

Parental Well-Being In Japan

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This book presents an overview of the design and first findings of our survey on parental well-being in Japan. The Japanese survey was conceived and conducted in a joint project between the German Institute of Japanese Studies Tokyo and Benesse Corporation Japan.¹

The project in its entirety is a comparative project, comparing Japan and Germany, undertaken in cooperation with Professor emeritus Hans Bertram of the Humboldt University of Berlin.² The German survey, after which the Japanese survey was modeled, was carried out in spring 2009.³

The Japanese survey was conducted in January 2012. The analysis of the joint dataset, comparing the findings in Germany with those from Japan, will be published in due course. Funding for the joint analysis is provided by the German Research Foundation (DFG).

For a list on presentations and other publications using our survey data, please visit www.dijtokyo.org/pws.

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³ The results were published in Bertram and Spiess (2011).

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1 INTRODUCTION

In August 2013, the news media reported that a survey from June 2013, conducted by Japan's Cabinet Office, revealed that 71 percent of the respondents (6,075 people age 20 and up) were "satisfied" or "reasonably satisfied" with their lives (Cabinet Office 2014a). Yet, in international comparison, Japan's level of life satisfaction is low. According to the OECD Better Life Index, Japan ranks 27th out of 36 countries, a ranking that has declined steadily over the years (OECD 2013). Furthermore, people who have children may be less satisfied than those who do not. A 2012 Cabinet Office survey on well-being of young parents in their twenties and thirties found that female respondents who are mothers are less satisfied with life than those who are not mothers. Interestingly, no such difference could be seen between male respondents who are fathers and those who are not. The difference between mothers and fathers, however, is striking – with mothers having lower life satisfaction than fathers (Ueda and Kawahara 2013).⁴ So why does the life satisfaction of Japanese parents – particularly mothers – seem low compared to those who are not parents?

In Japan, like in other post-industrialized societies, expectations for "successful" parenting are much higher today than they were three or four decades ago (for the case of Germany, see Bertram and Spiess 2011). Additionally, raising a child has become more costly in terms of both time and money. These elevated costs, together with the rising opportunity costs for women opting for motherhood, are strongly correlated with the fertility rate in Japan (Ogawa et al. 2009). As the country's low fertility rate is considered a major demographic problem by policy makers, it is imperative that they better understand parents, particularly those with young children who require a high degree of care.

Our study examines parental well-being in depth by asking (1) what influences the levels of happiness and life satisfaction of mothers and fathers in contemporary Japanese society, (2) what elements of parents' lives – such as health and stress, personality, employment situation, material standing, education level, partnership and/or social networks – influence their well-being, and (3) how Japanese family policies fare in this relationship.

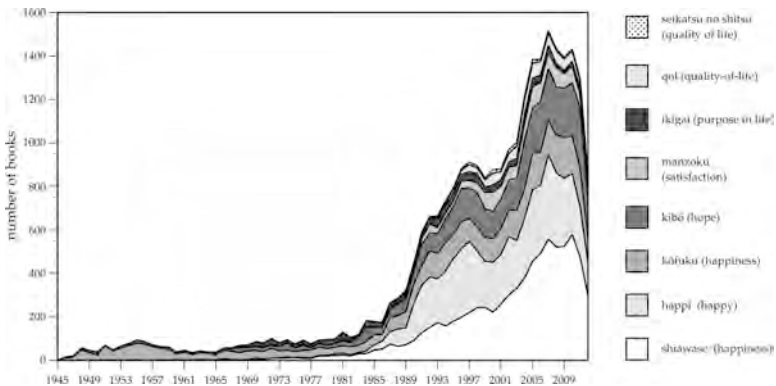
⁴ This study's findings are similar to those in other international studies, where children living at home are found to reduce the level of well-being particularly of women, singles, and those from low socio-economic strata (Hansen 2012).

1.1 RISING INTEREST IN HAPPINESS

Happiness and well-being are not new topics in scholarship, yet only in recent years have they attracted interest internationally. This can be seen, for example, in the first *World Happiness Report* by the UN in April 2012 (Helliwell et al. 2012), which specifically calls for a new direction in policy evaluation. It argues for taking the influence of policies on people's level of happiness into consideration to improve the policymaking process.⁵

This increasing interest in happiness is also evident in Japan. The number of books about happiness or related topics has increased dramatically in the past two decades, while at the same time the terminology for “happiness” has diversified significantly (see Figure 1). This “boom” of happiness discourse correlates with the “lost decade” of the 1990s onwards, characterized by economic stagnation and an increase in unemployment (Coulmas 2009a, 2009b).

Figure 1: Increase and diversification of “happiness”



Note: Number of books published in Japan with happiness-related terms in their titles.

Source: Online catalogue of the NDL (2012), data as of 19 September 2012; also see DIJ (2012).

Happiness has also attracted the attention of the Japanese government. In 2009, a Well-Being Study Unit was established within the Economic and

⁵ The OECD published its *Better Life Index* at about the same time (May 2012) (<http://www.oecdbetterlifeindex.org/>). In addition, examples of academic journals exclusively devoted to the topic of happiness and well-being include the long-running journal *Social Indicators Research*, founded in 1974, as well as the *Journal of Happiness Studies*, founded in 2000.

Social Research Institute (ESRI) of the Cabinet Office. The unit's task was to investigate happiness through various surveys, such as the *Happiness Study* (*Kōfukudo chōsa*) (Cabinet Office 2014b). The March 11, 2011 triple disaster raised interest in happiness still further among the public and government alike. One of the clear findings of the *Happiness Study* was the perceived importance of the role that family plays in the happiness of Japanese people. A major family survey in Japan, the *National Family Research in Japan* (NFRJ 2014), also asks married respondents about their satisfaction with marriage and numerous other aspects of their partnership and family life. Many Japanese family sociologists use this dataset for their analyses (e. g., Lee 2008; Suemori 1999; Matsunobu 2011).

Within the existing research on happiness and well-being in Japan, we have identified four main gaps:

- Few surveys have a particular focus on the well-being of parents.
- No study includes an all-encompassing analysis of all the different dimensions of well-being.
- Fathers are under-represented in most surveys and analyses, as most surveys focus on married women (e. g., Lee 2008; Suemori 1999; Matsunobu 2011).
- Few Japanese surveys on well-being have been conducted in order to be compared with other countries.

1.2 PARENTAL WELL-BEING AS KEY CONCEPT

Parental well-being is a key concept in our study, which develops a model of parental well-being based on the assumption that the interplay of various aspects of subjective well-being in conjunction with objective life circumstances affects the well-being of parent(s) – and in due course the development of their children as well.

For this study, we conceptualize parental well-being as constituting the following seven dimensions: (1) material well-being, (2) parents' education and educational aspirations for their children, (3) employment satisfaction, (4) health and personality, (5) social networks, (6) sense of support provided by family policies, and (7) relationship satisfaction. Our study compares fathers and mothers, focusing on the following aspects:

- Levels of satisfaction with their lives as parents.
- Values regarding parenting, social relationships, and life in general.
- Differing life circumstances, such as employment, education, etc.

In future publications, we will provide more in-depth analyses and compare the data sets from Japan and Germany. In the meantime, this survey

report provides a first – and for the most part descriptive – overview of the findings of our Japanese parental well-being survey.

In Chapter 2 of this book, we describe our methodology, in particular the sampling process, as well as the design of the questionnaire. Chapter 3 gives a short description of our research subjects in regards to demographics. In Chapter 4, we look at the relationship of social structural variables with the overall life satisfaction of mothers and fathers. Chapters 5 to 10 each describe one particular area of the parents' lives and the findings related to the relevant variables, for the most part separately analyzed for mothers and fathers.

Appendix 1 contains the Japanese questionnaire in English translation.

2 METHODOLOGY: SAMPLING AND QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

In 2009, the Ravensburger Stiftung, a foundation established by the German game company Ravensburger, sponsored a nationwide, representative survey on parental well-being in Germany. TNS Infratest Sozialforschung conducted the survey in face-to-face interviews in April and May 2009 under the auspices of Hans Bertram (Humboldt University of Berlin) and Katharina Spiess (DIW German Institute for Economic Research).

In Japan, the German Institute for Japanese Studies Tokyo (DIJ) and a team (at the time represented by Noriko Goto, Junko Takaoka, and Satoko Tamura) from the Benesse Educational Research & Development Institute (BERD), the research institute of Benesse Corporation, a leading provider of educational services for children and youth, joined forces in order to mirror this German survey in Japan. Shin Joho Center, Inc. conducted the survey as a postal survey in January and February 2012, after a significant delay due to the triple disaster of March 2011.

2.1 SAMPLING

In both countries, the sample design called for women and men to be surveyed in equal numbers: 1,000 mothers and 1,000 fathers, each from non-identical households, with at least one child between the ages of 0 and 6, before their enrollment into elementary school. In each country, research subjects were selected based on a quota-sampling strategy. In Germany, a new sample was drawn from the population by TNS Infratest Sozialforschung (BMFSFJ 2010), which has also been conducting the Socio-Economic Panel survey in the same fashion since 1984.

In Japan, the participants were recruited from a sub-sample of a master sample owned by MARSH Co, Ltd., a company that since 1998 has been building up a sample population of 521,932 people (as of October 2011) for marketing research, government opinion polls, and other social surveys. While Japanese sociologists prefer random sampling for mail-in surveys, we used the master sample for two reasons. First, random sampling of parents of pre-school children would have been difficult since the only way to do this would have been by sampling children through local registries throughout the country – an extremely work-intensive task with potential obstacles.

Second, a master sample promised a significantly higher response rate. The master sample consists of a pool of 238,705 men and 283,227 women. Of these, 34,483 are parents with one or more children aged 0 to 6 years: 10,569 fathers, and 23,914 mothers. From this pool of parents, sampling was done through quotas. These quotas were based on gender (of the parent), residence (by dividing Japan into ten broad regions), percentage of single parents (oversampling), and class (based on household income levels). The survey was conducted by Shin Joho Center, Inc.

Quota: Gender

The Japanese survey design called for equal numbers of mothers and fathers from non-identical households to participate. Because a master sample was used, compliance was expected to be high, with a 90 percent return rate anticipated. Thus, 1,118 fathers and 1,122 mothers were sent surveys, with 1,031 fathers and 1,103 mothers replying. This equals an actual response rate of 92 percent among fathers and 98 percent among mothers. With this response rate, we did not need to weight the data; and data cleanup could be kept to a minimum.

Quota: Marital Status

Single mothers and fathers had to be oversampled. The small numbers of Japanese single parents were inflated to facilitate statistical analyses. According to the 2005 national census, there were 7,352,410 fathers and 9,827,968 mothers living with children up to the age of five. Of these, 9,144 are single fathers and 162,898 are single mothers. This means that single fathers with children ages 0 to 5 account for just 0.12 percent of the total, while single mothers account for 1.66 percent. Calculated for our sample of 1,000 mothers and 1,000 fathers, this corresponds to one single father and 17 single mothers. Through an oversampling of single mothers and fathers, it was decided that 5 single fathers and 37 single mothers were to be surveyed. The return rate from single parents was 100 percent, meaning all surveyed single mothers and single fathers participated in the study.

Quota: Region

Quotas were also used to mirror the population distribution by region. The information on the regional distribution of the Japanese population was based on the 2011 Basic Resident Register (*Heisei 23-nen jūmin kihon daichō*), which refers to ten larger regions into which Japan is commonly divided for statistical purposes. These regions are Hokkaidō, Tōhoku, Kantō, Hokuriku, Tōsan, Tōkai, Kinki, Chūgoku, Shikoku, and Kyūshū.

Quota: Household

Finally, to avoid sampling only middle-class families, quotas were used to mirror the population distribution by income levels. This was an important quota because of Japan's growing economic disparity in recent years. Information on the distribution of household income in the population is based on data from the 2007 *Employment Status Survey* (*Heisei 19-nen shūgyō kihon chōsa*), which distinguishes three categories of annual income: (a) under 4 million yen, (b) between 4 and 10 million yen, and (c) over 10 million yen.

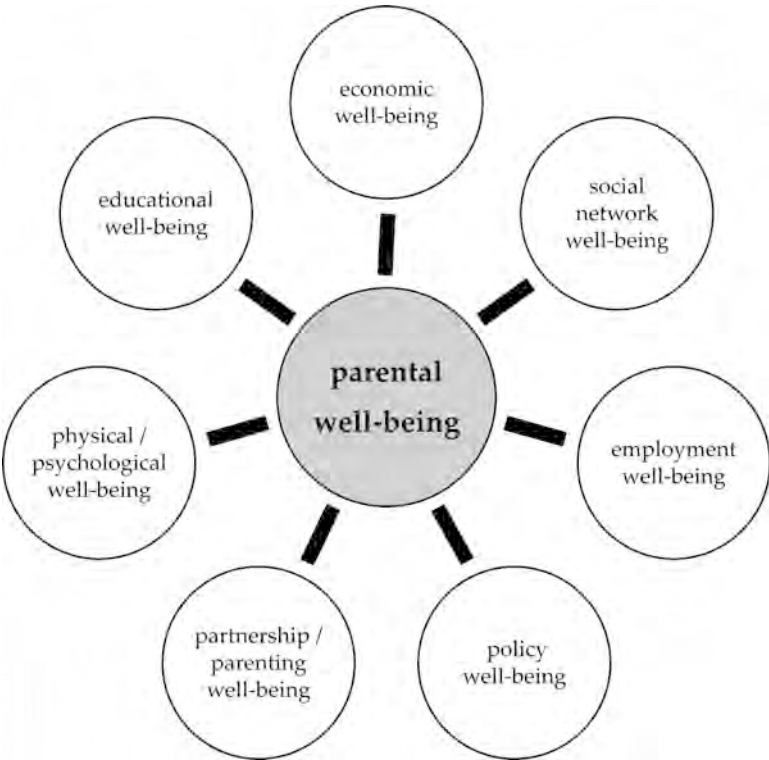
2.2 QUESTIONNAIRE

To conduct a comparable survey in Japan, we reviewed the questionnaire used for the German survey and carefully adjusted it for Japan. In this adjustment, we deleted and modified some questions of the German questionnaire and added several new questions to the Japanese survey instrument; we also paid close attention to the issue of functional equivalence in the process of translation (Hoffmeyer-Zlotnik and Wolf 2003, Behling and Law 2000). During the process of adjusting the survey to Japan, we also tried to make the questions comparable to existing Japanese surveys wherever possible. Thus, some questions were taken from or inspired by the *Japan Household Panel Survey* (JHPS 2010 1st Wave), conducted by The Panel Data Research Center at Keio University (PDRC), and the *National Family Research of Japan 2003* (NFRJ03), which was organized by the Japanese Society of Family Sociology.

The questionnaire is based on the concept of parental well-being, which is assumed to be similar to that of child well-being as used by UNICEF for their studies (see, among others UNICEF 2013). According to this, child well-being incorporates six dimensions: (1) material well-being, (2) health and safety, (3) education, (4) peer and family relationships, (5) behavior and risks, and (6) subjective well-being. Drawing on this concept, the German survey mapped parental well-being onto the same six dimensions and designed the questionnaire to cover these dimensions as the main aspects of subjective parental well-being. This framework was empirically tested through the survey and eventually modified into seven dimensions in the course of analysis: (1) economic well-being, (2) health and personality, (3) educational well-being, (4) family well-being, (5) employment well-being, (6) family policy well-being, and (7) partnership well-being.

The Japanese team made use of these early results from the Germany study and designed the questionnaire from the start according to the seven dimensions, slightly modifying them in due course (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Parental well-being model



Source: Slightly modified adaptation from Bertram and Spiess (2011).

The questionnaire consists of 61 questions with a total of 416 variables. The questions are categorized into (1) demographic and “objective” variables, (2) subjective factors, and (3) questions about overall and area-specific levels of satisfaction and well-being (see Table 1 below).

Regarding demographic or socio-structural variables, we asked about the parents’ age, marital status, household composition, living arrangements, their own and their spouse’s employment, educational level, income-related questions, as well as the number and ages of children. We call questions about people’s childcare and household duty arrangements, as well as the use, costs, and schedule of daycare services “objective factors”.

Under the category of “subjective factors”, we asked questions about a parent’s ideals and values in terms of fathering, mothering, employment,

their child's education, about parents' worries and stresses, about their opinions on the meaning of marriage and children, as well as about their personality traits. Questions regarding levels of satisfaction were asked based on our predefined seven dimensions of well-being and cover both area-specific satisfaction levels as well as parents' overall satisfaction and happiness levels.

Table 1: Question categories

Demographic facts	Subjective evaluation: Feelings, values, desires	Dependent variables: satisfaction/happiness
Gender (1)	General values for life (6)	Overall life satisfaction in all dimensions separately (5) Overall life satisfaction in general (60) Overall happiness with life (61)
Age (2)	Family life, marriage (8, 9, 10)	
Marital/partnership status (3)	Gender roles (11, 12, 15, 16)	
Household composition (4)	Time use, stress (13, 14)	
Education (self and partner) (45, 46, 47)	Family policy (23)	
Employment (self and partner) (28, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43)	Child's education goals (7, 48)	
Care for sick/old (25)	Worries (54, 57)	
Childcare leave (37, 44)	Personality traits: risk taking, feeling of control (55, 56)	
Income (49, 50, 51)	Employment: values (26, 27), ideal (29), satisfaction (35, 36)	
Savings (52)	Health (24)	
House size (53)	Childcare arrangements (22)	
Social networks (58, 59)		
Childcare arrangements (17, 18, 19, 20, 21)		

Note: Numbers in parentheses refer to the question numbering within the actual questionnaire, which can be found in Appendix 1 (in English translation).

3 DEMOGRAPHICS

The fathers and mothers who answered the parental well-being survey exhibited significant differences in most of the demographic indicators listed in Table 2, except in regards to marital status, educational levels, and number of children.

Almost all men (99.5 %) and women (96.4 %) are married. The rate of single mothers is 3.6 percent; that of single fathers is 0.5 percent. In regards to education, slightly over 57 percent of fathers and 49.8 percent of mothers have a two- or four-year college degree. This is more or less concurrent with governmental statistics of the overall population, where in the year 2011, 55.9 percent of women and 51.9 percent of men had a college or university degree (MEXT 2012).

In regards to the number of children, the majority of parents have two children, while a slightly smaller proportion have just one child. Only between 2 and 3 percent of fathers and mothers have four or more children. As the selection criteria for a parent to participate in the survey was to have at least one child between the ages of 0 to 6 before enrollment into elementary school, some of the respondents may not yet have concluded their childbearing phase. Therefore, no presumption about the sample populations' birthrate can be made. At the time of the survey, the mean number of children of the respondents stood at 1.77. In Japan overall, the birthrate stands at 1.39 (Cabinet Office 2011: 24, data from 2010); among married couples, the birthrate was stable between 1972 and 2002, but then declined to 2.05 in 2005 (Oshio 2008: 2–3).

Differences between the fathers and mothers in regards to their ages as well as to numerous employment- and income-related aspects are significant. With a mean age of 37.71, the fathers are significantly older than the mothers, whose mean age is 34.77. This is in line with the typical pattern of Japanese married people: Statistics for 2010 report a mean age of 30.5 for men and 28.8 for women at the time of first marriage (MHLW 2012). Japanese women's mean age at the time of their first birth is 29.9, second birth is 31.8, and third birth is 33.2 (Cabinet Office 2011: 29; data from 2010). Thus, the mothers in our survey are of comparable ages.

Regarding the parents' working hours, statistics show that in 2010, 14.6 percent of Japanese men worked more than 60 hours a week: among men in their 30s, 17.7 percent worked more than 60 hours; among men in their 40s, the figure was 18.7 percent (Cabinet Office 2011: 38). Within the parental well-being dataset, the employed fathers report similarly long

working hours, with significant differences between the mothers and fathers. Among the fathers, 88.8 percent work 40 hours or more, and 45.5 percent work 50 hours or more. The largest proportion of employed mothers (43.3 %) work in jobs up to 20 hours a week; only 20.0 percent work 40 hours or more. The difference in working hours between the fathers and mothers is just one aspect of different employment patterns of women and men in Japan in general, and Japanese fathers and mothers in particular. Among the surveyed fathers, a large majority (87.5 %) are regularly employed in white-collar professions (including managerial positions). The majority of the female respondents (61.4 %) are not working at all, and only 4.5 percent are regularly employed. The remaining 34.2 percent work in part-time or some other form of temporary employment. Though the rates of female employment are lower than in actual demographic data due to the fact that our respondents are all mothers of young children,⁶ this fits the stereotypical Japanese employment pattern, with the economy continuing to be based upon a male breadwinner and female homemaker family model, in which the female homemaker, at most, earns some supplemental income.⁷

Such gendered employment patterns are further reflected in the incomes reported by the parents in this dataset. Whereas only 0.9 percent of the fathers have no income, the figure for the mothers is 54.7 percent. While 84.5 percent of the fathers earn between 2 and 7.99 million yen, the largest single group of fathers (37.5 %) earn between 4 and 5.99 million yen. In comparison, the majority of mothers earn under 2 million yen ($n = 412$); that is, 82.1 percent of all mothers who reported any income at all ($n = 498$).

Table 2: Characteristics of sampled parents

Variable	Fathers (<i>n</i>)	Mothers (<i>n</i>)	Chi-square test of significance
Age			$\chi^2(2) = 1.38$
–29	10.5 % (108)	10.9 % (120)	
30–34	26.4 % (272)	28.2 % (311)	
35–39	35.6 % (367)	33.5 % (370)	
40–	27.5 % (284)	27.4 % (302)	
Total	$n = 1031$	$n = 1103$	

⁶ For the year 2012, 60.7 % of all women ages 15–64 were employed in some form, whereas for men the percentage was 80.3 %.

⁷ The Japanese tax system also continues to support this system, levying high taxes on household supplemental income of more than 2 million yen. Hence, there is little incentive for the lower-earning spouse – mostly the wife – to earn more than 2 million yen per year.

Variable	Fathers (<i>n</i>)	Mothers (<i>n</i>)	Chi-square test of significance
Marital status			$\chi^2(1) = 25.48^{***}$
Married	99.5 % (1026)	96.4 % (1063)	
Not married	0.5 % (5)	3.6 % (40)	
Total	<i>n</i> = 1031	<i>n</i> = 1103	
Educational level			$\chi^2(2) = 395.76^{***}$
Junior high school	0.8 % (8)	0.5 % (6)	
High school	17.9 % (184)	31.4 % (343)	
Technical school	12.9 % (133)	17.6 % (192)	
Two-year college	3.2 % (33)	22.5 % (246)	
Four-year college	54.1 % (557)	27.3 % (298)	
Graduate school	11.1 % (114)	0.5 % (6)	
Total	<i>n</i> = 1031	<i>n</i> = 1103	
Number of children			$\chi^2(5) = 2.01$
1	41.4 % (405)	42.4 % (451)	
2	43.5 % (425)	43.5 % (462)	
3	12.1 % (118)	11.8 % (125)	
4	2.6 % (25)	2.1 % (22)	
5	0.4 % (4)	0.3 % (3)	
6	0.1 % (1)	0 % (0)	
Total	<i>n</i> = 978	<i>n</i> = 1063	Missing <i>n</i> = 93 ⁸
Work content			$\chi^2(6) = 183.15^{***}$
Specialized or artistic work	32.2 % (319)	17.6 % (72)	
Manager	8.8 % (87)	0.2 % (1)	
Admin/sales, marketing, bank,...	30.5 % (302)	35.5 % (145)	
Service industry	9.3 % (92)	32.8 % (134)	
Technical, blue-collar work...	18.4 % (182)	10.3 % (42)	
Agriculture, forestry, fishery	0.4 % (4)	1.5 % (6)	
Other	0.4 % (4)	2.2 % (9)	
Total	<i>n</i> = 990	<i>n</i> = 409	
Employment			$\chi^2(2) = 1679.24^{***}$
Manager / regularly employed	87.5 % (900)	4.5 % (49)	
Manager, executive	2.8 % (29)	0.2 % (2)	
Regularly employed	84.6 % (871)	4.3 % (47)	

⁸ Missing values designate parents who did not state whether their children are living with them in the same household or not.

Variable	Fathers (n)	Mothers (n)	Chi-square test of significance
Part-time, temp., others	11.1 % (114)	34.2 % (376)	
Temporary or part-time	1.8 % (19)	19.8 % (218)	
Contract worker	1.0 % (10)	1.5 % (17)	
Self-employed	5.4 % (56)	0.9 % (10)	
Employee in family business	1.9 % (20)	2.7 % (30)	
Working at home	0.3 % (3)	4.8 % (53)	
Student	0.2 % (2)	0.1 % (1)	
Maternity/childcare leave	0.3 % (3)	3.7 % (41)	
Other	0.1 % (1)	0.5 % (6)	
Not working	1.5 % (15)	61.4 % (676)	
Total	n = 1031	n = 1103	
Household income (yearly)			$\chi^2(2) = 254.04^{***}$
< ¥4 million	27.8 % (287)	62.2 % (686)	
¥4 million ≤ 10 million	65.0 % (670)	33.5 % (370)	
> ¥10 million	7.2 % (74)	4.3 % (47)	
Total	n = 1031	n = 1103	
Personal income (yearly)			$\chi^2(7) = 1665.96^{***}$
No income	0.9 % (9)	54.7 % (601)	
≤ ¥1.99 million	3.4 % (35)	37.5 % (412)	
¥ 2–3.99 million	28.7 % (295)	5.7 % (63)	
¥ 4–5.99 million	37.5 % (386)	1.5 % (17)	
¥ 6–7.99 million	18.3 % (188)	0.4 % (4)	
¥ 8–9.99 million	6.7 % (69)	0.0 % (0)	
¥ 10–12.99 million	3.4 % (35)	0.2 % (2)	
≥ ¥13 million	1.1 % (11)	0.0 % (0)	
Total	n = 1031	n = 1103	
Own working hours			$\chi^2(4) = 667.83^{***}$
< 20 hours	7.1 % (70)	43.3 % (178)	
20<30 hours	0.4 % (4)	20.0 % (82)	
30<40 hours	36 % (36)	16.8 % (69)	
40<50 hours	43.3 % (428)	13.9 % (57)	
≥ 50 hours	45.5 % (450)	6.1 % (25)	
Total	n = 988	n = 411	

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

4 OVERALL LIFE SATISFACTION

Satisfaction was measured by giving respondents 11-point scales, ranging from 0 (“not at all satisfied”) to 10 (“most satisfied”), for a total of 16 questions. Fourteen of these are so-called area-specific satisfaction questions, and two are “overall categories”. The questions and areas of satisfaction are categorized as follows:

- Satisfaction with economic status (household income, work).
- Satisfaction with family policies (time, money, infrastructure).
- Satisfaction in personal areas (leisure, childrearing, sleep, education, health).
- Satisfaction with one’s support network and partnership (family’s childcare support, partner’s childcare support, housework share with partner, partnership).
- Overall well-being (overall life satisfaction, overall happiness).

In regards to parents’ overall life satisfaction, 54.4 percent report leading “satisfied” lives (scores 6 to 8) and 7 percent to be leading “very satisfied” lives (scores 9 to 10).

Over 60 percent of parents lead overall satisfying or very satisfying lives.

The overall distribution is shown in Figure 3, revealing a peak in answers at “score 7” with 21.1 percent of all parents.

However, when looking at gender differences, by separating the satisfaction scores of fathers and mothers, significant differences are revealed (see Figure 4).

Compared to fathers, a higher percentage of mothers report low satisfaction scores (scores 1 to 5), while a much higher percentage of fathers report being satisfied (scores 6 to 8). Among the highly satisfied parents (scores 9 to 10), however, it is once again a higher percentage of mothers than fathers. There was a significant effect of gender, $t(2131) = 2.33, p < .05$, with fathers reporting higher overall life satisfaction ($M = 5.87, SD = 2.18$) than mothers ($M = 5.64, SD = 2.35$).

Mean comparisons – not only of mothers’ and fathers’ overall life satisfaction, but also of all other satisfaction areas – are shown in Figure 5. When comparing the means by gender, we find significant differences in several areas. No significant gender differences are to be found in regards to satisfaction with income, family policies (money and infrastructure), as well as sleep, health, education, childrearing, and overall happiness.

Figure 3: Overall life satisfaction⁹ distribution

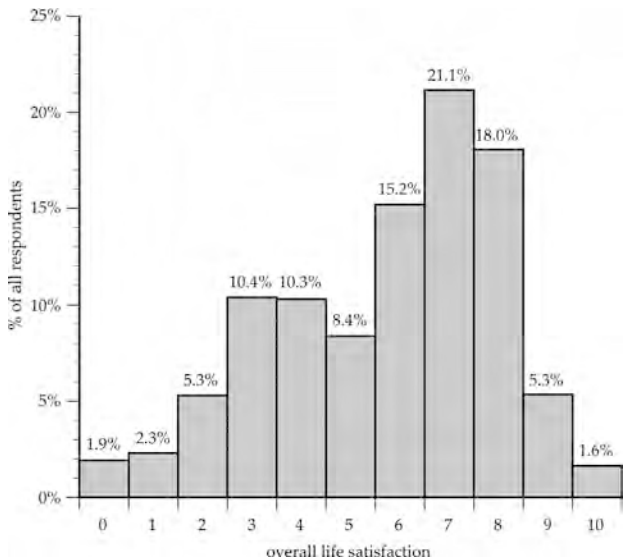
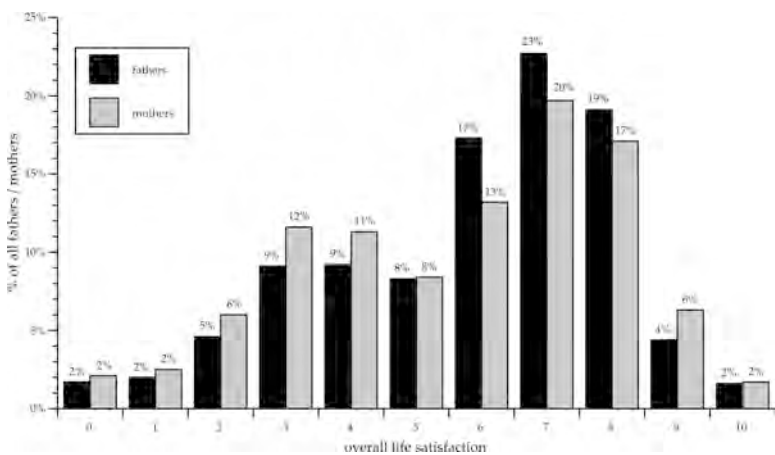


Figure 4: Overall life satisfaction by gender



⁹ Overall life satisfaction as well as other types of satisfaction were measured on a scale from 0 (“totally dissatisfied”) to 10 (“totally satisfied”). Figures in this book are based on this scale, unless stated otherwise.

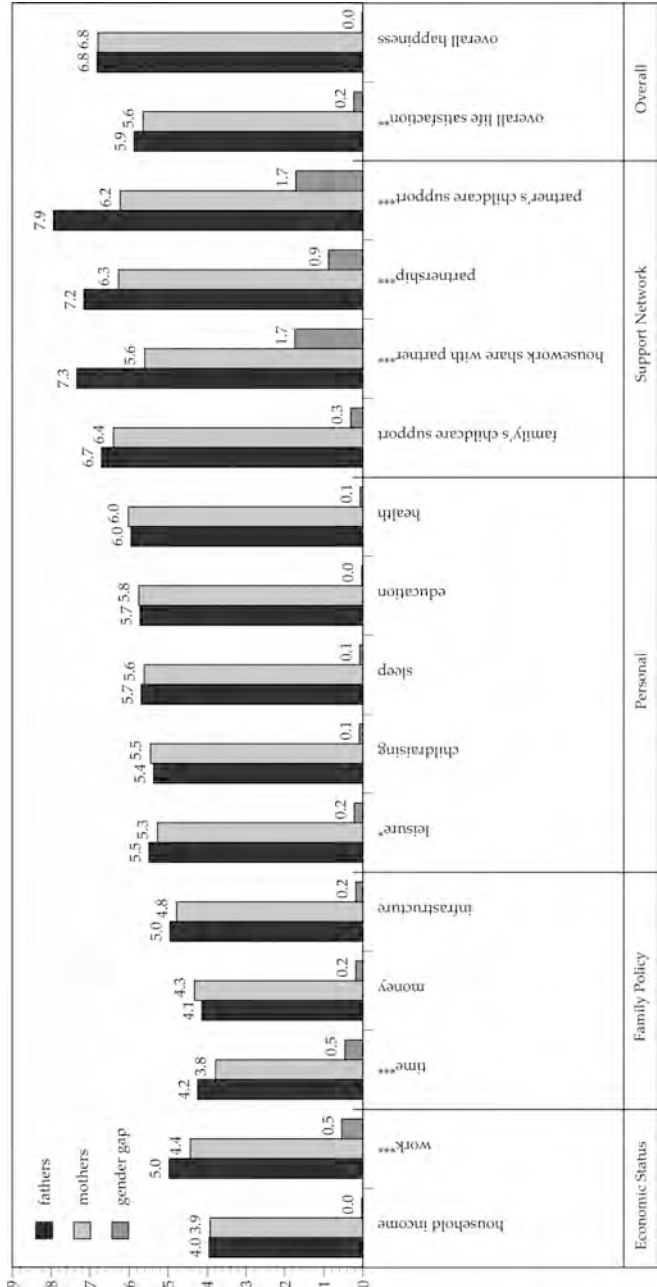
The lowest mean satisfaction scores for fathers and mothers are similar and are in the areas of the economy, work/employment, and the three types of family policies (time, money, infrastructure). These are all external, structural factors and thus might be the areas that parents feel powerless about. And it might be this feeling of powerlessness – in addition to the dire economic situation further strained by the March 11, 2011 triple disaster – that more or less unites mothers and fathers in their levels of (dis)satisfaction. This might explain why, within these areas, we find only two significant gender differences. One difference is work, with fathers significantly more satisfied than mothers (the mean score of fathers is 5.0, while the mean score of mothers is 4.4). The other significant difference is satisfaction with time policies. Of course, both are related to employment as they encompass, for example, work-life balance measures by companies and childcare leave policies. With a mean satisfaction score of 3.8, this is the lowest scoring area among the mothers (the fathers' mean score is 4.2).

The highest mean satisfaction scores for both fathers and mothers are in the areas of partnership and social networks. However, it is here that we also see the most significant gender differences, with fathers reporting significantly higher mean satisfaction levels than mothers. (For a more detailed analysis on partnership well-being, see Chapter 5.)

In summary, fathers show overall higher satisfaction levels not only in 10 of the 14 area-specific satisfaction levels, but also in regards to their overall life satisfaction and overall level of happiness. Several of these are significantly or highly significantly higher than the scores reported by mothers. Higher satisfaction (than the fathers) was only reported by the mothers in regards to money-related family policies (such as financial support), childrearing, education, and health. However, none of these differences are statistically significant. The largest gender gaps are in regards to partnership well-being, namely the satisfaction with housework share with the partner and the partner's childcare support. Fathers are on average much more satisfied than the mothers.

<p>Fathers show higher satisfaction levels than mothers in most well-being areas of their lives.</p>

Figure 5: Average levels of satisfaction within different areas of life

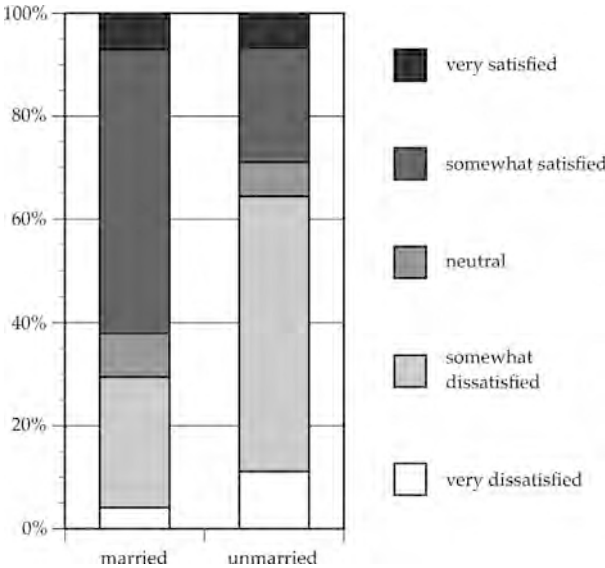


Note: Test results pertain to one-way ANOVA comparisons of means between fathers and mothers. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

4.1 MARITAL STATUS

Marital status has a significant effect on overall life satisfaction. Unmarried Japanese are much less satisfied with life, as Figure 6 clearly shows.

Figure 6: Overall life satisfaction by marital status



Here, as well as in the following figures, we recoded the 11-point Likert-like satisfaction scale into five categories: scores 0 and 1 into “very dissatisfied”, scores 2 to 4 into “dissatisfied”, score 5 as “neutral” (meaning “neither – nor”), scores 6 through 8 as “satisfied”, and scores 9 to 10 as “very satisfied”. Unlike many other surveys of Japan’s general population, relatively few respondents of either sex chose a score of 5 in our survey. Japan is often reported to display a tendency towards the middle; yet in our parental well-being survey, parents expressed comparatively clear opinions, leaning towards clear satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This is a remarkable tendency throughout the dataset. Gender differences can be found between the mothers and fathers among the married, with fathers being significantly more satisfied than mothers. The small group of unmarried mothers and fathers are significantly less satisfied than married parents ($F(2, 2129) = 7.02, p < .01$, with unmarried parents’ mean overall satisfaction = 4.15 ($SD = 2.41$); married parents’ mean overall satisfaction = 5.79 ($SD = 2.26$)). As the number of single

parents is only 4.1 percent of the entire sample, we do not distinguish between married and unmarried mothers and fathers in the following chapters, as no further statistically relevant conclusions can be drawn from such a small sample size.

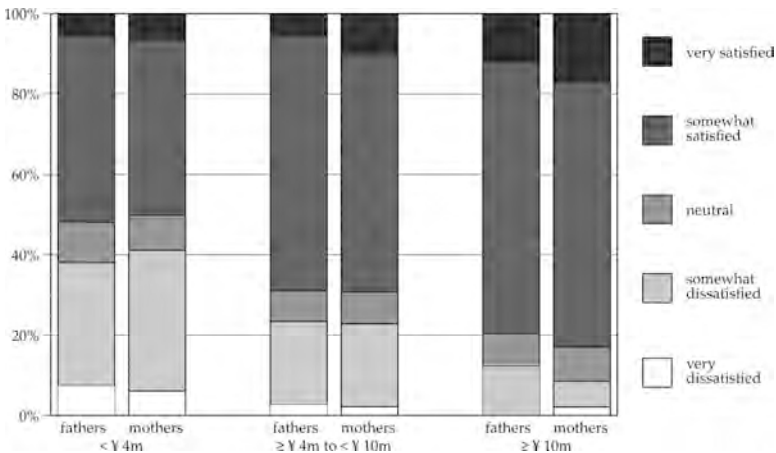
Married mothers and fathers are significantly more satisfied than single parents.

4.2 HOUSEHOLD INCOME

Overall life satisfaction of Japanese parents is highly influenced by household income. The data clearly shows that the higher the annual household income, the higher the levels of overall life satisfaction ($F(2, 2130) = 55.74, p < .001$).

Furthermore, a two-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the combined impact of gender and household income on overall life satisfaction. The interaction effect between gender and household income was not statistically significant ($F(2, 2127) = 0.86, p = .42$). There was a statistically significant main effect for household income ($F(2, 2127) = 50.8, p < .001$), but not statistically significant for gender; however, the effect size was small (see Figure 7).

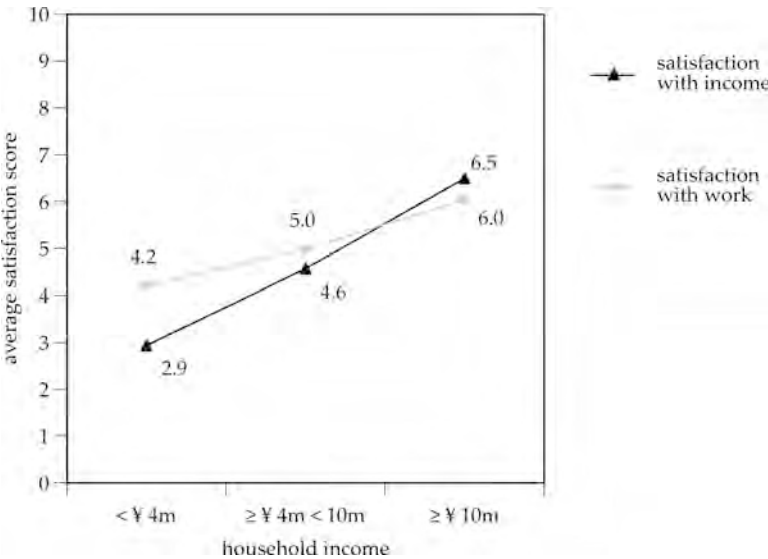
Figure 7: Overall life satisfaction by household income



We also conducted one-way between-groups analysis of variance to explore the impact of household income on all other levels of well-being. We

found that household income is not only highly influential on parents' overall life satisfaction, but also on most other areas of parents' lives. Only satisfaction with sleep, health, and the family's childcare support are not significantly influenced by household income. In regards to all other areas of well-being, household income has a strong influence. For example, Figure 8 clearly shows the positive relationship of household income with both work satisfaction level and household income satisfaction level.

Figure 8: Household income satisfaction and work satisfaction by household income

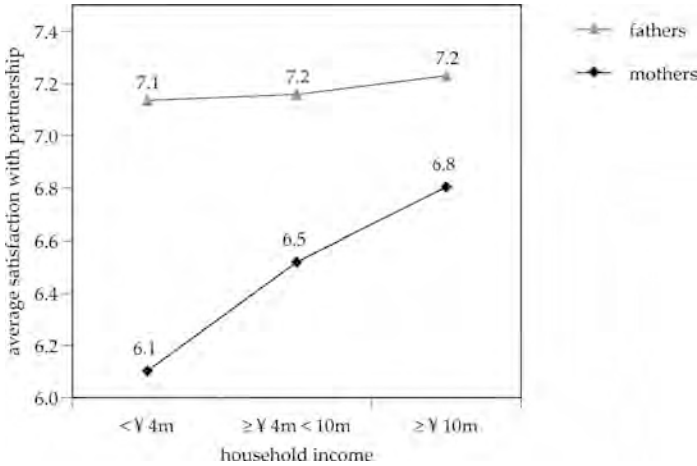


Whereas we displayed in Figure 5 seven areas of well-being with significant gender differences, when we conducted two-way ANOVA for each area of well-being by gender and household income, we found ten areas of well-being with significant differences by household income. For all of these, higher income is related to higher levels of satisfaction. Yet there is no interaction effect between gender and household income in regards to the areas of well-being.

Gender differences become significant only in regards to the satisfaction with partnership. The fathers' level of satisfaction with partnership is much higher than that of the mothers, and it is not influenced by household income but remains stable across all three income groups.

Mothers' partnership satisfaction, on the other hand, increases with the increase in household income (see Figure 9); however, it is not statistically significant.

Figure 9: Partnership satisfaction by household income and gender



The higher the household income, the greater the level of satisfaction in most areas of parents' lives. Gender differences are insignificant for these correlations, except in regards to partnership satisfaction.

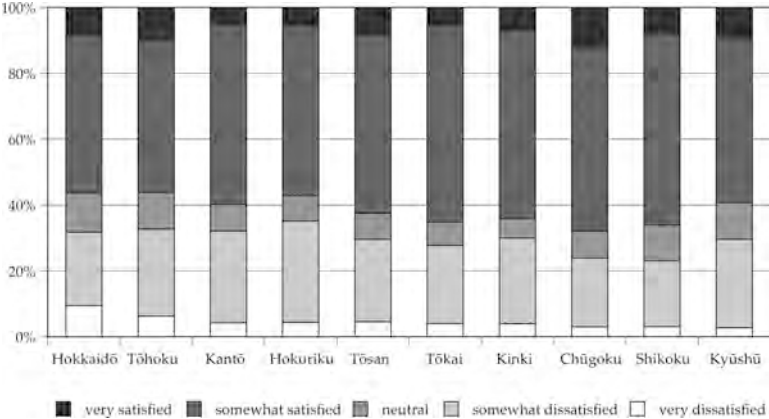
4.3 REGIONAL DIFFERENCES

To understand regional differences and a possible effect of parents' place of living on their well-being, we distinguished ten regions of Japan. Cross-tabulating overall life satisfaction by these ten regions reveals that differences between regions exist, but that they are small and not statistically significant (see Figure 10).

Furthermore, when looking at parents' mean scores of overall life satisfaction separately by each of the 47 prefectures, differences can be seen, but these are also not statistically significant. When running two-way ANOVA to additionally explore the impact of prefecture and gender on levels of overall life satisfaction, we again find that the main statistically significant effect is gender, not prefecture. (See Figure 11 for a graphic display of the findings.)

Nonetheless, the gender differences are quite interesting. Among the findings is that the mothers' level of overall life satisfaction is highest in

Figure 10: Overall life satisfaction by region



Shiga ($M = 7.37$), while that of the fathers is highest in Tokushima ($M = 7.50$). The lowest overall life satisfaction of the mothers is found in Saga prefecture ($M = 4.00$), and that of fathers in Ibaraki ($M = 4.57$). The starkest differences between mothers and fathers within a prefecture can be found in Saga (3.0 gender gap).¹⁰

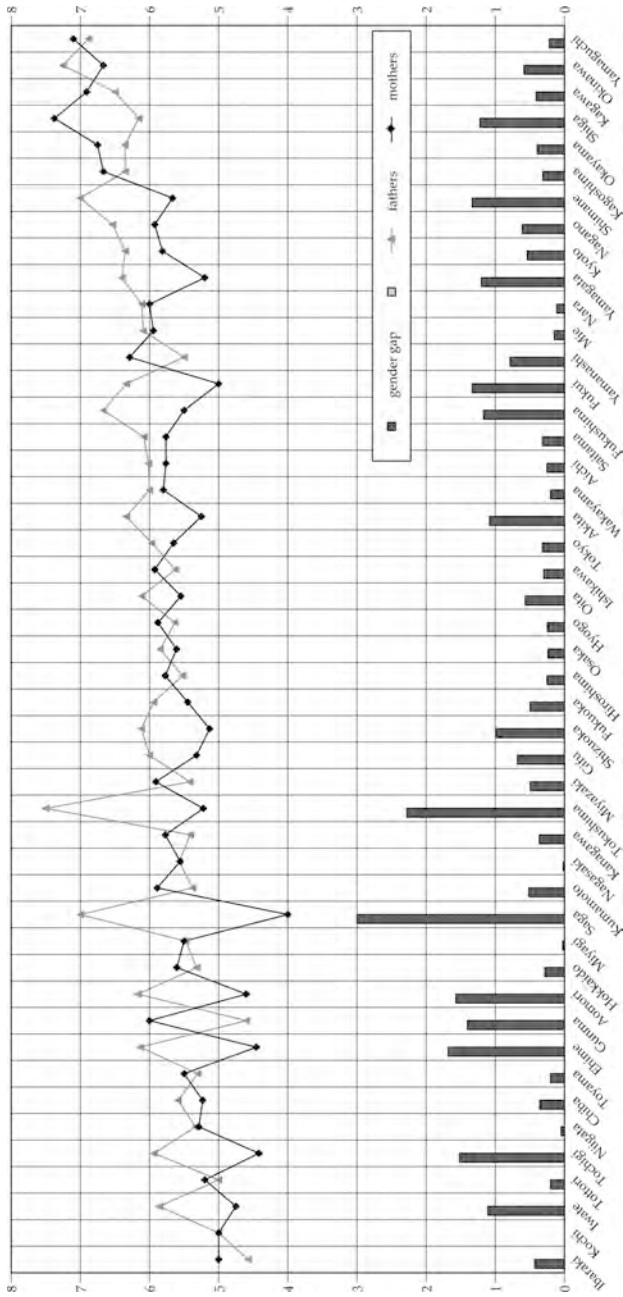
4.4 AGE

We categorized the mothers and fathers into four age groups: 16–29, 30–34, 35–39, and ≥ 40 . Even though we found that overall life satisfaction is not statistically significantly affected by age, satisfaction slightly increases by age for both the mothers and fathers. However, there are gender differences. For fathers, we see a dip in overall life satisfaction among the age group 30 to 34. For all other age groups, life satisfaction remains more or less constant. The mothers, however, exhibit a more or less linear increase in life satisfaction with age (see Figure 12).

**Fathers' life satisfaction is lowest for those between 30 and 34 years old.
Mothers' life satisfaction increases with age.**

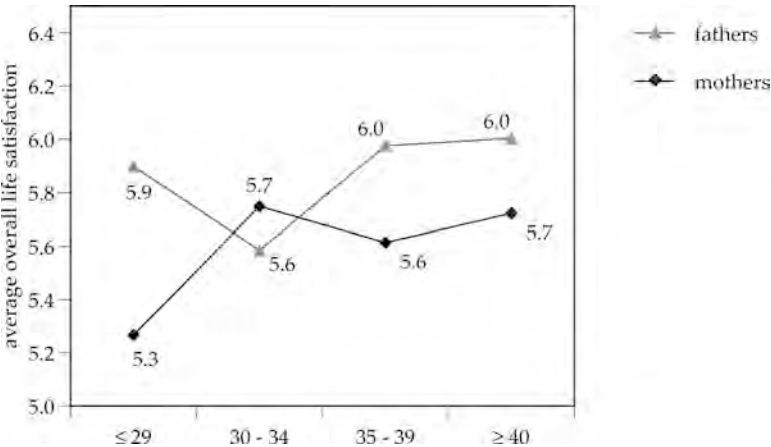
¹⁰ The explanations for these gender differences will need to be analyzed in future studies. It should be remarked, however, that mothers and fathers are unevenly distributed amongst the prefectures, a fact that needs to be taken into consideration for any interpretation.

Figure 11: Overall life satisfaction by prefecture and gender



Note: Lines represent estimated marginal mean values of life satisfaction, whereas bars represent the gap between the mean satisfaction scores of the fathers and mothers in each prefecture. The prefectures are ordered by the mean values of life satisfaction in ascending order.

Figure 12: Overall life satisfaction by age and gender

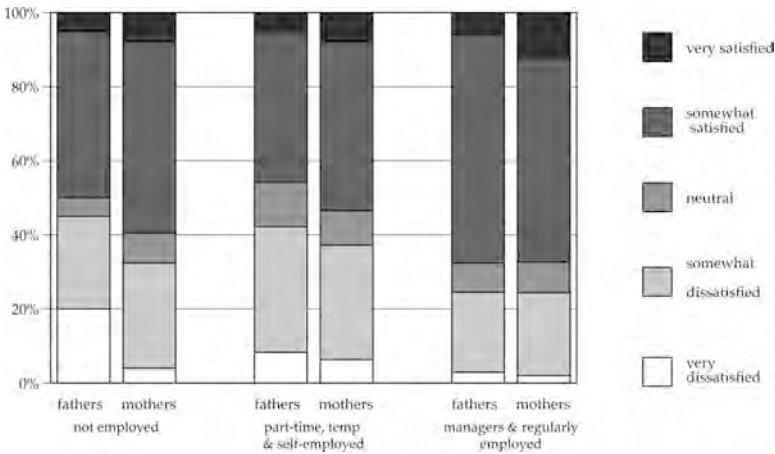


4.5 EMPLOYMENT

How does the parents' employment status influence their well-being? To find out, we recoded employment status (see Table 2 above for the detailed distribution) into three categories: (a) not working, (b) managers and full-time employees (*seishain*), and (c) all others, which includes part-time workers, contract workers, and the self-employed. Based on this categorization, the small percentage of unemployed fathers (i. e., 20 people; 1.9 % of all fathers) is significantly dissatisfied with their lives compared to employed fathers (20 % among the not working vs. 8.3 % of the part/temp/self-employed vs. 2.9 % among the managers and regularly employed). On the other hand, fathers who report being satisfied or very satisfied with their lives increase from 50 percent among the unemployed to 67.7 percent among the managers and regularly employed (see Figure 13).

The mothers' overall life satisfaction, however, seems to be unaffected by their employment status. The differences are statistically not significant, yet it can be seen that mothers working in part-time/temporary employment report the lowest scores in overall life satisfaction.

The fathers' overall satisfaction is significantly influenced by their employment status, while that of the mothers is not. The higher the employment status, the more satisfied fathers are.

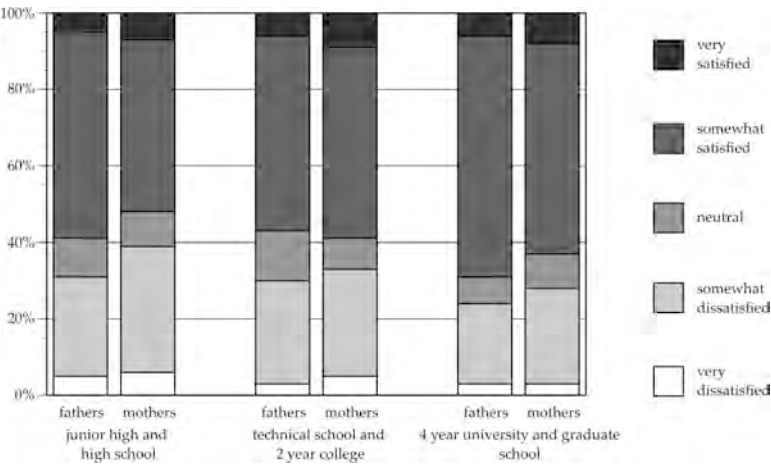
Figure 13: Overall life satisfaction by employment and gender

4.6 EDUCATION

Just like employment, education can have a significant effect on overall life satisfaction. For fathers, the impact is statistically significant ($p < .05$), for the mothers it is not. Yet, for both mothers and fathers, we see an increase in overall satisfaction with an increase in educational attainment. Whereas among the lowest educational level (junior and high-school diplomas), 31.2 percent of the fathers report dissatisfaction (scores 0 to 4) and 58.8 percent report satisfaction or high satisfaction (scores 6 to 10), 39 percent of the mothers report dissatisfaction and 52.3 percent report satisfaction or high satisfaction. Among the highest educated, meaning those with a four-year university or post-graduate degree, only 24.3 percent of the fathers report dissatisfaction as opposed to 69 percent reporting satisfaction. Among the mothers, 27.6 percent state dissatisfaction, as opposed to 63.2 percent reporting satisfaction.

Overall satisfaction is highest for the highest educated and lowest for the lowest educated mothers and fathers.

Figure 14: Overall life satisfaction by gender and education



4.7 THE IMPACT OF CHILDREN

What is the connection between the number of children a couple has and their own satisfaction? With children's education being quite costly and the amount of time spent on childcare rising with the number of children, it could be hypothesized that a higher number of children within a family decreases parental well-being.

When calculating the correlations for the area-specific levels of satisfaction, we find some significant influences of the number of children on the parents' well-being. This becomes particularly salient when looking at mothers' well-being. With an increasing number of children, mothers report significantly less satisfaction with the family's childcare support, the partner's childcare support and the partner's share of housework, while at the same time being more satisfied with childrearing. In the fathers' data, there was a significant positive correlation with the family policies on infrastructure. The findings are shown in Table 3.

The number of children negatively affects a mother's well-being in several areas of her life. Fathers' levels of well-being are less influenced by their number of children.

Table 3: Correlation of number of children with areas of well-being by gender

Area of satisfaction	Correlation with “number of children within the household”	
	Fathers	Mothers
Health	-.003	.054
Sleep	.027	-.026
Income	.001	-.022
Work	.011	.029
Leisure	.003	-.011
Education	.000	-.023
Childrearing	.025	.118**
Family's childcare support	-.007	-.108**
Family policy: Money	.015	-.054
Family policy: Infrastructure	.092**	.042
Family policy: Time	.054	.044
Partnership	.014	-.050
Partner's childcare support	-.033	-.077*
Partner's housework share	.038	-.074*
Overall life satisfaction	-.015	-.003
Overall feeling of happiness	.002	-.020

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Besides the number of children, the age of the children is also thought to influence the parents' well-being. We know that the younger the children, the more intensive the required care. Therefore it could be hypothesized that a significant correlation between the age of the youngest child and the parents' well-being could be found – the higher the age of the youngest child, the less labor-intensive the care for the youngest child becomes; thus the reported well-being of the parents should be higher. However, several studies on parental well-being suggest the opposite: decreasing life and relationship satisfaction with increasing age of the child (for an overview see Dyrdalet al. 2011).

Our data supports these findings (see Table 4 below). Overall life satisfaction as well as overall happiness of fathers decreases as the youngest child's age increases, and mothers report being significantly less happy with the increasing age of their youngest. In addition, there are area-specific relationships. For example, mothers' relationship satisfaction with their spouse

decreases while they are more satisfied with their sleep. In the area of infrastructure family policy, satisfaction of both mothers and fathers increases with the age of the child as an increasing number of institutionalized childcare services becomes available. Additionally, fathers' satisfaction with childrearing increases with the age of the youngest child.

Table 4: Correlation of “age of youngest child” with areas of well-being by gender

Area of satisfaction	Correlation with “age of the youngest child”	
	Fathers	Mothers
Health	-.060	-.059
Sleep	-.022	.087**
Income	.002	-.036
Work	-.025	.014
Leisure	.004	.027
Education	-.016	-.076*
Childrearing	.084**	-.010
Family's childcare support	-.650*	-.056
Family policy: Money	-.050	-.069*
Family policy: Infrastructure	.117**	.146**
Family policy: Time	.060	.044
Partnership	-.061	-.104**
Partner's childcare support	-.079*	-.096**
Partner's housework share	-.032	-.071*
Overall life satisfaction	-.075*	-.047
Overall feeling of happiness	-.128**	-.119**

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

<p>With increasing age of the youngest child, overall satisfaction and happiness decreases.</p>
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4.8 PREDICTING WELL-BEING: THE RELATIONSHIP OF AREA-SPECIFIC WELL-BEING TO OVERALL WELL-BEING

Whereas in the previous subchapters (4.1 to 4.7) we mostly looked at the influence of demographic variables on overall life satisfaction of Japanese mothers and fathers, here we analyze (1) how the so-called

“area-specific satisfactions” are correlated, and (2) which of these can best predict overall life satisfaction. Our theoretical model of parental well-being, which understands parents’ overall life satisfaction to be composed of seven main dimensions, serves as a basis for our analyses. In order to cover these dimensions, we asked about 14 area-specific levels of satisfaction, as described at the beginning of Chapter 4. Participants were asked a total of 16 questions, each of which were answered on an 11-point Likert scale ranging from 0 to 10, with 0 representing the lowest level of satisfaction and 10 the highest. Two questions are about economic status well-being (household income, work); three relate to family policies (time, money, infrastructure); five focus on the respondent’s self (leisure, childrearing, health, education, sleep); and four ask about the satisfaction with the one’s support network including the relationship with their spouse or partner (family’s childcare support, housework share with partner, partnership, partner’s childcare support).

In a first step, the relationship between all area-specific satisfaction measures and overall life satisfaction was investigated using the Pearson correlation coefficient. The correlation analysis (see Table 5 below) shows numerous important findings:

- The relationships between all variables are positive correlations. All correlations reach statistical significance ($p < .001$).
- Altogether, income satisfaction showed the highest correlation with overall life satisfaction ($r = .597, p < .001$), followed by work ($r = .456, p < .001$), leisure ($r = .478, p < .001$), and partnership satisfaction ($r = .453, p < .001$).
- Sleep and health are highly correlated ($r = .569, p < .001$).
- Work, leisure, and income satisfaction are highly correlated with each other.
- We find the highest correlation of educational satisfaction with the satisfaction regarding childrearing ($r = .411, p < .001$).
- Levels of satisfaction with family policies are highly correlated with each other: Money policy satisfaction is highest correlated with infrastructure policy satisfaction ($r = .505, p < .001$), followed by income satisfaction ($r = .506, p < .001$). Time policy and infrastructure policy satisfaction is equally highly correlated ($r = .486, p < .001$).
- Partnership satisfaction, satisfaction with the partner’s share in childcare, and satisfaction with the partner’s share of housework are so highly correlated with each other that they seem to be measuring very similar aspects ($r = .720, p < .001$; $r = .759, p < .001$; $r = .836, p < .001$).

Table 5: Correlations among the different areas of well-being

Satisfaction	Health	Sleep	Income	Work	Leisure	Educ.	Child-rearing	Family support	Family policy			Partner-ship	Partner's childcare support	Housew. share w/ partner	Overall life sat.
									Money	Infrastruct.	Time				
Health	1														
Sleep	.569	1													
Income	.326	.321	1												
Work	.322	.291	.490	1											
Leisure	.363	.448	.407	.416	1										
Education	.255	.217	.301	.329	.325	1									
Childrearing	.282	.291	.292	.291	.392	.411	1								
Family support	.208	.178	.130	.154	.277	.191	.259	1							
Family pol.	.243	.212	.349	.235	.259	.189	.206	.220	1						
	.179	.184	.218	.203	.234	.147	.194	.224	.506	1					
	.155	.180	.254	.330	.265	.198	.201	.185	.389	.486	1				
Partnership	.233	.272	.252	.230	.359	.229	.269	.315	.154	.123	.149	1			
Partner's childcare support	.191	.208	.194	.215	.321	.178	.212	.357	.149	.133	.161	.759	1		
Housework share with partner	.202	.245	.208	.236	.359	.183	.247	.354	.150	.151	.200	.720	.836	1	
Overall life satisfaction	.383	.330	.597	.456	.478	.309	.351	.259	.300	.236	.246	.453	.377	.380	1

Note: All correlations are positive and reach a high level of significance with $p < .001$.

For running a multiple regression analysis with “overall satisfaction with life” as the dependent variable, the 14 area-specific levels of satisfaction serve as independent variables. The model reaches statistical significance ($F(14, 2072) = 157.1, p < .001$) and is able to explain 51.5 percent of the variance in overall satisfaction ($R^2 = .515$).

Table 6: Multiple regression analysis: Predicting overall life satisfaction through area-specific satisfactions

ECONOMIC STATUS	
Household income satisfaction	.374***
Work satisfaction	.106***
FAMILY POLICY	
Time-policy satisfaction	-.010
Money-policy satisfaction	.020
Infrastructure-policy satisfaction	.034
PERSONAL	
Leisure satisfaction	.126***
Childrearing satisfaction	.054**
Sleep satisfaction	-.040
Educational satisfaction	.009
Health satisfaction	.112***
SUPPORT NETWORK	
Satisfaction with family's childcare support	.037
Satisfaction with partner's housework share	.010
Partnership satisfaction	.214***
Partner's childcare support satisfaction	.025

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Satisfaction with household income makes the strongest unique contribution to explaining overall life satisfaction, when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for (.374), and thus is closely linked to many economic studies that have focused on the relationship between wealth or income and well-being (Stevenson and Wolfers 2008).

The second strongest contribution is made by the variable “satisfaction with partnership”. Both variables make statistically highly significant unique contributions to the equation. However, this is not the case with any of the three variables on family policies.

In the chapters above, we discussed the influence of each major demographic variable onto overall parental life satisfaction separately. Yet to understand the relationship of these together onto the dependent variable (overall life satisfaction), we ran a multiple regression again, separately for fathers and mothers, this time with the significant demographic variables (in the form of dummy variables) as independent variables (see Table 7).

The model for fathers accounted for 6.6 percent of the variance in overall life satisfaction ($R^2 = .066$) and reaches statistical significance ($F(7, 1021) = 10.2, p < .001$). The model for mothers has an explanatory value of 7.9 percent ($R^2 = .079$) ($F(7, 1082) = 13.3, p < .001$). The most important difference between mothers and fathers is that marital status makes a small yet highly significant contribution to the model for mothers but not for fathers. However, there were only a small number of single parents in our sample.

Variables that make a significant contribution to the model for both fathers and mothers are household income and age (negative). The former finding is in accordance with economic studies, which often report a positive relationship between subjective well-being and income (e. g., Easterlin 2001). Educational attainment and employment do not play a significant role in this model.

Household income and the satisfaction associated with it significantly influence parents' overall life satisfaction.

Table 7: Multiple regression of overall life satisfaction

Overall life satisfaction	Fathers	Mothers
Married	.018	.098***
Education (university), ref: no univ. edu.	.039	.047
Age (continuous)	-.149***	-.107***
Household income (ref: 0-3.99 million yen)		
4-9.99 million yen	.175***	.213***
10+ million yen	.209***	.142***
Employment (ref: not employed)		
Manager/regularly employed	.008	.009
Temporary/contract workers	.059	.030

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.
 R^2 for Fathers: .066, $p < .001$.
 R^2 for Mothers: .079, $p < .001$.

5 PARTNERSHIP WELL-BEING

It has often been claimed that marital satisfaction decreases once married partners become parents (Twenge et al. 2003; Dew and Wilcox 2011). Our data support this claim for mothers but not fathers. Indeed, fathers' satisfaction with their partnership shows the second highest mean score of all satisfaction scores (see Figure 5). However, it is within the partnership-related scores that we find the highest gender gap, with housework share drawing the biggest differences in levels of satisfaction between mothers and fathers. Whereas fathers have a mean score of 7.34 (on a scale from 0 to 10), mothers have a mean score of only 5.60, a gap of 1.74 points. A similar gap appears in the differences in satisfaction between fathers and mothers in regards to their partner's childcare support: Fathers report the highest mean satisfaction with 7.94 for all categories, while mothers have a mean satisfaction score of just 6.23, an equally impressive gap of 1.72 points. Although we do not have longitudinal data from our respondents to check whether their partnership satisfaction scores were significantly higher before becoming parents, the gender gap is nonetheless significant.

**Japanese fathers are very satisfied
with their partnerships,
mothers significantly less so.**

5.1 THE AREA OF THE LARGEST GENDER GAP: FOCUS ON HOUSEWORK SHARE

The high gender gap in housework-share related satisfaction can be analyzed in more detail. For the exact questions and wording, see the questionnaire in its English translation in Appendix 1.

Respondents living together with their spouse or partner were asked about who is mostly responsible for housework duties. For answers, respondents could choose between the following options: self, spouse, taking turns with spouse/partner, both partners jointly, or a third person. The question was not about housework in general but about eight areas of housework separately: doing the dishes, laundry, cooking, shopping, household finances/accounting, cleaning, small home repairs (handiwork), and staying in contact with friends. We further inquired about the

share in eight areas of childcare duties: playing outside together, painting and/or singing together, reading to the child, playing board games, playing video games such as Wii or Nintendo, watching TV together, doing housework together, and helping the child(ren) study.

Mothers are significantly more often involved in doing household and childcare chores than fathers.

Our data show both for household and childcare chores that fathers and mothers differ significantly in every category. In regards to the category of “self”, meaning fathers and mothers claiming to be doing these chores alone, mothers spend much more time than fathers, except for home repairs and playing video games. Furthermore, fathers are more likely to report taking turns in fulfilling these duties than the mothers or to state that they are doing these duties together with their spouses. One exception here again is home repairs. As for fathers and mothers from non-identical households, the data is subjective in nature and there is no way to prove anyone’s claim, but we can speculate that there is a difference in perception of one’s own contribution to housework chores relative to one’s partner’s. These findings concur with the analyses by Matsuda (2004) and Nagai (2004).

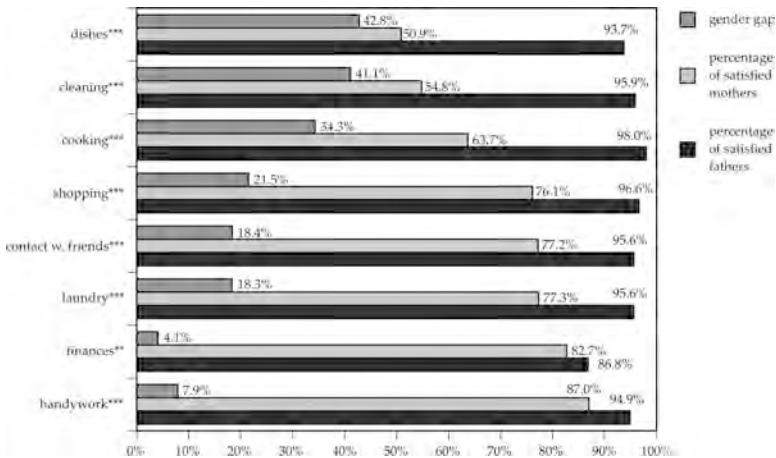
Household or childcare work is rarely if ever done by someone else other than the parents (0.3 to 1.4 %). This points to the very small role played by household or babysitter help. Although fairly common in other Asian countries, the outsourcing of household labor in Japan is rare due to persistent anxiety about having somebody come into one’s home to perform these chores on one’s behalf (Ochiai and Molony 2008). This was also confirmed in a 2008 survey on caregiving patterns among Japanese parents with pre-school children (Holthus 2010: 224).

Japanese parents do not “outsource”: Babysitters and household help are very rarely used.

The significantly higher input of time by mothers for housework and childcare could very well contribute to their lower mean satisfaction scores in this category. However, it could be argued that mothers actually do want to do these chores. Only by asking the parents about their ideal household chore distribution can we draw more legitimate inferences about their (dis)satisfaction with the status quo. Therefore, respondents were also asked to describe their ideal chore distribution for housework.

In order to calculate potential gaps between fathers' and mothers' current situation and their ideal work share, we first created dummy variables of the variables, with "1" if they checked themselves as being (or wanting to be) the main person to do the housework, and "0" for all other options. We then subtracted these dummy variables from each other, namely the ideal work share from the actual work share. Results could either be "0", "1", or "-1". If the actual work share is the same as the ideal (meaning either the person is not doing that household chore and does not want to do it, or is doing the household chore and wants to do it), then the outcome will be "0". We consider a person doing what they think is ideal to be a satisfied person in that respect. However, if the mother's or father's actual and ideal chore duties differ, then the result will be either "1" or "-1" and the person is assumed to be in some way dissatisfied with the status quo.

Figure 15: Housework share: Level of satisfaction by gender



Note: Significant *t*-test results for gender differences are marked with asterisks.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Mothers are overall much more dissatisfied with the household chore distribution than fathers.

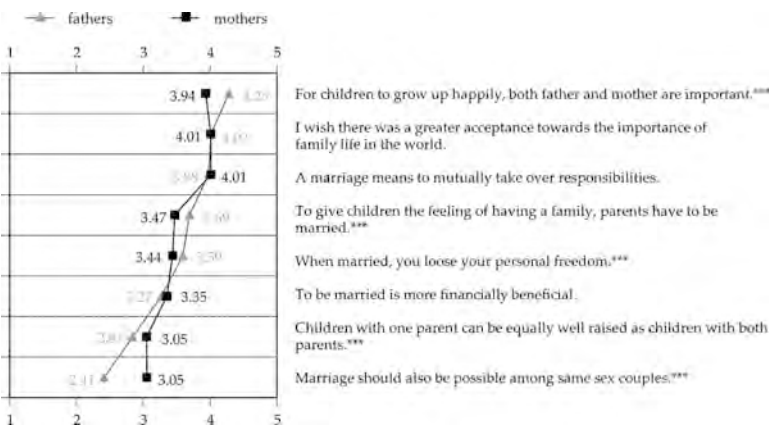
We find that the percentages of "satisfied" mothers are significantly lower than the percentages of "satisfied fathers". In order to visualize the gender gap in household satisfaction better, we added the category

“gender gap”, which is a subtraction of the percentages of satisfied mothers from the percentages of satisfied fathers. In Figure 15 above, we ranked the household categories from top to bottom by the percentages of satisfied mothers in ascending order. Whereas the overwhelming majority (over 90 percent) of fathers reveal very high levels of satisfaction in most areas of household work distribution, it is only in the areas of home repairs (handiwork) and finances that the percentage of fathers reporting satisfaction falls below 90 percent. The percentage of satisfied mothers is lowest in regards to doing the dishes with only about 51 percent, which contributes to the highest calculated gender gap regarding household chores. The gender gap is smallest in the areas of handiwork and finances.

5.2 PARENTS’ VIEWS ON MARRIAGE AND CHILDREN

The importance of living happily with a partner/spouse (very important: 73.5 % men, 71.6 % women) and children (very important: 59.8 % men, 59.0 % women) is quite similar between men and women. Yet fathers’ and mothers’ views on marriage, partnership, and children vary significantly in some instances. Opinions were reported on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (“I don’t think so”) to 5 (“I think so”)

Figure 16: Gender differences in views on marriage and partnership



Note: Significant *t*-test results for gender differences are marked with asterisks.
* *p* < .05; ** *p* < .01; *** *p* < .001.

As Figure 16 above shows, significant gender differences can be seen in the following aspects:

- Men are much more conservative in their judgments of what marriage means and are less likely to agree that marriage should also be possible between same-sex couples.
- Men more so than women think that they lose their personal freedom through marriage.
- Men hold more conservative family views, believing that for children to grow up happily, both a father and a mother are important.
- Asked whether children can be raised equally well by a single parent or by a couple, women more or less agree to a higher degree than men. Again, men are much more conservative, disagreeing with the statement more often than women.
- A higher percentage of fathers than mothers agree or strongly agree with the statement “for children to be able to think ‘family’, it is important for the parents to be married”.

Fathers’ family views are consistently much more conservative than those of mothers.

5.3 PARENTING VIEWS

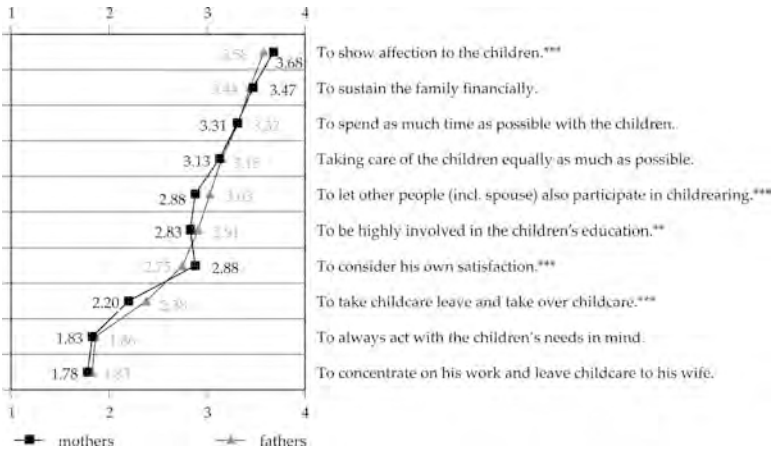
Good Mother and Good Father Image

We asked both mothers and fathers about what aspects they think are important in regards to what contributes to being a good father and mother, in particular asking about their images of good fathers and mothers. Parents could answer on a 4-point Likert-like scale ranging from “totally unimportant” to “very important”. The analysis shows that their images oscillate between being quite similar in some aspects and rather different in others.

Regarding the father image, it is least important to both mothers and fathers that fathers concentrate on their work and leave the childcare to the spouse/partner, as well as to always completely fulfill the children’s demands. Both aspects do not show statistically significant differences between mothers and fathers.

The two most important aspects of a good father image are the same for mothers and fathers: To show affection to the children is considered the most important trait of a good father by both parents, and mothers report it to be significantly more important than fathers (see Figure 17 above for detail).

Figure 17: Good father image



Note: Significant *t*-test results for gender differences are marked with asterisks.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

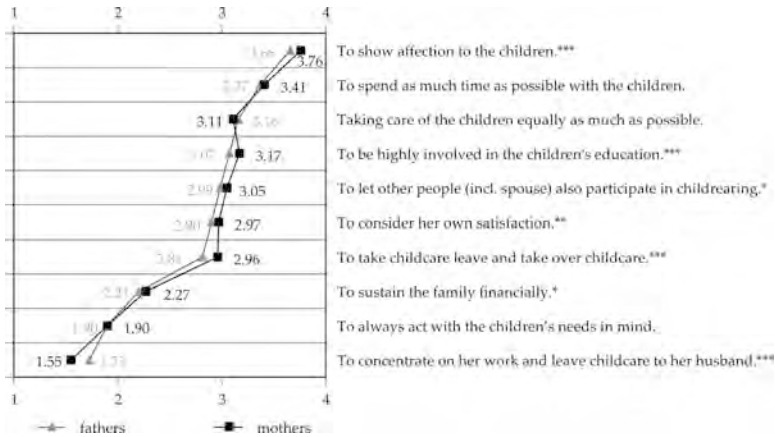
The second most important aspect is that of the father to sustain the family financially. Here we do not find statistically significant differences between mothers and fathers. This is a clear indicator that the male breadwinner model is still considered ideal.

Interestingly, the survey shows that fathers seem to have a more gender-equal image of an ideal dad. Whereas more mothers rate it important for fathers to consider their own satisfaction, more fathers think it is important to as much as possible take care of the children equally, to take childcare leave, and to take over childcare, as well as to be highly involved in the children's education.

**The male breadwinner ideal is alive,
among both mothers and fathers of young children.**

The aspect of what parents consider least important for an ideal mother is for mothers to concentrate on work and to leave childcare to their husbands (see Figure 18 above). Interestingly, we find a gender gap, with mothers reporting this to be significantly less important ($M = 1.55$) than fathers ($M = 1.73$). Just as with the importance of the male breadwinner model discussed above, this finding confirms that the “other” part of the equation of the gendered world of parenting, namely the ideal of the female homemaker, is also desired.

Figure 18: Good mother image



Note: Significant *t*-test results for gender differences are marked with asterisks.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

The most important element of the good mother image is for her to show affection to the children, equivalent to the good father image. Yet we have a gender gap here as well, with mothers supporting its importance even more.

Furthermore, the surveyed mothers and fathers vary in the rating of the importance of mothers' involvement in their children's education, with mothers seeing their role as much more important. This evokes images of so-called "education mothers" (*kyōiku mama*), which have become quite stereotyped over the last few decades (White 2002: 106; Allison 1996: 152).

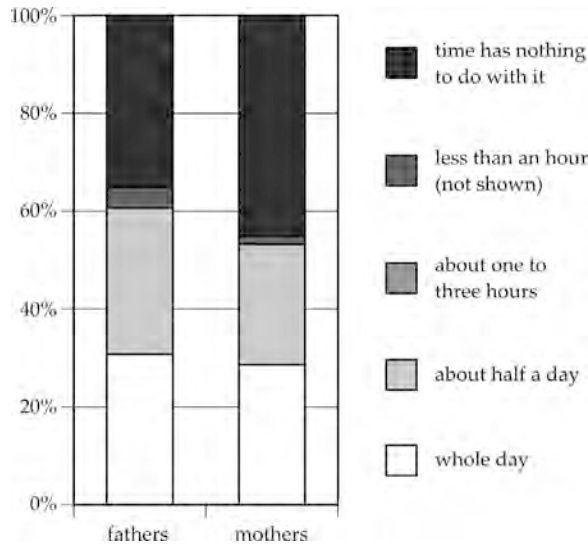
Parenting Time Ideals

How much time should a mother of children under the age of three spend with them per day?

This question is related to the good mother image in regards to time usage and addresses the myth that "up to age three, mothers should care for children fulltime" (Ochiai et al. 2008: 64).

Parents could choose between five answer categories. Four answers measure the quantity of time ("whole day", "about half a day", "about 1 to 3 hours", "less than an hour"), while the fifth choice is "time has nothing to do with it". The answers reveal gender differences in what mothers and fathers think is the ideal mother-child time. A higher percentage of fathers report the quantity of time as important, whereas mothers consid-

Figure 19: Ideal of mother-child contact time



er the quality of the mother-child relationship as more important, as indicated by the much higher percentage of mothers who do not think that time has anything to do with good parenting.

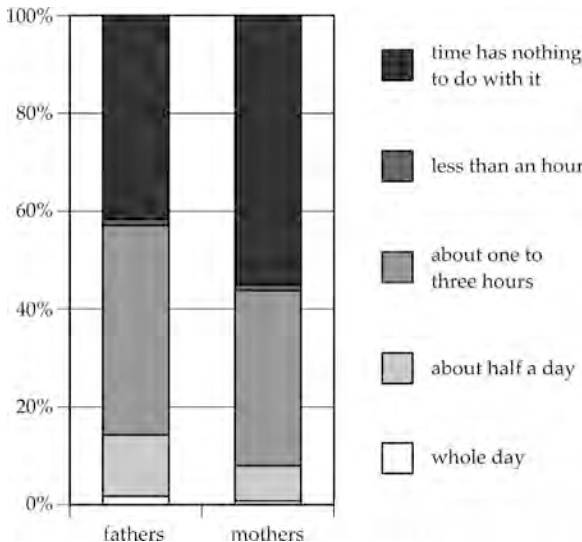
How much time should a father of children under the age of three spend with them per day?

For the evaluation of the ideal time to be spent by fathers with their children, the same significant differences between mothers and fathers were found. Again, mothers believe to a much higher degree that time has nothing to do with good parenting.

Yet mothers and fathers overall are very similar in their evaluation that mothers should spend more time with young children than fathers. Whereas the most frequently chosen “time” category is “all day” for ideal mothering, it is “about 1 to 3 hours” for ideal fathering. This suggests that parents remain stuck in stereotypical gendered patterns of parenting. This further supports the conservative ideal of the male breadwinner and female homemaker, as discussed above in relation to views on the good mother/good father image.

Mothers focus more on the quality of time spent with their young children, whereas fathers focus more on the amount of time.

Figure 20: Ideal of father-child contact time



Fathers have more conservative, normative ideas of mothering young children. A higher percentage thinks that mothers should spend the whole or half the day with the child. Mothers, to a larger extent, think that the amount of time is not important.

Among fathers, the largest percentage (42.9 %) thinks spending 1 to 3 hours with their young children is ideal, compared to only 35.8 percent among mothers. Yet again, mothers think to a much higher degree (55 %) than men (41.6 %) that the amount of time is irrelevant.

In future research it will be important to see whether any demographic differences (age, income, region, number of children) have a stratifying effect on mothers’ and fathers’ views about their partnerships and parenting.

In sum, we find a clash between conservative versus more liberal parenting views between mothers and fathers. Moreover, regarding household chores, men think in very gender-role specific patterns, whereas mothers do not.

6 PHYSICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

One's physical and psychological well-being is an integral part of anyone's overall well-being, with parents being no exception. As shown in Figure 5 above, parental differences in regards to satisfaction with sleep and health are not statistically significant. However, the differences between average levels of satisfaction in regards to leisure are significant ($p < .05$). These three areas are part of the physical and psychological well-being. In addition, parents' stress levels are of importance when looking into the psychological well-being of parents. The lack of time is an important factor that can cause stress. Thus, alongside questions about the ideal amount of time to spend with one's child, other time-related opinions were sought.

6.1 STRESS

In order to ascertain parents' stress levels, we asked them to assess activities in regards to time. Answers were reported on a 3-point Likert-like scale, ranging from "not enough time" over "just right" to "spending too much time". There are significant gender differences in all areas except leisure and partnership.

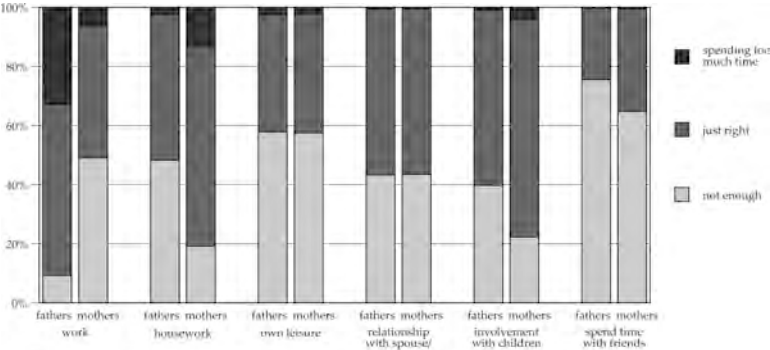
- More men than women feel they work too much.
- More women than men feel they do too much housework.
- More men than women feel they are not enough involved with the children.
- More women than men feel they spend just the right amount of time with their friends.

Within the last four weeks, how often have the feelings described below occurred? (1) Overall feeling of stress; pressed for time; (2) (for those employed) felt particularly stressed at work; (3) felt stress in the family.

These questions were measured on a 5-point Likert-like scale, ranging from "not once" to "all the time" (see Figure 22). What we see is that mothers and fathers do not significantly differ in regards to overall stress levels, even though mothers report a higher mean score, meaning a higher average level of stress, than fathers.

Because the question about stress at work was only to be answered by people currently employed, 750 people did not answer the question. The

Figure 21: Time assessment



Note: Respondents were asked: “How do you spend your time and assess it?” Answers were given for each of the described areas/activities.

rest showed significant gender differences, with fathers being more stressed than mothers. On the other hand, stress within the family is felt more so among the mothers, showing a significant difference to the stress-levels of fathers.

Fathers frequently experience stress at work, mothers in the family.

Since fathers work much longer hours than mothers, and are much more likely to be regularly employed, these gender differences in regards to work stress are no surprise. The same goes for stress at home, which is much more strongly felt among mothers. As described above, mothers work more within the household and in regards to childcare. In addition, expectations to spend more time with the kids are also higher for mothers than the fathers. These could be contributing factors for the higher family-related stress-levels of mothers.

6.2 PERSONALITY

In a battery of six questions, mothers and fathers were asked about their “locus of control” (see Question 56 in the questionnaire, Appendix 1). Answers were reported on a 7-point Likert-like scale, ranging from “doesn’t fit at all” to “completely fits”. The means were compared by sex. Results are listed in Table 8.

Figure 22: Stress

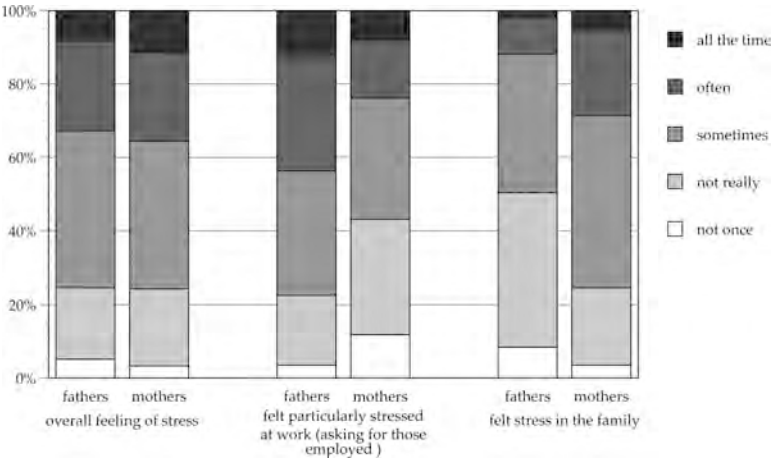


Table 8: Results of t-tests and descriptive statistics for items measuring the "locus of control" by sex

	Fathers			Mothers			t	df
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n		
How my personal life is developing depends on myself	5.44	1.13	1026	5.39	1.05	1103	1.25	2127
Compared to other people, I don't think I am getting what I deserve	3.41	1.33	1026	3.29	1.52	1101	1.94	2117
What people acquire/possess or reach depends on chance or fate	4.33	1.21	1026	4.41	1.17	1102	-1.69	2126
It is more important to have ability and talent than putting in effort	3.61	1.34	1027	3.66	1.22	1103	-0.96	2071
I think that many things that happen to people cannot be controlled	4.02	1.37	1027	4.13	1.28	1103	-2.00*	2128
When one engages in society or politics, one can influence social circumstances/society	3.41	1.34	1027	3.29	1.27	1103	2.20*	2093

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

There are significant gender differences when it comes to the items “I think many things that happen to people cannot be controlled” and “When one engages in society or politics, one can influence social circumstances/society”. Mothers reported a better fit between the former item and their opinion, while fathers reported a better fit between the latter item and their opinion. On average, both parents rated the item “How my personal life develops depends on myself” as fitting best to their own opinion.

In Question 57, another 16-item personality-related battery of questions was asked, capturing the Big Five personality traits. Answers were also reported on a 7-point Likert-like scale, ranging from “not at all fitting” to “completely fits” in regards to different personality trait descriptions.

A principal component analysis was conducted on the 16 items with orthogonal rotation (varimax). The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis ($KMO = .75$) and all KMO values for individual items were $> .51$, which is above the acceptable limit of $.50$. Bartlett’s test of sphericity $\chi^2(120) = 7479.13$, $p < .001$, indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for principal component analysis. An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each component in the data. Five components had eigenvalues over Kaiser’s criterion of 1 and in combination explained 60.09 percent of the variance. The scree plot was ambiguous and showed inflexions that would justify retaining both components 2 and 5. Given the large sample size, as well as the convergence of the scree plot and Kaiser’s criterion on five components, this is the number of components that were retained in the final analysis. Table 9 shows the factor loadings after rotation. The items that cluster on the same components suggest that the Big Five are represented in our data.

Table 9: Exploratory factor analysis results for the personality items according to the Big Five personality traits

Item	Rotated factor loadings				
	O	E	N	C	A
I have rich power of imagination	0.78				
I am creative in my way of thinking and I come up with new ideas	0.76				
Artistic, aesthetic experiences are important to me	0.70				
I am brimming with curiosity	0.60				
I like talking and am pretty talkative		0.83			
I am sociable		0.78			
I am well-behaved		-0.71			
I get quickly irritated			-0.77		
I can cope well with stress			0.68		
I have a propensity to worry			-0.66		
I can forgive			0.53		0.43
I am a lazy person				-0.80	
I clean up/get my work done with efficiency				0.64	
I work thoroughly				0.54	
I treat other people with consideration					0.78
I don't pay much attention to how I act towards others or if I use bad words					-0.63
Eigenvalues	3.56	1.86	1.53	1.35	1.32
Percent of variance	22.22	11.59	9.58	8.46	8.24

Note: O = Openness, E = Extraversion, N = Neuroticism, C = Conscientiousness, A = Agreeableness.

Next, scores for the Big Five were calculated per person and thereafter the means were compared by sex. The results are reported in Table 10, higher means indicating higher manifestations of the respective personality traits.

Table 10: Results of t-tests and descriptive statistics for items measuring the Big Five personality traits by sex

Big Five	Fathers			Mothers			t	df
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n		
O	4.22	1.01	1025	4.11	1.07	1099	2.44*	2122
E	3.83	1.15	1026	4.14	1.80	1101	-6.07***	2117
N	4.11	1.06	1026	4.63	1.11	1101	-11.06***	2125
C	4.46	0.90	1027	4.18	1.02	1101	6.77***	2121
A	4.68	0.83	1025	4.70	0.82	1102	-0.44	2125

Note: O = Openness, E = Extraversion, N = Neuroticism, C = Conscientiousness, A = Agreeableness.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Mothers and fathers significantly differ in four of the Big Five. The biggest difference of the means can be seen in neuroticism, with a mean difference of 0.52. The measured agreeableness is almost the same in both genders.

**Personalities of mothers and fathers differ significantly.
Mothers report higher values of neuroticism than fathers.**

6.3 FEARS

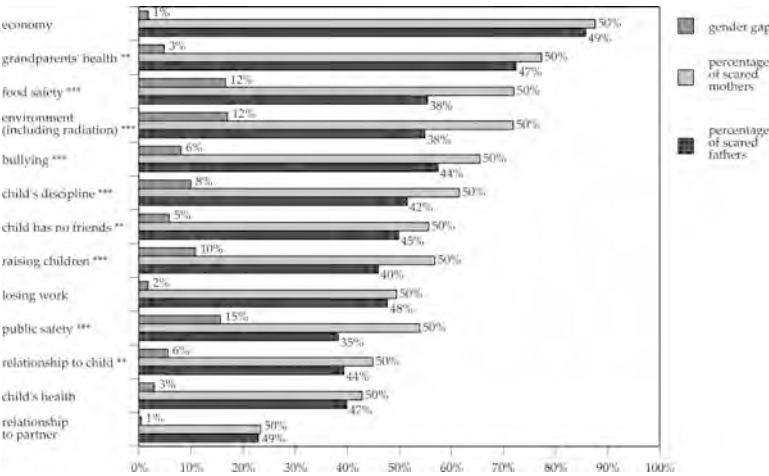
This survey was conducted only ten months after the March 11, 2011 triple disaster, when an earthquake struck in Eastern Japan, bringing with it a devastating tsunami that subsequently lead to the meltdown of three reactors in the Fukushima nuclear power plant. Therefore, we included a couple of questions specifically in response to the disaster, namely food safety and concerns with the environment (herein, the word “radiation” was mentioned).

In the 13-item question battery on parents’ fears, answers were given on a 4-point Likert-like scale, ranging from “not scared at all” to “very scared”. In Figure 23 below, we ordered the fears by intensity among mothers. For mothers and fathers alike, fears about the economy are the strongest, followed by the fear for their parents’ health. In these aspects, there are some but no highly significant gender differences.

**Mothers and fathers worry most
about the economy.**

However, parents' fear levels begin to differ significantly in regards to what for mothers are the third and fourth most intense fears, namely fear of environmental safety (including radiation) and food safety.

Figure 23: Parental fears



Note: Significant *t*-test results for gender differences are marked with asterisks.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

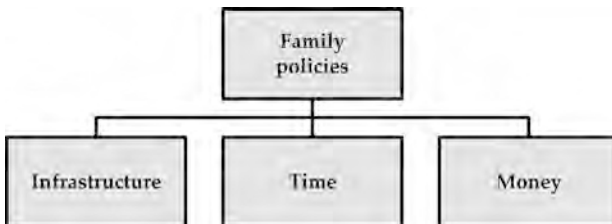
**Fears about food safety, the environment,
and radiation are predominantly
maternal concerns.**

7 FAMILY POLICY WELL-BEING

Triggered by concerns about Japan's low fertility rate, family policies have received high attention within the country, both in public as well as academic discourse (e. g., Rockmann 2011; Rosenbluth 2007; Peng 2002). The government is trying to counter the low fertility rate with numerous measures, so far, however, with little success. From an international perspective, Japan spends comparatively little of its GDP on family policies: its monetary transfers such as child allowance are low, and the childcare leave rate for fathers is almost non-existent. Furthermore, about 30 percent of children under the age of 3 attend a daycare center, much less than the 40 to 60 percent range for countries such as Belgium, Luxembourg, Denmark, Norway, and France (Bujard 2011). Among these internationally comparatively dismal conditions of family policies in Japan, the question remains how those Japanese, who have committed to parenthood and are parents of at least one young child, fare under the existing policies. Thus, this survey has focused on parents' usages, their evaluations, and levels of satisfaction with these policies, seeing them as one integral part of parents' overall well-being.

Family policies can be categorized into three types, the so-called pillars of the "family policy triangle": money, infrastructure, and time (Bertram and Bujard 2012).

Figure 24: The family policy triangle



Despite the fact that plenty of research exists on the development of family policy measures in Japan (see, e. g., Zhou et al. 2003; Rosenbluth 2007; Boling 2008), very little is known about the evaluation of family policy by the actual target group of parents with young children. Therefore, the questions in this survey pertaining to family policies provide a rare insight into the topic.

Questions cover infrastructure-related uses and costs, the provision of work-life balance measures at the actual workplace of the respondent, and the parent's satisfaction with and evaluation of all three pillars of family policies.

7.1 INFRASTRUCTURE

Japan offers several forms of childcare infrastructure. The main forms are (1) daycare centers (*hoikuen*), which operate under the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare and offer care for children as young as the 57th day after birth, and (2) kindergarten (*yōchien*), which offer care only for children from the age of 3 onwards. These childcare institutions are under the auspices of different ministries, and thus have different foci. Daycare centers target working parents, with care being provided for full days, but there are often long waiting lists. Kindergartens are supervised by the Ministry of Education and, therefore, have an educational aspect to them, making them more comparable to what in the German and U. S. context would be called “preschools”. Care times are significantly longer for children in daycare centers than in kindergarten. Even though, in recent years, kindergartens have been extending their operating hours (formerly, their usual hours were from 9 a. m. to 2:30 p.m.), in most cases kindergarten care hours still do not allow for the parents to be working full-time.

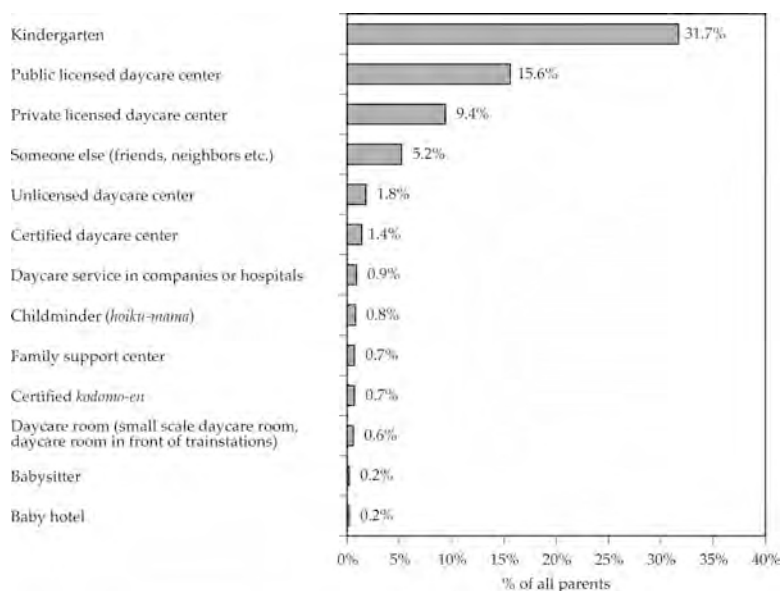
A further important distinction is to be made between public and private daycare facilities,¹¹ as this is influenced for example by pricing structures, opening hours, and the number of caregivers per child.

Other forms of institutionalized care comprise private baby hotels and the newest form of childcare center, *kodomoen*, which are best described as a mix between daycare center and kindergarten. Other, informal, non-familial care options are childminders and babysitters.

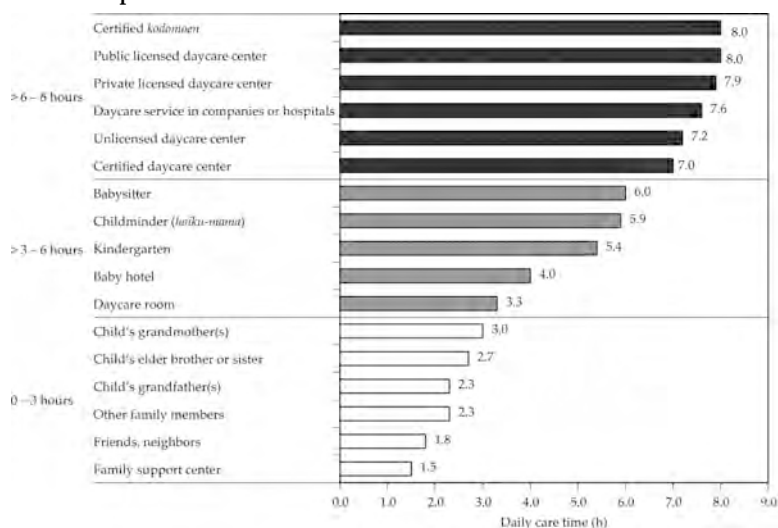
As the data in Figure 25 shows, 31.7 percent of children attend kindergarten, making it the most frequent form of childcare institution. 15.6 percent of the youngest children in the survey are enrolled in a public daycare center, followed by 9 percent of children enrolled in a private licensed daycare center.

Figure 26 indicates that institutionalized care offers the longest daily care times. Other family members and non-institutionalized care providers can only be considered part-time, additional, or emergency caregivers.

¹¹ For additional details about daycare centers and the pros and cons for parents between public and private daycare in terms of cost and quality, see Holthus (2012).

Figure 25: Youngest child's regular caregiver (other than a family member)

Note: Multiple responses were possible. The question was limited to parents who actually have a child in regular care.

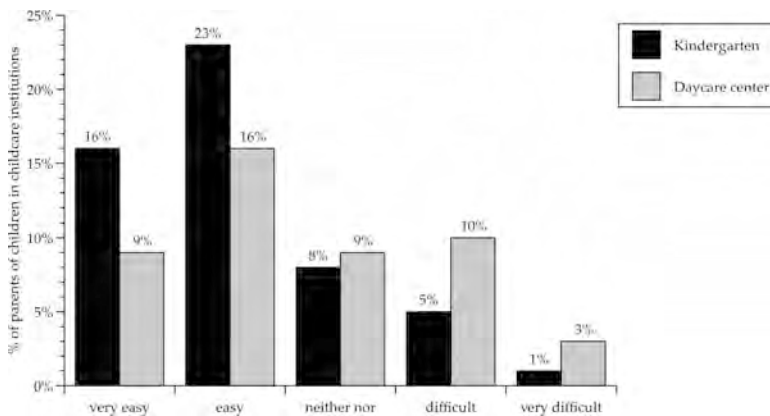
Figure 26: Youngest child's average daily care time by the different care providers

A large policy and media discourse surrounds the issue of waiting lists for children to get accepted into a public daycare center. The demand for daycare centers has continuously increased over the last two decades, whereas kindergartens have seen a decline in enrollments since the mid-1970s.

Enrolling children into daycare centers remains one of the biggest hurdles for working parents in Japan.

Keeping in mind the waiting list issue, it would be expected that parents consider enrolling their child into institutionalized childcare a difficult process; however, enrollment into kindergarten is comparatively easy. And this is also what the data here confirms: when not distinguishing by institutional form, parents did not perceive getting their child into a childcare institution as difficult. 63.6 percent of parents actually thought it was “easy” or even “very easy” to find a childcare institution for their youngest child. However, when distinguishing between the different forms of childcare institutions, namely kindergarten versus the diverse forms of daycare centers, a clear pattern emerges: entry into kindergarten is considered comparatively easy, whereas entry into a daycare center is seen as much more difficult.

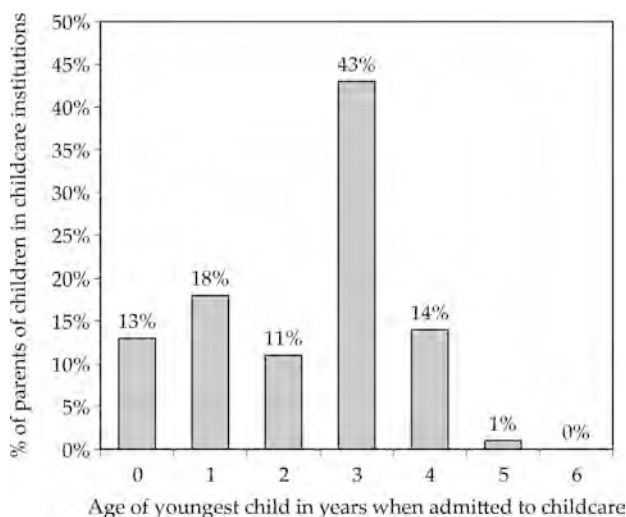
Figure 27: Degree of difficulty of enrolling the youngest child into a childcare institution



Note: The question was limited to parents who actually have a child in regular care.

The majority of children were enrolled in institutionalized childcare at or after the age of 3 (58.7 %), reflecting the fact that kindergartens only take children from age 3 onwards and that kindergarten is the form of institutional childcare most commonly used among the participants of the survey. Only 12.9 percent of children were enrolled before their first birthday, indicating mothers who were continuously employed.

Figure 28: Entry into childcare institution by age of child

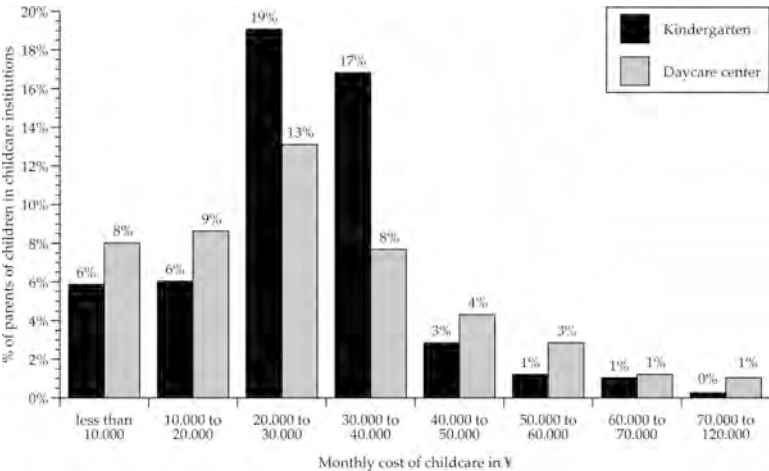


Note: The question was limited to parents who actually have a child in regular care.

Costs for institutionalized childcare vary greatly for parents. We asked parents about their approximate total monthly costs for childcare for all their children below elementary school age, including babysitter costs. The majority (56.7 %) of parents pay between 20,000 and 40,000 yen per month; however, as Figure 29 shows, the costs can go up to 120,000 yen (about 890 euros as of May 2015).

The extremes on both sides of the spectrum are more pronounced for the costs of daycare centers: the rather low costs, up to 20,000 yen, as well as the quite expensive costs, up to 120,000 yen, are more commonly paid for daycare centers than for kindergartens. The mid-range costs, on the other hand, are more commonly paid for kindergartens than for daycare centers. Payment for public daycare centers is on an income-based sliding scale: the lower the income, the less the required payment for daycare,

Figure 29: Monthly costs for institutionalized childcare for all children per family, shown by type of institution



Note: The question was limited to parents who actually have a child in regular care.

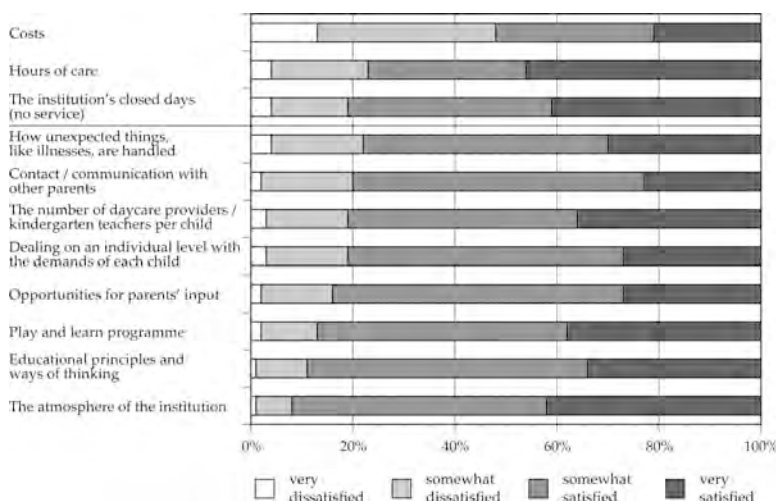
thus explaining the lower end of the spectrum. Private daycare centers, however, have comparatively high fees, as they operate on the fact that parents have a serious need to put their child in daycare, but for one reason or another are not able to enter a public daycare center – so the parents are often willing to shell out large sums for the enrollment of their child in a daycare center.

Almost 50 percent of parents are dissatisfied with the cost of their youngest child’s childcare institution.

It is these costs that lead to the highest dissatisfaction among all aspects of institutionalized childcare facilities, making the cost factor the only outlier in comparison to all other similarly evaluated aspects of daycare centers – both in regards to their “quantitative” care aspects (such as care hours) as well as their “qualitative” (educational) aspects (see Figure 30).

Evaluation of infrastructure policy measures

Seven infrastructure policy measures, which in one way or another all have been discussed in recent years as policy recommendations or goals,

Figure 30: Satisfaction with childcare institution of youngest child

Note: The question was limited to parents who actually have a child in regular care.

were evaluated by the parents. Respondents could answer on a 5-point Likert-like scale ranging from “not important” to “important”. As Figure 31 reveals, the most important elements for parents are (1) to increase the number of daycare institutions and (2) to make the hours of childcare institutions more flexible. An increase in the number of daycare centers aids with easing the waiting lists for daycare, and increasing the opening hours for daycare helps full-time working parents, who often have very long working hours and – particularly in the Kantō region – often also have long commutes.

A measure discussed in public discourse as a possibility to solve the problem of persistently long waiting lists for entry into daycare was to increase the number of childminders (*hoiku mama*). Yet, parents find this the least important of all infrastructure policy measures.

Distinguishing these findings by gender, we found that some of these policy measures differ significantly in importance between fathers and mothers. For mothers, the increase of after-school care ranks highest, whereas for fathers, it is the flexibility of care hours. Furthermore, both the increase of after-school care and the improvement of support for children with special needs rank significantly higher in importance for mothers than the fathers.

Figure 31: Importance of infrastructure policy measures

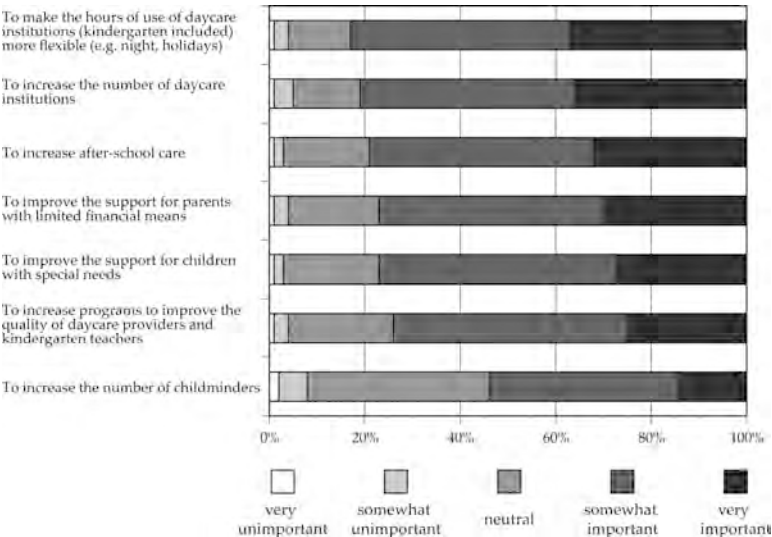


Table 11: Importance of infrastructure policy measures by gender (ANOVA)

Opinion on childcare support measures	Fathers	Mothers	F (1, 2109)
	M	M	
Increase the number of daycare institutions	4.09	4.13	0.95
Increase the number of childminders	3.61	3.55	2.08
Make the hours of use of daycare institutions (kindergarten included) more flexible (e. g. night, holidays)	4.10	4.17	2.92
Increase programs to improve the quality of daycare providers and kindergarten teachers	3.94	3.98	1.54
Improve the support for children with special needs	3.93	4.08	20.76***
Improve the support for parents with limited financial means	4.04	4.07	0.68
Increase after school care	3.98	4.18	34.04***

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Another important question is whether income or employment status have an influence on the opinions on infrastructure policy measures. Infrastructure measures can only be used if both parents are employed or, in the case of a single parent, when that parent is employed. Since space availability in public daycare centers is still limited, as existing waiting

lists prove, employment is a prerequisite for enrolling one's child. Private daycare centers have a little more leeway in that regard, but are generally more costly than public centers.

Table 12: Importance of infrastructure policy measures by income (ANOVA)

Opinion on infrastructure policy measures	< 4M yen	4M – < 10M yen	≥ 10M yen	F (2, 2108)
	M	M	M	
Increase the number of daycare institutions	4.11	4.10	4.22	1.17
Increase the number of childminders	3.55	3.58	3.78	3.67*
Make the hours of use of daycare institutions (kindergarten included) more flexible (e.g. night, holidays)	4.12	4.13	4.28	1.98
Increase programs to improve the quality of daycare providers and kindergarten teachers	3.94	3.97	4.04	0.95
Improve the support for children with special needs	4.07	3.96	3.94	5.73**
Improve the support for parents with limited financial means	4.17	3.98	3.83	19.47***
Increase after-school care	4.13	4.05	4.06	2.21

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 12 reveals that some measures gain in importance with higher income, while others decline. Among the measures growing in importance by a rise in income, the increase in the number of childminders is the only significant factor; and despite the fact that it is the least important of all measures for all income groups, it is a significantly more important measure for the highest income group.

The measures decreasing in importance with the rise in income are the last three listed in Table 12, whereas “Improve the support for children with special needs” and “Improve the support for parents with limited financial means” show significant differences in income levels and are most important for the lowest income groups.

When distinguishing the opinions on infrastructure policy measures by employment status, we again see that the last three measures of the list are the ones showing significant differences among the groups. People with the highest employment status consider these least important, whereas the group of unemployed evaluate “Increase after-school care” and “Improve the support for children with special needs” significantly more important than the regularly employed or even the part-time and temporarily employed.

Table 13: Importance of infrastructure policy measures by employment status (ANOVA)

Opinion on infrastructure policy measures	Managers & regularly employed	Part-time, temp & self-employed	Not employed	F (2, 2104)
	M	M	M	
Increase the number of daycare institutions	4.10	4.08	4.14	0.758
Increase the number of childminders	3.61	3.51	3.58	1.735
Make the hours of use of daycare institutions (kindergarten included) more flexible (e. g. night, holidays)	4.12	4.13	4.17	0.845
Increase programs to improve the quality of daycare providers and kindergarten teachers	3.95	3.96	3.97	0.168
Improve the support for children with special needs	3.93	4.00	4.10	9.94***
Improve the support for parents with limited financial means	4.01	4.09	4.10	3.00*
Increase after-school care	4.00	4.16	4.15	9.62***

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Increasing the number of childminders is the least important infrastructure policy measure for parents.

7.2 TIME

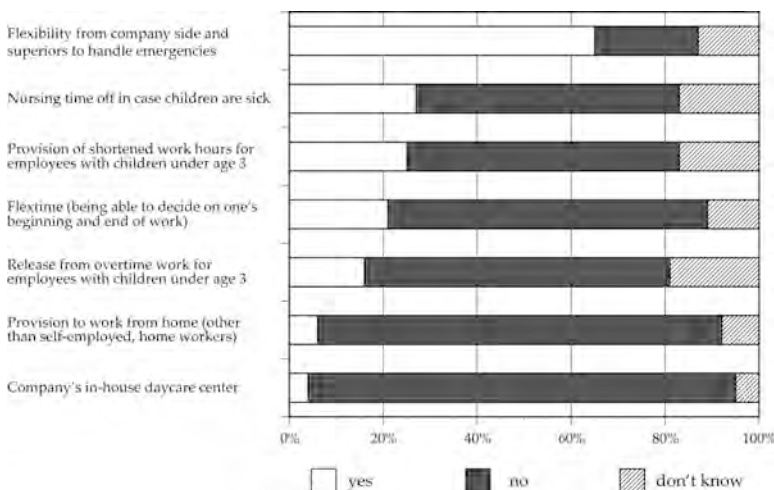
In regards to “time policies” or work-life balance policies, we provided the parents with a list of seven measures that workplaces might have implemented and which are geared particularly towards parents with young children. These measures are:

- Provision of shortened work hours for employees with children under age 3
- Release from overtime work for employees with children under age 3
- Time off in case children are sick
- Flextime (being able to decide on starting and finishing times)
- Company’s in-house daycare center
- Provision for work from home (other than self-employed, home workers)
- Flexibility granted by the company or superiors to handle childcare emergencies.

All provisions could be regularly implemented as contractual measures, except the last one (“flexibility”), which is a non-contractual courtesy of employers, a measure that cannot be claimed or demanded by employees as it is rather given on a voluntary basis, but which could also easily be restricted, if not formally regulated. As Figure 32 shows, it is this non-contractual provision of flexibility from the side of the company for family emergencies that was most often named by parents to exist at their workplaces. Formal, contractual provisions are much less common. This divide certainly stands out.

Companies’ flexibility to handle childcare emergencies is highly desired and valued by all parents.

Figure 32: Existence of work-life balance provisions at parents’ workplace



Provision for work from home and in-house daycare centers are the least provided to the parents participating in the survey.

The category of “don’t know” is interesting in itself. The percentage of parents not knowing about the existence or non-existence of a certain work-life balance policy in their workplace is quite high, ranging from about 5 percent to almost 20 percent. Parents knowing and demanding their rights from their employers does not seem to be ubiquitous in Japan.

Distinguishing the answers listed in Figure 32 by gender, we found that more fathers than mothers categorically determine that provisions do not exist at their workplace. Yet mothers, to a significantly higher

percentage, are the ones stating to not know about the existence of these provisions. Just to pick one example, we list the results for flextime provisions. Only 6.3 percent of fathers state that they do not know about the existence of flextime provisions, whereas it is 23.7 percent among the mothers.

Table 14: Existence of flextime provisions by gender

	Fathers	Mothers	Total
Flextime possible	22.8 % (227)	15.6 % (65)	20.7 % (292)
Flextime not possible	70.9 % (705)	60.8 % (254)	67.9 % (959)
Don't know	6.3 % (63)	23.7 % (99)	11.5 % (162)
Total	100.0 % (995)	100.0 % (418)	100.0 % (1413)

Note: $\chi^2(2) = 89.24, p < .001$.

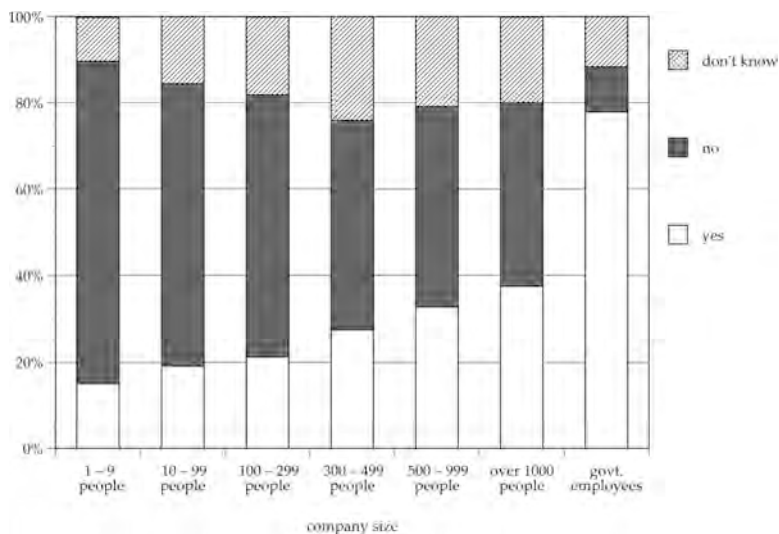
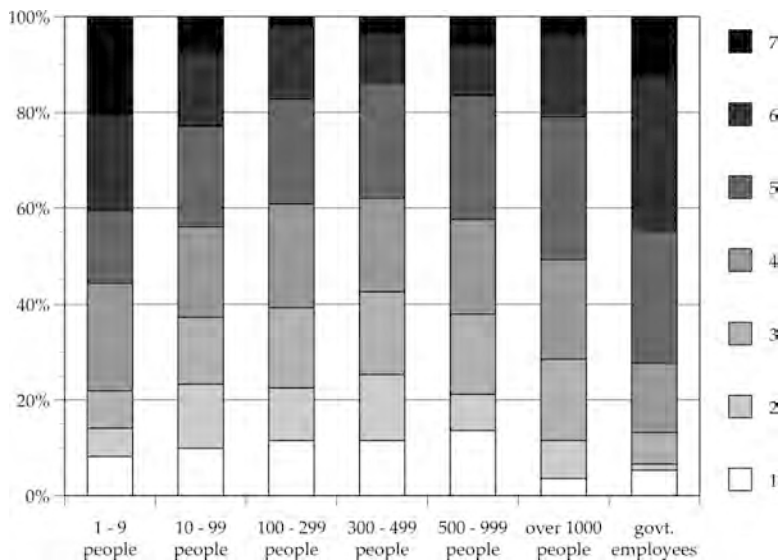
Company size matters

Work-life balance provisions are only mandatory for companies of 300+ employees. Therefore, we calculated the answers by the size of the company the fathers and mothers work at (where employed). We found that most provisions are actually only offered by large-size companies or for government employees, and are thus in line with the governmental guidelines.

Below is one example of a time policy measure (others show more or less the same patterns), namely sick-child leave. The existence of provisions increases with company size and is most frequent among government office employees, of which close to 80 percent report that it is possible at their workplace.

Even though government employees do not have the benefit of an in-house daycare center or the possibility to work from home (compared to private-sector companies), they do have, to a higher degree, the possibility to avoid overtime work or have shortened work hours when their children are under the age of 3.

Parents were also asked about their level of satisfaction with their companies' consideration for working parents, rating their satisfaction on a 7-point Likert-like scale ranging from 1 ("least satisfied") to 7 "most satisfied". Not surprisingly, government employees, who enjoy the highest number of time policy measures, are quite satisfied (see Figure 34). Yet, surprisingly, fathers and mothers working within the smallest companies, with a size of up to 9 employees, are almost equally satisfied. Why companies, which do not provide many work-life balance measures and objectively do not provide much support for

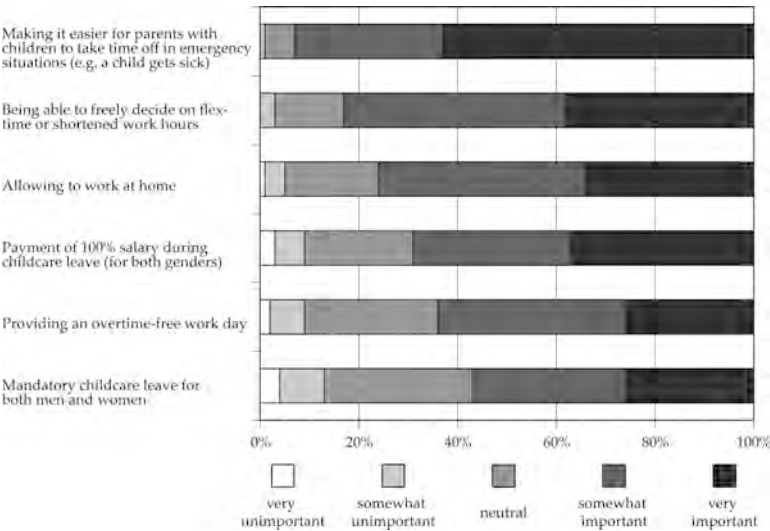
Figure 33: Possibility to take time off when child is sick, by company size**Figure 34: Satisfaction with family-friendliness of one's own workplace, by company size**

parents, can still be considered satisfying in that respect, can only be speculated about. Possibly it has something to do with the informality and flexibility of a small workplace, both of which supersede formally implemented policy measures. Further research in that regard would certainly prove worthwhile.

Similar to Figure 31 above, parents were asked to evaluate the importance of other possible time measurements, which the government has discussed at some point or another.

Figure 35 again confirms that the evaluation of non-bureaucratic emergency flexibility is most important to parents, as can be seen in the first three categories from the top. Overall, the rigidity of workhours and workplace constraints seem to be the largest concern for Japanese parents. Yet reasons for these conditions often lie at the heart of Japanese company workplace customs and norms, making them the most difficult to restructure.

Figure 35: Importance of time policy measures



Just as with infrastructure policy measures, when analyzing the opinions on these time policies by employment status, we found several significant differences between the regularly employed, the part-time or temporarily employed, and the non-employed. There is an increase in importance concerning almost all time measures from regularly employed to the non-employed. Time policies are most important for the unemployed, sug-

gesting that these respondents left their jobs for that very reason, as it was too strenuous for them to struggle through employment and parenthood at the same time.

**Government office employees enjoy the
most formal time policies at their
workplace.**

Table 15: Importance of time policy measures by employment status (ANOVA)

Opinion on time policy measures	Managers & regularly employed	Part-time, temp & self- employed	Not employed	F (2, 2104)
	M	M	M	
To be able to freely decide on flextime or shortened work hours	4.12	4.09	4.31	15.68***
To be able to work at home	3.80	4.09	4.29	66.73***
Provision of a "no-overtime" work day	3.65	3.75	3.97	22.99***
To make childcare leave both for men and women mandatory	3.63	3.70	3.72	1.53
Payment of 100 % of their income for men and women during childcare leave	4.01	3.86	3.90	4.05*
In emergency situations, such as when a child gets sick, to make it easier for parents with children to take time off	4.46	4.55	4.66	18.28***

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Childcare leave

The gender difference in the frequency of taking childcare leave (we asked about childcare leave for the youngest child only) is highly significant. The rate of employed mothers and fathers that have taken maternity/childcare or parental leave is 21.9 percent among mothers, whereas the rate among fathers is as low as 3.3 percent. Compared to nationwide statistics, the percentage of fathers in this survey is slightly higher than among the overall population with 2.03 percent. The percentage of mothers, however, is significantly lower, as 76.3 percent of mothers in the overall population took maternity/childcare leave in the year 2013 (Ishii-Kuntz 2015). This can only be explained by the comparatively high number of unemployed mothers, as well as the fact that this group of mothers has very young children. As this question was limited to only those currently in employment, we did not account for those mothers who might have first taken maternity/childcare leave and then eventually dropped out of the labor market entirely rather than returning to work.

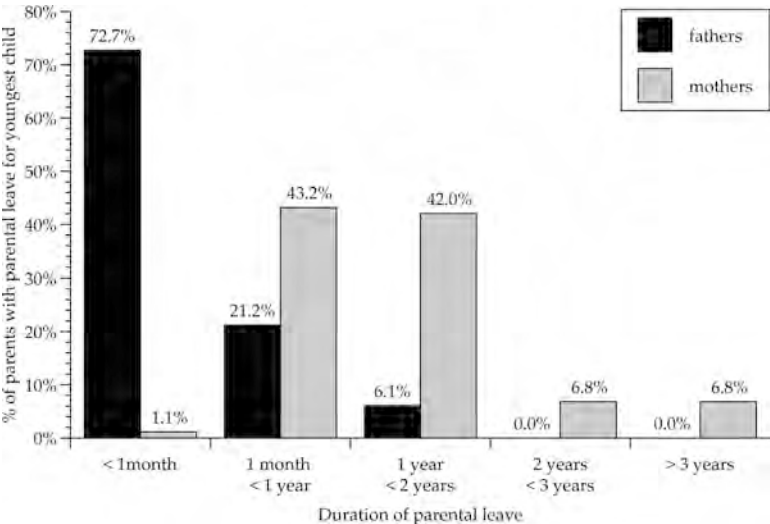
Table 16: Childcare/parental leave by gender

	Fathers	Mothers	Total
Yes	33 (3.3 %)	91 (21.9 %)	124 (8.8 %)
No	965 (96.7 %)	324 (78.1 %)	1,289 (91.2 %)
Total	998 (100.0 %)	415 (100.0 %)	1,413 (100.0 %)

Note: $\chi^2(1) = 126.96, p < .001$.

There are also significant gender differences in the length of childcare leave. As can be seen in Figure 36, the majority of fathers take less than one month of childcare leave, often even less than one week.

Figure 36: Length of parental leave by gender

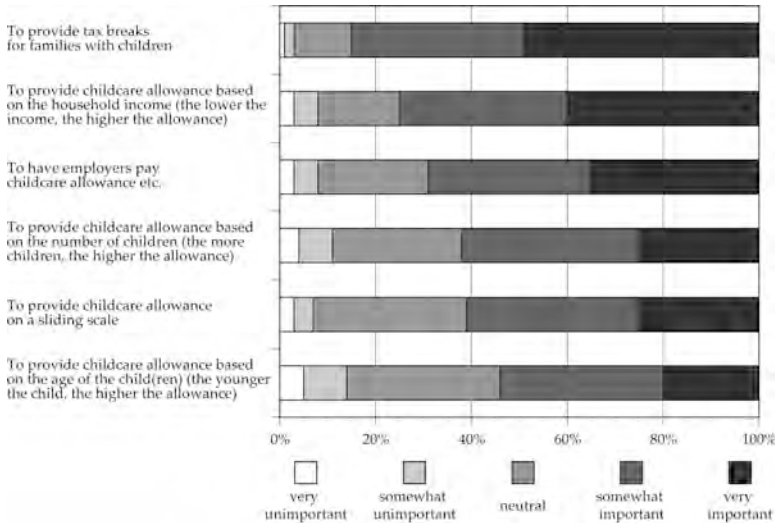


7.3 MONEY

Monetary policies have changed significantly over the decades. Since the 1970s, childcare allowance has been in place, but both the amount and the eligibility criteria have changed frequently. Particularly in 2009, when the Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ) ran its successful election campaign with the aim of raising childcare allowance and granting it to everyone, without income limitations, the issue was in the public eye. Childcare allowance has remained a hotly debated topic ever since.

Offered a list of six monetary policy measures, most in regards to different criteria for providing childcare allowance, parents were asked to evaluate the importance of said measures. We found in particular that tax breaks for parents with children were considered important (see Figure 37 for details).

Figure 37: Importance of monetary policies



Looking for gender differences in the importance of tax breaks for families with children, we ran a Mann-Whitney U-test and found that this policy is significantly more important to fathers than mothers (519, $p < .001$). Different income groups, however, do not differ significantly in regards to monetary policy issues.

Tax breaks are the most important monetary policy measure for parents across all income groups.

8 EMPLOYMENT WELL-BEING

As Table 2 above shows, employment patterns of fathers and mothers are very different. While fathers are mostly regularly employed (87.3%), among mothers it is only 4.5 percent. On the other hand, 34.2 percent of mothers are part-time or temporarily employed (as opposed to only 11.1 % of fathers), while 61.4 percent of mothers are not employed at all (as opposed to only 1.5 % of fathers). A third of all fathers work in specialized (or artistic) professions, and another third in administration, sales, marketing, or banks. For mothers, one third each works in admin/sales and in the service industry, but only 17.6 percent are employed in specialized or artistic work. Thus, overall, mothers are employed in less prestigious jobs than the fathers.

Not surprisingly, there are also highly significant gender differences in employment well-being, with fathers having an overall mean score of 5 and mothers of only 4.4 (on an 11-point Likert-like scale).

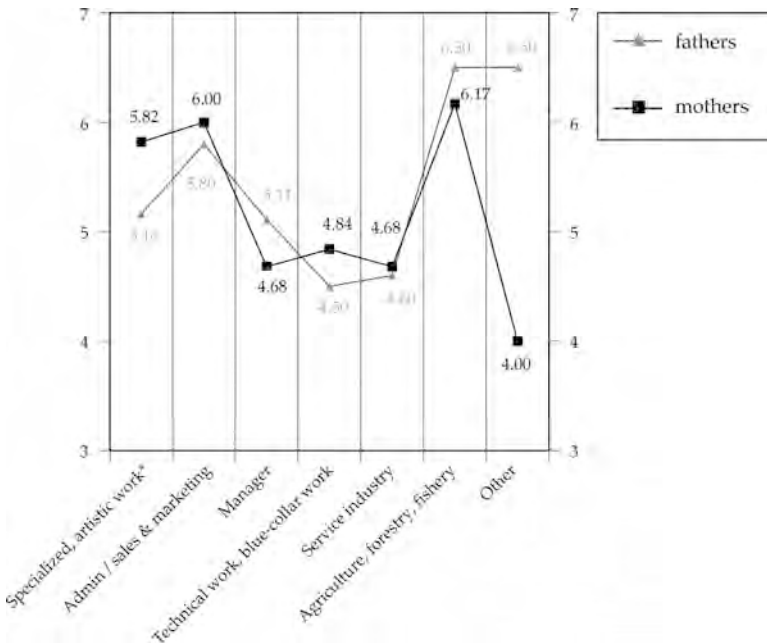
Trying to understand influences on employment well-being, we ran a two-way ANOVA. We found employment well-being to significantly differ depending on the employment status and gender. This relationship is very similar to that of overall life satisfaction, as described in Figure 13 above.

Figure 38: Employment well-being by employment status and gender



Running the same test with the variables “work content” and “gender”, we found that work content is highly significant ($p < .001$), while gender is not. We found the highest levels of employment satisfaction for fathers and mothers working in agriculture, forestry, or fishery, followed by people working as managers. Significant gender differences, however, are only present for specialized/artistic workers, as well as for the category of “other”.

Figure 39: Employment well-being by work content and gender



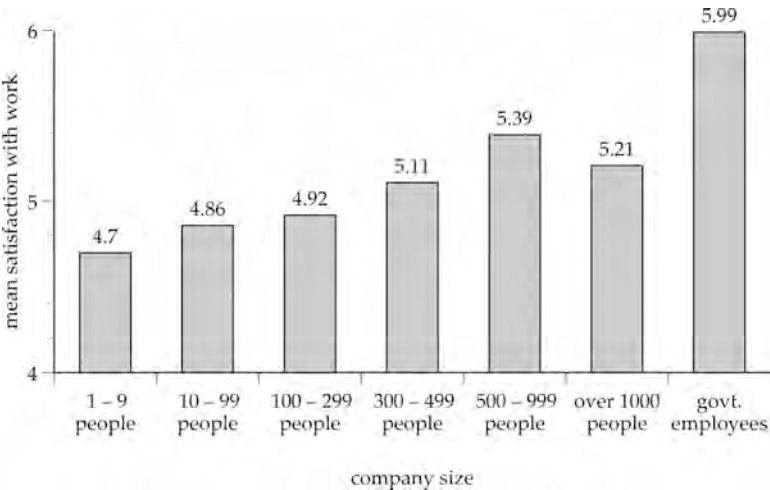
Note: * $p < .05$.

An analysis of variance for employment well-being across educational levels revealed that the education of the fathers has a significant effect on employment well-being, with rising education levels corresponding to higher levels of employment well-being ($p < .01$), whereas no such effect can be confirmed for mothers. Working hours do not have a significant effect on employment well-being for both genders, despite the fact that working hours in themselves are highly gendered.

Just like company size matters for parents' satisfaction with the work-life balance, it also matters for their overall employment well-being. With

an increase in company size, employment well-being more or less increases in a linear manner. Notably, this pattern is interrupted by extremely large companies with over 1,000 people, where employees show a lower employment well-being than at slightly smaller companies; whereas the highest employment well-being by far can be found among government employees.

Figure 40: Employment well-being by company size



The small number of parents working in agriculture, forestry, and fishery enjoy the highest levels of employment well-being.

9 EDUCATIONAL WELL-BEING

Detailed education levels by gender are shown in Table 2. For a clearer picture, recoded education levels show that there are significant gender differences in education levels, with a much higher percentage of fathers having a university education (68.4 %) than mothers (50.4 %).

Table 17: Education levels by gender

	Fathers	Mothers	Total
Junior high, high school, technical school	31.6 % (325)	49.6 % (541)	40.8 % (866)
University	68.4 % (704)	50.4 % (550)	59.2 % (1254)
Total	100 % (1029)	100 % (1091)	100 % (2120)

Note: $\chi^2(1) = 71.04, p < .001$.

When it comes to the satisfaction with one's education, however, running a one-way ANOVA test revealed that there are no statistically significant differences in educational well-being between fathers and mothers.

As can be seen in Table 5 above, educational well-being has the highest correlation with child-raising well-being. This positive correlation suggests that the educational levels of parents and their satisfaction with it have an impact on and are related to how satisfied they are with raising their children. More on these issues will have to be analyzed in due course.

10 SOCIAL NETWORK WELL-BEING

The support network for childcare purposes for a parent can consist of numerous people. First of all, it is the spouse, but also the immediate or extended family, as well as friends, colleagues, and other people including neighbors. Table 18 shows the household composition of families taking part in the survey. Once again, these numbers underline the almost ubiquitous presence of nuclear families, namely married couples with their children.

Table 18: Household members (other than own children)

Household member	Living together	Living temporarily separated	Not living together
Spouse	97.2 % (2075)	0.9 % (20)	1.8 % (39)
Father	4.9 % (104)	3.0 % (63)	92.2 % (1967)
Mother	5.9 % (126)	3.3 % (70)	90.8 % (1938)
Spouse's father	2.4 % (52)	2.6 % (55)	95.0 % (2027)
Spouse's mother	3.6 % (76)	3.1 % (66)	93.3 % (1992)
Other person (1)	2.2 % (47)	0.3 % (6)	97.5 % (2081)
Other person (2)	0.4 % (9)	0.2 % (4)	99.4 % (2121)

Table 19 and Table 20 show an overview of important people in the social networks of mothers and fathers and of the frequency of contact to these people. Looking at these numbers, it is quite striking that mothers have a much larger involvement with friends and certain family members than fathers. Mothers, for example, often mentioned their own mother as the person they talked to the second most frequently, whereas with fathers, the own mother is mostly mentioned in third place. Moreover, men seem to perceive their relationship with their spouse as much closer than the women do, as they mentioned their spouse more frequently as someone whom they talk to about important things and whom they feel connected to. This difference in how married couples perceive their relationship is also reflected in their respective satisfaction with their partnership (see Figure 5).

Table 19: Fathers only: Things done together with persons from own social network

	Spouse/ partner	Child(ren)	Father	Mother	Spouse's father	Spouse's mother	Friends	Work colleagues	Others
Who I talk to about important things	97.5%	10.4%	16.0%	25.1%	2.2%	4.0%	13.3%	7.3%	1.8%
Who I usually eat together with	95.2%	83.0%	6.9%	12.1%	4.7%	9.1%	9.2%	10.8%	1.8%
Who I feel connected to	89.4%	84.5%	17.5%	31.6%	5.4%	7.7%	12.0%	3.5%	1.6%
Who I call to take care of the kid(s)	88.1%	3.1%	14.5%	39.7%	19.3%	49.2%	1.4%	0.0%	4.2%
Who I can ask for help when the child(ren) is/are sick	88.5%	1.0%	11.7%	37.9%	13.1%	42.0%	1.1%	0.1%	5.7%
Who I talk to often	87.6%	10.7%	18.7%	44.2%	6.1%	17.6%	18.0%	10.9%	3.3%
Who I have sometimes conflicts with	81.1%	14.6%	13.2%	17.2%	1.9%	2.5%	2.3%	14.5%	4.7%

Note: Multiple answers were possible; the three most often named are highlighted from dark to light.

Table 20: Mothers only: Things done together with persons from own social network

	Spouse/ partner	Child(ren)	Father	Mother	Spouse's father	Spouse's mother	Friends	Work colleagues	Others
Who I talk to about important things	90.4%	14.7%	8.6%	56.8%	0.9%	5.0%	27.7%	1.0%	9.3%
Who I usually eat together with	82.0%	82.4%	9.6%	26.9%	5.5%	10.0%	19.5%	2.4%	3.1%
Who I feel connected to	73.4%	89.2%	17.3%	51.7%	2.1%	3.5%	17.3%	0.8%	5.0%
Who I call to take care of the kid(s)	80.6%	4.0%	17.6%	59.4%	6.1%	25.5%	6.3%	0.1%	8.2%
Who I can ask for help when the child(ren) is/are sick	73.9%	1.6%	11.3%	54.2%	3.2%	19.3%	5.7%	0.3%	8.7%
Who I talk to often	60.2%	6.5%	12.2%	73.3%	2.4%	13.9%	40.0%	2.4%	12.4%
Who I have sometimes conflicts with	79.7%	26.7%	10.5%	30.6%	2.6%	6.7%	1.2%	0.6%	4.5%

Note: Multiple answers were possible, the three most often named are highlighted from dark to light.

The mother's mother, respectively the maternal grandmother of the child, seems to play a special role, since she is the person most often contacted by both mothers and fathers when help is needed with childcare. A similar observation can be made for maternal grandfathers, since many mothers seem to rely on their own father for help, but only very few rely on their spouse's father, whereas fathers approach their own father less frequently than their spouse's father.

These figures might be taken to indicate that many couples live nearby or even with the mother's parents; however, no such relationship could be confirmed upon closer inspection of the physical living distance between the respondents and the grandparents. In fact, gender differences in the distance to the family members were so small that any interpretation would have to be made with extreme care. Therefore, Table 21 only shows the combined figures for fathers and mothers.

**In the social network of parents,
the child's maternal grandmother is
the most important person for
informal childcare support.**

Most respondents live together with their spouse and children, just as the household composition in Table 18 has shown, whereas only few respondents live together with other family members. Slightly less than 10 percent of respondents live with their parents, but only slightly over 5 percent live with their in-laws. Nonetheless, childcare support availability of both paternal and maternal grandparents of the child does not necessarily seem to be constricted by the distance of living apart from their grandchildren. Instead, the factors that contribute to grandparents aiding in childcare of their grandchildren, however, are probably much more varied and depend on the age, health, or still possible employment of the grandparents, as much as they depend on the distance of living away from their grandchildren.

Table 21: Respondents living distances to other family members

		Spouse/ partner	Child(ren)	Father	Mother	Spouse's father	Spouse's mother	Brother	Sister	Grandparents	Spouse's grand- parents
Living together		98.6% (1971)	99.6% (2121)	8.2% (146)	8.7% (175)	5.3% (89)	6.4% (124)	1.7% (22)	1.1% (14)	2.9% (28)	2.1% (19)
Living separate	Walking distance	0.3% (6)	0.0% (1)	14.3% (254)	14.2% (285)	13.3% (226)	12.6% (244)	8.2% (107)	7.5% (94)	4.1% (40)	6.3% (57)
	≤1 hour travel time	0.2% (4)	0.0% (1)	34.9% (620)	35.8% (717)	36.4% (617)	36.6% (712)	32.7% (429)	35.8% (447)	32% (312)	28.5% (260)
	> 1 hour travel time	0.9% (18)	0.3% (6)	42.6% (756)	41.2% (825)	44.9% (761)	44.4% (863)	57.4% (752)	55.5% (693)	61.0% (595)	63.2% (576)
Total		100 % (1999)	100% (2129)	100% (1776)	100% (2002)	100% (1693)	100% (1943)	100% (1310)	100% (1248)	100% (975)	100% (912)

11 CONCLUSION

For the well-being of children and society as a whole, we fundamentally believe that it is necessary to look out for the well-being of those who have and raise the children, namely parents. Yet, when taking all findings presented in this book into consideration, it is clear that contemporary Japanese parents raising small children are not fully happy in all the different aspects of their lives.

Our study has taken the unique perspective of considering a multi-dimensional model of well-being to determine a person's overall subjective well-being, with "family-policy well-being" as one equal dimension within it.

In almost all of the so-called dimensions, a large gap between the levels of well-being of fathers and mothers has shown to be of particular significance. The same goes for the marital status of the parents. Fathers frequently display higher levels of well-being than mothers, and married parents are significantly happier than single parents. The gender gap in parents' well-being in our data is highly correlated to the gendered division of household labor and the disparate situation for men and women within the Japanese labor market. This adds evidence to the claim that existing traditional gender arrangements have a negative impact on women's well-being rather than men's.

In summary, our findings paint a complex picture of worries, stresses, parenting values, social networks, leisure, employment, personalities, and partnership within larger structural, economic, and political conditions, all of which taken together contribute to the well-being of parents with young children in Japan. Individual level well-being and satisfaction are clearly shaped not only by interpersonal aspects, but are equally influenced by structural conditions such as family policies and the labor market. Improving these conditions should be at the forefront of concern for the bodies of various actors such as state and local governments, as well as private industry. Improving the well-being of parents should be a desirable political goal in itself, but this is often not enough reason for policymakers to take action. Yet, when considering that the birthrate is still seen as one of the main contributors for economic stability in Japan, policymakers should keep in mind that parents are the final decision makers on having children in the first place. Thus, it is of vital importance for policymakers to make parenthood attractive and improve the well-being of mothers and fathers alike.

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APPENDIX 1: PARENTAL WELL-BEING QUESTIONNAIRE (IN ENGLISH TRANSLATION)

FIRST ABOUT YOURSELF

Q1 What is your gender?

1 Male

2 Female

Q2 What is your birthdate?

Month, year

Q2-1 How old are you currently?

Q3 Are you currently married?

1 Yes

2 No

If Q3 = 1

Q 3-1 When did you marry?

Month and year of marriage

Q3-2 Age at marriage

If Q3 = 2

Q3-2 Do you currently have a steady partner?

1 Yes

2 No

QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR FAMILY

Q4 We are interested in all members of your family you are sharing your household with. Mark all family members who are living with you with a circle. For those family members who are only temporarily not living with you (for work transfer or study reasons, etc.), please put a triangle. For all family members who you do not live together with, do not mark anything. Please report gender, birthdate, and age of all family members.

Your relatives	Living together or temporarily separated	Gender	Birthdate or age As of January 1, 2012
(a) Spouse (partner)		1 male 2 female	Month _____ Year _____
(b) Child		1 male 2 female	Month _____ Year _____

Your relatives	Living together or temporarily separated	Gender	Birthdate or age As of January 1, 2012
(c) Child		1 male 2 female	Month _____ Year _____
(d) Child		1 male 2 female	Month _____ Year _____
(e) Child		1 male 2 female	Month _____ Year _____
(f) Your father			Age _____
(g) Your mother			Age _____
(h) Spouse's father			Age _____
(i) Spouse's mother			Age _____
(j) Other Please specify:		1 male 2 female	Age _____
(k) Other Please specify:		1 male 2 female	Age _____

ABOUT YOUR LIFE SATISFACTION

Q5 How satisfied are you presently in the following areas of your life?

	Totally dissatisfied		Neither nor						Completely satisfied				Not applicable
About you personally													
(a) Health	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
(b) Sleep	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
(c) Household income	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
(d) Work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
(e) Leisure	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
(f) Your education	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
(g) Your knowledge and technique of child raising	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
(h) Your family's (other than your spouse/husband) help with childcare	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	99	
Child support measures													
(i) Public financial support (child support payments etc.)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
(j) The provision of institutional childcare support (e. g. day-care, kindergarten, etc.)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		

	Totally dissatisfied		Neither nor				Completely satisfied					Not applicable
(k) Adapted working hours for parents	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
About your spouse/partner												
(l) The partnership with your spouse (partner)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	99
(m)Support with childcare from your spouse (partner)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	99
(n) The work share of your spouse (partner) (cleaning, childcare, elderly care)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	99

ABOUT YOUR VALUES

Q6 How important are the following issues to you?

	Absolute- ly not important	Not really important	Important	Very important
(a) To accomplish something for yourself	1	2	3	4
(b) To do something for others	1	2	3	4
(c) To self-fulfill yourself	1	2	3	4
(d) To be successful at work/to do good work	1	2	3	4
(e) To purchase your own home	1	2	3	4
(f) To live happily with your spouse (partner)	1	2	3	4
(g) To have children	1	2	3	4
(h) To participate in political or social activities (including volunteering)	1	2	3	4

Q7 Regarding your youngest child's upbringing and education, how important are the following matters to you?

	Not important	Some- what not important	Neither nor	Some- what important	Important
(a) Having good manners and conforming to etiquette	1	2	3	4	5
(b) Putting effort into reaching its goals	1	2	3	4	5
(c) Being honest	1	2	3	4	5

	Not important	Some- what not important	Neither nor	Some- what important	Important
(d) Paying attention to its orderly and clean appearance	1	2	3	4	5
(e) Learning/acquiring the ability to make right decisions	1	2	3	4	5
(f) Ability to control himself/herself	1	2	3	4	5
(g) Behaving like a typical boy/like a typical girl	1	2	3	4	5
(h) Being good friends with other children	1	2	3	4	5
(i) Helping its parents	1	2	3	4	5
(j) Having a feeling of responsibility	1	2	3	4	5
(k) Having empathy with others	1	2	3	4	5
(l) To be curious to understand how things happen and why	1	2	3	4	5
(m) Achieving good grades/results in school	1	2	3	4	5

Q8 This is about your family. Please tell us what you think about the statements below.

	I don't think so	More or less don't think so	Neither nor	More or less think so	I think so
Relationship of married couples					
(a) To be married is more financially beneficial	1	2	3	4	5
(b) Marriage should also be possible among same sex couples	1	2	3	4	5
Partnership					
(c) A marriage means to mutually take over responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
(d) When married, you lose your personal freedom	1	2	3	4	5
(e) I wish there was a greater acceptance towards the importance of family life in the world	1	2	3	4	5
Meaning of children					
(f) For children to grow up happily, both father and mother are important	1	2	3	4	5

	I don't think so	More or less don't think so	Neither nor	More or less think so	I think so
(g) Children with one parent can be equally well raised as children with both parents.	1	2	3	4	5
(h) To give children the feeling of having a family, parents have to be married.	1	2	3	4	5

QUESTIONS ONLY FOR PEOPLE LIVING TOGETHER WITH THEIR SPOUSE/
PARTNER. ALL OTHERS, PLEASE JUMP TO QUESTION 11.

Q9 This is about the work share with your spouse/partner. Among the chores listed below, who currently is responsible for it and what would be your ideal?

	Yourself	Spouse/ partner	Taking turns with your spouse/partner	You and your spouse/partner jointly	Someone else
Finances					
(a) Currently	1	2	3	4	5
(b) Your ideal	1	2	3	4	5
Preparation of meals					
(c) Currently	1	2	3	4	5
(d) Your ideal	1	2	3	4	5
Shopping for food and daily necessities					
(e) Currently	1	2	3	4	5
(f) Your ideal	1	2	3	4	5
Laundry					
(g) Currently	1	2	3	4	5
(h) Your ideal	1	2	3	4	5
Cleaning up the dishes					
(i) Currently	1	2	3	4	5
(j) Your ideal	1	2	3	4	5
Cleaning					
(k) Currently	1	2	3	4	5
(l) Your ideal	1	2	3	4	5
Fixing things, everyday repairs					
(m) Currently	1	2	3	4	5
(n) Your ideal	1	2	3	4	5

	Yourself	Spouse/ partner	Taking turns with your spouse/partner	You and your spouse/partner jointly	Someone else
Staying in contact with friends and family					
(o) Currently	1	2	3	4	5
(p) Your ideal	1	2	3	4	5

Q10 This is about the work share with your spouse/partner. Regarding the following activities with your children, who is currently doing the lion share? The word “children” below applies to all of your children.

	Your- self	Spouse/ partner	Taking turns with your spouse/ partner	Jointly with your spouse/ partner	Someone other than you or your spouse/ partner	N/A
(a) To go outside/do activities with the children together	1	2	3	4	5	9
(b) To paint, do handcrafts, or sing with your children	1	2	3	4	5	9
(c) To read to your children	1	2	3	4	5	9
(d) To play games with your children (cards, game of life, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	9
(e) To play video games together with your children (Wii, DS, cellphone, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	9
(f) To watch TV with your children	1	2	3	4	5	9
(g) To do housework with your children (cooking, shopping, bicycle repair, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	9
(h) To help your children with studying	1	2	3	4	5	9

FROM HERE ON, THE QUESTIONS APPLY TO EVERYONE

Q11 As for being a good father, which of the following items below do you think are important? Please answer the category that comes most closely to what you think.

	Totally unimportant	Not really important	Important	Very important
(a) To spend as much time as possible with the children	1	2	3	4
(b) To show affection to the children	1	2	3	4
(c) To always act with the children's needs in mind	1	2	3	4
(d) To let other people (for example spouse, etc.) also participate in childrearing	1	2	3	4
(e) To consider his own satisfaction	1	2	3	4
(f) To concentrate on his work and leave childcare to his wife	1	2	3	4
(g) To sustain the family financially	1	2	3	4
(h) Taking care of the children equally as much as possible	1	2	3	4
(i) To take childcare leave and to take over childcare	1	2	3	4
(j) To be highly involved in the children's education	1	2	3	4

Q12 As for being a good mother, which of the following items below do you think are important? Please answer the category that comes most closely to what you think.

	Totally unimportant	Not really important	Important	Very important
(a) To spend as much time as possible with the children	1	2	3	4
(b) To show affection to the children	1	2	3	4
(c) To always act with the children's needs in mind	1	2	3	4
(d) To let other people (for example spouse, etc.) also participate in childrearing	1	2	3	4
(e) To consider her own satisfaction	1	2	3	4
(f) To concentrate on her work and leave childcare to her husband	1	2	3	4

	Totally unimportant	Not really important	Important	Very important
(g) To sustain the family financially	1	2	3	4
(h) Taking care of the children equally as much as possible	1	2	3	4
(i) To take childcare leave and to take over childcare	1	2	3	4
(j) To be highly involved in the children's education	1	2	3	4

Q13 How do you feel about your time spent on each of the following topics?

	Not enough	Just right	Spending too much time
(a) Work	1	2	3
(b) Housework	1	2	3
(c) Own leisure	1	2	3
(d) Relationship with spouse/partner	1	2	3
(e) Involvement with children	1	2	3
(f) Spending time with friends	1	2	3

Q14 Within the last four weeks, how often have the feelings described below occurred?

	Not once	Not really	Sometimes	Often	All the time
(a) Overall feelings of stress and pressed for time	1	2	3	4	5
(b) (for those employed) Felt particularly stressed at work	1	2	3	4	5
(c) Felt stressed when with family	1	2	3	4	5

Q15 How much time per day should mothers of children under the age of three spend with their children?

- 1 whole day
- 2 about half a day
- 3 about one to three hours
- 4 less than an hour
- 5 time has nothing to do with it.

Q16 How much time per day should fathers of children under the age of three spend with their children?

- 1 whole day
- 2 about half a day
- 3 about one to three hours
- 4 less than an hour
- 5 time has nothing to do with it.

Q17 This is about your youngest child. Please tell us who (person or institution) regularly watches/takes care of your child?

↗ In case someone watches your child, please enter the approx. number of hours per day for an average day.

		Not looking after child	Looking after child	Average number of hours per day
Persons	(a) Spouse/partner	1	2	
	(b) The actual father or mother of the child	1	2	
	(c) The child's grandmother(s)	1	2	
	(d) The child's grandfather(s)	1	2	
	(e) The child's older brother or older sister	1	2	
	(f) Other family members	1	2	
	(g) Child-minder	1	2	
	(h) Babysitter	1	2	
	(i) Someone from the family support center	1	2	
	(j) Someone else (friend, neighbor, etc.)	1	2	
Childcare Institutions	(k) Public licensed daycare center	1	2	
	(l) Private licensed daycare center	1	2	
	(m) Daycare in companies or hospitals	1	2	
	(n) Daycare room (small scale daycare room, daycare room in front of train-stations)	1	2	
	(o) Baby hotel	1	2	
	(p) Non-licensed daycare center	1	2	
	(q) Certified daycare center	1	2	
	(r) Certified <i>Kodomo-en</i> (new form: mix between daycare and kindergarten)	1	2	
	(s) Kindergarten	1	2	

THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS APPLY TO YOU IF YOU ANSWERED IN Q17K-S THAT AN INSTITUTION IS CARING FOR YOUR YOUNGEST CHILD. ALL OTHERS, PLEASE CONTINUE TO QUESTION 23.

Q 18 Please tell us your youngest child's regular daycare schedule.

_____ times a week

My child is in care from approx. ____ o'clock to _____ o'clock

Q19 Was it difficult to find a childcare institution for your youngest child?

- 1 Very difficult
- 2 Difficult
- 3 Neither nor
- 4 Easy
- 5 Very easy

Q20 When did you start taking your youngest child to a childcare institution? How old was your child at the time?

Since ____ month ____ year

Child at that time was ____ months ____ years old

Q21 How much are the monthly costs for childcare? (If you have more than one child in childcare, please add the costs for all children below elementary school; also add in the costs for babysitters, etc.)

Per month approximately _____ Yen

Q22 How satisfied are you currently with the childcare institution your youngest child attends?

	Dis-satisfied	Slightly dis-satisfied	Slightly satisfied	Satisfied
(a) Hours of care	1	2	3	4
(b) The institution's closed days	1	2	3	4
(c) Costs	1	2	3	4
(d) The number of daycare providers or kindergarten teachers per child	1	2	3	4
(e) How unexpected things, like illnesses, are handled	1	2	3	4
(f) The play and learn program	1	2	3	4
(g) Dealing on an individual level with the demands of each child	1	2	3	4
(h) Educational principles and ways of thinking	1	2	3	4
(i) Opportunities for parents' input	1	2	3	4

	Dis-satisfied	Slightly dis-satisfied	Slightly satisfied	Satisfied
(j) Contact/communication with other parents	1	2	3	4
(k) The atmosphere of the (childcare) institution	1	2	3	4

FROM HERE ON, THE QUESTIONS ARE FOR EVERYONE.

Q23 What do you think about the following childcare support measures?

	Not important	More or less unimportant	Can't say	More or less important	Important
Childcare infrastructure					
(a) To increase the number of daycare institutions	1	2	3	4	5
(b) To increase the number of child-minders	1	2	3	4	5
(c) To make the opening hours of daycare institutions (kindergarten included) more flexible (e. g. night, holidays)	1	2	3	4	5
(d) To increase programs to improve the quality of daycare providers and kindergarten teachers	1	2	3	4	5
(e) To improve the support for children with special needs	1	2	3	4	5
(f) To improve the support for parents with limited financial means	1	2	3	4	5
(g) To increase after school care	1	2	3	4	5
Employment system					
(h) To be able to freely decide on flex time or shortened work hours	1	2	3	4	5
(i) To be able to work from home	1	2	3	4	5
(j) To decide on a set day without overtime	1	2	3	4	5
(k) To make childcare leave both for men and women mandatory	1	2	3	4	5
(l) Payment of 100 % of their income for men and women during their childcare leave	1	2	3	4	5
(m) To make it easier for parents with children to take time off in emergency situations, e. g. when a child gets sick	1	2	3	4	5

	Not im- portant	More or less unim- portant	Can't say	More or less im- portant	Impor- tant
Financial support					
(n) To pay the childcare allowance on a sliding scale.....	1	2	3	4	5
(n-1)based on the household income (the lower the income, the higher the childcare allowance, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
(n-2)based on the age of the child(ren) (the younger the child, the higher the allowance)	1	2	3	4	5
(n-3)based on the number of children (the more children, the higher the allowance)	1	2	3	4	5
(o) Tax breaks for families with children	1	2	3	4	5
(p) To have employers pay childcare allowance, etc.	1	2	3	4	5

Q24 This is about your health.

	Not good	Not too good	Normal	Pretty good	Good
(a) How was your health in this past one year?	1	2	3	4	5
(b) How is your current physical condition?	1	2	3	4	5
(c) How is your current psychological condition?	1	2	3	4	5

Q25 Do you currently have a household member needing care?

1 Yes

2 No

Q26 Now about work/employment. How important are the following topics for your (current) job or choice of workplace?

	Not at all important	Kind of un- important	Kind of important	Very im- portant
(a) High income	1	2	3	4
(b) Career opportunities	1	2	3	4
(c) An occupation with social status	1	2	3	4
(d) To be able to come into contact with many people	1	2	3	4
(e) To be able to take sufficient time off for the family	1	2	3	4
(f) Interesting work content	1	2	3	4

Q27 Regarding married couples (partners) employment constellation, what do you think is most ideal?

	Both employed				Only one is employed				Neither works
	Both working fulltime	Only the woman works	Only the man works part time	Both working part time	Only the woman works	Only the man works full-time	Only the woman works	Only the man works part	
(a) In case of no children	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(b) In the case the youngest child is below age 3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(c) In the case the youngest child attends daycare or kindergarten	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(d) In the case the youngest child goes to school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(e) In the case all children are adults and have moved out	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Q28 What is your current employment?

- 1 Manager, executive
- 2 Regularly employed (including public employees)
- 3 Temporary worker, part time, side job
- 4 Contract worker
- 5 Self employed
- 6 Employee in family-run business
- 7 Working from/at home
- 8 Student
- 9 On leave (incl. maternity leave, childcare leave)
- 10 Other (please specify: _____)
- 11 Not working

Q29 If you yourself could decide, how do you think you would like to work?

- 1 Manager, executive
- 2 Regularly employed (including public employee)
- 3 Temporary worker, part time, side job
- 4 Contract worker
- 5 Self employed
- 6 Employee in family-run business
- 7 Working from/at home
- 8 Other (please specify: _____)
- 9 I don't want to work
- 10 Don't know

Q35 Which of the following provisions does your workplace have?

Q35-1 If you chose 'yes', please answer how easy it was to use that provision

	yes	no	I don't know
(a) Provision of shortened work hours for employees with children under age 3	1	2	3
(b) Release from overtime work for employees with children under age 3	1	2	3
(c) Nursing time off in case children are sick	1	2	3
(d) Flextime (being able to decide on ones beginning and end of work)	1	2	3
(e) Flexibility from company side and superiors to handle emergencies	1	2	3
(f) Company's in-house day-care center	1	2	3
(g) Provision to work from home (other than self-employed, home workers)	1	2	3

very easy to use	sort of easy to use	not really easy to use	impossible to use	seems impossible to use	I don't know
1	2	3	4	5	
1	2	3	4	5	
1	2	3	4	5	
1	2	3	4	5	
1	2	3	4	5	
1	2	3	4	5	
1	2	3	4	5	

Q36 Overall, do you think your workplace is considerate of employees with children?

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

Not at all considerate

Very considerate

Q37 Have you taken maternity or childcare leave with your youngest child?

1 Yes 2 No

If Q37 = 1:

Q37-1 How long did you take childcare leave?

Years ____ months ____ days ____

Explanation:

Maternity leave is for 56 days after birth.

Childcare leave is from the 57th day after birth onward. For men, it is from the day of the birth. Childcare leave can be taken until the day before the child's first birthday. But in case a daycare place cannot be found, childcare leave can be extended until the child is 1 year and 6 months old. Furthermore, depending on the workplace regulations, this period can be extended beyond the period guaranteed by law. In this questionnaire, we call all of this "childcare leave".

THESE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE FOR THOSE, WHO ARE CURRENTLY NOT EMPLOYED. ALL OTHERS, CONTINUE TO QUESTION 40.

Q38 Do you want to work in the future?

- 1 I want to work as soon as possible
- 2 I want to get back to work within this year
- 3 I want to return to work within the next 2 to 5 years
- 4 For the time being, I won't be working
- 5 I definitely won't be going back to work
- 6 I don't know yet

Q39 When did you approximately work for the last time? If you have never worked, please write a 0.

approx. year _____

NOW WE ARE ASKING ABOUT YOUR SPOUSE / PARTNER. FOR THOSE NOT HAVING A SPOUSE/PARTNER, PLEASE SKIP TO QUESTION 45.

Q40 What is your spouse's (partner's) current employment?

- 1 Manager, executive
- 2 Regularly employed (including public employees)
- 3 Temporary worker, part time, side job
- 4 Contract worker
- 5 Self employed
- 6 Employee in family-run business
- 7 Working from/at home
- 8 Student → please skip to Question 45
- 9 On leave (incl. maternity leave, childcare leave)
- 10 Other (please specify: _____)
- 11 Not working → please skip to Question 45.

IF YOU ANSWERED Q40, OPTION 9 (“ON LEAVE”), PLEASE ANSWER QUESTIONS 41 TO 44 IN REGARDS TO YOUR SPOUSE’S/PARTNER’S EMPLOYMENT BEFORE TAKING LEAVE.

Q41 What is your spouse’s (partner’s) usual content of work?

- 1 Specialized, artistic work (doctor, lawyer, teacher, engineer, nurse, writer, designer, editor, etc.)
- 2 Administrative work (above section manager, council member, etc.)
- 3 Office, sales work (office employee, sales staff, typist, cashier, etc.)
- 4 Sales, service work (store owner, store employee, door-to-door salesperson, beautician, waitress, receptionist, cleaning personnel, helper, etc.)
- 5 Technical work, blue collar work (construction worker, self-defense employee, police, mechanic, craftsman, driver, etc.)
- 6 Working in agriculture, forestry, or fishery (gardener, landscaping included)
- 7 Other (please specify: _____)

Q42 What are your spouse’s (partner’s) usual working hours per week and from what time to what time does he/she usually work? Please describe the usual pattern and add also the lunch break and overtime in your answer.

Per week _____ hours

From _____ o’clock to _____ o’clock.

Q43 What is your spouse’s (partner’s) usual commute time per day? Please describe the usual pattern. For those working from home, please put in 0.

Per day, the roundtrip commute time is _____ hours _____ minutes

Q44 Has your spouse (partner) taken maternity leave or childcare leave with your youngest child?

1 Yes

2 No

If Q44 = 1:

Q44-1 How long did he/she take childcare leave?

Years _____ months _____ days _____

Explanation:

Maternity leave is for 56 days after birth.

Childcare leave is from the 57th day after birth onward. For men, it is from the day of the birth. Childcare leave can be taken until the day before the child’s first birthday. But in case a daycare place cannot be found, childcare leave can be extended until the child is 1 year and 6 months old. Furthermore, depending on the workplace regulations, this period can be extended beyond the period guaranteed by law. In this questionnaire, we call all of this “Childcare leave”.

THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS APPLY TO EVERYONE.

Q45 Please tell us from which school you last graduated, or which school you are currently attending.

- 1 Junior high school
- 2 High school
- 3 Technical school
- 4 2 year college
- 5 4 year university
- 6 Graduate school (includes also 6 year universities)
- 7 Other (please specify)

Q46 Are you currently attending school?

- 1: Currently in school 2: Not in school

If Q46 = 2

Q46-1 Did you graduate from the last school you attended?

- 1 Graduated 2 Not graduated

Q47 Please tell us from which school your spouse/partner last graduated, or which school he/she is currently attending. In case you do not have a spouse/partner, please skip to question 48.

- 1 Junior high school
- 2 High school
- 3 Technical school
- 4 2 year college
- 5 4 year university
- 6 Graduate school (includes also 6 year universities)
- 7 Other (please specify)

Q48 Please tell us the ideal educational level your youngest child should reach.

- 1 Graduation from junior high school
- 2 Graduation from high school
- 3 Graduation from technical school
- 4 Graduation from 2 year college
- 5 Graduation from 4 year university
- 6 Graduation from graduate school (including 6 year university)

Q49 Who in your family contributes the most to the family finances?

- 1 Self
- 2 Spouse/partner
- 3 Both self and spouse/partner equally
- 4 Other (please specify)

Q50 What was your approximate personal income before taxes in the last year? Please add your bonus payments.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 No income | 10 8–8.99 million yen |
| 2 Less than 1 million yen | 11 9–9.99 million yen |

- 3

1–1.99 million yen
- 4

2–2.99 million yen
- 5

3–3.99 million yen
- 6

4–4.99 million yen
- 7

5–5.99 million yen
- 8

6–6.99 million yen
- 9

7–7.99 million yen
- 12

10–10.99 million yen
- 13

11–11.99 million yen
- 14

12–12.99 million yen
- 15

13–13.99 million yen
- 16

14–14.99 million yen
- 17

15–15.99 million yen
- 18

over 16 million yen

Q51 What was your spouse’s/partner’s approximate personal income before taxes in the last year? Please add your bonus payments. If you don’t have a spouse/partner, please continue to the next question.

- 1

No income
- 2

Less than 1 million yen
- 3

1–1.99 million yen
- 4

2–2.99 million yen
- 5

3–3.99 million yen
- 6

4–4.99 million yen
- 7

5–5.99 million yen
- 8

6–6.99 million yen
- 9

7–7.99 million yen
- 10

8–8.99 million yen
- 11

9–9.99 million yen
- 12

10–10.99 million yen
- 13

11–11.99 million yen
- 14

12–12.99 million yen
- 15

13–13.99 million yen
- 16

14–14.99 million yen
- 17

15–15.99 million yen
- 18

over 16 million yen

Q52 From your annual income, do you have money to save, or to buy expensive items or for emergency purchases?

- 1

Yes
- 2

No

Q52-1 How much money is that per year?

In one year, approximately ____ Yen

Q53 How do you currently live?

- 1

Living in own house (single family house, semi-detached house/duplex, etc.)
- 2

Living in own apartment
- 3

Renting house or duplex
- 4

Renting apartment
- 5

Living in public housing offered by the Urban Renaissance Agency (UR, formerly Japan Housing Corporation)
- 6

Living in public housing offered by local government
- 7

Dorms (from companies, universities, public)
- 8

Living in a sublet place
- 9

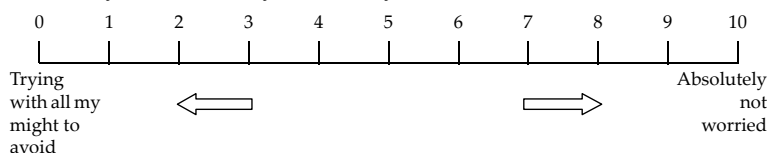
Other (please specify: _____)

Q54 Among the items listed below, what are you currently afraid of or worry about?

	Not scared at all	Not really scared	A little scared	Very scared
(a) The economy	1	2	3	4
(b) Parents’ health	1	2	3	4
(c) Children’s health	1	2	3	4
(d) Loosing work	1	2	3	4

	Not scared at all	Not real- ly scared	A little scared	Very scared
(e) Public safety	1	2	3	4
(f) Food safety	1	2	3	4
(g) Environment (including radiation)	1	2	3	4
(h) Relationship to spouse (partner)	1	2	3	4
(i) Problems with raising children	1	2	3	4
(j) That my child is left out by his/her friends // that my child has no friends	1	2	3	4
(k) That I don't get along with my child(ren)	1	2	3	4
(l) That my child(ren) become(s) victim of bullying or violence	1	2	3	4
(m) That my child's discipline is lacking	1	2	3	4

Q55 Are you troubled by risks or try to avoid them?



Q56 How much do the statements below fit your own opinion?

	Doesn't fit at all						Completely fits
(a) How my personal life is developing depends on myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(b) Compared to other people, I don't think I am getting what I deserve	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(c) What people possess or achieve depends on chance or fate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(d) It is more important to have ability and talent than putting in effort	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(e) I think that many things that happen to people cannot be controlled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(f) When one engages in society or politics, one can influence social circumstances / society	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q57 Among the statements below, what fits to you personally?

	Doesn't fit at all						Completely fits
(a) I work thoroughly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(b) I like talking and am pretty talkative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(c) I don't pay much attention how I act towards others or if I use bad words	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(d) My way of thinking is creative and I come up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(e) I have a propensity to worry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(f) I can forgive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(g) I am a lazy person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(h) I am sociable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(i) Artistic and aesthetic experiences are important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(j) I get irritated quickly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(k) I clean up / get my work (done) with efficiency	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(l) I am well-behaved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(m) I treat other people with consideration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(n) I have rich power of imagination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(o) I can cope well with stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(p) I am brimming with curiosity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q58 Who is doing the things below with you? Please choose up to three each.

	Spouse/partner	Child(ren)	Your father	Your mother	Your spouse's father	Your spouse's mother	Friends	Work colleagues	Others
(a) Who I talk to about important things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(b) Who I usually eating together with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(c) Who I feel connected to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(d) Who I call to take care of the kid(s)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(e) Who I can ask for help when the child(ren) is/ are sick.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(f) Who I talk to often	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(g) Who I have sometimes conflicts with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Q59 We are interested in your family members. Among the people listed below, please tell us how far they live from your residence.

- In case you have several brothers and or sisters, please tell us only the distance to the one living closest to you.
- Do not record missing or dead family members,.

		Living together		Living separately				
		Number of people	Living together (sharing kitchen)	Living together, separate entrances,	In walking/bicycling distance	Less than 30 min. distance (by bus,	Less than 1 hour by bus, train, car	Between 1 and 3 hour distance
(a) Spouse / partner			1	2	3	4	5	6
(b) Your child(ren)			1	2	3	4	5	6
(c) Your father			1	2	3	4	5	6
(d) Your mother			1	2	3	4	5	6
(e) Your spouse's father			1	2	3	4	5	6
(f) Your spouse's mother			1	2	3	4	5	6
(g) Your brother			1	2	3	4	5	6
(h) Your sister			1	2	3	4	5	6
(i) Your grandparents			1	2	3	4	5	6
(j) Your spouse's grandparents			1	2	3	4	5	6

Q60 All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?



Q61 All things considered, how happy do you feel as a whole these days?

