



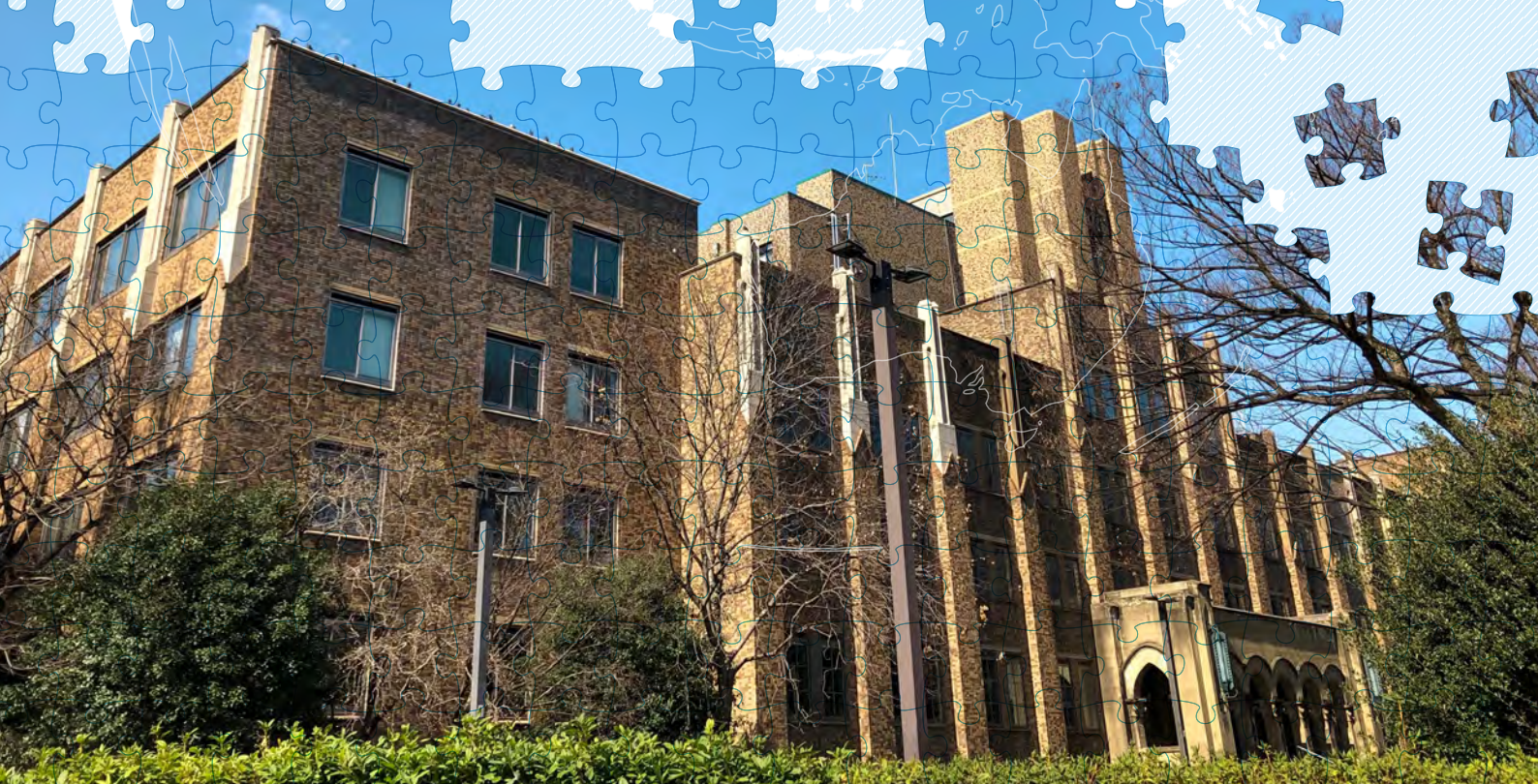
Center for Social Research and Data Archives,
Institute of Social Science, The University of Tokyo



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Study on the learning and life of university students during COVID-19: Summary of a Japanese-Chinese comparison study



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Name Shuai Wang		

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Shuai Wang (The University of Tokyo)

1. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has had a tremendous impact around the world. In higher education, the impact of COVID-19 has affected university students' campus life, including the shift to online classes and restrictions of on-campus access. Particularly for students with financial difficulties, there is a concern that the economic recession caused by the pandemic will affect their families' financial situations, reduce their ability to find part-time jobs to earn living expenses on their own, and deprive them of opportunities to pursue their studies. Against this background, it is necessary to understand students' actual situation, as it is not always clear what kind of life they have, what type of study they do, and what the effects of support measures such as financial aid policies and emergency aid are. In addition, it is essential to verify how students use support measures such as financial aid policies and emergency aid, which have been implemented to support the study of students in low-income brackets, and how their lives are affected.

Furthermore, responses to the pandemic vary depending on the infection situation in each country. China, which is geographically close to Japan, quickly responded to the outbreak of COVID-19 by implementing specific restrictions on entry to university campuses and shifting to online classes. Support for students with financial difficulties was expanded to include providing temporary benefits, subsidies for internet expenses, and deferment of student loan repayments. Although the infection situation has been controlled under the zero-COVID policy since then, due to activity restrictions, the environment was not one in which university students could enjoy their campus life with peace of mind; the background is the same in Japan, albeit to a different degree.

This study focuses on the situation in Japan and China, using survey data to compare the characteristics of student life in the two countries and aiming to understand the whole picture of student life in Japan and China by considering not only the situation during college enrollment but also the situation before entering college and career aspirations after graduation, based on the basic tabulations of the survey.

2. Survey Overview

Survey Period and Method

For this study, we used a web-based survey of college students in Japan and China. The

survey was conducted in Japan in March 2022 with the cooperation of a research company that owns approximately 100,000 university student survey monitors nationwide, and approximately 5,000 monitor members were randomly selected for the survey. The subjects were randomly assigned to each gender, each region, and each grade, and responses were obtained from 3,000 respondents. Furthermore, the Chinese survey was conducted in August 2022 by randomly selecting from the four-year university student monitors owned by a research firm. A total of 1683 responses were collected. For this study, we conducted the survey in Japan in March (the new semester starts in April) and in China in August (the new semester begins in September), which is close to the time when university graduates decide on their career paths, because we wanted to understand the actual situation of university students, especially fourth-year university students, in terms of their employment aspirations and status.

Survey Content and Characteristics

The survey items were designed to focus on the following three phases: students' reason for entering university, their actual situation while in college, and their prospects after graduation. A unique feature of this survey is that the items were designed to allow for comparison between Japan and China. The survey items that can be specifically compared between Japan and China include students' reasons for entering university, how they spend their time while in college, how they spend their living expenses, their use of financial aid and their evaluation of online classes, and their career aspirations after graduation, which allows us to understand the differences and characteristics of Japanese and Chinese university students. On the other hand, considering the differences in these two higher education systems, we prepared options that faithfully reflect the national situation, such as types of financial aid and career preferences. To control for the effects of differences in social background, the surveys also include country-specific attribute information such as household registration information in China, in addition to general attributes such as gender, age, and the number of siblings. The discussion in this paper is based on the items common to both surveys.

Limitations of the Survey

This survey was conducted to examine university students' actual living conditions, allowing us to understand the situation during the pandemic. However, as long as the survey was conducted at a single point, it cannot be compared with the situation before the pandemic. Since the target of the survey was current college students, the precollege situation is merely a review of the past, compared to the responses collected based on their situation of college life and education. In addition, both surveys were conducted by selecting the subjects from the monitors of a survey company, which is not a random sample selection in the strict sense of the word and

is prone to the bias of the survey monitors. However, when the distribution of respondents was checked, there was no noticeable variation, and the bias was less than that of government statistical data on regional distribution, so the reliability of the survey data can be assured, and explanations based on these data are reasonable.

3. Descriptive Statistics of the Survey

3.1 Respondent Attributes

Gender, Age, and Family Structure of Respondents

Regarding gender, which is one of the attributes of the respondents in Table 1, 40% were male, and more than 50% were female in both the Japanese and Chinese surveys. For age, the Japanese survey included a sample of approximately 20% of respondents in each age group from 19 to 22 years old. In contrast, in the Chinese survey, respondents aged 20 and 21 years old accounted for more than 20% of the total sample, and those aged 19, 22, and 23 years old accounted for more than 10% of the total sample. Regarding the number of siblings among the respondents, half of the families in the Japanese survey had two siblings, and a certain percentage had two or more siblings. In the Chinese survey, a large proportion of the families were one-child families, accounting for 40% of the total. Families with a large number of siblings accounted for a small proportion of the whole sample.

Table 1: Respondent attributes

		Japanese Survey (%)	Chinese Survey (%)
Gender	male	41.1	43.3
	female	58.9	56.4
Age	under 18 years old	2.7	2.8
	19 years old	20.9	12.8
	20 years old	22.8	23.7
	21 years old	24.3	25.8
	22 years old	23.8	19.7
	23 years old	5.4	10.0
	24 years old or older	0.0	5.2
Siblings	One (no siblings)	24.0	40.1
	Two (one brother)	50.8	46.3
	Three (two brothers)	20.5	11.5
	Four (three siblings)	3.4	1.6
	Five or more (4 or more siblings)	1.3	0.5

Table 2 Distribution of the sample

		Web Survey	Government Statistics
Japanese Survey	Hokkaido region	3.5	4.1
	Tohoku region	5.9	6.8
	Kanto region	36.4	34.7
	Chubu region	18.0	18.1
	Kinki region	19.7	16.3
	Chugoku/Shikoku region	8.7	8.7
	Kyushu region	7.8	11.3
Chinese Survey	North district	22.3	12.0
	Tohoku district	5.5	7.0
	East district	30.3	30.0
	South-central district	24.9	29.0
	Southwest district	13.1	14.5
	Northwest district	4.0	7.3

Regarding the birthplace of the respondents, Table 2 shows the distribution of responses in the survey and the population distribution in government statistics. In the Japanese survey, the respondents from the Kanto region accounted for 36.4% of the total respondents, the largest share. The respondents from the Kinki and Chubu regions accounted for nearly 20% of the total, while those from the other areas accounted for less than 10% of the total distribution. A comparison with the 2021 population estimates by the Statistics Bureau of the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications of Japan reveals that the sample is similar to the government statistics. The sample obtained from the Japanese survey is adequate to explain Japan's situation as a whole. In the Chinese survey, the most significant number of respondents were from the East district, accounting for 30.3% of the total. Those from the Central, South, and North districts each accounted for 20% of the total, while those from the Southwest district accounted for 10%, and those from the other districts were distributed at less than 10%. Compared to the statistics from the Chinese government's 2020 Population Census, there are slight variations in the population percentages of individual regions. Nevertheless, the results of the Chinese survey in this study are similar to the population distribution in the government statistics and can be considered credible data.

Parents' Education, Occupation, and Income

Table 3 summarizes parents' educational background, occupation, and annual income. First, regarding academic background, in the Japanese survey, 54.5% and 31.6% of fathers and mothers, respectively, had a university degree or higher. On the other hand, in the Chinese survey, the percentage of parents with a college degree or higher was low, totaling only 13.1% of fathers and 11.6% of mothers. Next, regarding occupation, in the Japanese survey, blue-collar workers

accounted for approximately 60% of both parents, while white-collar workers accounted for 27.1% of fathers and 11.4% of mothers. In the Chinese survey, blue-collar workers accounted for approximately 80% of parents, and white-collar workers accounted for approximately 10%.

Regarding annual income, the Japanese survey shows that approximately 10% of fathers were in each of the income groups and approximately 40% of mothers were in the low-income group (Group I). For more than 40% of both parents, the annual income was not known. In the Chinese survey, aside from 10% of the fathers being in the low-income group (Group I) and 6.8% being in the high-income group (Group VI), approximately 20% are in each income group. In the case of mothers, more than 20% were in each of the low-income Groups I and II, nearly 20% were in the middle-income group (Group III), and approximately 10% were in each of the high-income groups (Groups IV and V). The survey shows that in Japan, many women have low incomes, whereas in China, there are a certain number of women in every income bracket.

Table 3: Respondents' attributes (parents' information)

		Japanese Survey		Chinese Survey	
		father	mother	father	mother
Academic Background	below postsecondary education	38.0	62.6	86.5	87.7
	university and above	54.4	31.6	13.1	11.6
	I do not know.	7.6	5.8	0.3	0.7
Occupation	white-collar worker	27.1	11.4	12.7	7.7
	blue-collar worker	61.4	68.5	81.9	82.3
	unemployed	1.7	11.8	3.3	7.7
	other	9.8	8.3	2.1	2.2
Annual Income	Group I	9.3	40.9	10.1	27.8
	Group II	8.2	8.4	18.5	27.5
	Group III	8.0	3.2	23.9	18.4
	Group IV	12.1	2.6	19.7	11.0
	Group V	9.8	1.1	18.0	8.5
	Group VI	4.9	0.7	6.8	3.7
	I do not know.	47.6	43.0	3.0	3.3

Grade and University Information

Table 4 summarizes the attributes of the respondents' grades and the universities they attend. First, regarding the respondents' grades, the Japanese survey collected an almost equal sample for each grade. In the Chinese survey, respondents in their second and third years accounted for 30% of the total, 20% were in their fourth year, and 10% were in their first year. Regarding their major, the Japanese survey respondents were distributed as follows: social sciences (32.6%), science and engineering/agriculture (27.6%), humanities (25.9%), medicine (10.0%), and others (3.8%). In the Chinese survey, the majority of respondents were in the sciences (37.1%), followed by science, engineering, and agriculture (31.3%), humanities

(19.6%), medicine (6.7%), and others (5.3%). Regarding the residence status of the respondents, 70% of the respondents in the Japanese survey answered that they lived at home, and more than 20% responded that they lived in a lodging house or apartment. On the other hand, in the Chinese survey, student dormitories were the most common residence, accounting for 53.5% of the total. The next most common choice was home, accounting for 38.0% of the total. Only 6.2% of the respondents in the Chinese survey answered that they lived in lodging houses or apartments. This survey confirms that for many university students in China, unlike those in Japan, the university is the center of their lives.

Table 4: Respondent attributes (university information)

		Japanese Survey	Chinese Survey
Grade	first-year	25.0	10.9
	second-year	25.0	33.3
	third-year	24.7	31.8
	fourth-year	25.3	23.9
Major	humanities	25.9	19.6
	social science	32.6	37.1
	science, technology and agriculture	27.6	31.3
	medicine	10.0	6.7
	other	3.8	5.3
Living Situation	home	70.4	38.0
	student dormitory	4.1	53.5
	lodging house/apartment	25.6	6.2
	Other	0.4	2.3

Japanese Survey (University Deviation Scores)	55 and above	30.3
	50 to 55	22.6
	45 to less than 50	14.9
	Less than 45	7.6
	I do not know.	24.6
Chinese Survey (University Rank)	national key university	24.2
	province key university	20.9
	general university	46.2
	private university	8.7

Japanese Survey (Installation type)	national	22.3
	public	8.4
	private	69.3

The Japanese survey asked about the deviation score of the university at which the respondent was enrolled, while the Chinese survey asked about the rank of the university. In the Japanese survey, the most frequent response was a university deviation score of 55 or higher, accounting for 30% of the total, except for the "do not know" response. Scores between 50 and 55, between 45 and 50, and below 45 accounted for 20%, more than 10%, and less than 10% of the total, respectively. In the Chinese survey, each of the key universities affiliated with the central and provincial governments accounted for 20% of the total. In comparison, public and private four-year universities accounted for nearly 50% and less than 10% of the total, respectively. Since public universities account for approximately 80% of all higher education institutions in China, this paper excludes respondents from private universities. On the other hand, in the Japanese survey, when respondents were asked about the type of university to which they belonged, the distribution was 22.3% for national universities, 8.4% for public universities, and 69.3% for private universities. Compared to the proportions of national, public, and private universities in the 2021 Basic School Survey by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (10.4% national, 11.9% public, and 74.9% private), this survey has a larger sample of students from national universities and a smaller sample of public and private universities. Nevertheless, the bias is slight, and the sample's representativeness is ensured.

3.2 Study at University

Class Formation

When they were asked in a multiple-choice format how they took classes during the pandemic (Figure 1), the highest percentage of respondents in the Japanese survey chose the face-to-face type (63.5%), followed by the real-time online delivery format (57.2%), on-demand format (54.4%), and high-flex type (26.1%). The percentage of classes that were delivered in a single format, whether

face-to-face or online, is higher than that of those conducted in a combined format, such as high-flex. On the other hand, in the Chinese survey, the highest percentage of respondents (53.5%) chose face-to-face classes,

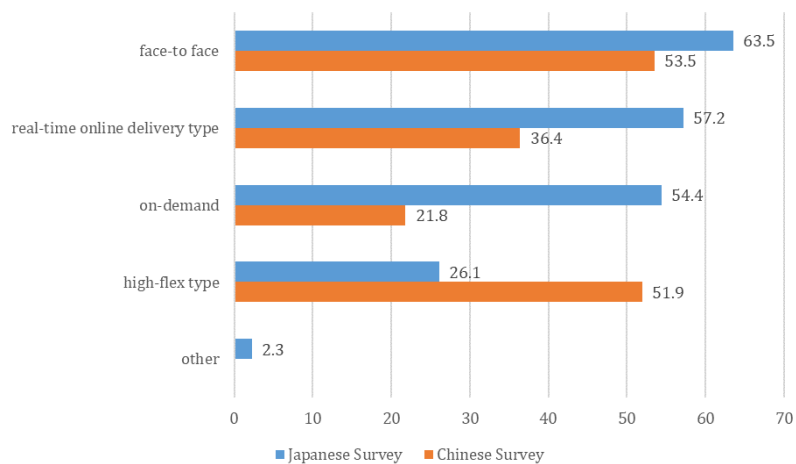


Figure 1: Class format

followed by high-flex classes (51.9%). This shows that face-to-face and online teaching styles are adopted more frequently in China than in Japan.

Evaluation of Online Classes

When the students who took online classes were asked to evaluate these classes (Figure 2), "good" was selected more often in Japan (22.2%) than in China (12.1%). When "somewhat good" responses are

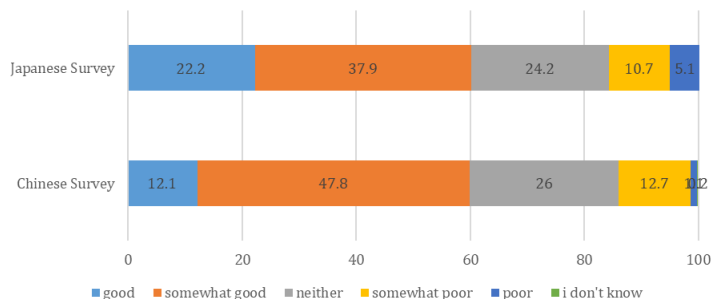


Figure 2: Evaluation of online classes

added, 60% of Japanese and Chinese students rated online classes positively. In both the Japanese and Chinese surveys, the number of "somewhat poor" responses was approximately 10%. Even when the "poor" responses are added, only slightly more than 10% of respondents in both Japan and China evaluated online classes negatively. Overall, online classes received positive evaluations in both Japan and China.

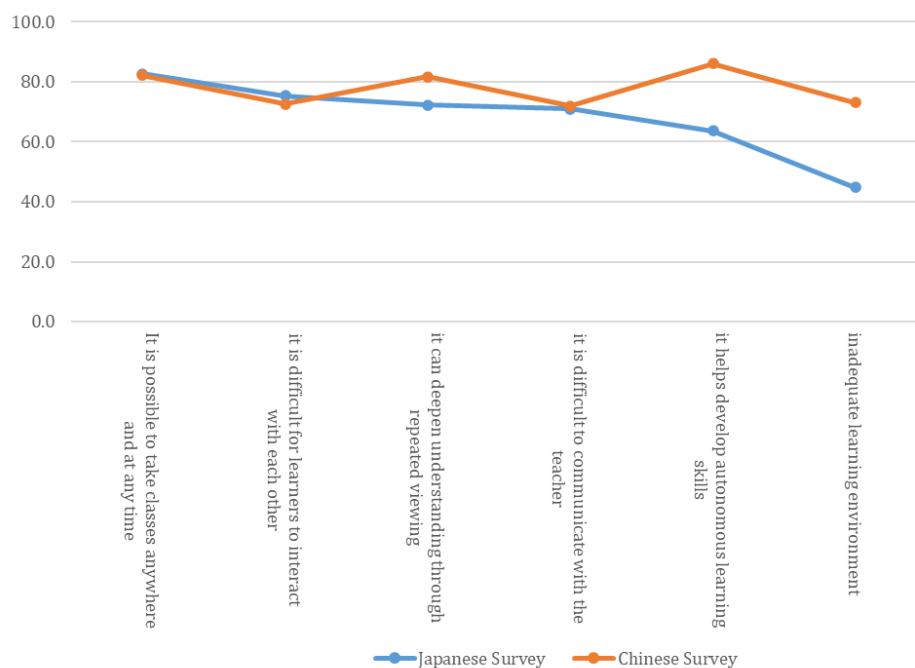


Figure 3: Opinions about online classes

(Note) The figure shows the responses for the "applicable" (the sum of "to a great extent" and "somewhat").

When the students were specifically asked about their opinions about online classes (Figure 3), the percentage who responded positively to the following items was almost the same

in both the Japanese and Chinese surveys: "It is possible to take classes anywhere and at any time," "It is difficult for learners to interact with each other," and "It is difficult to communicate with the teacher." Regarding the item "can deepen understanding through repeated viewing, etc.," 81.7% of the respondents in the Chinese survey gave a positive evaluation, while 72.2% of the respondents in the Japanese survey gave a slightly lower response. In addition, 86.0% of the respondents in the Chinese survey answered "yes" to the item "It helps develop autonomous learning skills." In comparison, only 63.7% of the respondents in the Japanese survey answered "yes." Furthermore, "Inadequate learning environment" was rated higher by students in China (73.1%) than those in Japan (44.8%). In other words, online classes have the advantage of allowing students to take classes without time and space limitations but have the disadvantage of a lack of interaction between students and teachers, a perception shared by Japanese and Chinese students. However, regarding the difficult aspects of conducting online classes, over 70% of students in the Chinese survey evaluated the effectiveness of online classes highly, although they cited the inadequacy of the learning environment. Both the degree to which online classes lead to a deeper understanding of the class and the degree to which they are useful in fostering autonomous learning skills were rated higher in China than in Japan.

3.3 Life at University

Time for Daily Life

The questionnaire asked students how much time they spend per week in university classes, studying outside class, clubs, and part-time jobs. As shown in Figure 4, the most significant proportion of students in Japan, 28.7% of the total, spent less than 5 hours per week in university classes. In comparison, the proportion of students who spend more than 6 hours in university classes is as follows: 6-10 hours (22.0%), 11-15 hours (18.5%), 16-20 hours (11.8%), and 16-20 hours (11.8%). The percentage of students who spend 6 hours or more on college classes decreases to 22.0% for 6-10 hours, 18.5% for 11-15 hours, and 11.8% for 16-20 hours, in that order. In the Chinese survey, the largest percentage of students spent 6-10 hours per week in college classes, accounting for 27.8% of the total. Less than 6 hours per week was selected less than it was in the Japanese survey, while 16 hours or more per week was chosen at a higher percentage than in

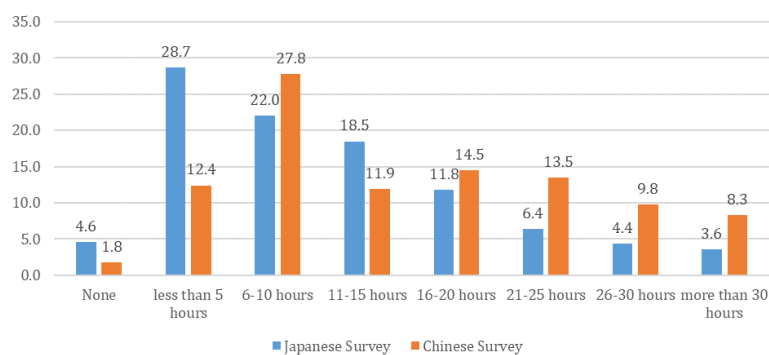


Figure 4: Hours of university classes per week

the Japanese survey. In other words, a more significant proportion of students in Japan spend less time on university classes themselves. In comparison, a more significant proportion of students in China spend more time on university classes. However, this is a simple distribution of the total hours spent in university classes. A more detailed study that considers the differences in curriculum organization by country and courses taken by year and major is needed in the future.

Regarding the amount of time per week spent studying outside of class, 14.1% of the students in the Japanese survey answered "None (0 hours)," while only 2.9% of all students in the Chinese survey chose this response (Figure 5).

This means that there are a certain number of students in Japan who do not study outside of class. The largest percentage of students spent less than 5 hours per week studying outside of class, and this trend was observed in

both the Japanese survey (46.2%) and the Chinese survey (40.9%). However, the percentage of students who spent more than 6 hours per week studying outside class was higher in China than in Japan for all time slots. The percentage of students who spend long hours studying outside of class tends to be higher in China than in Japan.

Regarding club activities, 54.7% of the respondents in the Japanese survey answered "None (0 hours)," while 46.8% of the

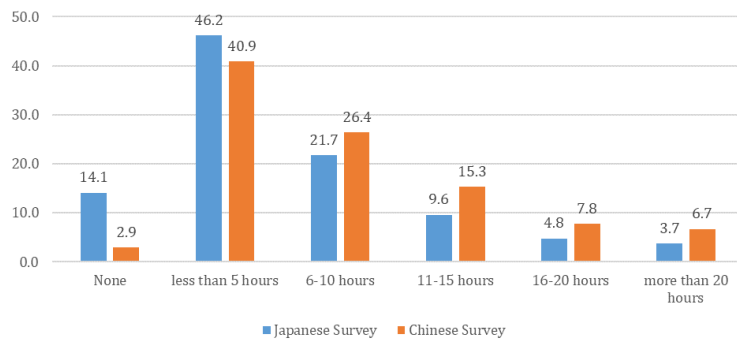


Figure 5: Out-of-class study time per week

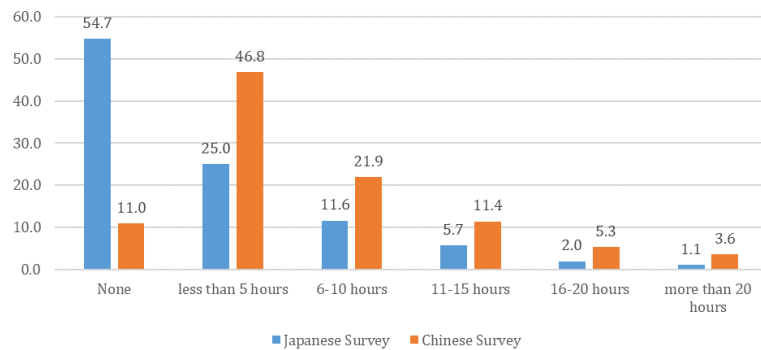


Figure 6: Circle and club activity time per week

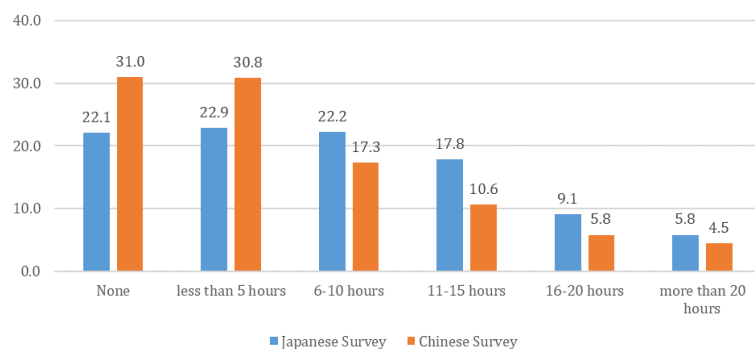


Figure 7: Hours of part-time work/job per week

respondents in the Chinese survey answered "less than 5 hours" (Figure 6). In all periods of 6 hours or more per week, the responses in the Chinese survey were higher than those in the Japanese survey. The impact of the activity restrictions caused by the pandemic on students' extracurricular activities cannot be ignored.

Regarding the hours of part-time work, the responses "None (0 hours)" and "less than 5 hours" per week were higher in China than in Japan (Figure 7). On the other hand, the percentage of students who answered "6 hours or more per week" was higher in Japan than in China. In other words, while many students in China work part-time for short periods, relatively more students in Japan work part-time for long periods.

Financial Aid

Although financial aid policies differ according to each country's situation, the usage of financial aid is summarized according to whether the student needs to repay and the amount of financial aid used (Figure 8). First, those who do not use financial aid accounted for 59% of all students in the Japanese survey and 62% of all students in the Chinese survey. In other words, the number of students who use financial aid is approximately 40% of the total, and this point is common between Japan and China. Next, regarding the type of financial aid, in the Japanese survey, 7% of all students used only grants, 23% of all students used student loans, and 11% used both grants and loans. On the other hand, in the Chinese survey, the scholarships were further divided into merit-based and need-based grants, with users accounting for 2% and 14% of all students, respectively, for a total of approximately 16% of all students. The percentage of students using merit-based grants is higher in China than in Japan. Students who used only student loans accounted for 11% of all students in China, which is lower than in Japan. The tendency for financial aid policies in Japan to focus on student loans is confirmed by this survey.

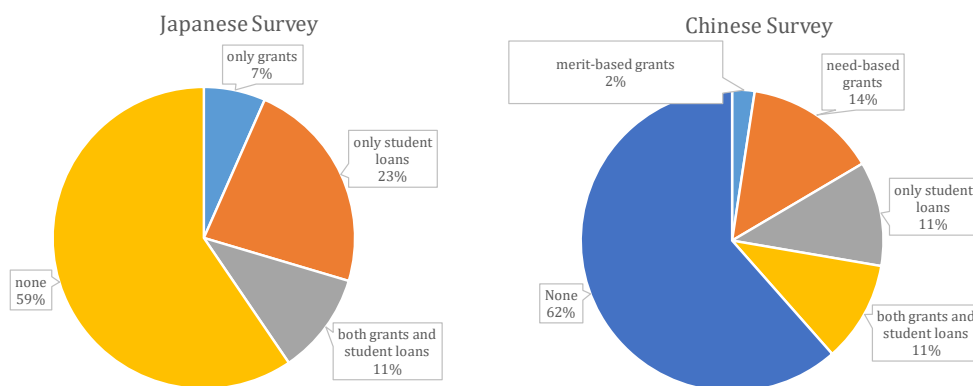


Figure 8: Use of financial aid

Students who used grants and loans accounted for 11% of the total in the Chinese survey, the same as in the Japanese survey.

Income and Expenditures

The students were asked about their income and expenses for the most recent month. Figure 9 summarizes each income item as a percentage of total revenue. In contrast, Figure 10 summarizes each expense item as a percentage of total expenses by whether the student uses student loans.

In the Japanese survey, when the students used student loans, loans accounted for 23.3% of their total income. When grants are added, financial aid accounts for more than 30% of total income, which indicates that financial aid is the primary source of income in the lives of student loan users. Students who do not use student loans have some income from grants, but only a little. In contrast, the primary sources of income are remittances from parents, part-time jobs, and savings. Similar to the Japanese survey, in the Chinese survey, student loans account for a high percentage of income (26.1%), and financial aid exceeds 40% of their total income when grants are included. Students who do not use student loans tend to instead obtain money through grants, remittances from their parents, and savings. Comparing the income distribution between Japan and China, students in Japan tend to have more income from part-time jobs. In contrast, students in China tend to receive a higher percentage of their revenue from their parents. Furthermore, while grants are not a significant source of income for Japanese students, they are an essential source of income for Chinese students, accounting for 20% of their total revenue.

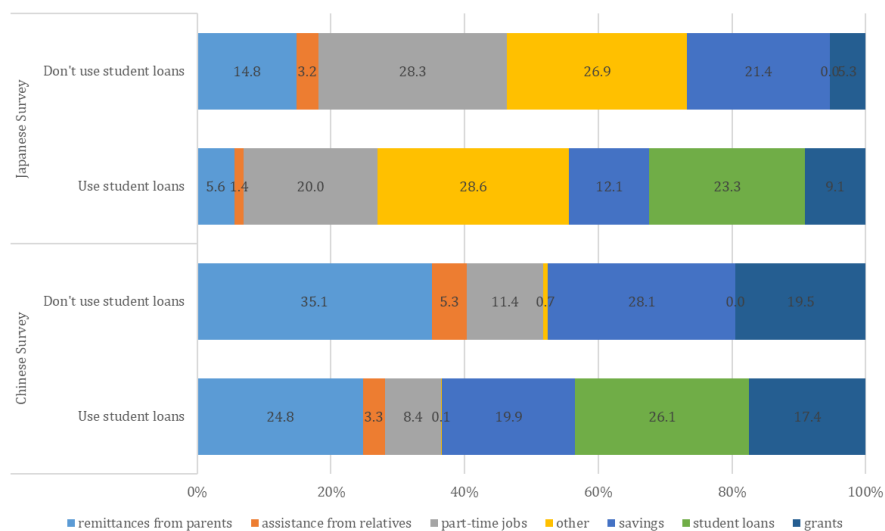


Figure 9 Distribution of income items

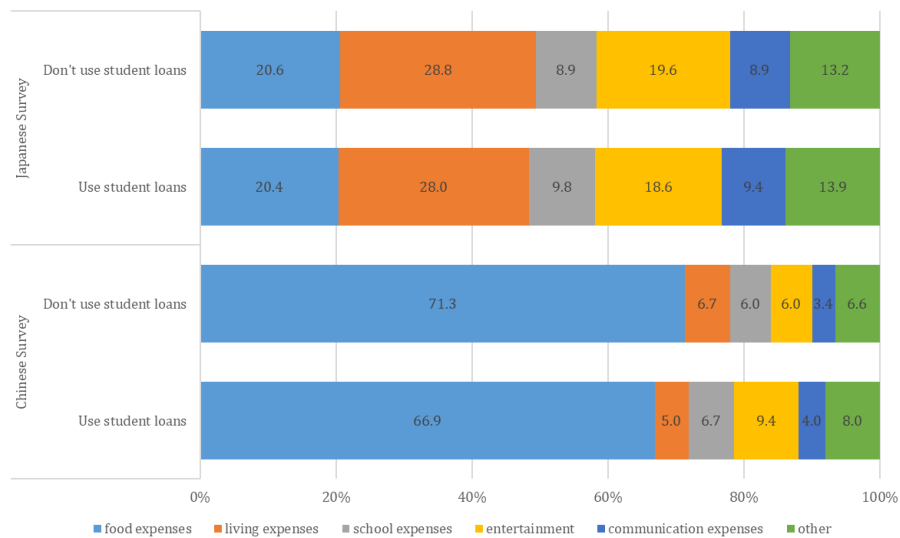


Figure 10: Distribution of expenditure items

Regarding expenditures, there is little difference in each item depending on whether or not a student uses a student loan. However, in the Japanese survey, living expenses/rent accounted for the largest share of expenditures, followed by food and entertainment. On the other hand, in the Chinese survey, the largest expenses were those for food, accounting for approximately 70% of total spending. Each of the additional expenditure items accounts for less than 10% of the total spending. Since most students in China live in university dormitories, their expenses for housing and rent are lower than those in Japan.

3.4 Impact of COVID-19

Impact on Learning and Life

Regarding the impact of the pandemic, the most common response in the Japanese survey was "psychological concerns," accounting for 35.1% of the total (Figure 11). The following most common responses were "cannot study as much as expected" (32.9%), "cannot get a part-time job" (25.5%), and "impact on career choices after graduation" (24.4%). In the Chinese survey, the most common response was "cannot study as much as expected," accounting for 58.2% of the total. Students' next most common response was "psychological concerns" (39.3%), while "postponement of qualification exams," "not keeping up with schoolwork," "cannot get a part-time job," and "financial difficulties" all accounted for approximately 30% of the total. While the pandemic's significant psychological and academic impact is a common feature between Japan and China, Chinese students tend to be more affected by the pandemic in

terms of academics and finances.

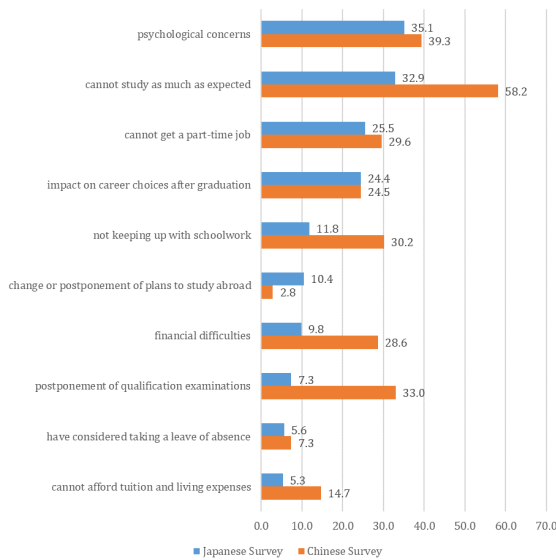


Figure 11: Impact on learning and life

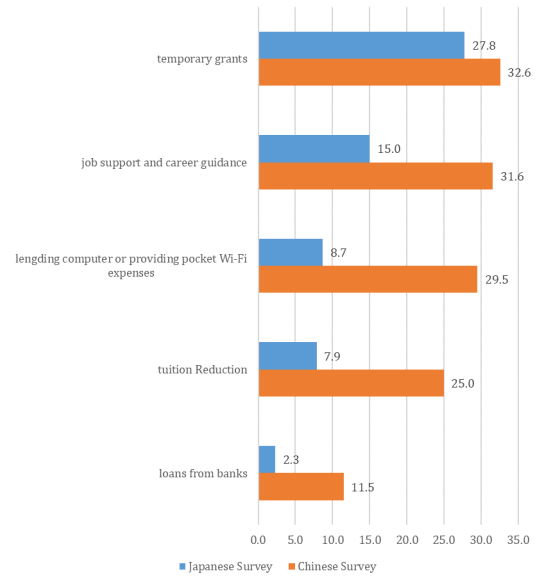


Figure 12: Assistance received due to the pandemic

Support

When the students were asked about various types of support during the pandemic, the responses were higher in China than in Japan for all kinds of support, but the trends in support use were similar (Figure 12). For example, in both Japan and China, the use of temporary grants was the most common, followed by "job support and career guidance," "lending computers or providing pocket Wi-Fi," "tuition reduction," and "loans from banks," in that order, with the responses dropping.

Concerns and Worries

The biggest concern (Figure 13) of students in both Japan and China is as follows: "worried about whether or not I will be able to find a job." In China, more than 80% of students think that the burden of study is heavy, but only approximately 40% of the students in Japan expressed this feeling.

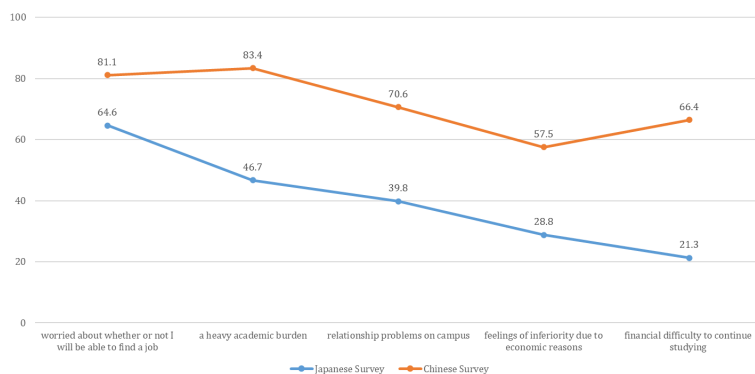


Figure 13: Concerns and worries

The two economic concerns, "feeling of inferiority due to economic reasons" and "financial difficulty in continuing studying," were selected by approximately 20% of the respondents in the Japanese survey and approximately 60% of the respondents in the Chinese survey. The number of students with economic worries and concerns about the pandemic is higher in China than in Japan.

3.5 Career Aspirations after Graduation

Career Aspirations

Regarding career aspirations after university graduation, 75.7% of the students in the Japanese survey indicated that they would like to find a job (Figure 14). Only 14.7% of the students wished to go on to graduate school. On the other hand, in the Chinese survey, approximately 40% of students (39.3%) wanted to start working, but the most significant number of students (48.6%) wanted to attend graduate school. The desired

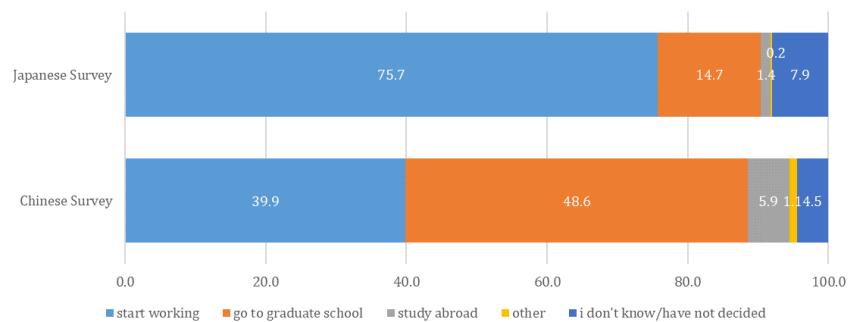


Figure 14: Career aspirations after graduation

career paths after graduation tended to differ between Japan and China.

Employment Preference

In the web survey, we asked the students which job they would like to work at if they wished to find a job (Figure 15). In the Japanese survey, 16% of the students wanted to work in government and educational institutions. Approximately 40% of the students wanted to work in Japanese and foreign-affiliated companies. Few students wanted to work in self-employment, family business, or social organizations, with 34% saying they do not know. In the Chinese survey, 18% of all students wanted to work in government organizations. Students who wished to work in business institutions or state-owned enterprises were the most numerous, accounting for more than half of the total. Fewer students wanted to work in foreign-owned companies, self-employment, family businesses, or social organizations.

Location Preference

Regarding location preference (Figure 16), many students wanted to work in cities or large metropolitan areas with large populations, which is common in Japan and China. For

example, in the Japanese survey, more than half of the students preferred the Kanto and Kinki

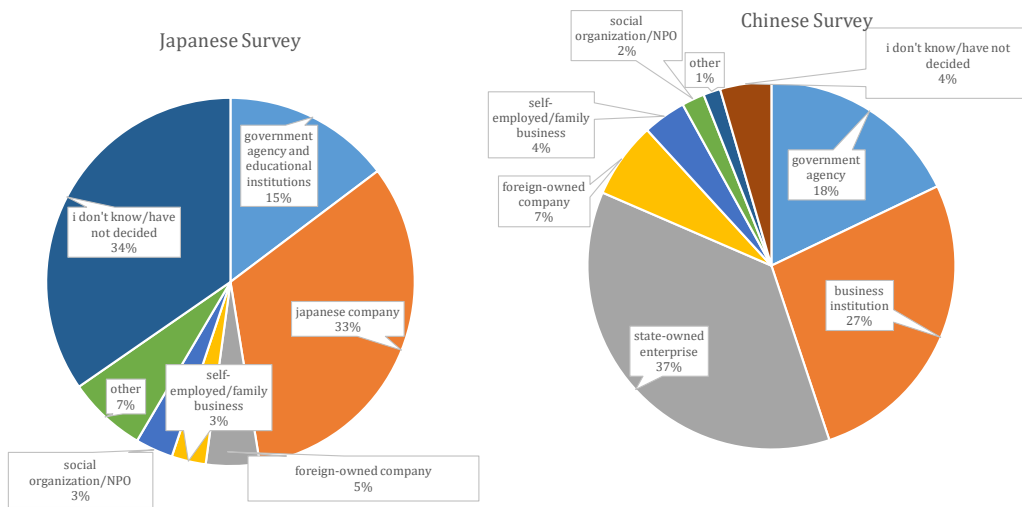


Figure 15: Employment preference

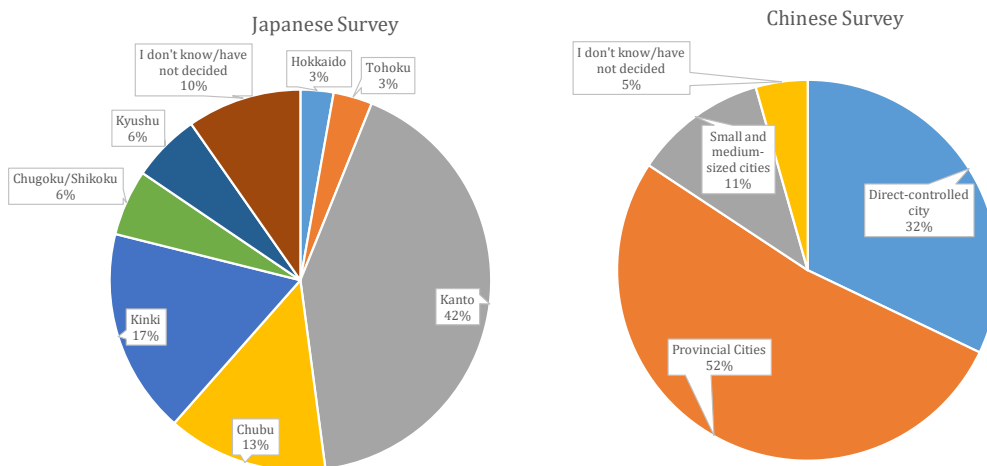


Figure 16: Location Preference

regions. In the Chinese survey, more than 80% of the total number of students wanted to work in a city under direct control, such as Beijing or Shanghai, or in the central city of each province. This indicates that Chinese students are highly inclined to work in large cities.

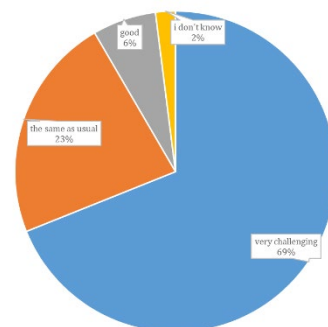


Figure 17: Employment Situation under COVID19 (Chinese Survey)

Employment Situation under COVID-19

While the impact of COVID-19 has been very damaging to students' employment, we asked Chinese students to evaluate the current employment situation (Figure 17). A total of 69% of students answered that employment was "very challenging," indicating that many students face difficulties finding a job. Only 22% of all students responded that the employment situation was "the same as usual," and only 6% said that the employment situation was "good."

4. Conclusion

Based on the basic tabulation of the Chinese-Japanese survey, this paper examines the actual situation of students' lives during the pandemic as well as their preuniversity status and career aspirations after graduation, resulting in the following findings.

Regarding the classes provided during the pandemic, more types are provided in a single format than in a complex design in Japan. In contrast, more classes are given in a complex format in China. Regarding the evaluation of online classes, 60% of the respondents answered in the affirmative, and there was no significant difference between Japan and China in evaluating the ability to take classes regardless of location and interaction difficulty. However, in China, there was a high level of dissatisfaction with the learning environment and a tendency to positively view the cultivation of autonomous learning skills.

While activities are restricted due to the pandemic, the impact of COVID-19 on campus life cannot be ignored, as half of the students in Japan do not participate in club activities. Compared to Japan, more students in China spend more time in university classes and studying outside of class, and more students in Japan spend more time working part-time. Regarding financial aid, we were able to confirm the characteristics of financial aid policies by country, with Japan focusing on loans and China on grants. We also found differences in the distribution of income and expenditures related to living expenses.

Common trends between Japan and China were observed in the effects of COVID-19 on students' learning and psychological aspects and in the fact that many students were anxious about finding employment. We also found common characteristics between Japan and China regarding student support, such as emergency grants, job counseling, and the lending of communication equipment. However, more students in China were affected by the pandemic and had more anxiety than those in Japan. Many hidden issues are associated with the complexity of students' situations, the diversification of their needs, and the difficult employment situations they face.

This paper provided an overview of student life based on the basic tabulations of the Chinese-Japanese survey, and a detailed analysis and discussion of the relationships among the factors will follow.

Acknowledgment

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