

An Exploratory Study of Student Lifestyles and Attitudes: University Students in Japan Contrasted with American Students

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This paper reports the results of an exploratory survey of Japanese and American university students' view of self, lifestyles, global outlook, attitudes, and problems facing youth. While the results could not be generalized due to the small sampling size, several points for future hypothesis testing were indicated. Compared with the American subjects of this study, the Japanese subjects tended to evaluate themselves as less mature and felt sex was not very important for university students. While pleasure-reading time did not differ between the cultures, the American students surveyed spent considerably more time doing homework-related reading and studying. To a greater extent than the Americans, the Japanese students felt they should concentrate more on knowing about their own culture than that of others, but like the American subjects, the Japanese students also expressed curiosity about the world and people beyond their borders. In this sample, American subjects displayed fewer traditional gender-role expectations of fathers and mothers than the Japanese students. The Japanese subjects appeared to be less focused on study and seemed to have freedom and time for fun, whereas the American students' responses suggested their lives were more serious and stressful. Respondents from both countries mentioned similar youth problems, including anxieties over education, sex, violence, drugs, and future jobs. While the subjects from both countries placed importance on their educations, their usage of study and leisure time differed.

〈大学生の生活ぶりと態度のパイロット・スタディ:日本とアメリカの大学生を比較して〉

本稿は、日本および米国の大学生を対象として、自己観、ライフスタイル、国際観、態度、および青春の抱える問題点等の調査を行い、それらを比較したパイロット・スタディの結果報告である。本研究の対象となった被験者数が少ないため、これらの結果を概括することは出来ないものの、今後の仮説を呈示するためのいくつかの考察を示している。本研究の対象となったアメリカ人大学生に比べると、対象とした日本人大学生は、自分自身に対して人間的成熟が遅れているという評価を持っており、また日本人大学生にとりセックスはそれほど重要ではないと感じる傾向が見られた。趣味の読書時間については両国間に違いが見られなかったものの、本調査におけるアメリカ人大学生は、宿題に関連する読書や勉強により多くの時間をかけていた。日本人大学生はアメリカ人大学生に比べ、はるかに他の文化より自国の文化を知ることにもっと努力を傾けるべきであると感じていた。しかし、アメリカ人大学生と同様に日本人大学生は、国境を超えて、世界や人々についての興味を示している。被験者に「良き父親、良き母親とは、仕事より家族を優先させる親であるか」という質問をしたところ、アメリカ人大学生の方は、父親および母親に関して同じ回答であり、性差意識が少なかった。一方の日本人大学生は、この点に関する回答は父親と母親により異なる傾向にあった。また今回の被験者の中で、日本人大学生の方は、勉学に専念せず、遊びのための時間と自由を持つと述べたが、アメリカ人大学生の方は、自分たちの生活がもっと真面目でストレスに溢れるものであると示唆した。両国の学生とも、教育、セックス、暴力、麻薬、および将来の職業等の類似する青春の問題や不安に悩んでいた。両国の学生は共に、自分たちの教育に対する重要性を認める一方で、学習およびレジャーのための時間の分け方においては相違を示した。

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to explore the university experience of Japanese students, contrasting it with that of American students by surveying university students in both countries concerning their lifestyles, their view of themselves, and their global outlook, attitudes, and perceptions of social

problems facing youth in their respective societies. These were areas felt to be of concern to university students and also were subjects thought to reveal differences between the two countries. The survey questions were constructed with the idea of testing various views expressed in sociological and educational comparative literature about the two cultures (e.g., Caudill & Schooler, 1988; Dore, 1976; Duke, 1986, 1991; Goodman, 1993; Iwao, 1993; Iwata, 1979; and White, 1993, 1988) by comparing the self-assessments of students from the two countries.

This questionnaire was originally used to stimulate student research in a comparative cultures class taught by the author at a Japanese university, and was later administered to students in university comparative cultures classes in both Japan and the U.S. as a joint international project. The findings are for the most part not generalizable, but were intended to help formulate hypotheses that might be explored in research on greater numbers of students at a later date.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There has been great interest in various aspects of Japanese education among American observers over the last three decades, led most notably by Passin (1965), Dore (1976), Brzezinski (1972), Lebra & Lebra (1974), Pemple (1978), Rohlen (1974), and Cummins, et al. (1979). But it was perhaps the influence of the 1979 bestseller *Japan as Number One: Lessons for America*, by Harvard University's Ezra Vogel, which stimulated the flood of interest in Japanese education over the next two decades (e.g., Iwata, 1979; Duke, 1986, 1991; White, 1987, 1988, 1993; Feigenbaum & McCorduck, 1988; Rohlen, 1988; Lewis, 1995; Conduit & Conduit, 1996; and Kamada, 1994).

While many of these works examined Japanese education from a sociological perspective with much emphasis on the school system from preschool up through university entrance, fewer dealt directly with the university experience itself. However, in what could be called a response to Vogel's (1979) highlighting of "lessons for America," Duke (1986) offered both lessons America could learn from Japan and lessons that Japan could learn from the U.S., with the latter including special reference to Japanese universities. Duke asserted that Americans have little to learn from the Japanese university system, blaming the Japanese problem on lack of academic standards on the part of the universities, which have minimal academic requirements for graduation (p. 216).

The lifestyle of free time afforded Japanese university students is assessed in Rohlen's (1974) anthropological survey of a Japanese bank. Rohlen points out that generally, it is businesses who make recruitment contacts in Japan, and that the status of a university is based in large part on the number of prosperous businesses seeking recruits from them. Special skills are generally not required for

recruitment, as most businesses--the bank in Rohlen's study included--prefer to provide in-house training.

Dore (1976) describes the university system in Japan as one involving severe competition for entry followed by an easy-going four-year "recess" with few expectations placed on the students. Dore attributes these conditions to the fact that Japan's industrial development occurred later than in the West and therefore created an immediate need for skills and knowledge. The result, according to Dore, was an inflation of certification as the school system grew faster than the number of job openings, leading to a dearth of genuine education at the university level.

This emphasis on certification is further explained by Iwata (1979), who makes a distinction between two types of ability: *jitsuryoku* (acquired skills) and *noryoku* (potential or innate ability). Iwata asserts that it is generally felt by Japanese society that *noryoku* is what is demonstrated in the ability to pass a difficult entrance examination. As this is what Japanese businesses seek when recruiting university graduates, students are not required to acquire skills (*jitsuryoku*) during their university years. It is felt that *jitsuryoku* can be acquired later through in-house training, providing the individual already possesses potential (*noryoku*).

In addition to such theoretical analysis of the Japanese educational system, detailed surveys have also contributed to our understanding of differences between university students in Japan and the U.S. White (1993) contrasts Japanese and American students' self perceptions of such personal attributes as maturity and independence. While White's insightful report on "coming of age in Japan and America" centers on the "teenager," she tends to include university students within this group. Under the heading "Is a college student a teenager?," White (1993) justifies this inclusion by noting the dependence often exhibited by Japanese college students:

... the continuation of a rather childlike (to Americans) style is a positive thing, for in Japanese terms, childlike means open and sincere, while "adult" may have connotations of over-socialized, smoothly political in relationships. Even college students usually enjoy dependent relationships, where their "childish" qualities are valued. (p. 99)

Thus, there are a lot of things we already know about Japanese universities. The overwhelmingly difficult task of entering a university in Japan after years of focused study and competition has been reported on widely (Dore, 1976; Iwata, 1979; Kamada, 1994; Shimahara, 1979; White, 1987). This contrasts with the fact that after students enter universities, they can relax and feel secure that they no longer need to worry much about competition nor demands for academic activity (Beebe, 1966; Dore, 1976; Rohlen, 1974; Vogel, 1979; Duke, 1986). There is generally little expectation that much will be learned during the four university years since, as mentioned above, most businesses and government

organizations prefer to do their own training (Rohlen, 1988; Dore, 1976; Shimahara, 1979). While students are required to enroll in long hours of daily classes, not much homework is assigned and absenteeism is high (Dore, 1976; Vogel, 1979). Nonetheless, graduation percentages in Japan are higher than in the U.S. (Vogel, 1979; Duke, 1986).

With so many differences between the Japanese and American university systems, it was expected that the lifestyles and attitudes of students in the two countries would also differ. To get a better idea of what those differences might be, a questionnaire was drawn up and an exploratory survey made of students in one university class in each country.

RESEARCH FOCUS

The areas of investigation addressed in the questionnaire were derived from the following four research questions. 1) Do Japanese university students assess their personal attributes differently from American university students, and if so, in what areas? 2) How do the everyday lives of Japanese university students differ from those of university students in the U.S., especially in terms of use of their time and money? 3) Do Japanese students' views of outsiders and of the world beyond their borders differ from those of American students, and if so, in what ways? 4) How do the attitudes of Japanese students towards family, sex, dreams, societal problems, pressures, and their university lives differ from the attitudes of American students? Each of these questions is explained in more detail below.

Self Perceptions of Personal Attributes

It was decided to investigate students' perceptions of their personal attributes in order to test the commonly-held notions that Japanese tend to be less independent and mature (suggested by White, 1993) and that Japanese tend to be more cooperative than Americans. Items asking students to assess themselves on personal qualities such as their ability to concentrate, their leadership ability, and their self esteem (Questions 4 through 18; see Appendix for full questionnaire) were adapted from a study which originally surveyed affective factors in English learning by Japanese students (Kamada, 1989, 1993). That study found that Japanese students who were more highly motivated to study English tended to give themselves higher ratings on most personal attribute variables than less motivated students. In the present survey, I wanted to see how these same variables might reveal differences between Japanese and American university students. To explore a wide range of such possible differences, the present survey also asked the subjects to assess their own ability to think abstractly, make decisions, do detailed exact work and cooperate in a group, and to rate their own maturity and the depth of their awareness.

Student Lifestyles

The second research question concerned the differences in the everyday lives of students in the two countries, especially in relation to their use of time and use of money. Questions 34 through 39 dealt with university students' use of time. Many of these questions targeted areas suggested by White's study, such as hours per week spent on homework (White, 1993, p. 81), reading (ibid., p. 113) and watching television (ibid., p. 113). The two questions on use of money (Q 40 and Q 41) were also influenced by White (1993, p. 112).

Global Outlook

The third area the questionnaire explored was the students' global outlook. This concept was partially influenced by Gardner and Lambert's (1972) Orientation Index, which was designed to measure instrumental and integrative motivational orientations towards learning. In an earlier study designed to assess student differences in motivations for foreign language learning (reported in Kamada, 1989 and 1993), this index was adapted in the formation of survey questions. In the present study, the earlier survey questions were revised and adapted in order to assess student differences in terms of openness and closedness to global perspectives (similar to Gardner and Lambert's integrative and instrumental orientations, respectively) using a 5-point Likert Scale. Statements designed to measure closedness, or an attitude of being unconcerned with the outside world (Q19 - 22), included "Right now, in my life, I'm really not very concerned about what goes on in the rest of the world," and "Foreigners are the cause of a lot of problems in my country." Examples of statements intended to measure openness and a desire to know more about the outside world, including a desire to become friends with foreigners (Q23 - 27), are "Compared to others my age, I have a broader, more global attitude", and "I want to know more about people/cultures outside my country".

Student Attitudes

The fourth area explored by this survey was differences in student attitudes about sex, family responsibilities, gender roles and the future. Several issues raised in Merry White's (1993) study of youth culture and coming of age in Japan and the U.S. stimulated the formation of this research question (as well as others) and directly influenced the construction of items on the questionnaire designed to test White's observations or to re-test the results of earlier studies cited in White.

One such difference between students in the two countries lay in attitudes towards sex. While White devoted a full chapter of her study to feelings about various aspects of sexuality, I found most interesting her discussion of the relationship of maturity to sexuality. White refers to a 1991 interview with Dr.

Higashi Yasuo of Kobe:

For both girls and boys in America, becoming sexually active is a very salient part of their maturing identities. In Japan, sexual experience and performance are much less important than friendship and school performance, and even when children are sexually active, this activity does not preoccupy them. (White, 1993, p. 193)

To explore perceptions of this relationship, Questions 31 and 32 asked, "Is sex important to university students?" and "How closely is 'sexuality' related to attaining maturity?" A 5-point Likert Scale was used to allow respondents to indicate the degree of their feelings.

Another area the questionnaire explored was expectations of parental gender roles. Questions 29 and 30 were constructed based on White's (1993) discussion of attitudes about the ideal mother and father. White refers to a 1989 study by the Japanese Management and Coordination Agency which reported that in contrast to Americans, fewer Japanese agreed that a "good father" should consider his family above his job, whereas more agreement about the ideal mother was reached between the two countries (p. 59). A similar question was constructed for this survey, asking, "Do you agree that a good father considers family above his job?" The same question was asked about mothers.

One more question related to the family that was brought up in White's discussion (1993, p. 61 - 62) and adapted for this survey was whether or not youths expected to take care of their parents in old age. White (1993) notes that "Even those Japanese youth with a strong independent streak say they will take care of their parents in their old age" (p. 61). However, as she does not directly contrast this sense of filial responsibility with attitudes held by American youth, it was decided to investigate attitudes here by directly asking: "Do you hope to take care of your parents in their old age?"

Finally, attitudes towards the future were addressed by three questions (Q 33, 43, and 44) concerning the types of things youths dream of.

METHOD

Subjects

In order to expedite the process of administration of the survey instrument during this pilot stage, subjects were drawn from a convenience sample of students at two universities, one in Japan and the other in the U.S. In April, 1996, the questionnaire was distributed to 28 students at a Japanese national university and 26 students of an American state university through their Comparative Cultures classes, and they were asked to respond anonymously. Although the subjects were not randomly selected nor matched, both groups of students were enrolled in the Humanities Department of their university.

Moreover, both universities appeared to be relatively competitive, with medical departments and attached hospitals, and both were located in relatively quiet regions far from the country's capitol, although the American university was in a relatively large city, while the Japanese university was located in a small, rather rural town.

A breakdown of the respondents' ages, grade in school and gender is presented in Table 1. As the age of the student population in America generally tends to range higher than that in Japan, where most students enter university at age 18 and exit at age 22, it is not surprising that this variance was reflected in the significantly different age spreads and grade levels of the samples in the two countries. Gender breakdowns between the two countries, however, were not significantly different.

TABLE 1A: Subjects' Age (Q1)

Age in Years	American Subjects (N=25)		Japanese Subjects (N=28)	
	n	(%)	n	(%)
19	1	(4%)	0	(0%)
20	3	(12%)	0	(0%)
21	7	(28%)	2	(7%)
22	1	(4%)	3	(12%)
23	0	(0%)	1	(4%)
24	0	(0%)	2	(8%)
25	0	(0%)	1	(4%)
26	2	(8%)	1	(4%)
27	2	(8%)	0	(0%)
28	0	(0%)	1	(4%)
30	0	(0%)	1	(4%)
31	0	(0%)	1	(4%)
33	0	(0%)	1	(4%)

34	1	(4%)	0	(0%)
	$m = 23.84$		$m = 19.93$	
	$sd = 4.18$		$sd = 1.85$	
		$t = 4.48$		

TABLE 1B: Subjects' Year in School/Standing (Q2)

	Standing American Subjects (N = 26)		Japanese Subjects (N = 28)	
	<i>n</i>	(%)	<i>n</i>	(%)
Sophomore	(2)	1		
	(4%)	24	(85.5%)	
Junior	(3)	12	(46%)	0
Senior	(4)	10	(38%)	3
Fifth-Year Undergraduate	(5)	0	(0%)	1
M.A. Candidate	(6)	1	(4%)	0
Ph.D. Candidate	(7)	2	(8%)	0
		$m = 3.77$ (yrs.)		$m = 2.32$ (yrs.)
	1.19	$sd = 0.80$		$sd =$
				$t = 5.18$

TABLE 1C: Subjects' Gender (Q3)

American
Subjects (N =
26)
Japanese
Subjects (N =

28)

Gender	<i>n</i>	(%)	<i>n</i>	(%)
Male	13	(50%)	9	(32%)
Female	13	(50%)	19	(68%)
	<i>m</i> = 0.5		<i>m</i> = 0.32	
	<i>sd</i> = 0.5		<i>sd</i> = 16.15	
	<i>t</i> = 0.23 (<i>ns</i>)			

All statistics are significant at $p < .05$, unless indicated not significant (*ns*).

Questionnaire Design and Procedure

The questions considered in this paper were part of a larger questionnaire, out of which 50 items relevant to this report were selected and reproduced in the Appendix for reference. The survey questions were designed to assess the nature of the university experience in the two countries based on the above four research questions. Most were constructed as statements requiring respondents to note their degree of agreement or disagreement on a 5-point Likert Scale. However, the questionnaire also included nine write-in questions (Q 42 - 50) which examined such issues as dreams, societal ills, images of teenagers, pressures, student lives, and identity. The inclusion of several of these questions were also stimulated by White's 1993 work. Teacher qualities considered important by students, elicited in Question 42, are covered on page 90 of the White study, student self descriptions, elicited in Question 49, are summarized on page 201, and views on the Japan/American relationship, elicited in Question 50, are reported on page 215 of *The Material Child: Coming of Age in Japan and America*.

The survey instrument was written in English for use in both countries. It was pre-tested on several Japanese university students to assess problems with nuance in its original English form. Then all the Japanese subjects were administered the questionnaire at the same time during class. The questions were slowly read out one-by-one in English and then orally translated into Japanese by a highly proficient bilingual speaker, with nuances carefully explained. Japanese subjects were permitted to respond to write-in questions in Japanese or English. American students took the questionnaire home to fill out.

Analysis

Frequencies of responses by subjects of the two cultures were compared using *t* values as a test of reliability. Chi square analysis was also employed. Pearson product moment correlations were used to examine correlations between variables in a few instances. The write-in answers were analyzed separately from the rest of the survey. To expedite analysis of this preliminary survey, multiple raters were not used. In presenting the results, percentage figures have been rounded off to the nearest round number or half number.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Notwithstanding the limitations of this type of pilot survey using a convenience sample, several of the results appeared worthy of more in-depth and controlled research. These are reported and discussed below in the order of the research questions they addressed.

Self-Perceptions of Personal Attributes

Responses to the 17 questions designed to assess the subjects' perceptions of their own maturity and other personal qualities seemed to support arguments that differences do exist in the way that Japanese and American students see themselves, with responses from the American subjects differing significantly from those of the Japanese respondents in nearly every area, including maturity, self esteem, leadership, creativity and independence. Only in three areas were the differences in the self-assessments of the two groups *not* significant: the ability to follow directions given by a superior, the ability to do detailed exact work, and the ability to cooperate well within a group. For all other questions, American responses were significantly more affirmative (that is, there were significantly more self-assessments of "very high" or "high"), while there was more variation within the Japanese group, with more respondents undecided ("I can't say either way") and negative ("not very high" or "none").

A possible explanation for these differences may be that Americans are apt to evaluate themselves more positively than Japanese, who tend to give more modest estimations of themselves. At least part of the difference may also be attributable to differences in cultural make-up, as suggested by the three abilities in which the American respondents did not evaluate themselves significantly higher than the Japanese subjects. People reared in a culture which values independence may not highly rate their ability to follow directions given by a superior or to cooperate well within a group. Likewise, the value placed on creativity over form in American culture may have led to the lower evaluations the Americans gave

themselves on their ability to do detailed, exact work, in contrast to the Japanese, who tend to attach greater social virtue to paying attention to detail and correctness of form. However, due to the small sampling size, at this point these results provide only hypotheses on which to test future data.

Student Lifestyles

In examining aspects of the everyday lives of Japanese and American students, this report will focus on their use of time and money. In particular, it will look at the amount of time spent in class, doing homework, watching TV, using computers, reading for homework, and reading for pleasure. The amount of money spent on luxuries and leisure as well as the amount received from the respondents' parents will also be examined.

The use of time reported by the respondents from the two countries differed significantly. The Japanese students in this sample reported much more time spent attending their university classes than the American respondents, with 61% of the Japanese subjects indicating that they spent more than 18 hours in class weekly, compared with only 12% of the American respondents. However, the opposite was the case when students were asked to indicate how many hours they spent on homework for their university classes each week. While 96% of American subjects said that they spent over 4 hours doing homework weekly, only 18% of Japanese indicated that they did this much. (This question was originally meant to ask the number of hours the subjects spent studying each *day* rather than each week, but an error was made in the typing process. Nonetheless, it is clear from the responses that the American university students in this sample spent significantly more time on homework than did their Japanese counterparts.) This contrast may in part be explained by differences in the university systems between the two countries as elucidated by Dore (1976) and Iwata (1979).

Instead of spending their time at home studying, the surveyed Japanese students reported spending considerably more time watching television than did the American subjects. As shown in Table 2A, 71% of the Japanese said they spent over 10 hours per week in front of their television, compared with only 4% of the American subjects who watched that much. At the low end, 78% of the American and 11% of the Japanese students surveyed indicated that they spent 1, 2 or 3 hours watching television weekly. One explanation for the propensity of the Japanese subjects to watch TV may be found in White (1993), who notes, "Television is a nearly omnipresent companion in family gatherings. . ." (p. 57).

Thus the Japanese students surveyed tended to spend more time in front of their televisions and less on their homework, but they also tended to spend more time attending classes. This suggests that TV time did not occur during the daytime, and may also indicate that many of these students were staying at home in the evenings rather than going out. One explanation for this difference in TV viewing hours

between the two groups may be that, rather than TV time taking away from homework time in Japan, the amount of time needed to complete homework was lower for the Japanese respondents, and the rest of the time was simply filled up by TV. According to Dore (1976) and Iwata (1979), compared with American university students, little is required of Japanese students in order to graduate once they have been admitted to a university, and thus, from the standpoint of both teachers and the students themselves, it is not necessary for students to further prove their ability.

Table 2A: Reported Time Spent Watching TV Weekly (Q36)

America 23) Subjects	<i>n</i>		Hours	
			<i>n</i>	(%)
			1	5
(22.0%)			2	(7.0%)
			2	8
(35.5%)			1	(3.6%)
			3	5
(22.0%)			0	(0.0%)
			4	1
(4.0%)			1	(3.6%)

7	(27%)	3	0	(0%)	2	(8%)	4	4
(17%)	1	(4%)						
	5	3	(13%)		5	(19%)		
	6	2	(9%)		1	(0%)		
	7	2	(9%)		4	(15%)		
	8	1	(4%)		0	(0%)		
	10	1	(4%)		1	(4%)		
	15	0	(0%)		1	(4%)		
	20+	1	(4%)		0	(0%)		

$m = 4.70$

$m = 4.31$

$sd = 4.30$

$sd = 3.20$

$t = 0.39 (ns)$ ($\chi^2 = 10.15$ $df = 10$ ns)

Table 2C: Reported Time Spent on Reading for Homework Weekly (Q39)

America 26) Subjects <i>n</i>					Hours n Subjects (<i>N</i> = Japanese (<i>N</i> = 27) <i>n</i> (%) (%)	
	(0%)				1	0
(0%)				7	(26%)	
(8%)				2	0	
(4%)				5	(19%)	
(11%)				3	2	
				3	(11%)	
				4	1	
				3	(11%)	
				5	3	
				3	(11%)	
	6	0	(0%)	1	(4%)	
	9	1	(4%)	0	(0%)	
	10	5	(19%)	2	(7%)	
	12	2	(8%)	0	(0%)	
	13	1	(4%)	1	(4%)	
	14	1	(4%)	2	(7%)	
	15	3	(11%)	0	(0%)	

20	1	(4%)	0	(0%)
21	6	(23%)	0	(0%)
	$m = 12.54$		$m = 4.44$	
	$sd = 6.13$		$sd = 4.04$	
	$t = 5.69 (x^2 = 28.81 \text{ } df = 13)$			

All statistics are significant at $p < .05$, unless indicated not significant (*ns*).

While no significant difference emerged between the subjects from the two countries in their responses to the question asking how much time they spent reading for pleasure each week (see Table 2B), the question on how much time was spent reading for homework assignments revealed significant differences between the two groups (see Table 2C). Whereas none of the American university students indicated that their homework reading took only one or two hours a week, 45% of the Japanese responses were concentrated in this range. Conversely, none of the Japanese responses were found at the highest extremes (over 15 hours per week), while 38% of the American responses fell in this range.

The questions on money revealed that the surveyed Japanese university students received considerably more money from their parents and spent considerably more on luxury items than did the American students in this sample (see Tables 3A & B). Over half (57%) of the Japanese students indicated that they spent over \$101 (¥10,100) monthly on small luxury items, compared to 20% of the American students surveyed. When asked how much spending money they were presently receiving monthly from their parents, 50% of the American and 29% of the Japanese respondents said they received less than \$50 (¥5,000) monthly, while 8% of the American respondents and 39% of the Japanese marked one of the highest three categories, indicating that they received \$501 (¥50,100) or more.

TABLE 3A: Reported Amount of Money Spent on Luxury Items (Q40)

			Money in American Subjects (N = 25) Japanese Subjects (N = 28) \$ (¥)* n (%) n (%)

<\$50**	10	(40%)	5	(18.0%) (<¥5,000)
\$51~\$100 (¥5,100~¥10,000)	10	(40%)	7	(25.0%)
\$101~\$300 (¥10,100~¥30,000)	4	(16%)	15	(53.5%)
\$301~\$500 (¥30,100~¥50,000)	1	(4%)	1	(3.5%)

* Approximations of the mid values of the ranges were calculated.

** (at \$1 = ¥100)

$m = \$88$
 $sd = 87.97$

$m = \$144.64$

$sd = 86.93$

$t = -2.35$

($\chi^2 = 8.42$ $df = 3$)

TABLE 3B: Reported Amount of Money Received From Parents Monthly (Q41)

					Money in
					American
					Subjects ($N =$
					24)
					Japanese
					Subjects ($N =$
					28)
					\$ (¥)* n
					(%) n
					(%)
					<\$50** 12
					(50%) 8
					(29%)
					(<¥ 5,000)
\$51~\$100	2	(8%)	0	(0%)	

(¥5,100~¥10,000)				
\$101~\$500 (¥10,100~¥50,000)	8	(34%)	9	(32%)
\$501~\$1,000 (¥50,100~¥100,000)	1	(4%)	9	(32%)
\$1,001~\$2,000 (¥101,000~¥200,000)	0	(0%)	2	(7%)
>\$2,000 (>¥200,000)	1	(4%)	0	(0%)

* Approximations of the mid values of the ranges were calculated.

** (at \$1 = ¥100)

$sd = 408.06$	$m = \$233.33$	$m = \$451.79$	$sd = 407.97$
	$t = -1.97$	$(x^2 = 12.02 \quad df = 5)$	

All statistics are significant at $p < .05$, unless indicated as not significant (*ns*).

Although these variations may be attributable in part to differences in the cost of living in the two countries, it was felt that the differences were too large to be explained by this fact alone, especially since the Japanese sample was taken in a rural town. It may be that for many comfortably well-off middle-class Japanese parents who grew up in poverty in the ruins of World War II, a desire to spoil their children with things that they were not able to have in their childhood is becoming the norm in modern-day Japan. It would seem only natural for children to consume extra income for their leisure in a society where consumer goods and services are everywhere. Another possible explanation is that this difference may be a result of the difference in age and grade levels of the two samples, since there was a significantly lower mean age for the Japanese students. To fully explain this difference, however, more research is needed.

Global Outlook

For three of the four questions designed to assess closedness in global outlook (Q 19 - 22), the mean responses of the Japanese subjects were higher than those of the American respondents, indicating that the Japanese group as a whole had less concern for the outside world, a greater feeling

that foreigners are the cause of a lot of problems in their country, and a greater desire to know more about their own culture than other cultures. The only statement suggesting a closed outlook for which the responses of the two groups did not differ significantly was Q20: "My country is the best country in the world".

In contrast, for four of the five questions designed to assess openness in global outlook (Q. 23 - 27), *no* significant differences were found between the respondents from the two countries, indicating that the two groups had similar levels of desire to have a foreign friend and to know more about people and cultures outside their own country. The only statement suggesting an open global outlook for which there was a significant difference in the responses of the two groups was Q23: "Compared to others my age, I have a broader, more global attitude." The American students tended to evaluate themselves more highly in this area than did the Japanese students. Thus in response to the research question on whether the global outlooks of the Japanese and American samples differed, both "yes" and "no" answers were indicated. The responses of many Japanese students in this sample suggest a complex outlook combining closed attitudes, such as lack of concern for what goes on in the rest of the world and a tendency to blame foreigners for local problems, with open traits, including interest in knowing more about the outside world and a desire to see their country become more international and open to the outside world. Such apparent contradictions in attitudes were not revealed among the American students of this sample, who were more consistent in indicating little agreement with statements expressing closed attitudes and more agreement with expressions of openness. Further investigation is called for to explain the apparently contradictory attitudes of the Japanese subjects and test to see if these results will be reproduced with a larger and more representative sample.

Student Attitudes

The final research question, asking how attitudes about sex, family responsibilities, gender roles and the future differed between the Japanese and American samples, uncovered some points of interest.

Japanese responses to Question 28, which asked the students if they hoped to take care of their parents in their old age, supported White's (1993) assertion that this is a common expectation for Japanese youth (p. 61). The proportion of Japanese subjects who answered "agree totally" and "agree somewhat" (75%) was more than twice as high as the proportion of American subjects who selected these responses (34%) in this sample. The American students' answers were more evenly distributed, with 31% selecting one of the two negative responses, compared with only 4% of the Japanese students. (See Table 4A).

TABLE 4A: Desire to Care for Parents in Their Old Age (Q28).

A S (N Ja S (N A nt							merican subjects = 26) apanese subjects = 28) # greeme n
	(%)	<i>n</i>	(%)				
5	Agree totally	4	(15%)	11	(39%)		
4	Agree somewhat	5	(19%)	10	(36%)		
3	Can't say	9	(35%)	6	(21%)		
2	Disagree somewhat	8	(31%)	0	(0%)		
1	Disagree totally	0	(0%)	1	(4%)		
		<i>m</i> = 3.2		<i>m</i> = 4.07			
		<i>sd</i> = 1.04		<i>sd</i> = 0.96			
			<i>t</i> = -3.17				
			(χ^2 = 14.48	<i>df</i> = 4)			

White's (1993) findings on the prevalence of traditional gender roles in Japanese families (pp. 62 - 64) were also supported, with a lower correlation between expectations placed on fathers and mothers regarding consideration of family over work in responses by the Japanese students. No significant difference was found in the responses of the two groups to the statement that "a good mother considers her family above her job" (Q30); subjects from both countries answered overwhelmingly in the affirmative. However, when the same statement was made about fathers (Q29), there was a statistically significant difference, as tested by *t* value, in the responses of the two groups. 50% of the Japanese surveyed indicated that they agreed "very much" or "somewhat" with the statement that "a good father considers family above his job", compared with 81% of the American students, while 21% of the

Japanese students disagreed "somewhat" or "very much", compared with only 4% of the American students. There was a much higher correlation between the responses to these two statements by the Americans ($r = .71$) than there was between the two responses given by the Japanese subjects ($r = .59$), which seems to suggest that the Americans in this sample were less likely to have discriminatory attitudes towards their fathers and mothers in terms of family/job role expectations than the Japanese students, who tended to place mother and father under differing scrutiny.

Thus, the Japanese subjects revealed a slightly greater tendency to feel that a father could still be considered "a good parent" even if he didn't place importance on his family over his job, whereas the same could not be said of their feelings about where a "good" mother's priorities should lie. Furthermore, the Japanese students appeared more likely to want to care for their parents in old age than their American counterparts in this survey, which may indicate that in spite of rapidly changing economic conditions in Japan, traditional family values are being preserved here, especially in comparison to America.

TABLE 4B: Belief That Good Father Considers Family Above Job (Q29)

A S (N Ja S (N A nt					American subjects = 26) Japanese subjects = 28) # greeme n (%)
	n	(%)	n	(%)	
5	Agree totally	10	(39%)	5	(18%)
4	Agree somewhat	11	(42%)	9	(32%)
3	Can't say	4	(15%)	8	(29%)
2	Disagree somewhat	0	(0%)	4	(14%)
1	Disagree totally	1	(4%)	2	(7%)
		$m = 4.12$		$m = 3.4$	
		$sd = 1.31$		$sd = 1.14$	
		$t = 2.48$		$(\chi^2 = 7.50 \quad df = 4 \quad ns)$	

TABLE 4C: Belief That Good Mother Considers Family Above Job (Q30)

A S (N Ja S (N A nt						merican subjects = 26) apanese subjects = 28) # greeme n (%)

n (%)

5	Agree totally	10	(39.0%)	5	(18%)
4	Agree somewhat	11	(42.5%)	12	(43%)
3	Can't say	4	(15.0%)	3	(11%)
2	Disagree somewhat	0	(0.0%)	3	(11%)
1	Disagree totally	0	(0.0%)	1	(3%)

m = 4.27
sd = 1.29

m = 3.89
sd = 1.08

t = 1.47 (*ns*)
($\chi^2 = 4.3$ *df* = 4 *ns*)

All statistics are significant at $p < .05$, unless indicated not significant (*ns*).

Two other questions dealing with issues of sexuality and maturity revealed striking differences between the respondents from the two countries. For Question 31, which asked, "Is sex important to university students?" the American students gave overwhelmingly affirmative responses, with 85% answering "very high" or "quite high" and none answering "none" or "not very high". In contrast, only 11% of the Japanese students chose one of the two affirmative responses. Responses to the question asking students how closely they felt that sexuality was related to attaining maturity (Q 32), while being slightly more distributed, were similar to the above, with 69% of the American subjects responding in the two affirmative categories, as opposed to only 36% of the Japanese students. Responses to these questions, presented in Table 5, appear to affirm White's (1993) assessment that sexuality holds much greater importance for Americans and is more closely related to conceptions of maturity than for the Japanese (pp. 169 - 195).

TABLE 5A: Perceived Importance of Sex to University Students (Q31)

A S (N Ja S (N A nt						merican subjects = 26) panese subjects = 28) # greeme n (%)

<i>n</i>	(%)				
5	Very high	10	(38.5%)	2	(7%)
4	Quite high	12	(46.9%)	1	(4%)
3	Can't say	4	(15.5%)	16	(57%)
2	Quite low	0	(0.0%)	6	(21%)
1	Very low	0	(0.0%)	3	(11%)

m = 4.23
sd = 0.70

m = 2.80
sd = 0.95

t = 6.37
($\chi^2 = 30.81$ *df* = 4)

TABLE 5B: Perceived Relationship of Sexuality and Maturity (Q32)

A S (N Ja S (N A nt						merican subjects = 26) panese subjects = 28) # greeme n

(%)	<i>n</i>		(%)		
5	Very high	1	(4%)	3	(11%)
4	Quite high	17	(65%)	7	(25%)
3	Can't say	3	(12%)	6	(21%)

2	Quite low	5	(19%)	10	(36%)
1	Very low	0	(0%)	2	(7%)

$m = 3.5$
 $sd = 0.84$

$m = 2.96$
 $sd = 1.15$

$t = 2.04$ ($\chi^2 = 9.77$ $df = 4$)

All statistics are significant at $p < .05$, unless indicated not significant (*ns*).

Perhaps these differences can be partly explained by different emphasis nurtured from childhood through the two school systems. Social activities in American schools tend to encourage singling out and awarding the most popular and attractive students such as Homecoming Queens, cheerleaders and football heroes. American schools also encourage dating and male-female couples early with such events as school dances and proms, which are often limited to coupled pairs. In contrast, Japanese schools put emphasis on large group activities like school trips and sports meets with participation by all students (Conduit & Conduit, 1996). The attitudes expressed by the university students of both samples, while not generalizable at this point, have provided a good starting point for constructing hypothetical data for future research.

In the write-in section of the survey, Question 42 asked the students to list what they felt were the three most important qualities of a university teacher. Out of a total of 64 American responses, the largest number was "knowledge/expertise of subject" ($n = 10$), followed by "approachability" ($n = 6$), "ability to communicate" ($n = 5$), "ability to teach" ($n = 5$), "open mindedness" ($n = 4$), "enthusiasm" ($n = 3$), and "respectability" ($n = 3$). The 46 Japanese student responses were much more dispersed, the highest number of similar responses being 4, but included many words touching on the ability to communicate with students, such as "to raise students' interest" ($n = 3$), "easy to understand" ($n = 3$), and "kindness" ($n = 2$). Other qualities mentioned by more than one student included "knowledge of subject" ($n = 4$), "teaching ability" ($n = 3$), and "research" ($n = 3$). Thus, for the Japanese students, it was important for teachers to have knowledge of their field and teaching ability, but not more important than interpersonal qualities such as kindness and sociability. Similarly, White's (1993) survey found that, "Most Japanese children said that a good teacher had two important qualities: they keep high standards in school work and they were 'like a friend'" (p. 90).

Question 43 asked the subjects to name "the kinds of things that youths of today dream about in your country". Out of 34 American responses (8 students provided two responses), there was a fairly strong consensus that American youth today dream of "achieving success" ($n = 14$). Americans also listed "being happy" ($n = 3$), "sex" ($n = 3$), "balance of work/family" ($n = 2$), and "adventure" ($n = 2$). In

contrast, one fourth of the Japanese respondents left their answer sheet blank for this question ($n = 7$). However, like the American students, many of the 21 Japanese who did respond chose success-related words, but in much fewer numbers ($n = 7$). Other Japanese responses varied: "to become a rich person" ($n = 4$), "peace" ($n = 3$), "Youths have no dreams at all" ($n = 2$), "leaving Japan" ($n = 1$).

When asked if they themselves had a dream (Question 33), the two groups of students diverged in much the same way. Although a large majority of the students from both countries responded affirmatively, the proportions were strikingly different, with 100% of the American subjects answering "yes", but only 75% of the Japanese respondents saying they had a dream. An item concerning the nature of their dream (Question 44) elicited more specific responses from the Japanese respondents than from the Americans, perhaps due in part to differing interpretations of the word "dream." American responses tended to be more general and covered a broader scope; "financially comfortable" ($n = 3$), "travel" ($n = 2$), "peace of mind" ($n = 2$), "to love my job" ($n = 1$), and "love and creativity" ($n = 1$) were among the answers received. The 16 Japanese responses were more specific and simple, with the majority of students referring to employment goals ($n = 10$): "to be a teacher" ($n = 4$), "to go abroad" ($n = 4$), "to be a disk jockey" ($n = 1$), "to become a stewardess" ($n = 1$).

The next write-in questions (Q45 - 47) were meant to elicit information on problems concerning teenagers and society. Asked to name "the three biggest problems of teenagers in your country for parents/society," Americans most frequently responded by citing "drugs" ($n = 13$), "sex" ($n = 7$) [also sex-related: "pregnancy" ($n = 8$) and "AIDS" ($n = 5$)], and "violence" ($n = 11$). Other problems mentioned among the 71 responses from the American subjects included "apathy" ($n = 3$), "drinking" ($n = 3$), "hopelessness" ($n = 2$), and "education" ($n = 2$). The problems mentioned most often in the 61 Japanese responses were "bullying" ($n = 13$) [and resulting "suicides" ($n = 9$)], "educational problems" ($n = 7$), and "drugs" ($n = 6$). Japanese also mentioned "worry about future" ($n = 5$), "sex crimes" ($n = 4$), "immoral acts" ($n = 4$), and "violence" ($n = 2$).

Question 46 asked the respondents to "describe a teenager in your country." Of the 32 American responses, the largest number who gave the same response apparently felt this question was unanswerable and wrote "impossible to define a teenager" ($n=7$). Descriptors written by American respondents included "confused" ($n = 5$), "sullen" ($n = 5$), "apathetic" ($n = 2$), "rebellious" ($n = 2$), and "immature" ($n = 2$). All of the American responses mentioned negative characteristics. In contrast, the 16 Japanese responses were more varied, with nearly half providing positive responses ($n = 7$) such as "having much ability to act," "They have a dream," and "very outgoing."

In answer to the question "What is the biggest cause of pressure for youths in your country?", most

of the 25 Japanese responses were related to education, for example, "high education" ($n = 5$), "being forced to study" ($n = 4$), "university entrance exams" ($n = 3$), "parents" ($n = 3$), "future job" ($n = 4$), and "grades" ($n = 2$). There was more variety in the 24 American responses, which included "pressure to conform/peer pressure" ($n = 6$), "avoiding crime/drugs" ($n = 4$), and "identity" ($n = 3$).

Question 48 asked the subjects to list "3 keywords to describe university students' lives". A great deal of agreement appeared in the 70 Japanese responses, with the strongest consensus focusing on "study" ($n = 16$), "freedom" ($n = 15$), and "play" or other things related to fun, such as "clubs," "drinking," "music," "friendship," and "enjoyment"] ($n = 10$). Other answers included "part-time job" ($n = 4$), "independence" ($n = 3$), "responsibility" ($n = 3$), and "experiences" ($n = 3$). In contrast, the 63 American responses included more stress-related terms such as "busy" ($n = 8$), "stressful" ($n = 5$), "hectic" ($n = 4$), "exhausting" ($n = 2$), "study" ($n = 4$), and "work" ($n = 3$). Enjoyment-related keywords were used by Americans in greater variety but fewer numbers ($n = 11$). They include "fun" ($n = 2$), "party" ($n = 2$) and "interesting" ($n = 2$), . Two American subjects mentioned "books" ($n = 2$), while each of the following terms were mentioned once: "free," "discussion", "transitional", "coffee", "humorless", "drug-induced" and "competitive."

An item asking students to describe themselves in terms of their "virtues, attributes, personality and dreams" brought positive assessments in all of the 17 responses provided by American subjects, including "honest" ($n=5$), "intelligent" ($n = 4$), "open-minded" ($n = 1$) and "ambitious" ($n = 1$). Of the 17 Japanese responses, however, nearly half ($n = 8$) were negative, including "a rather odd person", "not good at relating to others", "a passive shy guy", and "inner directed". The positive responses were fewer, and included assessments such as "I like human beings", "cheerful" and "free from bias" ($n = 1$ each).

Finally, the subjects were asked how they felt about the Japan/U.S. relationship. The 24 Japanese responses indicated a full range of opinions, including "very good" ($n = 2$), "good" ($n = 1$), "not bad" ($n = 1$), and "not good" ($n = 1$). Some Japanese subjects gave answers that displayed a certain awareness, such as, "It is only an economic relationship" ($n = 2$), "Difficult, but important" ($n = 1$), "Japan carries favor with U.S.A. too much" ($n = 1$), and "Lots of misunderstandings" ($n=1$). Of the 21 American responses, however, one third ($n = 7$) noted that the subject didn't know much about Japan or hadn't thought about it. Five Americans left the space blank. Other American answers included, "Japanese try too hard to be like Americans" ($n = 1$), "I hope we can be friends" ($n = 1$), "The U.S.A. must learn more about Japan" ($n = 1$), and "Both should be less ethnocentric" ($n = 1$).

CONCLUSION Although indicating that they were faced with severe social problems, including violence, drug use and sex-related problems such as teenage pregnancy and AIDS, the American

students of this survey expressed more optimism about their future than did their Japanese counterparts. The American respondents tended to give positive evaluations of their personal qualities, and 100% of them reported having a dream of some sort. The Japanese youths in this study indicated that they were faced with problems of bullying and suicide in schools, competition for educational achievement, rising violence and drug use. In spite of these problems, many Japanese youths surveyed here, like the Americans, dreamt of becoming rich and successful. What was different between the two cultural groups concerning their dreams, however, was the way in which they expressed themselves, with Japanese students giving very concrete, specific career-based dreams and Americans expressing more vague, idealistic hopes.

In terms of their outlook on the world, the American students in the survey tended to consistently express attitudes of openness, in contrast to the Japanese subjects, whose responses appeared to be contradictory, combining openness to the outside world on the one hand, with a lack of concern for the world and a negative attitude towards foreigners that was thought to indicate closedness on the other.

The two groups also differed in attitudes towards sex and the family, with the American respondents placing more importance on sex and associating it with maturity more than the Japanese in the survey. The Japanese subjects, on the other hand, expressed more of a desire to care for their parents in their old age, and also appeared to be more influenced by traditional gender roles.

Students of both countries suffered from similar youth problems and anxieties of their societies such as education, sex, violence, drugs, and their future jobs. While students of both countries placed importance on their educations, the ways in which they spent their study and leisure time differed. The American university students in this sample spent more time doing homework and using computers for fun, and they also spent less time watching TV than did the Japanese respondents. The American university students' description of their lifestyle suggested it was fast-paced and busy, with a stressful schedule of study. They appeared to be less relaxed and less free than the Japanese students surveyed. University life for the Japanese respondents was characterized not only by long hours spent in classrooms, but also by freedom, friendships and part-time jobs. The Japanese students apparently felt less pressure than the American students, and they spent more time engaged in leisure-time activity or working at part-time jobs.

FOUNDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This exploratory study suggests many areas of difference between Japanese and American university students that are felt to be worthy of more thorough investigation. At the same time, it has

several shortcomings which render generalizations about the above findings unreliable. One of the major limitations is the small sampling size and the way subjects were selected at the convenience of the researcher. To ensure reliability in a follow-up study, consideration would have to be given to attaining greater balance in the two samplings in terms of students' ages, school standings and university quality. It would also be important to obtain a considerably larger number of subjects who would be randomly selected among the target population in each country.

Furthermore, it would be necessary to revise the survey instrument. Problems with the questionnaire construction became apparent throughout the process of evaluation, with some of the response choices being too narrowly drawn, resulting in a bunching up of responses at the extremes. By simply increasing the range of possible responses for some questions, greater reliability could be established.

Further exploration is especially called for concerning the apparent contradictions in the Japanese answers to the global outlook questions, which seemed to indicate both openness to the outside world and, at the same time, an unconcern with the rest of the world. The number and type of questions may need to be increased, and the exact meaning of the responses clarified in this section to further examine this question.

Moreover, to give a better picture of university student lifestyles in both countries, examination of the students' entire study environment, including home, school and other contexts, is called for in terms of time allocation and content of activity during their university years.

It was also felt that question categories could be extended to include a greater variety of topics. Towards the completion of this exploratory study, as part of the classroom project in Japan, students were asked to make improvements and additions to the questionnaire items. The following are some of the questions generated during the student discussions on how to expand the scope of the questionnaire: Can you buy illegal drugs easily? Have you ever used illegal drugs? Have you ever directly witnessed violence (shooting, stabbing, violent fist fighting, rape, molestation, etc.)? Have you ever been a victim of violence? Do you believe in a religion? Do you believe in God? What kinds of programs do you usually watch on TV? Have you ever suffered bullying in school? How many hours do you sleep per day? Do you like (= are you proud of) your birthplace? Are you having an intimate relationship with someone right now? How do you spend your spare time? Are your parents divorced? How much time did you spend (during your third year of high school) talking with your parents daily? Whom do you live with? Were you able to attend the university of your first choice?

These students were eager to explore the differences between their experiences and those of university students in America. It is hoped that this study will serve as a foundation for further

investigation and mutual understanding.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to sincerely thank all the participating subjects. Special appreciation goes out to University of Washington Professors James Clowes, Kari Tupper and Phillip Thurtle for their kind assistance and collaboration in the survey. Heartfelt appreciation also goes out to the three readers and Mary Noguchi for their generous guidance and patient advice in bringing this paper to a publishable level.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire

(An asterisk [*] indicates that a 5-point Likert Scale was used.)

1. How old are you? (Write in)
2. What year student are you now?
Freshman, Sophomore, Jr, Sr, MA candidate, Ph.D. Candidate, Other (Write in)
3. Indicate your sex. Male, Female.

Compared to your peers, rate yourself on degree of applicability (1. Very high, 2. Quite high, 3. I can't say either way, 4. Not very high, 5. None at all) to questions 4 through 18:

4. Your ability to concentrate*
5. Your ability to think abstractly*
6. Your ability to make decisions*
7. Your ability to think for yourself*
8. Your ability to act on what you think*
9. Your ability to express yourself well in words*
10. Your ability to follow directions given by a superior*
11. Your ability to do detailed exact work*
12. The depth of your consciousness or awareness*
13. Your maturity *
14. Your self esteem or personal confidence*
15. Your ability to think for yourself*
16. Your degree of leadership ability*
17. Your degree of creativity*
18. Your ability to cooperate well within a group*

For questions 19 through 27, rate yourself (1. I agree very much, 2. I agree somewhat, 3. I can't say either way, 4. I do not totally agree, 5. I do not agree at all.)

19. Right now, in my life, I'm really not very concerned about what goes on in the rest of the world.*
20. My country is the best country in the world.*
21. I think I should concentrate more on knowing about my own culture than that of others.*
22. Foreigners are the cause of a lot of problems in my country.*
23. Compared to others my age, I have a broader, more global attitude.*
24. My country should open its doors more to the outside world.*

25. I have wanted to make friends with a foreigner in my country.*
26. I want to know more about people/cultures outside my country.*
27. I think my country needs to be more international than it is today.*

For questions 28 through 32, indicate your degree of agreement on the following 5-point scale:
(1. Very much, 2. Somewhat, 3. I can't say either way, 4. Not very much, 5. Not at all.)

28. Do you hope to take care of your parents in their old age *
29. Do you agree that a good father considers family above his job?*
30. Do you agree that a good mother considers family above her job?*
31. Is sex important to university students?*
32. How closely is "sexuality" related to attaining maturity?*

33. Do you have a dream? YES ___ NO ___
34. Now (at university) how many hours do you spend in classes weekly?
(< 3 hrs. 3 ~ 6 hrs. 6+~9 hrs. 9+~12 hrs. 12+~15 hrs. 15+~18 > 18 hrs.)
35. How many hours weekly do you spend on doing homework now?
(< 1 hr. 1~2 hrs. 2+~4 hrs. > 4 hrs.)

36. How much time do you spend weekly watching television? (Hours: 1~3 4~9 10~15
16~20 21+)
37. How much time do you spend per week on the computer (non homework)? (1~10 Hours)
38. How much time do you spend weekly reading for pleasure? (1 ~ 20+ Hours)
39. How much time do you spend weekly reading for homework?
(Hours: 1~2 3 ~4 5 ~6 7~10 11~13 4~19 20+)
40. How much do you spend monthly on small items: clothes, leisure books, magazines, accessories,
CDs, tapes, snacks, stationery goods, luxuries?
< ¥5,000 ¥5,100~¥10,000 ¥10,100~¥30,000 ¥30,100~¥50,000
< \$50 \$51.~\$100. \$101.~\$300. \$301.~\$500.
41. How much money do you receive from your parents monthly?
< ¥5,000 ¥5,100~10,000 ¥10,100~50,000 ¥50,100~100,000 ¥101,000~200,000 >¥200,000
< \$50 \$51.~\$100. \$101.~\$500. \$501.~\$1,000. \$1,001.~\$2,000. >\$2,000.

Write-in Questions:

42. What do you think are the 3 most important qualities of a university teacher?
43. What are the kinds of things that youths of today dream about in your country?
44. If you have a dream, what is it?
45. What do you think are the three biggest problems of teenagers in your country for parents/society?
46. Describe a teenager in your country.
47. What do you think is the biggest cause of pressure for youths in your country?
48. Write 3 keywords to describe university students' lives.
49. Describe yourself in terms of virtues, attributes, personality, dreams, etc.
50. How do you feel about the Japan/USA relationship?