who studied for three hours per day; and "The Prolonged Student," who studied for more than four hours per day. This paper then analyzed their distribution.

The proportions of Chinese and American "non-students" before/during study abroad were 16.7%/32.5% among Chinese students, and 8.2%/10.2% among Americans. The proportions of "short-time students" were 61.3%/49.5% among Chinese, and 50.1%/56.1% among Americans. "Middle-time students" comprised 17.2%/14.2% of Chinese students and 33.9%/30.2% of Americans. Finally, "prolonged students" represented 4.8%/3.8% of Chinese students and 7.8%/3.5% of Americans. Since Chinese is similar to Japanese, Chinese international students may require less study time compared to American international students. In addition, since American universities have many class assignments, compared to a Chinese international student, an American international student may have a greater mastery of independent study habits.

Regarding changes of student type before and during study abroad, the number of “non-students” increased more than the number of “short-time” and “middle-time” students. This might be because obtaining outstanding examination records in Japanese language or general education classes was important in order to study abroad, but less important to maintain having been accepted. In addition, during study abroad that time may instead be spent on Japanese cultural experiences, club activities, or long-term connections with Japanese friends. This paper performed cross tabulations between student type and these extracurricular activities, which showed that the “non-student” group spent two hours a day on Japanese friendships and another two hours a day on club activities. Rather than studying, they are spending time on networking and other activities in Japan, which has advantages and disadvantages. While the present paper cannot explain transitions of student type before and during study abroad, Miyoshi (2015) presents some evidence of such transitions, shown in Figures 5 and 6.

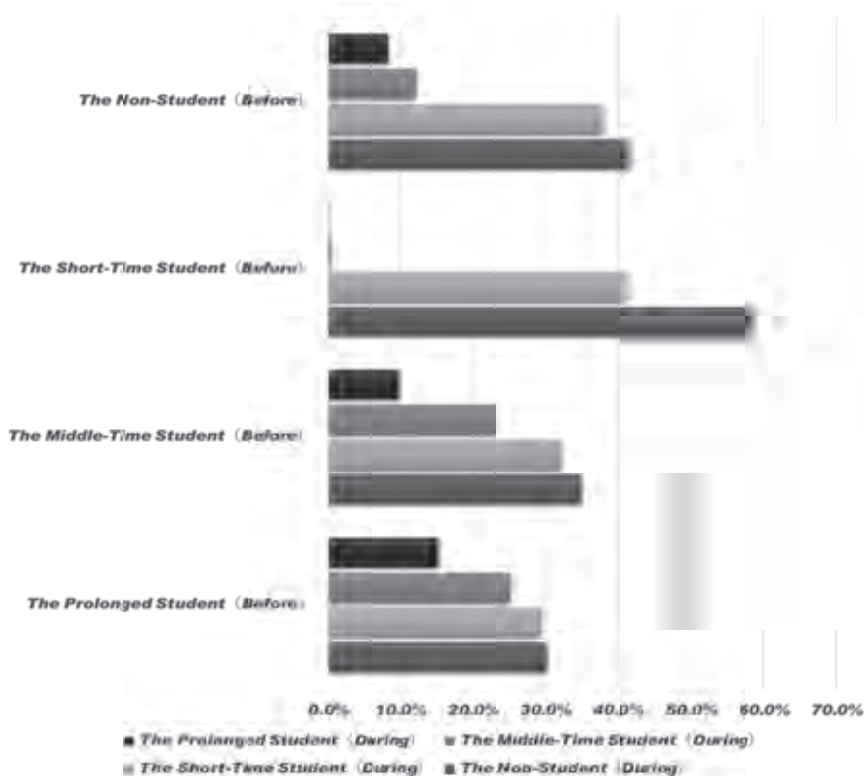


Figure 5. Chinese international students’ transitions (N=3,276)

Figure 5 shows that, for Chinese international students, although there were some “short-time” students before studying abroad, most of them became “non-students” during their study in Japan. Similarly, there was a large number of students who were “short-time” students before coming to Japan and remained so during study abroad. This seems to reflect a problem with study habits.

However, it is also possible that Chinese international students didn't study because they could not adapt to the environment of their Japanese university. If this is the case, it is important for Japanese universities to try to understand Chinese international students' needs and offer suitable support for them. Through processes such as using Chinese faculty members as tutors for these international students and consultation with students about learning time outside of the class, Japanese universities can establish a system that aids their adaptation.

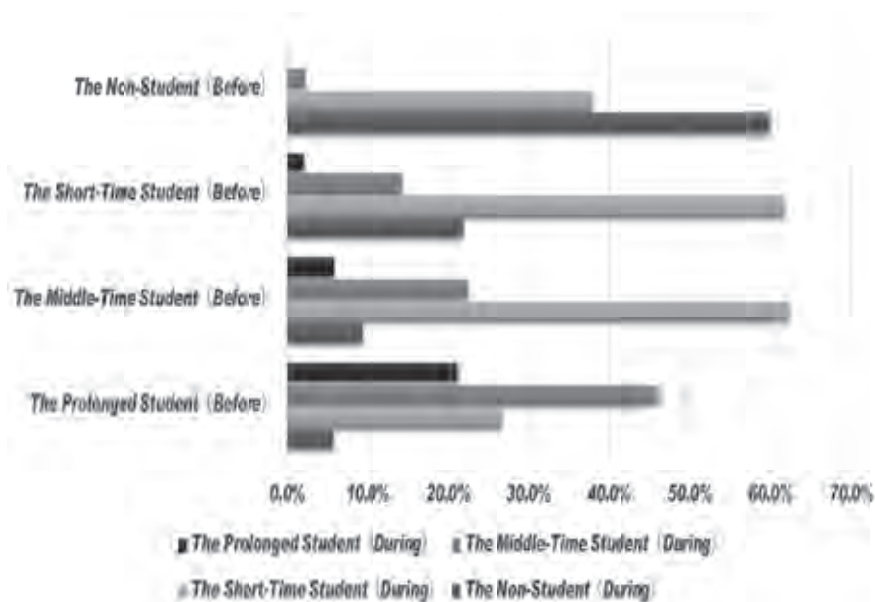


Figure 6. American international students' transitions (N=921)

On the other hand, Figure 6 shows that American international students who were “middle-time” students before studying abroad became “short-time” students during study abroad. This is the most common type of transition, suggesting that American international students are in a more desirable situation compared to Chinese international students.

Factors influencing international students' satisfaction

A multiple regression analysis was used to predict Chinese and American international students' satisfaction. A statistically significant regression equation was found with an adjusted R-square of 0.23, 0.26 in Table 1 and 0.21, 0.20, 0.25, 0.23 in Table 2, both below.

From Table 1, both the negative influence of being a first-generation tertiary student (“Did either of your parents graduate from university?” (No=0, Yes=1)), and also the positive influence of a high grade on university entrance examination (“How were your university entrance examination results?”

(Very Bad=1, Bad=2, Good=3, Very Good=4)², are clear when it comes to university satisfaction. Since university education belongs to the social elite, being the first member of one’s family to attend university seems to have a negative effect on satisfaction. Moreover, students who received a good score on the university entrance exam were probably equipped with good study habits in high school, explaining why grades appear to have a positive influence on student satisfaction.

Considering the university environment, when participants spent significant time on club activities (“During the time when the university is in session, about how many hours a week do you usually spend on club activities?” (No time=1, 1-2 hours=2, 3-4 hours=3, 5-6 hours=4, 7-8 hours=5, 9-10 hours=6, more than 11 hours=7)), it had a positive influence on students’ university satisfaction. This shows that in addition to the regular curriculum, extracurricular activities are also important. Holding a part-time job (“During the time when the university is in session, about how many hours a week do you usually spend at a part-time job?” (No time=1, 1-2 hours=2, 3-4 hours=3, 5-6 hours=4, 7-8 hours=5, 9-10 hours=6, more than 11 hours=7)) did not appear to have a significant effect. However, learning time both in and out of class had a significant effect on students’ university satisfaction. Furthermore, classes engaging to both faculty and students brought about a significant positive effect (“In your experience at the university, did you experience classes that were engaging to both faculty and students?” (Never=1, Occasionally=2, Often=3, Very Often=4)).

Table 1. Multiple regression analysis of international students’ satisfaction

	Chinese Student		American Student	
	University Satisfaction		University Satisfaction	
The Social Sciences Major				
The Natural Science Major				
First Generation				
Grade of University Entrance Examination				
Club Activity				
Part-Time Job				
Classes Engaging for Both Faculty and Students				
In-class Learning Time Before Studying Abroad				
In-class Learning Time During Studying Abroad				
Out-of-class Learning Time Before Studying Abroad				
Out-of-class Learning Time During Studying Abroad				
Taking Japanese Language Class Before Studying Abroad				
Taking Japanese Language Class During Studying Abroad				
Japanese Language Class→Japanese Language Class	0.26 *		0.29 **	
Not Japanese Language Class→Japanese Language Class	-0.21 **		-0.25 *	
Learning Japanese Language→Learning Japanese Language		0.24 **		0.25 **
Learning Japanese Language→Not Learning Japanese Language		-0.22 *		-0.21 **
Not Learning Japanese Language→Learning Japanese Language		0.20 **		0.16 **
Adjusted R-square	0.21	0.20	0.25	0.23
F-Value	20.42 **	19.9 **	24.32 **	23.1 **

Note: **p<.01, *p<.05

The value of the table is a standardizing coefficient

² For the Chinese students, the Chinese National Higher Education Entrance Examination was used. For the American students, the Scholastic Assessment Test [SAT] or American College Test [ACT] was used.

The results suggest that, to raise the quality of a lesson, it is indispensable for faculty members to improve their teaching methods. It also became clear that students' university satisfaction increases if they take Japanese language classes both before and during study abroad. This may be because Chinese and American international students who took Japanese language classes both before and during study abroad adapt more quickly to the study expectations of Japanese universities.

Third, while students who took Japanese language classes before and during study abroad experienced a positive effect on university satisfaction, students who spent more time studying Japanese outside of the classroom also experienced high university satisfaction. Precisely how those international students spent their learning time outside of class is beyond the scope of this research, however, in previous research with Japanese students, classes engaging to both faculty and students and those utilizing cooperative learning methods tend to affect out-of-classroom learning (Tanimura, 2009). This may also true for Chinese and American international students.

Table 2. Multiple regression analysis of international students' satisfaction

	<i>Chinese Student</i>	<i>American Student</i>
	<i>University Satisfaction</i>	<i>University Satisfaction</i>
The Social Sciences Major	0.05	0.07
The Natural Science Major	0.09 *	0.12 **
First Generation	-0.10 **	-0.14 *
Grade of University Entrance Examination	0.11 **	0.15 *
Club Activity	0.12 **	0.16 *
Part-Time Job	0.06	0.04
Classes Engaging for Both Faculty and Students	0.11 *	0.13 *
In-class Learning Time Before Studying Abroad	0.13 **	0.17 *
In-class Learning Time During Studying Abroad	0.11 **	0.13 *
Out-of-class Learning Time Before Studying Abroad	0.18 **	0.27 *
Out-of-class Learning Time During Studying Abroad	0.12 **	0.21 *
Taking Japanese Language Class Before Studying Abroad	0.16 **	0.26 *
Taking Japanese Language Class During Studying Abroad	0.11 **	0.19 *
Japanese Language Class→Japanese Language Class		
Not Japanese Language Class→Japanese Language Class		
Learning Japanese Language→Learning Japanese Language		
Learning Japanese Language→Not Learning Japanese Language		
Not Learning Japanese Language→Learning Japanese Language		
Adjusted R-square	0.23	0.26
F-Value	22.56 **	25.48 **

Note: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

The value of the table is a standardizing coefficient

Table 2 shows the transitions of curricula and student type before and during study abroad. Both Chinese and American international students who take Japanese language classes before and during study abroad reported high university satisfaction, supporting hypothesis 1. However, Chinese and, particularly, American international students who only began to take Japanese language classes during study abroad experienced low university satisfaction, indicating that adaptation to

studying in a Japanese university is difficult with little prior experience of Japanese language classes. It is also possible that international students who did not take Japanese language class before studying abroad but only started during their stay may not have initially wished to study abroad at a Japanese university. The number of students who initially wished to study abroad in Japan was low for students who did not take Japanese language class before studying abroad and took it after studying abroad, in support of hypothesis 3. It is likely that this group had initially wanted to go to English-speaking countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, and Canada. Thus, this paper verifies the significance of the initially desired destination for studying abroad (“Please state whether studying abroad to Japan was what you initially wished for before studying abroad” (No=0, Yes=1)), and the transition between curricula.

As mentioned previously, Japan’s policy for accepting international students has been based on the “Plan for 300,000 International Students.” However, these results suggest that it is not enough to simply increase the number of international students. Japanese universities need to offer substantial Japanese language programs, and special assistance is key for international students. In Japanese universities, this support is usually offered by the international student center. For example, Kyushu University’s international student center offers an intensive Japanese language course (Preliminary Course) for undergraduate school matriculation, both at Kyushu University and other institutions in northern Kyushu, and is also responsible for counseling these international students. However, while such centers are usually in place in national universities with many international students, they are often not found in private universities. The Japanese university system is roughly divided into leading national universities, regional national universities, and private universities, and the key national universities are the wealthiest. With few exceptions, most private universities are not wealthy, but the number of international students is also increasing in such institutions, and the support of these students requires faculty members to volunteer as advisors.

Finally, Chinese and American international students who spent a lot of time learning Japanese outside of the classroom before and during study abroad reported high university satisfaction, supporting hypothesis 2. In addition, even students who only began to self-study during study abroad reported high university satisfaction. This tendency is especially clear among Chinese international students. As mentioned above, in Chinese universities, there is little homework compared to American universities, so it is possible that Chinese international students have not mastered independent study habits. Therefore, Chinese international students not only receive a Japanese education, but learn that it is important to also commit time to preparation and review during their time studying abroad. On the other hand, Chinese and American international students who had spent a lot of time outside of class studying Japanese before studying abroad but stopped doing so during study abroad, reported negative university satisfaction. To support positive experiences in Japanese universities, it may be important to emphasize the importance of continuing this kind of learning during study abroad.

Conclusion

This paper analyzed Chinese and American international students' satisfaction in Japan, paying attention to the transitions of both curriculum and student type before and during study abroad. The analysis shows that, when grouped by curriculum type, Chinese and American international students who took Japanese language classes before and during study abroad reported positive university satisfaction. On the other hand, Chinese and American international students who did not take Japanese language classes before studying abroad but did take them during study abroad experienced a negative effect on satisfaction. This tendency is especially clear with American international students. Regarding transitions of student type, Chinese and American international students who spent a lot of time outside of the classroom learning Japanese language both before and during study abroad, and also those who only started doing so during study abroad reported high university satisfaction. This tendency, too, was especially clear among American international students. However, Chinese and American international students who spent a lot of out-of-class learning time on Japanese before studying abroad, but stopped doing so after studying abroad, reported a negative impact on university satisfaction.

The policies of receiving international students in present-day Japan are aimed at increasing the number of students. However, if we value university satisfaction, this is not enough. This research shows that while policies intend to increase the number of international students it is important to consider their support. This seems particularly important for American international students who initially did not consider Japan as a study abroad destination. The importance of language skills to satisfaction suggests that national universities should urge all international students to take a Japanese intensive course during summer vacation and before entrance into a Japanese university. Doing so is expected to encourage their out-of-class learning time and independent study habits. In addition, while it may be difficult for private universities to independently provide international students with such intensive Japanese language courses, they may form cooperative arrangements to tackle this challenge. The Japanese government also needs to allocate a suitable budget for the management of these universities, and particularly those that seek to offer outstanding Japanese intensive courses.

References

- Astin, A. (1993). *What matters in college?: Four critical years revisited*. California: Jossey-Bass.
- Education Statistics Yearbook of China. (2011). *Number of students enrollment by level and type of school*. Retrieved July 21, 2017, from <http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjsj/ndsj/2012/indexeh.htm>.

- Hou, L. (2014). Inequality of higher education in China: An empirical test based on the perspective of relative deprivation. *Educational Studies in Japan: International Yearbook*, 8, 63-75.
- Iwao, S., & Hagiwara, S. (1987). *Japan through the eyes of the international student: Charm and criticism over 10 years*. Tokyo: Keiso-Shobo.
- Iwao, S., & Hagiwara, S. (1988). *The international student who learns in Japan: Social psychology Analysis*. Tokyo: Keiso-Shobo.
- Iwao, S., & Hagiwara, S. (1997a). The anti-Japanese image of an international student in Japan 1: The framework of the 3rd investigation (1995) and the outline of a result. *The Bulletin of the Institute for Communications Research, Keio University*, 47, 1-20.
- Iwao, S., & Hagiwara, S. (1997b). The anti-Japanese image of an international student in Japan 2. *The Bulletin of the Institute for Communications Research, Keio University*, 47, 21-41.
- Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO). (2016). *The Investigation of International Students Enrollment in Japanese Universities*. Retrieved July 23, 2017, from http://www.jasso.go.jp/about/statistics/intl_student_e/index.html.
- Kuzuki, K. (2006). The relation and its regulation factor between educational outcomes. In Research Institute for Higher Education (Ed.), *The student perspectives on the quality of university education: A transition from class evaluation to program evaluation (COE publication series no. 18)* (pp. 39-53). Hiroshima: Hiroshima University.
- Li, M. (2012). Policies on, and realities of, international students: A case study of Chinese students in Japan. *Daigaku Ronshu*, 44, 81-96.
- Li, M. (2016). How did Chinese students decide to study in Japan? An analysis based on the push-and-pull model. *Daigaku Ronshu*, 48, 97-112.
- Lulat, Y.G.-M., & Altbach, P.G. (1985). International students in comparative perspective: Toward a political economy of international study. In Smart, J (Ed.), *Higher education handbook of theory and research, Vol. 1*, (pp. 439-449). Netherlands: Springer.
- Mazzarol, T. (2002). Push-pull factors influencing international student destination choice. *The International Journal of Education Management*, 16(2), 82-90.
- Mazzarol, T., Soutar, G.N., & Seng, M.S.Y. (2003). The third wave: Future trends in international education. *The International Journal of Education Management*, 17(3), 90-99.
- Miyoshi, N. (2015). Undergraduates' study time, study motivation and learning outcomes. *Journal of the Liberal and General Education Society of Japan*, 37(1), 105-113.
- Ogata, N. (2008). Student engagement and college outcomes. *The Japan Association of Higher Education Research*, 11, 45-64.
- Pike, G., & Killian, S.T. (2001). Reported gains in student learning: Do academic disciplines make a difference? *Research in Higher Education*, 42, 429-454.

- Pike, G., Kuh, G., & Gonyea, R. (2005). First and second-generation college students: A comparison of their engagement and intellectual development. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 76(3), 276-300.
- Ravenstein, E. (1889). The laws of migration: Second paper. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 52, 241-305.
- Sato, Y. (2012). A study on the characteristics and push-pull factors of Nepali students in Japan: Implication for Japan's foreign student policy in relation to countries with high outbound mobility. *Journal of International Students Education*, 17, 19-28.
- Sato, Y., & Horie, M. (2015). Issues regarding the quality assurance and system of international student education in Japan: From the analysis of characteristics and push and pull factors of Vietnamese students. *Journal of International Students Education*, 20, 93-104.
- School Basic Survey. (2011). *Enrollment number of Higher Education*. Retrieved July 18, 2017, from http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/toukei/chousa01/kihon/1267995.htm.
- Tanimura, H. (2009). An analysis of undergraduates' study time: do classes have an effect?, *Journal of the Liberal and General Education Society of Japan*, 31(1), 128-135.
- Terakura, K. (2009). The receiving policy of an international student in Japan: The formation of a 300,000 international student plan, *Reference*, 59(2), 27-47.
- The Japanese Universities Ranking. (2018). *Rankings*. Retrieved August 17, 2017, from https://www.timeshighereducation.com/rankings/japan-university/2018#!/page/0/length/25/sort_by/rank/sort_order/asc/cols/stats.
- Yamada, T., & Mori, T. (2010). The role of regular- and extra-curricula on generic skills of university students from the students' viewpoints. *Journal of Japan Society for Educational Technology*, 34(1), 13-21.
- Zhang, M. (2012). Routes to higher education abroad: How privately financed international students from China gain entry into Japanese universities. *Journal of International Students Education*, 17, 29-37.