

Osaka JALT Journal

Vol. 10 (2023)

http://www.osakajalt.org/journal

Education and Employment Objectives of Vietnamese Students in Japanese Higher Education Institutions

Margaret Kim
Otemae University
margaret@otemae.ac.jp

Daniel Lilley Momoyama Gakuin University dandan@andrew.ac.jp

Article History

Received: February 28, 2023 Published: May 24, 2023

Keywords

transnational migration higher education study abroad Vietnamese students

Abstract

Since the early 2000's, the number of Vietnamese nationals migrating to Japan has dramatically increased. Prompted by demand for both skilled and unskilled foreign labor, Japan has progressively accepted immigration, with a large proportion of these migrants coming from Vietnam as temporary workers or students. This pilot study focuses on the experience of Vietnamese students in Japanese higher education institutions and investigates the objectives of Vietnamese students to study in Japan, as well as their intentions for employment after graduation. This study reveals that in many cases these students choose to not seek long-term employment in Japan and indicate a strong intention to utilize their skills they have acquired in Japan upon return to Vietnam.

Introduction

Vietnamese Migration to Japan

The migration of Vietnamese nationals to Japan has been gradually increasing in numbers, but needs to be looked at overall in the context of types of migrant. Schwartz, et al (2010) categorizes migrants into four categories: Voluntary immigrants, Refugees, Asylum seekers, and Sojourners. Students from foreign countries enrolled in Japanese higher education institutions (HEIs) cross over two distinct categories, voluntary immigrants (those that leave their country of origin to find employment, economic opportunity, advanced education, marriage, or to reunite with family members that have already immigrated), and sojourners (those who relocate to a new country on a time-limited basis and for a specific purpose). It is important to note that sojourners fully intend to return to their country of origin.

While migrating to Japan for study is a relatively recent phenomenon, Kawakami (2008) explains that, historically there have been four periods of Vietnamese emigrating to Japan. The first period started during the Fall of Saigon in 1975-1981. Vietnamese could not be classed as refugees because the Japanese government at that time had not ratified the 'Refugee Treaties', so they were known as people rescued from a 'maritime disaster' and were treated as temporary guests of the Japanese government. As a result they were under surveillance and the Japanese immigration officers expected them to leave as soon as they could, while at the same time these groups preferred to emigrate to the USA to join relatives that had already settled there. The Vietnamese used Japan as their waiting ground until they could get into the USA, which was often unsuccessful because at the time the USA was turning away new refugees due to the large numbers already there (Kawakami, 2008). This meant that Japan had a small population of Vietnamese nationals living in Japan 'temporarily', but in reality lasting several years. In the second period (1981-1986), the Japanese government eased their policy on refugees and ratified international refugee treaties. Eventually these refugees moved from the rural parts of Japan to the city to work in manufacturing factories as a substitute labor force for Japanese workers who didn't want to work in this kind of field.

In the third period from 1986-1996, after the doi moi economic reforms (economic liberalization policies), many Vietnamese landed in Japan "with the intention of earning money in Japan rather than escaping from persecution" (Kawakami, 2008;83). Foreign currency and everyday merchandise sent home was welcomed by families and relatives in Vietnam. "They are expected by their families or relatives left behind in the country to send some money back, as evidence of success in the host country" (Kawakami, 2008; 87). The fourth was following the Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA) between Vietnam and Japan, signed in December 2008, was a major benchmark to enable economic opportunities and reduce barriers such as tariffs and certain visa restrictions for both countries. As a result, voluntary immigration from Vietnam had become possible. This was Vietnam's first bilateral EPA agreement opening up a path for skilled workers (initially nurses and carers) to work abroad (Niimi, 2014). Further demand for unskilled and semi-skilled labor lead to subsequent short-term visa categories (e.g. the technical intern visa) being created to encourage Vietnamese laborers to come to Japan. These migrant workers are categorized as sojourners due to the current visa restrictions limiting their period of stay.

While the different paths to immigration and their proponents and critics are beyond the scope of this paper, it is important to note that these policies have resulted in a sizable Vietnamese community in many areas of Japan. According to Shibuya (2020), it must be noted that among Vietnamese residing in Japan there are separate communities. There are the Vietnamese who came during and after the Vietnam war, family members of the refugees who came, international students, and technical workers. Despite issues being raised in the Japanese media since the late 2010s of poor working conditions, pay disputes, and inadequate living conditions for Vietnamese in Japan, this affects mostly sojourners who may lack support networks for acculturating

to life in Japan. Japan has to be proactive in building a *kyosei* society (living harmoniously and working together for the common good of the future), and look at each problem according to the situation and not think in terms of Japan versus foreigners (Shibuya, 2020).

History of International Students to Japan

The demand for labor created an opportunity for people from Vietnam to enter Japan to work, but a second, common way people from Vietnam came into Japan was as students. This was part of a broad plan on the part of the Japanese government to diversify Japanese higher education. As early as 1983, the "Plan to Accept 100,000 International Students" (Ryuugakusei ukeire 10 man nin keikaku") was put into effect with then-Prime Minister Nakasone's aim to accept 100,000 international university students per year by the year 2000 (McNamara Page, 2018). Unfortunately, the 100,000 goal wasn't met but there was a great increase of students, with inbound student numbers going up to 64,011 (JASSO, 2018). In order to remove barriers for students wishing to study in Japan, the government simplified the visa application process allowing language schools to act as guarantors and visa sponsors, and students to engage in paid employment. In the 2000s there was a further drive to attract international students, primarily from China and Korea as well as other parts of Asia. Consequently, there has been a visible increase in the number of undergraduate students from Southeast Asia and East Asia. Vietnam in particular has had an increase of 600% over a six-year period, ranking third behind China and Korea (MOJ, 2018, cited in McNamara Page, 2018).

Subsequently, in 2008, the "300,000 Foreign Students Plan" (Ryugakusei 30 man nin keikaku) was announced by then Prime Minister Yasuo Fukuda. The goal of 300,000 students per year by 2020 was decided to open Japan up to the world as well as increase the number of students coming to Japan. In this way they wanted to retain students upon graduation for the benefit of society. Initially, the Japanese Government intended to allow students to remain in Japan upon graduation to work however most permissible jobs were in the service sector, and in low-skilled areas (Chiavacci, 2012). Official approval to work while studying could be applied for after arrival up until 2013, in an application known as "Permission to Engage in Activity Other than Permitted Under the Status of Residence Previously Granted" and this was carefully monitored by the Ministry of Justice. Since 2013, students with visas of six months or longer at HEIs have been able to apply for permission to work upon arrival in Japan. This permits employment of up to 28 hours per week during semester and 48 hours per week during vacations (Ishikawa, 2006). Demand existed for casual labor in the service industry (commonly convenience stores, shops, and restaurants) which were traditionally filled by Japanese workers, including students. International students took these opportunities allowing many of them easy access to casual employment. Consequently, the number of students overall enrolled in vocational schools more than tripled from 2008 to 2018 (JASSO, 2020a) as working while studying became commonplace. Horie (2020) states that privately funded students have been utilizing the student visa (with permission to engage in employment) for the main purpose of working rather than studying, mostly in language schools. Vietnamese students in Japan overall increased in number from 2,873 in 2008 to 73,389 in 2019 (IASSO, 2020a).

The influx of Vietnamese workers into Japan is a prime example of transnationalism. Transnationalism is the movement of people, culture, and capital across national borders mainly for economic purposes (Longley, 2022). The term was used to explain migrant diasporas, complicated economic relations, and culturally mixed communities that increasingly characterize the modern world in the 1990's (Longley, 2022). Transnationalism can also apply to exchange students and policies put in place to attract students to certain countries or promote their studies in their host country.

There have been several studies on transnationalism in the context of the United States. Hazen and Albert's (2013) study on transnationalism depicts Asian international

students who came to the United States to study with intentions to return home or extend their stay. The reason these international students chose the United States was the funding provided for graduate education and the overall quality of higher education. Specifically, students from Asian countries were interested in the better academic opportunities and financial support that was provided to them. In cases involved with economic transnationalism, migrants would send the money they earn back to their home country, resulting in significant financial benefits for the receiving country (Longley, 2022).

In many ways, the findings from the study of transnationalism in the United States can be applied to Japanese contexts. While there are points to improve, such as some argue that Japan needs to give more financial support to overseas students, like the US, to boost its academic field and economy (Hazen and Alberts, 2013), there are benefits to transnational promotional policies in Japan as well. With its declining birthrate, there is a demand for skilled workers, and many have pointed out transnational promotional policies could be a key to fill that gap (Nguyen, 2020). Proponents argue that extending student visas with permission to work could give students and workers more time to acquire knowledge, improve their skills and be a part of the Japanese community. Moreover, scholarships given by schools could boost student's motivation to graduate from universities and may give opportunities to study further. Transnational life can be positive in many aspects; however, it can also cause stress through differences in culture and questions of where they belong (Hazen and Alberts, 2013). Immigrants may not be willing or may be unable to assimilate into the host country because of their desire to maintain social, cultural, and political ties to their home country (Longley, 2022).

Unfortunately, international student enrollment in Japanese HEIs was put on hold. The COVID 19 pandemic severely affected the mobility of international students to enter Japan overall. Border closures for entry other than citizens or permanent residents implemented at the end of the 2019 academic year meant that many students returned to Vietnam temporarily and were unable to re-enter Japan for a year or more. Likewise, freshmen international students who were processed visas and confirmed enrollment were unable to enter Japan at the beginning of the academic year in 2020 because of its strict border policies surrounding COVID. Thus, the government's policies restricting entry to Japan during the global pandemic has severely affected the number of foreign students in Japan. As of December 2021, 46,403 Vietnamese citizens were in Japan on a student visa.

Theoretical Framework

The shift towards pursuing higher education in countries requiring a higher skilled workforce, then, is directly tied to transnational and migration policies. Furthermore, students affected by the lack of access to HEIs and the migration this causes have been articulated in part by the Push and Pull theory developed by Everett Spurgeon Lee, also known as the Theory of Migration formed the base of this study (Faridi, 2018).

The factors associated with the decision to migrate are divided into four parts: (1) Factors associated with the area of origin; (2) Factors associated with the area of destination; (3) Intervening obstacles; and (4) Personal factors. Lee examines the motivation for migration by investigating the connection with the home country and destination by measuring the Push and Pull factors. In our study, the push factors include a lack of economic opportunities and education in Vietnam. The pull factors in Japan include work opportunities, availability of jobs, and conducive educational facilities (Faridi, 2018). According to Rosenberg (2020), students entering universities or seeking jobs in more highly developed countries are able to receive better salaries and greater opportunities than in their countries of origin.

The Study and Research Questions

In order to better understand the motivations behind students studying in Japan, the following questions were explored by conducting qualitative interviews with Vietnamese students.

RQ1. What factors motivated Vietnamese students in HEIs to study in Japan?

RQ2. What are their future aspirations for working in Japan?

RQ3. What factors affect their decision to stay or leave Japan after graduation?

Methods

The Questionnaire

Initial interviews with Vietnamese students formed the background questions to a closed-and open-ended questionnaire aimed at evaluating the objectives and challenges faced by students at HEIs coming from Vietnam to Japan. The items were selected based on previous discussions with Vietnamese students. The questionnaire consisted of three sections: demographic information, study circumstances, and motivations for choosing to study in Japan. Items related to demographic information were gender, age, citizenship (to confirm validity for this study), and total length of time in Japan.

The study circumstances section asked university type, year level, and the respondent's field of study, reason for selecting it, method of admission to university or vocational school (*semmongakko*), and financial support received. This was followed by a set of seven belief statements (1-7) relating to adjustment to student life, social networks, and support given by the institution.

The final section asked the respondents' motivations for choosing to study in Japan, current working habits, work hours before and after the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, future career goals and period of time the respondent intends to live in Japan after graduation. This was followed by a set of eight belief statements (8-15) relating to working in Japan, and the value of the qualification they are pursuing. Belief statements were evaluated using a 6-point Likert scale.

The questionnaire was conducted online in both Japanese and English languages, with a Vietnamese explanation of the purpose of this research. The use of an English and Japanese bilingual questionnaire ensured that students could choose their most comfortable and strongest second language. The majority of Vietnamese students at university and *senmonkakko* level are required to have Japanese language N2 or above but not necessarily English skill so we decided to offer it in both languages. The consent to get permission from the interviewees to use their data for research was included in the introduction of the questionnaire. Informal interviews were held on Zoom and in person in English, post-questionnaire. The online interviews were recorded and transcribed.

Findings and Discussion

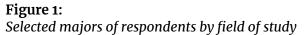
The Participants

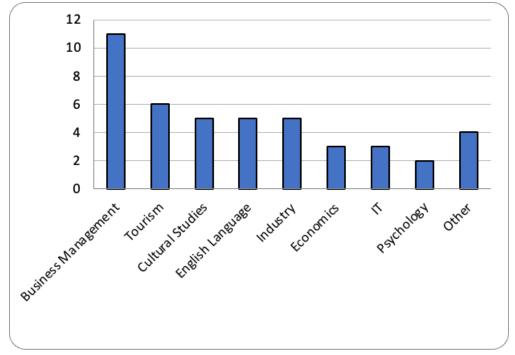
Vietnamese students at HEI's were invited to participate in the online questionnaire through the author's student networks, student's social networks and the Vietnamese online community using social media such as Facebook Groups. After verification of study and citizenship status, 44 eligible respondents (26 male, 18 female) from around Japan who formed the sample group were contacted for further interviews. 33 (75%) were enrolled in private institutions including universities, junior colleges, and technical schools. The average length of stay in Japan working, studying at language schools, or preparatory schools was an average of 2.5 years before entering higher education.

The average age of respondents was 23 years old, in contrast to 21 years being the average age of graduating from university in Japan. Some students (including two of the interviewees) had decided to study in Japan after graduating from university in Vietnam.

Results

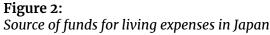
A 'preparatory stage' was discovered as students do not have sufficient qualifications or Japanese proficiency to enter HEIs directly from Vietnam. This stage gives them time to study and work in Japan while preparing for university entrance from within Japan. The majority of respondents chose to study business management, with the second most popular major being in tourism. Reasons given by business management-majors were (S1) "I want to be a business person", (S2) "I want to start my own company", (S3) "the kind of jobs in this field is broad". One tourism-major student (S4) gave the reason for their choice of field as "liked traveling", and another (S5) "wanted to work in a travel agency and be an interpreter or translator". Japanese language skills will help them gain employment in tourism, which Vietnam depends heavily on. Interviewee 1(I1) wanted to learn business skills in Japan to use in Vietnam. Such answers indicate that despite economic downturns and a weakening yen, Japanese business still has a strong global reputation that is attractive to foreign students.

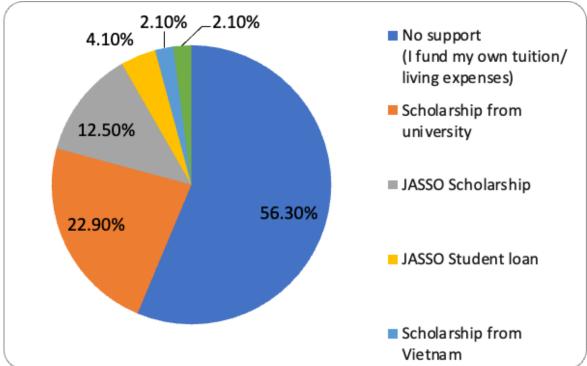




The source of funds to enable students to live in Japan is shown in Figure 2. 58% of the respondents stated that they fund their own living expenses, of which some work up to three part-time jobs simultaneously to support themselves. This question regarding working hours was given in two parts, seeking hours worked before and after the start of the COVID19 pandemic. The average number of hours worked was 23.0 before the pandemic, and 14.2 hours after. Interviewee 6(I6) is a graduate of law from a Vietnamese university with a goal to be an interpreter. She had a lot of part-time jobs in Japan as an interpreter. She found jobs on Facebook and through introductions by her university teacher to be a volunteer interpreter at school. She lives with her relatives so she is not struggling in terms of living expenses. Scholarships are an integral part of

international students' financial support. These are provided by Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO), each individual university, and local organizations and over 100 private sector groups (JASSO, 2020b). This is another source of income to support Vietnamese student's education and desire to remain in Japan.





Results of Belief Statements

Table 1 shows the means and standard deviation of the belief statements relating to student support from university and other networks, attitudes to working in Japan, and the value of their studies in Japan. Standard deviation scores are generally low, indicating little variation in responses. Results are generally positive and lean towards agreement of each statement, with the exception of statement 7. Notably, statements 7 and 11 reflect the employment situation of the respondents contrasting with the benefits of employment in statements 12 and 13.

Interviewee 5 (I5) is a senmongakko student. He says that it's difficult to get hired in Japan if you graduate from senmongakko. His senmongakko doesn't offer job support, however he was able to access Gaikokujin Shushoku Shien, a foreigner job seeking support center run by the municipality. Interviewee 1(I1) said he passed on information about scholarships to his classmates because they weren't aware of what jobs were available. This indicates that students who are unable to access support from their HEI are also supported by the municipality they reside in, and that a basic level of support is available but will differ from student to student.

Table 1Mean and standard deviation of belief statements

Belief Statement	Mean	SD
I feel I have sufficient opportunities to meet Japanese students on campus	4.15	1.44
2. I have many friends to support me	4.11	1.48
3. The university offered me sufficient help related to academic information and study support	4.61	1.34
4. The university offers me support in adjusting to life in Japan	4.56	1.33
5. I feel the university is active in helping me find a job	4.75	1.31
6. Japan is an easy place to work as a student	4.14	1.09
7. Japan is an easy place to work full-time after graduation	3.43	1.33
8. My degree is worthwhile in order to work in Japan	4.13	1.09
9. My degree is worthwhile in order to work in Vietnam	4.27	1.20
10. My degree is worthwhile in order to work in other countries (not Japan or Vietnam)	3.75	1.46
11. Japan is a country where I can earn a lot of money	3.93	1.26
12. Japan is a country where I can enjoy a good lifestyle	4.31	1.21
13. Japan is a country where I have good career opportunities	4.34	1.19

(1 = Strongly Disagree, 6 = Strongly Agree)

Future career intentions were measured using an open-answer question about career goals, and a multiple-choice question (Table 2) about intended length of stay in Japan. Responses relating to career goals in specialist fields including designer, architect, engineer, psychologist and teacher, with the most popular being 'translator' (6 respondents, 13.6%) and 'set up a business' (6 respondents, 13.6%). 17 respondents (36.4%) had not decided on a career goal. An example of one is interviewee 1 (I1) who wants to stay in Japan and send money back to his family as long as he can. He wants to help the people in his country and teach them the skills that he has learned in Japan when he returns.

Table 2Length of time intended to stay in Japan after graduation

Length of time	no.	%
5 or more years	19	43.2
3~5 years	12	27.3
1~3 years	7	15.9
None	6	13.6

Financial Resources

It was found through the interviews that the majority of students fund their own tuition or receive tuition funds from their family while also working to support themselves. Although not within the scope of this study, information regarding the socio-economic background of respondents would give a clearer reason as to this.

Interviewee 2 (I2) said "Vietnamese have to borrow money in Vietnam to get money to come to Japan, and work hard in Japan to send money home." Students know that they can work once they arrive and often work multiple part time jobs to earn money to live and send home. Interviewee 2(I2) stated that she is working two part-time jobs, and was previously working three part-time jobs simultaneously. This is one of the common hardships of students and workers coming from Southeast Asia. Debt bondage is the value of the work that is carried out which exceeds the amount of their debt. These students may have to repay the debts that were contracted. While it is beyond the scope of this study, debt to brokerages in the case of higher education also deserves further investigation.

Securing the legal right to work in Japan while studying, Vietnamese students are given the opportunity to work and make money to contribute towards their living expenses while in Japan. Any extra savings are sent home or used towards tuition. Privately funded students are also known to borrow money from family or through brokers pre-departure, often up to one million yen, to allow them to travel to Japan and enroll in a Japanese educational institution. They then pay back this money once they begin working while studying (Horie, 2020). The term *dekasegi ryuugakusei* or "migrant worker international students" has been coined to describe this group of students who have a motivation to both study and earn money.

Furthermore, the results showed the onset of the COVID pandemic had a marked effect on student's livelihoods as many worked in the food retail and service industries. The number of hours of work they were given significantly decreased, thus income was reduced. The burden of supporting themselves in Japan would have been greater. Three responses indicated zero income, with supporting comments that they had lost their jobs due to COVID-19 and the related closure of businesses, making it difficult to earn enough to cover their living expenses. In addition to travel restrictions, the economic situation of many foreign students was also impacted by the global pandemic and made it more difficult for students to study in Japan.

Skills Attainment

Results show the most common two majors selected by students are business or tourism related, allowing these students to gain transferable knowledge and skills. Learning a skill or knowledge set in Japan, such as business management, tourism or English, can be applied in and is valued in either country. There was one online group interview with two students, two individual online interviews, and two face to face individual interviews; with each interview being an hour long. The interviews demonstrated a strong belief from students that attaining Japanese language skills together with a degree in business or finance provide valuable opportunities for employment with trading companies in Japan or Vietnam. Similarly, those wishing to work in the tourism sector see language proficiency and translation (English and Japanese) together with a tourism-related skill set beneficial to working in the travel, hospitality, tourism and airline sectors. This was clearly identified with one of the students interviewed (I4). After working short-term as an unskilled worker in Japan, this interviewee returned to pursue further education and employment in Japan, is currently in her third year of an undergraduate degree, and intends to become a translator in the future, utilizing her language skills.

Results also show that the belief that a university degree obtained in Japan has more value for a future career in Vietnam, than in Japan. The mean for belief statements 8 to 10 regarding the value of their qualifications were Vietnam: 4.27, Japan: 4.13, and other countries: 3.75. This reinforced the idea that a significant number of students intend to attain transferable skills that they will apply back in Vietnam.

Employment Intentions

86.4% of respondents intended to remain and gain employment in Japan immediately after graduation from Japanese HEIs. However, this study identified that many intend to return to Vietnam in the mid- to long-term. Interviewee 1(I1), identified some fellow students who intended to return to Vietnam and seek employment with Japanese companies in Vietnam, or teach Japanese there. Having study abroad experience in Japan, and Japanese language proficiency is a strong advantage for those wishing to find a Japan-related job back in Vietnam. The more languages and skills a person has upon returning to Vietnam, the more marketable they are in finding a job, making the return to Vietnam much more appealing. According to Nguyen, D. T. T. (2020), "The relationship between Japan and Vietnam is now very positive and increasingly sustainable. The close cooperation between the two countries is present in many different fields such as culture-education, science and technology, economics. In the economic field, Japan has invested heavily in the Vietnamese market with the construction of a series of companies and enterprises, and consequently a great demand for Japanese-speaking personnel. Therefore, mastering the Japanese language helps job seekers have more potential opportunities with high salaries."

Job hunting in particular revealed different results for working students and regular employees. The question "Japan is an easy place to work as a student" gave a positive mean of 4.13, but "Japan is an easy place to work full-time after graduation" was not agreed with, having a mean of 3.43, tending negative. Only 43.2% of respondents intended to stay in Japan five years or more after graduation. Through financial support such as scholarships, an expectation is that graduates will contribute their skills and knowledge to the Japanese workforce, however results show this is not desirable for the majority of graduates. Interviewee 5(I5) thinks the rules in a Japanese company are too strict for him. The job hunting process and perception of the working environment in Japan will affect how Vietnamese migrants contribute to Japanese society and its workforce long-term.

Surprisingly, there were a variety of answers relating to the beliefs of Japan as a place to work full-time. While it was believed that career opportunities existed for Vietnamese university graduates (4.34), the value for earning money was significantly lower at 3.93. Therefore, the low starting salary for new recruits, and investment of time required to gain promotion and increase in salary in a typical Japanese company are important factors. Salaries that are traditionally based on seniority, not productivity or performance may detract from the attractiveness of working in Japan. With the weakening of the yen since the 2010s, this is a significant finding for companies who wish to attract foreign workers.

Employment Security

Another burden that weighs heavily on students is employment security. Prospective employers are required to sponsor and arrange suitable work visas. However, some companies are reluctant to take on risk and sponsor a foreign worker unless they are confident the worker will be beneficial to the company. Even though revisions have been made to allow more categories of work visas for foreign nationals, the visa rules, conditions, and procedures can be difficult to understand for both students and prospective employers. One interviewee (S6) stated that his job offer was rescinded due to issues with suitability of visa that matched his field of study.

Uncertainty surrounding permission to remain in Japan and work legally after graduation weighs heavily on students' future plans.

Conclusion

The majority of Vietnamese students work while studying out of necessity to cover their living expenses in Japan. It also serves to alleviate the labor shortfall in the service industry that existed before the COVID pandemic. Moreover, working part time jobs enabled students to form important social networks with Japanese people. Full-time employment in Japan after graduation is seen as desirable in the short-term. Results in this study show that the majority of students from Japan do not intend to remain in Japan long-term, and will likely not contribute further to Japan's economy and society in the future. After several years of employment, many intend to return to Vietnam permanently, creating a loss for Japan in terms of its investment towards skilled labor and multicultural society.

The attainment of transferable skills that can be utilized in either Japan or Vietnam is one of the main objectives of Vietnamese students in Japan. Obtaining new sets of skills create more options and further their career prospects, becoming a main motivation for selecting undergraduate and even graduate study in Japan.

Sufficient support exists in many cases for students to adjust to living, working, and studying in Japan. There is a combination of efforts from education providers, online Vietnamese-student communities, and members of social networks formed with non-Vietnamese. The integration of the students into society and institutions has been largely positive, contrasting with their countrymen who come to Japan as limited-term unskilled workers.

One area of support identified that needs to be addressed is security of post-graduation employment. Information distributed and support given for the job-hunting process varies from institution to institution, and visa information and processes are not clearly explained. Additionally, uncertainty surrounding visa issues remains a major hurdle for Vietnamese students and needs to be made clearer for both students and prospective employers.

Whilst a range of scholarships and financial support options do exist for students, the financial burden of their study and living expenses in Japan together with expectation to help support their families back in Vietnam remains a challenge.

With Japan's aging society and declining population, Japan faces economic uncertainty. This is expected to lead to a shrinking domestic market and declining labor force which will have critical implications for economic growth over time. On the other hand, Vietnam's population is young and on the increase, with an abundant supply of labor and a prospective market for Japanese products and technology. In this way, the relation between Japan and Vietnam complements each one's economic needs (Nguyen, H., 2020). Providing employment security would have follow-up benefits for graduates, help address the issue of the declining working-age population, and achieve the goal of Japan becoming an economically robust multicultural society.

References

- Chiavacci, D. (2012). Japan in the global war for talent: Changing concepts of valuable foreign workers and their consequences. *The German Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 124, 27-47.
- Faridi, R. (2018). Migration Theories: Lee's push-pull theory. Retrieved from https://rashidfaridi.com/2018/04/05/migration-theories-lees-push-pull-theory/
- Goto, Junichi. (2006). Latin Americans of the Japanese origin (nikkeijin) working in Japan—a survey. *Kobe University*, 3-60. Retrieved from https://www.rieb.kobe-u.ac.jp/academic/ra/dp/English/dp185.pdf.
- Hazen, H. & Alberts, H. (2013). "Too many things pull me back and forth": Return intentions and transnationalism among international students. In H. Hazen & H. Alberts eds. (2013), *International students and scholars in the United States*, pp. 65-87. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Horie, N. (2020).在日ベトナム系移民に関する予備的な考察 [Preliminary observations on vietnamese immigrants in Japan]. 多文化社会研究, Nagasaki University Tabunkashakaikenkyu Journal, 6, 103-120.
- Immigration Services Agency of Japan. (2022). Retrieved from https://www.e-stat.go.jp/stat-search/files?page=1&layout=datalist&toukei=0025 0012&tstat=000001018034&cycle=1&year=20120&month=24101212&tclass1=0000 01060399
- Ishikawa. C. (2006). Education-orientated immigration in Japan and the legacy of the plan to accept 100,000 foreign students. 名古屋大学留学生センター紀要, Nagoya University Center for International Students Journal, 4, 5-26.
- JASSO. (2020a). 令和2年度外国人留学生在籍状況調査結果, Annual Survey of International Students in Japan 2019 Results. Retrieved from https://www.studyinjapan.go.jp/ja/_mt/2020/08/date2019z.pdf
- JASSO. (2020b). 日本留学奨学金パンフレット2020-21, Planning Studies in Japan Pamphlet 2020-21. Retrieved from https://www.studyinjapan.go.jp/ja/assets/pdf/plan/scholarships 2020 j 1.pd
- Kawakami, I. (2008). The Vietnamese diaspora in Japan and their dilemmas in the context of transnational dynamism, in Yamashita et.al., eds (2008) *Transnational Migration in East Asia Senri Ethnological Reports*, 77, 79–88.
- Longley, R. (2022). What is transnationalism? Definition, pros, and cons. Retrieved from https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-transnationalism-definition-pros-and-cons-5073163
- Mazzarol, T. & Soutar, G. N.(2001). Push-pull factors influencing international student destination choice. Center for Entrepreneurial Management and Innovation. Retrieved from
 - $\frac{https://cemi.com.au/sites/all/publications/CEMI\%20DP0105\%20Mazzarol\%20an}{d\%20Soutar\%202001.pdf}$
- McNamara Page, C. (2018). Foreign student workforce: Interviews & qualitative analysis of international Student-workers in fukuoka city. 経済研究論 Kyushu University Graduate School of Economics, Economics Research Journal, 162, 21-40. Retrieved

- from http://hdl.handle.net/2324/2174850
- Niimi, T. (2014). ベトナム人の海外就労 [Overseas employment of Vietnamese]. アジア研究 [Asian Studies] 60, (2), 69-90.
- Nguyen, D. T. T. (2020). Japanese language and its influence on human resources in vietnam. *Journal of Critical Reviews*,7 (14), 891–894. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/344211523_Journal_of_Critical_Reviews_JAPANESE_LANGUAGE_AND_ITS_INFLUENCE_ON_HUMAN_RESOURCES_IN_VIETNAM
- Nguyen, H. (2020). Post-Abe, Vietnam-Japan relations have nowhere to go but up. The Diplomat. Retrieved from
 - https://thediplomat.com/2020/09/post-abe-vietnam-japan-relations-have-now here-to-go-but-up/
- Rosenberg, M. (2020). Push-pull factors in immigration. Retrieved from https://www.thoughtco.com/push-pull-factors-1434837
- Schwartz, S., Unger, J., Zamboanga, B., Szapocznik, J. (2010). Rethinking the concept of acculturation: Implication for theory and research. *American Psychologist*, 65(4), 237–51. http://doi.org/10.1037/a0019330
- Shibuya, S. (2020). Diversity of vietnamese residents in japan: Towards building a better kyosei society of different nationalities. 共生科学 University of Fukuchiyama Journal of Kyosei Studies, 11, 134–146.
- Spacey, J. (2017). Motivation: push vs pull. Retrieved from https://simplicable.com/new/push-vs-pull