



CORNELL UNIVERSITY EAST ASIA PAPERS

FROM POLITICS TO LIFESTYLES:
JAPAN IN PRINT, II

Edited by Frank Baldwin

CHINA-JAPAN PROGRAM
CORNELL UNIVERSITY
140 URIS HALL
ITHACA, N.Y. 14853

**FROM POLITICS TO LIFESTYLES:
JAPAN IN PRINT, II**

EDITED BY FRANK BALDWIN.

**China-Japan Program
Cornell University
Ithaca, New York 14853**

The Cornell East Asia Series is published by the Cornell University East Asia Program (distinct from Cornell University Press). We publish affordably priced books on a variety of scholarly topics relating to East Asia as a service to the academic community and the general public. Standing orders, which provide for automatic notification and invoicing of each title in the series upon publication, are accepted.

If after review by internal and external readers a manuscript is accepted for publication, it is published on the basis of camera-ready copy provided by the volume author. Each author is thus responsible for any necessary copy-editing and for manuscript formatting. Address submission inquiries to CEAS Editorial Board, East Asia Program, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York 14853-7601.

Number 42 in the Cornell East Asia Series

Online edition copyright © 2007, print edition copyright © 1986 Frank Baldwin. All rights reserved

ISSN 1050-2955 (formerly 8756-5293)

ISBN-13 978-0-939657-42-1 / ISBN-10 0-939657-42-2

CAUTION: Except for brief quotations in a review, no part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form without permission in writing from the author. Please address inquiries to Frank Baldwin in care of the East Asia Program, Cornell University, 140 Uris Hall, Ithaca, NY 14853-7601

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The articles in this collection were produced by the Translation Service Center in Tokyo, and I am most grateful to the Japan-U.S. Friendship Commission for its financial support of the Center from 1979 to the present. I also wish to thank the Japan Foundation for a grant that provided the services of an American editor, and the Rockefeller Brothers Fund, Toyota U.S.A. and Hoso Bunka Foundation for financial support.

I wish to acknowledge the cooperation of the Japan Newspaper Publishers and Editors Association and its member papers, the monthly magazines and many individual writers for permission to use their articles.

The Center's work has been immeasurably facilitated by three committees: Steering and Selection Committees in Tokyo and an American Advisory committee in the United States. While space limitations do not permit individual recognition of the 16 Japanese and 11 American members of these committees, I especially wish to note the help provided by Profs. Shoichi Saeki and Robert Scalapino.

The vital link between Tokyo and the U.S. press was Dr. Ernie Notar in the San Francisco office of The Asia Foundation, whose many-faceted contribution is gratefully acknowledged.

I wish to thank the translators of the articles in this volume (the number in parenthesis indicates how many articles each did):

Alfred T. Birnbaum (1); Toshie Bix (3); Neil G. Burton (3); Lewis G. Cook (5); Thomas R. Donahue (4); Tadashi Higashizono (2); Keisuke Iwatsu (6); Ruth McCreery (5); Frank Moorhead (6); Robert Mulcahy (3); Nancy Nakayama (1); David S. Noble (1); Bruce Pommer (1); Robert Ricketts (1); Linda Schultz-Young (2); Sebastian Swann (1); Manabu Takechi (3); Stefan Tanaka (1); Roger Van Damme (1); William O. Wetherall (2) and Daniel Zoll (1).

**Prof. T. J. Pempel of Cornell University deserves special thanks
for his patient support of this publication project.**

**James L. Stewart
Representative
The Asia Foundation
Executive Director
Translation Service Center**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION.	1
National Security	11
U.S.-Japan Relations.	26
Industry and Business	35
Education	68
Life Styles and Attitudes	84
Common Problems	124

INTRODUCTION

In 1979 the Translation Service Center (TSC) was established in Tokyo by The Asia Foundation to put into accurate, readable English for publication in the American press a fraction of the enormous output of analysis and opinion appearing in Japanese daily newspapers and monthly magazines.

TSC did 163 articles in 1981, and 74 daily newspapers in the United States used the pieces. Honors for top placement went to an essay from the Nikkan Kogyo Shimbun that appeared in at least 13 publications, from California to Alabama, with millions of readers.

* * * * *

The articles in this volume appeared in the Japanese press in 1981. They have been arranged in six subject categories: national security, U.S.-Japan relations, industry and business, education, life styles and attitudes, and common problems. The last category consists of issues faced by both Japanese and Americans. One classification that appeared in vol. 1--Japan in Asia--has been dropped because U.S. editors evinced little interest in the topic, and TSC editors picked few such articles.

The categories are non-exclusive; topics often overflow these arbitrary boundaries. All Japanese names follow the U.S. newspaper style of placing the surname last.

Katsumi Takeoka's appeal for dialogue with the Soviet Union in the interests of detente and disarmament was a faint voice against the rhetoric from Washington. Under relentless U.S. pressure, Japan was on the verge of a major, sustained increase in military spending, missions and national power that still continues. The reluctance of Prime Minister Zenko Suzuki clashed with the Reagan administration's determination to involve Japan more fully in the Western arms buildup and with U.S. nuclear strategy.

On May 19, 1981, Professor Edwin O. Reischauer, former ambassador to Japan, told an interviewer that nuclear-armed U.S. vessels had visited Japanese ports for many years. The press had a field day with this sensational revelation, which gave the lie to the Japanese

government's oft-repeated assurances that the three non-nuclear principles were sedulously observed by Tokyo and Washington. Reischauer's disclosures were confirmed and amplified by former U.S. and Japanese officials, yet the Suzuki administration haplessly reiterated the now-discredited formula: Since no U.S. request to bring nuclear weapons into Japanese waters had been received, the weapons could not be on U.S. warships. With breathtaking contempt for the public's intelligence, a parade of bureaucrats and politicians explained away the Reischauer statement.

Kiyofuku Chuma's article in the Asahi Shimbun surveyed Japan's security policies and options in the wake of the brouhaha. Kanagawa Governor Kazuji Nagasu spoke for millions in his constituency and across Japan who want the protection of the mutual security treaty without the risk of being a target for nuclear attack.

Among the four articles in section 2 on U.S.-Japan relations, that by Osamu Miyoshi echoes the impatience of the academic right about Premier Suzuki's handling of ties to Washington. In retrospect, the accession of Yasuhiro Nakasone to the prime ministership a year later seems almost preordained as Japan sought stronger leadership to deal with the Reagan administration.

On an entirely different plane, Nobel Prize winner Leo Esaki compares the notions of American individualism and Japanese groupism. Although exaggerated into almost mythic folkways, Esaki shows the practical impact of cultural values on creativity in science and teamwork in production.

The bloom was still on the "Learn from Japan" movement in 1981, as shown by the 13 articles on business and industry. They range from the use of business cards to how the steel industry cut energy use and robotics. A less-publicized aspect of industrial relations--cost-cutting through tough pressure on subcontractors--is described in two articles. The wages and benefits of this large strata of the labor force are markedly inferior to those of employees in large corporations.

In section 4, "Students on the Warpath" describes one of the wave of violent incidents that upset parents and educators early in the 1981 academic year. Adolescents with little interest in or aptitude for

academic course work are trapped in the junior high schools by compulsory attendance laws and social pressure. In a few institutions the staff sought police assistance to control disruptive students. The school system was by no means a Blackboard Jungle, but something--many things-- were clearly wrong.

The pressures were too much for some administrators, too. Three elementary school principals had committed suicide in Hiroshima prefecture by early April 1981. Apparently the victims of staff antagonism and professional isolation, the tragic deaths intensified concern over education. There was much fingerpointing at a host of scapegoats--parents afraid to discipline their children, overcrowded classes, meddling by the Ministry of Education, incompetent or indifferent teachers, the emphasis on grades rather than child development--but no consensus was in sight.

Only the top of the educational pyramid was quiet, as an article on students at the University of Tokyo shows. A catatonic apathy blanketed college campuses. Some controversy was caused by the aggressive recruiting tactics of students affiliated with the Rev. Sun Myung Moon's Unification Church.

The largest section in this collection, with 15 articles, is Life Styles and Attitudes. The passage of time has clarified some of the trends noted in 1981. Religious attitudes described in two pieces, for example, seem to presage a greater interest in faith and nonmaterialistic values that was dubbed a "religious revival" by 1985.

On the other hand, time did not treat Akemi Masuda kindly. In 1981, she was "Japan's new long-distance track sensation" and a gold medal hopeful for the 1984 Olympics. Masuda made the Olympic team and competed in the marathon at Los Angeles, but she failed to finish the race.

Other teen-age girls were performing more, if not necessarily better, a survey of the sexual activities of high-school and college students shows. The country as a whole seemed obsessed with pornography. A sleazy sex industry oozed out of the closet into flagrant red-light districts in major cities (the police began to crack down in early 1985.) Many observers thought sexual permissiveness in adult

society and promiscuity and delinquency among adolescents were part of a general moral breakdown.

Takeshi Sakurada's comments in Section 6, Common Problems, on the pernicious effects of welfare abuses and wasteful public spending echo demands by U.S. conservatives for less government intervention in the economy. Another article warns that Japan's social security will run out of money in 2001. Some of the liberal response is suggested in the defense of welfare mothers' rights, and the Ministry of Health and Welfare's new program for the senile elderly. Other articles discuss environmental problems, crime and increasing drug use.

In a lighter vein, the year saw one mystery solved: Many Japanese get intoxicated quickly, and public drunkenness is a sordid spectacle, yet alcoholism is rare. The Asahi Shimbun reported that half of all Japanese have a different body chemistry from Caucasians. Lacking an enzyme that neutralizes alcohol, they soon become red-faced and tipsy. But because the reaction is so swift and unpleasant, this portion of the population drinks little and virtually none become alcoholics. Kampai!

* * * * *

Graduate students often ask, rather plaintively, "How can I learn to translate?" The question usually arises about the time a scholarship grant runs out, the thesis refuses to jell and another year or two in Japan seems attractive. Many professionals were trained under the watchful eye of an experienced editor in an informal teacher-disciple relationship. They learned by doing for several years. There are no shortcuts, unfortunately. Much of the literature on translation, written by and for pedagogues, provides little practical guidance. A valuable exception is the essay reprinted below from the TSC Newsletter, No. 1, 1979. The author, Tsutomu Kano, worked on many of the articles in this collection. His permission is gratefully acknowledged.

Frank Baldwin
Editor/Translator
Translation Service Center

THE ALCHEMIST

Philosophy and Problems in Japanese-English Translation

by Tsutomu Kano

For about four years beginning in 1971 I taught a course in translation, together with an American colleague, to a group of ten well-educated, almost bilingual Japanese editors/translators on the staff of an English-language journal. The twice-weekly class, called "Philosophy and Advanced Techniques of Translation," taught me a lesson--that the art of translation cannot be conveyed in a classroom situation. It takes only half an hour to explain your philosophy of translation, but like baseball or any other sport, you cannot start playing a game as soon as you know the rules; at the very least, you must first be able to catch and throw, establish contact between bat and ball, and you need to have a fine sense of timing gained from experience. In my line of work, you must be able to read and understand Japanese, write decent English before you begin translating Japanese prose, and you must know when to use what style, vocabulary and connecting material.

One unlikely problem that nevertheless often seems to crop up early in the experience of Japanese trying to work something into English is the discovery that he or she does not necessarily understand the essay written in his own language. You might think that to be exceptional, but we literally spent the four years teaching our "well-educated" students not only English composition, but "reading in advanced Japanese." On balance, I would say that two out of the ten trainees reached the point where they could produce work which, with careful editing by an experienced native speaker of English, could stand as a polished translation. The rest of the class learned a few new idioms, discovered a few "don'ts" they had been unaware of, but little more. It might have been more beneficial for them to have put their four years of class time into a total immersion program of English speaking, reading and writing.

I have long believed that in principle one should translate into one's own language. I do not mean that Japanese should give up trying to translate into English; but the fact remains that very few Japanese know English well enough to make the effort worthwhile. It makes much better sense at this stage in the development of our foreign language ability to train native speakers of English in the art. Fortunately, an increasing number of young Americans, British and Australians (as well as Europeans) are studying Japanese, and many are interested in translating Japanese materials. Their knowledge of Japanese may be limited, but that is not a major problem. Working with a qualified Japanese partner, they can constantly check their understanding of the work in question as they read it together and test possible English versions of given words, sentences or ideas. This is of course not feasible if the Japanese partner does not fully understand what is being read, or is unable to judge the accuracy of the proposed English. Most important, and I say this after years of watching valuable Japanese thinking misunderstood or passed over because the English translation of a given work was not up to par, is the ability to write smooth, logical, polished and natural English. The test of a translator in the deepest sense is whether or not he or she can transform the Japanese writing into English that, with the exception of the author's name, perhaps, gives not a hint of its foreign origin and still faithfully conveys what the author is saying.

Those who have worked only among European languages may find it difficult to appreciate the obstacles posed when stepping outside the common backyard of the Indo-European language group and being confronted with a completely different set of grammatical, philosophical and verbal assumptions. They demand a different type of transfer when being translated, including the structure of the logic, vocabulary that a dictionary may not provide, substitution of expressions, and even rearranging whole blocks of material to provide coherence for the mind that has been trained to think in English. Word-for-word translation is virtually never feasible, for the resulting English, although it may appear to be "correct," is rarely intelligible, and almost never an accurate rendition of what the Japanese text contains. I have, in

short, never sympathized with literal translation exercises, especially in the training-ground of the classroom, for what point is there in producing English that simply taxes the reader? This is a basic principle of language, I believe; language is meant to convey knowledge, information or ideas, and it can do so only if it is presented in an accepted or familiar form that the reader understands.

I have used the term "alchemy" because I believe a competent team of a Japanese and a native speaker, with superior powers of conceptualization and vocabulary, can produce translations of any Japanese materials, even those often considered untranslatable. In this I probably diverge from those who would like to preserve the Japanese order of phrase and sentence, style and vocabulary. When handling a certain type of Japanese writing, the resulting translation sometimes appears to be so different from the original that the critic may wonder what sort of black magic went into its production. But if it is a skillful job, a closer look will show that it indeed says what the author wanted to say. In short, it conveys to the English reader exactly what the author told the Japanese reader. There is bound to be, especially in literature and poetry, some loss of style, nuance and the beauty of the original. But that is never a reason not to translate a given work.

Concretely, the job of the translator is first to absorb the ideas and directional flow of what is written, grasp the main message and the supporting material, distinguishing among levels of importance. Then, in the alchemy of the brain, he must process this understanding and conceptually rearrange ideas and facts in order of their logical role in English. This often means shifting material from the end of the Japanese paragraph to the beginning of the English, recombining elements of sentences to clarify their relationship, and making certain that illustrative points or secondary material appear where most effective.

Most of us in this business have found that an important part of the work in every translation is to supply what we call the tsunagari, or connecting words or phrases that relate ideas and sentences to each other. The translation or sometimes manufacture of the tsunagari is one of the persistent pitfalls of translation and at the same time the test

of how deeply one understands the Japanese text, for they are often unclear or even left out in the original. We must rearrange to place qualifier and referent within intelligible distance of each other, and, on a basic level, frequently supply the subject of a verb.

Let me give a couple of examples to show how word-for-word translation does not work, and then present my own versions of the same passages. (A) is a literal translation and (B) is mine:

(A) The sense of value that mankind must have during the latter half of the twentieth century must not be so narrow as to be based simply on one society or state, but must be based on the viewpoint of the whole human race, that is, on a global vision.

(B) In the twenty-five years that remain in this century, there is no place for the narrow values of a single nation-state or society. We must reach out for values that are universal in perspective and global in scope.

The following is taken from a widely read column in the Asahi Evening News, which is actually a translation of what appeared in the vernacular edition a few days before. Again, (B) represents how I would have handled it.

(A) It is reported that in the "city desk (reporter) there is a peculiar social conception so that emotion takes precedence over reason and feeling over thinking, and there is a provocative and decisive trend." This is why it is necessary to be very careful when meeting reporters from the city desk.

(B) "City editors and reporters have their own approach to reporting; unlike their colleagues in other departments, they tend to be more emotional than rational and they prefer sensationalism to thoughtful journalism. Their style is all too often provocative and their judgment self-righteous and one-sided." Thus, the author of the manual warns his readers to be extra cautious about what they tell a reporter on the city desk.

Illustrations abound of the kind of differences between Japanese and English that impede the inexperienced translator, but let me conclude with a defense and a plea. What I want to defend is the quality of thinking and the value of the ideas contained in the corpus

of Japanese writing and literature. This, of course, is appreciated by many scholars in Japanese studies, but a great many more sense a kind of inspiration gap--the assumption that Japanese have little to contribute to the world of social science ideas. If stimulating, new ideas appear in the academic world or elsewhere, with the exception perhaps of Zen Buddhism and electronics, they are usually not from Japanese sources. I believe--and I would not have stuck with the often thankless job of translating so long if I didn't--that Japanese have much to offer the world in the intellectual realm, much that is neither imitation nor adaptation of Western ideas. Until now the intellectual resources of Japanese social science thinkers, both contemporary and past, have hardly been tapped for the world.

The reasons lie largely in translation. The language is difficult, but I think more important is a deeply rooted, almost unconscious, assumption that Western thinking is world thinking. We are beginning to realize that this is a mistake, but in the case of Japan, nothing can be done about it until the quality of translation reaches a point where Japanese writing can be offered to other peoples in their own languages, and English is the first step.

That brings me to my plea, which has two parts. First, it is not the reader's responsibility to try to figure out the message of prose that is not clear--it is the writer's (translator's) responsibility to make it clear if he wishes to get it across. If a work is good enough to merit translation in the first place, the translator has a triple duty: to place himself in the position of the author, to be absolutely certain he knows what the author is saying, and then to reconstruct that in his own language. Until translation reaches that level where the reader cannot identify it as a translation, Japanese ideas cannot expect the broad, interested readership that will draw them into the main intellectual currents of the world. And unless the translation conveys the author's intent accurately, there can be no basis for debate and discussion of his ideas.

Second, I urge more Japanese to try to overcome whatever language block it is that plagues us, and develop genuine proficiency in other languages, at the very minimum, English. One very harmful aspect of the

translation process is the "checking" of a translation by a Japanese whose knowledge of English is inadequate. This is particularly true of authors who pride themselves on their command of the language. They go through the translation, make their own changes and "corrections," and end up destroying the entire fabric of the English without contributing anything.

To summarize, let me describe what I think the perfect translator should be. He reads Japanese fairly easily, but automatically turns for help when a passage is not clear. He accepts the fact that whatever work he does is not his own; first and foremost, he represents the author. Second, he must work with one or more others for checking and assistance along the entire way. He writes clear, interesting English prose and is knowledgeable about both style and content in several fields. He is a scholar in his own right in at least one major discipline, and knows the vocabulary and leading concepts of that field. He has powers of imagination and originality, yet knows when to suppress them and when to summon the muse. Finally, when he is translating, he loses his own identity and becomes the author, producing through intellectual training and the power of transfer what is before him on the Japanese page.

National Security

Dealing with the Russian Missile Threat

By Katsumi TAKEOKA, former senior official, Defense Agency

(From the Asahi Shimbun, January 27, 1981)

Moscow's deployment of SS-20 "theater" nuclear ballistic missiles in Siberia in 1979 poses serious problems for Japan's defense.

The SS-20 missiles have a 5,000-km range, can travel the 2,000 kilometers from Siberia to Japan in less than 10 minutes, and presently cannot be defended against. An SS-20 with multiple warheads can be targeted to simultaneously strike Japan's three major industrial cities, Tokyo, Yokohama and Nagoya. Each warhead is 10 times more destructive than the atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima.

Since the missile is mobile, a preemptive strike against it is virtually impossible. The deployment of SS-20s has, I fear, somewhat reduced the credibility of the U.S. nuclear umbrella protecting Japan.

By contrast, intercontinental missiles are megaton-class, can reach an enemy target 10,000 kilometers away, and can destroy major cities and military installations. Tactical missiles, on the other hand, are small weapons for battlefield use. The United States and the Soviet Union have many thousands of each.

The United States and the USSR would probably respond cautiously to a provocation. The use of tactical nuclear weapons would bring a retaliation in kind, while a theater-level nuclear attack would evoke a regional response. Neither side would likely resort to strategic

nuclear weapons which could result in a devastating retaliatory strike against itself.

Unable to rely on U.S. strategic nuclear weapons as a deterrent to Russian SS-20s, NATO has decided to deploy 108 Pershing II missiles and 464 ground-launched Cruise missiles. Both missiles are made in the United States and have a range of more than 2,000 kilometers. The decision apparently indicates NATO's readiness to hit back at Moscow in response to an attack on Paris or London with SS-20s.

If Japan's major cities and military bases faced destruction by SS-20 missiles, I doubt the United States would launch its ICBMs to save this country. But a Japanese threat to launch Cruise missiles against small cities in Siberia would not be an effective deterrent because the missiles cannot reach the Soviet heartland. Some may therefore argue that Japan should have intercontinental nuclear missiles, but I do not concur.

Much has been said recently about a Russian threat to Hokkaido. If the "demon" theory of the Soviet Union is correct and Moscow launches an unprovoked attack against Japan, Moscow could attain its objective with a few SS-20 missiles without incurring huge casualties through an invasion.

A more tolerant view holds that Russians would not threaten Japan with SS-20 missiles in the absence of an insurrection or a request by a domestic political group for Soviet military intervention. There is no justification for a missile strike against Japan as long as we abide by the three non-nuclear principles of not to produce, possess or allow the entry of nuclear weapons.

Ruling out the use of SS-20s, I cannot believe that the Russians would risk huge casualties in a conventional assault. An attempt to seize Japan's industrial capacity and communize the population would face determined resistance by our Self-Defense Forces (SDF).

Of course, it would be another story if Japan, though not attacked, sided with the West and blockaded the Soya, Tsugaru and Tsushima straits, or attacked Russian submarines. The SDF should be strictly a "denial force," preventing a hostile landing on Japan's shores.

Instead of pointlessly provoking Russian hostility with allegations of a threat to Hokkaido, our politicians and diplomats should be racking their brains to establish friendly relations with Moscow. The Soviet Union is the only country (except for the United States) that could destroy all of Japan in a few minutes.

To achieve a rapprochement, without disrupting our relations with Washington or being humiliated into silent assent to Russian misbehavior, all Japanese must strive for Russo-American detente, elimination of nuclear weapons, and disarmament. Detente leading to the withdrawal of U.S. forces in Japan might enable us to recover our northern islands now occupied by the Soviets.

Let our aspirations be ridiculed as quixotic pipe dreams. Japan should be a voice of hope and persuasion: a beacon for world disarmament and a country that shows its commitment to peace by deeds. These are the only appropriate aspirations for Japan.

* * * * *

Japanese Answer 'Yes but' on Defense

by Kimihiro MASAMURA

Professor of Economics, Senshu University

(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, February 9, 1981)

A recent Yomiuri Shimbun poll on national security showed that a majority of Japanese want to maintain the status quo on defense matters. Seventy-one percent of those polled were opposed to revision of Article 9 of the Constitution, which forbids the maintenance of "war potential," compared to 13.5 percent who favored a change. The percentage wanting to amend Article 9 was not significantly different from past polls.

A solid majority of 75 percent also expressed opposition to the export of weapons, and 60.6 percent were against dispatching troops overseas in any form, even as part of U.N. peace-keeping teams.

But a surprising one-third favored strengthening the Self-Defense Forces (SDF). Including the 38.3 percent who expressed satisfaction

with the SDF's current strength-level, nearly three out of four respondents believe Japan should have an adequate defense capability.

Opinion was almost equally divided about whether SDF planes and ships should be combat-ready, armed with missiles and torpedoes. While 42.9 percent said yes, 41.5 percent were opposed. The government's increased defense budget for fiscal year 1981 was opposed by 53.1 percent, while nearly one-third endorsed more arms spending. Opinion on U.S. demands that Japan strengthen its military forces was also nearly even, with slightly more opposed to Washington's position.

In response to the question, "Do the present SDF weapons exceed defensive requirements?" 42.9 percent said they already do or nearly do, while 38.6 percent replied they do not.

The survey showed that differences of opinion were correlated with sex and educational background. Male college graduates were relatively well informed on issues ranging from constitutional revision to SDF armaments. Of respondents with a better educational background, a high percentage expressed definite preferences, with very few "don't know" and "no opinion" replies.

A high percentage of the college-educated group believes that the SDF does not exceed defensive requirements. Yet a relatively large number of this group felt that combat-ready arming with missiles and torpedoes was unnecessary, and a majority opposed increased defense spending.

On the other hand, male college graduates were far more receptive than other groups to U.S. demands that Japan increase its military power. But college-educated men were overwhelmingly opposed to sending troops overseas or to constitutional revision. Overall, the responses of this group were eclectic and realistic.

Looking at the results as a whole, supporters of strengthening the SDF included a relatively higher proportion of well-informed respondents, while those opposed had a relatively large number whose understanding of the issues was poor. Though the statistical difference is slight, the composition of the pro-defense group is significant.

Labels like "hawks" and "doves" are not very useful because both groups have persons with extreme views. Many who favor an increased

defense capability are probably, in fact, "doves." On the other hand, can those who, for ideological reasons, regard the Soviet Union as a "force for peace," support Russian intervention in Afghanistan or Poland, and advocate unarmed neutrality be considered "doves"?

For the present, we can safely ignore the extremes at both ends of the spectrum. Of more concern is the sharp division and fluidity of opinion on defense among the majority of well-informed citizens. Public debate dominated by futile arguments about constitutional revision and the U.S.-Japan security treaty gets us nowhere. A consensus on Japan's future course of action must be based on a realistic appraisal of the world we live in.

* * * * *

The George Washington: A Callous Ally
(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, April 18, 1981)

Angry political waves are surging in Japan over the "hit-and-run" sinking of a Japanese freighter by the Polaris missile-carrying submarine George Washington in the East China Sea on April 9. The Nissho Maru sank and two crew members were drowned.

To make the matter worse, the U.S. sub fled the scene without reporting the accident to the proper authorities or attempting to rescue the Japanese seamen adrift in the water.

"This is too much. I find myself hating the States," fumed a Foreign Ministry official who is normally unabashedly pro-American. "I'd like to tell the George Washington's commanding officer to at least look through his periscope once in a while," he added.

But some Foreign Ministry officials criticize this emotional reaction. "Since there is a Japan-U.S. Security Treaty, naturally there are U.S. nuclear subs in the waters around Japan," they say. "Anything that moves may be involved in a traffic accident. It's unwise to make a big issue of this when our security depends on the U.S. nuclear umbrella."

The submarine carried nuclear missiles and could have caused radioactive contamination of the sea. Despite Japanese concern, the U.S. authorities refused to provide information on what had happened, first saying "an investigation will take time" and later on the grounds of "military secrecy." The Japanese government's assurances of "U.S. credibility," the public justification for its security ties with the United States, were badly undermined.

"The accident could not have come at a worse time," complained a senior Foreign Ministry official. "We were managing to build a national consensus in favor of the Japan-U.S. security arrangement and a defense buildup. Now that's been shattered."

The Japanese government had just drafted a strategic plan based on the 1978 "Guidelines for Japan-U.S. Defense Cooperation." Officials were about to work out the specifics for defense of the northwest Pacific and role-sharing in joint defense planning which will require greater military efforts by Japan.

For the United States too, the incidents came at an awkward moment. The Reagan administration had been carefully creating a favorable atmosphere for its policy of getting Japan's agreement to a faster defense buildup. The George Washington seems to have torpedoed that effort.

Nuclear submarines operate far beneath the surface on strategic missions and can launch nuclear missiles on very short notice. The George Washington is classed as a ballistic missile submarine. Another class of attack submarines locates and destroys enemy missile subs. All these submarines operate clandestinely; their ability to avoid detection makes them a deterrent. How many of these subs are deployed in the Pacific is not known.

"The Soviet missile subs on station in the Sea of Ohotsk can launch a strike against the U.S. mainland," says Hisatoshi Sakonji, a retired admiral in Japan's Maritime Self-Defense Force. "The United States has its killer subs there to sink the Soviet submarines when war breaks out." If Sakonji is correct, Russian attack submarines are also looking for U.S. missile subs in the same area. The placid Japan Sea is an

aquarium for U.S. and Soviet subs playing a terrifying game of blindman's bluff.

The George Washington's failure to rescue the Japanese crew and promptly report the accident may well be related to this dangerous game of underwater tag. But although "defending world peace" and "national security" have a lofty sound, the ultimate purpose of armed force is to protect civilian lives and property, and this should also apply to the citizens of allied nations. This is the reason for the uproar in Japan over the George Washington.

Behind the stiff public attitude of Prime Minister Zenko Suzuki and Foreign Minister Masayoshi Ito toward the accident were some careful calculations, according to a powerful cabinet member. "The accident was certainly unfortunate, but it gives us just the chance we wanted," he explained. "At past Japan-U.S. summits, the Americans did all the talking and the Japanese listened. Now we can do some talking. We can cite angry sentiment in Japan and perhaps deter Washington from pressuring us to go too far or too fast on defense."

But a Foreign Ministry source disagreed. "I am not so optimistic," he said. "It's hard to imagine that the accident will inhibit the Americans in their demands that Japan play an expanded military role in the region."

* * * * *

Doves, Hawks and the Nuclear Umbrella
 by Kiyofuku CHUMA, staff writer
 (From the Asahi Shimbun, May 27, 1981)

Since former ambassador Edwin Reischauer's sensational revelation that U.S. naval vessels have been carrying nuclear weapons in and out of Japanese ports for over 20 years, with the verbal agreement of the Japanese government, everyone is demanding that the Suzuki administration

tell the truth about nuclear weapons. But opinion is sharply divided about what to do after that.

The doves say Japan should abrogate the Japan-U.S. Security Treaty because both the treaty and dependence on the U.S. nuclear umbrella conflict with the three non-nuclear principles -- not to produce, possess or allow the introduction of nuclear weapons. Doves see ending the treaty as the only way to maintain a non-nuclear defense policy.

The hawks contend that Japan cannot reject U.S. nuclear weapons as long as this country is defended by them, and they believe that the non-nuclear principles should now be realistically revised. While the first two principles cannot be changed, Japan should at least allow U.S. nuclear-armed vessels to make port calls and transit its territorial waters. Hawks claim this would not constitute the introduction of atomic weapons onto Japanese soil.

The Suzuki cabinet recently reaffirmed long-standing policy: (1) port calls and passage through Japanese waters of nuclear-armed U.S. ships are subject to prior consultation; and (2) in any such consultation the government will disapprove the introduction of nuclear weapons. If this is really the government's position, U.S. vessels armed with nuclear weapons could not, under any circumstances, enter our ports or pass through Japanese waters.

But the U.S. government will not confirm whether a vessel is armed with nuclear weapons, on the grounds that such intelligence information would aid a potential enemy. Even if Japan wanted to inspect U.S. ships, Washington would refuse, saying that naval vessels are American territory and what they have aboard is no business of foreign nationals.

Successive Liberal Democratic party (LDP) governments have argued, and pretended to believe, that since the United States has not requested prior consultation, its ships have not been armed with nuclear weapons. Yet, according to retired Rear Admiral Gene LaRoque, 70 percent of U.S. naval vessels are armed with such weapons.

Whether a ship is carrying such weapons cannot be determined from its type or size, so some doves may take the extreme position that all U.S. naval vessels should be refused entrance. But the security treaty permits their free movement to and from Japanese ports. The only

alternative is abrogation of the treaty, but is this possible in the near future? To refuse entry only to U.S. ships without challenging other foreign naval vessels would be discriminatory.

The government has repeatedly claimed that U.S. Navy ships removed their nuclear armaments before entering ports here or passing through territorial waters. But most Japanese have not believed these statements, and Reischauer's revelation only confirmed what common sense had deduced long ago.

The hawks have seized on this public skepticism and demand that the non-introduction policy be brought into line with reality. This point of view certainly has a refreshing consistency. Yet, just because a majority of the public doubted government assurances does not mean that they now agree to port calls and transit by nuclear-armed vessels.

If the non-introduction principle is modified, nuclear-armed U.S. ships would have free access to Japan. But what exactly is a "port call?" If a nuclear-armed vessel is home-ported in Japan, how does this differ from Mr. Reischauer's definition of "introduction" as the deployment of nuclear weapons on Japanese soil?

If a ship armed with nuclear weapons is berthed here, its weapons function like land-based weapons. If a vessel carrying nuclear weapons is moored just offshore for an extended period of time, as an LST was stationed off Iwakuni for many years, wouldn't this be equivalent to stockpiling atomic weapons on land? No wonder many Japanese fear that the three non-nuclear principles will soon become two and eventually there will be none.

Is there no third way that would encompass both the non-nuclear principles and the security treaty with the U.S. nuclear umbrella? Friendship with the United States is not necessarily incompatible with Japan's non-nuclear spirit.

The security treaty and the U.S. nuclear umbrella are not the only nor the most desirable choices available to the Japanese people. Creating an international environment in which tension is reduced and security treaties become unnecessary should be the goal of Japan's foreign policy. If we work consistently toward this objective and are

candid with Washington, good relations with the United States should still be possible.

The same applies to the nuclear umbrella. The hawks have a point when they say that it is hypocritical to refuse to allow atomic weapons into Japan while being protected by the nuclear deterrent. Although the deterrent concept stemmed from a desire to stop nuclear proliferation, it is actually a sword of Damocles hanging over mankind. We do not have to be grateful for being included in a double-suicide pact.

Being under the nuclear umbrella does not necessarily obligate Japan to permit the introduction of nuclear weapons. Japan is a small, crowded nation with highly concentrated industrial zones and a special sensitivity about nuclear weapons. The public here should not be blamed if they prefer that nuclear deterrent weaponry be kept off Japanese territory.

We should not hastily decide to abrogate the security treaty or alter the non-nuclear principles. Careful diplomacy by Tokyo and Washington can lead to agreement in many areas. But the Japanese government must stop lying to the people. Without candor these issues cannot be resolved.

If the United States is going to speak of an "alliance" with this country, it must change its policy of refusing to acknowledge the presence of nuclear weapons. Otherwise, there may be trouble every time a U.S. ship comes to Japan.

Both governments should reconsider whether Japan really contributes to peace by permitting port calls and the passage of nuclear-armed vessels. Perhaps Japan ought to declare the northwest Pacific a non-nuclear zone and tell both Washington and Moscow to keep nuclear weapons out of the area.

This is no pipe dream. The nuclear terror has prompted George Kennan to call for "an immediate across-the-board reduction by 50 percent of the nuclear arsenals now maintained by the two super-powers..." To preserve the three non-nuclear principles, our government should take an unequivocal stand on nuclear arms control.

* * * * *

A Nuclear-free Friendship**by Kazuji NAGASU****Governor, Kanagawa Prefecture****(From the Asahi Shimbun, June 12, 1981)**

Former ambassador Edwin Reischauer startled Japan in May by revealing that government officials here were aware that U.S. ships have carried nuclear weapons into Japanese ports for over 20 years. Suspicion about the presence of atomic weapons was at its peak when the aircraft carrier Midway returned to its home port of Yokosuka on June 5. Yokosuka is an important link in U.S. strategy against the Soviet Union and reportedly is a high-priority target for Russian nuclear missiles.

Yokosuka is in Kanagawa prefecture, which has more U.S. military bases than any other prefecture except Okinawa. As governor of Kanagawa, I am responsible for the safety of its 7 million citizens. And as chairman of an association of governors from the 14 prefectures with U.S. military facilities, I have urged the national government to maintain Japan's three non-nuclear principles--not to produce, possess or allow the introduction of nuclear weapons.

This non-nuclear policy should be strictly enforced. Some people argue that passage through our territorial waters or port calls by vessels with atomic weapons should be permitted. But they seem to ignore the basic facts of modern weaponry. Access to a port makes nuclear weapons ships as strategically important as land-based missiles, in some cases more so. If the ban against nuclear weapons on Japanese soil is weakened this way, soon there will only be two non-nuclear principles and before long there will be none.

The Suzuki administration's reaffirmation of the non-nuclear principles was welcome. But I want the government to go beyond verbal assurances, to plan concrete enforcement measures that will guarantee compliance and allay the fears of Kanagawa citizens.

The residential-industrial belt from Yokosuka to Yokohama and Kawasaki is all in Kanagawa. My prefecture, plus Tokyo and adjoining Chiba and Saitama prefectures, constitute the southern Kanto region with a population of about 30 million. Japan's major political, economic,

scientific and communications facilities are concentrated here. A nuclear attack on this area would instantly knock out Japan. The whole country would cease to function. It is the height of stupidity to invite an atomic attack on this region. In fact, Japan is geopolitically incapable of withstanding a nuclear attack anywhere.

I am particularly upset by simplistic people who say we only have two alternatives: the non-nuclear policy or friendly ties with the United States. Some insist the non-nuclear principles must be scrapped to keep the Japan-U.S. Security Treaty and the nuclear umbrella. Others insist the ban on atomic weapons comes first and that Japan must abrogate the security treaty and disavow the U.S. nuclear deterrent.

Both arguments are emotional and short-sighted. To survive in this dangerous era, Japan must maintain both its non-nuclear policy and good relations with the United States. No matter how difficult, this is really our only choice.

The Japan-U.S. security arrangements ought to be non-nuclear. Japan should eschew atomic weapons not because it lacks the know-how to make them but because it voluntarily signed the nuclear non-proliferation treaty. That gave Japan the right, on the basis of its own imperatives and policies, to criticize the deterrent strategies and weapons deployment of the superpowers acting in pursuit of their global objectives.

The non-nuclear principles and the security treaty are compatible. Preserving both is a vital national interest, a bipartisan political objective and the desire of the vast majority of Japanese citizens. Even in some Western European countries there are proposals to maintain security within the NATO framework but without nuclear weapons.

I feel very strongly that we must take bold initiatives for nuclear disarmament. I reject the idea that Japanese suffer from a "nuclear allergy." It implies that we are not qualified to speak out on the issue. Sensitivity about nuclear armaments is a sign of national health; indifference is a symptom of pathology.

Our non-nuclear stand is a commendable national policy based on our experience and a scientific understanding of the nuclear holocaust. Japan's message to mankind is "Don't make, possess or allow atomic

weapons on your soil." Any military strategy for the defense of this country must be subordinated to this political priority.

Professor Reischauer's sensational disclosure has forced the Japanese people to face some grim realities. We must not be isolationist and hope that Japan can stand aloof from military entanglements. Nor can we blindly entrust our security to Washington's nuclear strategy. Our courage and judgment as a nation are being put to the test.

* * * * *

The Dilemma of a Hiroshima Survivor
by Shinkichi ETO, Professor of Tokyo University
(From the Sankei Shimbun, August 17, 1981)

From my experience as an atom bomb casualty, painful memories are evoked every August 15. On the other hand, I have negative feelings about ban-the-bomb movements, and the ambivalence is excruciating. Sometimes it is so unbearable that I feel like committing myself to the pacifist camp for peace of mind.

But for over 30 years I have kept telling myself that a professional analyst of international affairs should try to be objective. This belief stiffened my faltering resolve and made me try to face the realities of world politics. I still haven't resolved this dilemma.

In August 1945, I was serving in Hiroshima, having been inducted into the army under the Student Mobilization Act. Our barracks were located in part of the Matsumoto Commercial High School north of the railroad station. When the atom bomb fell on the morning of August 6, I was indoors and was not burned. Although I was buried in the blast rubble and nearly suffocated, I got away with a few scratches.

As soon as the fires abated, we went into the blast area to clear away debris. We worked near ground zero for several days, and I was exposed to secondary radiation.

I had no energy, felt exhausted all the time, and my hair began to fall out. I stopped losing hair after about a month but I suffered from leukemia for 15 years. I wondered for a long time whether I should apply for an A-bomb casualty certificate that would entitle me to free medical treatment, but I felt my condition was not serious enough to justify it.

I was in a communications unit and we listened to the U.S. military broadcasts every night. We learned on August 12 that Japan had agreed to surrender, three days before the official announcement. Our commanding officer was a reservist, a graduate of the Economics Department, Tokyo Imperial University. When I reported the information his only reaction was a dejected: "I see. Don't tell anyone else."

My relief that there would be no more air raids and that I had survived the war was offset by despair at how we would live as a beaten nation. Every day I worked in the intense heat disposing of corpses. I was exhausted at the end of the day but I could not sleep. I was too keyed up and kept tossing and turning all night, often with tears streaming down my face.

When August 15th came, everyone was distraught at Japan's defeat, and some officers wanted to continue the war. But after a few days all the soldiers, especially those with wives and children, wanted to return home as soon as possible. Some of the officers and NCOs tried to make off with the unit's supplies. I was dismayed to see how quickly disciplined men could turn into thieves.

My memories of those times are very painful still. Thus I want to be second to none in my hatred for war and desire for peace. Yet I differ with some of the world's more outspoken pacifists.

Personally, I wish I could forget those horrors. I would prefer to be a private person and keep those awful experiences to myself.

Nevertheless, when the movement to ban atomic and hydrogen bombs started in 1953, I hoped they could change the ominous drift toward nuclear holocaust, and I did what I could. But the honest popular opposition to the Bomb became a political football as the Communists and Socialists set up rival ban-the-bomb groups. They spent more time fighting each other than campaigning against nuclear testing and

weapons. That finished me with mass movements. Since then, I have not been involved in any, and have not even signed a petition.

The peace movement and peace researchers in Japan use a double standard: tolerant of the "progressive" (i.e., Socialist) countries and very critical of the "reactionary" (i.e., Western) powers. In my opinion, our hopes still lie with the United States where political authority can be swayed by public opinion. In a totalitarian country, once a few leaders decide on a policy, it is fixed irrevocably regardless of domestic public opinion or international opposition. Realistic plans for arms control and nuclear disarmament should take this factor into account.

The more powerful mass movements demanding the abolition of nuclear weapons become, the more influence they have on the U.S. government, but not on the Soviet Union. This could hamstring the United States while the Russians build up their nuclear arsenal with complete impunity. Even if such an extreme situation does not result, the Kremlin's imperviousness to public opinion gives it an advantage.

I have participated in several international conferences with Russian scholars who always praise peace research and advocate disarmament. But are they critical of their own government's arms policies? Not a single one has been. Their views completely accord with Moscow's official policies. This regimentation in totalitarian countries makes them frightening adversaries.

Researchers in the free world can disagree with their governments, and they critically analyze official policies and actions. This is a fundamental difference.

Peace research has great value, and it will attract more scholars to its ranks. As it succeeds in influencing free world governments' defense policies, those activists should remember that there are no restraints on the Russians.

* * * * *

U.S.-Japan Relations

U.S. No Longer Taboo for Japanese Socialists

by Yoshinori YASUHIRO, a staff writer

(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, June 3, 1981)

Japanese Socialists have finally decided to recognize the United States. Breaking a self-imposed taboo, 20 Socialist Diet members recently established an informal Study Group on Japan-U.S. Relations.

The Japan Socialist party (JSP) has long been split into two factions, pro-Soviet and pro-Chinese, and both have totally avoided the subject of Tokyo's relations with Washington. Creation of the new group reflects an increasingly pragmatic approach to world affairs in the party.

Among the 20 parliamentarians are Sanji Muto, head of the party's policy research committee, and Tamio Kawakami, leader of the JSP's international affairs bureau. Kawakami's father was a giant figure in Japanese socialism.

Most of the group's 20 members have visited the United States and they represent a conservative viewpoint within the party. They have long been skeptical of the JSP's doctrinaire formula that "the U.S.S.R. is a force for peace; the United States is a force for war."

Because the party advocates abrogation of the Japan-U.S. Security Treaty, there has been little interest in other aspects of the bilateral relationship, a situation which the 20 Dietmen have strongly opposed as a flight from reality.

"We should take a hard look at the realities," says Kawakami. The group's views on the international situation are reflected in a draft revision of the party's blueprint for gaining power, "The Road to Socialism in Japan." The report foresees a continued shift from U.S.-U.S.S.R. bipolarity to a multipolar world, with governments acting from national interests rather than as members of the capitalist or socialist blocs. The report says that the party must define what Japan's real national interests are.

This approach indicates a readiness by some politicians in the JSP to discard the traditional aversion to Washington, learn about American society and reexamine Japan-U.S. relations. The study group hopes its views will be incorporated into the new policy statement to be adopted at a party convention scheduled for later this year or early 1982.

Another factor is the agreement between the Socialists and the Komeito (Clean Government) party on a coalition that hopes to control the Diet and wrest the government from conservative rule.

Takahiro Yokomichi, executive secretary of the group, says, "It's preposterous to think of assuming power while ignoring our relations with Washington. It's the central issue of Japan's foreign policy."

Another member said, "We don't have good connections or sources of information in the U.S. Congress. When problems arise over defense or trade, as they have so frequently this year, all we can do is attack the government's ineptness. We can't offer our own alternatives."

Yokomichi said, "If we Socialists want to get information about a U.S. policy or want to inform Americans about the situation here, the Foreign Ministry channel is useless. We need more direct exchanges of views between parliamentarians and a better understanding of each other's problems."

The Socialist Party is shut out from information about diplomatic developments because the conservatives control the foreign policy apparatus. Rank-and-file legislators are also excluded from the few contacts the party has with foreign political figures, which are handled by the international affairs bureau. Even those with a strong interest

in Japanese-American relations do not meet visiting U.S. congressmen. The new study group provides a channel for communication between Japanese and American lawmakers

* * * * *

Foreign Policy Makers Pander to Anti-Americanism

by Osamu MIYOSHI, Director

Japan Center for the Study of Security Issues

(From Seiron, August, 1981)

Prime Minister Suzuki and Foreign Minister Sonoda, in an effort to deflect domestic criticism of their inept handling of defense ties with Washington, are fanning the flames of anti-American feeling.

If this continues, the Suzuki-Sonoda diplomacy may provoke the new nationalism in the United States into an emotional backlash against Japan, bring on the first serious crisis in the Japan-U.S. security system, and leave this country isolated internationally.

Prime Minister Suzuki has repeatedly declared that he made no new defense commitments during his May meeting with President Reagan. But the summit communique had two significant defense-related provisions. In section four the prime minister affirmed that Japan is benefiting from the presence of the 7th Fleet in the Persian Gulf region. In section eight, he said Japan was prepared to share the responsibilities for security "in Japanese territories and in its surrounding sea and air space."

Former Defense Secretary Harold Brown was obviously right when he said that to Japan, which gets 80 percent of its oil from the Middle East, the security of the Persian Gulf is as important as the defense of its own territory. The 7th Fleet had been shifted to the Indian Ocean to protect the Persian Gulf states, reducing the U.S. naval presence in the Western Pacific.

This is a new situation, one not foreseen when Japan's 1976 defense buildup guidelines were formulated. After acknowledging the importance

of the Gulf region in the joint communique, Premier Suzuki went on to promise that Japan "will seek to make even greater efforts for improving its defense capabilities." This was a very important public commitment, an appropriate response if one assumes that the security of the Persian Gulf directly affects Japan.

On his return to Japan, Suzuki had to deal with the strong pacifist mood of the country. So he disavowed his own pledge to the United States.

Serious differences over the joint statement surfaced at the bilateral working-level security consultations in Hawaii in June. The U.S. delegation, taking Suzuki's commitment at face value, presented proposals for new equipment and spending that were roughly twice the magnitude of Japan's five-year defense plan.

To implement the U.S. proposals by 1986, Japan would have to increase its defense expenditures from 0.9 percent to 1.5-1.8 percent of the gross national product. This would cause very serious political problems for the Suzuki administration. Seeing the difficulties ahead, Suzuki instructed the Japanese delegation not to make any commitments at Hawaii. This order made the consultation pointless.

Foreign Minister Sonoda weighed in with a remark from Hong Kong: "It makes sense to listen to a suggestion that a second floor be added to a one-story house, but there's no point in talking with someone who wants you to convert it into a 10-story condominium." He totally rejected the U.S. proposal.

The Foreign Minister had previously made a neutralist remark that "Japan is neither pro-American nor pro-Soviet." Sonoda had also said, "Japan will refuse port calls by nuclear-armed U.S. vessels even in emergencies." Sonoda's comments were tailor-made for the Asahi and Mainichi newspapers, which have been whipping up nationalist sentiment against the United States, the mutual security treaty and nuclear weapons.

Washington's response to the government-induced anti-Americanism was patient and measured. But Secretary of State Haig's announcement during his mid-June visit to Peking that the United States would sell weapons to China may have been the first counterpunch at Tokyo.

If Japan will not do its share to maintain the military balance against the Soviet Union in Northeast Asia, the logical alternative is for Washington to bypass Tokyo and cooperate with Peking. The next U.S. step may be to withdraw its forces from Japan, as suggested in a Congressional study.

According to press reports, the strains in Japan-U.S. relations have already increased distrust of Japan in Southeast Asia and Western Europe. The Suzuki-Sonoda diplomacy, under the banners of the "peace constitution" and "pacifism," is isolating Japan and increasing tensions in the Far East.

* * * * *

The Tongue-tied U.S. Embassy in Tokyo
by Fuji KAMIYA, Professor of International
Relations, Keio University
(From the Nihon Keizai Shinbun, November 20, 1981)

I am not a habitue of either the U.S. or Soviet embassies in Tokyo, but I have enough acquaintances at both to notice one difference. Many Russians are fluent in Japanese, but few Americans can handle the language.

There are various reasons for this linguistic gap. The United States is an open society, and embassy policy is to assign Japanese employees to most language-related work. The USSR is a closed society, and the secretive Soviets hire as few local employees as possible. They try to handle all contacts in Japanese themselves; there are even male Russian switchboard operators. This policy requires that many personnel be fluent.

Another factor is that while many Japanese can communicate in English, very few have studied Russian.

Nevertheless, the language ability of U.S. embassy officers is very poor. Almost no one can converse freely in Japanese, and the overall level of competence seems to be lower than 10 years ago. U.S. foreign

service personnel stationed here perhaps should not be expected to understand Japanese as well as our embassy staff in Washington handles English. But to take this disparity for granted, as several American friends do, is the wrong attitude.

Attaining fluency in a foreign language is more than learning vocabulary and grammar. One acquires an understanding of a nation's culture, national character and ways of thinking.

Discord between Tokyo and Washington on trade and defense issues is worsening. These issues can only be resolved by constant effort. A lack of mutual understanding due to a communication gap and cultural differences exacerbates problems. It would be very helpful if there were more Americans in the embassy with a better understanding of the Japanese language.

Japanese business executives are assigned to the United States only after they can communicate in English. What percentage of U.S. businessmen trying to crack the Japanese market are competent in the language? I suspect that this is a significant secondary factor in the U.S. trade deficit with Japan.

* * * * *

American Individualism vs. Japanese Groupism

by Leo ESAKI, IBM Fellow;

Nobel Prize winner in physics, 1973

(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, December 19, 1981) o

Americans take it as an article of faith that their illustrious country was built by outstanding personalities. Many still believe that the cultivation of strong, self-reliant individuals who do not depend on government handouts is the key to a return to American greatness.

Japanese on the other hand, are brought up to believe that the group is the secret of their country's economic strength, and that Japan's success is the result of individual self-sacrifice.

The myths of American individualism and Japanese groupism are diametrically opposed.

Of course, these stereotypes do not tell the whole story. In the United States, individuals have group affiliations and loyalties. The civil service, industry, trade unions, churches, professional and civic organizations are all groups that play a significant role. In Japan as well, groups consist of a wide variety of individuals whose cooperation sustains the collective cause. Creative leadership is necessary for the prosperity of the group.

Nevertheless, our value systems differ. Americans are taught to make independent judgments and decisions whereas Japanese are trained to be obedient, cooperative and loyal.

Because American students are encouraged to develop their individual talents rather than mindlessly adhere to the teachings of others, the United States is a fertile breeding ground for creative genius. This is not the case in Japan, where the educational system stresses conformity. Japanese students are good at following the lead and soaking up information, but little else. It is not a coincidence that Americans are reputed to be good talkers and bad listeners, and Japanese the opposite.

Let us compare the recent American and Japanese track record, keeping these distinctive traits in mind. Indubitably, the human resources of the United States produce leaders. There is a vigor in science and the arts, and American initiatives in international affairs are conspicuous. With this assemblage of talent, there is always something new in America, for better or for worse.

But if we consider economics, all indicators point to inflation, unemployment and a stagnant gross national product. Japan's record is decisively superior. After a year and a half of the Reagan administration, predictions for American economic performance are gloomy.

The basic idea that individualism created America is open to doubt. The strength of group organizations cannot be ignored. Solidarity on the part of the Pilgrim Fathers enabled them to embark in the Mayflower for the New World. Concerted effort enabled them to do battle with

harsh natural conditions and to celebrate their first Thanksgiving a year later.

Henry Ford started mass producing automobiles 70 years ago and brought down the cost of cars. It was an act of genius. But the concept worked because groups of men diligently performed their assigned jobs on assembly lines, as portrayed so well in Charlie Chaplain's "Modern Times."

Let us now test the Japanese myth that group solidarity has been the driving force in economic growth. In 30 years, Japan's GNP has grown 30 times, and the role of groupism in this unprecedented growth cannot be denied. A diligent and disciplined labor force has played a significant role. But development would not have occurred so speedily had the Japanese not been able to acquire a vast amount of technological know-how from the United States and Europe. The ratio of foreign to homegrown industrial information is about 20 to one.

Any developing country borrows intellectual capital in order to industrialize, but once it succeeds it begins to export and compete with advanced countries, causing damage in greater or lesser degree to their economies.

From the American and European perspective, Japan appears to be an economic giant acting in the competitive pattern of a developing country. Japan's place in international society will continue to be insecure as long as this image prevails. We must honestly admit that Japan's sudden growth has upset the world economy, and we must correct our behavior.

It has been over 20 years since I came to live in the United States. Japan's GNP at that time was a mere 2 or 3 percent of the world total. Now it has grown to 11 percent.

Outside the economic field, Japan has not contributed an equivalent 11 percent to the world's store of talent in science, the arts and international organizations or contributed that proportion of leadership in solving world problems. As a result, Japan's status in the world arena remains nebulous and not commensurate with its economic power.

The level of Japan's industrial technology is not low. But the technical expertise is not buttressed by a broad base of scientific

research. Few original inventions and discoveries have come out of Japan. Japanese Nobel Prize winners number only 1 percent of the total. Japan's contribution to the world of learning is minimal. Limitations in scientific input have been coupled with political servility to the United States in the international political arena. Over the last 30 years, Japan has taken virtually no global initiatives.

Japan's lack of scholars and political leaders of world stature illustrates the difficulty of producing creative personalities in a society that is strongly group-oriented. We have batters who can hit, but few who can hit a home run. Now is the time to recognize that Japan's future does not lie in group solidarity, but in the cultivation of individuality, creativity and vision. This is not simply a question of building on our assets, but developing personal qualities which have been downgraded in our educational system.

Economic growth was the one and only goal for a defeated Japan in 1945. This has been so successfully attained that the Japanese, intoxicated with their own success, mistakenly assume that the goal of the past will suffice for the future.

The manipulation of a groupism myth to stimulate economic growth as an end in itself will no longer do. Economic growth must be promoted as a means to greater ends, which should include international harmony and individual self-fulfillment. Every Japanese should be able to set his or her own objectives. They should have the satisfaction of pursuing goals which they, rather than others, set for themselves.

If Japan's value system can be changed, individualism will be encouraged. Japanese might be able to make a more creative contribution to international well-being far beyond the confines of the economic sphere.

* * * * *

Industry and Business

Dos and Don'ts of Business Cards

by Sakio SAKAGAWA

Director, Modern Communication Center

(From Voice, January 1981)

The business card is the executive's trade mark, his "open sesame," his weapon in the gamesmanship of corporate status. The card is both a mini-resume and a friendly deity who draws people together. Abuse of its powers may have awkward consequences like disconcerting love notes from a bar hostess to whom a card was entrusted after a few drinks too many.

Journalist Shozo Ogiya warns against doing business with name cards, a reminder not to rely on the status of one's employer or position when conducting affairs, public or private. But it's a fact of everyday life that the title on a card is the key to making contacts. Business gets done by introductions made through the exchange of name cards.

Study groups are now very popular among businessmen. A participant has to have at least 40 cards on hand for each meeting. Even regular members often exchange cards more than once, since a single exchange may not make a lasting impression.

Despite their importance, many people are surprisingly careless about business cards. They should not be dispensed or accepted like train tickets.

For the businessman to make a call or receive a visitor without a card is like a samurai going off to battle without his sword. It's bad form to greet someone and then, flipping through a card holder, have to apologize weakly for being all out of cards.

The card holder is also a mark of the man. It should be of good quality because the visitor's card will be placed in it and because he will notice it when you remove your own card. A secretary may keep her cards in a handbag, but it makes a bad impression when a young executive pulls namecards out of a cheap plastic case used for commuting tickets.

The card holder should not be carried in a pants' pocket. Even in summer when a man is in shirtsleeves and short of pocket space, cards should not be kept in a hip pocket because they will have a disagreeable trace of body heat. The breast pocket is the safest place.

Always stand up when giving or accepting a business card. This iron rule applies regardless of one's age or status. There is great variety in the technique of presenting a card depending on the giver's personality and style. Which type are you?

Crab style -- held out between the index and middle fingers.

Pincer -- clamped between thumb and index finger.

Pointer -- offered with the index finger pressed along the edge.

Upside down -- the name is facing away from the recipient.

Platter fashion -- served in the palm of the hand.

Dedicatory style -- offered up with both hands.

Elevator -- waved up and down a few times while holding it out.

Parabolic trajectory -- the hand makes an arc like a falling projectile.

Friction format -- slid across the surface of a table.

It's best to make a gesture of handing the card up, as if to a superior. Don't say, as many do, "This is who I am." State your name quietly but forcefully, because the presentation is a warmup for the ensuing discussion.

It makes a good impression to receive a card with both hands, especially if the other party is senior in age or status. If you are not sure how to pronounce the person's name, ask politely, "I'm sorry but what is the correct pronunciation?"

Should a visitor's card be put away immediately or left out on the table for a while during the conversation? Personally, I feel either way is acceptable. If you can remember the important data -- name, position, location of the company -- right away, there's nothing wrong with putting the card away. On the other hand, if the information on the card is likely to provide a topic of mutual interest, it is better to leave it out.

The only inexcusable faux pas is to put a card away with the briefest glance and then, while offering a chair, peek into your pocket to recall the visitor's name.

* * * * *

Foreign Exchange 'Liberalization' Japanese Style

(From the Asahi Shimbun, January 31, 1981)

Despite fanfare about foreign exchange liberalization, the Finance Ministry and banks are still playing the old game of control, mainly because both sides believe in its benefits.

Japan ostensibly liberalized its foreign exchange rules on December 1, 1980, by the much-heralded new Foreign Exchange and Foreign Trade Control Law. The law seemingly marked a policy turnaround from strict control to decontrol. But the Finance Ministry's continued overt and covert "administrative guidance" has eviscerated the legislation.

Banks are not necessarily loathe to take cues from the ministry. Fearful of the inroads made by foreign banks in the domestic money market, Japanese banks privately welcome government intervention.

The major areas liberalized were foreign currency deposits, impact loans (foreign currency loans not tied to a specific purpose), and

investment in domestic corporations by foreigners. A preliminary review indicates that "liberalization" has not changed much.

Under the old foreign exchange law, foreign currency deposits were limited to the equivalent of about \$15,000 per depositor. That limit has now been removed. Banks can set the interest rate for foreign currency deposits, unlike yen deposits. Normally, this should lead to a rate war among banks to attract deposits.

But the Finance Ministry and the Bank of Japan warned the banking community against excessive competition for deposits "at the sacrifice of sound business practice." The major city banks agreed on an annual 2 percent profit margin for small deposits of less than \$100,000, which is barely profitable, and set the exchange commission at ¥1 per dollar. This effectively killed competition for small foreign currency deposits.

These deposits are now less profitable than yen deposits. Banks not allowed to handle foreign exchange and those weak in the foreign currency business no longer need fear that they will lose their deposits to stronger competitors.

Normally, banks can set interest rates for foreign currency deposits of \$100,000 or more. Here, too, unofficial but binding controls have been perpetuated. Each foreign exchange bank must report daily to the Finance Ministry and the Bank of Japan about the foreign currency deposits received the previous day. The detailed reports include the value, foreign currencies involved, interest offered and the customers' identities.

According to bank sources, when Finance Ministry or Bank of Japan officials think a particular bank is too aggressively seeking such deposits, its representative is rapped on the knuckles and reminded that other banks are showing restraint. The ministry and the central bank apparently want foreign exchange banks to maintain a profit margin of at least 0.25 percent even on fairly big deposits of \$500,000 or \$1 million.

Finance Ministry sources explain: "We receive reports from banks concerning their foreign currency deposits. But we are not intervening in their business through so-called administrative guidance. When banks

follow sound business practice, their policies are generally identical. Thus it is not the result of government intervention."

Most bankers admit they heed ministry advice. A banker conceded, "In the long run administrative guidance helps us." The traditional sweetheart arrangement between the banks and the ministry is still strong.

Banks are no longer legally restricted in their handling of impact loans. But during the last 10 days of the month each bank must present its plans for the next month to the ministry and central bank, and a loan transaction record must be submitted every 10 days. The details of each loan must be reported: the borrower, the foreign currency used, the cost of procuring the foreign currency, and the bank's profit margin.

According to bank sources, the ministry and central bank give what amounts to administrative guidance to the reporting bankers when they explain their plans for the next month. These sources suspect that the Finance Ministry has set an unofficial quota for each bank to limit its impact loan transactions. For December 1980, bankers say, officials verbally gave quotas of \$150 million to \$200 million to the major foreign exchange banks. The ministry apparently wants the banks to charge at least an annual 0.5 percent above the cost of fund procurement.

Finance Ministry officials disclaim any knowledge of administrative guidance, saying they require explanations of loan schedules and records of transactions from the bankers only to keep abreast of overall trends.

A high ministry official says: "A sudden, massive inflow of foreign currencies is undesirable. It is possible that some of our men who deal directly with the banks may have told some banks that their inflow of foreign currencies appeared excessive. Even there, it is not our intention to order them to cut down on their intake of foreign currencies. Of course we mention no figures."

About bank profit margins, the same official says: "A margin between 0.5 percent and 1 percent is sound. Without telling them what to do, good banking practice results in similar margins being charged by different banks."

Some foreign exchange banks have turned down requests from customers who wanted their high-interest loans switched to a more attractive impact loan. The bank officials "inadvertently" gave away the game when they explained that they had used up their assigned quota of impact loans--quotas that officially do not exist.

The new law completely liberalizes foreign investment except for direct investment to participate in the management or acquire stocks in one of the 11 "designated companies." For these companies, the government says that more than 25 percent foreign ownership would adversely affect the "security and public order" or disrupt Japan's economy. In December, there was little intervention by the Finance Ministry mainly because the month ended with an excess of ¥8,600 million in withdrawal of foreign investment in Japanese stocks over new acquisitions.

There were some problems. A Hong Kong investment firm filed notice of intent to acquire stock in Katakura Industries, a "designated company." Katakura was designated because it is the leading producer of silkworm eggs vital for sericulture. The Finance Ministry refused to accept the application.

Newpis Hong Ltda had applied to acquire through the stock market within a one-year period 3 million shares (9.9 percent) of Katakura stock. The Finance Ministry rejected the application on the procedural grounds that regulations require that stocks be acquired within 40 days of a notice of intent.

The Hong Kong firm filed a complaint against the Japanese government on two counts: that designating Katakura a restricted company because it produces silkworm eggs violates the spirit of liberalization, and that the 40-day regulation disregards stock market realities and is an illegal impediment to foreign stock acquisitions.

The Finance Ministry shows no signs of backing down on the 40-day regulation. An official claims: "If one investor or investors' group is allowed to apply for a massive stock acquisition over as long a period as one year, it will preclude applications from other foreign investors. Preemptive acquisitions are undesirable."

A legal battle will spotlight the government's double standard -- ostensible liberalization but informal controls -- on foreign exchange transactions.

* * * * *

Japan's Steel Industry Saves Energy
(From the Mainichi Shimbun, February 1, 1981)

Japan's steel industry consumes far less energy than its Western counterparts, according to a recent study by the Japan Iron and Steel Federation. Since the 1973 oil crisis, steelmakers here have switched to alternative energy sources and stressed conservation. Their success partly explains Japanese steel's international competitiveness.

A comparison of the total amount of all types of energy required to produce a ton of steel shows sharp differences. Using Japan's total for 1979 as a base of 100, the figures are: Great Britain--156, United States--144 (1978 figures), France--120, and West Germany--115.

Total steel industry energy consumption in Japan in 1979 equaled 81,710,000 tons of coal and fell to an estimated 77,000,000 tons in 1980, almost a 20 percent saving over 1973.

Consumption of petroleum fuels, heavy and light oil, propane gas, etc., has been dramatically reduced. The 1980 total of 5,970,000 kiloliters is about two-fifths of the 15,480,000 kiloliters used in 1973. The amount of petroleum-based energy per ton of steel dropped from 128 liters in 1973 to 56 liters in 1980.

Efforts to conserve energy have been far more successful than in the West. In 1979, 59 kilograms of heavy oil were required to produce a ton of steel; according to estimates, the amount fell to 40 kilograms in 1980. The United States and West Germany used 58 and 52 kilograms, respectively, per ton in 1979 and apparently did not achieve significant reductions in 1980.

Of 44 blast furnaces in operation here late last year, 30 ran on non-petroleum fuels. In 29 of the furnaces, high-temperature gases have

been recycled to produce an estimated 320,000 kilowatts of electricity. Over 60 percent of Japan's blast furnaces use the highly efficient continuous casting process which reduces energy waste.

* * * * *

The Next Generation of Robots
(From the Asahi Shimbun, March 10, 1981)

With more than half of all the industrial robots in use today, Japan leads the world in robotics. In university and corporate labs here, scientists and engineers are tinkering with incredible new types of "smart" robots.

The next generation of robots will perform a vast array of tasks: explore the ocean floor, rescue fire victims, diagnose difficult cases for doctors, clean up nuclear reactors and serve the blind as seeing-eye dogs. Here are a few of the new breeds:

A squat robot on four one-meter metal legs walks about on the ground, skillfully avoiding obstacles and holes, and goes up and down stairs by extending and contracting its legs like a spider or crab. It is the brainchild of Professors Yoji Umetani and Shigeo Hirose of the Tokyo Institute of Technology, who were intrigued by how spiders and crabs walk.

Still in the development stage, the robot has sensors built into the tips of its feet. As its legs spread out, the sensors report to a microcomputer that analyzes the signals and decides how the next step is to be taken. The professors are working on providing the robot with "eyes" by installing TV cameras so it can visually perceive objects in its path.

Nuclear power companies are cooperating with Umetani and Hirose because the robot can do inspection work inside reactors that is too dangerous for human beings. It can also work in factories and warehouses where wheeled vehicles cannot be used, in orchards planted on hillsides, and on the ocean bottom.

A "snake robot" that proceeds by undulation has even greater flexibility of movement. The robot looks like a miniature train and has sensors on both flanks to help it get around obstacles. It can thread through narrow holes and pick its way through a maze. The snake robot can wrap itself around an upright object with its "tail" section, hold its "head" up and move up to a higher level.

The Tokyo Institute of Technology developed the robot and is now working with manufacturers to improve the design. Possible usages include inspecting and cleaning the inside of turbines at hydro-electric power stations and operation of gastrocams. Other promising applications are for cleaning and repairing air conditioning ducts and waterwork pipes and transporting equipment in icy polar regions.

The Tokyo Fire Department is studying the use of robots for fire-fighting and rescue work. The department has formed a research team of equipment manufacturers and the Fire Prevention Research Institute to develop robots that move on a rail track. An inspector robot travels on tracks attached to the ceilings and walls of chemical plants and warehouses where the air is poisonous or there is danger of explosions, and in high-rise buildings beyond the reach of standard equipment.

When an inspector robot reports a fire has broken out, fire fighting robots are placed on the track and rushed to the scene. The "snake robot" may be able to perform rescue work at dangerous sites inaccessible to firemen. Threading its way to the trapped person, the robot will wrap itself softly around the victim and carry him to safety.

A bulky seabed exploration robot is being developed by Komatsu Ltd. and Nippon Kokan. In an offshore oil development project of the Ministry of International Trade and Industry's (MITI) Industrial Science and Technology Agency, the robot will install pipelines on the seabed at depths of 300 to 600 meters.

If built to current specifications, the mechanical leviathan will measure 12 by 12 meters, stand 10 meters high and weigh 220 tons. A one-third scale model performed successfully in a tank test in late 1980. When completed, the robot will build pipelines for oil found in Japan's territorial waters.

Of the 60,000 industrial robots now in use here, most can perform only a few simple kinds of work. But high-performance microcomputers and sensors are making robots increasingly capable of sophisticated tasks which require decision-making.

An inspection robot manufactured by Fuji Electric checks pharmaceutical pills and tablets, selects fruit and can even tell the freshness of fish. A "muscle robot" made by Dainichi Kiko can adjust its grip by sensing the weight and the fragility of the object in its grasp. The company will shortly demonstrate a robot that can hold a mug in one hand and pour beer into it with the other.

Fujitsu Fanuc manufactures numerically controlled machine tools and industrial robots at a new plant near Mt. Fuji, which opened early this year. The new factory is a model of labor-saving machinery and automated operations. The plant soon will experiment with robots to assemble robot motors. President Seimon Inaba says, "Ultimately we would like to have robots build robots without human help."

Medical prosthesis is another field for robotics. Prof. Ichiro Kato of Waseda University and scientists at MITI's Mechanical Engineering Laboratory are experimenting with "artificial arm robots" that respond to the electric signal given by muscle movement when an amputee tries to move his missing arm. Some of these "arm robots" are already in commercial use.

Research on artificial legs has been less successful. Kato recently unveiled his "walking robot," the first to move with a fairly human gait. But the dissatisfied Kato says, "It walks like a 5-year-old."

At the Labor Accident Prosthetics and Orthotics Center in Nagoya, a team led by Director Kazuo Tsuchiya is working on a walking robot that can help persons with paralyzed legs to walk. Using microcomputers, the robot will enable the handicapped to go up and down stairs like any able-bodied person. The design has been completed and construction of a prototype will begin soon.

The center is also working on a robot that can tend bed-ridden persons. Developed under MITI auspices, it is actually an automated multi-function bed in which the occupant can change the quilts, blankets

and sheets by pushing buttons. The bed is also equipped with a bath and a toilet.

The center has combined this automated bed with an assortment of self-help equipment such as artificial arms and a small delivery system that respond to voice commands, both developed by Tokyo University. The bed is also linked to a vending machine, TV set, air conditioner and other devices to form a self-contained system for the bedridden.

A Seeing-Eye dog robot being developed by the Mechanical Engineering Laboratory is so sophisticated that when given the destination by its "master," it selects the shortest route and guides him there safely, avoiding dangerous hazards and automobiles.

* * * * *

Subcontractor Unions Demand Equal Pay
(From the Asahi Shimbun, March 12, 1981)

Most Japanese labor unions are organized along company lines, rather than by craft or industry. But several steelworkers' unions have industry-wide bargaining power through the Japan Federation of Iron and Steel Workers' Unions which represents workers in the top steel companies.

Unions in the subcontractors to the industry giants have less clout. "Everyone in my union is angry because the major steelmaker unions are demanding an average monthly wage hike of \$82 this year, \$5 higher than ours," fumed Ryoichi Konuma, union secretary at Toei Metal Industry, a primary subcontractor of the enormous Nippon Kokan Steel Company.

The council of Nippon Kokan's 11 major subcontractors' unions in Tokyo and Yokohama (total membership 5,000) has set its wage increase target at \$77.

Nippon Kokan has more than 200 subcontractors; only primary subcontractors organized under the council have labor unions. Subcontractors are involved in unloading coal, loading and transport of steel

products, blast furnace maintenance, derusting semi-finished pipe, and plant janitorial services.

Council representatives claim its members' monthly wages average about \$136 less than those of federation members. They have to work overtime to make up the difference.

Few subcontractors can afford the fringe benefits paid by the major steelmakers. Employees at the big firms have the option of living in low-rent company dormitories and apartments, while subcontractors' employees must pay higher rents for housing on the open market. The retirement allowances of Nippon Kokan workers are \$23,000 to \$27,000 higher than for subcontractors' employees.

Konuma noted, "We try to narrow the gap between our wages and those of Nippon Kokan workers. But if salaries and benefits were equal, the parent company would have little incentive to employ subcontractors."

Council attempts to unionize workers in all of Nippon Kokan's subcontractors have been frustrated by the multitiered structure of subcontracting. Small subcontractors, often employing only a few workers, are too intent on undercutting competitors to allow unionization.

Susumu Yokoyama, planning chief of the federation, admits the difficulty of organizing secondary and tertiary subcontractor workers. But he has pledged that by September 1982 the federation will formulate a policy on wage increases for subcontractor workers.

* * * * *

Robots Are Not Super Stars

(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, March 26, 1981)

The three musts for foreign businessmen visiting Japan are PQR.

"P" refers to the secrets of Japan's remarkable productivity. "Q" stands for quality control management techniques. And "R" is for robots, which symbolize pioneering factory technology.

Visitors frequently want to see not only the robots at work but also the factories that make them. This great interest in robots is due to Japan's worldwide reputation as the leader in robotics.

Time magazine's December 8, 1980 feature on "The Robot Revolution" pointed out that Japan first imported robot technology from the United States in 1967 and "now operates most of the robots in the world."

Some robots are machines that can do only simple repetitive tasks, but others are "smart." They have computers which are programmed for work procedures and they carry out assignments as directed.

The Nissan automobile factory in Zama, Kanagawa prefecture, has become famous for its robots. About 60,000 persons from Japan and abroad visited the factory in 1980. Factory tours are so popular that Nissan occasionally turns away people because of an insufficient number of guides.

The visitor stepping into the No. 3 auto body plant where the robots are at work sees few human employees in the vast building. As car frames move along the assembly line, they gradually take shape as automobiles. Giant praying mantis-like robots stand on both sides of the assembly line. Sparks flying, a robot deftly moves its long neck and welds a sheet-metal panel exactly into place.

These robots are completely different from the heroes of science fiction films. In "Star Wars" the hominoid C-3PO and the cylindrical R2-D2 both somehow seemed human. The welding robots at Nissan seem to be parts of a machine. But they have been given human nicknames--Seiko and Momoe--after well-known actresses. Someone apparently decided that all these robots are female.

How widespread is the use of "smart" robots? There are about 10,000 in Japan. According to Time, the United States has 3,000, West Germany has 850 and Sweden uses 600.

Japan also leads in the production of robots. "Including universities and research institutes, research in robotics is the most advanced in the world," according to Kanji Yonemoto, director of the Japan Industrial Robot Association.

The first Japanese robots were made in the late 1960s when major manufacturers like Kawasaki Heavy Industries and Toshiba Instruments imported robot technology from the United States.

A little over a decade later there are welding robots, painting robots, and robots that can do fairly complicated assembly operations. Fujitsu Fanuc's new Fuji plant is a fully automated factory where robots build robots.

Robots are superior to human workers in several ways. They can work 24 hours a day without rest, and they do not need heat, air conditioning or even light. At the Fujitsu Fanuc factory the lighting is dimmed at night.

Robots don't take off to go to a baseball game; there is no absenteeism. They never get tired, and they rarely break down. They do exactly what they are told. The welding robots, for example, work within a one millimeter margin of error. Used to full capacity, robots seem to be 50 percent cheaper than human workers, according to one estimate.

The great interest in the robot factories is because they are regarded abroad as the secret of Japan's high productivity. "Isn't it really the other way around?" says Shin'ya Konishi, deputy general manager, No. 2 engineering department of Nissan. "Japanese management's determination to increase productivity and cut costs has led to the spread of robots." This may seem like the chicken-or-egg argument, but the difference in management attitude is crucial.

Because of fierce competition, Japanese industries must try to raise productivity and reduce costs, and labor cooperates with management to achieve these goals. Management-union collaboration nurtured the robot revolution.

In Europe and America, robots are seen as "super stars" that will instantly cure lagging productivity. In Japan they are merely the latest result or perhaps a symbol of a decades-long effort to improve output.

The diffusion of robots is related to the attitude of organized labor and the quality of labor-management relations. In the West, where unions are organized by craft or industry, robots impact directly on

jobs, and unions are strongly opposed. Since unions in Japan are organized at the enterprise level, workers displaced by robots are reassigned to other jobs instead of being laid off, and there is little union antagonism.

"Japanese management and labor work together to raise productivity, whereas in Europe and America an adversarial model of industrial relations prevails," says Masaichiro Muto, a management director of the Japan Productivity Center. "This difference in labor-management relations explains differences in productivity."

Labor-management cooperation underlies Japan's preeminence in robotics. On the continuation of these harmonious human relationships rests the fate of Japan's powerful army of robots.

* * * * *

Hard Times Hit Car-Industry Suppliers in Japan
(From the Nikkei Sangyo Shimbun, May 20, 1981)

A business slowdown in Japan always hits the small companies hard, the subcontractors near the bottom of the economic pyramid. Worst off are the shoestring operators who do work for primary or secondary subcontractors. The marginal businesses often go under, sacrificed to ensure survival of the great corporations.

Subcontractors and sub-subcontractors fare no better in the automobile industry than in less prosperous sectors. They must cut profit margins just to survive, as the big automakers adjust to the "voluntary" export restraints and slack domestic demand.

Subcontractors in rubber and rubber-related products for Nissan Motors, makers of Datsun, face very hard times. The network of parts suppliers that have given automakers here extraordinary managerial flexibility may be finally collapsing.

The Shinwa Rubber Company in Tokyo's Edogawa ward, capitalized at \$35,000, may soon close down. The company is a subcontractor for

Kinugawa Rubber Industrial Co. which supplies Nissan Motors with shock absorbers and rubber linings for windshields and windows. Shinwa's plight is typical of the economic pressures on small subcontractors.

From the mid-1950s to early 1960s, more than 20 small rubber processing companies were started in Tokyo's Koto ward to fill orders from Kinugawa Rubber. Kinugawa supplied the raw materials which were processed in small shops by thermal presses. Although energy costs rose sharply from the early 1970s, Kinugawa kept demanding lower costs. The financially strapped subcontractors were caught in the middle and only a few have survived.

In May 1980, Kinugawa Rubber established Narita Synthetics, a subsidiary capitalized at \$500,000, with three of its subcontractors. The founder-president of Shinwa Rubber, Koichi Jimbo, became a director in charge of technology at Narita Synthetics. Having its own subsidiary gave Kinugawa Rubber complete control over a better-equipped supply system. At the new company, one worker operates four presses; at smaller subcontractors each press requires one worker.

Kinugawa Rubber plans to place most of its orders, now spread among several subcontractors, with Narita Synthetics whose business is expected to reach \$5 million annually within three years. Koichi Jimbo decided his company, with annual sales of \$2 million, would be squeezed out. Unable to beat the new competition, Jimbo joined it by buying a 10 percent interest in Narita Synthetics.

Meiji Rubber (capitalized at \$25,000) is also a subcontractor for Kinugawa Rubber. President Yoriyoshi Nakajima has had many sleepless nights since March, worrying about the slowdown in orders. Nakajima could not lay off his employees, so he kept them working and inventory swelled. Located in a densely populated area, Meiji Rubber lacks adequate warehouse space. The company rented three rooms in a nearby apartment house but they were soon overflowing with stock.

Meiji Rubber has 50 employees whose average age is 45. They must work 30 hours overtime every month to make a decent income. But President Nakajima cut overtime by 10 hours. "I knew how it hurt the employees, but it was the only way out for the company," he said.

Nakajima worked as a factory hand until 1964 when, at the age of 22, he founded the company with \$280 from his parents. For years the firm depended entirely on orders from Kinugawa Rubber, but now only half its \$2 million annual sales are to its original patron. According to Nakajima, the prices of some products made for Kinugawa have not been raised since he founded Meiji Rubber 17 years ago.

In 1979, Nakajima built a small factory to manufacture rubber products for household plumbing and office equipment. Parent companies are always wary about moonlighting by subcontractors. Nakajima was afraid that Kinugawa might reduce its orders, but he went ahead. "In the new business the profit margin per unit is 10 times greater than with the work we do for Kinugawa," he said.

At the Umedate Manufacturing Company in Matsudo, Chiba prefecture, 95 percent of sales are to Kinugawa. The company's sales target for the fiscal year ending in November is \$1.1 million, down \$150,000 from sales for the preceding 12 months. President Hideo Umedate, who founded the company in 1958, says, "This is the first time I have set our sights below the previous year's sales."

Umedate Manufacturing started in Tokyo's Edogawa ward selling rubber molds and presses to Kinugawa's subcontractors. Now their main line is the metal parts of rubber products. Umedate's margin is only one or two yen apiece on some parts.

Umedate is cutting labor costs because of reduced orders. Male workers are being replaced by part-time women. When five male workers quit this year, the company hired five neighborhood housewives at one-third the wages of regular male employees. This not only reduced direct labor costs but will result in other savings since part-time workers, unlike regular employees, receive no fringe benefits and can be laid off at any time.

President Umedate is also worried about competition for Kinugawa's orders by primary subcontractors who supply Nissan with the same type of products. With Nissan buying less, its major subcontractors are ruthlessly moving in on secondary subcontractors' markets.

Nissan executives at the top of the vast hierarchy of subcontractors and sub-subcontractors may not even know the names of Shinwa,

Meiji, Umedate and the other small firms scrambling to survive at the bottom of their corporate empire. The automakers have ridden out the 1973 oil crisis, export barriers and other difficulties because the sub-contractors serve as shock absorbers. But the shocks show signs of giving out, and the ride may be a little rougher from now on.

* * * * *

Baseball Owners Always Win

(From the Nikkan Sangyo Shimbun, June 19, 1981)

With a crop of exciting rookies sparking fan interest and attendance, faces are beaming in the corporate boardrooms that own Japan's professional baseball teams, especially at the four processed food companies with franchises

In the past, many business executives disparaged baseball franchises as "the president's hobbyhorse" and "money down the drain." Skeptics now admit that a major league club is a valuable part of corporate strategy: a team not only boosts employee morale but also promotes a corporate image, a priceless asset in the food business.

The Lotte Company, a major confectionery maker as famous for chewing gum in Japan as the Wrigley family in the United States, is located in Tokyo's Shinjuku section. The Lotte Orions got off to a fast start this spring, never slowed down, and sewed up the first-half Pacific League title.

At Lotte, employees start the workday by rehashing yesterday's games and the pennant race. When the Orions play in the Tokyo area, everyone who can goes with the company group to root for their team.

The Taiyo Whales, beset by injuries to key players, are in the Central League cellar. This might have dampened morale, but employees at the parent Taiyo Fishery Company seem even more caught up in the team's difficulties. During lunchtime in the company cafeteria, secretaries discuss earned run averages and club injuries.

"The workers are all emotionally involved," says Shinjiro Nakabe, Taiyo Fishery vice-president and the club owner. "They share the joy of victory and the pain of defeat."

"Nothing does as much for employee morale and loyalty to the company," Nakabe added. "We have offices and factories all over Japan. By vicariously sharing the team's ups and downs, all employees feel they are part of the same organization. That's the greatest benefit to the corporation."

Many Taiyo workers spend long months at sea with the fishing fleet. Once a week the company sends them a report on the Whale's exploits by shortwave radio.

At the Yakult Company, which owns the Yakult Swallows, managing director Hisao Ariyoshi says, "We have about 50,000 'Yakult Ladies' around the country selling our health-drink products. They are sales agents working on a commission, not regular employees. Yet they are bigger fans than our permanent staff. We couldn't ask for more loyalty."

Name recognition also comes with a franchise. Food companies' customers range from little children to adults; a favorable corporate image is crucial to sales. Lotte president Takeo Shigemitsu says, "The private railroads used to see baseball as part of their development plans. You built a stadium along your line, got a team to play in it, and made money taking the fans to and from the games. I don't think that's so important to them now. In terms of polishing a corporate image, the food industry gets far more out of a franchise."

Baseball fever in Japan guarantees enormous media coverage and the parent company's name is always before the public. Press and TV coverage of the Nippon Ham Fighters in their first year was worth more than \$10 million in free publicity.

The newest team in the Pacific League, the Fighters have run an annual deficit of \$1.3 million. But Nippon Ham Company president Yoshinori Oyashiro says, "When you consider the publicity value, the team is actually in the black. The Fighters make money for Nippon Ham."

With parent companies counting so heavily on their teams, one might expect a "win or else" attitude. Yet food industry managements hardly

seem to care. To the railroads, a losing season means fewer train-riding customers in the stands. But as vice-president Nakabe of Taiyo puts it, "After all, winning and losing is mainly a matter of luck. We're happy if the team plays hard, exciting baseball."

Yakult's Ariyoshi says, "We sell food products with a wholesome image, so we don't want any sex or gambling scandals. But we don't worry all that much about the standings." What would loyal fans think of comments like "if we win too often, the fans of the other teams might resent us."

Only a few years ago pro baseball teams were corporate black sheep. For example, Taiyo Fishery had a hard time holding on to the Whales. Whenever profits dipped, there was pressure from the banks to unload the team. Thanks to the clicking turnstiles those days are past; the Whales finally made money in 1975 and have been in the black since.

After winning their first pennant race and Japan Series in 1978, the Yakult Swallows made a profit in 1979. The company is even considering declaring a dividend.

The Lotte Orions and Nippon Ham Fighters are still not out of the financial woods. But Lotte managing director Toshio Yamamoto says, "If the team plays well in the second half of the season, paid attendance will be up 30 percent, and we just might turn a profit."

To the processed food companies with major league franchises, the prodigal sons have become models of filial piety and bottom-line accounting.

* * * * *

Changing the Corporate Guard

(From the Asahi Shimbun, evening edition, July 1, 1981)

There was an unprecedented changing of the guard in the Japanese business world during the first six months of 1981 as many new company presidents took offices. The turnover at the top has been greater than in 1977 when the economy emerged from the first oil crisis.

It was a rare day last spring when the newspapers carried no stories about presidential appointments. According to a survey by the Wako Economic Research Institute of the 1,403 companies listed on the Tokyo Stock Exchange, 179 corporations changed their presidents from January to June. This was more than the 136 recorded for all 1980.

Presidents of companies listed on the Exchange's first section average nine years in office, so changes in one out of nine companies each year could be expected. This year about one of six companies will be getting a new chief executive officer.

Several factors are behind the large reshuffle. "Competing in the 1980s" is a key business theme, and there is a strong desire to start out the decade with new blood. With the second oil crisis weathered, the older generation is prepared to hand over the reins to younger men. In short, having achieved reasonably good results in the first year of the decade, corporations are preparing for the rest of the 1980s by installing a new lineup at the top.

The new chief executives are distinguished by their relative youthfulness. Only two were born prior to 1912, in the Meiji era, while 154 were born in the Taisho period, 1912 to 1926. Twenty-three were born in the Showa era, during the reign of Emperor Hirohito which began in 1926. Their average age is 59.5, compared to their predecessors who averaged 68.3 years of age.

The sweeping changes at the top echelon of Japanese industry this year involve an especially large number of famous companies, including Nippon Steel, Mitsubishi Heavy Industries, Hitachi, Fuji Bank and Ajinomoto. At each company, a man long regarded as the favorite for the position was appointed. This is typical of the smooth escalator-type personnel administration system at major corporations.

An unusual number of new presidents have technical backgrounds. The new leaders at Hitachi, Fujitsu, Showa Denko, Kawasaki Heavy Industries and Shimizu Construction are all graduates of Tokyo University's Engineering Department. Mitsubishi Heavy Industries and Mitsubishi Motors both chose men for the top spots who were trained as engineers.

The appointments of men with scientific backgrounds indicates a common strategy. Superior technological know-how and product development capability are regarded as the way to high profits in the 1980s.

Koji Kobayashi, chairman of the board of Nippon Electric Company, has presided over the appointment of two presidents, one with a business administration background and one with scientific training. Asked what he looks for in choosing a president, Kobayashi said, "Well, many abilities are needed, but he must be in good health, able to keep on the go. He's got to have determination and drive too. Maybe he shouldn't be too intelligent."

Regarding the high number of new appointments this year, Kobayashi said, "It's probably because the economy is at a turning point and younger men are needed. We are in a period of slow growth. Increasing sales in Japan will be very hard, and a corporation has to move into overseas markets. But other countries are complaining about a flood of Japanese exports. We have to establish tie-ups abroad through joint ventures, technology sharing or local production. This requires younger men. An executive is vigorous till age 63 or 64. I don't believe a company can survive unless its president can visualize and plan for at least 10 years ahead."

Kobayashi was asked if business or scientific training gave a person a better shot at the presidential suite. "What a person studied in college is not that important. I have a technical background, but I learned Newtonian mechanics. Today students learn quantum mechanics. Whatever little I might have understood about technology at one time is out of date now," Kobayashi said.

Kobayashi continued, "It's most important that a person knows how to think. But a president whose career has been in administration, sales or accounting might have a rough time if he has an inferiority complex about his ignorance of technology. I say this because we engineers are uneasy about not understanding economics."

"The main advantage of going to a university is the many friends and contacts you make there. You always think, 'If that guy can do it, so can I, even better'," Kobayashi concluded.

* * * * *

Rent-a-Record Boom in Japan
(From the Asahi Shimbun, August 11, 1981)

Rental record shops are the latest craze among young Japanese music fans. But the Japan Phono-Graphic Record Association (JPGRA), alarmed over slumping sales, has threatened legal action against the "pirates."

There were only about 12 rental record shops in Japan until early 1981, but by mid-summer the number had increased to about 600 outlets, according to a JPGRA survey. The shops are most numerous in Kyushu and the Tokyo area, but there is at least one rental outlet in nearly every major city.

Music lovers can copy a rental record at home for less than half the purchase price. A standard LP record costs about \$12.00. It can be rented for \$0.90-1.75 and copied on a cassette tape which costs about \$3.50. Often the copying cost is actually much lower. One record shop surveyed its customers and found that many renters split the rental costs among three or four friends who then make their own copies.

A JPGRA survey of 200 record retailers in neighborhoods with a rental record shop showed an average sales drop of 30 percent and some stores' receipts had fallen by half.

One of the early rental shops is the Reikodo in Mitaka, a Tokyo suburb. Opened in June 1980 by a student at Rikkyo University, the Reikodo now has 60 branches nationwide. The spacious store is over a pachinko pinball parlor in front of the Mitaka railway station, a near-perfect location.

It seems like an ordinary record shop, with patrons casually browsing through bins of popular favorites. Customers can rent an LP record for 24 hours for \$1.10, or for a maximum of four days for \$1.50. Patrons are required to join the Reikodo's association, but there is no fee and a membership card is granted on the basis of valid identification.

A sophomore from nearby International Christian University said: "If it's a really good record I want to keep, I'll buy it. Otherwise I

rent one here." A middle-aged man looking through the classical records remarked: "Since I bought my son a stereo set, I've also grown fond of listening to music. But records are so expensive that I make do here."

Reikodo's clientele includes secretaries, fashion designers and teachers. Several customers were asked why they rented records, and all replied: "To tape them at home."

Record retailers in Japan have leased records for a fee, as a service to customers, from before World War II. The current wave of record rental shops may date from 1974 when a music buff in Kanazawa, Ishikawa prefecture started to rent out albums from his own collection. But the early rental services remained small-scale and unorganized.

A spokesman for the worried JPGA says: "The proliferation of so many exclusively rental outlets threatens the record industry. Japan's music world, which is based on royalties from record sales, faces a crisis."

The record association wants copyright protection. A spokesman says, "The copyright law, which permits making recordings for personal enjoyment, did not anticipate the massive, systematic copying taking place today. This copying exceeds the limited scope allowed by the law."

"A record's contents are the property of its producers, including the composer, songwriter, and performer. The rental outlets' use of these contents for profit without permission is illegal."

The Japanese Society for Rights of Authors, Composers and Publishers (JASRAC) has called home copying sparked by the rental record businesses "a problem" but has not charged that such activities are illegal. The copyright section of the Ministry of Education's Agency for Cultural Affairs also takes the position that "While the present situation (of widespread copying) is undesirable, concrete counter-measures would be legally difficult."

Yotsui Industries, which plans to develop a nationwide chain of 2,000 rental record shops, reportedly asked JASRAC what percentage of gross profits it should pay as royalties. The society replied that it has no legal basis for collecting such payments.

Ryoji Yotsui, president of the Yokohama-based company, says, "I think the rental record businesses should pay second-use fees to JASRAC as the radio and TV stations and background music companies do."

One rental record shop proprietor reports that "More and more distributors are refusing to sell to us at wholesale prices." He added, "Even retail stores won't sell us records." But the big rental chains have found ways to buy records at wholesale discounts.

The rental record shops become more popular every week. For example, the 60 Reikodo shops already have a membership of 140,000. "It's only a matter of time before we break the million mark," says Seiichi Oura, Reikodo president. "Then we'd have the makings of a new youth subculture linked by rental records."

Many music lovers think the answer is to reduce record prices so it is no longer cheaper to rent and tape them. But the JPGA does not like the sound of that solution.

* * * * *

The Japanese Worker: Short Vacations, Low Absenteeism

(From the Mainichi Shimbun, September 7, 1981)

The average Japanese industrial worker puts in a six-day week, takes only about nine days vacation a year and rarely fails to show up for work. These findings, from a survey recently published by the Ministry of Labor, prove that the "worker bee" reputation of Japanese labor is well-deserved.

The ministry's annual survey covers businesses employing 30 or more full-time employees. The agriculture and fisheries sectors are not included. This was the first survey to include data on actual vacation time taken and worker attendance rates.

According to "Actual Working Hours in 1980," the workday set by labor-management agreements, excluding lunch time and rest breaks, averages seven hours and 40 minutes. The average workweek totals 41

hours and 53 minutes. These figures have not changed significantly since 1977.

The five-day workweek is slowly gaining ground in Japan. About 30 percent of large companies and 3 percent of small firms have adopted it. For all industries the figure is only 5.4 percent. If companies that have a five-day week at least once a month are included, the total rises to 48 percent. This figure has been increasing by 1 percent annually.

Twenty-three percent of the entire labor force in Japan have a five-day week. This compares unfavorably with 86 percent in the United States (1976) and 85 percent in England (1968).

The survey showed that on the average workers were entitled to 14.4 vacation days annually (in addition to a one week year-end holiday), but the actual number of days taken was 8.8. Small businesses employing less than 100 workers grant even less time off, 12.1 days a year, of which an average of seven days was actually used.

In Europe, where workers generally take their full leave time, 20 days is standard regardless of length of service with the company. In Japan, leave time depends on years of service. For one year of service, an employee is entitled to seven days annual vacation; for five years, 11 days; for 10 years, 16 days; and for 15 years, 20 days. Twenty days annual leave is the maximum.

Another innovation in the survey is data on worker attendance rates. Of an average of 23.3 working days monthly, employees were on the job 22 days. The 1.3 days missed included paid leave, illness and absenteeism.

Direct comparisons with Western countries are difficult due to insufficient data. But U.S. and French figures give an indication of worker absenteeism in those countries. In the United States absenteeism was 6.6 percent in 1978 and in France the rate was higher, 7.5 percent for 1974. The absentee rate in Japan appears exceptionally low by comparison.

* * * * *

Textile Industry Spins Off Electronics Factories
(From the Nikkei Sangyo Shimbun, October 8, 1981)

Japan's dynamic electronics firms are acquiring obsolescent or bankrupt textile plants and converting them to TV and VCR production. Depressed textile companies want to unload their long-unprofitable mills, while electronics manufacturers need new plant sites and more labor to keep up with soaring demand.

Perhaps the most befuddled people in these factory deals are the textile workers who go with the plants. But they have generally overcome the culture shock of changing trades.

A few years ago many textile companies turned their excess mill sites into bowling alleys in a desperate attempt at diversification. The bowling fad is over and disused alleys dot the countryside, but electronics has now come to the rescue.

Textile plants are converted to electronics factories in three ways: outright sale, a joint venture with an electronics manufacturer, or lease of the plants and employees.

Toshio Takai, executive vice-president of the Electronic Industries Association of Japan, says: "These shifts channel the equipment and labor of a no-longer-competitive twilight industry, spinning and weaving, into the rapid-growth electronics industry. There will be more such interindustry transfers. It's a good trend. The Ministry of International Trade and Industry should encourage these shifts."

Takai mentioned that a major electronics parts manufacturer is negotiating for a weaving plant in Toyama city. Many plant-transfer talks seem to be underway. Sony and Sanyo Electric have been particularly responsive to offers from textile firms.

Retooling a mill in a traditional textile center is easier said than done. Sony was careful not to hurt local feelings when it built a color TV factory 11 years ago in Ichinomiya, Aichi prefecture.

"The townspeople were proud of their textile tradition," reminisces Takao Kanaoka, president of Sony Ichinomiya, a wholly owned subsidiary. He added, "They didn't want an electronics plant in their town until two or three years ago."

Two medium-sized local textile firms that began subcontracting to Sony became pariahs in the local business community. Sony Ichinomiya carefully avoided competing with local textile makers in personnel hiring so as not to provoke antagonism.

Economic conditions overcame local sentiment as many old-line textile manufacturers went out of business. The bankruptcy of Hayashi Spinning, a major local company, convinced Ichinomiya residents that the town had to adjust or die. Hayashi Spinning, renamed Sun Fine, has been a subcontractor for Sony Ichinomiya since December 1980.

Kanaoka next drew a bead on a factory owned by Toyobo Co., Japan's leading spinner, in Yokkaichi City, Mie prefecture. The factory began subcontracting for Sony Ichinomiya in September 1981, and is now run by Cosmo Electronics, a wholly owned subsidiary of Toyobo.

Both factories assemble base plates of printed circuits for VCRs and color TVs. The 230 workers at the Sun Fine plant are mostly holdovers from Hayashi Spinning. When the factory was converted they had to be retrained for assembly jobs. Production workers must sit at a moving assembly line and do simple, repetitive tasks. The job is very different from a spinning or weaving mill where workers watch machines and act only when a thread breaks or there is a mechanical failure.

Prior to the switchover, Sony Ichinomiya put 10 Hayashi Spinning supervisory employees through an intensive production control course. Several Sony engineers were brought in to oversee factory operations for the first three months of production.

Spinning mills usually employ female junior high school graduates on morning and afternoon split shifts, which enables the girls to attend high school. The tradition was continued at the Sun Fine factory -- at no small sacrifice in productivity: twice as many supervisory personnel were required for worker retraining, and efficiency was low. Taking a lesson from the Sun Fine case, the Cosmo Electronics plant adopted mainly a daytime shift worked by regular employees.

"Both factories could do better," says Kanaoka. "Productivity at the Sun Fine factory is still 80 to 90 percent of Sony Ichinomiya, while Cosmo Electronics is already at 70 percent."

"Both the Sun Fine and Cosmo plants are still having shakedown troubles, but the workers are good and the managements know how to handle female employees," says Kaname Saito, chief of the planning division at Sony Ichinomiya. "When their productivity matches ours, they'll start assembling units and doing more sophisticated work."

In both the Sun Fine and Cosmo cases, Sony has contracted with the textile manufacturers for the use of the plants and personnel. Elsewhere, Sony has purchased plants from Gunze Ltd. and Tsuyakin Chemical Fiber.

Sanyo Electric prefers to establish a joint venture with a textile maker to manage the converted factory. Kaizuka Sanyo Industry was set up by Sanyo Electric and Minami Spinning to operate the new electronic plant established in facilities formerly owned by the Osaka textile company.

Kaizuka Sanyo began operations in July 1980. The plant employs 600 workers, including 40 men and 180 women transferred from Minami Spinning. Sanyo assigned 20 middle-ranking employees, mostly engineers, to the new plant to train the staff before VCR assembly production began. Operations were relatively free of the bugs that normally plague a new plant.

"The reject ratio was no problem there," says Hiroshi Kura, managing director of Kaizuka Sanyo. "The difficulty was with worker slowness. Now a year after we started, this plant is as fast and efficient as any other Sanyo VCR factory."

A third assembly line to be started shortly will bring production to the initial target of 30,000 units a month. The Kaizuka plant's sales target was \$50 million for the year ending November 1981, and Kura is anxious to show a profit for the term. Plans call for a substantial investment in automation, an increase in workers to 2,000, and annual sales of \$227 million within three years.

At Kaizuka Sanyo, quality control circles have been formed and worker morale is high. While a QC movement has not been initiated at Sony Ichinomiya's subcontractors, their workers have been encouraged to copy the quality improvement campaign underway at the parent company.

"In the textile industry young women workers have been pampered due to the labor shortage," says Director Toshi Minami, who moved from Minami Spinning. "There is no coddling in the electronics industry where great precision is required. The girls work better now."

Traditional citadels of the textile industry like Ichinomiya and Kaizuka are changing completely. More plants will be getting on the electronics bandwagon.

Kanaoka of Sony Ichinomiya says: "These plant acquisitions are made for our own good and not to bail out the distressed textile industry. But once the textile people throw in their lot with us, we want to do everything possible to make the venture a success."

* * * * *

Japan's Missile Makers

(From the Asahi Shimbun, October 12, 1981)

The first inkling Japanese military specialists had of the U.S. Stealth advance bomber was the Carter administration's acknowledgment of the project in August 1980. The radar-eluding plane made the headlines again in October 1981 when President Reagan announced his plan to upgrade U.S. strategic weapons systems. The program includes continued research on Stealth bombers and their deployment in the 1990s.

Yaichiro Hayashi, 46, chief of missile development for Mitsubishi Heavy Industries was not so surprised. His reaction in 1980 was, "So, America is working on it too!" The name Stealth was new, but Hayashi had been working on related technology with some success for two years.

While the military implications of Stealth technology were obvious, practical application involved several difficulties. An aircraft can escape radar detection in two ways: absorb the radio waves or deflect them. The absorbent material must be very thin and light.

Hayashi's team found a promising absorbent substance in a totally unrelated field. TDK Electronics Co., the top maker of audio tapes, had

developed a process for making a radio-wave absorbent material from ferrite (an oxidized iron-alloy), which they used in tapes. More effective than absorbents like carbon and highly resistant to heat and chemical change, ferrite absorbs radar microwaves especially well.

A joint research effort was agreed upon, with TDK trying to improve ferrite while Mitsubishi attempted to combine it with fiber-reinforced plastics. They are now ready for limited test production. Plans call for use of the new material in XSSM-1 surface-to-ship missiles slated for development by Mitsubishi in fiscal 1982.

The United States wants the TDK-Mitsubishi know-how. While the Defense Agency will make the final decision, according to informed sources, binational cooperation on Stealth technology has been underway for some time.

TDK's radiowave absorbent was first used on microwave oven doors to prevent radiation leakage. The technology was further developed mainly for consumer purposes like outerwall construction material in high-rise buildings to prevent interference with TV signals.

Takeshi Ishino, 47, head of TDK's radio wave department, has reservations about working on defense hardware: "Our company is a materials maker. We know nothing about weapons. We deal with civilian products and don't want to get too involved in military research."

Yet TDK is the sole producer of ferrite, which according to Hayashi and others, is the best material available. TDK sells ferrite to Emerson-Cuming, a maker of radio-wave absorbents with close ties to the Pentagon.

Hayashi has worked on missiles since joining Mitsubishi in 1957. He says: "In the past five or six years, civilian research in Japan has advanced rapidly. When I mention to specialists in electronic equipment and materials that the United States seems to be developing such-and-such, I often get the answer, 'We're working on the same thing.'"

Another technician used a baseball metaphor. He said the U.S. team is still in first place but there are a few weak spots in the lineup. They can use some good pitching and a right fielder from Japan.

Yoshito Ueno, 46, assistant general manager, Millimeter Wave and Video Communications Development Laboratory for Nippon Electric (NEC),

was an organizer of the International Conference on Fiberoptic Rotation Sensors and Related Technology held in the United States in November 1981. NEC started research on fiberoptic gyroscopes only a year ago, but is already a leader in the field.

A computerized gyroscope is an inertial navigation system (INS) which can calculate a position without the aid of radio waves. INSs are used in commercial aircraft and in all kinds of weapons from nuclear submarines to missiles.

A fiberoptic gyro uses a semiconductor laser and receiver with an optical fiber coil. It is theoretically at least 10,000 times more accurate than mechanical gyros and can be made more compact and lighter. The U.S. military showed early interest in fiberoptic gyros, and there is fierce competition in research and development among the big military suppliers like McDonnell-Douglas and Honeywell.

Japan moved a step closer to a practical fiberoptic gyro in July 1981 when Hitachi's Central Research Laboratory announced development of a polarized light transmitting optical fiber. It can transmit polarized light in straight waves.

Inquiries and requests for samples poured into the Laboratory and to Hitachi Cable, which is in charge of production, including one from the U.S. Bureau of Naval Research. The Hitachi researchers were immediately invited to discuss their discovery at the November conference.

Mitsuhiro Kudo, 45, an executive at Hitachi's laboratory, said with a wry smile, "We developed this mainly for use in optical communications and optical integrated circuitry, but it seems to have created a stir in a different quarter."

Several new weapons have been developed recently in Japan, nearly all from civilian technology. The portable surface-to-air missile launcher now under development by Toshiba is an example. Its guidance system has an electronic charge-coupled device (CCD) that was originally made to replace that vacuum-tube "eye" in video cameras. This type of CCD is not yet employed in U.S. missiles.

Ryozo Tsutsui, director of research and planning at the equipment bureau of the Defense Agency, says, "The relationship between civilian

and military technology has been changingr" Weapons research always led to technological breakthroughs that stimulated production of new consumer products, according to Tsutsui, but the gap between the military and civilian sectors has closed.

The question of provision of Japanese technology to the U.S. military was raised in talks between Director General Joji Omura of the Defense Agency and U.S. Secretary of Defense Caspar Weinberger in June 1981. The Pentagon is interested in large-scale integrated circuits, laser electronics and infrared detection technology, all of which are also useful in consumer products.

Some Japanese have charged that "The United States is really after industrial technology. We must not let our best civilian research become a pawn in defense cooperation." In any case, the U.S. request indicates the increasing importance of general technology in arms development.

The Japanese weapons industry reacted with alarm to the recent major involvement of Fujitsu and Hitachi in arms production. Both companies have announced they will bid for contracts to build the next generation of the BADGE radar early warning system. Fujitsu is also developing solid-state infrared CCD which the Defense Agency is anxious to have. Other arms makers have complained that "Fujitsu wasn't interested when times were tough but now they jump in when there are some big contracts to be had."

Armaments makers are attracted by the steadily growing military budget and are concerned about national defense. Ichiro Arata, vice-president of Fujitsu, cites the technological advantages: "Working on the new BADGE enables us to study systems that can still function after sustaining partial damage. This knowledge can be used in civilian anti-disaster systems. The Defense Agency will be the initial user of the high-speed computer elements now being competitively developed."

Kenji Ikeda, executive director of Mitsubishi Heavy Industries, speaks more bluntly about the benefits of military contracts: "Defense is the only field where the government gives ample research and development funds to a private corporation."

* * * * *

Education

Four Tips for Parents

by Shigeko HAYASHI, novelist

(From the Asahi Shimbun, January 23, 1981)

Violence by youngsters is increasing both in the schools and at home. The cause seems to be that although Japan is a meritocracy, the essence of education has been perverted.

School has become a mere preparatory course for university entrance examinations. From first grade onwards, students must cram their heads full of all kinds of facts, and a child's worth is determined by his grades. Against their better judgment, parents and teachers are forced to go along with the system. Is it surprising that children become alienated, drop out, misbehave and resort to violence?

Although the malaise is apparent everywhere, pressure for grades and success in entrance examinations -- Japan's "exam hell" -- becomes more hellish each year. There are no signs of educational reform to alleviate the situation. The best that parents can do is work together in the home, keeping a close eye on their children for signs of trouble.

The first pitfall is spoiling and indulging the child in infancy. The less mature the child, the more strictly it should be disciplined. Steel must be tempered when it is red-hot, and it is far too late to start once the child is grown up. Whenever I hear anguished parents lament that they cannot understand why their child should have become

violent after they raised him so lovingly, I suspect the answer is to be found in his early childhood. True parental love lies in bringing up a child to understand the difference between right and wrong and to be capable of judging for himself. Perhaps we treat our children too much like pets.

Once a child starts elementary school, the parents' prime concern is for good grades. This is the second danger: if the parents evaluate a child's worth solely on the basis of grades, he has no one to talk over his problems with.

Living together with the child and sharing family experiences, parents should see many good points that are never measured by grades. Unfortunately, these positive character traits are often so familiar as to go unnoticed. Parents must watch their children with a sympathetic scrutiny that misses nothing. The surest way to hurt, demoralize and alienate a child is to criticize him unmercifully for poor grades. Yet many parents seem unaware of the damage they are doing to their children.

Another mistake could be termed, for want of a better expression, "empty rhetoric." I refer to exhortations not supported by parental example and encouragement. Though uttered with the best intentions, telling a child "You must study!" or "You have to do well in school!" is pointless. These phrases gain no effectiveness by endless repetition.

Any child knows only too well what is expected of him; he does not need his parents to tell him. If you want your child to study, you must stimulate a desire for knowledge. This is infinitely more difficult than verbal posturing. You have to really understand the child, what makes him tick as an individual. Then, patiently and subtly, the parent must maneuver the child so that he suddenly finds himself studying -- and enjoying it!

Parental example is also important. Parents have to find time for reading and other intellectual activities. It is an obligation of parenthood.

Whatever the situation, actions speak louder than words. Verbal injunctions -- "Do this" or "Don't do that" -- have about as much impact

as the blandest Muzak. Parents cannot rely on canned messages; they must find their own special ways of reaching a child.

The fourth danger point is the parent's feeling of superiority towards the child. Few parents are ever actually aware of this attitude. After all, they reason, we are the adults responsible for raising the child. They often cannot "see" the little person in their charge.

While a child has never experienced parenthood, all parents have been through childhood. Adults should be able to put themselves in their child's smaller shoes. Only in that way can they really see and understand the child.

Parents do not lose dignity or authority if they "stoop" to the child's level. On the contrary, they are far more likely to be enriched, and there would be less alienation and teen-age violence.

When parents assume a child has to obey their orders, and when they constantly harp on their superiority and generosity in providing for him, the child tunes them out. The youngster goes along, pretends to defer to authority, but eventually there is rebellion and crisis.

Since mothers and fathers are not gods, they will never be perfect. But they can do a better job of parenting if they spend more time on their own homework.

* * * * *

A Profile Of Japan's Elite Students

by Ikuo AMANO, Associate Professor, Tokyo University

(From the Nihon Keizai Shimbun, June 1, 1981)

The University of Tokyo has been the training ground for Japan's bureaucratic elite since its establishment in the mid-19th century. "Getting into Todai," as it is known to Japanese, is an obsession with high-school seniors and their parents. A public university with low tuition and admission by competitive examination, the school has often

been regarded as the symbol of equal access to educational opportunity and social mobility.

In 1980, students majoring in educational sociology at the university surveyed 800 undergraduates about their family and educational background. The recently released survey results provide a profile of the Tokyo University student body today.

Most *Todai* students come from relatively well-to-do families. Over two-thirds of their fathers have college degrees, while only 8 percent had no formal schooling beyond elementary school. Their mothers' educational level is also above average, with one-third college graduates.

Nearly four out of five respondents are from upper-middle class or upper class backgrounds. Occupationally, 55 percent of their fathers are in managerial positions and 23 percent in a profession. Almost a third are high-ranking bureaucrats or senior executives in large corporations. Family income is also very high, about twice the national average, and 25 percent earn over \$40,000 per year.

Approximately 90 percent of the Tokyo University students attended public elementary schools, but only 58 percent went to a public middle school and slightly fewer to a public high school. Forty-four percent attended private or national high schools known for intensive preparatory training for college entrance examinations. After graduating from high school, 40 percent took a year off to study for the *Todai* entrance examination.

Tokyo University students have some problems and complaints. Finding classmates they can relax with or talk to about personal matters has not been hard, but over half the respondents said they have been unable to make friends of the opposite sex. While 63 percent find lectures and classes boring, about as many said that on the whole they are satisfied with university life.

Extracurricular clubs and activities are very popular, but there is little enthusiasm for political action. Only 10 percent of students involved in campus organizations participate in political groups. Yet there is interest in politics. Nearly 90 percent of the respondents often watch TV news or programs about politics, and about seven in 10 are dissatisfied with the current political situation. But only about

60 percent think reform is possible. One out of three students support the ruling Liberal Democratic party, evidence of a surprisingly strong conservative mood on campus.

Almost all respondents recognize the career advantages of graduating from a prestigious university. But they do not necessarily want to work in large corporations or government agencies where the Tokyo University diploma is the greatest asset. Many said they want "a job where I can be independent and make the most of my abilities" (67 percent) or they prefer "a small company or organization that will allow full scope for individuality and ability" (84 percent). Whether they will be able to find such fulfilling work remains to be seen.

This future elite has a considerate side. Nearly four out of five said they would give up their seat on the bus to an elderly person, and they would approach and speak to a former teacher they happened to see on the street. But they are not overly fastidious. Just as many said they would not be shocked to learn that a close buddy was living with a girl friend. And 69 percent think that if they find some money or a wallet on the street and no one is around, they will keep it.

When asked about their life objectives, 16 percent of the respondents said they will work to improve society, 11 percent want to live without compromising their integrity and 13 percent aspire to academic careers. A third of the students hope to pursue personal interests, while the goal of 13 percent is "a pleasant family life."

* * * * *

Students on the Warpath

by Kazuaki AMANO & Tateo SHIMIZU, staff writers

(From the Asahi Shimbun, evening edition, June 17, 1981)

A wave of vandalism and assaults on teachers has hit Japan's schools. From the start of the new school year in April through the end of May, 27 incidents were reported in Tokyo and 34 in Osaka. This is nearly a seven-fold increase over the same period in 1980.

School staffs have been split over whether to call in the police to handle unruly students. The Komatsu Junior High School in Tokyo's Katsushika ward is an example of a school traumatized by violence; it has turned disruptive students over to the police.

Komatsu Junior High, with an enrollment of 680 and located in a busy commercial district in eastern Tokyo, has a reputation for superior scholastic achievement. Komatsu's average scores on mock high-school entrance examinations are always among the best in the ward. Only a few Komatsu pupils were in minor trouble with the police last year for shoplifting or fighting with students from other schools. It was considered a model school.

But as soon as the new academic year opened, Komatsu was suddenly shaken by vandalism. On April 8, a gang of seven or eight 9th-graders removed the mirror from the school bathroom and damaged the door to the music room. Over the next week the same students set off a fire extinguisher, shut a fire door and barricaded themselves into part of the fourth floor, burned wastepaper in a classroom, and set off the fire alarm while school was in session.

On April 14, when a social studies teacher rebuked students for going in and out of a classroom while a class was in session, a student struck the teacher in the face, causing a minor injury. This was the first assault on a teacher at the school.

Vandalism and classroom disturbances increased: wooden walls of senior classrooms were destroyed, holes punched in floors and ceilings, desks broken and walls defaced with graffiti. A gang of seniors sent a threatening note to the school announcing an "attack." They exploded five firecrackers and used fire extinguishers to spray the fourth floor and adjoining staircases with foam.

Before dawn on April 27, the gang broke into the gymnasium. Ten days later they wrecked an audiovisual room. The number of student sympathizers increased, and the gang and its new supporters grew bolder. They tore out the repaired wooden walls and broke windows.

On May 12, two teachers were attacked. First a math teacher was slapped. Then the gang caught a science teacher and hit him with blackboard erasers, saying, "We're putting makeup on you." Then they forced

bread crumbs into the teacher's mouth and said, "Here's your school lunch." In another attack, gang members kicked and injured a music teacher who tried to intervene when they were harassing a teacher. Over the next two weeks five teachers were assaulted.

According to school statistics, up to May 8 four teachers had been injured, there were five cases of violence and assault, and 17 students had been reported to the police.

Students have not been very communicative with the police. They said things like "We didn't want students from other schools to think we were sissies and afraid of them," "We hit teachers because we hate them," and "It was fun to see the school in chaos."

Interviews with students, school authorities, parents and local residents indicate three specific factors behind the violence.

Peer pressure and adolescent machismo were one reason for the disruption. Near Komatsu is another junior high school notorious for its tough students. A group there under the influence of a local motorcycle gang was threatening Komatsu students. According to Mr. Ogawa, principal of Komatsu, "They have extorted money from our students for a long time now." During the last school year some teachers and PTA members set up a daily patrol to protect the students.

Some of the new 9th-graders this spring, resentful of the teachers' protectiveness, chose to fight their own battles. Several boys formed a gang, saying "Guys at that other school will walk all over us unless we fight back." More aggressive after their acts of vandalism, they attacked two members of another juvenile gang. The victims had now become assailants.

A second factor was a vague but widespread frustration against the school. Most of the students involved with the gang expressed dissatisfaction with Komatsu. After a series of minor incidents, some students said they were being treated "like dropouts" and "like stupid kids."

For example, one student loaned his fishing pole to another who failed to return it. They quarreled over the pole, and the second student did not return to school for the new term in April. When a

teacher called the first student a troublemaker, a rumor quickly spread that the instructor was unfair.

The first vandalism at Komatsu occurred immediately afterwards. A teacher's remark provoked pent-up anger, stemming from family troubles or difficulties with studies, into an attack on the school.

The third reason was the use of corporal punishment by a faculty member. The first teacher attacked was a 25-year-old instructor hated by gang members for physically punishing students. According to Principal Ogawa, the man was a hard worker in the classroom and involved in extra-curricular activities such as Japanese fencing. But he was a no-nonsense person who believed in hitting students who misbehaved. Ogawa added, "Discipline has a verbal side, too, admonishment and encouragement, but he didn't handle that well."

Students were asked why they waited till their third year to fight back. Some replied, "By then we had grown as tall and strong as the teachers," while others said, "We waited until we were the senior class." The school's action in reporting the early incidents to the police especially enraged the students. All the students said: "The teachers are a bunch of cowards. Why didn't they fight back instead of calling the police?"

The 9th-grade homeroom teachers last year, despite strong criticism from some faculty members of "coddling," attempted to talk with and understand the students. The teachers this year are much stricter, and some believe in using physical punishment. They demanded order and discipline in the classroom.

The faculty realized that the lack of a clear disciplinary policy was confusing to staff and student body alike and agreed in March to act consistently this school year. Unfortunately, the vandalism erupted before the new policy could be implemented, and then the faculty split over how to handle the disruption.

Exponents of dialogue with the students insisted: "There's still time to straighten them out. We should find the cause of the problem through discussion." But disciplinarians argued that: "The school is in a crisis. We must first restore classroom order and then we can talk to the students."

The Komatsu staff was still divided after the first teacher was beaten up on April 14. The victim stayed in bed for several days, and waited almost two weeks before informing the police on April 27. Early that same morning, the student gang broke into the gymnasium. The school called in the police, and Principal Ogawa immediately suspended five students.

Although the staff had not formally agreed on how to handle the situation, particularly on whether the police should be summoned, Komatsu Junior High found itself relying on outside authorities to maintain order.

The Student Association appealed for moderation. Association officers asked the principal to lift the suspension. They took class notes and assignments to the gang members at their homes and also delivered messages of encouragement from other students.

At a PTA meeting for parents of 9th-graders in mid-May, Principal Ogawa announced that "because of the present situation, we must cancel the graduation trip." Gang members protested to teachers: "We won't go on the trip, so don't cancel it. The other students shouldn't be punished for what we did."

When the assaults on teachers continued, Principal Ogawa again proposed to the staff that disruptive acts be reported to the police and compensation be sought from parents for damage to the school. But the teachers still could not reach a consensus, with some arguing that "we should settle this within the school," while others favored the principal's plan to call in the police.

When four more teachers were assaulted, the staff finally agreed that the students involved should be reported to the police and compensation demanded from their parents.

Since June there have been no serious incidents at Komatsu. The gang members remain silently resentful; there is no dialogue with the staff. The violence has shifted from within the school to fights with gangs from other schools. Now the teachers don't know what kind of delinquency their students might be involved in. Doubts remain over

whether the decision to call in the police was correct or will hurt the school more in the long run.

* * * * *

Suicide in the Principal's Office
by Masayuki TAKAGI, staff writer
(From the Asahi Shimbun, June 21, 1981)

In late January 1981, two elementary school principals in Hiroshima prefecture committed suicide and in April a third killed himself. The suicides were symptomatic of deep-seated problems in Japan's educational system, particularly the isolation of principals from their colleagues. Another factor was controversy over how schools should fight discrimination against "burakumin" (descendants of former outcastes), and Koreans.

Such tragedies are usually attributed to nervous breakdowns. But the Hiroshima principals' cases are puzzling because none of these intensely private men left a note or even a clue as to their motives.

On January 29, Senjo Fujii, 54, principal of Sakuragaoka Elementary School in Fukuyama, was found dead in his car on a mountain road about two kilometers from his school. He had slashed an artery in his neck and bled to death. Two days later, Masahiro Hirano, 52, a principal in the town of Hongo was discovered in the school's counseling room. Early that morning he had slit his wrists and throat with a razor-type paper cutter. On April 9, Hiroyuki Kuriki, 55, was found in a disused room at his school in Hatsuoka. About 8:40 that morning he had hung himself with a child's jump rope. The new academic year was two days old.

Neither Kuriki nor Fujii left a suicide note. Hirano had written only a simple message addressed to his wife and his mother, which said, "Give my love to our children."

According to Kuriki's wife, he was "a dedicated man who thought of nothing but the school and the children." A teacher from the school

adds that Kuriki "never took a vacation and could hardly stay away from the school even on Sundays."

Mrs. Fujii says her husband "always looked as if he was worried about his work." The vice-principal confirmed this: "He was a perfectionist who never assigned a task to anyone else. He always insisted on doing things himself."

The vice-principal of Hirano's school says, "He tried to do everything, even matters that were the local board of education's responsibility."

The prefectural board of education's report on the suicides concludes that the three men were "dedicated and meticulous. But they were also extremely introspective and had an uncommon sense of responsibility."

All three men were relatively new to their jobs. Fujii was in his third year, Kuriki had been principal for two years and Hirano had been in his position for only four months. They had been promoted to their posts at a younger age than most vice-principals and principals in Hiroshima prefecture.

According to the board of education report, a common element in the three situations was "an uncooperative attitude among the teaching staffs, and occasional dissension . . . which left the principals isolated."

In Kuriki's case, the report cites disputes with teachers over teaching loads, homeroom assignments and annual leave. The report also mentions a controversy over students who made disparaging remarks to Korean classmates. The issue was taken up by the school's Committee on Harmonious Education, an organization to deal with burakumin problems, and at staff meetings. After a month of discussions the problem was resolved, according to the report.

Regarding Fujii, the report states that "he had impaired his health, was depressed by a series of accidents to children at the school, and was negative toward a request from parents to add more classes." Hirano was upset by controversy over admitting physically handicapped children and by the school's performance during special visitors' days.

"These kinds of problems still don't explain why a man would be driven to suicide," says Satoshi Tadokoro, a senior official of the prefectural board of education. "There just doesn't seem to be a specific cause."

Principals face increasingly complex and difficult tasks: the new supervisors' system, curriculum issues, violence in the schools, how to handle slow or indifferent learners, and disputes over displaying the flag and singing the national anthem. In the human relations area, principals must deal with teachers and the powerful Japan Teachers Union, with parents and with the children themselves. The paperwork and coordination involved in administration gets worse every year.

Kazushi Kiyomi, principal of Hiroshima's Fukuromachi Elementary School, says: "The three were deeply involved emotionally and intellectually with their administrative roles as principals. At the same time, as educators they felt they had to give the children love and understanding. They must have been caught between these obligations, and the only way out was suicide."

Tatsukuni Komori, head of the Hiroshima chapter of the Buraku Liberation Alliance, says: "The new system of appointing supervisory teachers divides the staffs and strengthens bureaucratic control over the schools. Teachers who have participated in strikes are barred from promotion to vice-principal or principal. All these things weaken the principal's authority. Incompetent leadership causes discord among the staff."

The shocked Hiroshima Board of Education has acted to improve advisory assistance to principals and provide additional training. But administrative actions will not be enough.

Hideo Kadota, principal of Kinoe Technical High School and head of the National Council on Harmonious Education, says: "I don't mean to criticize these men but we always try, especially when dealing with human rights and anti-defamation topics, to inculcate the ideals of the search for truth and the value of human life. For school principals to commit suicide betrays these ideals and sets an utterly deplorable example for the children. If there were problems that serious, I wish

they had raised them publicly, involved others and got everyone working for a solution.'

* * * * *

Inflated Insect Prices Bug Tots
(From the Nihon Keizai Shimbun, July 13, 1981)

"What am I bid for these fine helmet beetles?" That's the cry every Friday morning from late April to the end of August at Tokyo's Higashi Kurume insect market. Jobbers and retailers attend the auction to buy various insects supplied by farmers and professional collectors.

Although city children with butterfly nets chasing dragonflies or cicadas are a rare sight any more, insect pets seem to have become more popular in recent years. When summer vacation starts, children crowd the insect counters of department stores, supermarkets and pet shops. A special insect bazaar set up by a Tokyo department store last summer attracted long lines of tiny customers.

According to industry sources, the best-selling bugs are helmet beetles, bell-ring beetles, stag beetles, longhorned grasshoppers and crickets. Helmet beetles, constituting about half of all sales, are the most popular.

The demand for stag beetles has increased, but since they are difficult to breed and have a low hatching rate, they remain in third place in the sales race.

The main suppliers of cultivated insects are farmers and breeders; most natural insects come from the brokers called "boss collectors." With helmet beetles, cultivated specimens make up 80 percent of the market supply and most are raised by mushroom farmers. The beetles eat old oak logs originally used to grow mushrooms. Since the partially eaten logs can be made into rich fertilizer, the farmers kill three birds with one stone.

Natural helmet beetles and stag beetles are collected by adults and children organized by a boss who designates hunting territory for each

person. Since even a child can earn \$90-\$130 a day, more adults are joining in. A master hunter once earned \$610 in one day, not as much as The Beatles but not bad.

Some insects are sold directly by producers to retail shops. Others are sold through auctions like the Higashi Kurume market to jobbers who take orders from pet shops.

Shizuo Kyunai, president of the Million Pet Company and an organizer of the Tokyo market, is worried about the 20-30 percent higher prices for helmet and stag beetles this year. The insect fanciers' age group has been getting younger; four-to-eight-year-olds are the main market. If prices rise too much, young children will not be able to buy insect pets.

The inflated prices for helmet beetles are due to sharply reduced supply. The cool summer in 1980 disrupted insect ecology, causing a drastic drop in egg laying and hatching rates. Some farmers report yields of cultivated beetles at about half the normal level.

Natural species are usually an important source of supply from mid-July but they were also apparently affected by the cold summer last year. Kyunai says, "This summer we just can't get enough good-quality helmet beetles at reasonable prices."

Other insect industry sources agree with Kyunai that "Our customers are children, so we cannot put profits first." Yet the law of supply and demand is apparent in retail prices. A large breeding pair of mature helmet beetles costs from \$3.50 to \$5 this summer. "We are trying to keep the price below \$5," says a spokesman at the Seibu Department Store. "We don't want to spoil the kids' summer."

* * * * *

Why Johnny Can't Read in Japan Either

By Itaru NAKAMURA, Professor of Japanese Literature

Tokyo University of Liberal Arts

(From the Asahi Shimbun, July 25, 1981)

College students these days seem to have forgotten how to read. Whether it is a novel or a collection of essays about contemporary society, they don't know what to do with a book. This is only to be expected, I suppose, for we are living in the electronics age. Radio and television have created a generation that reacts rather than thinks.

The popularity of the new nonsense-comedy duos is a sign of the times. The fast-talking comedy team is nothing new. But the famous duos of the past got their laughs by perfect timing and good material. The new comics rely on sheer speed. They have perfected a machine-gun-style delivery of gags and slapstick that dazzles the visual and auditory senses.

But it all goes by so fast that when it is over, you can't remember what they said. This meaningless trivia is watched almost exclusively by young people.

Most students today have no problem grasping the main point of a book and they can give a good summary. But they are not interested in the author's underlying philosophy or emotions. Many history professors complain that their students will diligently peruse reams of documents, but they can only see what is written on the page: they never read between the lines. Students show little interest in capturing the spirit of an age, or in understanding the personalities of the men who wrote the papers and records.

While this attitude partly reflects an inability to think deeply, the fundamental cause is a lack of historical consciousness. Language is an example. Words are rooted in the genius of a language, in emotions and behavior at a particular moment. Historical consciousness is the ability to feel these emotions, to know how the words were used. Unfortunately, this attitude is rare.

Japanese are fond of reading history and know many facts. But very little of this knowledge is internalized. We live and act ahistorically.

This is true of language: most people, especially the younger generation, understand very little about the words they use every day.

For example, when college students are asked to explain the expression "to eat another person's rice," most take "another" literally to mean any individual other than oneself. Very few realize that "oneself" includes family, relatives, and the members of one's basic group.

Many students insist that the group should not be brought into the picture at all. Having grown up in nuclear families, they have not experienced the traditional life style centered around a large kinship group, all eating "rice from the same pot."

Students do not understand this simple expression despite all the Japanese history they have had to memorize from high school on. And they are indifferent to the feeling of solidarity which has been so important to the common people down through the ages.

The written word conveys an author's thoughts and feelings, and subtly reflects social conditions and cultural trends. When the historical ethos of words is expressed in superficial repartee "full of sound and fury signifying nothing," a society cannot transmit its heritage to the next generation.

This is the information age. We must make judgments on problems we know only at secondhand. We must anticipate the actions and attitudes of people we have never met and act according to how we think they will respond. All of this data comes to us in words. One wonders whether the younger generation understands how crucial language is to communication and whether our educational system is preparing them for a verbal society.

* * * * *

Life Styles and Attitudes

The Maruyama Cancer Vaccine

(From the Asahi Shimbun, January 22, 1981)

Controversy has flared again in Japan over the Maruyama Vaccine, a widely used but still unauthorized treatment for cancer. More and more patients and their families want to try the drug. They have now gained new support from politicians and writers who argue that since the drug may help and has no side effects, it should be immediately approved.

The medical profession remains skeptical. Some doctors say, "I'll prescribe it if the patient makes a specific request," but otherwise few seem ready to recommend the vaccine.

Dr. Chisato Maruyama, professor emeritus at Nippon Medical School and head of its Vaccine Treatment and Research Center, discovered 25 years ago that cancer is rare among tuberculosis patients. Maruyama developed a vaccine which he thought might be effective against cancer by heat-treating tuberculosis bacilli. Laboratory tests with animals were not encouraging, but in 1965 Dr. Maruyama decided to go ahead with hospital tests on humans. As of November 17, 1980, 127,000 patients had received the drug.

On a recent Saturday the waiting room at Dr. Maruyama's center was packed with over 800 people. Of the crowd, 146 had come from all over Japan to apply for the drug, while 726 were there to pick up their regular dosage. Patients receive two vaccine doses of different

strengths to be injected alternately in a three-day cycle. For "tests" to be carried out on this scale with an unapproved drug is unprecedented in Japanese medicine.

According to a specialist in cancer research, "The basic idea has merit. It is quite possible that a substance extracted from tuberculosis bacilli may help the body build up a resistance to cancer. But up to now the tests have not been systematic and controlled."

Standard medical procedure in testing a new drug is first basic research, followed by laboratory tests on animals, next on small groups of patients, and finally on large groups. With Maruyama Vaccine this order has been reversed. There was no scientific proof of the drug's effectiveness; but word spread that "it seems to be effective." Terminal cancer patients and their families, grasping at any straw, flocked to Maruyama's center.

Paradoxically, the tremendous demand for the vaccine has delayed a scientific verdict. Hospital tests involved so many uncontrolled variables that the resulting mass of data has limited scientific value. The louder Maruyama and his colleagues insist that "it helps," the less inclined the medical establishment has been to listen.

At present there is no certain cure for cancer. The various drugs approved can only prolong life for a short period. Those that temporarily suppress cancerous cells also attack healthy cells; there are severe side effects, and patients suffer terribly.

The Maruyama Vaccine's chief virtue is that, whether effective or not, it at least has no secondary consequences. For this reason, many patients and doctors feel that there is no harm in giving it a try. Even at Tokyo's National Cancer Research Center, regarded by Maruyama's supporters as the stronghold of the opposition, the vaccine is now administered upon request.

"We tell the patients who want to be treated exclusively with Maruyama Vaccine that we cannot assume responsibility and they will have to go elsewhere," says a doctor.

Dr. Maruyama has always insisted that the vaccine is not effective if combined with other treatments. But data submitted to the Central Council on Drugs, Cosmetics and Medical Instruments do not support this

claim. Exclusive use of the Maruyama Vaccine resulted in prolonged life and reduction of cancerous cells in less than three percent of studied cases, according to the Council, which has refused to recommend it.

Politicians and other prominent persons have joined the "approval now" movement. In October 1980, Professor Hajime Shinohara, a political scientist at Tokyo University, submitted a 40,000-signature petition to the minister of Health and Welfare which demanded immediate approval of the vaccine.

A month later, 30 Diet (Parliament) members from the ruling Liberal Democratic party organized a study group on the Maruyama Vaccine. In December 1980, Diet members from four major parties spent an evening with Dr. Maruyama discussing his vaccine.

These supporters believe government health officials are collaborating with the medical profession to prolong approval hearings. "Other drugs," they argue, "don't have to go through such a nit-picking process." Some say "It's all because the application was submitted by a small pharmaceutical company."

Health and Welfare Ministry officials profess to be mystified by such charges. With a perplexed expression, one points out: "The data were inadequate. But we are giving the company an opportunity to submit new data. I think we are bending over backwards to be fair."

The applicant, the Zeria Pharmaceutical Co., reportedly invested more than \$5 million in tests of the vaccine, and its survival hinges on approval. The company has now submitted supplementary data and is waiting for the Drug Council's decision. A final ruling is expected this summer.

The Council will approve the application if it finds scientific evidence that the drug is effective alone or as part of a combined treatment for even one kind of cancer. But rejection of the application will not end the dispute because patients will still be able to use the drug as a "test product."

Approval of the vaccine will shift attention to pricing and the cost of medical care. Patients can now obtain a 40-day supply for a modest \$22.72. But under the health insurance program, medicine prices are set according to the seriousness of the disease and the effective-

ness of the drug. Official approval would probably make the Maruyama Vaccine a very expensive drug overnight. Even with the cost partly covered by health insurance, some families may find it beyond their means.

Whatever the government's decision, the controversy will continue. The Health and Welfare Ministry and the Drug Council should reassure the public by disclosing their proceedings and showing the scientific basis for their decisions.

* * * * *

Blazing Row Over Anti-smoking Slogan
(From the Asahi Shimbun, January 31, 1981)

The Japan Heart Foundation is demanding an apology from novelist Hisao Sawano and the Japan Tobacco and Salt Public Corporation for calling a 10-year-old girl who won an anti-smoking slogan contest "an obnoxious brat" who will never find a husband.

The Tobacco Corporation is a government monopoly which controls the manufacture and sale of all tobacco products in Japan. Sawano wrote the offensive article, entitled "The Young Girl Who Can't Love," for a Tobacco Corporation advertisement in a February issue of a weekly magazine, *Shukan Bunshun*.

Although Sawano did not give the girl's name, he identified her as a fourth-grader in Kyoto's Fushimi ward. The target of Sawano's wrath entered the "Your Smokes or Your Health?" contest sponsored last year by the Japan Heart Foundation, the Japan Cancer Society and the Japan Anti-Tuberculosis Association. Her slogan, "I would never marry a smoker," won the foundation's prize.

A lifetime smoker himself, Sawano, 68, argued that women's tolerant attitude about alcohol but aversion to smoking betrayed a fundamental inconsistency in Japanese thinking. "When I saw this slogan," he wrote, "I thought what an obnoxious young girl she must be. It's monstrous for

children to think about smoking and marriage at the age of 10a. When she grows up, she'll never find anyone to marry her."

Sawano added that the girl's mother had probably made up the slogan and submitted it in her daughter's name. "If that is the case," he asserted, "the mother is both a liar and a despicable person. And what about her husband? What sort of man would marry a woman like that?"

When the article appeared, Yoshiji Yoshioka, Secretary-General of the Heart Foundation, telephoned Sawano and complained that the column had slandered the little girl. He demanded that Sawano publish an immediate apology but the writer refused, saying he was just "telling it like it is."

The Heart Foundation then demanded in writing that Sawano and the Corporation retract the statement and apologize. The foundation said it acted because Sawano had attacked a specific individual in extremely harsh terms and the article was a publicity column for the government tobacco monopoly.

According to the 10-year-old's parents, her aversion to cigarette smoke is so severe that her father was forced to give up smoking. She becomes nauseous if someone at the next table in a restaurant starts smoking.

The father had learned of the contest and filled out an entry postcard. His daughter made up a slogan, and the father sent off the entries. According to the girl's mother, "The slogan was my daughter's work. I had absolutely nothing to do with it."

Sawano insists that since he was only stating his own opinions, there is no reason to apologize: "All I wanted to say was there's a double standard about drinking and smoking. The girl was just a foil for my argument. I didn't even mention her name."

"As an author, I can't believe that the slogan was thought up by a 10-year-old girl. The whole thing smells of parental instigation. What a disgusting fraud, I thought, and I wanted to speak out against ghost-writing by parents. Unless we expose this phony precocity, children won't develop with views of their own."

* * * * *

Laughs Behind the Camera
Naoya Yoshida, chief director
Japan Broadcasting Corporation (NHK)
(Shokun, May 1981)

One of my projects years ago was a TV documentary on gangsters, the "yakuza." To get permission to film a gang's activities, I went to see Kyunai Shimura, an influential underworld boss. For several hours I knelt across from him nervously trying to explain the program concept.

We wanted to shoot scenes of gambling, an initiate going through the loyalty pledge ritual, and actual gang warfare. We also wanted to film a tattooer decorating a gang member's torso with a colorful design.

We were asking a lot, perhaps too much. I told Shimura that we had to have complete control over the script, which was bound to be critical of yakuza. If I were Shimura I would have been angry at such a brazen request. My palms were sweaty and my throat was dry as I waited for his outraged reaction.

Finally Shimura drawled, "I've got a beautiful tattoo on my back, kid." "Can I see it?" I asked. "Sure, kid," he said, slowly getting to his feet. As he pulled the top half of his kimono down around his waist, a black form flashed out at me from the corner. I dived onto the tatami and found myself staring into the gaping mouth and sharp fangs of a growling monster.

Shimura's "Oheee!" stopped the animal. A second later and I would have been dead.

It was a Doberman pinscher trained to kill at a signal -- when its master stripped off his kimono to the waist. Was this a reminder of the kill-or-be-killed nature of the underworld? The dog was conditioned to jump at an enemy and tear his jugular out.

Shimura had completely forgotten about the crouching dog. Apologizing profusely, he admitted, "that scared me." I was laughing convulsively, tears streaming down my face. I couldn't get control of myself. The dog had been chained up, but I sat there laughing hysterically.

Shimura gave me permission, and the program was so well received that I wanted to do another one on yakuza sidelines. At temple or shrine festivals, for example, the men who sell cheap toys and souvenirs often have underworld connections.

A cameraman and I travelled around with two of these vendors from one festival to another for 10 days. One was short, fat and sold dolls; the other, tall and thin, sold belts. Like Mutt and Jeff, they were a comical pair who had travelled together for many years.

The fat man's dolls were made of whitewashed clay paste except for a piece of wood on the back of the head. Keeping up a loud sales pitch he would hold up a doll and hit the wooden part with a mallet. At the sharp, clear sound he would cry out: "See? What do you say? This doll will never break!"

The crowd fell for it every time, jostling each other to buy his dolls. Little did they know that if he had hit the doll anywhere else it would have broken into smithereens. Fat little Mutt certainly knew how to make people buy ugly dolls.

Gangling Jeff sold shoddy belts that he passed off as genuine alligators. After a little wear, the several layers would peel apart. But during his sales pitch he slapped them on the ground and even cut into the edge of one with a razor to show its supposed strength. Those belts sold well.

They were two glib con men. Once we got on a crowded night train together. They slithered adroitly into two seats, leaving the cameraman and me standing. A few hours later the fat doll-seller, by then quite drunk, called out: "Hey, NHK, too bad, no seats. Better do something about that. Me'n my pal'll take care of it."

I was afraid they might frighten someone into giving up a seat. "Don't worry," said the pal, reading my thoughts, "We could even talk a guy out of going home for his mother's funeral. Just watch. You'll get your seats."

They launched into an obscene story in voices pitched so that the nearby passengers had to strain to hear. Soon the whole car was hushed except for a smothered laugh here and there. Passengers sitting farther away began to leave their seats and move closer.

It was an incredible scene. In a few minutes the aisle was packed. Nearly every passenger was standing, trying to hear the story and see the raconteurs. Mutt signalled with his eyes for us to grab two of the empty seats. But we didn't move. We wanted to hear the end of the story.

Our Pied Pipers were talking about a gangster who was a real ladies' man. At one point he was caught red-handed in some crime and imprisoned for three years. While he was serving his sentence, five of his girl friends gave birth to a total of seven babies, and he was the father of each!

The two salesmen minced no words as they discussed in detail how their locked-up lothario carried it off. I have never been able to confirm whether their description of the prison and the visitors' room was accurate or a total fabrication. True or not, the story was effective. Dozens of empty seats were available had we chosen to sit down.

I was once in Czechoslovakia with a few NHK staff members to make a historical drama. The leading character was a Japanese woman who married an Austrian diplomat, Count Cou'denhov-Kaler'gi, in the 1890s. Actress Sayuri Yoshinaga played the Japanese countess and narrated the story.

We were shooting a scene of Yoshinaga walking through the old Bohemian castle where the countess had lived. The Czechoslovakian state-run TV station had sent us a spotlight man guaranteed to be "a most serious-minded young man." His job was to hold a huge light high above his head with both hands and follow Yoshinaga as she walked.

The pre-shooting test went smoothly. When everyone was set I shouted, "Ready. Action!" in Japanese and added what I thought was the Czech equivalent of "Action."

The camera ground away and Yoshinaga strolled off but the spotlight was riveted on the ceiling somewhere. The spotlight man stood like a statue with arms outstretched. We tried it over, with the same result. I asked the young man through an interpreter what was wrong. It turned out that the Czech word the interpreter had taught me for "Action" meant

"Attention!" That was the last time I used an unfamiliar foreign language on the set.

One morning at a hotel in Austria during the making of the same film, we were frantically trying to catch an early flight. We had to pack and tag all our equipment and personal baggage. In the midst of this confusion, a room service waiter suddenly appeared reverently holding a silver tray on which there was a plate of small butter balls.

"Here is your order, sir," he said.

"Who the hell ordered butter?" I fumed.

Everyone looked blank. The mystery was unravelled when we discovered that one of our crew had asked the front desk to send up a "porter." The desk clerk had heard it as an order for butter.

I had a similar but more uncomfortable experience in Baghdad. I was there to gather material for a program, and I met an old journalist friend in the hotel lobby. We went into the hotel bar to catch up on each other's lives. He ordered beer and I asked for a Scotch and water. The Arab bartender made me a really good drink. He had used Johnny Walker Red, but it tasted like Jack Daniels. It had real body.

I commented to my friend, "The Scotch imported into Iraq must be different."

"I doubt it very much," he said.

As we talked and drank, I found myself feeling really good. I declared, "I'm not going to bother eating. I'm going to stay here and make a night of it." My friend looked disgusted as I downed drink after drink. I finally must have staggered back to my room. I don't know what time it was or how I did it.

Next morning I was sitting on the bed with a hangover when my friend rushed into the room. "No wonder you got so drunk last night," he said. "What do think you were drinking?" He shoved the bill at me. It said, "Scotch vodka, 13."

I was very angry. "How could the bartender make such a mistake?" I said. "He should have known. I told him Scotch and water."

My friend interrupted, "You can't blame him. Arabs don't know much about alcohol. Allah has punished you."

Over the years I have gained the distinct impression that bellboys and bartenders at hotels around the world sometimes hear more than the guest actually says.

On another trip I went with a cameraman to Cambodia when Prince Sihanouk was still in power. We were on a tight budget and had to economize. The only space available in Phnom Penh was in a first-class hotel, and so we took one room there.

That night someone knocked on the door. It was a seedy-looking middle-aged bellboy taking orders for prostitutes. "Girl? Girl?" he said. With two of us in the room already, we thought he was pretty stupid. We said "No thanks" and shut the door.

A little later there was another knock. The same bellboy, grinning slyly, made another offer. "Boy?" Insulted this time, we shoved him out and slammed the door.

Then there was a third knock. "Old man?" the purveyor said this time. He was smiling, his eyes the embodiment of amour.

Really infuriated I yelled, "Stop this or I'll call the police!" A bit stunned, the man thought for a minute and then, shaking his head sadly, said, "A policeman is very expensive, sir."

I can still recall the old bellboy's sad face. Cambodia was under French colonial rule and inherited all the decadent Parisian vices. If you had enough money, you could even enjoy a policeman's charms. It is hard for me to believe that Cambodia became a socialist nation overnight and that hundreds of thousands -- even millions -- of people were slaughtered in the revolution. That can't be the Cambodia I knew.

* * * * *

Japan's Uncommitted Faithful
(From the Asahi Shimbun, May 5, 1981)

Young people and residents of large cities are the groups that most commonly have religious sentiments and believe in the existence of a

supernatural power, according to a recent survey of religious beliefs conducted among 3,000 persons across Japan by the Asahi Shimbun.

Almost two out of three respondents expressed belief in the immortality of the soul. People in the upper age levels comprised well over 60 percent of this affirmative response, while few persons in their 30s and 40s shared the belief. But belief was high in the 20-29 group, reaching almost 65 percent, more than even the older groups. Many women, nearly 80 percent of 20-24-year-olds, believe in the immortality of the soul.

About 70 percent of those surveyed said they did not think scientific progress could ever explain mystical phenomena; over 80 percent of respondents in their 20s expressed this conviction. Residents of large cities were more skeptical of scientific explanations than people in rural towns and villages. There was greater doubt among white-collar workers and executives than among persons working in agriculture or the fisheries industry.

Over 50 percent of all respondents said they "felt there was some form of higher being which transcended man and nature." Of persons in their 20s, 61 percent believed this.

This religious consciousness among young Japanese perhaps explains the persistence of religious customs and mores dating from ancient times.

Fifty-five percent of the respondents said they possess good-luck amulets, 76 percent said they had bought fortunetelling slips and 56 percent said they followed the custom of going to the local Shinto shrine or Buddhist temple on New Year's day to pray for health and happiness.

New Year's visits to a local shrine or temple now seem to be a city practice. More urban than rural residents and more office employees than farming or fishing industry workers make them.

Sixty-two percent of respondents had a household Shinto shrine and 63 percent had a family Buddhist altar. Only about half the late 20s-early 30s' groups had either an altar or shrine, while 90 percent of persons in their 60s and over had one or the other.

Less than half of all participants had both Shinto shrines and Buddhist altars in their homes, while over 20 percent said they had neither. The number of family shrines or altars is decreasing in large cities, but more urban residents have Buddhist altars than shrines.

Many people in Japan observe customs from different religions, such as taking a month-old baby to a Shinto shrine to express gratitude and pray for its health, visiting relatives' graves at a Buddhist cemetery during the week of the vernal and autumnal equinox, and giving presents at Christmas. Seventy-seven percent said they saw nothing strange about participating in the ceremonies of different religions. The response was about the same for both Buddhists and Shintoists.

Nineteen percent of those polled thought this syncretism was absurd. Among Christians, about two out of five opposed participating in another religion's rituals, but the remainder had no objection. This is because in Japan religious life revolves around custom and ceremony, in contrast to the importance of doctrine in the West.

Sixty-two percent said they did not belong to any particular faith, although they indicated some religious sentiment. Those who considered themselves members of a religion indicated the following denominational preferences: Buddhism, 27 percent; Shinto, 4 percent; both Buddhism and Shinto, 2 percent; Christianity, 2 percent; and other religions, 1 percent.

Over 70 percent of people under age 30 had no faith in a particular religion; in the 20-24 age group the figure reached 80 percent. As respondents' ages increased, the percentage of non-believers dropped, falling to about 30 percent for people over 60. Many non-believers are in Japan's 10 major cities, particularly in the Tokyo metropolitan area.

But the majority of non-believers were not atheists in the Western sense. Their religious needs seem to focus on traditional rites and customs; organized religions have not been able to respond to these needs. Perhaps these people should be classified as "uncommitted."

Over half of the 27 percent who called themselves Buddhists were in their 50s or over, and Shintoists were also in the older age group.

Only about two percent were Christians but a relatively large number were young.

* * * * *

Young Women of Little Faith
by Nobuko MORIMURA, Assistant Professor
Sacred Heart Women's College
(From the Asahi Shimbun, May 5, 1981)

Young Japanese women often believe in the existence of a supernatural force and pray for good fortune but they lack religious faith, according to a recent nationwide survey by the Asahi Shimbun.

If religion is considered an orientation toward ultimate values or an encounter with divinity, rather than a means of obtaining personal benefits, Japanese in general do not have a religious approach to life. The combination of certain religious feelings and frequent observances of customary rites but no religious faith is especially marked in 20 to 24-year-old women, according to the survey.

Assuming a connection between anxiety and religion, the questionnaire asked, "Do you often feel some kind of anxiety?" Among 20- to 24-year-old women, 74.5 percent felt deep concern about something: health, jobs, accidents and disasters, and other family members.

But the expected correlation between anxiety and faith did not occur. Only 17.5 percent said they believed in a religion.

Since anxiety does not seem to make these young women religious, we might expect to find they have other ways of dealing with apprehensions. Over 20 percent said they purchase fortunetelling slips at temples and shrines and two-thirds visited a shrine or temple last New Year's to pray for good luck. These rates were the highest for any age group in the survey.

Some young women take omens and fortunetelling fairly seriously, yet a surprising 73 percent did it just for the thrill of probing the future. Less than half pay attention to supposedly unlucky days or

inauspicious yearso Many perform what are generally regarded as religious rites, such as saying a prayer at a temple, without actually embracing a religion.

Another survey question concerned the presence of Buddhist altars and Shinto shrines in the home. Among 20- to 24-year-old women, only 1.8 percent believe in Shinto and 10.2 percent in Buddhism. Yet a majority have either Shinto shrines or Buddhist altars in their homes (52.3 percent and 55.d percent, respectively)o These data confirm that the presence of these articles depends more on family custom than individual faith.

To the question, "Will scientific progress be able to explain all mystical phenomena?" 74.1 percent said "no." (The response by men in the same age group was similar.) Sixty-three percent of the women said they felt "there is some form of higher being which transcends mankind and nature," and 77 percent believe in the soul's immortalityo These percentages were higher than for any other age group of women.

On balance, these responses show a remarkable absence of religious belief. Few young women profess a religious affiliation; they seem to seek divine help only when they are in trouble and regard religion as an expedient to obtain immediate benefits.

How can we explain the paucity of affiliated believers, given the affirmation of the supernatural and an eternal soul? Perhaps young women regard these questions not as matters of religious faith but as part of a secular world viewo Maybe they have not found a denomination they want to join or they appreciate the value of religion without making a personal commitment. In any case, these women don't seem to understand what religion is.

The young women most often cited "compassion" as the quality they would like to instill in childreno But warmth and sympathy toward others demand self-sacrificeo Just admiring these qualities is not enough; children learn them from seeing adults trying to be considerateo I wonder if the women understand this?o

Religious faith involves a spiritual transformation which changes a person's inner life. In truly religious behavior, one does not just ask divine help for something; one must also be prepared to give up every-

thing. Prayer is based on a complete openness to God, a total submission to His love.

Japanese ideas about religion are diverse and ambiguous. Religion is a search for ultimate values, an encounter with the divine. In this, man finds the profound meaning and joy of life. One cannot divide life into religious and secular spheres. We encounter God in everyday life, in every interaction with others.

* * * * *

Easy Riders on the JNR

by Mutsuhiko YASUDA, staff writer

(From the Asahi Shimbun, June 16, 1981)

Japanese National Railway (JNR) employees in Nagoya were recently caught commuting for free on the Shinkansen Bullet Train. The scandal followed three particularly flagrant cases of pass abuse last year in which groups of retired and current JNR employees used their free passes to operate delivery services.

The revelation came as JNR, in a retrenchment drive to reduce huge deficits, has eliminated some local lines and raised fares several times. The public feels that railway officials should put their own house in order before cutting service and raising prices.

The peak travel periods in Japan are "Golden Week" in May, the mid-summer exodus, ski season, and New Year's. Each season the letter-to-the-editor columns are flooded with complaints about railway employees who use their free passes, arrogantly taking up seats in the jammed trains.

During spring vacation, the busiest time for school trips, the mother of a junior high school student complained to the Asahi Shimbun: "The school notice about trip expenses said that children of JNR employees should apply for their special discounts. Other parents have to pay the constant fare increases while JNR employees get cheaper rates for their children. It's not fair."

The national railway has a complex system of passes for current and retired employees and their families. Current employees receive fixed-period passes for work-related travel; usage restrictions vary depending on length of service and position. But nearly all employees with 12 years of service receive a nationwide free pass.

Most employees who retire after 30 years of service get passes good on all JNR lines for eight months each year during the first 10 years after retirement. These passes are good for fewer months annually during the next ten-year period.

Public criticism has gradually reduced the privileges. Free commuting to work by express trains was forbidden (1949), passes for family members were replaced by discount fares (1957), the discount was reduced from 70 percent to 50 percent (1971), and special student passes for employees' children were abolished (1980).

"We take disciplinary action against violations of the rules or abuse of the passes," says JNR executive vice-president Kazumasa Mawatari. "But for the sake of employee morale, the present level of privileges should be continued."

General Secretary Hisashi Muto of the National Railway Workers' Union agrees. "These privileges were in the benefit package when employees joined JNR. To eliminate them now would be unfair," he says. "JNR would have to pay a commuting allowance, a huge expense, plus, all the paperwork," Muto adds.

Another kind of non-paying rider, which union officials privately say should be prohibited, are Diet members and other VIPs who receive special passes.

According to article 37 of the Diet law, "members may ride without charge on all Japanese National Railway lines while the Diet is in session or when travelling on public business."

The parliamentarians can ride in the first-class section on the Bullet Train with their passes. One Diet member from Nagoya travels between his home district and Tokyo on the Shinkansen four times a week. At busy times he has made three round trips in two days on his pass, saving himself \$330 in fares.

JNR says courtesy passes are also given to persons who have performed exceptional social and cultural services and to government offices and private companies that deal extensively with the railway.

The number of such passes in use is unclear. Officials refuse to reveal how many or to whom passes have been given, claiming it would embarrass the recipients.

Several years ago members of the judiciary and the Prefectural Governors' Association decided to return their passes. Yet some governors still have passes. Government officials with passes have been known to use them on trips and later claim travel expenses.

The national railway system also loses revenue from mutual back-scratching by employees of JNR, private railways and municipal transport systems. They informally allow each other to ride free. JNR officials lamely explain that a time-honored custom cannot be abolished overnight.

* * * * *

Japan Honors Christian Social Worker
(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, June 21, 1981)

Ms. Ai Taneda, a social worker, received the prestigious Akamatsu Prize for 1981 in recognition of over 30 years service to the needy and distressed.

Taneda was recently interviewed by Tokiko Fukao of the Yomiuri Shimbun. The following are excerpts from that interview.

"Mother Teresa of India described herself as a drop in the ocean. I think of myself as a crab in a well. I feel as if I have been moving slowly, first in one direction and then in the other, but always walled in by people with problems.

"To me gypsies have the ideal life style: they live simply and are always ready to move on. I've never been interested in medals or prizes. But the Akamatsu Prize commemorates the work of the late Tsuneko Akamatsu, a former member of the House of Councilors and a

revered champion of female workers. It is for women who have devoted their whole lives to grassroots involvement in social causes.

"Today I am the head of a nursery school and the director of its settlement house. But as far as formal training goes, I have never taken any courses in education or social work. I got interested in counseling because of something I witnessed 31 years ago on my 39th birthday.

"I have an apartment in front of this house but I rarely stay there. I live and work right here, on duty 24 hours a day. I keep the apartment as a shelter for abused wives or for mothers fleeing from violent children. My apartment is always being used by people who for some reason cannot go home and suddenly need a place to stay. You do not need a fancy office building for counseling. You can help people in a tent or right on the street. What we do need are emergency quarters for people who have nowhere to go. That's the minimum for effective counseling.

"Formerly it was mostly poor people who came for help, but today our clients have all sorts of problems. Mothers come about their youngsters drinking, or involvement with motorcycle gangs or premarital sex. I also work with many young mothers, their kids are from 10 to 13 years old, who rush in here crying their eyes out about some trouble their children are in.

"What a far cry from the postwar period. Today people are well fed, they're big and healthy. Yet affluence causes new problems. Worry and suffering seem to be part of the human experience.

"I was born into a family of uneducated farmers in Iida, Nagano prefecture. My parents were open and liberal. My father used to say, 'When she grows up, she will learn to discipline herself, like a tree pruning its own branches.' That was my father's philosophy.

"When I was a little girl, no boy ever defeated me in tree climbing. And those boys who teased girls, I really let them have it. I was one girl who wasn't afraid of anything.

"When I grew up, I became a Christian, in 1932, but I was a conventional Japanese girl and got married. We had no children.

"The end of World War II brought a profound change in values. I hated the way I had lived, so completely subservient to my husband. At one point I told him: Japan was defeated, it's a different world now, and I can stand on my own two feet. With that, I left for Tokyo, arriving here on January 7, 1950. It was my 39th birthday. I had been crazy about literature as a young girl, so I had decided to start studying it again.

"Trains from northern Japan come into Tokyo's Ueno Station. In 1950, the Ueno area was a slum full of violence and drugs. There were war orphans and vagrants all around the station district.

"A sight touched my heart. A shoeshine boy was reading a tattered paperback classic in between customers. Without thinking I asked him, 'Where do you live?' While I was talking to him, his little buddies crowded around me. They were so friendly and likable. I suddenly wanted to be their friend and take care of them. I made up my mind right then.

"About 1,500 orphans were living in a kind of encampment in Ueno Park near the station. I settled down in a service center organized by Christians near the camp. I stayed with those orphans for the next nine years, until 1959. I got about 180 of them into a nearby public school. I arranged for them to obtain new family registers, got them dressed in used clothing and made them bathe regularly to get rid of the lice. The lice moved over to me; I was always infested. The orphans called me 'Mama teacher.' I loved those kids.

"In 1959, the Tokyo metropolitan government closed the encampment. By that time, conditions had improved greatly, and the orphans were growing up and could make their own way.

"I moved to a new settlement established by a group of Christians in a slum in Tokyo's Adachi ward. The settlement was the idea of Kenji Ishihara, a former professor at Tokyo Metropolitan University.

"It was the worst area in Tokyo at that time. About 800 families lived there in shacks, packed together like sardines. Most eked out a living as scavengers, foraging through junk bins for wastepaper, rags and scrap metal.

"My tiny rented room was about 3 by 5 feet. I worked out of that room. It was my counseling center.

"So many things happened in that settlement. For instance, once I took a tuberculosis patient to the hospital and became infected myself. I had a fever of 104 degrees for a while.

"I remember an old man who had injured his leg. I put medicine on it but it didn't get better. I found out he had not taken a real bath, in a bathtub, since 1928. We bathed him in a hot tub, scraped the scales away with a hard brush, applied medicine again and bandaged him up.

"I lived there for two years until I became the resident head of Motogi Rimpokan, a welfare facility established nearby. I was a social worker there for 17 years, and I've been in charge of this nursery school for the past four years. So for over 30 years I've dealt with every conceivable human problem: births and deaths, the destitute, marriages and divorces, abortion, illness, and arranging admission to old people's homes, for pensions, funerals and burials. And all the paperwork that went with such problems, including writing letters for people.

"I do not regard this work as either charity or relief, nor did I do it for my own satisfaction. It was just a job that somebody had to do. I shared the sorrows and joy of people afflicted with pain, fear, intolerable pressures. And now, suddenly, I'm 70 years old.

"But I want to keep on working. Problems of the aging are going to become more serious in Japan. The elderly poor without relatives must have institutional care. I would like to work in a facility for the elderly where women and men can enjoy old age together."

* * * * *

Stepmothers and Property Disputes
(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, July 5, 1981)

In January 1981, the share of a husband's property inherited by the wife rose from one-third to one-half. This amendment of Japan's Civil Code reflects the greater importance accorded the wife's role as a partner in the marriage. But the revision has proved a mixed blessing, and property disputes between children and stepmothers have increased.

The husband's children by a previous marriage often try to prevent the second wife's name from being entered in the family register because it would give her a legal claim to the estate.

Tsutomu Masuda, 77, has brought suit against his wife Akiko, 56, (not their real names) in Osaka for swindling him out of his property. When the couple married in 1969, Tsutomu's children tried to prevent their father from entering her name in the family register. He owned several pieces of property, and the children did not want to share his estate with Akiko.

Despite his children's opposition, Tsutomu officially recorded the marriage. When revision of the inheritance law was in the news in early 1980, the children told relatives that they did not want to give Akiko "even one yen" and they notified her of their intentions.

The son set up a real estate company to handle his father's rental property. He also had a prefabricated house built on a vacant lot owned by his father to secure surface rights to the land. When Tsutomu became angry at these moves, the son accused Akiko of turning his father against him.

She countered by having her husband put their residence in her name. When Tsutomu rented a safe-deposit box for bonds and other valuables, she had him authorize her access to the box.

The son retaliated by spiriting his father off to his house. Early this year a law suit charging illegal alienation of property and divorce proceedings were suddenly brought against Akiko in Tsutomu's name. The father is now senile and contradicts himself, but he insisted in Family Court that he had never given Akiko authority to use his safe-deposit box and called her a thief.

Akiko, who now has possession of the bonds and other papers, dismissed the allegations as a vicious plot against her by the son.

Asako Nakamura, founder of the Shigaramikai, an organization of women married to widowers, reports an increasing number of complaints from second wives. Recent incidents have included a woman who was pressured into relinquishing her inheritance rights, a widow who was thrown out by the stepchildren with only the clothes on her back, and a woman who, when told by the stepchildren that she would get nothing from her late husband's estate, committed suicide.

When the inheritance amendment was under discussion in the Legislative Commission, some members suggested as an exception that second wives be entitled to less. They reasoned that this would reduce objections to a father's remarriage. Under the old provision, when the wife inherited one-third of the estate, the second wife often had only common-law status and many matches were broken off because of opposition by the husband's children.

The commission decided that such a distinction could not be written into the law. Husbands who want to give a second wife full legal status and avoid property disputes would have to dispose of their estate either by transferring a part of it to children during their lifetime or through explicit provisions in a will.

Sometimes a husband's will is not binding. Mrs. Kato (not her real name), 58, a Shigaramikai member, was not entered into her husband's family register because his children objected. The husband made a will the morning he was hospitalized but after his death, the children tried to overturn its provisions. They argued that it would be "shameful" to submit the will to Family Court for probate. They also took advantage of the will's vague wording to reduce the wife's share of the inheritance.

"Quite naturally, the husband's children by a previous marriage feel very strongly that the second wife is not entitled to half the husband's property after being married to him for a short period," says Aiko Kamiya, herself a second wife who was formerly a Family Court mediator and is currently an adviser to the Shigaramikai.

Kamiya says that since the children will inherit their mother's share of the father's estate upon her death, there is no conflict. But when a stepmother dies, the children have no claim on her property. Any children by the father's remarriage are entitled to the same share of his estate as offspring by a previous marriage, and they will eventually inherit their own mother's property too.

Kamiya advises, "There is no reason for a second wife to be defensive about her role. But rather than insisting upon her rights under the law, she would do better to be practical about claiming her share of her husband's property."

Problems over an estate arise when the second wife and children are not on good terms. Nakamura says: "There is prejudice against a second wife because she allegedly marries just for money. All the stories and proverbs about stepmothers show how hard it is for second wives to be accepted. Our group hopes to ensure fair treatment and change public attitudes."

* * * * *

What Makes Akemi Run?

by Takao ISHIZAWA, staff writer

(From the Asahi Shimbun, July 11, 1981)

Japan's new long-distance track sensation, a 17-year-old high school senior, is a leading contender for a gold medal in the women's marathon at the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics. In three months last spring, Akemi Masuda set new Japanese records at distances from 3,000 meters to 20 kilometers.

In April, Akemi broke the 10,000 meters record, cutting more than 2 minutes from the old mark. At the Fourth Asian Track and Field Meet in June, she easily defeated New Zealand's Allison Roe, who finished first in the women's division of the 1981 Boston Marathon. Later in June, Akemi won the Sapporo Times Twenty-Kilometer Road Race in near world-record time of 1:11.40.

Akemi has lived, together with three other track team members, with the family of Tsuguo Takita, the school's track coach, since she entered Narita High School in Chiba prefecture.

Track enthusiasts are asking: What makes Akemi run? Yoko Higuchi, who lives in the next room, provides part of the answer: "Akemi even trains in her sleep." Higuchi says her friend often cries out "Never give up!" "Win!" "Keep going!" in the middle of the night.

Coach Takita says: "Akemi is such a hard worker. I have a tough time limiting her workouts, getting her to stop for the day."

In the morning everyone is ready to go to school except Akemi. She is in her room silently doing exercises, a regular before-school routine. While Akemi is obviously a gifted athlete, the secret of her success is the combination of Takita's excellent coaching and her tremendous dedication.

Akemi is 4 feet 10½ inches tall and weighs 38 kilograms. There isn't an ounce of fat on her; she is all bone and muscle. She has superb running form, and her leg muscles ripple as she moves. Akemi weighed 45 kilograms when she entered high school, but by intensive training she has lost seven kilograms. She has turned herself into a running machine.

Extra weight is the enemy of the female athlete. Coach Takita hoped to train Akemi by exercises so her physique would resemble the skinny, muscular European and American women athletes.

Akemi follows a strenuous daily training program: 10 sets of 10 chin-ups and 100 sit-ups each, five sets of 30 reverse sit-ups, 15 sets of 100 arm movements and five sets of 20 push-ups, plus various mat exercises. She gets only a five-second rest period between sets.

Akemi does these exercises after completing her regular running of 10 to 20 kilometers, sometimes extended to 30 kilometers. Mondays and Thursdays are rest days, and Coach Takita lets her run only 10 kilometers, though she wants to run more.

Akemi is a familiar sight in the Narita area, site of Japan's new international airport. She uses the school's 250-meter all-weather running track, and also runs through the beautiful Mt. Narita Park behind the school and along the city's hilly streets. She usually

finishes her running and exercises in about three hours and says she is "not that tired."

In the autumn of her freshman year, Akemi's stubborn determination backfired. She became anemic from over-exercise and had to rest until the following June. During the layoff her friend, Yoko, who had run much slower times in 800-meter races in junior high school, improved and beat Akemi's best time.

When Akemi recovered, she pasted slogans like "No one can beat me!" around her room and began training harder than ever. The two girls became fierce rivals. At night they neglected their homework and did extra push-ups and sit-ups. Each covered her head with blankets so the other wouldn't hear the heavy breathing from the secret workouts.

Coach Takita was worried they might both collapse if the rivalry continued. In autumn 1980, he decided that Yoko should specialize in the 800 meters and Akemi run distances from 5,000 meters to the marathon, and the two girls accepted this ruling.

Akemi began running in elementary school. She used to race around the edge of rice paddies and across dry fields with her younger brother while their parents were working on their farm. She gradually began to run longer distances, as far as nearby mountains. Akemi discovered that she had a strong heart and lungs.

Akemi says shyly that she wants to excel in the kitchen too, but she does not get much chance to learn. While Yoko helps Mrs. Takita prepare meals, Akemi's job is to play with the Takita's 3rd-grade son.

According to Coach Takita, "Akemi is a sweet, unspoiled girl, still a kid. She's a good playmate for my eldest son, though they sometimes fight."

Akemi's naivete may reflect a decision to put all her energies into training. Behind that cute smile is a budding young lady. When popular actor Sakae Takita, the coach's younger brother and Akemi's favorite movie star, visits the house, she is noticeably flustered.

Akemi's great goal, shared by the Japanese track world, is to win the women's marathon in 1984. Yet Coach Takita, who is concerned about her future, has some reservations. He wondered aloud whether "she can

keep up this hard training for another three years until the Olympics. I don't want her to miss out on all the other pleasures of life."

* * * * *

Can't We Loosen Up a Bit?

by Taku MIKI, novelist

(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, evening edition, August 25, 1981)

Last summer I travelled in Northeast China where I spent my childhood nearly 40 years ago. Two impressions stood out: living conditions have improved greatly and there are many more people. The population has increased perhaps three-fold, and that has brought some unemployment problems.

In Shengyang, Talien or Harbin, whenever the group I was with went out for a stroll, people were interested in us. Even on a weekday, when the artist in our group took out his sketchbook to draw a park scene, a crowd gathered. Many were children, but there were adults too. Some were obviously unemployed, just loafing away the time. Yet others seemed to have taken a break from work and come out to have a look at us.

That would not happen in Japan even in places where there are few foreigners. Of course, we are used to foreigners, but more importantly, we just don't have time. In Japan nobody roams the streets looking for the interesting or the unusual, except the harried writer who can't come up with a topic. Everybody else is all hustle and bustle, propelled forward by pressure or responsibility. Few people have the time to be curious.

Violence in the junior high schools and several gory murders by beserk amphetamine users have alarmed the Japanese public. I remember Chinese leader Deng Ziaoping's comment when riding on one of our Bullet trains: "I feel like I'm being whipped along." The speed and quality required to maintain our powerful economy makes people function at peak efficiency. From a technical standpoint, things have been going well.

The school entrance examination system plays a key role. People selected through the highly competitive educational system are screened again on the job where competition for promotion is intense. When they are assigned to positions, there shouldn't be too many round pegs in square holes.

The screening system keeps people on their toes, and the competition will intensify in a slow-growth economy. But the relentless pressure and achievement-oriented social structure which it serves are partly responsible for the increasing delinquency and violence.

In Japan today there is no place for a man without a "legitimate" job. A short while ago I met a young writer of children's literature who told me of his relief when he was awarded a literary prize. Aspiring writers are accused of being lazy: "Their son does nothing but hang around all day." There are so few people "hanging around" that those who do are very conspicuous. In this society, everyone is supposed to be fitted into his proper niche and be working hard.

Meritocracy threatens misfits and the disadvantaged. Sometimes incompetent people get ahead because they went to a prestigious college; the old school tie and old boy network carry them along. This gives us an excuse. We can rationalize that our lack of success is not due to our own inadequacies but because we didn't go to the right schools.

While graduates of the elite schools may get preferential treatment in some fields, generally speaking, in the private sector academic background doesn't count for that much. The reason people make so much of the supposed advantages of attending a top school is that we are actually afraid of a merit system in which failure means incompetence.

No one in this society can be anonymous. We'd like to be more natural, relaxed and self-assured. But we are in a constant identity crisis, uncertain about our own worth and fearful of how others regard us. That accumulated anxiety may be the coiled spring of juvenile delinquency and senseless murders.

I don't mean to say that China is perfect. There are plenty of problems there, but the relaxed way the Chinese have is certainly attractive. Our highly structured industrial society needs some

gentleness. If that's too sentimental, let's say we would benefit from more tolerance and pluralism.

Computers, gene-splicing and space research are bound to make life increasingly complex. As a higher premium is placed on the IQ, the plight of dropouts will be even bleaker. Still we must somehow offer a ray of hope to violence-prone adolescents who despair of the future.

* * * * *

Shamans in Japan's Cities

by Kokan SASAKI, professor of Komazawa University

(From the Nihon Keizai Shimbun, October 6, 1981)

Folk religions are frequently overlooked in discussions of the dominant East Asian faiths, Buddhism, Confucianism and Taoism. But participants at a recent international symposium in Osaka on "The Family and Religion in East Asia" suggested that indigenous practices, particularly shamanism, are tightly woven into the tapestry of the great religions.

A folk belief is of local origin as distinct from more formalistic, imported religions. These beliefs are particularistic, very primitive, and long predate the introduction of other religious traditions.

Shamanism was once considered a premodern remnant that had survived only in remote hinterlands such as northeastern Japan and the string of small islands southwest of Kyushu. Recent studies, however, have discovered many practicing shamans across the country. They have a considerable following even in large cities like Tokyo and Osaka.

According to a survey conducted by a leading Buddhist group, 66.1 percent of its followers knew of a local shaman, and 38 percent had actually visited one. Modern shamans live in high-rise apartment buildings in bustling Tokyo areas like Asakusa or Roppongi. They minister to troubled city dwellers, sometimes via closed-circuit television.

Shamanism is a complex of religious ideas and practices built around the shaman, a charismatic personality capable of direct communication with spirits and deities. A shaman looks into the other world and relates the fate of the souls of deceased family members and ancestors. He becomes possessed by a divine spirit who speaks to those present. The shaman also exorcise evil spirits. Shamanistic practices vary across Asia, but in Japan the prevalent type is spirit possession.

Why do educated, secular-minded men and women turn to shamans for counsel? First, a cult of ancestral spirits is deeply rooted in Japanese culture. Shamans call forth these spirits and, acting as mediums, enable family members to communicate with the deceased. Shamans complement Japanese Buddhism, whose main function is the observance of ancestor worship rituals.

Second, reliance on shamans is closely linked to the widespread belief that some human beings have divine powers. Since antiquity Japanese have deified and worshipped certain illustrious dead persons and even some living individuals. Shinto or Buddhist deities and other spirits were thought to enter such people and transform them into sacred beings. For example, the emperor became a living god when the ancestral imperial spirit invested itself in him during the Shinto rite conducted after his coronation. Similarly, many founders of new religions in Japan became living gods by spirit possession.

Third, in shamanistic religions there is no single omnipotent God. A bewildering profusion of divinities from many religions are worshipped indiscriminately. During shamanistic rites, Shinto prayers are recited along with passages from Buddhist sutras. This syncretism is typical of the religious life of the average Japanese who thinks there is a deity for every occasion and need.

An anthropologist studying religious beliefs in north-central Honshu asked local people how they reconciled their belief in Buddhism with visits to a shaman. He was told that Buddhism is a public religion for family ritual, while shamanism is a private faith for practical benefits and spiritual satisfaction. It was an inspired answer.

* * * * *

Deadbeats Plague Public Broadcasting in Japan
 by Masashi NISHIZAWA and Toshiki TANAKA
 (From the Yomiuri Shimbun, October 31, 1981)

November 1981 was "NHK Viewer Month" as the semi-public Japan Broadcasting Corporation tried to get more of the public to pay their subscription fees. Directors and executives appeared daily on radio and television to promote the network's services and activities.

NHK's recent shift to a highly visible public relations strategy was partly in response to withering criticism in the Diet (parliament) and mass media earlier in 1981. But the main reason was the public's failure to support the subscriber system. The current fee for a color TV set is \$3.82 per month.

NHK recently announced that its fee collection rate for fiscal 1980 was 97 percent, only 0.7 percent less than income tax collection. But the figure is inflated by statistical gimmickry. While the tax collection percentage is based on the total number of taxpayers, NHK's rate includes only persons covered by a contract, or agreement, to pay the fee. Because of loopholes in the Broadcast Act and refusal to pay, only about 70 percent of viewers are actually paid subscribers.

Article 32 of the Broadcast Act stipulates that anyone installing a television set must sign a contract with NHK. Another regulation states that for residences, "contracts will be made by household" and in "business places for each set." There is only one contract per residence regardless of the number of TV sets a family has, while every set in a place of business should be covered.

Tokyo's Imperial Hotel has 778 rooms, each with a TV set. There are 10 additional sets in the hotel for a total of 788. NHK has contracts on only 480.

The Hotel New Otani has 2,055 rooms; there are contracts for only 1,890 TV sets. A huge office building in Tokyo's Toranomon district rents space to 52 companies but NHK has contracts for only seven sets.

Sano Hiroshi, a councilman in suburban Tokyo, has led a movement against paying the NHK fee for over a decade. "Those hotel statistics are not unusual," he says. "A recent survey of police stations and

municipal offices in Kyoto showed that only about 20 percent were paying the fee."

There are about 6.5 million business establishments in Japan, according to figures compiled by the government bureau of statistics. NHK has contracts on only 900,000 non-household TV sets. The network explains its figures as follows.

NHK surveyed a random sample of 5,300 businesses listed in the telephone book. Since the sample included small shops and doctor's offices which are nearly all in residences, they were excluded. That left only 24 percent of the surveyed businesses as potential non-household subscribers, about 1.5 million businesses nationwide.

NHK estimates that 26 percent or 400,000 of these have TV sets and that the average establishment has 2.3 sets. That amounts to 900,000 non-household sets under contract.

According to the NHK estimated breakdown, these 900,000 sets are in hotels and inns (410,000), hospitals and clinics (40,000), restaurants and bars (100,000) and public offices and general businesses (350,000). One would expect NHK to have precise figures instead of vague estimates, but the network does not have accurate data.

The 410,000 TV sets which NHK estimates are in hotels and inns contrast sharply with government and industry statistics. There were 1,142,000 hotel and inn rooms in Japan in 1980, according to the Ministry of Health and Welfare. Industry sources say that the TV installment rate in hotels is nearly 100 percent and about 80 percent at inns. That amounts to about 1 million sets. NHK figures are completely unrealistic.

The data on household contracts, which supply most of NHK's fee income, also shows a huge gap between set owners and fee payers. NHK estimates there were 36.2 million households in Japan in March 1981. Excluding welfare households and others exempt from the fee, and 4 million households without TV sets, 30.8 million households are potential subscribers. Of these, only 27.7 million are paying the fee.

These 3.15 million delinquent households plus the non-paying businesses reduce the fee collection rate to about 70 percent -- a far cry from the official 97 percent.

"Our business staff should have data on the number of delinquents," said an NHK official. "But within the network the subject is taboo. Such figures wouldn't be released. We assume an overall nonpayment rate of 30 percent."

Mitsuhiko Murata, an executive in the audience service division, says, "We're doing all we can to collect more fees. Unfortunately, we can't get more accurate figures because NHK lacks the authority to enter a home or place of business and count the TV sets. We have to find a way to increase voluntary compliance. If the listener fee was made a tax, the collection rate would be 100 percent. But then what would happen to NHK?"

"With so many people not paying, it looks like the system is about to collapse," says TV-radio critic Nobuo Shiga. "If NHK can't do any better, the Broadcast Act should be changed. Those who pay seem like fools. Everyone should have to pay his share."

NHK's Viewer Center in Tokyo received about 4 million telephone calls from throughout Japan in 1980. A supervisor said: "We get all kinds of calls at any hour of the day or night. No matter how absurd we may think the caller is, we must be very courteous. Otherwise, we might lose a subscriber."

* * * * *

The High Cost of Keeping Up With the Tanakas

by Hisako YOSHIZAWA, Home Economist

(From Voice, November 1981)

Many Japanese families keep account books in which they record their living expenses. As a judge of an annual contest sponsored by The Bank of Japan for outstanding management of the household economy, I have examined numerous household account books over the past few years. Some make me smile and some make me angry as I picture the circumstances of people I will never actually meet.

In the accounts of a newly married couple I found an entry for \$6.25 for "socializing," with the explanatory note, "gift for wife's parents when reporting pregnancy." The entry conjured up in my mind an image of a happy young couple buying their parents' favorite cakes on their way to break the good news. I could also visualize their rather frugal life on the husband's monthly net income of \$658, from which they have to pay a hefty amount for apartment rent.

One ledger was compiled by a seaman's wife. In an accompanying note, she complained that her husband was not sending enough money. The woman added that she would divorce him if she can keep the flat they bought, while he continues to provide for childcare. I could not sympathize with that wife.

The records of a man whose job keeps him away from his family bore the remark, "I'm often tempted to drop by a bar after work, but tell myself that by saving the drinking money I can make one extra trip home to see my family. Then back at the apartment, I sing my favorite songs on my daughter's old guitar and pretend I'm at a singing bar."

After perusing hundreds of household account books, I have become aware of one common problem, the rising cost of socializing, which exerts a constant pressure on family budgets. For many families of white-collar workers with yearly incomes falling between \$30,000 and \$35,000, the cost of partying and gift-giving exceeded 10 percent of income.

Social expenses are believed to be the price of good human relationships. Recently, however, they have been turning into a real burden for the family economy. The presents exchanged have shifted from silver and china to cash, and the amounts of cash involved are increasing.

When I ask young people what they want for their wedding presents, the answer is almost always, "I prefer cash." Newlyweds prefer cash because they have their own tastes and because money, even in small amounts, can be accumulated to buy what they really want. It is better than receiving a lot of minor items they do not need.

From the point of view of the one who has to give the present, cash is also easier since there is no problem of selection. But it has its

drawbacks. People tend to be overly sensitive to what is presumed to be appropriate.

In recent years, the ceremonial industries -- wedding halls and funeral homes -- have been flourishing. Every conceivable way has been devised to tempt customers into lavish expenditures by playing on their determination to "keep up with the Tanakss."

Wedding receptions are conducted like nightclub shows, and somehow it has become customary practice for the guests to bring a gift sufficient to cover the cost of their participation in the banquet. If it takes place in a hotel, it costs about \$85 each, or \$170 for a couple. And since that is not a round figure, \$200 is more proper -- and so it goes.

These matters are all prescribed in the "how to" books in those sections devoted to congratulatory and condolence gift-giving. What nonsense! Who has the right to decide such things? But, to our misfortune, once the advice finds its way into print, it is bound too become common social practice.

A few years ago, \$20 was an adequate gift to bring to a funeral service, but now, with the rise in prices, people feel that they must give at least \$35. Then, afraid that such a figure may look too calculated, the offering becomes \$40 or \$50. No wonder socializing costs are rapidly increasing.

In most household accounts, the social expenses at the husband's place of work are entered under the category of "husband's pocket money," or "professional expenses." For those in supervisory positions, such expenses seem to be regarded as necessary evils rather than as outlays insuring good human relationships.

I remember a newspaper account of the suicide of a senior police officer who was hounded by loan sharks. His downfall began when he borrowed money to finance gifts for the marriages of his subordinates.

For white-collar workers in the \$30,000-\$35,000 income bracket, educational costs and support for aged parents are often so onerous that even with adequate incomes they have to make many adjustments. What is more, their socializing costs expand as they grow older. The middle-aged executive is forced to give more than he receives.

Some may argue that social expense is an index of social status. But for the sake of those who have to manage on modest incomes, gift-giving must be returned to reasonable standards.

* * * * *

An Aversion to Children

by Yoshihiko KARITA, Staff Writer

(From the Nihon Keizai Shimbun, evening ed., Nov. 20, 1981)

Japan's birthrate is on a downward course. The 1980 census revealed the total fertility rate (the number of children born by the average woman in her lifetime) was down to 1.74, much lower than the 2.1 required to maintain the population at its present size. If the birthrate continues to sink, the proportion of the elderly will grow, causing serious economic and social problems.

But many young women who hold the key to the nation's demographic stability often say, "I don't like children," "Satisfaction in life comes from a career, not childcare," and so on.

Students in the economics department of Keio University under Professor Masaaki Yasukawa conducted a survey of 3,000 college coeds and working women to tabulate their attitudes toward marriage and childbirth. The data indicate that Japan's birthrate may continue to decline.

Unlike their European and American counterparts, Japanese young women are still as pro-marriage as ever. In the Keio survey, more than 90 percent of respondents expressed the desire to get married. However, late marriages are becoming more popular. The preferred age for marriage averages out to 24.9 years (24.7 for students; 25 for working women); compared with 24.5 years in a similar survey of college women conducted in 1972. In the recent poll, an increased number of women stated their intention to marry after the age of 26.

As many as 77.6 percent of respondents want to have their first baby during the 25-29-year span. This was followed by the 20-24-year

period approved by 14.7 percent and then the 30-40 period with 7.6 percent.

Most women who have found satisfaction in their careers want to continue working regardless of childbirth but show a tendency to refrain from having children. However, the majority of younger respondents answered, "I don't intend to continue working after my first child is born."

The 1972 survey gave the number of children wanted as 2.8 per respondent, but the recent Keio poll puts the figure at 2.15 for students and 2.28 for working women. In both surveys, 6 percent of students answered that they did not want children at all. But the percentage of women who want only one child climbed from 3 percent in the earlier survey to 7 percent in the recent poll.

The most dramatic change came in young women who replied two children are enough. Such respondents more than doubled from 28 percent to 59 percent. Women preferring three children decreased from 38 to 24 percent, while those who want as many as four were down considerably -- from 21 to 4 percent.

Reasons given for not wanting children included: "I'm quite happy without them" (34.2 percent); "I don't like children" (18.5 percent); "Raising children is a bother" (18.5 percent); "Children would hamper my career" (5.5 percent); "It costs too much to rear and educate children" (1.4 percent). Although this category of women is still in the minority in Japan, the tendency is growing worldwide, and in the future this group may push Japan's birthrate still lower.

In the past, parents expected children to look after them in their old age. This was a compelling factor behind high birthrates. According to the Keio survey, however, half of today's young women do not plan to depend on their children. Only 13 percent said they want to be looked after by their children. Nearly 40 percent answered, "I don't know," indicating that many women cannot envision their future lives amid an increasingly aging population.

Yet, even those women who do not plan to depend on their children in their old age still feel obligated to look after aged parents, their husbands' or their own (43.2 percent). Others, 24.9 percent, though

less enthusiastic, consider such care a good custom. This shows nearly 70 percent of Japanese women still want to be filial daughters

Almost 40 percent of respondents accept the burden of living with aged parents, giving reasons like, "It's the natural thing to do" (56 percent) or "Aged couples don't have adequate income and have nowhere else to turn" (22.3 percent). Their attitude may change once they get married and actually face the need to care for the husband's aged parents. Nevertheless, their answers do differentiate them from European and American women.

The wide acceptance of family planning, birth control and abortion is a major cause for the decrease in the Japanese birthrate. According to the Keio survey, most women (77.4 percent) support family planning. Eighty percent are knowledgeable about birth control, and many regard abortion as "unavoidable under certain conditions" (61.6 percent), with an additional 13.9 percent approving abortions as an acceptable measure. This suggests that women will continue to practice family planning to control childbirth.

Young women may limit the number of children for diverse reasons. Some want more interesting lives, encouraged by recent ideas of equality between men and women and by advances in education for women. Others are conscious of financial factors, including the need to have time to earn a second income for the family. Dreadful housing conditions also restrain the size of families. A smaller family will be the norm in Japan.

* * * * *

Sexual Behavior in Japan: Girls Outperform Boys
 (From the Yomiuri Shimbun, November 24, 1981)

Girls in Japan are more active sexually than boys, according to a survey commissioned and published by the Prime Minister's Office. The survey was made by the Japan Society on Sex Education (JSSE), a private foundation.

The sampling covered 4,990 male and female high-school and college students in seven major Japanese cities. It was the second survey to be conducted since 1974, and particular attention was paid to the changes that have taken place in the last seven years.

The new data shows that while both boys and girls have become more active sexually, girls in particular have become less reticent about sex.

The findings of the survey aroused considerable public interest. They were the subject of a panel discussion held in Tokyo under the auspices of the Sexual Research Council and the JSSE. Participants included specialists in the fields of education and medicine.

According to the survey, girls have more experience dating than boys at all ages. After the age of 16, the cumulative dating experience of girls outstrips boys by far. At age 19, 50 percent of boys and girls alike have experienced kissing; girls exceed boys in this category by the ages of 20 or 21. In petting and sexual intercourse, too, girls scored higher than they did seven years ago. On the basis of these results, the survey reveals that girls show strong tendencies toward greater sexual activity.

In the panel discussion, essayist Keiko Ochiai doubted whether girls were actually seeking out sexual experiences of their own volition. Many girls, she said, explained they engaged in sexual activities because their partners insisted on it or "for no special reason." Moreover, she felt that the data had been analyzed from a disapproving parental standpoint based on the implicit assumption that young girls today are too interested in sex.

Ochiai receives many letters from junior high-school students. She believes that because of the flood of irresponsible publications about sex, it is difficult for young girls to obtain accurate information. This accounts for the surprisingly large number of adolescent girls who have false scruples regarding sex and suffer as a result. The view that girls are more advanced than boys is misleading, she thinks.

Another panelist, Mariko Sugawara of the Statistics Bureau of the Prime Minister's Office, has just returned from a year of study in the United States. She feels that there is still a vast difference between

Japan and America, where she was told that 70 percent of all teenagers have experienced sexual intercourse. Nevertheless, as the mother of a nine-year-old girl, Sugawara could not help wondering what might be in store for her own daughter. She recognizes that girls are experimenting with sex at an increasingly younger age. She told the panel that there was an urgent need to teach boys to respect females as fellow human beings, and she also called for better sex education.

Moriko Mitsui, a Tokyo high-school teacher, pointed out that the specialists who conducted the survey and analyzed the data were all men. As an educator, she was critical of the fact that the mass media sensationalized the survey with such headlines as "Girls on Top." Those most affected and upset by the irresponsible reporting were junior and senior high-school girls, Mitsui reported.

The fourth panelist, Yoshiko Miya, a free-lance journalist, recently completed a book on misguided sexual attitudes based on a series of interviews with young girls. From her experience, she believes that growing sexual activity is not a choice that girls have made for themselves. In reality, she pointed out, young girls can only think about their own sex as it is seen through male eyes. She concluded that for girls, giving in to demands by their boyfriends was a sign of love.

The official survey revealed a clear difference between boys and girls at the time of the first sexual encounter. While the vast majority of girls questioned consented to sex because they were "in love with" or "liked" their partner, boys for the most part replied that they engaged in sex out of sexual desire or because they wanted the experience.

Ochiai cited a letter she had received from a high-school girl who had refused when her boyfriend asked her to go all the way. "I love him," wrote the girl, "but I couldn't take the plunge. Maybe I really don't love him." Despite the fact that her ability to say no in the first place was an independent act, something to be proud of, the refusal troubled her.

Mitsui commented that the phrase "I love you" is a deceptive expression. "I love you" is a typically male phrase, a clincher,

something a girl would never say herself. But hearing a man say that he loves her is enough to convince almost any girl that she is in love with him, too.

Sugawara pointed out that movies, TV dramas and comic books are very influential in shaping attitudes among the young in Japan. Movies and TV dramas abound with phrases such as "I like you," "I love you," "I'll serve you," "I'm yours." Girls spend far more time watching these movies than they do on their textbooks. They are taught that being loved by a man is the greatest reward a woman can ask for. Sugawara was particularly critical of comic books which cast males in violent, swaggering poses and females in submissive ones.

Other panelists pointed out that this attitude of submission is not the product of comic books alone but is also in fairy tales such as Cinderella and Snow White.

The submissive attitude of women is linked to their lack of economic independence, Mitsui said. The question of whether a woman can afford to say no to a man sums up the modern woman's dilemma.

In conclusion, the panel suggested that the commercialization of sex dominated by male values must be halted. Women must strive to create a new culture giving them greater scope to shape their own lives. The panel also emphasized the need to provide the younger generation with a correct sexual education that stresses the importance of human values.

* * * * *

Common Problems

There's No Free Lunch in Japan

(From the Nihon Keizai Shimbun, January 16, 1981)

Takeshi Sakurada, former chairman of the Japan Federation of Employer's Associations, was recently interviewed by the Nihon Keizai Shimbun. The following are excerpts from that interview.

* * * * *

NKS: The waste and inefficiency in Japan's welfare system were evident in the case of a gangster arrested recently in Fukuoka. Although his estimated income for the past three years was \$237,735, he had been receiving about \$900 per month in government welfare payments.

Toshio Doko, former chairman of the Japan Federation of Economic Organizations (Keidanren), stirred controversy over another form of welfare. When he became eligible for Yokohama's free senior citizens' transportation pass, he renounced it as "a waste of taxpayers' money."

SAKURADA: I myself recently received a pass from the Tokyo municipal government. It lets me ride for nothing on municipal buses and trains as well as on all the private bus lines here. This is paid for out of taxes, of course. Why should everyone over 70 regardless of financial assets get a free pass?

There's a lot of this kind of waste in the nearly ¥9 trillion allocated for social welfare in the 1981 budget. Take medical care for the elderly, for example. The government spends a trillion yen a year

for this. What is the result? The hospitals are monopolized by old folks. When younger people need an operation, there aren't any beds.

Child-support allowances are a classic example of a government handout to win votes. In Japan, the employer pays a family allowance. There's no reason for the state to pay child allowances. But since Western nations provide child support, Japan has to do the same. It's just "monkey see, monkey do." How stupid.

Providing free textbooks is the same thing. The way kids buy comic books these days, why should the government spend \$10 a year per elementary school student and \$16 per middle-school student to give them free books? Child support, free textbooks, and the "give-me" attitude are weakening the parents' sense of responsibility.

If the rampant dependency syndrome isn't cured, Japan won't survive into the 21st century. Restrictions on energy use and slow economic growth are probably here to stay. If the people get used to easy living, a small nation like ours with few natural resources won't be able to make it.

NKS: The late Prime Minister Masayoshi Ohira said in his 1980 administrative policy speech, "we must end excessive involvement by government in people's lives and the over-dependence by the people on the government." It was an appeal for greater self-reliance, but welfare organizations attacked it and public opinion did not support him.

SAKURADA: Mr. Ohira was a good friend for 30 years, from when he was an aide to Finance Minister Hayato Ikeda. He was a leader with a philosophy. Can the same be said about Prime Minister Suzuki? Perhaps it's because he took over suddenly after Ohira's untimely death, but Suzuki doesn't have any vision. Ohira was pressing for "small government" because he sensed a crisis. The way Japan is going, we'll come down with the "English disease."

Speaking from 35 years of experience in industrial management, I know Japan's economic strength stems from competitive enterprises. This means free competition according to certain rules and standards, with management held responsible for the outcome. Once the government starts controlling everything, we'll end up with a lower standard of living like the Soviet Union, China and Eastern Europe.

But the principles of autonomy and free competition are weakening. Look at Japan's rice policy. Because of the protectionist Food Control Act, Japanese rice costs three times as much as California rice and five times Thai rice. Japan may be an economic giant, but the people cannot enjoy the benefits of prosperity as long as the prices for staples are kept artificially high.

Ronald Reagan called for smaller government and got elected, and Mrs. Margaret Thatcher is demanding greater self-reliance from the English people. Both leaders realize that when the citizens lose individual initiative and depend on the government, a society collapses from internal decay. A clear line must be drawn between what the government is supposed to do and the responsibilities of individuals and corporations.

NKS: There is said to be a malaise spreading through Japanese society, the "abuse of public funds"; falsified expense accounts, under-the-table wage payments and other misuses of public funds totalled a record ¥573 billion in fiscal year 1979. Large public works projects like the new Bullet-Train network, which will operate in the red from the start, are launched without real public debate over whether they are needed.

SAKURADA: From cabinet ministers to government enterprises and public corporations, we're afflicted with monstrous tax-parasites who are sucking the lifeblood out of society. These leeches grow fatter every year, and it's up to the taxpayers to revolt against the wasteful use of public monies. Japanese are sensitive to tax increases, but why are we so indifferent to how tax monies are spent?

Regional interests and pressure groups are the greatest budget busters. Elected politicians are captives of these interests. Why do we need three new bridges between Honshu and Shikoku? The long undersea tunnel to Hokkaido is another boondoggle. I went to have a look at the construction site myself. Only 5.5 million people live in Hokkaido. Why build the longest underwater tunnel in the world just so motorists can drive there? The ferry service is quite adequate. Income from tunnel tolls will probably never even pay the interest on the loans

that finance the project. If administrative and fiscal policy aren't brought under control, the tax parasites will devour the nation.

What makes me angriest now is that our leaders -- politicians, entrepreneurs, union heads, bureaucrats, journalists -- have lost the courage to speak out, the power to act. They go along with the extravagant demands of regional organizations and special-interest groups.

When the spirit of self-reliance grows weak and the principles of fair competition and entrepreneurial responsibility are abandoned, a free society is finished. The old aphorism is still true: "He who gives fair words feeds you with an empty spoon." Instead of always listening to glib politicians and opinion leaders who promise a free lunch, once in a while the people should take some bitter advice.

* * * * *

The Social Security Pinch In Japan
by Michinori OHNO, Staff Reporter
(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, January 28, 1981)

Japan's Social Security pension fund will be broke by the year 2001 if workers do not remain in the laborforce longer, according to a report recently released by the Japanese Ministry of Health and Welfare (MHW).

The report summarizes a ministry review of public annuity policy and includes projections of the annuity fund based on the higher rates for pension benefits established in 1980. Payment rates and the fund's long-term fiscal position are reconsidered every four or five years.

Twenty-five million employees in the private sector participate in the annuity system, with management and employees contributing equally. According to ministry forecasts, the number of contributors will increase only slightly, while the larger population of older citizens will double the number of pension recipients every five years.

By 2010, premiums will increase to 30.6 percent of monthly salaries and by 2015 they will reach 34 percent. That high rate will continue

indefinitely. The MHW had previously predicted premium rates of 20.7 percent of monthly wages by 2010 and 22.7 percent by 2015. Now the predictions have suddenly risen 10 percent above these estimates.

The main reason for this dramatic rise is the declining death rate. The ministry's earlier estimates were based on a 1975 actuarial table. Officials are now using a table published in March 1979 which takes into account the longer life expectancy and reduced birthrate recorded in the past five years.

In addition, there has been a substantial increase in annuity payments. The annuity rate for a retiree was set at 60 percent of average salary for a worker in the private sector, exclusive of biannual bonuses. But pensions are also tied to a worker's years of employment. A retired person with a long work career is entitled to a higher pension, more than the original standard.

Premiums are expected to rise again at the next financial reassessment in 1984 or 1985. But if premiums go too high, there will be a reaction by participants similar to the recent backlash in West Germany. The danger point for Japan is unclear, but many expect trouble if pension premiums pass 30 percent of monthly wages.

How can insurance premiums be kept down? Waste must be reduced, of course, but increasing the number of contributors and reducing recipients by keeping older citizens employed as long as possible is the only answer.

A way to do this, as the MHW officially proposed in 1980, is to raise the eligibility age from 60 to 65, regardless of employment possibilities for those over 60.

Conversely, assurance of employment till age 65 would automatically solve the fiscal problem. For example, an employed person would not collect pension benefits until he turned 65, unless he earned only \$750 or less per month. The problem would be retaining a job until age 65. (In major firms and government agencies, mandatory retirement usually comes early, at 57 or 58. Meanwhile average life spans -- at 72.9 for men and 78.3 for women -- are among the longest in the world.) In short, pension fund solvency is linked to employment policy.

But old age means a loss of physical strength and mental quickness. To ensure employment for persons over 60 will require a complete redefinition of job categories and responsibilities. This will have to be done throughout the economy, in both the private and public sectors. There is no alternative in an aging society.

If the government ministries involved do not work together to develop a comprehensive policy, the pension system faces almost certain bankruptcy. But at present, each ministry ignores the crisis, leaving annuity payments up to the Health and Welfare Ministry.

* * * * *

Unwed Mothers Want Privacy Too

(From the Asahi Shimbun, March 14, 1981)

Women's groups are up in arms. The reason -- reams of new red tape in getting welfare allowances for children in fatherless homes. Women claim that some of the new procedures violate basic human rights.

The system of government allowances was begun in 1962 to help children whose fathers deserted the family, disappeared for unknown reasons, died or divorced the mother, and for children of unwed mothers. Children under 18 are eligible. A family's first child gets \$140 a month, a second child \$24, and all others get \$10 each.

The allowances are paid by the central government, but prefectural approval is necessary. The Health and Welfare Ministry (HWM), which issued the new rules, reports that as of December 1980, 460,000 households (710,000 children) are getting allowances. Of these, 27,000 are unwed mothers' households. The 1981 budget allocated \$840 million for allowance payments. The amount has increased by about \$143 million annually the last few years.

Under the new rules, from October 18, 1980, an unwed mother who wants an allowance must state the child's father's name, address, phone number, whether he has a wife, and how much money he regularly sends to mother and child. She must also say if and when he is going to legally

recognize the child, how often he visits, calls or writes the mother or child, and her sources of income.

The HWM rules also authorize district welfare officers to investigate suspicious applications. This was the last straw. Women's groups, buttressed by a larger number of unwed mothers than ever before, are enraged.

The government has also made it harder to collect allowances in the case of paternal desertion or when the father is missing. Applicants must report whether the father has ever committed a crime, his gambling proclivities and whether he ever gets in touch with the family.

Women's groups formed a Liaison Committee to Fight Cuts in Child Allowances and protested HWM's action. Backing down a bit, in December the ministry instructed prefectural authorities to ease up on investigations.

Tomomi Yano, in HWM's Children and Families Bureau, says that many unmarried mothers whose children receive allowances live with a man. "We are criticized for supporting these 'lovers.' The Finance Ministry has urged us to stop being so generous," says Yano.

But Mitsue Yamada, 33, a member of the Liaison Committee, argues that few jobs are open to women and the pay is low. Many unwed mothers do not want to reveal the father's name. Several women apparently were mortified when officials contacted the father by phone. This is a clear violation of personal rights, says Yamada indignantly.

Early this year the Tokyo metropolitan government sent out similar instructions to the local authorities under its jurisdiction. The debate was fierce in the metropolitan assembly's budget committee meeting in March, the opposition side claiming infringement of privacy.

Socialist Soichi Sugahara asked, "Will the allowance be withheld if the new forms are not filled out? In desertion cases, what is the maximum contact the father can have with his family before the allowance is cut?"

Hisao Suzuki, welfare bureau chief, replied, "The allowance may be withheld if applicants fail to prepare all necessary documents. If the household hears from the father within one year, they get no allowance."

He said that during fiscal 1980, out of 7,440 applications, 141 were rejected, many of them from families whose fathers had deserted them.

Teruko Yoshitake, specialist on women's problems, believes the central issue is basic human rights. She speaks for many when she says that a welfare program should help all women who for some reason did not marry the father of the child. "Rigid criteria to decide who should be aided go against the spirit of welfare" said Yoshitake.

Another woman writer, Fuyuko Kamisaka, says: "Unmarried mothers do affront the Japanese family register system. They do not have to be treated the same as legally married women. Otherwise, the welfare system may encourage loose morality. The authorities can infringe upon the privacy of unwed mothers to some extent, but it's going too far to investigate who the man is and how often he visits."

* * * * *

Citizens Combat "Kyushu Mafia"

(From the Asahi Shimbun, April 11, 1981)

A gangland rivalry erupted in a gun battle early last spring in Kita-Kyushu City, and the bosses of two gangs trying to control the city's amusement district were killed. The disputed area has some 4,000 bars, cabarets, and nightclubs and is the major source of income for local organized crime. Within a month, there were six other shootings involving gang members.

In the two months after the first shootout, a police anti-riot unit arrested nearly 80 hoodlums, including 11 involved in the killing of the two leaders. The gangs seemed to have been destroyed.

But by late spring, senior members of both gangs had been released, and they reportedly are attempting to negotiate a reconciliation. Officials fear the gangs may become more powerful than ever by setting up legitimate businesses, as do their more sophisticated counterparts in Tokyo and Osaka.

The underworld in northern Kyushu consists of many small gangs with fewer members than the organization in Tokyo and other major cities. Inter-gang rivalries are bitter, and mob gun battles, rare elsewhere, are frequent. Japan's strict gun-control laws offer criminals little access to firearms, but police estimate that nearly everyone of the 3,300 gang members in Kita-Kyushu has a gun.

Smuggling guns into Japan takes ingenuity. In July 1980, a Buddhist priest was arrested at Narita Airport on his arrival from Saipan, for attempting to bring in 22 hand guns and 1,620 bullets hidden in funerary urns. In the same month, gangsters from Gifu prefecture shipped 200 pistols from Bangkok packed in bags with 70 poisonous snakes, including cobras. The bags, labelled "poisonous snakes," made it through customs at Osaka Airport unopened. Last February, four pistols and 280 bullets were discovered inside the gasoline tank of a used sports car on a freighter from Long Beach, Calif.

The three main sources of underworld income in northern Kyushu, according to police estimates for 1979, were drug sales, \$3,303,000; extortion, \$860,000; and gambling, \$452,000. Gang ownership of business enterprises is rare.

After the February shootings, restaurant association members in Kita-Kyushu City agreed not to pay protection money to gangsters. Owners of restaurants, bars and other establishments reportedly had been paying between \$230 and \$1,360 monthly for protection. These figures are unofficial estimates because businessmen, fearful of retaliation, refuse to provide details.

Intensive police surveillance since February has prevented gangsters from collecting protection payoffs. Whether the owners refusal to pay has ended this source of underworld income remains to be seen.

This is the first time local citizens have organized on a city-wide basis to oppose the gangs. City authorities have finally begun to take effective action. They tightened control over the four city-run legal gambling operations. Proceeds from a three-day meet at the Kokura Cycling Stadium in February rose \$400,000 over the same period a year ago. In the past, part of that money flowed into gangland coffers.

City officials next checked the 50,000 people in an income-supplement welfare program. They found that 90 gang members had been receiving a total of \$450,000 in welfare annually. Of these, 24 who had falsified income statements were immediately dropped.

The third step was to exclude companies with underworld ties from public works projects. According to police sources, 13 construction companies in Fukuoka prefecture, including five in Kita-Kyushu, have gang ties. The prefectural and city governments have decided to revise regulations for public works contracts to make such companies ineligible.

* * * * *

Sexist Court Decision on Citizenship

by Kazumi MORIKI

(From the Asahi Shimbun, April 12, 1981)

The Tokyo District Court's recent decision on the Nationality Law was a devastating blow to Japanese women married to foreigners. The ruling was an unconstitutional violation of the rights of women and their children.

The court said that "although the present law, under which a child born of a foreign father and a Japanese mother cannot claim Japanese citizenship, does involve sexual inequality, it is necessary to prevent dual citizenship. Naturalization is a recourse in such cases."

The plaintiff claimed that her child had a natural right to Japanese citizenship. The suit challenged the Nationality Law because it automatically confers citizenship to children born of Japanese fathers while denying it if only the mother is Japanese.

The law violates the principle of sexual equality and basic human rights guaranteed by the Constitution, and in some cases, results in stateless children. Citizenship through naturalization is not a right; it is a status granted by the state. Why did the court refuse to acknowledge this elementary distinction? The judges presumably were

more concerned with maintaining a narrow definition of Japanese nationality than with human rights.

I don't know when the term "international marriage" came into use, but it expresses a Japanese compulsion to separate people into "nationals" and "foreigners" instead of seeing them as individuals.

In my case, I married a Brazilian man in Belgium, and we have two daughters. After leaving Belgium, we lived in America and Brazil, and in late 1978 we came to Japan. Ever since I've been constantly aware of how the Japanese authorities restrict foreigners.

Compared with living in Belgium and the United States, where both my husband and I were aliens, and then in my husband's native Brazil where only I was, official discrimination against women and foreigners here is a brutal daily experience. There is a vast legal and social disparity in the status of marriages of Japanese males with foreign wives compared to those of Japanese women with foreign husbands.

An alien married to a Japanese woman is subject to the same severe visa regulations about employment, income, sponsorship as any foreign national. Not the slightest consideration is given to the fact that his wife is a Japanese citizen. She can have property, a job, or income here, but it makes no difference. There have been many cases where a husband has been employed by a major corporation on a long-term contract but was issued only a six-month visa.

Among the requirements for naturalization are a certain level of income, some property and continuous residence for a three-year period. Since the children of a foreign father cannot meet these conditions, a Japanese wife abroad who wishes to bring her children to visit relatives here must comply with endless, restrictive visa and entry procedures, even for infants. A woman who must return suddenly to visit an ailing parent faces horrible complications and delays.

Foreigners are still not eligible for social security benefits nor, except in certain localities, are they covered by national health insurance. To have children vaccinated or enrolled in elementary school, a Japanese woman with an alien spouse must make a "request" in advance to the local government office and receive permission.

The foreign wife of a Japanese man is granted almost unconditional entry and residence rights, and citizenship requirements are much easier. Their children are automatically Japanese citizens.

The government still considers marriage in the traditional sense of the bride leaving her home and becoming part of her husband's family. If a Japanese woman goes abroad and gets married, her children are foreigners, while if a foreign woman comes as a bride to Japan, her children are Japanese and her naturalization is made easy. But I don't feel I left Japan by marrying a Brazilian. I am still Japanese.

A group of Japanese women with foreign husbands have formed a Committee on International Marriage. It has nearly 200 members, and their husbands represent some 20 nationalities. The committee meets once a month to discuss such issues as childcare, education, legal and social discrimination against foreigners, and to hear talks by specialists.

Most committee members believe that the child of a Japanese mother should be a Japanese citizen. Problems of dual nationality can be resolved by allowing the child to choose its nationality at a certain age. To prevent children from becoming stateless, a serious infringement of their human rights, the law should be changed to allow either a Japanese man or woman to transmit citizenship.

* * * * *

Flushed Faces But Few Alcoholics

(From the Asahi Shimbun, evening edition, June 16, 1981)

Japan's entertainment districts are thronged nightly with tipsy revelers. Arm in arm, their faces florid from sake or beer, men stagger from bars to the commuter trains for the ride home. But despite the low tolerance for liquor and widespread public drunkenness, Japan has far fewer alcoholics than Europe or the United States.

Many theories about diet, customs and moral standards have sought to explain this anomaly. Now a group of Japanese scientists have

discovered the reason: half of all Japanese have a different body chemistry from Caucasians.

Alcohol taken into the body changes into acetaldehyde. When the amount of acetaldehyde in the blood exceeds a certain level, the face flushes, the heart beats rapidly and a person becomes drunk. The enzyme aldehyde dehydratase in the liver neutralizes this "drinker's bane" by converting it into acetic acid which is excreted as carbon dioxide and water.

While studying in Germany in 1979, Shoji Harada, Assistant Professor of Social Medicine at Tsukuba University, examined the livers of 60 Japanese and 80 Caucasians by electrophoresis. Harada discovered that of the two kinds of enzymes known as aldehyde dehydratase, all the Caucasians had both enzymes but half the Japanese had only one.

Upon his return to Japan in 1980, Harada learned that the same enzymes are also present in minute quantities in the cells of human hair roots. He devised a way of analyzing the cells' enzyme content by electrophoresis.

Harada examined hair samples from student volunteers who had drunk liquor. Every student whose face became flushed lacked one of the enzymes or had only a very slight amount. The students who did not turn red had the highly sensitive enzyme which started to decompose in the presence of a minute quantity of aldehyde.

Further research last spring by a group from Tokyo University's Faculty of Medicine led by Professor Takemitsu Henmi established a link between these enzymes and alcoholism.

Researchers obtained hair samples from 100 alcoholism patients in a Tokyo psychiatric hospital. Analysis of the hair's enzyme content by Harada showed that all but one patient had both enzymes. There was considerable doubt about whether the one exception was actually an alcoholic.

Professor Harada has reached two conclusions from the research so far. First, the reason why half the Japanese population turns beet red from just a little beer or liquor is the lack of the sensitive enzyme. The physiological reaction to liquor makes alcoholism rare among this

half of the population. Their inability to consume liquor is a form of immunity.

Secondly persons with both enzymes have a strong tolerance for liquor and may drink to excess and become alcoholics. Some two-enzyme persons have a definite propensity toward alcoholism. With this half of the population their capacity for liquor is dangerous.

Professor Henmi says: "While drunkenness is common, there are fewer alcoholics in Japan than in the West. The reason has nothing to do with different moral codes as has often been claimed. Our findings show that the different body chemistry of Japanese gives them less tolerance for liquor."

* * * * *

Can the Tottori Sand Dunes Be Saved?

by Minoru MITSUNO, staff writer

(From the Yomiuri Shimbun June 21, 1981)

The shifting sand dunes of Tottori prefecture on the Japan Sea are famous for their beautiful geometric wind-drift patterns. But in recent years the sand has stopped moving and now the dunes are nearly gone. While local officials plan to clear part of a nearby forest reserve to revive them, scientists are pessimistic that they can be saved.

The Tottori sand dunes covered 1,200 hectares until 1953 when nearly 90 percent of the area was reforested under a land conservation program. Today the sand dunes are a small 150-hectare area of beach set aside by the government as a natural scenic wonder.

Nearly 2 million tourists visit the area annually to see the famed natural artistry and romantic images of the undulating sand. But most are disillusioned by what they actually find. Typical comments are, "These aren't the sand dunes I saw in the tourist pamphlet," and "I wanted to view wind-drift patterns, but all I saw were footprints."

Visitors can see shifting sand by walking down to the coastline. But further inland about 30 percent of the area is overgrown with weeds,

thick clumps of crab grass and locust trees, or is bare red clay. Automobile tracks are everywhere. The once-scenic landscape has been virtually obliterated.

In March 1980, a special committee of Tottori University specialists in geology, forestry, geography and meteorology reported that "the dunes face certain extinction." The report stated:

"The dunes are like a living organism. Sand flows into the Japan Sea from the Chiyo River, gets washed up on shore by waves and then is carried inland by northwesterly winds. These winds make the sand dunes shift and flow. But the excessive growth of the forest reserve on the west side has blocked this cycle."

Alarmed by the report, Tottori City sponsored a conference of 15 experts in July 1980 to discuss deforestation as a means of bringing the dunes back to life. The conference concluded that "an 18 hectare area of black pine forest should be cleared to promote sand movement." The Forestry Agency accepted the plan subject to the conditions that cutting would be limited to one time and there would be replacement plantings to prevent damage to outlying areas. The logging can now begin, and if everything goes as planned the sand dunes will return by early 1983.

It is ironical that a forest reserve planted as a conservation move killed the dunes. But scholars at the Tottori University Sand Dune Research Facility wonder if deforestation alone will work.

"The sand dunes now extend too far inland compared to the length of the shoreline which has been reduced by human encroachment, and the natural balance has been upset," said Akiyoshi Matsuda, professor of meteorology.

"This sand dune region was formed over tens of thousands of years, and in a mere 30 years man has ruined it," said Saburo Takagi, professor of geology.

Seiei Toyama, professor emeritus at the same university, has studied the dunes for 30 years and says he has given up on the dunes' inner reaches. "To really restore lively, moving sand dunes, trees would have to be planted in those inland sections where the sand has ceased to drift and more of the forest reserve on the western side must be cut down," he said.

According to another analysis, a decreased flow of sand to the mouth of the Chiyo River has meant less for the wind and waves to pile up and caused the dunes to shrink.

Most of the 2 million visitors each year walk a prescribed course from a bluff on the eastern edge of the dunes, where camels are kept, to the shore. By tramping down the sand, they have also damaged the area.

Several contradictory public policies are in competition: preservation of natural scenery, use of a profitable tourist attraction, land conservation and the regeneration of wind-drift patterns. Buffeted by these shifting human demands, it is no wonder that the sand dunes have almost given up the fight for survival.

* * * * *

Environment Agency Needs Protection
(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, July 1, 1981)

Japan's Environment Agency (EA) celebrated its 10th anniversary in July amidst demands that it be abolished. Just as the Reagan administration has stressed economic recovery and revamped the Environmental Protection Agency, strong pressure in Japan to end restrictions on industrial development has put the agency's future in doubt.

The EA has been caught in a crossfire between business and pro-industry government offices on the one hand and the conservationists and pollution victims on the other. Business leaders and politicians in the ruling Liberal Democratic party (LDP) want to scrap the agency, while environmentalists charge it has degenerated into a licensing office for polluters.

In 1971, the EA was hailed as an environmental superman that would punish commercial predators. Trying to live up to its billing, the agency was determined to police the environment despite the thinly veiled hostility of the business community.

The agency has a tarnished reputation among conservationists today. That was apparent in an angry speech by Teruo Kawamoto, leader of a

group of Minamata disease patients, at a recent Tokyo rally of environmental groups. Kawamoto is one of the Minamata residents who suffer from mercury poisoning caused by the Chisso Corporation dumping industrial waste into coastal waters.

Kawamoto said, "I used to believe that the Environment Agency was an ally of pollution victims. But each year the agency's actions have betrayed our initial hopes and increased our suspicions. They have always tried to keep Minamata patients at arm's length. To us, the EA has been backsliding for 10 years"

Environment Agency chief Hyosuke Kujiraoka's lament to environmental groups echoes Kawamoto. "The political climate has changed," he says. "Since the 1973 oil crisis, people are more concerned about how Japan will survive than about clean air and water. Some even say a little pollution is inevitable."

Kujiraoka asks visitors to "Please support the agency. We're outnumbered in the government."

Demands for "deregulation of the environment" have increased since the 1980 general elections gave the LDP a solid majority in the Diet. A bill requiring an environmental impact assessment of new industrial projects passed only after crucial provisions were deleted. A requirement that the assessment panel include local residents was removed and power station projects were exempted

The LDP and business blocked a plan to limit the total volume of nitrogen oxides factories may emit into the air. They also stopped a bill to ensure water quality standards for lakes.

During the past 10 years, the major types of pollution have changed. A decade ago the problems were highly visible like the Minamata disease and Yokkaichi asthma caused by industrial air pollution. Now low-frequency noises and bad odors are typical issues.

Pollution has become more complex and difficult to prevent. In water contamination and public littering of empty beverage cans, ordinary citizens are the culprits. In many kinds of urban sound pollution, such as electrically amplified singing at bars and street traffic noise, there is no clear line between perpetrators and victims.

Nearly everybody creates the nuisance sometimes and suffers from it at others.

The lack of dramatic issues has reduced anti-pollution activism and hurt the EA's effectiveness within the government. Agency officials say, "There are a host of problems we have to tackle: regulations to control foul odors and industrial dust, automobile and traffic pollution, and offensive noises. Factory smokestacks no longer belch black smoke, but the air is still not clean."

At every opportunity agency officials hammer these facts home to other government ministries. The usual response is, "We have gotten clean air and water again. The pollution crisis is over." The failure to persuade key elements of the bureaucracy has left EA isolated and ineffective.

Although Kawamoto and other environmentalists concede that EA is under fire by bureaucratic and corporate opponents, they still accuse it of timidity and selling-out.

Many in the agency echo the critics. Frustrated young employees say: "We have left too much to self-regulation. We should be taking tougher actions to protect the environment. The original purpose of the agency -- to intervene on behalf of pollution victims -- has been completely forgotten. Few on the staff today have been to a polluted area, smelled the waste and seen the ravaged land or water. During the last 10 years, EA has become just another bureaucratic office shuffling papers and giving orders without any first-hand involvement in the issues."

Older employees also reminisce about the agency's early idealistic days: "We started out in a run-down wooden building. Pollution victims came to our offices every day to plan and work with us." Senior officials confirm that the agency has radically changed from its crusading role in the early 1970s. Now guards at the front gate carefully check all pollution victims and turn away any without appointments.

Shoichi Fujimori, who became deputy director of the agency in July, says: "For the last 10 years, we were like firemen putting out a conflagration. The fire has been brought under control. Now we can

proceed with the kind of environmental administration for which EA was created. Public support is indispensable."

The agency must deal with the many new types of pollution in Japan and global issues like ocean contamination and increased carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. To maintain high industrial productivity in this small, crowded country will require greater efforts.

The EA stands at a crossroads. The choice is between working closely with the public and activist groups as a watchdog over the environment or bowing to special interest groups and being content with occasional press releases of poisonous waste ppm counts.

* * * * *

Drug Use Spreading in Japan

(From the Mainichi Shimbun, July 2, 1981)

A rash of violent crimes by amphetamine users, including several gory street murders, has increased public concern over drug usage in Japan. The number of arrests for drug abuse in 1980 was the highest since 1954, according to the White Paper on Drugs recently issued by the Ministry of Health and Welfare (MHW).

Authorities say the history of drug abuse in Japan can be divided into three periods. The first was the early 1950s when methamphetamines became popular. In the second period, the early 1960s, heroin use spread. Since 1980, amphetamines have become the drug of choice.

In 1980, there were 33,808 violations of the Stimulant Drug Control Act, a 5.7 percent increase over 1979, and 20,200 arrests, up 8.9 percent from the preceding year. The amount of stimulant drugs confiscated in 1980 also rose to 156 kilograms with a street value of \$93 million.

Drug use increased among teen-agers, college students and housewives, and spread to rural areas during the year. Arrests of persons under age 19 increased by 22.4 percent last year from 1979, with teen-agers accounting for one of every 10 arrests.

Several cases were cited in the reports. In September 1980, police in Aichi prefecture arrested a 20-year-old gang member who had been selling amphetamines in a Nagoya municipal crematory. An employee allowed the gang to use the facility for sales to groups of users and for gambling. The drug operation was discovered when a 17-year-old girl attempted suicide after being forcibly injected with drugs.

In August 1980, Kyushu narcotics officials arrested a 30-year-old hoodlum for selling stimulants to motorcycle gang members at a cheap inn for transients in Fukuoka and confiscated 7 grams of the illegal substance. Teen-agers arranged purchases by telephone and then picked up the drugs at the inn.

A 28-year-old Buddhist monk was arrested in Sapporo for selling amphetamines to parishioners, to their children and to teen-age motorcycle gangs. Arrested while making his parish rounds, the priest had 1.7 grams of drugs in his possession.

MHW's Narcotics Division cites several reasons for the increase in drug use: (1) organized crime has established effective sales networks; (2) pushers encourage others to take drugs so they can buy their own supply with the profits, and (3) the main supply sources, in South Korea and Taiwan, cannot be shut off. The division noted the need for greater cooperation with other countries in investigations and exchanging drug intelligence information.

Arrests for violations of Japan's narcotics, opium and marijuana hemp control laws reached 1,855 in 1980, a 13.5 percent increase over 1979. A total of 489 grams of heroin were confiscated in 1980, about 40 times the amount the year before. The equivalent of 5,400 tablets of LSD was seized, 16 times the amount in 1979.

A total of 1,433 persons were arrested for marijuana use last year, the highest number ever, and they accounted for 77 percent of all narcotics violations. Over eight out of 10 marijuana violators were teen-agers.

* * * * *

Japan's 'Korean Connection'
(From the Asahi Shimbun, July 8, 1981)

On June 17, an amphetamine user went berserk on a Tokyo street and stabbed four persons, including two young children, to death. Gunji Kawamata, 29, an unemployed sushi shop worker, also seriously wounded two more women and held another hostage for seven hours until overpowered by police.

The shocking murders were grisly proof that amphetamine use is spreading in Japan, particularly among teen-agers and women. Most of the stimulant drugs, called "white powder" here, are smuggled in from South Korea.

A total of 20,200 persons were arrested in 1980 for violating the Stimulant Drug Control Law, and there are an estimated 60,000 amphetamine users. Police statistics for 1980 show that persons on amphetamines committed many murders and violent crimes.

South Korea is the source of 80 percent of the stimulants smuggled into Japan. Due to stricter police enforcement there recently, Taiwan and Hong Kong "connections" have also developed.

In July, the Tokyo Metropolitan Police Department (MPD) uncovered a Taiwan-Kobe-Tokyo smuggling operation and confiscated 42.5 kilograms of amphetamines with a street value of \$42.5 million, the largest drug bust in Japanese history. The amount seized is still small compared to the estimated two or three tons of amphetamines sold here annually.

The MPD's Vice Division recently scored its biggest success against the "South Korean connection." The police uncovered a complete operation: the drug factories in South Korea, the smuggling vessel, the gang leader in Japan, distributors, peddlers, and users. A total of 296 people were arrested and 7.1 kilograms of amphetamines with a street value of \$8.5 million, 17 pistols, and 85 rounds of ammunition were confiscated.

The leader is Pak No-sik, a former resident of Japan now living in Seoul. His organization's sales in Japan are estimated at 200 kilograms worth \$200 million.

Pak placed an old friend in charge of four subordinates in Tokyo. The organization rented six apartments in northern Tokyo, one to store drugs and the rest as hideouts. The gang members were paid between \$1,250 and \$1,500 per month. They also received a hazardous duty bonus of \$250 for picking up or transferring drugs.

Pak periodically invited key members of the group and outstanding drug sellers for vacations at brothels in South Korea. He also gave them amphetamines worth as much as \$3 million which they could sell on their own.

Insisting on strict discipline to maintain security, Pak forbade subordinates to patronize cabarets and fancy private clubs, or wear flashy clothes. They were ordered not to get involved in any fights, even if provoked, and not to associate with amphetamine users.

Delivery dates and places for shipments were arranged by telephone from South Korea. The drugs were hidden aboard small boats loaded with oyster shells or freighters in Pusan, and delivered to ports in Japan like Hakata in Kyushu, Nishimaizuru, Kyoto prefecture and Shiogama, Miyagi prefecture. Crewmen transferred the drugs to Pak's pickup men.

The amphetamines, packed in tightly sealed one-kilogram plastic bags, were taken to a hideout in Tokyo. There they were repacked in plastic bags containing 10, 50 or 100 grams each. The drugs were stored in an apartment building in Tokyo's Kita ward, and the amphetamines were distributed to middlemen from an office building in a different ward. Pickups were arranged by coded messages to an answer phone equipped with remote-control beepers.

The price to middlemen ranged from \$35,000 to \$40,000 per kilogram. Of this amount, \$30,000 to \$35,000 went to Pak, while the group leader in Japan received \$5,000. The middlemen's price to pushers was \$35 to \$40 per gram, and users paid up to \$1,000 per gram. The police traced checks worth nearly \$1.7 million sent to Pak in South Korea.

Although Pak was arrested by the South Korean police, he was soon released and reportedly is living in a luxurious apartment building in Seoul and rebuilding his organization.

* * * * *

Caring for the Senile in Japan

(From the Yomiuri Shimbun, August 26, 1981)

Japan's Ministry of Health and Welfare recently announced a new policy, effective April 1, 1982, of short-term institutional care for the senile elderly. The program will provide some relief to families caring for an estimated half million senile dementia sufferers.

Senile patients will be admitted to special regional nursing homes for the aged for one week when a family, because of illness or a ceremonial occasion like a wedding or funeral, cannot provide care.

One week is only a brief respite for the family members responsible for the senile parents or relatives. But even a week will be a godsend to harried daughters-in-law who do most of the work.

To complement the nursing home care, the ministry said psychiatrists will visit each institution once or twice a month.

The exact number of elderly persons suffering from senile dementia is not known. In a survey of persons 65 and older conducted in Tokyo in May 1980, the senile numbered approximately 39,700, or 4.6 percent of the total. Of the estimated 10,747,000 persons over 65 nationwide, there appear to be nearly 500,000 senile elderly, most being cared for by their families.

A citizens' group, the Association of Families Caring for the Senile, has demanded public assistance. The Tokyo metropolitan government initiated the first experimental short-term care program in October.

The ministry's plan extends a program begun in 1978 of one-week care of the bedridden elderly. Patients must be certified as senile by a public health center or a local government office.

Nursing homes will be paid a special additional fee of \$8.70 a day per patient admitted under the program. One-third of the fee is to be paid from national funds and the remainder by the local government. The combined costs of the programs for the senile and the bedridden are estimated at \$839.130 for fiscal 1982.

The ministry has requested \$1.3 million for psychiatric counseling. Psychiatrists will be paid \$39 per visit under the program.

Visits are also intended to stimulate research on the senile and develop new ways of treating their condition. According to the ministry, an estimated 10 percent of the elderly in the 944 nursing homes for the aged (70,450 capacity) and 25 percent of those in the 1,311 special nursing homes for the aged (80,385 capacity) suffer from senile dementiaa. At present, they do not receive proper diagnosis or medical treatment.

* * * * *

