

JAPAN LABOR BULLETIN

ISSUED BY THE JAPAN INSTITUTE OF LABOUR

Vol.33 No.03

March 1994

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General Survey

The 1993 White Paper on Women

Chief Cabinet Secretary submitted to a Cabinet meeting the 1993 white paper on women titled "The Current State of Women and Measures and Policies." The annual report is compiled by the government to show the present situation of women as well as government measures and policies to improve their status. In the annual report, the seventh of its kind since its first publication in 1978, the government points out the fact that women are tending to put off marriage until their later years and are having fewer children. Thus, the report stresses the need for an environment in which women can raise children with ease, through such measures as the introduction of childcare leave. The report consists of three major parts: first, women and the family, second, women's attitudes, and third, women's participation in public activities. In the first "women and the family" section, the report notes that in 1992 the average age at the time of marriage was 26 for females, the highest age ever since the end of WWII. The rate of those remaining single by age rose dramatically-to 85 percent for women in the 20-24 age group (69.2% for 1975), 40.2 percent for those in the 25-29 age group (20.9%) and 13.9 percent for those in the 30-34 age group (7.0%). As a result, the fertility rate, which represents the number of children a woman bears in her lifetime, was 1.50 in 1992, down 0.03 from the year before.

Regarding divorce, 44.6 percent agreed with the statement that "when one finds one's partner incompatible after marriage, one can divorce him or her", while 43.5 percent disagreed. The percentage of those opposing the statement dropped by 15.8 percent points over that of a decade ago. On domestic duties, 63.4 percent of wives care for infants, with the percentage of husbands tending to childcare tasks remaining small. In addition, 84 percent of wives care for bed-ridden elderly parents and 80 percent of senior citizens aged over 65 living alone are women, making it clear that the aging population is a far more serious problem for females.

Over half of both men and women answered that the only area where they feel there is gender equality is in education. In other fields, especially in politics, employment and the legal structure, both sexes agreed that "men still have an advantage". This is dealt with in the "women's awareness" section of the report.

In politics, women are steadily integrating themselves into central and local government bodies. The number of female lawmakers in both Houses of the Diet was 25 in 1975 but increased to 53 in 1993. The number of female local assembly members rose from 1,447 in

1985 to 2,158 in 1992. Particularly noteworthy in 1993, the nation witnessed the first female Lower House Speaker in the history of the Japanese constitutional government. Also, three women were appointed to posts in the Cabinet led by Prime Minister Morihiro Hosokawa. Furthermore, a woman was tapped as a Supreme Court Justice. The percentage of women members of the nation's various councils gradually rose from 2.4 percent in 1975 to 10 percent in 1993. However, further efforts should be made to achieve a government goal of raising the figure to 15 percent by the end of 1995.

Finally, the annual report calls on the government to steadily carry out a New Domestic Action Program, formulated in May 1991, which sets forth as its goal the "formation of a society of male and female joint participation." It also asks firms and families for cooperation in lightening women's burden of childrearing and household chores.

Mrs. H. Takahashi Appointed as Supreme Court Justice

On January 13, Prime Minister Morihiro Hosokawa announced that Mrs. Hisako Takahashi, former director of the Ministry of Labour's Women's and Young Workers' Bureau, will be the first woman to be appointed as a Supreme Court Justice. Mrs. Takahashi, born in 1927, graduated from the Tokyo University's Department of Economics. In 1953, she joined the Ministry of Labour, where she served as director of the Women's Labor Section, director of the Cabinet Counselor for Women's Affairs and director-general of Women's and Young Workers' Bureau until she left in 1982. As director-general of the Bureau, Mrs. Takahashi worked on the basic framework of the EEOL and did much to create an environment for working women. Since October 1993 she has headed the 21st Century Job-Promotion Institute.

Known for her broad-based activity involving women's issues in developing nations, Mrs. Takahashi was tapped for Supreme Court Justice for her experience and perspective. She holds the view that women should integrate themselves into various fields, and participate in policy decision-making. She was bewildered when informed of the appointment. "I was very surprised," she said. But she decided to accept the post, thinking that "this is an opportunity that must not be missed for the sake of myself as well as women as a whole." She expresses the wish to reflect her knowledge as an administrator and her experience as a woman so that she can hand down decisions which satisfy the nation according to the exercise of her conscience.

Since its inception, the Hosokawa administration has taken female members into the

Cabinet. Ms. Takako Doi, former chair-woman of the Social Democratic Party of Japan, is the first woman to be named Speaker of the Lower House in the history of the country's constitutional government. In addition, Prime Minister Hosokawa has appointed three female members to Cabinet posts, the largest number since WWII, thus appealing the freshness of his Cabinet to the nation. Minister of Education Ryoko Akamatsu, Director-General of the Economic Planning Agency, Manae Kubota and Director-General of the Environment Agency, Wakako Hironaka are all women. Mrs. Takahashi's appointment as a Supreme Court Justice completes Prime Minister Hosokawa's line of female appointments to each of the legislative and executive branches of government as well as to the judiciary.

Labor-Management Relations

Basic Survey on Labour Unions

In June 1993, the estimated unionization rate stood at 24.2 percent, down 0.2 percent point from the year before, according to the 1993 Basic Survey on Labour Unions released at the end of December 1993 by the Ministry of Labour. The number of union members rose by 123,000 to 12.663 million, representing the fourth straight yearly climb. However, the number of employed workers also increased by 940,000 to 52.33 million. Thus, the unionization of employed workers did not keep pace with the increase in employees. The unionization rate has continued to fall for the 18th consecutive year since 1975.

The Basic Survey is designed to clarify the size of enterprises which have labor unions and the way upper-echelon unions are organized. The unionization rate denotes the percentage of union members of all employed workers. Regarding strength by national center, Rengo (Japanese Trade Union Confederation) has a membership of 7,819,000, accounting for 61.7 percent of total union members. Furthermore, Zenroren (National Confederation of Trade Unions) has 856,000 members and Zenrokyo (National Trade Union Council) 300,000 members. What is more, industrial unions which are not affiliated with Rengo, Zenroren and Zenrokyo, have 2,818,000 members and labor unions which are not under the umbrella of any upper-echelon organizations, 1,126,000. By size of industrial organization, Jichiro (All Japan Prefectural and Municipal Workers' Union) is largest, at 1,005,000 members, followed by Jidoshasoren (Confederation of Japan Automobile Workers' Unions) with 782,000, Denki-rengo (Japanese Electrical Electronic & Information Unions) with 751,000, Zenkensoren with 567,000 and Zensendomei (The Japanese Federation of Textile, Garment, Chemical, Mercantile, Food and Allied Industries Workers' Unions) with 549,000.

By industry, the number of union members was largest in manufacturing with 4.028

million, or two-thirds of the total, followed by 1.93 million in services, 1.652 million in transport and communication and 1.327 million in the public sector. Compared with the figures for the year before, the number of union members grew in such sectors as construction, wholesale and retail trades and food and beverages, services and electricity gas, heat supply and water services. On the other hand, it dropped in finance and insurance, real estate, agriculture, forestry and fisheries.

The unionization rate was high in electricity, gas, heating and water services, followed by the public sector, finance and insurance, real estate and transport and communication. However, it remained low at below 20 percent in agriculture, forestry, fisheries, wholesale and retail trades, food and beverages, services and construction. Thus the unionization rate varied to a great extent among industries.

By the size of company, the unionization rate rose for firms with 1,000 and more employees, while it declined for those with 100-999 employees. By sex, 9.013 million males (28.1%) and 3.574 million females (17.6%) were union members. The recent unionization rate in foreign countries was 15.8 percent in the U.S. (1992), 43.9 percent in Britain (1990), 42 percent in Germany (1991) and 19.8 percent in South Korea.

Public Policy

Churoi's First Order Issued Regarding Unfair Labor Practice Complaints

On December 24, 1993, Churoi (Central Labor Relations Commission) issued orders in regard to cases where Hokkaido Railway Co. (JR Hokkaido) and West Japan Railway Co. (JR West) did not re-hire union members of Kokuro (National Rail Workers' Union). The Commission judged that JR Hokkaido "committed unfair labor practices, at least in part, against Kokuro members" during the process of employment by JR Hokkaido. Thus, it ordered the firm and the Japan Railway Freight Co. to "select and re-employ in a fair manner" a quota of those who were turned down (no specific figure available). Regarding the JR West case, the Commission judged that unfair labor practices occurred in the company's decision not to re-employ two Kokuro members.

The history of failing to re-hire union members, particularly those of Kokuro and Doro (Nihon National Railway Motive Power Union), dates to well before the transition from the old Japanese National Railways (JNR) to the new JR in April 1987. In the winter of 1986 the staff of the new JR were selected from among JNR workers for which the JR Inauguration Committee was legally responsible. In actuality, however, the JR Inauguration Committee

used a list of workers to be employed, which the defunct JNR drew up. The Commission focused on whether the companies discriminated against Kokuro and Doro members in making up JNR's list of prospective workers.

Individual JR firms (six regional firms and one freight company) claimed that "even though unfair labor practices were committed in making a list of prospective JR employees, JR, a different corporation from the JNR, was not responsible for the action." They insisted on this based on interpretation of the text of the JNR Reform Law (JRL). On the other hand, Churoi, in its orders issued, stated, that, first, JNR was an auxiliary organ which hired the staff of the JR Inauguration Committee; and second, that the JRL stipulates that the JR, or successor to the old-JNR, is responsible to members of the JR Inauguration Committee. Thus, the Commission clearly recognized that JR is responsible for unfair labor practices committed in the making of the list of JR workers to be employed. The Commission hence judged that JR West committed unfair labor practices, while JR Hokkaido did so "in part" regarding former Kokuro members.

Kokuro, victim of discriminatory hiring, plans to file a suit in the JR West case. Concerning the JR Hokkaido case, it makes an issue of the fact that the Local Labor Relations Commission ordered it to provide relief to all the 1,704 union members, while Churoi zeroed in on those who are to be remedied. Churoi ordered selection and hiring of a quota of workers from among the 451 who, following the division and privatization of JNR, were transferred to the JNR Liquidation Corporation to be assisted in their efforts to find re-employment and who were dismissed three years later in April 1990. Kokuro must decide by March 24 whether it will file an action. Meanwhile, on January 21, JR filed a lawsuit against Churoi's judgment. The JR group is unified in remaining firm on its claim that it is not responsible for the actions. Prior to JR's action, both ministers of transport and labor asked the company's labor and management to discuss and solve the matter. However, a good chance for discussions are not seen at the present time.

Women's & Young Workers' Problems: Council Releases Interim Report

On January 24, the Ministry of Labour compiled draft revisions to guidelines for the Equal Employment Opportunity Law (EEOL) and relaxation of protective measures of the Labour Standards Law (LSL) and submitted the proposal to the Women's and Young Workers' Problems Council for deliberation.

The Council's Women's Division since April 1993 had been deliberating on an overhaul of

the two Laws in order to expand job opportunities for women. Also, it had been studying the need for an urgent response to notable activities of recruitment by sex, especially regarding discrimination against female students in their job-hunting activities during the severe economic recession.

In Japan, the 1911 Factory Law, predecessor of the LSL, stipulated protective measures for women. The intent was to protect women, the "weaker sex," and also their "maternity" in the context of poor working conditions for women workers in textile factories.

In recent years, the Ministry of Labour has been moving to abolish provisions for protective measures for women, with the exception of maternity protection measures. It has seen restrictions on overtime and late-night work as limiting the range of job opportunities for women by encouraging gender discrimination. However, labor organizations and experts on women's labor strongly oppose easing those rules because it will "only worsen their working conditions." The EEOL, enacted eight years ago, stipulates guidelines for avoiding discrimination against women in all stages of the employment process, including recruitment and hiring, training and promotion. However, the lack of penalties for violations makes it difficult for the weakly-worded Law to have any practical effect.

The draft revisions, drawn up by the Ministry in response to the interim report submitted by the Women's Division on January 10, includes two major specific details. First is a relaxation of protective measures in job categories which are highly public-oriented and are substantiated in terms of safety, hygiene and welfare and which allow women to work more overtime and to work late at night. Second is a ban on setting separate quotas on female and male recruits and sending job application letters only to men or holding job seminars only for men.

Currently, workers engaged in 16 professional job categories such as doctors, lawyers, systems engineers, newspaper reporters and editors as well as supervisors, are excluded from protective overtime and night-work regulations. Under the draft revisions, female patent lawyers and social insurance clerks would also be added to the list of jobs that allow overtime and night work, in addition to workers engaged in handling airport passengers and firefighting. Presently, the protective night-work and overtime measures are not applied to workers engaged in entertainment services or to stewardesses.

The Ministry hopes to implement the revisions to the guidelines and regulations on April 1 after it receives the opinions of both the Central Employment Council and the Central Labor Standards Council.

Gov't to Launch Employment-Countermeasures

The Japanese economy has been mired in the longest and severest slump since WWII, fueling ever-growing anxiety over employment. To dispel such anxiety, the government decided at its January 6 Cabinet meeting to establish an "emergency employment countermeasures headquarters." The soon-to-be created headquarters, led by Prime Minister Hosokawa, consists of all the Cabinet members, with the exception of Minister of Justice Mikazuki. Deputy Prime Minister and Foreign Minister Tsutomu Hata will serve as the deputy head, and five Cabinet members, including Minister of Labor Chikara Sakaguchi, Minister of Finance Fujii and MITI Minister Kumagai, will act as assistant heads. They plan to tackle employment issues flexibly in line with both economic and industrial policies.

Establishment of the headquarters grew out of discussions held at the Central Committee of Rengo (Japanese Trade Union Confederation). Rengo itself made it clear that it will launch its own employment countermeasures headquarters to tackle employment issues earnestly. Prime Minister Hosokawa responded to the move and promised to create the headquarters when he met with Rengo Chairman Akira Yamagishi at the end of 1993.

On the same day, Prime Minister Hosokawa and other members gathered for the first round of talks where he noted "I hope that you will go all out to assure employment from your own positions and use influence for the stability of national life." Expounding on the "Total Program of Employment Assistance" released at the year's end, Minister of Labour Sakaguchi said that "the government's all-out effort to tackle employment issues is essential," adding that business recovery is needed for the improvement of the employment situation.

On January 11, vice-ministers of five ministries and agencies associated with assistant heads invited representatives of Rengo, including Secretary General Washio, to the Prime Minister's Official Residence for a meeting. Washio asked them to further strengthen the Ministry of Labour's measures to deal with employment and to actively create jobs with regional promotion as an axis. He also proposed that mid-and long-term numerical targets be set to reduce the unemployment rate which is now close to 3 percent.

Explaining Rengo's plan to pull out of the recession, Washio stressed the need for prediction of attainable economic growth and urged the government to make large-scale tax cuts and a drastic increase in public-works investment.

Furthermore, Washio proposed that employment and economic measures be implemented

industrially to achieve practical results, calling on related ministries and agencies to launch a forum of consultations with Rengo-affiliated industrial organizations.

Job indices are serious enough to warrant growing anxiety over employment. The effective ratio of job openings to job applicants has continued to decline since October 1992 when it dropped below 1.0. The ratio represents the percentage of job offers to job seekers at public employment security offices across the nation. A ratio of over 1.0 indicates a worker shortage, while that below 1.0, a worker surplus.

The rate of the totally unemployed rose for the fourth month in a row to 2.9% in December 1993. It increased 0.3 point over the previous month to 3.1 percent for women. This figure was the highest since the Ministry began compiling statistics in 1953.

Special Topic

Japanese View of Self - Is it Unique?

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Whereas Americans start speeches by cracking jokes, the Japanese do so by apologizing for their lack of knowledge and their inability to live up to the expectations of the audience.

We often hear discussion of this kind of difference in behavior between Japanese and Americans. Furthermore, we may safely say that there is a considerable recognition that on certain occasions these differences tend to produce misunderstandings in communications and serious conflicts between people of different cultures on a general basis, as well as between those in specific types of groups and organizations. However, simply citing behavioral differences in different cultures does not lead to a full understanding between people who are alienated from each other's cultural backgrounds. Nor is it easy to establish ways of resolving conflicts. A theoretical framework to elucidate the differences in feelings, thinking and behavior is necessary.

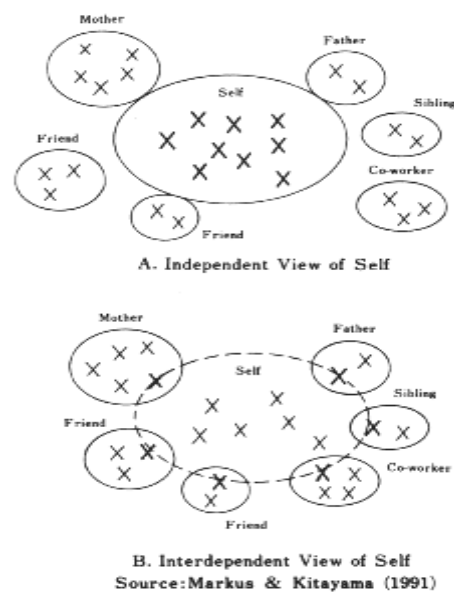
Independent View of the Self versus Interdependent View of the Self

Recent social psychology focuses as one approach, on how people see the "self". The seminal approach has been made by Markus and Kitayama (1991). They accept the view that people perceive the self as physically distinct and separate from others and continuous across time. They thus recognize the universal aspect of the self-people present in their personality. Yet despite this viewpoint, they also claim that how the self is seen depends to a large extent on people's view of values ingrained in each other's culture.

They have taken as their focus the independent (Western-style) view of the self and the interdependent (Oriental-style) view of the self. Like the Americans those who carry the independent view of the self stress the view that humans are independent individuals. They see themselves as separate from others, with his or her cognition, emotion and behavior being unified in a meaningful fashion regardless of the others. The independent view of the self is shown in Fig. 1-A, in which a large oval represents the self and small circles, the others. The Letter X denotes a variety of attributes of the self and the others, the bold X being of the most importance to self-definition. In short, X is an attribute showing the most essential aspect he or she has in his or her personality and in determining his or her behavior. It is clear from this that even in other people, like parents, to which he or she is most closely related, the self is divorced from other people and the central part of the self is seen within the self. Even those who view the self in this way pay due heed to others' actions and evaluations but only as sources of information to confirm their internal self. From this perspective, Americans who crack jokes in opening their speeches can be considered expressing in public that they are independent individuals. This satisfies the Americans themselves and their audience as well.

In contrast, many people from traditional Oriental cultures, including that of Japanese culture, present an interdependent view of the self. They see the self as being part of a network of social relations in which they live, stressing the view that humans are seen inside their essential connections with other people. The self, as shown in Fig.1-B, overlaps with other people, with the border line between the two being obscure (represented by the dotted line). What is more, as depicted by the bold X in the overlapped portion of the self and other people, the self in specific social relations takes on significance. With this psychological base the person's view is that "I am

Fig.1 Conceptual representations of the self.



polite before the teacher" rather than that "I am polite." In addition, the central aspects of the self (X) hinge on the point of contact with others. Some of these attributes are not related to other people and are not of much importance.

Those who carry the interdependent view of the self are the same as those with the independent view of the self in that they see others as important sources of social comparison. However, they view others as inseparable from the situation, to which the self is connected. Accordingly, they understand internal attributes, such as ability, opinions, judgment and character as unique to the situation.

In this sense, when they begin their speech with words of apology, by stating that "they are not perfect and need to make constant, strenuous efforts to enlighten themselves", the Japanese are trying to form their connectedness with the audience based on a sympathetic understanding.

The View of the Self and Cognition

Recent studies are characterized not only by a mere contrast between the abovementioned differences in view of the self but also by an attempt to examine the effects they have on people's cognition, emotion and motivation.

Take Cousins' studies, for instance. In his 1989 research, Cousins subjected male and female college students both in Japan and the U.S. to a method called the Twenty Statements Test to determine how they view their self. In the Test, the subject repeated a simple question "Who am I?" twenty times. What is unique about this research, however, is the fact that a set of 20 different questions were prepared to let the subject describe the self, or "me" in such specific situations as "me at home," "me with friends" and "me at school." In this Test, the subject answered such questions as "I'm ____ at home."

Comparison of the results from two different methods revealed interesting differences (See Table 1). In the ordinary Twenty Statements Test, American students tended to describe the self in words representing internal attributes such as "I am honest", while their Japanese counterparts tended to refer to their social role and activity such as "I am a student at ____ university", "I do private tutorial past-time job" and "I like science fiction".

In the contextualized format-type test, however, Japanese students tended to describe the self by pure attribute. There was little difference between Japan and the U.S. in the proportion of those who referred to social role and activity in describing the self. The results may be predicted from the aforementioned differences in the view of the self.

In his *Kanjinshugi no Shakai-Nihon* (1982), Hamaguchi described the essential characteristic of the Japanese as "those who only in human relations become self-conscious and regard the relations as part of the self." He thus termed this characteristic *Kanjinshugi*, or "contextualism." Cousins' results may be considered to support Hamaguchi's argument.

Table 1. Proportion of Attributes in Self-Description

	Twenty Statements Test		Contextualized Format	
	Japanese	American	Japanese	American
Social role	.274	.093	.046	.028
Activity	.084	.013	.156	.137
Pure attribute	.186	.578	.412	.257

Source: Cousins (1989)

View of the Self and Emotion

We experience a variety of emotions in social life. Markus and Kitayama say that differing views of the self produce differing emotions. Those with the independent view of self tend to feel ego-focused emotions, such as anger, frustration and pride. These emotions are experienced on the basis of the individual's own needs and abilities. Accordingly, experiencing these emotions strengthens the tendency to define the self in terms of one's own attributes. Meanwhile, those who present the interdependent view of self experience other-focused emotions, such as *shitashimi* (feeling of familiarity or intimacy with someone), *oime* (feeling of indebtedness), *amae* (hopeful expectations of someone's indulgence and favor) and *fureai* (feeling of connection with someone), which are all familiar to the Japanese. These are, it is fair to say, the emotions which arise from the strong desire to be more sensitive to others' feelings and which therefore further interdependent relations.

These psychological differences can lead us to surmise when both those with the view of the independent self and those with the view of the interdependent self experience positive or negative feelings. For example, it is significant for those who see themselves as independent to express their own feelings. However, those like the Japanese, who view themselves as interdependent try to avoid expressing ego-focused emotions even though they feel them deep down inside. This is because these may pose a threat to interdependent relations with others.

The View of the Self and Motivation

Two different types of views of the self are also represented in what spurs people to work, study and conduct other activities, or in short, differences in motivation.

For those with the independent self, to express themselves in a positive manner is to

check to see that inner attributes lead to the enhancement of self-esteem. To act in a manner contradicting one's inner attributes would produce uncomfortable feelings. This is termed cognitive dissonance. This would motivate own to change his or her own attributes in order to lessen the uncomfortable feelings to the extent possible.

For those with the interdependent self, to care for others and adjust one's own desire in such a manner as to balance it with that of others surrounding them takes on greater importance. Of course, they are motivated to see themselves as positive. However, to be able to control one's emotions and get along well with others would be a source of self-esteem. What is more, as seen in the opening passage referring to the difference between the Japanese and the Americans in the way they make a speech, in the tradition of Oriental culture, to be modest is considered desirable and to boast of one's accomplishments is regarded as negative. This tendency is also represented in old proverbs such as "No aru taka wa tsume wo kakusu (Still water runs deep)," "Tori mono iwazaredomo shita onozukara kei wo nasu (A man of virtue will naturally attract admirers)" and "Jiman wa chie no yukizumari (Pride is the ruin of wisdom)."

It seems that acting modestly is desirable is learned by children by the time they advance to higher grades of primary school. In 1982 research of Yoshida, Kojo and Kaku, elementary school students were asked about how capable they actually considered themselves to be in iron-bar exercises. They were children who boastingly replied "Well, I'm a good athlete," when praised before others "you're a good iron-bar athlete." The result was this. The second graders took the praise at its fact value. The fifth graders, however considered humble pride or modesty as the hallmark of a capable person.

Why is "modesty" considered desirable in the tradition of Oriental culture? One interpretation, of course, is that people have learned that it is a desirable response to any action. As Nakayama (1989) points out, acting "modestly" in organizations enables us to avoid, to a considerable degree, being spoken ill of and thus being hurt, at least in Japan.

It can also be considered, however, that those with the interdependent self may fail to recognize their own ability, like their trait, in a general manner. Their ability involving a specific task performed under certain conditions can possibly be surmised through a variety of clues found in the circumstances. For instance, if we do a successful job and win praise from our superior we respect, it enables us to judge that we are highly capable in the job. But it may be that we rarely see it as proof that we have high general ability.

Culture and the Self

As we have seen, the difference in the way the self is viewed has a tremendous impact on people's cognition, emotion and behavior. Psychological studies made from this perspective will offer clues to understanding differences in behavior and to solving a variety of misunderstandings and conflicts that may arise in the years to come.

Of course, overly stereotyped interpretations will result in a further striking difference between the independent view of self and the interdependent view of self. It is natural that the view of self differs from one person to another even in the same culture. In Western culture as well, some present the interdependent view of self, while in Japan some carry the independent view of self. In this sense, cross cultural comparative studies on the view of self should be useful in understanding varied actions of the Japanese.

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Announcement

Beginning with the April issue, the annual domestic subscription rate will be raised due to an increase in postage (see note mentioned below on page 8). The new rate for domestic subscription is 4,200yen per year, 350yen per issue (incl.tax).

Statistical Aspects

Recent Labor Economy Indices

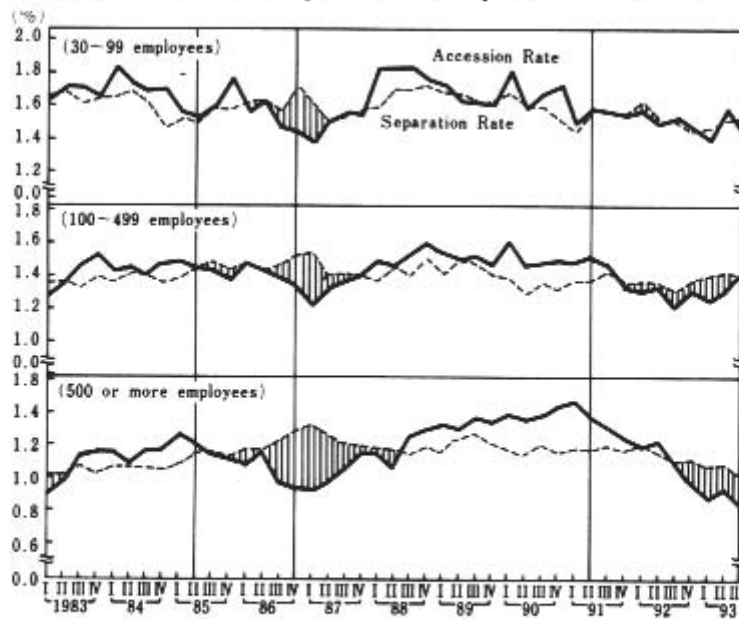
	November 1993	October 1993	Change from previous year
Labor force	6,659 (10 thousand)	6,677 (10 thousand)	27 (10 thousand)
Employed	6,483	6,501	-4
Employees	5,244	5,234	32
Unemployed	184	177	30
Unemployment rate	2.8%	2.7%	0.4
Active opening rate	0.65	0.67	- 0.32
Total hours worked	163.4 (hours)	160.6 (hours)	- 1.4*
Total wages of regular employees	(¥thousand) 273.4	(¥thousand) 272.4	1.6*

Source: Management and Coordination Agency, Ministry of Labour.

Notes: 1. *denotes annual percent change.

2. From February 1991, data of "Total hours worked" and "Total wages of regular employees" are for firms with 5 to 30 employees.

Transition of Accession Rate and Separation Rate by Size of Establishments (Manufacturing)



Source : Ministry of Labour, *Monthly Labour Survey*

Notes : 1) Seasonally adjusted

2) The shaded portion indicates an excess of the separation rate over the accession rate.